3rd Interdisciplinary Tourism Research Conference
03 - 07 June 2014, Istanbul, Turkey

Proceedings Book

Edited by
Nazmi KOZAK, Ph.D.
Metin KOZAK, Ph.D.

Organized by

Ankara, June 2014
All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form, or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without the prior permission, in writing, from the publisher.

© Copyright
Detay Anatolia Akademik Yayıncılık Danışmanlık Org. Turz. Ltd. Şti.
Adakale Sokak No:14/1 06420 Kızılay / Ankara, Turkey

3rd Interdisciplinary Tourism Research Conference Proceedings Book
1. Tourism
2. Hospitality
3. Travel
4. Food and Beverage
5. Leisure
6. Recreation
7. Interdisciplinary Conference

ISBN: 978-605-4940-24-0

Edited by
I. Kozak, Nazmi
II. Kozak, Metin

Typesetting:
Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research
Printed in Ankara, Turkey
Printing date: June 2014
Scientific Committee

Conference Co-Chairs
Nazmi KOZAK, Anadolu University, Turkey
Metin KOZAK, Dokuz Eylul University, Turkey

Conference Advisory Board
Brian ARCHER, University of Surrey, UK
Eric COHEN, The Hebrew University of Jerusalem, Israel
Alan FYALL, Bournemouth University, UK
Juergen GNOTH, University of Otago, New Zealand
Jafar JAFARI, University of Wisconsin-Stout, USA
Luiz MOUNTINHO, University of Glasgow, UK
Pauline SHELDON, University of Hawaii, USA
Egon SMERAL, Austrian Institute of Economic Research, Austria
Stephen SMITH, University of Waterloo, Canada
Paris TSARTAS, University of the Aegean, Greece
John URRY, Lancaster University, UK
Mryiam Jansen-VERBEKE, University of Leuven, Belgium
Allan M. WILLIAMS, University of Surrey, UK
Arch WOODSIDE, Boston College, USA

Scientific Committee
Galal M. H. AFIFI, Helwan University, Egypt
Luisa ANDREU, University of Valencia, Spain
Adarsh BATRA, Assumption University, Thailand
Tom BAUM, University of Strathclyde, UK
Jay BEAMAN, Auctor Consulting Associates, Ltd., USA
Bill BRAMWELL, Sheffield Hallam University, UK
Juan Gabriel BRIDA, Free University of Bolzano, Italy
Joseph CHEN, Indiana University, USA
Giacomo Del CHIAPPA, University of Sassari, Italy
Hwan-Suk (Chris) CHOI, University of Guelph, Canada
Sanda CORAK, Institute for Tourism, Croatia
Lorant DAVID, Károly Róbert College, Hungary
Hasan Isin DENER, Çankaya University, Turkey
Peter U. C. DIEKE, George Mason University, USA
Sara DOLNICAR, University of Wollongong, Australia
Larry DWYER, University of New South Wales, Australia
Daniel R. FESENMAIER, Temple University, USA
Andrew J. FREW, Queen Margaret University College, UK
Isabelle FROCHOT, University of Savoie, France
William C. GARTNER, University of Minnesota, USA
Szilvia GYIMOTHY, University of Lunds, Sweden
Antti J. HAAHTI, University of Lapland, Finland
Michael C. HALL, University of Otago, New Zealand
Jan Vidar HAUKELAND, Institute of Transport Economics, Norway
Steve F. ILLUM, Southwest Missouri State University, USA
Anne-Mette HJALAGER, The Aarhus School of Business, Denmark
SooCheong (Shawn) JANG, Purdue University, USA
Carson C. JENKINS, International Hotel Management Institute, Switzerland
Catalina JUANEDA, University of Balearic Islands, Spain
Elisabeth KASTENHOLZ, University of Aveiro, Portugal
Aise KIM, University of South Australia, Australia
Rob LAW, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, China
Christian LAESSER, University of St. Galen, Switzerland
Berendien LUBBE, University of Pretoria, South Africa
Jim MACBETH, Murdoch University, Australia
Bob MCKERCHER, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, China
Mehmet MEHMETOGLU, Finnmark University College, Norway
Alastair M. MORRISON, Purdue University, USA
Barry O’MAHONY, Victoria University, Australia
Stephen PAGE, University of Stirling, UK
Cody Morris PARIS, Arizona State University, USA
Andreas PAPATHEODOROU, University of the Aegean, Greece
Harald PECHLANER, European Academy of Bolzano, Italy
Lori PENNINGTON-GRAY, University of Florida, USA
Musa PINAR, Valparaiso University, USA
Sung-Soo PYO, Kyonggi University, South Korea
Tamara RATZ, Kodolanyi Janos University College, Hungary
Glenn ROSS, James Cook University, Australia
Regina SCHLUTER, Universidad Nacional de Quilmes, Argentina
Tom SELANNEMI, Aurinkomatkat - Suntours Ltd, Finland
Ercan SIRAKAYA, University of South Carolina, USA
Trevor H.B. SOFIELD, University of Tasmania, Australia
Sevil F. SÖNMEZ, Emory University, USA
John SUTTON, Middlesex University-Dubai, UAE
Harry TIMMERMANS, Eindhoven University of Technology, The Netherlands
Dallen J. TIMOTHY, Arizona State University, USA
Muammer TUNA, Mugla University, Turkey
Muzaffer S. UYSAL, Virginia Tech & University, USA
Boris VUKONIC, University of Zagreb, Croatia
Geoffrey WALL, University of Waterloo, Canada
Karlheinz WÖHLER, Universitaet Lueneburg, Germany
Roy C. WOOD, Oberoi Centre of Learning and Development, India
Honggen XIAO, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, SAR, China
Preface

This is to welcome you to Istanbul in order to participate in the 3rd Interdisciplinary Tourism Research Conference, 3–8 June 2014...

Let us begin refreshing our minds about the mission of this conference organisation. Though tourism academicians widely view tourism as an independent discipline (Kozak & Kozak, 2011), there is much debate concerning the interdisciplinary position of tourism research and teaching. For instance, 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 (Barca, 2012), it has progressed as a multi-disciplinary field (Jafari, 2003; Xiao & Smith, 2006; Tribe & Xiao, 2011). As a result, tourism research has become a part of social-oriented disciplines that requires an emphasis both on industrial training and academic education. From the perspective of education, giving a practical example from both undergraduate and graduate programs, it is clear to see that there are much courses integrating tourism with many others, e.g. sociology, psychology, geography among others. Also, the quality of tourism education has progressed well under the leadership of non-tourism oriented researchers (outsiders) in order to lecture and supervise the future’s tourism researchers (insiders). As to the research perspective, we have no doubt that the capacity of tourism literature has significantly grown both qualitatively and quantitatively with the contribution of these outsiders over the past four or five decades.

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, tourism research seems to have an interdisciplinary identity. Taking this consensus as a reference point, as being its first kind in tourism research worldwide, we felt the significance of introducing another academic event but from a different perspective. In saying so, with its specific name called as the 3rd Interdisciplinary Tourism Research Conference (its first series was held in Turkish, Cappadocia, 25–30 May 2010 and the second series in English, Fethiye, 24–29 April 2012), the purpose of this conference is to emphasize the interdisciplinary nature of such specific field as tourism to create an academic platform to bring together those scholars doing research directly or indirectly in these fields and
also to create harmony within the standard of tourism research. The conference aims to fulfil this purpose by attracting a selected list of participants in two categories. First, it is open for those faculty and/or graduate students who have had a background in a different discipline (outsiders), but have the willingness to expand their research interests into tourism and related disciplines. This category welcomes the submission of papers with single or multiple authors. Second, for those contributors with a background in tourism (insiders), papers are expected to be complete by the cooperation of at least two multiple authors and each author represents a different discipline.

With this in mind, the conference was successful attracting over one hundred submissions representing various fields of tourism research such as planning, geography, economics, management, marketing, architecture, culture and communication among others. Out of 145 submissions, over 80 papers were remained in the conference program for an oral presentation. It also received the interests of interdisciplinary scholars affiliated with a large academic and geographic diversity representing 35 countries, e.g. Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, Croatia, Ecuador, Egypt, Greece, Hong Kong, Iran, Malaysia, Poland, Portugal, South Africa, Spain, Turkey, UAE, UK, and USA etc. We are truly thankful and blessed to have had all the participants whose contributions made this academic event possible and a reference point for future discussions.

The conference program was also enriched with the participation of five distinguished scholars who are internationally well-known with their long standing contribution to the dissemination of tourism research and with their representations of different fields and institutions. Brian Archer, affiliated with the University of Surrey (UK), represents the field of economics and his contribution to tourism economics is outstanding. Second, Stephen Smith, University of Guelph (Canada), has a background in environmental planning and economics and one of the prominent leaders of tourism research in its history. Third, Pauline Sheldon (University of Hawaii at Mānoa, USA) has published mainly on such subjects as wellness tourism, sustainable tourism and knowledge management. Next, Mryiam Jansen-Verbeke (University of Leuven, Belgium) has published much to approach the debate from both archeological and cultural perspectives. As another guest speaker, Bob McKercher (Hong Kong Polytechnic & University, SAR, China) has made a remarkable contribution to the fields of tourist behaviour and tourism marketing. Finally, Chekitan Dev (Cornell University, USA) has focused his research interests on strategic marketing and brand management. We would very much appreciate their significant contribu-
tion to make the conference such a remarkable success as well as sharing their thoughts with such a diversified academic community.

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 Eylin Babacan (Pamukkale University), Nur Kulakoğlu (Dokuz Eylül University) and Gözde Türktarahan (Anadolu University) for their enthusiastic help, patience and hardwork. In addition, we would like to express our gratitude to Kartacatour, Routledge, Istanbul Convention & Visitors Bureau, Ekin Fuarcılık, Detay Yayıncılık, Polar West Tourism and Kadir Has University, as our main sponsors, for their generous support. Without the unlimited support of the above all, we would not have been able to achieve our mission.

In sum, we hope that the output of this conference would provide prosperity for scholars to expand their horizons and understand the significance of tourism research as the catalyst of other research fields and as a tool to become more interrelated in the future.

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

Nazmi Kozak, Ph.D.
Metin Kozak, Ph.D.
Co-chairs

REFERENCES


Contents

Scientific Committee...........................................................................................................iii
Preface. .................................................................................................................................v
Nazmi Kozak - Metin Kozak, Co-chairs
Contents ................................................................................................................................ix

Research Papers

Positioning and Branding a Historic and Prominent Tourism Facility to Promote Revenue Generation .................................................................3
A. J. Otjen

The Impact of Tourism on Income Inequality ........................................................................9
Ahmad Assadzadeh - Akbar Ghasemi - Mohammad Hossein Manafi –
Maryam Saremi - Yadollah Divsalar

The Relationship between Surprise and Customer Delight in Hotel Services: The Influence of Hospitality ......................................................... 15
Ahmad Azmi M. Ariffin - Noor Balkhis Omar

Developing Intercultural Awareness and Skills for Hospitality and Tourism Management Students in China .................................................. 21
Alan Wong - Cathy H.C. Hsu

Tourism and African Big Cats: a Review of Conservation Practices ................................28
Alexa Mossaz - James Guy Castley - Ralf Buckley

Role of Destination Management Organization in Tourism Crisis Management: A Middle Eastern Perspective ............................................. 35
Amitabh Upadhya
The Role of Clusters in Tourism: The Case of Majorca ..............................................41
Antonio Alcover Casasnovas

Transferability of Asian Paradigm in Hospitality Management
to Non-Asian Countries .................................................................48
Athena Chen, Lele - Kaye Chon

Measuring Ecotourists’ Destination Loyalty .........................................................57
Azilah Kasim - Christina Chi - Dogan Gursoy - Jayashree Sreenivasan

The Role of New Media in Tourism Industry Development ......................................65
Aziz Javanpour Heravi - Mousa Kazemzadeh

An Evaluation of Challenges of Iran Urban Tourism Development
Case Study: Tabriz Metropolis ........................................................................71
Behnam Kian - Hossein Hossein Zadeh

Managing a Live Music Performance: A Supply Side Analysis ............................77
Bianca Manners - Melville Saayman - Martinette Kruger

The Extraordinariiness of Ordinariness in Tourism Research ...............................83
Bodil Stilling Blichfeldt - Marie Mikkelsen

Mountain Destination Image: Towards A Conceptual Framework ......................89
Carla Silva - Elisabeth Kastenholz - José Luís Abrantes

Shaping Collaboration in the Context of Tourism: Thuggery
in a Destination Branding Process ...................................................................93
Carlos Larreategui Nardi - Giuseppe Marzano - Gonzalo Mendieta

Green Economy Practices in the Tourism Sector:
The Case of Limpopo Province, South Africa .....................................................100
Charles Nhemachena - Siyanda Jonas - Selma Karuaihe

The Appearance and Development of Ski Resorts in France ..............................107
Claude Sobry - Sorina Cernaianu

Popular Rentierism: The Political Economy of Tourism Development
Mega-Projects in Kuwait .................................................................................113
Cody Morris Paris
The Influence of Cultural Distance on Tourist Profile and Behavior in Comparison With Travel Distance ................................................................. 121
Daisy Suk-fong Fung - Bob Mckercher

Morphogenetic Systems and Geomorphosites: Implications for Geotourism Analysis In Northern Slope of Keyamaky-Dagh Mount.(Northwest Of Iran) ............ 131
Davoud Mokhtari

Overcoming Barriers and Developing Strategies for Achieving Dubai’s Tourism Vision for 2020 .......................................................................................... 137
Esmat Zaidan

The Determinants of Sustainable Tourism and Hospitality Practices in Family Firms .......................................................................................... 144
Esra Memili - Sevil Sonmez - Özlem Yildirim-Öktem - Burcu Koç

Tourism Sustainability Issues in Axios Delta, Central Macedonia, Greece ............ 150
Fotios Kilipiris - Athanasios S. Dermetzopoulos

Title: Emotional Experience During a Visit to a Heritage Site: A Case Study of Auschwitz-Birkenau ................................................................................. 157
Gila Oren - Yaniv Poria - Arie Reichel

EU Directive on Cross-Border Health Care: An Opportunity for Health Tourism in Portugal’s Central Region? .......................................................... 164
Gonçalo Santinha - Zélia Breda

A Review of Life Cycle Model by Plog from a Marketing Perspective .................. 169
Grace K.S. Ho - Bob McKercher

Less Known Destinations as Potential Products for Developing Sustainable Cultural Tourism in Egypt “The Case of Tuna el Gabal” ........................................ 175
Hassan Refaat Hassan - Islam Elgammal - Waheed Atia Mohamed Omran – Magdi Ali Mohamed Selim

How do Portuguese Women Golfers Cope with Gender Inequities? .................... 182
Helena Reis - Antonia Correia - Lee Phillip McGinnis

Diversification Tendencies of Hotels in a Single Asset Tourism City: Evidence from Antalya ................................................................. 188
Hilal Erkuş-Öztürk
Cultural Barriers facing Qualitative Inquiry in a Conservative Society: The case of Yemen

Hussein Abdulqader Al-Gahuri - Azilah Kasim

How Climate Change will Change Jamaica’s Tourism Industry

Ian Boxill - Diaram RamjeeSingh - Anthony Chen

Why Archeological Tourism Does Not Work?: Evidence From Two Discoveries in Kosovo

Isa Mulaj

Americans Traveling to Cuba the Forbidden Communist Fruit

Jackson Wilson - Pavlina Látková - Melissa Camacho

Tourism Development and Social Conflict

Jingjing Yang - Chris Ryan - Lingyun Zhang

The Role of Edu-tourism in Bridging Racial Divides in South Africa

Julia Wells

"Orphanage Tourism" and the Campaign Against "Orphanage Tourism" in Cambodia

Kathie Carpenter

The Economic and Political Utility of Banff National Park

Kathy Rettie

Exploratory Study of Colour and Interactivity Effect of Tourism Websites on Internet Users’ Reactions

Kefi Dorra- Mzali Hassen

Swiss and Italian Identities: Celebrating Heritage and Culture in Regional Australia

Leanne White

Place Marketing Concepts for Slovakia – A Possibility or a Necessity?

Marica Mazurek

Effect of Work Experience on Students’ Perceptions of Hospitality Career Attractiveness and Job Pursuit Intentions

Marlena A. Bednarska - Hania Janta - Marcin Olszewski

Tourism Open Data in Jamaica: An Actor-Network Perspective
Maurice L. McNaughton - Michelle T McLeod - Ian Boxill
Economic Aspects of Preserving Traditional Cultural Landscapes for the Purpose of Sustainable Tourism Development .......................................................... 275
Miha Markelj - Gordana Ivanković

The Effect of international Tourism on CO2 Emissions in D8 Countries: A Panel Data Approach .................................................................................................................. 282
Mohammad Mahdi Barghi Oskooee - Shabnam Parvizpoor

Municipalities, City Councils and the Development of Tourism in Iran ............. 289
Mohammad Taghi Alavi - Mohammad Mazhari

The Impact of Tourism on Income Inequality .................................................................................................................. 295
Ahmad Assadzadeh - Akbar Ghasemi Yalghouzaghaj - Mohammad Hossein Manafi – Maryam Saremi - Yadollah Divsalar

Shifts in Global Economic Power: Implications for Music Culture and Tourism Research .................................................................................................................. 301
Mtafiti Imara - Ranjeeta Basu

Environmental Management System in Tourism Sector: in Case of Marmaris ...... 305
Muammer Tuna - Melike Kaymaz

Comparing Effects of Demographic and Trip Characteristics on Holiday Choice: Evidence from Alanya, Turkey .......................................................... 310
Muhammet Kesgin

Potential Effects of Climate Change on Tourism Industry by Demographic Factors: A study in Turkey .................................................................................................................. 320
Musa Pinar - Ibrahim Birkan - Gamze Tanil - Muzaffer Uysal

New Map for Dubai Tourism Attractions to Maintain Its Top Source Market; the Young Male Saudis Tourists .......................................................... 326
Naeema Al Hosani

Culinary Tourism as a Part of Cultural Tourism Focused on Cultural Motivation in Korea .................................................................................................................. 332
Namhee Lee - Chul Jeong - Jin Ok Shin

An Analysis of the Relationship between Economy Sector and the Tourism Industry from a Data-Mining Perspective ............................................................ 340
Nanxi Yan - Ye Zhang
The Effect of Service Quality on Tourism Industry: Evidence from Medical Tourism Areas ................................................................. 347
Nasser Sanoubar - Safoura Pourreza - Sepideh Ghanbari - Masoumeh Adami

The Role of Tourism Infrastructures in Tourist Attraction to Rural Areas ................................................. 354
Neda Rezaye - Maryam Ghasemi

Innovative System Indicators for Islamic Tourism Using C-PEST Factors ................................................. 361
Nor’Ain Othman - Norzuwana Sumarjan - Salamiah A. Jamal - Mariam Abdullah

The Interpretation and Presentation of Giza Cultural Heritage Site in Egypt ................................................. 367
Osama Ibrahim - Sally Khalil

Collaboration and Rural Development in Tourism Context:
A Conceptual Approach ................................................................................................................................. 370
Parhad Keyim

The Transit Tourists in Hong Kong ................................................................................................................. 376
Priscilla Chau Min Poon - Bob Mckercher

Mazandaran Province Cities and Tourism-Recreation Accessibility to Infrastructures: An Evaluation by VIKOR and SAW Models ................................................................................................................. 383
Rahim Heydari Chianeh - Ali Zolfi - Shahin Alizadeh Zenuzi - Davood Eyvazloo - Hakimeh Imani Tabar

An Application of VIKOR and SAW Models in Tourism Infrastructures Ranking: Cities of Mazandaran, Iran ......................................................................................................................... 392

Tourism Policies in Iran and Turkey: A Comparative Study ........................................................................ 400
Rahim Heydari Chianeh - Seyede Khadijeh Rezatab Azgouni - Behnam Baghbani – Hamid Hodjati

An Analysis of Tabriz Urban Tourism Development: With an Emphasis on Market Segmentation ................................................................................................................................................. 406
Rasul Afsari - Hossein Sadlounia

Football Fans in the Emerging EU: Profile of Spectators of 2012 UEFA EURO Cup ................................................................................................................................. 412
Risto Rasku - Kari Puronaho - Noni Zaharia - Douglas Michele Turco - Serkan Berber – Cem Tinaz
From the Pallet to the Bed - The Development of the Hotel Industry in Krakow in the XIX and the Beginning of XX Century .................................................................418
Robert Pawlusinski - Magdalena Kubal

The Value Effects of Changes in Leverage on Stock Returns: Evidence from the Travel & Leisure Sector .................................................................424
Roberta Adami - Tugba Bas - Orla Gough - Gulnur Muradoglu - Sheeja Sivaprasad – Stefan Van Dellen

Competitiveness of Tourist Destinations and Brazilian Strategy ................431
Rosana Mazaro - Carlos Alberto Medeiros

Biodiversity Conservation and Ecotourism in Semen Mountains National Park, Ethiopia .................................................................439
S.C. Rai* & Behalu Tadessi

Few Words, Mass Effect. Travel Writings and Destination Image: The Case of Venice .................................................................447
Sabrina Meneghello - Federica Montaguti

Destination Branding: Internal Stakeholders’ Perceptions of Alexandria as a Tourist Destination .................................................................454
Sally Khalil - Osama Ibrahim

Alternative Tourism in the South-East of Tunisia: Diagnosis and Marketing Actions .................................................................457
Samiha Chemli - Hassen Mzali - Dorra Kefi

The Contribution of the Tourism Industry to the economy of the Limpopo Province .................................................................464
Selma Karuaihe - Nthabiseng Tsoanamatsie - Lebogang Mashile - Maria Molokomme – Charles Nhemachena

Ecotourism and Iranian Nomadism: A Pure Lifeseeing Case of Bakhtiari Tribe .................................................................470
Seyedeh Khadijeh - Rezatab Azgouni - Rahim Heydari Chianeh - Parviz Izadian

An Evaluation of City Attractions and Tourists Accessibility: Toward Pedestrian & Protection Case of Shiraz .................................................................471
Seyedeh Khadijeh Rezatab Azgouni - Rahim Heydari Chianeh - Maysam Safarpour

Assessment of Geotourism Capabilities, Case Study: Western slopes of Mount Sabalan (Meshkinshahr), Iran .................................................................477
Sh.roostaei
An Evaluation of Geotourism Capabilities: Western Slopes of Mount Sabalan (Meshkinshahr), Iran.................................................................481
Shahram Roostaei

The Transformation of the System of Tourism Organizationsin the Context of Social Changes.................................................................485
Snježana Boranić Živoder - Sanda Čorak - Jasenka Kranjčević

Destination Social Carrying Capacity: A Mass Communication Approach .........490
Steve Pan - Barry Mak

A Gendered Political Economy Analysis of Water and Tourism ......................497
Stroma Cole - Lucy Ferguson

Higher Education in Tourism in Brazil - In Which Scenario it was Created? ........500
Teresa Catramby - Priscilla Dutra

The Ançã Stone in the Building of a Tourist Destination ................................505
Vivina Carreira - Rita Gomes

A Study of Tourism Led-Growth Hypothesis in Iran .....................................509
Ahmad Assadzadeh - MirHojjat NajafiNassab

Indexes

Name index..................................................................................................523
Country index............................................................................................525
Affiliation index .......................................................................................527
RESEARCH PAPERS
Positioning and Branding a Historic and Prominent Tourism Facility to Promote Revenue Generation

A. J. Otjen
College of Business
Montana State University, Billings
E-mail: aotjen@msubillings.edu

INTRODUCTION

The Billing’s Depot is located in Billings Montana and is the premier restored historic tourist destination, for everyone from Presidents to Brides. Built in 1909, the restoration of the first Train Depot of Montana served as the anchor to a revitalized downtown Billings. It is managed by the Billings Chamber of Commerce as a non-profit tourist and event venue, offering trade show, event, wedding, and business meeting hospitality options. Billings, Montana, is the northern gateway to the world-renowned Yellowstone National Park, and the vast wilderness of Montana. Primarily funded through event revenues, donations from tourists and local residents, effective branding and marketing are crucial for it to provide maintenance, management, and development.

This article presents a 2012 student-driven brand development and marketing campaign designed to create greater visibility and name recognition for the Billings Depot. Using contemporary theories which emphasize the importance of including all stakeholders in the branding process, students created a brand-positioning television and targeted collateral campaign. As a result of this campaign, event reservations at the Billings Depot expanded two fold. This case study confirms that bringing multiple stakeholders into the branding process is a highly effective way to create a powerful message for tourist destinations.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Daye (2002) explains how the function of an effective brand does not merely give information, but also provides a meaning which appeals to stakeholders’ values. Drawing from the Means End Chain Conceptual Advertising Strategy, (Bagozzi, Dabholkar, 2000), Daye argues that a logo for a tourist site should be symbolic, factual and emotive and that a slogan should be distinct and unique (2002). He maintains that physical attributes and distinctive local features can be very powerful in a marketing campaign. To create a powerful brand for the BNC following Daye’s theories, students needed to work with the stakeholders to identify the organization’s key physical attributes as well as its unique features.

Aker (1997) argues that branding is a perceptual process which uses five essential brand personalities: sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness. Sincerity expresses wholesomeness and family values; excitement appeals to the unique, young, cool and daring; competence denotes success and influence; sophistication speaks to elegance and prestige; while ruggedness signifies the outdoors. The students working on this project identified “cool,” and “sophistication” as the two fundamental brand personalities for the Billings Depot based on the strengths of the product.

Students studied Hanna and Rowley’s (2010) Brand-Management Model (Figure 1), which locates brand identity at the core of the brand-building process. In this model, brand identity expresses the distinctive characteristics that stakeholders ascribe to a place, provides a framework for overall coherence, and creates the means for building the effective brand.

Current research also shows that the importance of community stakeholders is not always considered in the destination branding and marketing process (Jamal & Getz, 1995, 1999.) Moreover, Schroeder and Salzer-Morling & Strannegård, (2004) have shown that marketing often neglects the importance of a community stakeholders’ cultural perspective. Yet, as Gnoth (2007) argues, the values and meanings expressed in the cultural, social, natural, and economic dimensions of people’s lives actually comprise the assets or “capital” of the destination. Students were persuaded by this review which supported a more holistic approach to destination branding. They were particularly interested in the approaches that include local values, cultures, and identities as part of a broader sustainable destination management philosophy as described by Wheller, Warwick, and Weiler. (Wheeler, Warwick, Weiler, 2011). For these reasons, including the commu-
nity stakeholders became a crucial part of the destination-branding process for the BNC project.

Figure 1. Strategic place brand-management model, Hanna & Rowley (2010).

Significantly, this holistic model identifies stakeholders as an essential part of the branding process in the relationships area. As the authors explain, “the first stage in the process of positioning or repositioning any tourism destination brand is to establish the core values of the destination and its brand—these should be durable, relevant, communicable and hold saliency for both stakeholders and potential tourists . . . and ... should be translated into brand personalities” (Hanna and Rowley, 2010). This model offered students an opportunity to benchmark branding practices identified below (Table 1).
Table 1. A comparison of brand development stages, Hanna & Rowley (2010).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assessment and audit</td>
<td>Market audit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis and advantage (defining)</td>
<td>Consumer research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alignment</td>
<td>Identifying target markets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Articulate</td>
<td>Portfolio strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activation (market communications)</td>
<td>Developing strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adoption and attitude (engagement)</td>
<td>Implementation Track and review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action and afterwards (experience management/monitoring evaluation)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**METHODOLOGY**

The student work began by making sure the Billings Depot included all necessary stakeholders in its marketing process. Following the development stages similar to those described in Table 1, students started with Market Audit and Target Identification. These steps, along with the relationship articulation depicted in Figure 1, helped them develop a brand that satisfied all stakeholders. Eventually, they were able to use this information to deliver a branding promise that was both durable and equal to the experience of visiting the Billings Depot.

Student research showed that in 2010, 10.5 million non-residents visited Montana, spending $2.48 billion. Over four million out-of-state tourists visit Yellowstone National Park annually.

Billings is the gateway from Montana to Yellowstone Park. The Billings Depot is the premier historical destination for tourists and residents in Billings. The resulting brand-positioning statement stated that the Billings Depot was historic and elegant and allowed you to create your own event.

Analysing the size of the potential audience, (brides, tourists, local events planners,), students determined that with a 3% action result from the combined groups, the Billings Depot could be fully occupied throughout the year. They
determined that they could use the limited resources available to target key audiences. They also decided to use television-based Public Service Announcements as an umbrella for the new branding.

RESULTS

Students oversaw the production of two historic personification television commercials which were aired in the Yellowstone County. The commercials featured historical visits from presidents and governors as well as the military and weddings. Included in the campaign were billboard, business ads and event mailers.

In order to determine if they had followed an effective model that reached all stakeholders, students evaluated their campaign against Hankinson’s branding process. They also considered whether their work achieved Hankinson’s description of an active place brand. Did it enhance the “coherence of the experience”; support the efficient use of resources to “maximize the enjoy-ability and appropriateness of the experience”; did it facilitate the “evolution of the experience”? And, in general, as far as key stakeholders are concerned, did it “engender ‘pride of place’ that was effectively shared and communicated? (Hankinson, 2012).

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on attendance at the Billings’ Depot and reviews with stakeholders, students determined that they had, indeed, made sure that key groups were included in the process which, as Hankinson’s model predicted, created support from the community and donors for the new brand. They also saw relationships strengthened in the process of developing the campaign. Local TV stations ran almost double the usual number of Public Service Announcements in support of the on-air campaign. Several discussions with all stakeholders revealed the majority considered the brand and slogan to represent accurately the experience of the Billings’ Depot.

Students concluded that the theories advanced by current literature are indeed effective in the branding of a tourist destination. As their experience with the Billings Depot taught them, understanding the values of all stakeholders and including them in the process makes it possible to sustain an important attraction which offers historical, social, and economic benefits to the area.
All materials including television and collateral can be reviewed at http://www.msubilings.edu/BusinessFaculty/otjen/examples_of_advertising.htm

REFERENCES


The Impact of Tourism on Income Inequality

Ahmad Assadzadeh  
Associate Professor in Economics, University of Tabriz  
Email: Assadzadeh@gmail.com  

&  
Akbar Ghasemi  
PhD Student in Economics, University of Tabriz  
Email: azeritourism@gmail.com  

&  
Mohammad Hossein Manafi  
Instructor at Gugan University, Iran  
Email: mh.manafi@yahoo.com  

&  
Maryam Saremi  
Instructor at Gugan University, Iran  
Email: sareminimar@gmail.com  

&  
Yadollah Divsalar  
Instructor at Gugan University, Iran  
Email: ydivsalar@yahoo.com  

INTRODUCTION

Current data show that tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors in the world economy. Tourism is frequently viewed as an important engine for the economic growth and development of countries (Brida & Risso, 2009; Tang & Tan, 2013; Webster & Ivanov, 2014), helping to increase the economic welfare of local populations. Also, there has been much talk of income inequality. Nowadays increasing inequality is most pronounced in the world, but measuring inequality is not simple. In this paper, considering the relation between the tourism and income inequality will experience the utmost importance. Merriam-Webster Dictionary defines inequality in the most general sense as “the disparity of distribution or opportunity.” Most measures of inequality are constructed using mathematical formulations.

The purpose of this paper is to empirically examine the impact of tourism on income inequality in Mena countries. On the other hand, there is an impor-
tant point: Is there a positive correlation between tourism and income inequality? A question rise in this framework, will tourism affect Mena countries income inequality?

In the light of the above discussion, this research empirically determines the tourism’s impact on income inequality. The paper proceeds as follows: Section two is a review of literature followed by section three presenting the used model and data. In section four, the estimated results will be both presented and analyzed. And in the end, section five dedicated to the presentation of conclusions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Inequality is a distinct and broader measure than poverty since it includes the whole population and not just particular segments of the population. In an economic sense, inequality is a measure of the extent of dispersion of wages, income, land, assets, or overall wealth among individuals or groups of individuals in a locale, country or a region. Income inequality is a much narrower measure of inequality that shows how the income is distributed in the population, thereby enabling the study of relative poverty.

The simplest measure of income inequality is the range that is the difference between the highest and the lowest income values for a population sample. However, this measure is extremely limited as it relies only on two observations.

Haughton et al. (2009) mention a list of criteria necessary for an inequality measurement to be classified as good. Firstly, the measurement should have the property of mean independence; and also should have population size independence. Thirdly, a good measurement of inequality should also have the symmetry property. The fourth criterion sets forth the condition of Pigou-Dalton transfer sensitivity that implies that income transfers from the rich to the poor should reduce the value of the inequality measurement. Two of the most sophisticated measurements of economic inequality used in the construction of cross-country data sets are the Gini coefficient and the Theil’s T statistic.

The Lorenz curve is widely used to represent and analyzes the size of distribution of income and wealth. The curve relates the cumulative proportion of income units to the cumulative proportion of income received when the units are arranged in ascending order of their income (Kakwani & Podder, 1976).

The Lorenz curve for a population will be different depending on the country or time. The Gini coefficient is then a measurement of the deviation from
perfect equality where the Lorenz curve is superposed with the line of perfect equality, and consequently income inequality. The curve in Figure 1 represents the cumulative share of income for any country and the solid line represents the line of perfect equality. The Gini coefficient of inequality measures the deviation of the dashed curve from the straight line. For perfect equality, the area A needs to be 0, in which case the Gini would be 0. For complete inequality, B needs to be 0, in which case, the Gini coefficient becomes 1 (or 100 in percentage terms). Therefore, the value given by the Gini coefficient is always between 0 and 1. The Gini coefficient passes the four required criteria enlisted by Haughton and Khandker (2009), and there have been recent developments that enable to decompose the Gini (Mussard et al., 2003).

![Lorenz curve](image)

Figure 1: Lorenz curve

In light of the above discussion, there is a theoretical principles based on the Heskcher-Olin theorem for promoting tourism as a development strategy for countries with a comparative advantage in tourism.

Lee and Kang (1998), using the data on wages of South Korea from 1985 to 1995, analyze the impact of earnings inequality in the South Korean tourism industry in comparison to other industries. Using the Gini coefficient of inequality, they found that tourism generates a relatively more equal distribution of earnings, and performs better than the secondary and tertiary industries, which include mining, manufacturing, construction, finance, and social services.

Blake et al. (2009) confirm this effect of tourism in decreasing income inequality in the case of Brazil. They developed a computable general equilibrium (CGE) model of tourism that includes earnings by different types of labor in the tourism industry, households with different income levels, and the channels through which tourism alters the income distribution between the households.
with different income levels. Through their study, they found that tourism benefits the lowest income segments of Brazil and leads to a more equal distribution of income through changes in earnings, prices, and government transfers. They also mention other CGE analyses that have been employed in other countries, and report that tourism is found to reduce income inequality in Australia and Spain.

Suraj Pant (2012), using data cross-country and panel data regressions, determined tourism’s impact on income inequality. Results from the regression analyses show that the tourism sector has decreased gross income inequality in the sample countries used in this paper. The results also demonstrate that domestic tourism contributes more to decreasing income inequality than international tourism does and weakly support the hypothesis that the tourism sector decreases income inequality more than other sectors linked to tourism.

**METHODOLOGY**

In order to measure the impact of tourism on income inequality we apply panel data regressions with 21 countries. In this paper, “S, Pant, 2012” model has been used to the analysis of the tourism development impact on income inequality:

\[
\text{Grossgini} = F (\text{tourGDP}, \text{labor}, \text{realincome}, \text{urban}, \text{educ})
\]

Following the empirical literature on income inequality, the Gini coefficients of inequality are included in their original specification for the analysis. All the other variables are also used in their normal specification. Therefore, the used model for this paper is as follows:

\[
\text{Grossgini}_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{tourGDP}_{it} + \beta_2 \text{labor}_{it} + \beta_3 \text{realincome}_{it} + \beta_4 \text{urban}_{it} + \beta_5 \text{educ}_{it} + \beta_6 \text{Open}_{it} + \epsilon_{it}
\]

Where “Grossgini” as independent variable, stands for Gini coefficient and “tourGDP” represents the tourism GDP. “labor” stands for a country’s labor rate, “realincome”, “urban”, “educ” and “Open” stand for real income, percentage of population residing in urban areas and percentage of population over 15 with secondary schooling and a measurement of openness as dependent variables. “\(\epsilon_{it}\)” is the disturbance term. “i” and “t” stand for a country and time of study undertaken respectively.
In this study, data from Mena countries were used during 2000 to 2010. These countries were selected from the categorization of WDI\(^1\) (2014).

**RESULTS**

The results estimating model (2), for Mena countries have been presented in table 1. In estimation being done using “F” test, the existence of individual effects have been verified. Next, fixed effects have been accepted using Hausman test. The results show that the tourismGDP has a negative and significant effect on income inequality of Mena countries. Labor rate, real income and openness have positive and significant effect of income inequality. Estimating coefficient of urban and Educ also as the proxy Urbanization and Education variables respectively, indicates a positive relation between urbanization, education and income inequality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Estimating coefficient</th>
<th>t-statistics</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-124.8585</td>
<td>-5.1343</td>
<td>0.0068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tourGDP</td>
<td>-0.3317</td>
<td>-3.4471</td>
<td>0.0261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor</td>
<td>1.036</td>
<td>3.7844</td>
<td>0.0194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Realincome</td>
<td>11.6144</td>
<td>4.7876</td>
<td>0.0087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>-0.0789</td>
<td>-1.4550</td>
<td>0.2196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educ</td>
<td>-0.3582</td>
<td>-4.1860</td>
<td>0.0139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open</td>
<td>0.2797</td>
<td>2.0698</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(R^2=0.8820\) \hspace{1cm} D.W=2.9221

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

The aim of this paper was to consider the impact of the tourism on income inequality in Mena countries from 2000 to 2010 using unbalanced panel data. The results of the empirical analysis in this study show that increases in the overall contribution of the tourism sector reduce the income inequality calculated over gross income.

\(^1\) World Development Indicator
An overall broad policy implication which may be drawn from this study is that Mena countries can improve their income inequality performance by strategically harnessing the tourism.

REFERENCES


INTRODUCTION

Research on the consequences of the construct of “surprise service experience” in the context of tourism in general and hotel marketing in specific is still very scarce. Even though there are several efforts taken to build the conceptual relationships between surprise and delight related to customers’ behavioral intentions such as Finn (2005), little empirical testing on these relationships has been conducted. Customer delights is very critical in hotel industry as evidences have showed that hotels that outperform in delighting guests are often the most successful. Apart from customer delight, hospitality is also unquestionably one of the most important factor in hotel services, particularly in creating memorable experience for the guests. Thus, the main purpose of this study is to investigate whether hospitality moderates or mediates the relationship between surprises and customer delight in the context of hotel services.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Surprise is seduced by either unexpected or misexpected products, services or attributions (Scherer, 1994). Surprise is often followed by another emotion that colors it from neutral into either a positive or negative emotion. When it is followed by a positive emotion (e.g., joy), it becomes positive, whereas, when it is
followed by a negative emotion (e.g., anger), it turns negative (Vanhamme & Snelders, 2001). This study is only concentrating on the positive emotion.

In hospitality industry, giving customers complementary gifts is one of the methods that pleased them, especially when these gifts are in the form of surprises (Valenzuela et al., 2002). That is, unexpected gains are more pleasurable than those that are expected. (Mellers, Schwartz, & Ritov, 1999). Wilson and Gilbert (2005) also claimed that the pleasure from a positive incentive for an uncertain reason is enduring relative to the same event for a certain reason.

Brotherton (1999) defined hospitality as a contemporaneous human exchange, which is voluntarily entered into, and designed to enhance the mutual well-being of the parties concerned through the provision of accommodation, food, and/or drink. In other word, hospitality can be described as friendly and generous reception and entertainment of guests or strangers. Unlike most service industries, it is the manner in which the hospitality employees provide the service, as opposed to the service itself which is critical to the customer’s overall enjoyment of the product or “experience” being purchased. According to Lashley and Morrison (2000), they noted that hospitality essentially is a relationship based on hosts and guests and it is the host whereas guest relationship that is the key distinguishing characteristic of hospitality from which several other dimensions emerge.

According to Patterson (1997) “customer delight involves going beyond satisfaction in delivering what can be best described as a pleasurable experience for the client”. Delight therefore entails a stronger emotion and a different physiological state than satisfaction. Traditionally delight has been thought of mixed emotions of joy and surprise (Kumar et al., 2001). However a recent study suggests that customers can be delighted without being surprised (Kumar et al., 2001).

The concept of customer delight arises in the 1990s, emerging in literature through the discussion of effective (Westbrook, 1987) and experimental (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982) dimensions of consumption. Customer delight can be defined as the reaction that customers have when they experience a product or service that not only satisfies, but provides an unanticipated level of value or satisfaction (Chandler, 1989). Based upon this conceptualization, customer delight is related to but distinct from customer satisfaction. While customer satisfaction is widely viewed as the result of exceeding one’s expectations, most existing studies indicate that customer delight requires that the customer receives a positive surprise beyond his/her expectations (e.g., Arnold et al., 2005).
Thus, delighting customers has been proposed as a means to increase customers’ loyalty towards a firm (Kumar et al., 2001). It was suggested that firms should move from satisfaction to delight in an effort to retain loyal customers and profitable operations (Torres & Kline, 2006). Delight therefore entails a stronger emotion and a different physiological state than satisfaction.

**METHODOLOGY**

This study is fundamentally descriptive to explain the influences of hospitality on the relationship that existed between hotel’s surprise service and customers’ delight. Questionnaire survey was employed as the main method of data collection by using structured form. The measurements for all the three main variables were adapted from well-established scale and therefore no issues on validity and reliability. In view of time and cost constraints and also because of the large population, a convenient sampling method is used to collect the data. A total of 300 respondents are targeted for this study.

The sample size should be considered adequate only for an exploratory analysis and a larger sample would be needed to validate the study (Bejou, 1998). This study employs both judgmental/convenient sampling. Judgmental sampling in the context of this research means that the respondents should have had experiences staying in any hotels. The data was mainly analyzed using regression analysis.

**RESULTS**

Hospitality as Mediating Variable between Surprise and Customer Delight

In step 1 (Table 1), the influence of surprise is highly significant and positively associated with "Customer Delight" with coefficient of 0.587 (p-value<0.01). The overall model is sufficient given a significant value of F-statistic. R-squared indicates that 53.9% of the effect on hospitality is explained by the surprise element in hotel services.

In step 2, the influence of surprise is highly significant and positively associated with "hospitableness" with coefficient value of 0.472 (p-value<0.01). R-squared indicates that 50.10% of the effect on hospitality is explained by the surprise element in hotel services. The result supports a direct relationship between surprise and hospitality. The result suggests that the higher amount of the surprise service experience, the higher is the “hospitableness” of the hotel services provided.
In step 3, the influence of hospitality is highly significant and positively associated with "Customer Delight" with coefficient of 0.656 (p-value<0.01). R-squared indicates that 38.6% of the effect on hospitality is explained by the surprise element in hotel services. The result supports a direct relationship between hospitality and customer delight. The result suggests that the better hospitality provided by hotel services are able to enhance the customer delight.

In step 4, the influence of hospitality and surprise are both highly significant and positively associated with "Customer Delight" with coefficient of 0.656 (p-value<0.01). The overall model is sufficient given a significant value of F-statistic. R-squared indicates that 56% of the effect on hospitality is explained by the surprise element in hotel services.

### Table 1: Moderating Effect of Hospitality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables (Step 1): Dependent variable: Customer Delight</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t-stat</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>2.0315***</td>
<td>0.218</td>
<td>9.328</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surprise</td>
<td>0.5875***</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>10.710</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-stat</td>
<td>114.713***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables (Step 2): Dependent variable: Hospitality</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t-stat</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer Delight</td>
<td>2.314***</td>
<td>0.215</td>
<td>10.783</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surprise</td>
<td>0.5361***</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>9.920</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-stat</td>
<td>98.416***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables (Step 3): Dependent variable: Customer Delight</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t-stat</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer Delight</td>
<td>1.4114***</td>
<td>0.371</td>
<td>3.805</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality</td>
<td>0.6564***</td>
<td>0.084</td>
<td>7.854</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-stat</td>
<td>61.679***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
<td>0.386</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables (Step 4): Dependent variable: Customer Delight</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t-stat</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Customer Delight</td>
<td>1.5334***</td>
<td>0.316</td>
<td>4.848</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surprise</td>
<td>0.4721***</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>6.189</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality</td>
<td>0.2152***</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>2.137</td>
<td>0.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-stat</td>
<td>61.73***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hospitality as Moderating variable between Surprise and Customer Delight

Table 2 describes the result of the moderating effect of hospitality between "surprise" and "Customer Delight". The result shows that the interaction variable of hospitality X surprise is highly significant and positively associated with "Customer Delight" given the coefficient of 0.0313 (p-value<0.01). R-squared indicates that 59.2% of the effect on "Customer Delight" is explained by the moderating effect of hospitality. The result provides the evidence that the effect between surprise and delights is moderated by hospitality.

The overall results indicated that hospitality can act as both moderator as well as mediator in the relationship between surprise and customer delight in the context of hotel services. It is however not the intention of this study to compare the results of the two analyses.

Table 2: Mediating Effect of Hospitality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>t-stat</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DV: Customer Delight</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.048</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td>16.345</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surprise</td>
<td>0.440</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>6.448</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality X Surprise</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>2.873</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-stat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>215.717***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R-squared</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>59.20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Moderating Effect of Hospitality

The influence of surprise service experience on customer delight in the context of hotel industry is strengthened by offering hospitable services to the guests. In other words, the interaction between surprising service and hospitality would substantially enhance the guest experiences with the hotel services.

On the other hand, hospitality can also act as a consequence variable for surprise. The more unexpected (surprise) the service experience, the more hospitable the service as perceived by the guests. This is in line with the conceptualization of hospitality which generally aim to generate memorable experience. In order to be memorable, offering surprising service (in a positive fashion)
is among the element that is required. Subsequently, the more hospitable the service, the more delight the guests with the hotel services.

Hotels should find innovative ways to improve hospitality as the construct is influencing customer delight in both situations as a mediator as well as moderator. Surprising service experiences can be provided by understanding the standards (procedures) of hotel service required by the guests and then offer them the enhanced standards instead. Thus, continuous market study and creativity are extremely important to provide inputs for hotel marketing strategies in today’s world.

REFERENCES
Patterson, K. (1997). Delighted clients are loyal clients. Rough Notes, 140(3), 221-34.
Developing Intercultural Awareness and Skills for Hospitality and Tourism Management Students in China

Alan Wong
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong
E-mail: alan.wong@polyu.edu.hk

&

Cathy H.C. Hsu
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong
E-mail: cathy.hsu@polyu.edu.hk

INTRODUCTION

Intercultural awareness and skills are becoming essential work competencies for hospitality and tourism management graduates at different levels. With the growth of globalization, there is the need for employees to have a better understanding of fellow employees from different ethnic and cultural backgrounds. In addition, those working in the hospitality and tourism industry will encounter tourists from different parts of the world (Gannon, 2008; Taylor & McArthur, 2009; Wong & Chan, 2010; Ye, Zhang, & Yuen, 2012). China’s tourism industry has opened up since 1978, and China will become the world’s foremost tourist destination by 2014 (UNWTO, 2007). In light of this trend, China’s tourism and hotel industry will definitely face diversity in terms of international customers, multinational business operations, and the workforce.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Previous research has mainly focused on the training needs of and the benefits of training to expatriates or managers, not local or front-line employees (Dewald & Self, 2008; Gamio & Sneed, 1992; Lee & Chon, 2000). Researchers are now concerned whether our curriculum in hospitality and tourism schools meets this need of the industry (Gannon, 2008; Hears, Devine, & Baum, 2007;
Sangpikul, 2009). Gannon (2008) indicated that both hospitality educators and staff from international hotel companies lacked a rigorous understanding of intercultural awareness and communication skills. Hears, Devine, and Baum (2007) argued that hospitality and tourism educators face the challenge of redesigning their curricula to meet the industry’s need for intercultural competent employees. Hears et al. (2007) proposed a conceptual model of cultural diversity in the curriculum as a pathway to investigate the integration of cultural diversity within tourism programs. The model includes four themes: (1) Training requirements of tomorrow’s hospitality graduates; (2) Educators’ training needs; (3) Program content/learning outcomes; (4) Program assessment and methods of delivery.

Tourism Education in China

Twenty years ago, some of the problems faced by hospitality and tourism education in mainland China’s colleges and universities were related to the curriculum and courses. To a certain extent, these problems were related to the limited experience of most of the faculty members (Zhao, 1991).

With regard to the current situation, there is very limited research on curriculum issues in China’s hospitality and tourism education, in particular, those issues relating to the topic of intercultural awareness and skills. Zhang and Ma (2010) proposed that more on training designed to develop the intercultural communication competence of students is needed. In addition, Yu, Weiler, and Ham (2001; 2004) suggested that there is the need for the further education and training of tour guides in China to develop their intercultural competence.

To develop strategies of intercultural awareness and skills development for hospitality and tourism higher education in China, this study aims to provide some information on the status of intercultural education in selected tourism programs in mainland China. Specifically, this study was designed to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the current situation regarding intercultural awareness or cultural diversity education in China’s hospitality and tourism management programs?
2. What are educators’ perceptions of their role in this learning process?
3. How do the program offerings in hospitality and tourism management departments in mainland China enhance students’ learning of intercultural awareness knowledge and skills?
METHODOLOGY

A qualitative approach was adopted for this exploratory study. Nine individual in-depth interviews and one group interview with two informants were carried out with heads and faculty members of hospitality and tourism management programs from seven universities in China to seek their perceptions of the current status of intercultural awareness or cultural diversity education, their role(s) in such education, and the design and effectiveness of their offerings in providing such education. The interviews were conducted in the interviewees’ offices in six cities in China. The conversations were voice recorded, and the transcription content was analyzed manually by two researchers independently. Each of the emerging themes from the data was listed and categorized. The frequency of each theme was also counted.

RESULTS

The selected universities included ones located in more developed coastal provinces as well as ones located in less developed inland provinces in order to provide a diverse range of institutions. Five of the interviewees were professors, four were associate professors, and two were lecturers. Nine of the respondents were deans or directors providing vision and direction to tourism education in their universities and guiding their schools’ faculty members. The qualitative data were analyzed in terms of the three research questions, and each question is discussed below.

Q1: What is the current situation regarding intercultural awareness or cultural diversity education in mainland China’s hospitality and tourism management programs?

As shown in Table 1, three key themes were identified from the conversations: (a) perceived importance of intercultural awareness education; (b) intercultural awareness education activities, mainly focusing on three areas, namely faculty, students, and curriculum; and (c) the uneven development of intercultural awareness education in different regions of China.

1. Perceived importance of intercultural awareness education

All of the respondents indicated that intercultural awareness or cultural diversity education is important in hotel and tourism management programs. With the development of the hotel and tourism industry, intercultural awareness
education has become more and more important, especially for hotel and tourism education.

2. Intercultural education activities
There are three main aspects of intercultural activities: (1) faculty exchange activities, such as attending international conferences, outbound visiting scholar schemes, and joint research with scholars abroad; (2) student exchange activities, such as outbound study programs, inbound exchange student programs, and student-organized foreign cultural events; and (3) the integration of intercultural knowledge and skills into the program curriculum.

3. Uneven development of intercultural education
Concerns were expressed by the interviewees that intercultural education resources are unevenly distributed among different geographic regions and disciplines. Firstly, universities in remote areas have fewer resources, such as less qualified teaching staff to deliver intercultural knowledge to students, fewer opportunities to set up international alliances with overseas universities, and less financial support for student exchange activities.

Q2: What are educators’ perceptions of their role in this learning process?
As summarized in Table 2, when discussing the role of educators in intercultural awareness education, five major roles emerged from the data, namely (1) information provider, (2) curriculum planner, (3) coordinator, (4) influencer, and (5) participant.

Q3: How do the program offerings in the hospitality and tourism departments in mainland China enhance students’ learning of intercultural awareness knowledge and skills?
In terms how the program offerings in hospitality and tourism institutions enhance students’ learning of intercultural knowledge and skills, three key themes were identified from the interviewees’ responses: (1) exchange program, (2) language ability, and (3) overseas internship

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS
Overall, the results from this study indicate that the current situation regarding intercultural awareness or cultural diversity education in mainland China’s hospitality and tourism management programs is on the right track. Senior hospitality and tourism educators in China are aware of the importance of in-
tercultural awareness education. They have taken actions to implement policies to realize this idea. However, based on the examples provided in the model by Hears et al. (2007), more can be done to integrate cultural awareness and diversity issues into the curriculum.

Mirroring the uneven economic development of the country, intercultural awareness education is developing unevenly in different geographic areas of China. Universities in less developed regions mainly lack the required resources and face a bigger language barrier to engage in exchange activities with universities overseas. The implication for Chinese hospitality and tourism educators in these regions is that they need to fight for more resources or support from the government.

In terms of curriculum design, the current practices of hospitality and tourism institutions in China to help students develop intercultural awareness mainly focus on exchange programs, overseas internships, and raising the foreign language ability of students. The barriers to further development are still a lack of information and a lack of resources. Educators are encouraged to make full use of the Internet to source information as well as to explore more exchange and collaboration opportunities; such as Trinet. It is interesting to note that the senior hospitality and tourism educators in this study perceived that they played different roles—information provider, curriculum planner, coordinator, influencer, and participant—in the process of developing intercultural awareness and skills for hospitality and tourism students. Such awareness of multiple roles definitely helps the current and future development of student cultural sensitivity in a positive way. With limited resource and time, the key limitation of this exploratory study is using a small sample of selected tourism and hospitality program educators in China. Future study could focus on the different views of other stakeholders, such as industry practitioners and government officials.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Funding for this project was provided by a grant from SHTM, the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. Project Code: G.24.37.UA08

REFERENCES


Table 1. Current Situation Regarding Intercultural Awareness Education in Mainland China

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Frequency of Interviewee Comments</th>
<th>Subthemes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Importance of intercultural awareness education</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>More important given economic development in China; especially important for hotel and tourism students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercultural education activities</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Faculty exchange, student activities, curriculum design.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uneven development in China</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>International cities have more resources and information, remote areas have less; other disciplines have more resources.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Role of Educators in Intercultural Awareness Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Frequency of Interviewee Comments</th>
<th>Subthemes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Information provider</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Lecturer, information deliverer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum planner</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Planner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinator</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Initiator, coordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influencer</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Influencer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Participant in intercultural activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Tourism and African Big Cats: a Review of Conservation Practices

Alexa Mossaz
International Centre for Ecotourism Research
Griffith University, Australia
E-mail: a.mossaz@griffith.edu.au

&

James Guy Castle
Environmental Future Research Institute
Griffith University, Australia
E-mail: g.castley@griffith.edu.au

&

Ralf Buckley
International Centre for Ecotourism Research
Griffith University, Australia
E-mail: r.buckley@griffith.edu.au

INTRODUCTION

Big cats are under threat, as they are the group of species the most prone to conflicts with human populations (Ripple et al., 2014). Habitat loss and conflicts over food and space are key issues for their conservation (Inskip and Zimmermann, 2009). Direct threats are driven by the trade in body parts and retaliatory killing over livestock predation. However, African big cats are iconic species and have a high existence value (Nelson, 2009). Their presence can generate revenues through tourism as observing or hunting large carnivores in their natural habitat are sought-after activities (Dickman et al., 2011; Ripple et al., 2014). Strategies to derive revenue from this market value at the local scale are therefore increasingly being promoted to fund conservation measures and mitigate conflicts. Lion, leopard and cheetah are economic assets in the wildlife tourism industry and their presence attracts high numbers of international tourists, particularly in East and Southern Africa (Lindsey et al., 2007; Okello et al., 2008). These three species are the pillar of the safari industry, along with elephant,
buffalo and rhinoceros and play a key role in generating revenues through tourism operations. A reserve with the status of “Big Five” is financially advantageous and easier to market (Walpole and Leader-Williams, 2002). For safari operators the presence of these species can have significant commercial benefits. For example, private reserves without big cats are less attractive to international visitors than those offering lion or leopard viewing (Barnes et al., 1997). Despite a growing interest in ecotourism as a tool for conservation (Lindsey et al., 2005), there is little research that investigates the linkages between tourism activities and conservation outcomes. Most of studies recommend tourism as a tool for conservation but insufficient data demonstrate contributions. Tourism being increasingly promoted as a tool for conservation (Buckley et al., 2012), we review the conservation mechanism outcomes associated with tourism for lion, leopard and cheetah in sub-Saharan Africa by reviewing the literature published on tourism and African big cats. We supplement this review with additional lessons learned from a number of practical examples.

**METHODOLOGY**

To determine the extent of existing research on tourism and lion, leopard and cheetah conservation in Africa, we conducted a meta-analysis using a screening process. By using a quantitative systematic literature review approach, we searched through the online Google Scholar and Web of Science databases to identify scholarly articles published in English between the period 1981-2013. Searches were completed using Boolean combinations of keywords and phrases. The search terms “lion” or “leopard” or “cheetah” were always used in multi-term searches with “tourism” or “ecotourism” or “game reserves” or “private land” or “conservation”. Forward and backward citation analyses were also completed for all publication materials identified through the initial search process to identify further publications for inclusion in our review. A database was subsequently created to capture information from all selected publications. When possible, the nature and type of conservation benefits arising from tourism were recorded and categorised as economic, local community attitudes, ecological, management and policies, and conflict mitigations. Most publications focused on specific case studies and we summarise and present these in more detail to compare the success of different approaches under different circumstances.
RESULTS

Fifty-nine relevant papers published between 1981 and June 2013 were found from online searches. The majority of the studies discussed lion conservation (n=45), followed by those with a focus on leopard (n=30) and cheetah (n=26). Literature focusing on only a single species was dominated by publications on lions (n=19) and 21 papers considered big cats in general. The majority of the studies consisting of a case study were conducted in South Africa (n=22), and southern Africa more generally. Trophy hunting (n=16) and ecotourism (n=18) as a tool for big cat conservation were reviewed and discussed. Tourism is increasingly promoted for carnivore conservation as innovative strategies are required to address big cat declines. However, despite the need to understand how these mechanisms can successfully deliver conservation benefits, few studies assessed direct conservation tourism outcomes.

Human-felid conflicts dominate recent academic literature discussing big cat conservation, with 26 (44 %) studies focusing on conflicts. Eighteen studies recommended ecotourism as a tool to mitigate conflicts and sixteen concluded that trophy hunting is important for big cat conservation.

Four of the eighteen papers that recommended ecotourism focused specifically on the significance of viewing predators for international visitors. These studies confirmed the role and importance of big cats in the success of ecotourism operations, as all three species were pivotal in attracting visitors to East and Southern African destinations, although dominated by lions. Another important aspect discussed by nine papers addressing ecotourism, was raising the awareness of big cat conservation issues amongst international tourists. However, none of these made mention of, or demonstrated any benefits to, big cat conservation arising from this high visitor demand. Of the 59 papers reviewed, only 14 case studies mentioned possible conservation mechanisms and outcomes driven by tourism incentives. The 14 papers indicating a contribution to conservation focused principally on the importance of providing an economic incentive for landowners to tolerate predators on private land. Economic losses in the form of livestock predation strongly influenced community attitudes and were raised as a key issue by all these papers. Despite generating tourism revenues and promoting sustainable tourism in developing countries, the role of commercial ecotourism operators is often bypassed in the literature. However, by managing a network of private, communal and state land for wildlife tourism, tourism operators have the potential to deliver a range of direct and indirect conservation efforts at different levels. The following section
presents examples from tourism practices, highlighting the involvement of some key ecotourism operators running photo-safaris in African big cat conservation.

Tourism operators and big cats

The specific nature of operators’ involvement varies depending on their engagement in reducing human-wildlife conflict, their role in predator population monitoring and rehabilitation, tourist education and directing tourism revenues to conservation projects. Tourism operators play a key role in the African conservation arena as they are the link between conservation, tourists and local communities. Underpinned by wildlife ownership rights, the success of these actions is based on the premise that if wildlife is valuable and the value is captured by landholders, then it is likely that wildlife will be conserved (Cousins et al., 2010).

In Kenya and Tanzania, the Maasailand including the Serengeti National Park, Ngorongoro Conservation Area and the Maasai Mara National Park is significant for lion conservation as it could contain the largest unfragmented lion population in Africa (Bauer and Van der Merwe, 2004). The area is also inhabited by pastoralist Maasai, known for their traditional rite of passage where killing a lion remains a requirement to progress to manhood (Dickman et al., 2011). Anticipating the ongoing practice of this cultural tradition saw the establishment of the ‘Lion Guardians’ program, an initiative funded by the NGOs Panthera and Living with Lions. As part of this program Maasai use tranquilisers to symbolically ‘hunt’ lions to radio-collar them and in return receive employment on game ranches (Hazzah et al., 2009). This strategy appears to be successful, as no lions have been killed since these initiatives commenced (Dickman et al., 2011). This approach is based on the traditional Maasai warrior system, where lion guardians who were lion hunters now act as protectors of the lions by educating local people about the cultural value of lions and the importance of tourism (Hazzah et al., 2009). In Zambia, two key safari operators collect a small portion of tourism revenues ($5 per guest, each guest paying on average $300 to $500 per night) to fund an anti-poaching unit. Operators also participate in big cat monitoring where guests can assist in conservation efforts by recording sightings and habitat use accompanied by rangers as part of walking safaris and game-drives. In Namibia, Desert Lion Safaris are run by the Kunene Conservancy Safaris, where tourists can monitor and track desert-adapted lions by accompanying researchers monitoring these lion populations (Stander, 2008; TOSCO 2014). Revenue generated through these tours goes to
the conservancy communities and helps to mitigate lion-human conflicts in the region by providing incentives for local people to conserve the lions.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Our review provides the first summary of the linkages between tourism and big cat conservation. Tourism is no panacea for conservation, however it is a formidable catalyst to fund conservation actions, particularly in Africa. These clearly demonstrate the potential for substantial benefit for big cat conservation arising from a variety of mechanisms implemented by tourism operators. In Southern Africa, operators contribute by providing funding and logistical support for research, reintroducing predators, increasing anti-poaching efforts and providing habitat and protection for threatened species. These are important contributions, particularly in areas where government funding for conservation is lacking. In East Africa, research has shown that ecotourism is a strong incentive to mitigate conflicts between lions and Maasai on communal land by providing employment and education. The collaboration between conservation NGOs such as Living with Lions, Panthera and African Parks and commercial tourism operators is particularly powerful, where the NGO supervises and implements projects while the operator provides funding and logistics in remote areas. Specific examples from the literature as well as communications with conservation tourism practitioners support these conclusions, confirming that incentive-based conservation can be successful and sustainable (Hutton and Leader-Williams, 2003). The way forward appears to hinge on cooperation between conservation and tourism practitioners, as well as local communities where all parties work together to adopt a cross-disciplinary strategy for long-term conservation. African big cats are likely to become increasingly dependent on conservation efforts underpinned by market-driven approaches to conservation that can provide mutual benefits to operators, big cats and local communities. This approach is not without its difficulties. Since big cats are pivotal elements of the industry, operators tend to focus conservation efforts on these charismatic predators. By its very nature, the tourism industry is competitive and individual operators try to gain a differential edge to position themselves in the global marketplace and many conservation initiatives are carried out individually at a local scale to be profitable. As a result, conservation initiatives are often driven by short-term objectives.

Practitioners in the high-end wildlife tourism industry are particularly well placed to contribute to conservation efforts. However, there is a dearth of literature analysing how tourism can successfully assist in situ conservation. The
few studies published in tourism journals primarily address tourists’ viewing preferences while on safari and highlight the importance of big cats for the industry. Tourist preference and satisfaction, however, provides little demonstration of benefits to either big cats or local communities living with these predators. Furthermore, tourism is an economic industry driven by profits, not conservation. The importance of understanding marketing approaches in conservation tourism is essential, where operators need to communicate an attractive conservation message to their distribution channels to maximise sales and generate revenues for conservation. There are indications that tourism operators in sub-Saharan Africa may be making positive contributions to conservation (Castley, 2010). In a 2006 survey evaluating the participation of South African operators in responsible tourism at Indaba, the largest annual tourism trade show in southern Africa, 75% of operators indicated that they were contributing positively to local conservation (Spenceley, 2007). Therefore, analysing how conservation aspects are promoted by commercial operators to tourists, particularly through travel agents, the main distribution channel in high-end tourism, has key implications for conservation funding. Further research should investigate how travel agents, in charge of selling high-end photo-safaris, are influenced by the conservation factor in their decision-making. For African big cats, this knowledge could have significant impacts on conservation initiatives carried out by the private sector by securing and increasing critical funding. Along with rhinoceros, elephants and tigers, African big cats are iconic species and the ultimate key test for tourism as a conservation tool.

REFERENCES


Role of Destination Management Organization in Tourism Crisis Management: A Middle Eastern Perspective

Amitabh Upadhya
Skyline University College
University City of Sharjah, U.A.E.
Emails: upadhyaaamitabh@gmail.com,
Email: amitabh@skylineuniversity.ac.ae

INTRODUCTION

The role of Destination Management Organizations (DMO) has traditionally been more of promotion of the destination that got expanded to facilitation and coordination of tourism services for the inbound tourists to the destination. On the other hand any crisis situation was left to other national organizations (such as disaster management team) to deal with, and the DMO would later take up the damage control exercise of stemming the decline of numbers at the destination once the crisis was over or managed. The two have been in most cases worked independently of each other as tourism is generally not a priority of governments at the time of crisis despite the fact that the biggest causality of the crisis in most cases has been the tourism industries. Not much literature is available on how the DMO/NTO should handle the situation and actively mitigates the effect of the crisis or where does the DMO fit-in the disaster management mechanism either of the government agencies or that of the industry.

The concerted effort of all organizations will help maintain the image of the destination which gets irreparable beating if the crisis has received wide spread media coverage which it does, given the advancement in information communication technology (ICT). Recent researches though, have attempted to define and assign an active role to DMOs in situations of crisis but being incident specific many of those studies have not been able to suggest a wider and effective frame-work for dealing with crisis situations that negatively impact the destination image and tourist mobility. The present study is a conceptual approach to expand, elaborate, and ascribe a role to the DMO that fits within the scope of
its definition as regards crisis and its aftermath. The focus of this study is to review recent crisis situations in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region and assess its impact on tourism of the region. The study also suggests a model of destination management that includes crisis management as an essential component.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Reviewing literature on tourist destinations several explanations can be observed which attempt to elucidate the nature of the tourism destination. Hu and Ritchie (1993) conceptualized it as “a package of tourism facilities and services, which like any other consumer product, is composed of a number of multi-dimensional attributes”. Cooper et al. (1998) and Buhalis (2000) maintain that ‘Destinations are amalgams of tourism products, offering an integrated experience to consumers’. These ideas seem an extension of various models of tourism development drawn by Pearce (1992). It seems quite reasonable to accept destinations as an amalgam of products and services available in one location that can draw visitors from beyond its spatial confines.

In the complex global scenario that exists today the National Tourism Organization / Destination Management Organization has become the fulcrum of all developmental activities of a destination (Presenza et al., 2005). NTOs (National Tourism Organizations) in most countries, irrespective of the political system of governance, are structured as government departments, semi government organizations and or even private associations. Having the potential of earning precious foreign exchange and generating employment, governments in general are unable to resist the temptation to keep control of policy directions of the NTOs (Wanhill et al., 2008). In the complex global scenario that exists today the DMO has become the fulcrum of all developmental activities of a destination. DMOs are becoming more prominent by acting as catalysts and facilitators for the realization of tourism developments. There is a definite shift towards recognizing that the role of the DMO goes well beyond marketing to include other activities that are important to the success of tourism in a destination from a competitive and sustainable perspective (Presenza et al., 2005). Destination image building and sustaining the positive image too is a responsibility of the DMO that will have to include managing situations that may arise with a negative impact on the image due to any crisis. It has now been accepted that the DMO plays a greater role in destination management then merely being a marketing organization.
In view of economic importance of tourism industry, the effects of crisis can have overwhelming and sustained long term impact for destinations, as well as the nation’s economy (Blake & Sinclair, 2003; Faulkner, 2001; Santana, 2004). The tourism industry has been one of many businesses affected by numerous crises and disasters around the globe in recent years (Faulkner, 2001; Ritchie, 2004; Santana, 2004). As part of an overall regional disaster plan, DMOs must be prepared to assist tourists during catastrophic events, and tourism destination managers should have crisis and disaster management competency (Ritchie, 2004). In 2003 the Pacific Area Travel Association (PATA) proposed a comprehensive four-phase disaster planning model—Reduction, Readiness, Response, and Recovery—created through the collaboration of multiple stakeholders, the model is geared toward destination management organizations (DMOs). It is important to note that the role of media (Beirman 2003), information technology and the internet and social media need to be continually monitored and evaluated. Without a proactive positive approach, rapidly spreading, intense negative publicity can dramatically affect a destination’s marketing appeal (Armstrong and Ritchie 2008), especially during the recovery stage, given that most tourists give paramount consideration to safety concerns (Floyd et al., 2004; Kozak, Crotts, & Law, 2007).

There are instances of travel and tourism industries taking into account possibilities of crisis and its impact on the business. Several of these have included crisis management plans in their administrative frameworks. International Air Transport Association (IATA) has prepared an organized contingency plan for crisis communication and market recovery and all IATA member airlines have adapted it for their need while DMOs surprisingly have not standardized their contingency plans and regularly find themselves dealing with the situations in a mode of panic, taking ad hoc measures and remain in denial prolonging recovery after a crisis. There are a few though who handle the situation immediately and professionally (Beirman, 2003).

As regards the Middle East, Salem and Alhammad (2010) believe that the unstable political situation has continued to negatively affect tourism industry during previous years. After years of increase in European tourist flows, the region recorded a serious decrease during the mid-1990s, with tourist figures coming down drastically. The most evident reasons for the decline that started in 2000-2003 and continues even till date are the ongoing crisis in Israel Occupied Territories, the consequences of the events in New York of September 11
2001 and the war in Iraq, the Arab Spring with Egypt, Libya, and Algeria experiencing unstable environment and even violence and the latest crisis in Syria. Recent statistics from Egypt are a sample of this sharp decline wherein tourism revenues dropped 43 per cent in the first quarter of 2014 to $1.3 billion (Gulf News – April 2014).

**METHODOLOGY**

An exploratory research method is used to assess the role of DMO in management of crisis at a tourist destination. Scholars who have advocated exploratory research include but are not limited to Strauss and Corbin (1990), Lofland & Lofland (1995), Marie C. Hoepfl (1997) and Russell K. Schutt (2006). Exploratory research "seeks to find out how people get along in the setting under question, what meanings they give to their actions, and what issues concern them" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The objective of exploration is to know the existing position without overt expectations. Exploration is investigation which is systematic and rigorous and remains the main-stay of qualitative research. ‘Qualitative research, broadly defined, is kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures’ (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). ‘Where quantitative researchers seek causal determination, prediction, and generalization of findings, qualitative researchers seek instead illumination, understanding, and extrapolation to similar situations. Qualitative analysis results in a different type of knowledge than does quantitative inquiry’. (Hoepf, 1997).

This paper is designed to explore the existing structure of National Tourism Organizations/ Destination Management Organization, its functions and role before, during and after a crisis situation that may have affected the destination visitation. The paper is conceptual in nature and depends mostly upon information that is already in the public domain. This paper with wide review of available literature attempts to find out the role of tourism organizations in development and growth of tourism destinations, comparative analysis of various organizational models practiced especially in the MENA region with case examples of crisis situations that have impacted the region. In depth interviews too are conducted with functionaries of DMOs to gain insight into its existing scope and desire to be proactive in mitigating crises. It is considered to be an appropriate research design for this study as the nature and characteristics of DMOs have long been established and discussed but find several variations in their application. This study also attempts to expand the traditional role and
scope of DMO which has been conceptualized as a driver of developmental activities and manager of catastrophes.

RESULTS

The preliminary results of the study have indicated a general lack of directions in DMOs as regards management of crisis. It is interesting to note that industry players do have mechanisms in place to deal with crisis situations for example the airlines and accommodation industry will have contingency plans for handling disasters. The interviews reveal that the DMOs in most cases do not have mandates to either initiate or carry out tourism developmental activities and also not equipped to handle crisis. DMOs though have been entrusted, in most cases, with the responsibility of positive communication to the outer world about the image of the destination. It is therefore apparent that media management is one important function that the DMOs can handle well and be instrumental in portraying a positive image of the destination.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In the light of study so far and review of literature a conceptual framework for the DMO is being proposed enlarging the scope of Destination Management with inclusion of crisis management function in the scope. It is an adaptation from the model that is suggested by Swarbrooke (2001). The study findings are still inconclusive as the larger exploration with case study examples has not been completed. At this stage of the study it may suffice to mention that the DMO/NTO can play a greater role in management of crisis. The role seems to be more pronounced after the crisis is over as the recovery from crisis is a crucial period to restore confidence of the tourist in the destination. It is also important to note that unless the DMO defines its role the preparedness, response and recovery mechanics cannot be put in place. Once it is established that the DMO has an active role to play even the preventive measures to avoid negative fallout of the crisis gets streamlined.

REFERENCES


The Role of Clusters in Tourism: The Case of Majorca

Antonio Alcover Casasnovas
University of the Balearic Islands, Spain
E-mail: toni.alcover@uib.es

INTRODUCTION

The concept of cluster is increasingly used in the economic literature to highlight the importance of location and interactions between companies of the same field of activity. Companies in clusters are supposed to be more competitive thanks to synergies coming from other companies situated in the same place and to the specific conditions of the territory that make them act different than in other locations (Porter, 1998). Companies isolated outside of the cluster will have more difficulties to compete with them because they can’t benefit of the externalities coming from other companies and they will feel attracted to the location of the cluster or they will experience problems to survive outside of it. In tourism the concept of cluster has called the attention of researchers because tourist activities are located in the space and destinations search ways to increase their competitiveness in order to attract more tourists than other destinations. In this paper, the concept of tourist cluster will be analyzed from the perspective of the tourist literature and we will arrive to the conclusion that the use of this concept should be limited to very few locations. In our case we study the case of the island of Majorca in order to find out if we can consider this island a real tourist cluster.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of cluster was introduced and popularized by Porter who defines it as “a geographic concentration of interconnected companies and institutions in a particular field” (1998:78). Porter highlights the idea of simultaneous competition and cooperation between firms. Authors like Pyke, and Sengenberger,
(1992) called it competition a way to cooperate for good results but competing to get the biggest profit from it.

The use of the concept of cluster in the tourist literature seems to be problematic. Some articles refer to clusters to the aggregation of tourist activity in a single place (Jackson, 2006), (Jackson and Murphy, 2006). Others apply the concept to niches markets that specialized in different types of tourism. Some of these examples are the cluster of wine and tourism in California (Porter, 1998), nature-based tourism (Huybers and Bennett, 2003), “healthy lifestyle tourism” (Novelli et al, 2006) or the cluster of antiques and tourism in Australia (Michael, 2002). In many of these cases they highlight the synergies behind the concentration of specialized retail services in a single location to satisfy the needs of their customers and in consequence increase their attraction over the potential tourist markets. In the case of Victoria (Michael, 2002), the author argues that “the antiques industry seems to take this to another level where dealers gain more by co-operative action than by competition. For them, there are not only gains in marketing from close proximity to each other, but also gains to be had from information sharing, stock sharing and supplier access” (Michael, 2002:121).

The problem of this type of niche clusters is to differentiate the core business of the cluster. In the case of Victoria and the antiques, the author reports a number of specialized events like: fairs, commercial exhibitions, etc. that attracts thousands of visitors. As a result of it is difficult to talk about a cluster of tourism because the tourist business seems to play a complementary role supplying hospitality services to the antique’s (core) businesses.

If we have to talk of a tourist cluster we will have to refer to places where tourist companies locate looking for synergies between them. Like in the case of the antiques we should look for places where tourist companies concentrate their specialized retail services in a single location to satisfy the needs of their costumers but also for places where participants gain more by cooperation than by competition and where they gain not only from the proximity to each other, but also from information sharing and supplier access.

In Clusters the competition should be highlighted. Marsahall (1920) already described the tendency to concentrate business of the same sector in a single place. The advantages of central location were the access to specialized suppliers, specialized labor and information. New York, London, Paris or Milan are central places for top fashion designers. They can find in these cities access to specialized textile suppliers, specialized labor supply (designers, cutters, etc)
and new tendencies. The same happens in well established tourist destinations, companies can have a faster and easier access to labor, specialized suppliers of services and to tourist innovations. But the idea of cluster seems to go further away from the agglomeration effects of these models.

Krugman (1991) and other authors also refer to economies of scale to explain concentration. Papatheodorou (2004) explains the importance of the economies of scale referred to the evolution of destinations. Cole (2009) applies the economies of agglomeration (urban and location) to the Tourist Area Life Cycle of Butler (1980). But again the concept of cluster implies more than economies of scale or agglomeration effects, it implies synergies derivate from cooperation and competition.

**METHODOLOGY**

In our case we will study the behavior of the tourist companies in order decide if they act as a real competitive cluster. We want to know if these companies are concentrated in the space and if they maintain the behavior of competition and collaboration that distinguish companies embodied in the same cluster. This is very important because accommodations or travel agencies can be working in the same destinations, but the innovations process, price decisions or collaborative deals or policies are taken in fact in the headquarters or decisions centers of the tourist companies. In this cases when their autonomy of decision is limited by the companies, geographic proximity and share activities and interests do not mean the existence of collaboration or cooperation in the process of innovation. On the other side, headquarters or decision centers of companies concentrated in a the same geographic spot, operating in the same sector and sharing the same interests, can collaborate and compete for the same markets, even if they have their production centers are located in places different to their headquarters.

In the case of tourism, companies could have different accommodation centers in different places in the same destination or in different destinations collaborating in the promotion, production and innovation of their products at the same time that they compete for the same markets.

Majorca is today one of the most important destinations of Europe but also a place that concentrates the headquarters and decision centers of many tourist companies, specially related with the sun, sand and sea tourism. Probably, Majorca could be considered as one of the few real clusters in the tourist industry in the world. In order to validate this hypothesis we will analyze the role of
Majorca in the tourist industry in Spain and in the international markets. The methodology applied in this case will be quantifying the relative weight of Majorca in the different segments of the tourist industry. This task will be done identifying the headquarters of the main Spanish tourist companies and their specialization in the different activities that form part of the tourist product: accommodation, tour operators, travel agencies or retailers, receptive companies and airplane companies. In a second step, we will study the behavior of these companies in order to demonstrate how they collaborate in the tourist industry and how they compete in the same markets. And finally, we will show how this type of relations has helped them to be more performant than the rest of the companies. In this last case we will study the behavior of these companies during the actual economic crisis compeer to other companies in Spain.

RESULTS

The Balearic Islands represents less than 1% the Spanish land (4.4992 km2) and only 2.5% of its population and GDP. The biggest island of the archipelago is Majorca that represents almost 80% of its GDP and Population of all the islands. The economy of Majorca is concentrated around the tourist activity. In 2009, tourism directly represented 32% of its GDP and directly and induced effects where estimated to account for 43% of its final GDP (Govern de les Illes Balears and Exceltur, 2011). Majorca belongs to Spain, one of the most important world’s tourist destinations (ranked 3rd international destination in 2013 by WTO) but even in a country where tourism represents one of the most important economic sectors (10% of GDP in 2009), the Balearic Islands highlights for been the most specialized region. Attending to data of the CAIB (2013), in 2012, 12.561.515 tourists arrived to the Balearic Islands (10.306.531 international tourist arrivals), 9.146.966 of them to Mallorca (7.956.971 international). Mallorca is considered to be one of top destinations of the British (1.985.561) and provably the first of the German (3.450.345) market today.

But Majorca can also be considered as one the most important places for tourist companies in the world. In the accommodation sector 4 of the top six Spanish companies have their headquarters in the island. These four companies were among the 39 biggest hotel companies of the world (Hotelsmag, 2013), only outranked in number by the United States, China, and England. Being an island of less than 0.9 Million inhabitants, Majorca leads the industry of accommodation in the segment of sun, sand and sea tourism. It’s leader of this segment in Spain but also in some of the most important destinations of the Caribbean and Mediterranean seas.
But even the small size of Majorca, this region is also the place where many of the most important of the Spanish tour operators have placed their headquarters (Barceó, Globalia, etc). Although the devastating effects of the economic crisis in Spain, Majorca still have a very relevant position in the outcoming tourism in Spain. “Viajes el Corte Ingles” is the only big tour operator company with their headquarters out of the islands.

In the incoming industry, Majorca had been also dominant in the tourist industry. Many of their companies are internationally spread giving services incoming services in many other destinations.

Main networks of travel agencies in Spain had also traditionally located their headquarters not in the proximity of their main markets but in Majorca (Barceló Viajes, Viajes Iberia, etc) or if they are located outside they are related with companies well established in the island (Viajes Halcon).

But not only the accommodation companies or the intermediaries of Spain tend to be located in Majorca but also the charter and non flag air companies use to have their headquarters in the island before the economic crisis. Still today, the Majorcan based Air Europa is the second biggest company of Spain.

Finally, Majorca is attracting today some of the most important high tech tourist companies to the island. The software produced in location of the Parc Bit center in Palma de Mallorca manages around the world: millions of reservations through hotel and motel ERP’s, Web portals and internet applications, more than 50,000 moorings with nautical services, more than 3,000 restaurants, 20 international airlines and 25 airports, hundreds of travel agencies and tour operators in western and Eastern Europe, Russia, United States and the Caribbean, thousands of passengers cruisers use Balearic technologies and many other tourist sectors.

But the most important thing is the dynamics of this business. All these companies show a high degree of cooperation. They invest together when they have to open new markets but they keep competing hard between them. We can see this in the case of the accommodation sector. If we analyze how companies have share the same destinations but keeping different strategies to attract clients. The beginning of this symbiotic expansion started in 1985 when Barceló Hotel companies offer to other Majorcan companies the possibility to buy land in Punta Cana at Dominican Republic. Since them companies have spread around the Caribbean with a mix of cooperation and competition typical of clusters.
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This article tries to differentiate the concepts of economies of scale, agglomeration effects associated to Marshalian Districts, and the concept of cluster. The idea of cluster applied to tourism has been widely applied in the tourist literature to niche segments or to the advantages of concentrated locations. But the original idea of cluster refers to the cooperation and competition between companies and their effects on innovation. Companies should have the opportunity to decide in their decision of competition and collaboration and this idea implies autonomy of decision. Decisions are normally taken in headquarters and that means that only cooperation or competition is decided in the locations where these decisions are taken. Majorca seems to be one of the few places where we can find a geographic concentration of centers of decision that had push companies to compete and collaborate together generating a high degree of innovation.

REFERENCES


Hotelmag.com (2014) Hotels 325, 2013; The more things change in the global Hotel industry, the more things stay the same in Hotels annual Ranking of the world’s biggest hotel companies. Available in: http://www.marketingandtechnology.com/repository/webFeatures/HOTELS/h1307_Special_Report_325_iPad.pdf

Hosteltour (1999-2014). Ranking of the main Spanish hotel companies in Spain and abroad. Available in WWW.hosteltour.com


Transferability of Asian Paradigm in Hospitality Management to Non-Asian Countries

Athena Chen, Lele
School of Hospitality and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
E-mail: athenachan2@gmail.com

&
Kaye Chon
School of Hospitality and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
E-mail: kaye.chon@polyu.edu.hk

INTRODUCTION

Asia’s hospitality and tourism industry is well-known for providing outstanding service (Wan & Chon, 2010). In recent years, many Asian hotel brands famous for their high-end service are expanding their network and penetrating markets outside their Asian roots by establishing themselves in Europe and beyond (Kolesnikov-Jessop, 2010).

A number of Asian hotel brands have become global benchmarks in their own right. A look at the 2012 Forbes 5-star list (Forbes Travel Guide 2012 Star Award Winners, 2012) shows that 13 out of 59 5-star hotels and 13 out of 31 5-star spas are of brands of Asian origin. A closer look will show that out of the 13 5-star hotels from Asia, six are from Mandarin Oriental, five from the Peninsula group, one from Shangri-La and one from an independent Asian brand. Based on the percentage of total hotels that are in operation in these hotels groups, the accolade is even more amazing: 23% of Mandarin Oriental hotels and 56% of all Peninsula hotels in the world are rated as 5-star by Forbes. This Asia-based top hotel brands have been initiated in South East Asia first and successfully expanded to other parts of the world such as North Americas and Middle East. Including the 4-star list, other Asian brands that have also achieved global recognition include Aman, Raffles and the Langham.
More and more Western hotel brands have adopted practices from Asian paradigm in hospitality management to position as top-class leaders in the hospitality industry. What is the secret to their success? What are the lessons for hotel developers and operators? This paper aims to evaluate transferability of Asian paradigm in hospitality management concepts from Asia to Non-Asian countries. Besides, it will be delivered what and how Asian paradigm can be transferred in hospitality management. This paper attempts to answer these questions from an inductive analysis of one Asia based hotel brand - Shangri-La Hotels and Resorts (hereinafter Shangri-La) to draw some preliminary conclusions for further study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

What is Hospitality?

According to Lashley (2008), hospitality is a human activity. It involves a host-guest relationship (King, 1995). Hospitality has been studied from the three perspectives of “social”, “private” and “commercial” (Lashley, 2000) and published literature on the subject support the point that hospitality is social, and is about “people” serving other “people”. Wan and Chon (2010) quoting Derrida 2002 asserted that “hospitality is culture itself” and there is an obligation for the host to ensure the well-being of the guest. Lashley (2008) asserted that it is culture and religion. This implies that any study of hospitality must necessarily involve a study of culture and its impacts.

What is Culture?

Regarding our understanding of culture: “a collective phenomenon, shared with people who live or lived within the same social environment, it is consists of the unwritten rules of the social game. It is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others. (Hofstede, 2010). The author attempted to dive deeper to develop our definition of the Asian Paradigm of hospitality management and deduce what gave rise to the movement. If the European paradigm is all about practice, while the American paradigm is all about concepts, analytics and theories of management, then what is the Asian Paradigm?
What is the Asian Paradigm?

The author wanted to indicate what is so special about this period of hospitality management that has given birth to a number of legendary hospitality companies originating from Asia in the last 15 years including the likes of Shangri-La, Banyan Tree, Peninsula, Mandarin Oriental, etc. The author also attempted to compare the developing trend of some hospitality properties from Europe and American, like Ritz Carlton, Four Seasons, Holiday Inn, Hilton, Sheraton, Best Western, etc.

When talking about the difference between different countries, the difference of cultural values is always a vital factor. Hofstede’s 5 Cultural dimensions are widely used to understand the workplace values around the world, including power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance index and long term orientation. The following listed out American and some European countries’ cultural values:

![Cultural Values Diagram]

**United States**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PDI</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDV</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAS</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAI</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTO</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Switzerland**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PDI</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDV</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAS</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAI</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LTO</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From figure 1, it may indicate that generally speaking people in American are more individualism. In service industry like the hospitality industry, it indicates that American people and companies are mostly merit or evidence based on promotions and awards. Therefore, individual staffs are more interactive and more outgoing. They are searching to get various opportunities and information. Given that American culture is short-term oriented, it indicates that the companies and individual are more focus on quick service and quick result. Compared with American, European countries have different styles. One thing in common is the relatively high uncertainty avoidance index. It implies that teaching and trainings are more deductive. In management structure, rules and security are welcome and if lacking, it creates stress. Thus, for hotel industry
the service delivery, management and operation may relative slow and inconvenience.

When the New York Times published an article in 1909 with the title “American Hotels Lead in Many Things --But the European Are More Homelike” (New York Times, 1909), the author hasn’t known this may still be the case after 100 years. In the article, American hotels are outstanding because of the conveniences they delivered to their guests. On the other hand, European hotels are more focus on a homelike approach, which create an environment to make someone feel at his or her own house.

For Asian, the culture values are significantly different from that of western world as figure 2 indicated.
METHODOLOGY

Case Study: Shangri-La Hotels and Resorts (hereinafter Shangri-La)

Company Perspectives

The name Shangri-La was inspired by James Hilton's legendary novel Lost Horizon. A tranquil haven in the mountains of Tibet, Shangri-La casts a spell on all who resided there. Today, Shangri-La stands as a synonym for paradise, and even though mythical in origin, the name perfectly encapsulates the genuine serenity and service for which Shangri-La Hotels and Resorts have come to be recognized (Peterson, 2005).

Company History

Shangri-La Asia Ltd. is the Asian region's leading and fastest-growing luxury hotel group. The company, part of Malaysia's Kuok Group, operates 72 hotels throughout Asia. The Shangri-La story began in 1971 with our first deluxe hotel in Singapore.

Company Development in the New Century

The early 2000s proved a difficult period for the company, however. The global dropoff in tourist and business travel following the terrorist attacks against the
United States in 2001 was further exacerbated by the SARS epidemic in much of Asia in 2002 and 2003 (Peterson, 2005).

Fortunately, Mainland China remained central to Shangri-La’s growth plans. In 2005, for example, the company announced that it planned to build 15 new hotels in that country before 2010. Nowadays, Shangri-La already has 55 hotels and resorts in Mainland China, which 23 new hotels and resorts are pre-opening until Sep 2012. At the same time, Shangri-La, by then the largest luxury hotel operator based in the Asian region, had set its sights on building a global brand, announcing plans to enter Europe and North America during the decade as well. Finally, Shangri-La enters North America with Shangri-La Hotel, Vancouver in 2009. In the spring of the same year, Shangri-La Hotel, Tokyo, opens the first Shangri-La hotel in Japan.

Shangri-La Paris is one of the most hotly anticipated of new hotels in Paris, a sumptuous and sophisticated property that opened its doors back in December 2010, just across the Seine from the Eiffel Tower. This is the first Shangri-La in Europe the former palace in which it is situated is actually a historic building dating to 1896. The opening of Shangri-La Paris, which is a higher attainment of transferability of Shangri-La style Asia Paradigm.

Due back to February 2005, the company announced its first European property, a 30-year lease contract for a hotel in the London Bridge Tower development, scheduled for completion in 2009. In 2014, Shangri-La will finally reach an even higher level of attainment, when it launches a new luxury hotel inside the spire of The Shard. The uniquely Asian view of service at Shangri-La in London also embodies the core values of respect, helpfulness, courtesy, sincerity and humility. These qualities have been the cornerstone of the Shangri-La success (Shangri-La, 2012).

**CONCLUSION**

For the combination of guests, staffs and companies’ points of view, the case of Shangri-La is a good example of global expansion through the transfer of Asian hospitality management culture to Non-Asian countries. Their core values are show of respect, helpfulness, courtesy, sincerity and humility. The management team shows the strong leadership on the innovation strategy and has established unique corporate culture. Shangri-La takes the best of the east and west in terms of management, practices, talent and expertise, then uses innovation, design and distinctive service styles with attentive service and strong cultural flavors to deliver world class service. The underlying principle is the crea-
tion of customer delight to achieve world renowned quality and superior financial performance.

To increase the transferability of Asian hotel chain into western market could be done by understanding new customers and delivering hotel chain concepts to guests. Shangri-La’s success is a good example. But challenges are still affecting Asia hotels to establish their properties in non-Asian countries. Customer taste and their behaviors may simply become challenges for Asian hotel chains.

The example tells us that the Asian Paradigm is more than just a demonstration of visually impactful behaviors and practices that can be explained by their different Asian cultural backgrounds and reinforced by training; but it is a savvy way of doing business by focusing on the customer, leveraging on the commercial environment while highlighting, not hiding, cultural and destination differences to give people more reasons to visit and repeatedly use their properties. It can be seen that much can be learnt from the Asian Paradigm of doing businesses on how to not only create but sustain service quality excellence with a difference. In summary, the author found that the key to the success includes in order achieving brand differentiation.

REFERENCE


ke"; So Says Louis Adlon, Proprietor Of Newest Berlin Hostelry, Who Is Here Picking Up "Po-
ints" in Hotels, May 9, Retrieved September 3, from
98CF1D3

la.com/corporate/about-us/shangri-la-culture/
CHRIE (pp. 175-186). Phuket: The 8th APacCHRIE Conference 2010.
Measuring Ecotourists’ Destination Loyalty

Azilah Kasim
School of Tourism and Hospitality Management
Universiti Utara Malaysia
E-mail: azilah@uum.edu.my

&

Christina Chi
Faculty of Hospitality Business
Washington State University
E-mail: cengqi@wsu.edu

&

Dogan Gursoy
Faculty of Hospitality Business
Washington State University
E-mail: dgursoy@wsu.edu

&

Jayashree Sreenivasan
School of Malaysia Multimedia University
E-mail: jayashree@mmu.edu.my

INTRODUCTION

In today’s dynamic and competitive global environment, understanding how consumers form their destination and brand loyalty, and the factors that are likely to influence their loyalty, is important for success (Chi 2012) as they are likely to influence destination management and marketing strategies, and service delivery (Prayag and Ryan 2012). Similar principles can be applied in the ecotourism context of Malaysia. With so many tropical destinations globally offering ecotourism attractions, ecotourism marketing managers in Malaysia need to discover what will influence customers to be loyal. This is a work-in-progress to examine the factors that are likely to influence ecotourists’ loyalty to Malaysian ecotourism destinations. It aims to examine the influence of ante-
ecedents such as overall satisfaction, perception on service quality, perception on value, travel motivations, destination image, destination knowledge, information search behavior, level of involvement, number of previous trips to the destination, on ecotourists’ destination loyalty formation.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Numerous studies on destination loyalty focused on non-ecotourism context. They proposed that tourists’ destination loyalty would depend on factors such as customers overall satisfaction with a destination (Chi and Qu 2008; Neal and Gursoy 2008), their perception of destination services received (Chen and Tsai 2007; Chi, 2012; Chi and Qu 2008; Cole and Illum 2006) their perceived value of the destination, (Sun, Chi, & Xu, in press), their perceived image of the destination (Castro, Armario, & Ruiz, 2007; Chi, 2011; Chen and Gursoy, 2001; Chen and Tsai, 2007; Chi and Qu 2008), what motivated them to travel (Yoon Uysal 2005), their knowledge about the destination (Gursoy and McCleary 2004a, 2004b; Konecnik & Gartner, 2007), how they search for travel information (Chen and Gursoy 2000, 2011), their involvement level at the destination (Gursoy and Gavcar 2003; Havitz and Dimanche 1999), how often they had visited the destination before (Gursoy and McCleary 2004a, 2004b) and degree of familiarity with the destination (Sun et al., 2013).

However, ecotourists are different from regular tourists, particularly in terms of factors influencing their motivation and satisfaction. The motivations of ecotourists emphasize more on environmental and adventure-based motivations (Fennell, 1990; Kretchman & Eagles, 1990; Williacy & Eagles, 1990; Eagles, 1992). This could include learning about the natural and cultural environments, taking scenic and unique photographs, and engaging in as much sightseeing as possible during their visits. (Eagles, 1992). According to Crossley & Lee, (1994) and Wight, (1996), motivations that differentiate ecotourists from mass tourists include preference for: 1) Uncrowded locations; 2) Remote wilderness area; 3) Learning about wildlife, 4) nature; 5) Community benefit; 6) Viewing plans and animals; and 7) Physical challenge. A study by Eagles & Cascagnette, (1995) for example, has identified ‘desire to visit wilderness’ as the top ranked travel motivation for Canadian ecotourists.

Eagles (1992) proposes that ecotourists prefer to travel in groups (social motivation) and are motivated by factors that are nature oriented (attraction motivation). Ecotourists enjoy engaging in physically active lifestyles and new experiences when visiting the ecotourism sites of their choice. Fishman (1995)
categorized ecotourists motivation factors as "push" (such as escape, rest and relaxation, prestige, health and fitness, adventure, and social interaction) and “pull factors” (such as wilderness, serenity and natural beauty of the landscapes). Woods and Moscardo (1998) who studied ecotourists from Australia, Japan, and Taiwan similarly found strong predisposition towards 1) visiting nature attractions such as lakes and rivers; 2) participating in nature-based activities such as at national parks and ecological sites; 3) being driven by social needs to learn about nature, to take photos of landscape & wildlife, to be physically active, to experience a new lifestyle, to meet people of similar interests, to pursue adventure, and to make full use of their visitation time (Ballantine, 1991; Eagles, 1991, 1992; Fennell, 1990). Ecotourists to the Peruvian Amazon are motivated by the possibility of observing singular species such as large terrestrial mammals or megafauna (Naidoo & Adamowicz, 2005; Okello, et al., 2008; Okello et al., 2001; Walpole & Leader-Williams, 2002). In Africa ecotourists are driven by the possibility of watching flagship species because they are easily observed due to their large size.

In relation to ecotourists satisfaction, it is largely built on image and expectation on various experience elements such as setting and landscape, learning, cultures, guides interpretative education program, and knowledgeable guides (Bowen, 1999; Mackoy & Osland, 2004). According to Haber & Lerner (1998), understanding satisfaction of ecotourists is essential because it can help shed light on the quality of products and services being offered at a particular ecotourism site. Measuring their satisfaction level can provide indicators that could be useful to design better conservation and management plans (Foster, 1999).

Torres-Sovero, González, Martín-López, & Kirkby (2012) study reveals that in the context of the Peruvian Amazon, ecotourists satisfaction on the lodges they stayed in and activities they engaged in depend on their characteristics and by certain ecological and socioeconomic variables. Lodging characteristics were a primary variable influencing their satisfaction level compared to ecological or sociocultural variables. Torres-Sovero et al. (2012) indicate that characteristics of lodging strongly influenced the satisfaction level of all the ecotourists in their study. This support the theory by Ceballos-Lascuráin, (1996) that ecotourists usually prefer lodging that has certain quality despite being located in remote locations with issues of accessibility. Nonetheless, some studies suggest that lodging characteristics have very little influence on the satisfaction level of 'true' tourists who value biodiversity and nature more than they value lodging characteristics (see Ceballos-Lascuráin, 2008; Mackoy & Osland, 2004). Ecotourists to the Great Barrier Reef look for factors such as crowd, wild enco-
unter with animals, information about the site, friendliness of the staff, staff knowledge, and cleanliness issues when deciding about quality that satisfy them (Galletly & Hildebrandt, 2002). Lu & Stepchenkova (2011) studied ecotourists in Costa Rica and found that ecotourists value certain attributes during their ecotourism experience. The attributes include ambiance, ecofriendliness, lodge amenities, room/bathroom décor and layout, room amenities, customer service, tour/tour guide service, food quality, nature-based activities, nature-based attractions, and restaurant service. The authors propose that satisfactory presentation of these attributes to ecotourists will certainly lead to the overall consumption satisfaction.

**METHODOLOGY**

For this study, data will be gathered using a self-administered survey instrument, which will be developed for this study. A four-step procedure will be used to develop the survey instrument. First, a series of focus groups will be conducted with travelers to Malaysia and with industry professionals. Second, an instrument will be developed to systematically measure the loyalty of travelers to Malaysian tourist destinations and the factors that are likely to influence their loyalty formation based on the findings of the focus groups and literature review. Third, the instrument will pre-tested on a sample of travelers to Malaysia. Fourth, based on the pre-test results, the instrument will be revised and finalized. The final instrument will used to gather data from travelers to Malaysia.

Development of the survey instrument for this study will follow the procedures recommended by Churchill (1979) and DeVellis (1991) for developing a standardized survey instrument. Site selection for this study will strive to represent all regions with ecotourism destinations i.e Peninsular Malaysia, Sabah and Serawak. Selection will also ensure representativeness based on destination type (terrestrial, marine) within a particular region. Study sites will be selected based on the list provided by the Ministry of Tourism website (http://corporate.tourism.gov.my). Data will be collected via a stratified random sample with self-administered questionnaires being hand delivered to all travelers chosen. The sample for the study will be ecotourists who are at least 18 years of age or older. A stratified sampling method will be utilized to determine the number of respondents required for each destination and from each country.
Descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) will be reported in addition to the demographic profile data of the respondents. Afterwards, a four-step procedure will be used in this study to assess ecotourists’ destination loyalty to Malaysian ecotourism destinations and the factors that are likely to influence their destination loyalty formation:

- underlying constructs measuring ecotourists’ destination loyalty to Malaysian ecotourism destinations and the factors that are likely to influence their destination loyalty formation will be identified by using an exploratory factor analysis (EFA);
- ecotourists’ destination loyalty to Malaysian ecotourism destinations and the factors that are likely to influence their destination loyalty formation will be examined by using Cronbach reliability;
- underlying constructs measuring the ecotourists’ destination loyalty to Malaysian ecotourism destinations and the factors that are likely to influence their destination loyalty formation will be validated by using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA); and
- a theoretical model will be proposed and tested to examine the ecotourists’ destination loyalty to Malaysian tourist destinations and the factors that are likely to influence their destination loyalty formation.

RESULTS

As this is a work in progress, the findings will only be evident upon completion of the study.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Expected findings of this study will provide tourism industry marketers and researchers in Malaysia with guidelines and directions for the implementation of promotional materials and for understanding foreign visitors’ loyalty and satisfaction in reference to leisure contexts. To the academic field, this project will a) provide academia with a model for demonstrating tourism resources in a specific location; and b) the quantitative data gathered both formatively and summatively will provide valuable information about foreign visitors’ levels of satisfaction and loyalty. To the practical field, this project will help developing promotional materials to a) Increase tourism industry marketers and researchers awareness of different culture and people and critical understanding of their own culture; and b) Demonstrate to tourism industry and marketers an alternative way of learning about rival destinations.
REFERENCES


The Role of New Media in Tourism Industry Development

Aziz Javanpour Heravi  
Dept. of Sociology, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz Branch, Iran  
E-mail: azizjavanpour@yahoo.com

Mousa Kazemzadeh  
Sociology, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz Branch  
A Member of Young Researchers and Elite Club, Islamic Azad University, Iran  
E-mail: moosakazemzadeh@yahoo.com

INTRODUCTION

The word of tourism from tour is rooted in Latin word of turns that means going around and trip to specified destination. This word entered to Spanish and French and finally in English from Greek. Tourism is one of the largest and most profitable industries in many countries of the world. With an ancient history and a variety of attractions and regional opportunities for economic benefits including job creation and foreign exchange earnings, Iran emphasizes on the preservation of high values and cultural identity and civilization. Despite the richness and diversity of Iranian culture, civilization and customs, Iran has not gained specified place and has not proportionate share in tourism industry.

Recently, many countries have found a new approach in tourism as the latest economic and social issue and they have identified social, industrial capacities along with economic development and they have shown increasing willingness toward tourism as a strategic industry and even profitable industry (Moayerinejad, 2009). Today, this industry is so profitable that some countries could have earned as much as countries with oil income. Tourism has been expanded in different recreational, and specialist sectors and it is necessary to consider it in broad way. One of the important sectors gained less attention in Iran is utilization of communicating potential for tourism development in the local, regional and trans-regional scopes.
In other words, different tourism journals and magazines have been published but they could not gain public attention due to lack of correct management and support of organization. It can be said that Iran’s neighbor countries have tried to attract tourists by advertisement in media and even it has been led that most of the Iranians travel to these countries instead of visiting their natural and historical attractions” (Ebtekar newspaper, 2007, no. 886). Accordingly, this paper tries to investigate media’s role in the development of tourism and identify its place among Islamic countries, including Iran and tries to consider the media’s role in the development of societies and employing new technologies for tourist’s attraction and identify problems of this industry and find solution for it.

EXPLANATION

Nowadays, tourism has gained extremely important position in the world, to the extent that it is seen as an industry. So that tourism is one of the most important industries for expansion of cultures and communication in developing countries and it plays a main role in establishment of peace in the world. Strategic value that tourism can bring to the geo-strategic countries is not comparable with any industry and technology. Although contemporary period is called communication and information era, no industry could be developed in universal competitive scope without employing mass communication new means and alignment with shifts and tourism is not optional in this regard.

Research Objectives

The main hypothesis of this study is that there is a significant relationship between use of modern means of mass communication and tourism development. In this hypothesis different theories like cultivation theory have been used. In this theory, it is believed that media influence on individuals and make them to be the same by predefined goals with omission of personal knowledge and awareness and shaping the audience value system - as new approach refers to it - or an approach that emphasizes on use and meeting needs of the audience and type of media used and acceptance and modeling of its content focuses.

In terms of tourist attractions, historical and cultural heritage and ecotourism Iran has a lot of potentials and non-oil revenue can be increased by tourism greatly, but why Iran cannot achieve this goal? Why some countries were able to develop their tourism industry and our country with possessing required
conditions has not achieved this important capability? Many factors can contribute to a country’s tourism development. The media are among the factors that have a significant role in this regard.

Undoubtedly, mass media with vast audiences in all communities can familiarize public with innovations and concepts necessary for development. In this regard, correct and proportionate information dissemination for better communication and change their behavior could be effective. Media play an important role in development and globalization of tourism. It seems that strategic place of media has not been investigated in Iran. TV, press, journals and internet and others could aid in institutionalization of tourism industry in domestic and foreign trips.

Paying special attention to the tourism industry which is one of the sectors of tourism in Islam has been considered in many countries of the Islamic areas such as Egypt, Iran, Turkey, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Iraq. Due to possessing old civilization Islamic countries have potential for tourism industry that has been neglected and media was unsuccessful in introducing it in the Muslims world.

TOURISM IN IRAN AND WORLD

Tourism as a global system has a significant portion of the world’s GDP. Focus Wright Institute of Tourism Information published a report on tourism in Europe. The report states that revenue from tourism market of Europeans ranges from 2.9 billion dollars in 2000 to 10.9 billion dollars in 2002 and in a couple of years, it has grown by almost 300 percent.

Policy of closeness of countries, accurate information dissemination, visa facilitation, extensive facilities and organizing travel extensively for various segments of the Islamic world play a major role in tourism development. It could aid Islamic governments for achieving a common language to develop tourism in Islamic countries.

Application of tourism word is not sufficient it should be offered Islam and its tourism rules and culture to the world. Public awareness by using media is the first principle in development of this industry In Iran. Currently, Malaysia is considered as one of the Islamic countries succeeds in attracting tourists with major investments to disseminate information in different parts of the world.
One of the most important principles in tourism is promotion of information within and outside the country. Satellite, magazines, newspapers and internet, brochures and access to information, including problems of small offices and major tourist attraction can be used in this regard. Tourist information must be provided to avoid any problems.

In Islamic countries, it is necessary to emphasis on tourism attraction and religious beliefs and teachings for identification of this wealthy civilization, while many Muslim countries never use a manner consistent with daily patterns for recognition of their rich culture. Tourism existed in Islam since the past and now it is one of the most important models to attract and promote the beliefs of Islam religion (Untitled, 2010)

MASS MEDIA AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

In addition to playing role in communication and information sharing in the society, mass media can function in the political, economic and cultural institutions as well as causing to profound changes in social and cultural scopes and changing certain beliefs and values of society and work as a public university in order to flourish and promote culture and language (Behdarvand, 2002). Mass media could develop tourism industry by employing different ways. Directions and procedures of media that influence on strengthening or weakening development of tourism can be categorized in the following categories.

Undoubtedly, mass media including television, newspapers and other media play an important role in attractions of tourists. Mechanisms of distribution and awareness techniques can be news programs, children’s historical - cultural series, variety of films, panels, reports, and so on. Media with wider audiences than any other means in all communities can familiarize the public with new innovations and concepts necessary to understand of tourism development. Media influence and strategic position have not been studied completely in Iran. Television, press, news agencies, professional journals, websites and other media could attract tourists and increase the number of foreign tourists and institutionalize discussion of domestic and inter- country trip with appropriate planning.
Challenges and Prospects

Tourism is field of technology, innovation and application of latest technology to benefit physically and mentally that leads to satisfaction of the visitors, employment of technology and culture of the past and present and offering creative ideas and talent in the future. Experts believe that Iran with ancient civilization and the nature with four seasons, having hundreds of tourism factors is one of the most unique countries in the field of tourism. Iran with high capacity should be considered as one of the most developed countries in attracting tourists. However, based on statistics a country like the UAE which does not have one-hundredth of the history and culture empowerment of Iran has managed to attract 10 million tourists that this situation is similar for Malaysia in south East Asia. However, despite these potential two million tourists visit Iran annually. The experts believe that if Iran could attract 12 million tourists annually it will have income equals to tens oil barrels and oil income will be replaced by tourism attraction. Websites offer opportunities for introducing tourism attraction in different languages. Official websites could add to effectiveness of the advertisements.

Long term planning on tourism as an income resource and meeting needs is done with direct and indirect instruction and awareness of public of tourism and introducing culture by media such as newspapers, magazines, books, Internet and movies. Thus, in the context of macro programming an essential part is promoting and creating proper atmosphere.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Nowadays living is impossible without information on daily activities and event and mass communication tools. Since humans could progress in material and spiritual scopes only by suing modern mass communications means. Most of the researchers believe that by correct utilization of mass communication tools it can be eliminated poverty and illiteracy and add to public information on agriculture, travel and tourism, horticulture, animal husbandry and various productions in cities and villages by educating the latest methods and techniques in the form of information dissemination. Accordingly, development of tourism does not necessarily mean to provide facilities but the aim is introducing of culture. Culture and tourism are necessary for change and implementation of this plan requires to media that guides field of tourism. Tacitly, the role of media in Islamic countries should be defined related to development of tou-
rism and it should be noted that Islamic tourism has neglected as much as media and they have received less attention in Iran.

REFERENCES


Untitled (2010). Now we are in the hundredths place, (Available at: www.khabaronline.ir)


Ebtekar Newspaper (2007). Effective information and developments in the tourism industry, innovation, No. 886, Tourism page.
INTRODUCTION

Nowadays tourism industry has change to an influential phenomenon in world economy, in a way that most countries consider this as the main source of income, occupation, development on private sector and development in fundamental structures. Meanwhile, urban tourism is the most popular and eminent kind of tourism, in a way that considering cities special position in most successful countries in the field, the city is the foundation and basis for tourism development. Present investigation tries to evaluate and analyze existing challenges of tourism, and provide appropriate solutions based on country’s economical, cultural and social conditions through contrastive study of scientific findings regarding urban tourism in Iran especially in Tabriz metropolis.

SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

Nowadays tourism activities are common in large and small towns. These towns are mostly filled with historical and cultural attractions, shopping centers, restaurants, and urban activities. Most attractions and welfare facilities are basically developed to provide services to citizens; though using these facilities by tourists can help to their stability (Heydari, 2010, p 40). Iran is one of the most potential countries of the world in tourism field due to having old history, civilization, various natural and artificial attractions, in a way that according to
cultural, scientific and educational report of United Nations, Iran is among 10 top countries from cultural and historical attraction aspect, being among 5 top countries of the world from geographical conditions variety. Though, unfortunately and in spite of existence of high potentials in urban tourism, in Iran towns and metropolis, they have not been yet achieved drastic successes in the area. Tabriz metropolis is one of them also, not being exceptional for this rule.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Hang(1985) proceeded on social and environmental evaluation of tourism in developing countries. He published the results of his study in a book, which can be considered as first research done in tourism development challenge area. Valizadeh(207) proceeded on analyzing tourism industry development in Iran, classifying and evaluating the challenges of this industry in Tabriz metropolis in 8 paragraphs known as: economical, socio-cultural, environmental, political, challenges related to tourism foundations and facilities, challenges related to existing laws, challenges related human resource and their training, challenges of informing and information system. Salehifard proceed on investigating needs and analysis of tourisms problems in Mashhad metropolis, concluding that the main problems tourism faced with are: having no sufficient information of destination, servicing centers’ health problems, lack of urban and public facilities, weakness of transportation system, lack of comprehensive supervision and management system regarding prices, visa issuance, and the main demand of tourists, is to solve such problems. TaheriDemneh, Farmani and MostofiAlmamaleki (2011) investigated existing challenges of Shiraz metropolis tourism industry. Results obtained from their investigation indicated that although residential centers of tourists can meet their needs quantitatively, from qualitative point of view provided services have been at lower level.

METHODOLOGY

Research method of this paper is descriptive-analytical. Research area is Tabriz metropolis. Studying documentaries, facing challenges of this metropolis urban tourism development were elicited, proceeding on contrasting the most important comments presented about some of existing challenges (including marketing, Market segmentation and destination image). Finally we will proceed on analyzing these motioned challenges.
Introducing Studied Area

Tabriz city has been located at west part of East Azerbaijan, Eastern end and south east of Tabriz plain. This city is Province capital and considered as largest metropolis of West of Iran. Adjacency of the area with countries such as Azerbaijan, Armenia, being close to Middle East and Europe (Silk Road) on one hand, and the existence of appropriate servicing and industrial foundations have caused area to enhance its position in exportation. Among tourist attractions of the area we can point to Tabriz Market, KaboudMosque, RabeRashidi complex, El Goli pool and promenade and MagbaratoShoara. These are glaring as the most important natural, artificial, historical and cultural attraction of the city, attracting thousands of local and foreign tourists from different parts of world each year.

RESULTS

Considering wide variety of challenges and obstacles on the way of urban tourism development in the studied area, tourism marketing planning has been considered as the most important challenge in this investigation. Meanwhile market segmentation and destination image management has been selected and studied as the most important challenge of tourism marketing. Tourism marketing is an interactive process between providers and consumers (tourists) during which tourism services and goods are exchanged in an especial environment of this industry (HeydariChiyaneh, 2000, p3). Developing strategic plans regarding pre-planned marketing, plays an important role in achieving tourism plans goals, making a logical relation between supply and demand. Obtaining a comprehensive knowledge of tourism market is necessary to make such relation. The most important challenges of tourism marketing in Tabriz Metropolis:

Market segmentation

This, in fact, involves first and the most necessary step of marketing procedure, during which all market i.e. all potential and real tourists are divided into identifiable and segmental parts(HeydariChianeh, 2010, 178). In an investigation entitled as: "facing challenges of tourism industry in Iran focusing on Tabriz Metropolis" Valizadeh (2007) presented his findings in the form of challenges related to foundation, installation and facilities of urban tourism section, manpower, training them and informative system. In an investigation, Salehifard (2012) with an emphasis on analyzing obstacles, problems and tourists
demands, mentions the main challenges of tourists as lack of urban services and facilities and lack of comprehensive supervision and management system. Appropriate administration of segmentation step relies on comprehensive knowledge of market. This requires an expert force of the field and having access to real statistics and information of considered market. Having no expert work force, limitation in accessibility to exact statistics and information, due to having no comprehensive system and in some cases political and security reasons are other obstacles on the way of tourism market. Moreover having no support in research and investigation projects related to tourism and having no guarantee of interest from government side have caused private sector to have no investment and cooperation in this field. This case is also among the most important challenges of tourism marketing.

**Destination Image Management**

Destination image: is a set of person’s believes, tendencies, understandings and thoughts about one place (Cakmak and Isacc, 2012,1). In an investigation done by PoorkhanehBargh (2013) mass media and negative propaganda against Iran was mentioned as the most important tool of generating negative imagination of Iran in tourists' minds. Findings of this investigation indicated that imagination of most of these tourists has changed after taking first trip to Iran tending to get better gradually. Baghabni (2013) in his investigation entitled as " an analysis of urban tourism market partition in Tabriz metropolis using SWOT model" mentions ill thoughts of foreign tourists about Iran and high statistics of car accidents as existing challenges in imagination management. Regarding tourism destination management it can be said that this issue faces different factors, among which the most important one is resistance of destinations in competitive conditions of markets. Hence providing and developing Tourism destination Management Information System is crucial in this regard (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003:417).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: effective factors of tourism destination management (ibid:518)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>competitiveness</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial skills management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-financial management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-operation management</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Survival in tourism industry competition field and supplying better and more products of tourism requires making appositive imagination in mind of demanders. Considering the existence of negative propaganda of foreign media against Iran and lack of appropriate advertisement devices such as TV programs, Online sites, printed information and encouraging measurements, have caused this country enjoy minimum income obtained from tourism, in spite of having higher potentials and capacities. Moreover not meeting needs of tourists by supplying no unique products and negative propaganda resulted from this condition have influenced the case up to great deal.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

Taking mentioned challenges into account, proposed in different researches and different data analysis, this article proposes some solution to obviate and reduce existing problems as following:

- appropriate and logical management, and investment in servicing and infrastructure sections
- training expert manpower in tourism and hotel management
- launching comprehensive portal of tourism to present updated and exact information and statistics
- omitting unnecessary security obstacle in researchers’ and tourists access to tourism information
- encouraging and supporting expert investigators to carry out studies projects
- presenting required guarantees by government for cooperation and investment
- of private section
- informing by virtual atmosphere and providing printed information to excrete side effects of negative propaganda imposed by foreign media
• enhancing transportation system security through software and hardware facilities
• making teaser ads and documentaries to introduce attractions and broadcasting them in international popular media.
• providing tourism unique products originated from destination’s social, cultural and geographical capabilities considering tourists interests and tastes.

REFERENCES


Heydari,R. (2010). Principles of tourism industry planning. SAMT publication


Poor KhanehBargh, Morteza, An analysis of urban tourism Market segmentation with emphasis on destination imagination management, A case study of Tabriz metropolis, M.A thesis, Aba Higher Educational Institute


Salehifard, M. (2012). Studying and analyzing limitations, problems, needs and demands of foreign tourists in Mashhad metropolis (with an emphasis on Arab tourists of Persian Gulf area. First congress of tourism development and management, challenges and solutions.


TaheriDemneh, M., FarmaniSakineh, M., Al Mamaleki, R. (2011). Studying challenges of tourism industry in Shiraz regarding limited residency centers, journal of urban and areal studies and investigations, 2nd year, No. 8

Managing a Live Music Performance: A Supply Side Analysis

Bianca Manners
TREES, North West University
Potchefstroom, South Africa
E-mail: 20652445@nwu.ac.za

Melville Saayman
TREES, North West University,
Potchefstroom, South Africa
E-mail: Melville.Saayman@nwu.ac.za

Martinette Kruger
TREES, North West University
Potchefstroom, South Africa
E-mail: Martinette.Kruger@nwu.ac.za

INTRODUCTION

According to Craven and Golabowski (2001:4), Getz (2007:403), Allen, O’Toole, Harris and McDonnell (2008:17) and Tassiopoulos (2010:4), the event sector is a relatively young and dynamic sector that is expanding and maturing with its own practitioners, suppliers and professionals, and in which tourists represent a potential market for planned events. This is also the case in South Africa where Paul Simon was one of the first major international artists to tour South Africa in 1992 after a long period of cultural isolation (Big Concerts, 2010). This was followed by a flow of various international artists, performers and bands performing in the country. Managing live music performances requires a great deal of planning, organising, leading, controlling resources, co-ordinating and communicating on many levels in order to achieve specific objectives (Hyatt, 2008:178; Saayman, 2009:59:60; Silvers, 2010:50). Furthermore, managing an event is an intense and difficult task that requires common sense, imagination and experience (Silvers, 2012:50). Various management aspects add to a memorable experience as not only the performance is sold to the individual
who attends a live music performance. When referring to a memorable visitor experience it can be defined as the comprehension of the wow factor at an event which is worth remembering once the event is concluded (Manners, Saayman & Kruger, 2013). Critical success factors for a memorable experience from a supply side can be a combination of pre-, during- and post-event managing strategies which include: planning, leading, marketing, designing, budgeting and control, risk management to name but a few (Silvers, 2004:41; Allen, O’Toole, McDonnell & Harris, 2005:160; Allen et al., 2008:453). Little research has been conducted at live music performances, specifically from a supply side, to identify such aspects that would create a memorable experience at live music performances.

Thus, the purpose of this research is to determine what managers (supply side) regard as important critical success factors in order to ensure a memorable visitor experience at a live music performance. This research therefore answers questions such as:

- How do managers define a memorable experience?
- What is the main purpose for organising a live music performance?
- What aspects do managers regard as important when organising a live music performance?
- What aspects are important in the pre-, during- and post-event planning phases?

The answers to these questions will enable one to better conceptualise the important critical success factors for a memorable visitor experience from a supply side.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Event management is very similar to general or project management, with the difference being the context as there is a unique aspect of assembling the tangible components that create the intangible product of an event experience (Silvers, 2010:50). These actions vary according to the kind of event that is organised; therefore, in order for the entertainment guide to be common in nature, general activities such as pre-event, during-event and post-event activities are mentioned (Singh, 2009:97-98). According to Van der Westhuizen (2003:210), Seetharaman, Sreenivasan and Boon (2006:689) and Kruger (2006:62), identifying critical success factors, in this case for a live music
performance, will assist in optimising concerns such as effectively allocating resources, optimising the approach to live music events, offering more target oriented marketing, improving the event on a continuous base to name but a few. Thus, it has become critical that the events industry, regardless of the size of the event, improves its management so as to fulfil the holistic needs of visitors who attend various events (Richie, Mules & Uzabeaga, 2008). This can be accomplished by determining the critical success factors at these events, from both the demand and the supply sides.

Studies on critical success factors have been conducted at different tourism operations. One such study conducted internationally was performed by Lade and Jackson (2004) who focused on the critical success factors of regional festivals in Australia. Other studies conducted on critical success factors are those of Van der Westhuizen (2003) at a guesthouse, Kruger (2006) at a conference centre, De Witt (2006) at a wedding event, Getz and Brown (2006) in wine tourism regions, Kruger (2006) at a conference centre, and Appel, Kruger and Saayman (2011) at hotels. It is thus evident that various managers at different tourism operations regard certain aspects to be more important than others. Thus, it is important to note that none of the tourism operations can follow the same guidelines with regard to management aspects to ensure effective management, as each tourism sector differs. In addition, none of the studies determined the important aspects (critical success factors) for management and what management would regard as important for creating a memorable visitor experience at a live music performance. This is the first time, to the author’s knowledge, that such research has been conducted from a supply side, specifically focusing on live music performances and reviewing the pre-, during- and post-event planning phases as well as what contributes to a memorable visitor experience from the supply side.

METHODOLOGY

A qualitative research method was the most appropriate research method to obtain the relevant information from the selected participants where a case study approach was followed. All the participants shared a common feature in that they were all involved in organising and managing live music performances. Five participants were selected who organise live music performances, that include both national and international artists. A purposeful sampling method was used where a structured interview was used to collect the data for this research in order to determine a basic profile of the participants, the main purpose for organising a live music performance as well
as the important management aspects relating to organising a live music performance. The data collected in the process of this research project were transcribed into text and presented in a narrative form. Cresswell’s six steps in data analysis and interpretation were used to analyse the data (Cresswell, 2009: 185-189).

RESULTS

Four major themes emerged from the analysis of the data namely:

- Theme 1: The most important aspects for a memorable visitor experience
- Theme 2: Main purpose when organising a live music performance
- Theme 3: Important aspects regarding the management of a live music performance
- Theme 4: Timing of event management

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The following four major themes emerged from the analysis where each theme was differentiated in terms of various categories and subcategories. Theme 1: The most important aspects for a memorable visitor experience; Theme 2: Main purpose when organising a live music performance; Theme 3: Important aspects regarding the management of a live music performance; and Theme 4: Timing of event management. Based on the research conducted on the critical success factors from a supply side, the following findings emerged: Firstly, it is evident that the critical success factors differ significantly from one tourism sector to another. Therefore, more qualitative research should be applied with regards to critical success factors in other tourism operations. Secondly, comparing the results of the qualitative research reveals significantly more in-depth information than those of the various quantitative research studies conducted on critical success factors. Thirdly, it is evident that the pre-, during- and post-event planning phases differ from event to event. Lastly, it is evident that there is no common guideline with regard to creating a memorable visitor experience. Therefore, when creating a memorable visitor experience, it is important for management to take note of the importance of aspects such as friendly staff, good communication with the individuals who attend the event, clean and adequate ablution facilities and the fact that the various aspects such as food and beverages are easily accessible. These aspects are all important, but aspects such as providing an element of uniqueness, surprise or interaction with the
artist can also enhance a memorable experience. Thus, with reference to the definition of a memorable experience offered by Manners et al. (2013), it could be defined as a comprehension of the wow factor at an event which is worth remembering once the event has been concluded. An elaboration of this definition could specify that a memorable experience is an understanding which is created where the needs of individuals who attend an event are satisfied and a performance is delivered which exceeds the expectations of the attendees, ensuring that at the end the fans will talk about the event and the latter is worth remembering. This understanding could either be created by an unexpected element, an interaction with the artist or a surprise element which was added to the performance or event.

REFERENCES


The Extraordinariness of Ordinariness in Tourism Research

Bodil Stilling Blichfeldt
Aalborg University, Denmark
E-mail: blichfeldt@cgs.aau.dk

&

Marie Mikkelsen
Aalborg University, Denmark
E-mail: marie@cgs.aau.dk

INTRODUCTION

The idea that the tourist gaze (Urry, 2002) is constructed in contrast to ‘home’ has been widely acknowledged, accepted and adopted by tourism researchers and research continues to show that people go away on holiday in order to have meaningful and memorable experiences (MacCannell, 1999; McCabe, 2002), thus more or less implicitly suggesting that anything resembling ‘home’ does not enable people to experience extraordinariness. This has led Quan and Wang (2004:297) to conclude that “the tourist experience has for a long time been one-sidedly understood as either the peak experience or the consumer experience”. To, one-sidedly, investigate tourist experiences that relate to extraordinary peak experiences does make a lot of sense; after all, such investigations have led to the identification of both reasons to go, different sets of motivations and pull factors on the demand-side and development of valuable experience offers, strong destination brands and unique selling propositions on the supply-side. However, as the idea that ‘everyone must go somewhere else’ (MacCannell, 1999: x) in order to escape the ordinary and ‘dull’ ordeal called ‘everyday life’, and through this move experience the extraordinary, is widespread amongst tourism researchers, extraordinariness has become the dominant discourse in tourism research. This discourse, we argue, has led tourism researchers to emphasize the extraordinariness inherent in holidays, thus neglecting ordinariness as a potential, integral part of holidays. The purpose of this paper is to question the appropriateness of the dominant research discourse and ask whether it is perhaps time to introduce ordinariness as a com-
THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

Although the thoughts and ideas presented in this paper draw on the empirical studies, the authors conduct at present (e.g. Blichfeldt and Mikkelsen, 2013; 2014), this paper is not a traditional empirical paper. Instead, although supported by present fieldwork, this paper is theoretical in nature and is based on more analytical speculations and theoretical contemplations about the nature and position of both extraordinariness and ordinariness in contemporary tourism research. Therefore, the paper’s structure differs from the traditional format used for more empirical papers, as it is not divided into neat methodology, literature, results and discussion sections. Instead, this section on the theoretical foundations introduces some of the most important theoretical issues relating to the ordinariness as part of the touristic experience and sets the stage for the discussions and conclusions offered in the closing section.

In the past, sharp distinctions between ‘home’ and ‘away’ may have made more sense than it does in today’s connected world and in 2006, McIntyre et. al.’s seminal anthology convincingly showed that frequent moves between home(s) and destinations are a fact of life for a significant majority of people. As a consequence hereof, McIntyre (2006:6) pointed to ‘multiple dwelling’ as a concept that could describe how people increasingly combine mobility and dwelling to maintain a sense of security and tradition in a mobile world. As such, whereas Urry (2000:131) defined dwelling as “to reside or stay, to dwell at peace, to be content or at home in a place”, McIntyre (2006:8) goes one step further and argues that dwelling does not relate to ‘home’ in any set way, but may concur with many different places, settings and contexts and therefore “multiple dwelling in the sense of ‘home’ and ‘away’ is an increasingly common phenomenon in modern societies”.

Research on multiple dwellings has long-standing and strong traditions within research focusing on the phenomenon second homes (see e.g. Hall and Müller, 2004) - although the term second house may not pay due respect to this area of research as there may not be anything secondary about such housing at all. However, research on second homes barely scratches the surface of the multitude of manifestations, meanings and materiality of multiple dwelling. As an example, at present the authors are doing fieldwork at Northern European caravan sites and one of the preliminary findings (Blichfeldt and Mikkelsen,
is that during such holidays the caravan, the tent, the cabin and the recreational vehicle to a high degree qualify as ‘home’ and provide for the kind of dwelling mentioned by Urry (2000) as well as for the stability, tradition and security of home mentioned by McIntyre (2006). As another example, in 2007, White and White redefined the meanings ‘home’ and ‘away’ take on for tourists in light of the regular contact with friends and family members ‘back home’ cell phones and internet access allow for. Their key finding was that the easy and frequent contact with friends and family members ‘back home’ made tourists feel simultaneously at ‘home’ and part of pre-existing social networks, while also being ‘away’. In the same vein, Blichfeldt and Marabese (2014) account for a piece of netnography aiming to understand flashpacking and conclude that contemporary backpackers use information and communication technology to establish virtual presence and interact in online communities with people ‘elsewhere’ to such extents that the concept of backpacking need to be re-defined. However, criticism of traditional distinctions between ‘home’ and ‘away’ is not only grounded in tourists’ active use of information and communication technologies, but is also voiced by researchers calling for research that to a greater extent embraces the roles family and domesticity play during the holidays. For example, Obrador (2011:6) argues that “the very notion of the family, whose place is the home is contradictory to dominant understandings of tourism” and he further suggests that tourism researchers should pay more attention to the fact that families ‘do’ home, family, domesticity and thick sociality during the holidays. Another piece of research that attempts to shed light on both the extraordinariness and ordinariness of touristic practices is Quan and Wang’s (2004) structural model of the tourist experience. In this seminal article, Quan and Wang (2004) point to various touristic practices (e.g. eating, sleeping, transportation) potentially qualifying as both peak (and thus indeed, extraordinary) touristic experiences and as more mundane extensions of daily life, which support the consumer experience. Drawing in the authors above, eating breakfast, posting photos on facebook or nursing the children are activities and practices that people are likely to do both at home and when away. Under certain holiday circumstances, these practices may qualify as extra-ordinary experiences (e.g. when having a champagne brunch, nursing the kids in a crowded amusement park, or posting the picture of one’s first sky-dive). However, under other circumstances such practices may be nothing out-of-the ordinary, but may very well be performed in much the same way as they would at home.
Apart from the researchers introduced above, in recent years a number of tourism researchers have called for research on more mundane and banal holidays. For example, Binnie et. al. (2007) criticize the emphasis on the notable in travelling and call for research on more mundane and banal travelling as this may induce a comfortable sense of being in and knowing a place. Binnie et. al. (2007:166) further argue that the mundane may routinize life-worlds and generate reliable rhythms, habits and repetitions, thus providing tourists with “certainty, security and comfortable degrees of predictability and comfort”. In the same vein, Larsen et. al. (2006:245) advocate that “tourism involves connections with, rather than escape from, social relations”, Blichfeldt and Mikkelsen (2013) point to sociability as a key driver for some tourists, and Edensor (2007:203) opines that it is vital to acknowledge “the desire to relax in an unchallenging environment, in being extremely comfortable and ‘switching off’ from the usual demands”. What these researchers have in common is that they all call for research on the more mundane, banal and ordinary practices that all tourists engage in (although to different degrees) during the holidays as emphasis on the notable in, and extraordinariness of, holidaying only uncover some dimensions of what actually goes on when people go on holiday.

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

As discussed in the above, at present tourism research is characterized by a discourse, in which extra-ordinary experiences and touristic practices are set in contrast to everyday life. Therefore, the current state of tourism research can best be characterized by the ‘extraordinariness of ordinariness’ – meaning that very little research deals with those aspects of touristic experiences and practices that are not in sharp contrast to everyday life, but qualify as extensions of life as lived at home. As shown time and time again by tourism researchers, extraordinariness *is* an important element of tourism, but this does not – per se – imply that ordinariness is *not* an equally important element of touristic life and practices. Shurmer-Smith and Hannam (1994:32) define homes as “key places of experience and identity”. Although the kind of experiences provided for by home may differ from the extraordinary experiences many tourism researchers focus on, if it is true that multiple dwelling characterizes many (or even the majority of) people in today’s connected world, then tourists increasingly bring ‘home’ with them when they are ‘away’ holidaying. This may not only characterize second-home owners or people who bring with them a physical ‘home’ in the form of a caravan or recreational vehicle, but also the ways in which families (and other closely knit travel units) bring with them thick social-
ity and domesticity regardless of how they travel the world. As such, home – both as more physical manifestations in the form of caravans etc. and as everyday practices, habits and routines – potentially enables tourists to “travel the world without leaving the comfort of home” (Williams and van Patten, 2006). Consequently, contemporary tourists could very well experience assimilation of ‘home’ and ‘away’ into one experience that both includes extraordinariness and ordinariness. However, if we wish to better understand the assimilated (or ‘full’) experience of today’s tourists then we have to do research, not only on extraordinariness, but also on the ordinariness of the touristic experience. Therefore, we propose that tourism research should not only focus on the extraordinariness inherent in holidaying, but should also embrace the ordinariness inherent in tourists’ being away as well as at home in a variety of tourist contexts and across destinations – regardless of the extraordinary qualities of the places, spaces, contexts and destinations tourists inhabit during the holidays.

REFERENCES


Blichfeldt, B. S., & Mikkelsen, M. (2014): ‘We haven’t seen the kids for hours’: The Case of Family Holidays and ‘Own Time’. Unpublished manuscript


Mountain Destination Image: Towards A Conceptual Framework

Carla Silva  
Higher School of Technology and Management  
Polytechnic Institute of Viseu  
Portugal

&  
Elisabeth Kastenholz  
University of Aveiro  
Campus Universitário de Santiago, 3810-193 Aveiro, Portugal  
E-mail: elisabethk@ua.pt

&  
José Luís Abrantes  
Higher School of Technology and Management  
Polytechnic Institute of Viseu  
Portugal

INTRODUCTION

Many tourist destinations are located in mountain regions. About 15–20% of the tourist industry, or US$ 70–90 billion per year, is accounted for by mountain tourism. Mountain destinations attract, in large part, due to the meanings, images and representations individuals associate to these areas, not only for leisure and tourism purposes.

In this paper a conceptual framework is proposed to examine the nature and dimensions of destination image in mountainous regions, which should help better understand mountain destination attractiveness and distinct facets of these regions’ image, eventually interesting for distinct market segments as well as diverse destination stakeholders.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Mountains are one of humankind’s most profound archetypal symbols and have long been revered, held in awe, and viewed as symbols of strength, freedom, and eternity (Smethurst, 2000, p. 36). Therefore, mountain regions have become one of the most attractive tourism destination areas, as demonstrated by the fact that mountain tourism demand constitutes at least 20% of global tourist flows, with mountain destinations being second in global popularity and the choice of 500 million tourists annually (UNEP, 2002; Thomas et al., 2006).

Destination image is frequently referred to as essential to the attractiveness and competitiveness of a destination, chosen from many competing destinations at a geographical, time and frequently cultural distance, being therefore of central concern to destination marketing (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Bigné, Sánchez & Sanz, 2009; Kastenholz, 2002; Kastenholz, 2010; Kozak, Bigné, González & Andreu, 2003). For mountain destinations this tourist destination image is closely linked to the general image of mountains (Nepal & Chipeniuk, 2005). As a matter of fact, mountains are cultural, natural, social and physical spaces (Robertson & Hull, 2001). But they are also socially, cognitively and emotionally constructed sites (Evernden, 1992; Greider & Garkovich, 1994; Cronon, 1995; Soper, 1995), whose elements include ideas and perceptions that exist in the minds of individuals and are partly shared with others (Robertson & Hull, 2001).

METHODOLOGY

This paper attempts to summarize, systemize and discuss distinct dimensions of mountain images, which mirror diverse cultural and social meanings, aiming at the establishment of a connection between general and historically rooted, socially and culturally shaped mountain perceptions and mountain tourism experiences.

For this purpose, an extensive literature review was undertaken focusing on the concept of destination image and on social and cultural meanings of mountains overtime. This review integrated literature from scientific fields such as Sociology, Environmental Psychology, Landscape Planning, Leisure and Tourism Studies, Geography, Ethnography and Cultural Studies and sought, through content analysis, to identify distinct meanings and dimensions associated with mountains.
RESULTS

This systematic reading and content analyses permitted the development of a conceptual framework with twelve mountain image dimensions, which were entitled as: (1) Negativist, (2) Romantic, (3) Mystique/Sacred, (4) Spiritual, (5) Cosmic and Life, (6) Sport and Adventure, (7) Ecological and Natural, (8) Historic-Cultural, (9) Health and Wellbeing, (10) Tourism and Recreation, (11) Social and Prestige and, last but not least, (12) Authenticity.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

It is argued that this set of dimensions is unique to mountainous regions and underlie much of the appeal and specificity of mountain destination images. Correspondingly, this framework should help improve our understanding of mountain destination image, suggesting dimensions that should be included in both qualitative and quantitative mountain destination image assessment. The framework may also contribute to more successful and sustainable mountain destination development and marketing, taking into account the meanings these areas assume for diverse destination stakeholders – visitors, the resident communities and society as such, having a stake in preserving these areas.

The final discussion focuses on the theoretical and potential practical implications of an understanding of the identified deeper meanings of mountain images for tourist destination planning, marketing and management. Limitations of the study and directions for future research are also presented.

REFERENCES


Shaping Collaboration in the Context of Tourism: Thuggery in a Destination Branding Process

Carlos Larreategui Nardi
Universidad de Las Américas
Quito, Ecuador
E-mail: clarreategui@udla.edu.ec

&

Giuseppe Marzano
Universidad de Las Américas
Quito, Ecuador
E-mail: gmarzano@udla.edu.ec

&

Gonzalo Mendieta
Universidad de Las Américas
Quito, Ecuador
E-mail: gmendieta@udla.edu.ec

INTRODUCTION

This paper examines how collaborative thuggery emerges within a multi-stakeholder decision-making process such as the Gold Coast VeryGC destination branding process. Whilst collaboration has been widely (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Erkuş-Öztürk & Eraydın, 2010) though arguably (Marzano & Scott, 2009) described as a necessary condition for destination competitiveness (Baggio, 2010), the tourism literature did not thoroughly examined how multi-stakeholder decision-making processes could be shaped to match needs and interests of few stakeholders. By examining the Gold Coast (Australia) VeryGC destination branding process, this paper shows evidence of the existence of collaborative thuggery, defined as the behaviour of the stakeholders who invest time and effort in shaping the agenda to fit their interests and playing politics (Huxham, 2003). However, the question of whether thuggery is a pathology, a necessity or just a unforeseen occurrence within a multi-stakeholder decision-making process in the context of tourism is outside the scope of this paper.
COLLABORATION IN TOURISM

According to Wood and Gray (1991) ‘collaboration occurs when a group of autonomous stakeholders of a problem domain engages in an interactive process, using shared rules, norms and structures, to act or decide on issues related to that domain’ (p. 146). Fyall and Garrod (2005) consider collaboration in tourism as a teleological process which is expected to occur amongst stakeholders in the context of a fragmented industry that involves multiple players such as the tourism industry (Reid, Mair, & George, 2004). From the same perspective, Jamal and Getz (1995) link the success of community tourism planning processes to the inclusion within the process of a broad base of legitimate stakeholders and to the capacity of the convener to facilitate the reconciliation of the different perspectives and diverse goals that the parties carry into the process.

However, in accordance with general planning theory (Healey, 1997), collaborative processes, and multi-stakeholder decision-making processes in tourism amongst them, are not value free. Stakeholders not only have different interests (Ramírez, 2001) expression of the different ways they define their role within a certain community (von Friedrichs Grangsjo, 2001), but it has also been observed that within a tourism destination, stakeholders’ ‘interests cannot be summarily restricted to consideration of a single variable’ (Sautter & Leisen, 1999, pp. 316-317). As a consequence, the ability of a stakeholder, or of a coalition of them, to advance a will or to impose an interest (West, 1994), or in other terms, the ability of stakeholders to exert power, is a critical element in understanding how collaboration works. In fact, as Reed (1997) points out, both theory (Rees, 1990) as well as empirical evidence (Timothy, 1998) confirm that all parties involved in a collaborative process, including public sectors organisations, carry individual interests and pursue specific agendas (Hardy & Phillips, 1998).

Furthermore, human input is a necessary condition for sustaining a collaborative group (Mattessich & Monsey, 1992). Accordingly, it has been noted that the presence of a skilled convener gives legitimacy to a collaborative process (Healey, 2003) and facilitates a successful outcome. As Wood and Gray (1991) explain in discussing facilitation, ‘the convener has no formal authority to establish the collaboration and to enforce the rules, or ensure outcomes and must depend on the trust of participants to be effective’ (p. 152). Stakeholders who convene by mandate ‘elect to exercise the formal power they possess with the domain to assemble other stakeholders’ (Gray, 1996, p. 65). Conveners who use participation need to be able to present arguments and to convince stakehold-
ers to be involved in the collaborative process because they do not have any formal clout to induce participation.

Jamal and Getz (1995) discuss the role of the convener as facilitator of a collaborative process in the context of tourism and propose that:

A convener is required to initiate and facilitate community based tourism collaboration. The convener should have the following characteristics: legitimacy, expertise, resources, plus authority, and may be derived from a government agency, an industry firm, or group such as the local Chamber of Commerce, or the local tourist organization (p. 198).

The success of the convener in facilitating a collaborative process in tourism is also linked to the ability to use his leadership role to encourage ‘collective decision-making and consensus-building’ (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999, p. 399). However, according to Björk and Virtanen (2003), the ability of the convener to play a useful role in getting tourism stakeholders together and make a collaborative project work is limited by the support he gets from the stakeholders of the project.

Reflecting on how conveners exert leadership, Huxham (2003) observes that in some cases, conveners can be engaged in activities which shape and interfere with collaboration. As one of the interviewees in Huxham’s (2003) study observes, ‘the convener is a thug: if people are not pulling their weight, he pushes them out’ (p. 417). Huxham (2003) calls this behaviour collaborative thuggery, which she defines as the behaviour of the stakeholders who invest time and effort in shaping the agenda to fit their interests and playing politics. Beech and Huxham (2003) also consider that being the convener of a collaborative process involves both ‘facilitative activities that are in the “spirit of collaboration” and the manipulative activities that we label “collaborative thuggery”’ (p. 49). As Vangen and Huxham (2003) suggest thuggery could be considered a way to achieve a pragmatic leadership role by manipulating a collaborative agenda and playing the politics.

**METHODOLOGY**

This paper examines thuggery in a destination branding process such as the creation of the Gold Coast (Australia) VeryGC brand. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from the stakeholders (both involved and excluded) in the branding process. Purposive sampling and snowball sampling
were used in combination to select interviewees who were familiar with the branding process for participation in the study. Through snowballing, 42 interviewees were identified and 32 individuals participated in this study. The interviewees ranged from the CEO of Tourism Queensland (TQ), to the CEO of Gold Coast Tourism Bureau to the top managers of the major hotel and theme parks at the Gold Coast. For privacy reasons, all name mentioned during the interviews were changed to a fantasy name and all interviewees were identified by codes.

RESULTS

The determination of the agenda for the VeryGC destination branding process appeared to be a privilege Simon Doyle (CEO of Gold Coast Tourism Bureau) assigned to himself. As Respondent VGC3 clearly stated:

*The agenda for the brand was set by Simon Doyle.*

The same view was confirmed by Respondent VGC9 who suggested that Simon Doyle had sole responsibility for determining the direction of the VeryGC destination branding process:

*From an agenda setting perspective, was with Simon Doyle, on behalf of Gold Coast Tourism.*

Although Mr Doyle was part of an organisation, he was able to use his experience and personality to acquire the responsibility of providing the direction to the destination branding process without sharing the agenda setting process with the Board of Directors of Gold Coast Tourism.

Respondent VGC8 remembered his experience within the Gold Coast Tourism Board of Directors and related the behaviour of Simon Doyle to the behaviour of a general who would fight a war without waiting for consent and without looking at the consequences of his initiative:

*I think from where I’ve been sitting with the Board not having a very strong position and he came in as the very strong personality. He said this is the direction we’re going in. So the role was slightly reversed. As in the CEO was basically saying, this is what we’re going to do rather than the Board. And he basically went off and started doing it, exercising it, and said, you know, everybody follow me, you know. This is what I’m doing. This is where I’m going. So how did he exercise it? I think he just did. He just went off and did it, you know. I suppose it’s a bit like in the army, you know. Generals just say, we’re going to war and we’re going that way. And he just went off and did it. And what are the consequences? I won’t ask anybody. I’ll just go ahead and do it, I*
suspect. Also within Tourism Queensland it was clear that Simon Doyle was the sole person responsible for deciding which direction the VeryGC destination branding process was going to take.

As Respondent VGC5 explained:

The previous CEO [Simon Doyle] decided that the Gold Coast was at a three star level and he wanted to take it to a five star level.

As long as Simon Doyle occupied the position of CEO of Gold Coast Tourism, the stakeholders felt alienated from the branding process. But, as Respondent VGC5 stated as soon as Simon Doyle left Gold Coast Tourism, setting the agenda for the brand became a concern shared amongst stakeholders:

Immediately the person [Simon Doyle] departed, who was the, let’s say the founder or the person who’s driving it, immediately they left, it was very much a situation of no one wants to own it, because people were criticising it. So it was much easier for the people there to agree to the critics rather than to defend it; because they probably haven’t been that involved in its conception in the first place. So I think it’s a classic example. If you don’t involve people in the concept and the inception, then you can expect to get a lot of criticism rather than the support that you probably would prefer.

The departure of Simon Doyle reopened the door for Tourism Queensland to provide direction in shaping the agenda of the VeryGC destination branding process.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

The VeryGC destination branding process case offers therefore an example of what Huxham (2003) refers to as collaborative thuggery Simon Doyle exerted his role of convener not to embrace, empower, involve and mobilise members towards the creation of a negotiated order (Gray 1989), but as vehicle to push forward his personal agenda. These findings contributes to tourism theory by adding new dimensions to Jamal and Getz’s (1995) conceptualisation of the role of conveners multi-stakeholders decision-making processes in tourism such as a destination branding process. The results of this study are relevant not only for tourism, but they may also inform collaboration theory. In particular, while discussing collaborative thuggery, Huxham (2003) does not discuss under what conditions a convener may transform himself from a facilitator into a thug, and Gray (1989) discusses convener’s power only in terms of ability to induce stakeholders to participate within a collaborative process. The study of the VeryGC destination branding process revealed that a convener is not necessari-
ly a facilitator. Resources and the power they provide to the convener of a multistakeholder decision-making process, such as the VeryGC destination branding process, may help to explain some of the circumstances in which a convener can ‘reincarnate’ into a thug. Collaboration theory may therefore benefit from an understanding of the behavior of the convener brings within a multistakeholder decision-making process.

REFERENCES


INTRODUCTION

The tourism sector presents opportunities for making significant contributions to promoting economic growth, creating jobs and addressing challenges of poverty, inequality and unemployment in South Africa. The South African tourism sector has been identified as one of the main sectors in national development priorities, viz: the National Development Plan, Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy 2012, the New Growth Path, the Industrial Policy Action Plan, etc. A number of strategic areas has been identified for tourism to drive the economy and create jobs through green economy initiatives.

With growing global attention on green economy and green growth, there is need for research efforts to understand current green practices as well as opportunities and challenges presented by the green economy in the tourism sector. Strategic opportunities in the tourism identified by UNEP (2011) include: water consumption; waste management, protection of biodiversity, energy effi-
ciency in hotels and improvement of linkages with the local economy. The South African green economy report identified nine key focus areas: 1) green buildings and the built environment, (2) sustainable transport and infrastructure, (3) clean energy and energy efficiency, (4) resource conservation and management (5) sustainable waste management practices, (6) agriculture, food production and forestry (7) water management (8) sustainable consumption and production; and (9) environmental sustainability (DBSA, 2011; DEA, 2010). Clearly, tourism can play a critical role in contributing to driving the green economy.

With this background, this paper investigates the understanding of the green economy and the practices being implemented in the tourism sector in Limpopo province. Evidence suggests that no research has been done to understand such issues in the Limpopo province of South Africa. The analysis was based on baseline survey data collected across tourism businesses in the Limpopo province to improve the understanding of the role of green economy in the province and the different green economy practices being implemented in the province.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Many countries across the world have experienced varying impacts of several concurrent crises that have unfolded during the last decade (climate, biodiversity, fuel, food, global financial system). The collective impacts of these crises affect progress and opportunities to sustain prosperity and achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), such as job losses, socio-economic insecurity, disease and social instability (UNEP, 2011). These factors have contributed to the recent traction of the green economy concept as an important tool for sustainable development and poverty eradication. In addition, there is growing evidence of “a new economic paradigm – one in which material wealth is not delivered perforce at the expense of growing environmental risks, ecological scarcities and social disparities” (UNEP, 2011; p 14). The 2011 UNEP’s ‘Towards a Green Economy’ report argues that transitioning to a green economy has potential to be a new engine of growth, net generator of decent jobs and a vital strategy to eliminate persistent poverty. The growing evidence from across the globe suggests that transitioning to a green economy has sound economic and social justification.
argued strongly for investment of two percent of global GDP in greening ten central sectors of the economy (agriculture, buildings, energy (supply), fisheries, forestry, industry, tourism, transport, water and waste) to shift development and unleash public and private capital flows onto low-carbon, resource-efficient path. The ten central sectors identified by the UNEP’s Towards a Green Economy report were categorized into (a) investments in natural capital (agriculture, fisheries, water and forests); (b) investments in energy and resource efficiency (renewable energy, manufacturing, waste, buildings, transport, tourism, cities); and (c) support required for supporting the transition to a global green economy (modelling global green economy investment scenarios; enabling conditions and financing).

South African, like many other developing and African countries faces current and persistent challenges of poverty and unemployment. Additional challenges that the country faces include threats to environmental degradation, loss of biodiversity and the effects of climate change. These challenges also represent opportunities for the transition towards a green economy. South Africa views green economy “as a sustainable development path based on addressing the interdependence between economic growth, social protection and natural ecosystem” (DEA, 2010; p. 5). In addition, the South African government regards a shift to a green economy including a low carbon economy as a shift to a more sustainable economic growth and development path in the long-term (NPC, 2012). According to the 2010 Green Economy Summit, the green economy refers to two inter-related developmental outcomes for the South African economy: (a) Growing economic activity (which leads to investment, jobs and competitiveness) in the green industry sector; (b) A shift in the economy as a whole towards cleaner industries and sectors with a low environmental impact compared to its socio-economic impact.

Evidence shows that transition to a green economy is already underway in South Africa, a point underscored by this paper and a growing wealth of literature by various organizations (e.g. government departments, universities, research institutions, civil society etc). For example, South Africa has put in place policies and plans to promote green growth as a new source of growth for addressing the environmental and socio-economic challenges facing the country. The policies and plans stress the need for transforming the South African economy to embrace equity, sustainable development and emphasize opportunities to the transition to green economy. However, for the Limpopo province, the
challenge is to identify and profile various green economy activities being implemented in the province.

**METHODOLOGY**

The analysis is based on baseline survey data collected across the Limpopo province to help understand the understanding of and different green economy practices being implemented in the province. A sample of 41 tourism businesses was purposefully selected from the province to explore the understanding and implementation of green economy activities in the province. Descriptive statistics were used to characterize the understanding and different green economy practices being implemented in the tourism sector in Limpopo province.

**RESULTS**

*Understanding of green economy concept in the tourism sector in Limpopo*

Tourism establishment owners and managers were asked to provide their understanding of the green economy concept. The responses reported showed that about 30% view it as saving water and energy which directly impact on their net profits as businesses. Some reported that it involves recycling of waste material (18%) and saving electricity (13%) (Figure 1). About a quarter of the respondents reported that they don’t know anything about the green economy concept. Respondents were also asked what they think the transition to a green economy means for the Limpopo province. Twenty-nine percent of the respondents reported that they don’t know and 24% reported that it has to do with environmental conservation. Furthermore, some respondents reported that transitioning to a green economy for the province means saving water and energy (14%). The views and perceptions of tourism business establishments on the green economy shows that for businesses such as in tourism implementation of green economy activities should provide some direct or indirect positive returns to business. For example, savings in water and electricity reduces the operating expenses and contribute to increasing net revenues and profits. Therefore, promotion of green economy activities in businesses such as tourism establishments should among other factors consider the implications of such activities on businesses returns.
Current green economy practices in the tourism sector

Some of the current green economy activities being implemented by the tourism establishments include: energy efficient product manufacturing, distribution, construction, installation, and maintenance; recycling of waste materials; education, compliance, and awareness. Energy efficient product manufacturing, distribution, construction, installation, and maintenance activities reported include using energy efficient bulbs (24%); switching off lights, geysers and lights in unoccupied rooms (21%); water saving practices and using gas stoves for cooking and heating. Only about 7% reported that they are not doing anything. As discussed above, the current activities are mainly energy and water saving practices.

The main green practices, services or products, being currently used by tourism establishments include: energy efficiency (53%); water preservation (33%). Again much of the green practices by tourism establishments interviewed focus on energy and water savings. Furthermore, from a business perspective green economy practices that can widely be taken up in the sector need to demonstrate benefits to the businesses to increase uptake and implementation. In addition, there is need for awareness campaigns to promote some of the green economy activities that can be taken by tourism establishments and other businesses.
Constraints limiting implementation of green economy practices

Lack of information (39%); costs of implementation (27%) and shortage of workers with the knowledge and skills on green economy (22%) were reported as the main barriers limiting implementation of green economy activities in the tourism establishments (Figure 2).

![Figure 2: Barriers limiting implementation of green economy activities in the tourism establishments](image)

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The main objective of the paper was to explore the understanding of the green economy concept and the practices being implemented in the tourism sector in Limpopo province. The analysis was based on baseline survey data collected across tourism businesses in the Limpopo province to help understand the understanding of and different green economy practices being implemented. The empirical analyses are based on a sample of 41 tourism businesses was randomly selected from the province to explore the understanding and implementation of green economy activities in the province. Descriptive statistics were used to characterise the understanding and different green economy practices being implemented in the tourism sector in Limpopo province.

The findings from the analysis show that there is generally lack of understanding of the green economy concept among tourism businesses sampled. Further, the main green economy practices being implemented include water and electricity/energy saving initiatives mainly driven by the need to cut operating costs and increase net profits. Most of the tourism businesses interviewed showed lack of knowledge of any government policies and or incenti-
ves to promote green economy investments in the tourism sector besides the provision of energy saving bulbs. The results also show the need for increased awareness raising on the green economy concept both its meaning and how it will benefit the businesses including skills development in green economy practices to encourage implementation. Among the constraints lack of information on green economy and high costs of implementation identified as key constraints for implementing green economy initiatives in the province. Policy measures that address these constraints in addition to other limitations would contribute to enhance implementation of green economy activities in the province.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work was funded by a grant from the Limpopo Economic Development, Environment and Tourism. We also thank the members of the tourism establishments in Limpopo province for participating in this study.

REFERENCES


The Appearance and Development of Ski Resorts in France

Claude Sobry
Université Lille Nord de France, FSSEP
Equipe d’Accueil ER3S (EA 4110), IRNIST
E-mail: claude.sobry@univ-lille2.fr

&

Sorina Cernaianu
Faculty of Physical Education and Sport
University of Craiova, Romania, IRNIST
E-mail: s_cernaianu@yahoo.com

INTRODUCTION

With 1618 km², France has the largest ski resorts area in Europe which represents 1.4% by the French mountainous surface. Today France counts 3595 lifts among 325 ski areas of which 233 have more than 4 lifts (Vanat, 2013).

How did this country become a world leader in winter sports, when the mountains allowing the practice of skiing only cover a small part of the territory? To answer this question we must go back in time. Indeed, the development of skiing in France went through successive steps before the number of skiers stabilized - and the offer diversified vigorously.

This paper describes and analyses the causes of the appearance and development of ski resorts in France from the end of the 19th century to present, trying to submit the phases that this country followed to become the world’s top skiing destination.

LITERATURE REVIEW

English doctors advised their rich patients to seek for fresh air in the mountains: “Mountains in summer mean fresh air, spring water, sports, visits and excursions”. Seizing the opportunity, ancient mountain villages living from
livestock farming turned to new economic activities - balneology (Barège, Cauterets, Luchon, Le Mont-Dore, Saint-Gervais in France), mountain climbing (Chamonix), vacations (Villars). The most prestigious sites of the Alpine mountain range are also the ones with the best facilities, especially on the Mont Blanc (Boyer, 2000).

**The Development of Ski Resorts in France**

Armed with their new facilities, some resorts intended to attract their summer guests during the winter season, and thus invented the “winter sports” vacations. The English led the way. These resorts offered various sports: ice-skating, sledging, curling, but especially downhill skiing, the only recognized type of skiing at the time.

Whereas summer resorts turned to skiing one after the other, other resorts were directly issued from winter sports activities. The very first being Megève, which was created by the Rotschild family after the first World War in order to cure the soldiers victims of chemical weapons. Megève also saw the very first chair lift, the Mont d'Arbois. Other resorts such as Sestrières, the Alped'Huez or Meribel - originated by the English - were created *ex nihilo*.

If the first resorts, situated at a low altitude, had a poor snow-covering which rendered the practice of skiing rather random, the increasing taste for winter sports led mountain villages to invest in hotels, lifts and chalets. We have to bear in mind that at that time, before going for frenzy downhill (on slopes that had not been prepared) the skiers had to climb up the mountain by foot or using sealskin. To make it easier, chair lifts started to appear after 1924. Pomagalski invented the bottom lift in 1935. The idea of creating high altitude resorts - like Sestrières, Italy - came up after 1930. Thus the resorts of Val d’Isère and l’Alped’Huez - among others - were built before the Second World War, when the only important post-war construction was Courchevel. That period just saw the modernization of major resorts (Val d’Isère, Alped’Huez, Megèze, Chamonix, Superbagnères) as well as other smaller and older resorts (les Contamines, Morzine, La Clusaz, Valloire, etc.).

We can easily date the development of this snow business. The end of the 50s was marked by a series of events showing that the attitude of the marketing sphere, who had not really been involved in the market so far, changed radically. This sudden interest was based on several factors.

From then on, the importance of the role played by the state in the development of the snow business never decreased. Indeed, the State intervened
directly by financing the building of resorts such as les Ménilles, Orcières-Merlette, Les Orres, Les Sept-Lauch, etc., but also indirectly by allowing private funds to access low-interest mortgages regarding hostel trade and lift construction. Other budgets were also allowed to create access roads.

To understand why the State is that interested in the snow business, we must focus on one particular observation: each resort creation sees the combined intervention of two kinds of economical agents - the Public Work companies and the business banks, the actors changing following the needs. This is what would later be called the “snow cartel”, this term also involving the State. The laudatory declarations of public authorities towards the development of this new activity clearly show the hope in a possible and necessary reconversion of the capital, grounded by the post-war reconstruction, as well as the loss of new horizons due to global decolonization.

We also have to notice that the development of mountain facilities did not respect the environment at all.

We must also focus on the Olympics held in Grenoble in 1968. At first reluctant, the public authorities - led by the government - backed up the city’s application and granted it an important budget for developing and transforming the economy of Isère, this region then shifting from a critical economy based on small agricultural exploitations, to a tourism-based economy. These Games were clearly expected to have a positive impact on developing winter tourism.

The objective of development of the ski domain planned during the 1960s-70s was to set up “money traps”. The construction of third generation resorts (then still called “resort towns”) had for actual goal to boost real estate, a vector for the financial sphere. The first consequence of the development of these resorts was the hyper-development of secondary residences, at the expense of hostelry. Following H. Bonnet (former coach for the men's downhill ski team), and J-C. Killy (1976) (three times gold medal in the Games of Grenoble, 1968), “Some governmental and tourist authorities, shaken by the moment’s euphoria, decided that mountain hostelry had to be industrial. “Mountains have become a financial value. That's why local populations are evicted and taken away from their roots, to ensure the construction of mass-tourism areas within unspoilt sites, in favour of the upper class.”, said Rabi (1973). The profits issued from winter sports development barely went to the locals, at least proportionally.

The first symptoms of the market's bursting point were perceived during winter 1970-71. The States' policy was then rapidly modified, public invest-
ments more in favour of the diversification of real estate, a direction then followed by the promoters. The goal was to attract more clients by becoming available to the middle-class. In concrete terms, this “democratization” led to the improvement of various resorts - generally by enlarging an existing village instead of building new resorts *ex nihilo*, closer to the urban areas and for cheaper costs. It had a double effect: first, the resorts were at a lower altitude compared to the preceding era, and secondly cross-country skiing developed, as it was technically more affordable - and thus available to a potentially wider range of customers. But the retreat of public authorities and promoters, little or not interested at all, put the resorts in a precarious financial situation despite the ski domains requiring less facilities.

This new approach had heavy consequences on the two following decades. Poor practice conditions longer queues at the lift stations, the villages multiplying the number of beds without increasing the customers' transport capacity, the opening of aerial space allowing to travel cheap and escape the crowds invading the slopes, and the resorts concentrating on skiing only, a fact highlighted by the low amount of snow coverage at the end of the 80s (1988, 89, 90). Satellite resorts as well interconnected ski areas increasingly complex begin to appear. A number of small resorts, so-called “family resorts”, were endangered because of the insufficient snow, the high costs of snowmaking as well the rivalry neighbouring resorts.

**METHODOLOGY**

As mentioned previously, this paper tries to present an historical and economic approach of the development of ski resorts in France highlighting the multiple stages in the development of this always considered as a higher class activity when, in the same time, the development of ski resorts has been and still is used to develop some regions by receiving more tourists. Our research is based especially on a bibliographic documentation coming from the last 30 years (books, articles, Internet sources) and statistical data providing by DSF (Domaines skiables de France) which is an organization representing the French ski industry and operate since 1938. The real purpose of the paper is to understand why and how French ski resorts are today the first in the world for the number of received tourists when France is not considered as a mountain country like Austria.
RESULTS

Gradual modernization and diversification of tourism infrastructure and ski facilities in winter resorts positively influenced the evolution of tourism activity in France which was reflected in the substantial increase of the number of tourists.

The last year’s data analysis shows an increase of skier visits after the 2006-2007 season (see figure 1) was affected by a serious lack of snow. The negative impact of the lack of snowfall on tourist arrival in mountain resorts was reduced and the ski areas were well adapted to these scenario. 21% of French ski slopes area (which has 26581 ha) has snowmaking equipment (Domaines skiab-les de France, 2013).

One of the decisive factors to practice skiing is the existence of good ski slopes. For this point of view France is particularly advantaged concerning its variety and quality.

![Figure 1. Evolution of skier-visits in France](image)

Because of climate change France develops and implements responsible poli-cies concerning the improvement of human, environmental and technical con-
ditions. Every year 300 million euro is invested to maintain and renew the ski facilities (Domaines skiiables de France, 2012).

CONCLUSIONS

The awareness of the evolution of international rivalry whether in the field of winter sports itself or in tourism in general led the tourism and resorts managers to reconsider their offer. It was necessary to reconsider the offer concerning “snow products” (Clary, 1993). Thirty years of efforts and investments were necessary for France to be back among the skiers' top world destinations and even reach the first place for welcoming countries.

REFERENCES


Popular Rentierism: The Political Economy of Tourism Development
Mega-Projects in Kuwait

Cody Morris Paris
School of Law
Middlesex University Dubai
E-mail: c.paris@mdx.ac

INTRODUCTION
The purpose of this paper is to explore the challenges facing tourism development in Kuwait due to the particularly unique political-economic system of ‘popular’ rentierism. Kuwait’s tourism industry is relatively underdeveloped in comparison to other GCC countries and has not received much attention in the academic tourism literature. While insights of from this study will be useful for understanding the role of tourism in the rentier economies, this paper will also help to further theorize tourism within the field of political science and international political economy. This study provides both a macro-level analysis of the political economic obstacles to tourism development in Kuwait and the more micro-level challenges that have resulted, particularly in relation to mega-development projects, such as the $3.3 billion dollar Failaka Island development.

OVERVIEW OF TOURISM IN KUWAIT
Kuwait’s tourism is relatively underdeveloped in comparison to other GCC countries. In 2011, Kuwait ranked 61st globally with 362,000 tourists, which is expected to grow to about 639,000 by 2021. Some government officials have actually stated that the aim is to attract one million visitors within five years (Kiesnoski, 2011). In 2009, Tourism contributed USD 535 Million, accounting for 0.88% of the country’s exports. While the total tourism receipts have increased, the percentage of the country’s exports represented by the tourism industry has decreased from 4% in 1998, likely a result of the September 11th attacks and subsequent war in Iraq. In 2007 there were 2.7 million outbound tou-
rists from Kuwait. The outbound tourists spent USD 8.2 billion, which accounted for nearly 27% of the country’s imports. The scale of this outbound market suggests that there is a huge amount of untapped potential for growth in the domestic tourism industry.

Since 2004, there has been a large development push in the tourism and hospitality industry. Twenty-five hotels and resorts have been built or are planned by international brands including Hilton, Four Seasons, Jumeirah and Intercontinental. The massive increase in hotel beds combined with the planned hotel and resort components of the mega-developments ($85 billion City of Silk, $3.3 billion Failaka Island) will provide the need for the development of attractions to draw leisure tourists to Kuwait. Some business leaders in the tourist industry point to the lack of coordinated marketing initiatives and lack of governmental support of the tourism industry as the main obstacles for increasing the number of international tourists and keeping domestic tourists in Kuwait (Kiesnoski, 2011; al-Shamari, 2011).

**POPULAR RENTIERISM AND THE CHALLENGES FOR MEGA PROJECT DEVELOPMENT, TOURISM, AND ECONOMIC REFORM IN KUWAIT**

Rentier theory emerged from analysis of the political economy of the oil-dependent GCC countries. A rentier state can be defined as a state in which the government is a primary economic player and uses its ‘legitimate’ monopoly over a geographic area to extract significant rents from international transactions (Beblawi & Luciani, 1987). Since a significant share of the rentier state’s revenue is derived from the rents imposed on international transactions, the state is freed from the need to extract internal revenues through taxation on the domestic economy (Jenkins, Meyer, Costello, & Aly, 2011). While rents derived from energy resources are the most commonly examined, rents can be derived from other sources including: other natural resources, foreign grants/soft loans, and worker remittances. Additionally, income from international tourism based on the use of unique natural or cultural attractions are also examples (Richter & Steiner, 2008). The relationship between tourism and rentierism has only just recently been explored, and none of which have explored the unique relationship between ‘popular rentierism’ (Yom, 2011) and tourism as is the case in Kuwait. Mansfeld and Winckler have examined the overall challenges of tourism development as a long-term economic alternative to oil-based rentier economies in the GCC using the example of Dubai (2007) and Bahrain (2008). Additionally, Richter and Steiner (2008) examined the neo-patrimonial rentier state of Egypt and argued that the transformations that occurred over the last few
decades have resulted in a diversification of external rents instead of an overall downsizing of the rentier character of the Egyptian economy.

After the oil crisis in the 1990s, many of the GCC nations started to move towards diversification, privatization, liberalization and deregulation in order to support long-term economic growth, and the development of the tourism industry is a central component to these strategies. Within the GCC, tourism has been a main focal point of economic diversification strategies. Dubai, Abu Dhabi, and Qatar are good examples of this strategy in action. Overall the development of the tourism industry in Kuwait can be seen as a failure in comparison. While there have been several attempts expand international and domestic tourism in Kuwait, mostly from the private sector, the overall political and economic landscape in Kuwait has resulted in several major challenges for the future development of tourism industry. In particular, there is a lack of public-private partnerships (Hvidt, 2007) and state owned enterprises (Hertog, 2010), which have been instrumental for the development of the tourism industry (and in particular infrastructure) in places like Dubai.

The need for these wide ranging economic reforms have been recognized by policy and business leaders, it has been particularly slow among the oil-rich Gulf States and the Middle East more generally, when compared to other parts of the world (Hvidt, 2007). While some places like Dubai have seen recent ‘booms’ in development resulting from economic diversification and an efficient form of state-sponsored capitalism, Kuwait has not. Herb (2009) suggests that Kuwait has developed a reputation as a challenging place for business. Inward foreign direct investment in Kuwait lags way behind the rest of the GCC. During the last 50 years the increase oil revenues have led to the development of an ‘allocation state’ (Luciani, 1990) in Kuwait, where oil revenues are redistributed to citizens thus decreasing the interdependence of the private sector and government (Hvidt, 2007).

Kuwait’s economy can be considered an extreme form of rentierism, in which the majority of the economic activity is based on the oil industry. While other rentier states in the region have been able to successfully adopt economic diversification strategies, the unique form of ‘popular’ rentierism (Yom, 2011) has created challenging conditions for economic development and diversification. Kuwait’s popular rentier system combines characteristics of other Gulf rentier states with the uniquely participatory political system that is responsive to internal social forces and the vulnerability and influence of external relations (Gray, 2011). Formal and informal political participation in Kuwait is tied to
unique historical roots that differentiate from other Gulf States, and thus the relatively democratic political system has been stained despite the rentier system (Segal, 2012).

Kuwait has the strongest parliament in the GCC, whereby the parliament is able to vote no confidence in individual ministers. The parliament is made up of individuals elected through free and fair elections and there is nearly universal adult suffrage (Herb, 2009). The parliament’s power thus results in the ruling family appointing ministers who are responsive to the parliament and avoid offending the majority within parliament. As a result the structure of the Kuwaiti political system tends to support political deadlock. Thus, many of the large scale economic reforms or infrastructure projects are held up by the political system.

The private sector in Kuwait often places the blame for the economic problems at the country on the National Assembly. As one Kuwaiti economist said, “Kuwait has adopted the worst of democracy and the worst of dictatorship, the country lives on oil revenues, which makes it a temporary country” (Herb, 2009: 381). Different from other democratic capitalist political economic systems, the extreme rentier economy in Kuwait produces a situation where the large level of natural resource wealth weakens the ‘threads of mutual interest’ that often tie together wage labor and capital (Herb, 2009). The Kuwaiti parliament does what it is supposed to, it represents the interests of the large number of citizens who rely on public sector jobs.

Another issue related to large scale developments is land ownership. Challenges that arise during tourism planning are often related to land ownership issues. In Kuwait, about 90 percent off the country’s real estate is owned by the government (not the ruling family), thus any private sector developments that require land, must secure it through government channels. Due to questionable development agreements in the past, the land has become “highly politicized” (Herb, 2009: 386). The Kuwait Government’s reluctance to sell land has lead to a bureaucratic system that restricted access for prospective developers and in some cases, halted approved BOT projects as a result of changing legislature and “bureaucratic inaction” (Herb, 2008: 389). In Kuwait, the majority of projects are developed under build, operate, transfer (BOT) mechanisms, in which the private sector finances, builds, and operates the developments for a specified time period. After this period the entire development is transferred back to the government, and the government retains the land title. While some non-infrastructure BOT projects have been completed, many others have failed to
see any movement because of bureaucratic differences. While the private sector wants the government to use oil revenue for development projects, the majority of Kuwaitis want to see the government distribute the revenues directly to the citizens (Herb, 2009).

One illustration of the impact of these political challenges to development can be seen in the turmoil over the Failaka and Bubyian island projects. In 2005 the government entity overseeing the development projects, the Dividend Zone Agreements & Kuwaiti Islands & Mega Projects Development Team (Dizart), was dissolved and replaced with the Mega Projects Agency. The newly formed MPA answers directly to the Ministry of Public Works. The dissolution occurred amidst criticism by the nine prequalified investor groups, and the lack of necessary political clout to move the projects forward. The MPA, however, is made up of the same staff with the same duties, with just a name change (MEED, 2005).

In addition to the issues related directly to the development of major projects and the business climate, the parliamentary instability during the last decade has also hampered economic reforms and progress on major projects. As a consequence the more economically progressive and liberal voices have been marginalized by the election of more conservative representatives and the overall popular support for the current system that redistributes the oil wealth directly to the citizens. Since 2006, the Emir has used his constitutional power to dissolve parliament and call for new elections four times. According to one newspaper editorial (Gulf News Editorials, 2008), much of the instability can be attributed to allegations of corruption and a continual lack of cooperation between ministers and the opposition-dominated parliament. Many in the private sector see the constant political logjams and the ‘snap’ elections as being detrimental to the ongoing development projects (Kerr, 2011). The most recent elections in February 2012 resulted in the opposition bloc, made up of Sunni Islamist and tribal candidates, winning 34 of the 50 seats in parliament. There are fears that the increased power of the Islamist-Tribal coalition could further destabilize the sectarian harmony. The country’s tribal structure and growing Islamism have largely sidelined the more liberal and socially progressive political movements in the country and represent two distinct threads of opposition to the Shia ruling elite (IISS, 2012). The result of the parliamentary instability has been that the majority of members of the opposition, fueled by the public allegations of corruption and lack of transparency by the executive branch, could continue to appease popular opinion, and thus interfere with the development process including many of the urgently needed infrastructure projects.
Additionally, mega development projects and economic diversification/liberalization policies have been sidetracked due to the infighting between government, parliament, the public and other bureaucratic interests groups due to the uniquely democratic political system (Hertog, 2010).

Amidst this political turmoil, the executive branch has spearheaded a series of economic reforms in the country, as part of the “Kuwait Vision 2035” plan. These reforms include new capital markets, labor and privatization laws, and $115 billion investment undertaken by public and private sectors (IISS, 2012). The reform agenda includes several key reforms. The plan includes the reduction of the ’red tape’ surrounding staring and operating a business, and increased access to land and capital for startups. Additionally, the plan supports the auctioning of government land and to engage the private sector in the development of public land. The plan also calls for increased privatization to reduce public sector employment growth, salaries, and expenditures (UK Trade & Investment, 2011).

The Kuwait Vision 2035 is a series of 5-year plans through 2035 with the goal of transforming “Kuwait into a financial and trade hub for investment, in which the private sector leads economic activity, fueled by the spirit of competition, and raising the efficiency of production in under a supporting institutional State agency, establishes values, preserves the social identity, achieves balanced human development and provides appropriate infrastructure, improved legislation and encouraging business environment” (Zawya, 2011). This plan will attempt to remove bureaucratic barriers to the private sector, increase government agency effectiveness, and increase access to land, among other high impact reforms (Al-Jazzaf & Al-Mutairi, 2009).

**CONCLUSION**

To accomplish this, Kuwait has proposed several developments in line with the government’s 3rd Master Plans. The purpose of Kuwait’s 3rd Master Plan is to define the goals and policies for future developments and describe the use of land during the next 30 years (Helmy, 2011). The 3rd Master Plan is considered the first phase of the Kuwait Vision 2035 because it enables legislation and policies to accomplish the vision’s goals. The new policies aim to attract more private sector participation, especially in housing development. For example, in the past private investors and contractors were not supportive of governmental contracts for welfare housing, citing low financial return and government legislation that decreases private investments by providing units to welfare partici-
pants for free (Helmy, 2011). The 3rd Master Plan and sub phases aim to increase private sector participation “by reducing the ownership and supervision from the public sector in many economic sectors” (Helmy, 2011: 15). These reforms will have a large impact on future tourism developments, as many of the mega projects include mix-use facilities combining housing, retail, leisure, and tourism projects. The most recent phase of the 3rd Master Plan, Kuwait’s Five-Year Plan (2010) includes 1,100 oil and non-oil economic projects with an estimated cost of $125 billion. There are several issues and obstacles that BOT developments face (Helmy, 2011); including, delays due to long documentation cycles, lack of human resources with project implementation skills, and lack of vacant land due to governmental regulations. In order for Kuwait’s 3rd master plan to become successful, the government must consider these challenges and respond with attractive BOT regulations that streamline procedures and provides transparency (Helmy, 2011). Without consideration of the previous challenges to the BOT mechanisms, current and future reforms of the economic system might fall short of the goals laid out in Kuwait Vision 2035.

REFERENCES


IISS (2012). Kuwait’s political turmoil threatens progress. Strategic Comments, 18(3).


MEED (2005). Agents of fortune: The newly formed public body will be pulling out all the stops this summer in an effort to get the giant Failaka and Bubiyan projects underway. *Middle East Economic Digest, 49*(26).


The Influence of Cultural Distance on Tourist Profile and Behavior in Comparison With Travel Distance

Daisy Suk-fong Fung  
Hong Kong Community College,  
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University,  
Hong Kong SAR, China  
Email: ccdaisy@hkcc-polyu.edu.hk  

&  

Bob Mckercher  
School of Hotel & Tourism Management  
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University,  
Hong Kong SAR, China  
Email: bob.mckercher@polyu.edu.hk  

INTRODUCTION  
The impact of travel distance on tourist demand and behavior is well recognized by industry practitioners and academics. Distance decay theory argues that absolute volume of tourists decline exponentially with increase in distance. The impact of cultural distance is also considered as a very important aspect in examining the travel behavior. This study tries to examine the extent in which cultural distance influence on tourist behavior in comparison with travel distance. This is accomplished by examining the profile and activities of eight different markets attracted to Hong Kong that have varying cultural distances. The measurement of their cultural distances is based on the Hofstede’s (1980) Uncertainty Avoidance Index. The data is generated from the Visitor Profile Report 2010 on Vacation Overnight Visitors published by the Hong Kong Tourism Board.
LITERATURE REVIEW

The effect of distance on the movements of people is commonly referred as the distance decay effect. Demand for tourism varies inversely with the distance traveled. The further one travels from the point of origin, the less demand there will be for tourism product (Bull 1991). Most people are unwilling to make the greater time, money, and effort required to travel longer distances if the same benefit can be obtained.

Impact of Travel Distance on Visitor Profile, Destination Choice and Characteristics

In their study on the effect of distance on tourism, Mckercher & Bao (2008) noted that short haul visitors are generally younger, more likely to be female and travel with friends. They are usually repeated visitors who identify Hong Kong as main destination. Whereas, the long haul tourists tend to be older, usually with their spouses who visit Hong Kong for the first time and also view Hong Kong as one of the stop-over destination. Their study also reveals that the visitors from the short haul markets are usually short break visitors who are more interested in a pure pleasure-based holiday. They emphasize more on shopping, built attraction visitation and other hedonistic activities. The visitors from the long haul markets are more likely to engage in general sightseeing and experience the culture of the destination. They spend proportionately far less of their total travel budget on shopping.

Definition of Culture

National culture is one of the main factors influencing tourist behavior. Culture is the way of the life of a group of people, whose patterns of behavior being passed from one generation to another. Soloman (1996), as cited in Crotts, (2004) define culture as the accumulation of share meaning, rituals, norms, and traditions among members of society. It is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes members of one society form another.

Impact of culture distance on destination choice

Culture distance (CD) measures the extent to which national cultures are different from and similar to the culture of the host. The study of Ng, Lee & Soutar (2006) confirmed a negative relationship between cultural distance and intention to visit. The greater the cultural distance between country and a destination, the less likely tourists were to visit that destination. They suggested that tourists may experience culture shock when visiting culturally distant destina-
tions. Thus visiting culturally similar destinations reduces the impact of cultural shock and is likely to have a positive experience.

**Impact of cultural distance on tourism activities**

The results on Crotts’s study (2004) on the characteristics of inbound visitors to U.S.A. indicated that visitors traveling to countries similar to the host country, that is with low cultural distance, reported traveling alone more often, on longer trips, visiting more destinations and were less likely to involve in escorted tours. Whereas visitors visit countries that are high in cultural distance were times more likely to purchase package tours with tour escort for the entire trip and to spend fewer days, visiting fewer destinations.

**Measure of Cultural Distance**

Researchers have put forth different ways in measuring cultural distance. These measures were developed from different underlying constructs. It is clear that the different bases for these cultural measures produced different distance score. Hofstede (2001) evaluated 66 nations and created index scores for each of his five constructs: Power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity and the Confucian dynamic of long-term-short-term orientation constructs. He believes that uncertainty avoidance was more important than other cultural dimensions in predicting cross-culture behavior. According to Hofstede, each nation has evolved to include its own norms as to its overall tolerance of risk and uncertainly as measured by the Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI). The UAI was computed on the basis of the tested country’s mean scores base on three aspects: (a) rule orientation, (b) employment stability, and (c) stress. Hofstede’s UAI was chosen for the analysis in this study, as it seems to be simpler and more widely employed by other researchers in their studies.

**METHODOLOGY**

This study tries to examine the extent in which cultural distance influence on tourist behavior in comparison with travel distance. It was carried out by examining the profile of inbound visitors from different markets visiting Hong Kong. The relationship between cultural distance and the potential impact on travel destination decisions were examined by using the data from the Vacation Overnight Visitor segment in the 2010 Hong Kong Tourism Board’s Visitor Profile Report. These statistics provided the key tourism data such as arrivals, visitor spending and activities. Eight markets are selected for purpose of the analy-
sis. This including four long haul and four short haul markets. They are U.S.A., United Kingdom, France, and Australia, for the long haul markets; Japan, Thailand, Singapore and Malaysia for short haul markets. Each of them was chosen because they are having their difference in culture even within the same cluster.

The Markets and their cultural distance from Hong Kong

To begin with, the cultural distance of these eight markets from Hong Kong must be determined first. Based on Hofstede’s Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI), each of these eight countries was associated with a UAI score according to its tolerance for risk and uncertainty. This value was subtracted from the UAI score of the Hong Kong (host country) which score 29 to derive a cultural distance score. This represented the gap in the UAI dimension. Table 1 shows the score of Cultural Distance (CD) of the eight countries from Hong Kong.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>UAI</th>
<th>CD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>-63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>-57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>-35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>-22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States (U.S.A.)</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>-17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>-7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom (UK)</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>-6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table lists the countries with the highest to the lowest cultural distance from Hong Kong, with Japan at the highest end following by France, Thailand, Australia, Singapore, U.S.A., Malaysia and UK at the lowest end. It is worth to note that their cultural distances to Hong Kong are not bounded by the travel distances of these countries. Two of the first three countries highest CD, namely Japan and Thailand are classified as short haul markets to Hong Kong.

The data used for the analysis comprise variables of visitor profile: age, gender, and trip characteristics: itinerary, frequency of visit, travel arrangement, spending pattern, length of stay, travel companion and satisfaction level. The analysis was performed with the help of diagrams. The country with the
lowest CD was put on the left hand side of the diagram with gradual increased to the country with the highest CD (Japan) on the right.

**FINDINGS**

**VISITOR PROFILE**

- **Age**

  ![Figure 1. Mean age of the visitors](image)

Figure 1 shows that higher mean age spread across countries with low cultural distance and countries with high cultural distance. Little association is apparent between cultural distance and the age of the visitors from these eight markets.

However, a substantially different picture emerges when we compare the data by their travel distance from Hong Kong. If we look at the countries that belong to long haul markets that is, UK, U.S.A., Australia and France; all their mean ages are over 40 with Australia having 44.5 (highest mean age). Whereas, except Japan, the mean age of the visitors from the short haul countries are having lower mean age with Malaysia 37.5 (lowest mean age). The younger segment is more prominent in the short haul market. The cost of time, effort and money spend is much lower for these short haul markets so younger visitors are more likely to come. For the long haul market, visitors from these countries
usually view Hong Kong as part of their itinerary in the Far East or China that required much more effort for the trip. Many tourists from long haul markets like U.S.A. view the trip as “once in a life time”. So the mean age of visitors from the long haul market is much higher.

- **Gender**
  Same type of diagram is drawn in testing the influence of CD on gender. The pattern goes up and down again. It reveals that cultural distance does not have much influence on gender in the visitor profile of Hong Kong. On the other hand, if we analyze the gender profile by regrouping these eight countries into long haul and short haul market again, we immediate see the higher percentage of male in the long haul market. There are a relatively higher percentage of female visitors from the short haul markets to Hong Kong.

**TRIP CHARACTERISTICS**

- **Itinerary**

  ![](image)

  **Figure 2. Percentage of Hong Kong as the main destination**

  Figure 2 shows that higher percent of the visitors from Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand and Japan choose Hong Kong as the main destination. On the other hand, UK, U.S.A., Australia and France have much lower percentage that is
taking Hong Kong as the main destination. In other words, the later four countries just take Hong Kong as part of the itinerary. CD does not exert much influence on choosing Hong Kong as the main destination.

This kind of mix pattern can be explained again by the travel distance of these eight countries from Hong Kong. Those countries that choose Hong Kong as their main destination, although are of mix of cultural distance to Hong Kong, all belong to the short haul markets. Whereas UK, U.S.A., Australia, France belong to the long haul markets to Hong Kong. They usually take Hong Kong as a through destination, and travel onward to one or more countries in the region. Distance decay assumes that as the distance from the point of origin increases, the number of potential destinations one can visit decrease exponentially. In this sense, the travel distance exerts more influence than the cultural distance in this aspect.

- **Tour arrangement**

Figure 3 reveals that visitors with low culture distance were less likely to involve in guided tour. On the other hand, Thailand and Japan, at the farthest end of cultural distance to Hong Kong, have higher percentage in employing tour guides. Crotts’s study (2004) reveals that visitors will engage in more risk-reducing travel behavior by using travel packages, travel agents and escorted tours. The cultural distance does affect the tour arrangement in this aspect.
This characteristic of tour arrangement of these countries can also be explained by the effect of travel distance. Hyde & Lawson (2003) illustrated that the independent travelers who made their own travel arrangements tended to travel further compared with package tourists. So this also explains that countries with the longest distance with Hong Kong have the lowest percentage in joining the guided tours.

- **Spending pattern and per capita spending**

![Spending pattern](image)

Fig 4 shows that visitors from five out of these eight countries spent a much higher proportion of their money on shopping. However, these countries spread across from the 2\textsuperscript{nd} lowest (Malaysia) to the highest end (Japan) of the cultural distance. Again, cultural distance does not apply much influence on the spending pattern. Same type of diagram is drawn in testing the influence of CD on per capita spending. Again, not much a pattern could derive from it. Cultural distance affect very little on the spending on these visitors.

When we refer back to the diagram again by looking at their travel distance, we can see that a very large proportion of spending for short haul markets is put on shopping. Although shopping is also a major part of the spending for the long haul markets, however, hotel bills take up a very high percentage of
their spending. It can also be explained by the fact that long haul tourists stay longer in Hong Kong than the short haul tourist. The per capita spending of the long haul market is also higher than that of short haul markets. As distance increase so does the spending increase.

Similar types of test were done with the travel characteristics such as frequency of visit, average length of stay, travel companion with these eight markets; little association is apparent between cultural distance and these characteristics. When viewing these markets by the travel distance, quite a different picture appears. The decay effect of distance becomes obvious.

**IMPLICATION AND CONCLUSION**

This study tries to examine the extent of the influence of cultural distance on tourist profile and behavior in comparison with travel distance. The result found little correlation between cultural distance and the profile and trip characteristics of these eight countries. Cultural distance only shows a moderate relationship with the markets for higher cultural distance engaging in more guided tour. The rest of the trip characteristic does not demonstrate a close relationship with cultural distance. A substantially different picture emerges when the data is analyzed with the travel distance. The effect of distance on tourist behavior becomes evidence when comparing the data by regrouping these countries into long haul and short haul markets.

It is important to note that the result of this study on the impact of cultural distance is based on defining the cultural distance of the tested markets by using the Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) of Hofstede. As mentioned earlier, it was computed on the basis on three aspects, rule orientation, employment stability, and stress. By using this dimension alone may not be appropriate in tourism context. Some substantial cultural elements such as language, food, religion, pace of life etc. should be taken into account in defining the cultural distance.

Language difference not only is considered as a big barrier for tourists to experience and understand the host country, it hinders the tourists to move around the country but to stay in tourist concentrated area where they feel safer. Religion shapes the culture of a nation. It affects the nation’s value, behavior, and relationships with each other. The strangeness of the destination will be much reduced if people visit a place that share the same or more familiar religion. Food is a very important determinant of the experience of the destination. Although there are tourists who like to try exotic food for experience,
however, food similarity will reduce the stress and increase the level of comfort especially when traveling to developing countries. The more cultural elements that could be incorporated into the measure of cultural distance, the more appropriate it would be applicable to the context of tourism.

Cultural elements play a very significant role in affecting the demand and behavior of tourists. It is suggested that more work to be done on the study of the measure of cultural distance by incorporating more elements of culture. These elements should include the obvious dimensions such as food, language, religion and also other hidden dimensions such as ethics, values, sanitary practices and male-female relationships so as to develop a more practicable cultural distance measure for analyzing of its influence in tourism.

REFERENCE


Morphogenetic Systems and Geomorphosites: Implications for Geotourism Analysis In Northern Slope of Keyamaky-Dagh Mount.(Northwest Of Iran)

Davoud Mokhtari
Faculty of Geography & Planning
University of Tabriz, Iran
E-mail: d_mokhtari@tabrizu.ac.ir

INTRODUCTION

Propose of geomorphologic matters in relation to tourism is one of interdisciplinary research approaches that considered in recent years. Geomorphologic issues being raised with respect to tourism, in terms of performance in relation to geotourism morphogenetic systems (Pope et al., 2002; Arrowsmith and Inbakaran, 2002; Jennings, 2004; Pralong, 2005; Serrano and González-Trueba, 2005; Brandolini et al., 2006). By establishing such a relationship, geomorphosites like the Asyab-Kharabeh are defined as geomorphological forms and processes that according to understanding about the influential factors such as geological, geomorphological, historical and social locations, gain the aesthetic, scientific, cultural - historical and socio - economic values (Panizza and Piacente, 1993, 2003; Quaranta, 1993). Asyab-Kharabeh region on the northern slopes of Mount Kyamaky along the Aras River (North West of Iran), including those areas that in recent years many people from around the country and the world to visit and enjoy the beauty. Based on this context, understanding the morphogenetic systems of Asyab-Kharabeh catchment and a practical perspective, the assessment of the possibilities and potentials of geotourism in relation to operating systems, with regard to the three dimensions of such studies, namely the conservation, educational and tourist attraction, the main mission of this study was defined as, and the introduction of Asyab-Kharabeh region as a geomorphosite and provide a statement of geotourism capabilities are the main goals of the research.
What is the problem?

Considering the above, now the questions are:

1. Is the Asyab-Kharabeh catchment a geomorphosite?
2. If the answer to the first question is yes, then what are the active morphogenetic systems and what are their effects?
3. Are many geotourism attractions of the catchment on the geomorphological units or not?
4. Geotourism activities of people do on these units or not?
5. Retention of the basin geotourism facilities of catchment are associated with the activity of morphogenetic systems or not?

And ...

This research tries to form morphogenetic systems in a catchment will respond to these questions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The design geographical issues and especially geomorphologic matters related to tourism dates back to many years ago when Leopold (Leopold, 1949) as one of the pioneers of geomorphology, proposed land ethics as underlying and essential to tourism services ethic. This relation is indeed true understanding of the environment as a resource for tourism, both in terms of its impact on tourism is included. In recent years this relationship into another form, and to evaluate the performance characteristics of the geographic area associated with tourism, researchers have been popular. For example, one of these is the introduction of geomorphosites. According to M. Panizza and S. Piacente (1993, 2003) and G. Quaranta (1993), geomorphological sites or geomorphological assets (Pralong, 2005) 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 perception of geological, geomorphological, historical and social factors.

Geomorphology and tourism also influence one another reciprocally: the geomorphological context may contribute to the tourist attraction of specific places, and tourist development may create strong impacts on the landforms (Mihai, 2009; Reynard et al. 2003).

In the literature with different approaches geological or geographical, geomorphologic forms and processes is a key element of geotourism And the role of geomorphological phenomena and processes as tourist attractions, in geo-
morphosites expression goes. Sources also indicate that researchers investigate the geomorphology of the largest studies in Iran geotourism.

**THE STUDY AREA**

The study area includes the Asyab-Kharabeh catchment is located in northern slopes of Keyamaki-dagh Mount. in the Aras riverbank(fig. 1). This area is actually part of a protected area well. Asıab-Kharabe River is the main drainage system of the northern slopes of Mount Keyamaki that flows south to north direction and joins the Aras River. This system, together with geomorphological phenomena such as Parsian alluvial fan, Tufa deposits, Keyamaki volcanic dome steep slopes, block fields and trenched valleys are notable features of the catchment.

![Figure 1. The study area and the geomorphosites of Asyab-Kharabeh catchment.](image)
METHODOLOGY

To achieve the study objectives, geomorphological features that could be considered as guarantees optimal utilization of geomorphological sites, through field observations and interpretation of geological and medium scale topographic maps, aerial and satellite images were identified. Then the nature of morphogenetic systems operating in the catchment area was studied, and morphogenetic areas and geomorphologic sites were identified. Considering the role of geomorphological findings in geotourism researches, geomorphological characteristics through field observations and library studies was a priority.

After identifying the morphogenetic systems operating in different parts of the Asyab-Kharabeh catchment, the overall characteristics of each of them adjusted in the cards as identification geomorphosite card (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geomorphosite Description Card</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Identification</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commune:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinates:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Situation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Geomorphology</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landform, Description,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morphostructures, Erosion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chronology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geosite attributes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Uses</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of interest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State of Conservation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current uses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>infrastructures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal status</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Reference: Serrano and Gonzalez Trueba(2005)*

To evaluate the Geotourism ability of geomorphological sites in the study area, separately, Pralong and Serrano & Gonzalez-Treuoba methods was used.
RESULTS

The landscape of the catchment is a result of performance of fluvial processes in different geological periods but, the landscape of geomorphosites are mainly due to geomorphic systems like periglacier, tufagenesis and biogeomorphologic systems. The performances of latter two cases were locally. The elevated portion of the basin, the Parsian alluvial fan and plateaus unit are three main morphogenetic areas that each of which are known by landforms and specific processes. Asyab-Kharabeh fall, Kalazir subbasin, Marza-Dara subbasin, and Azay-tapa Tufa hill are the four geomorphosite in the study area. Assessments made about the ability of geomorphologic sites showed that the value of these places, mainly because of their high academic grades and other values have been overshadowed by the potential scientific value. Higher levels of the economic values of geomorphic places like Asyab-Kharabeh fall than any other values like the aesthetic value, can be followed with the ominous result. Overall values are calculated using two methods of evaluation for studied geomorphosites, shows that the values of this geomorphosites compared to similar places in other parts of the world are less. In such a situation due to factors such as difficult access, far from major population centers of the country, lack of introduction of geotourism capabilities in the area, type of public attitudes to tourism and leisure activities, and the lack of attention to the real concept of geotourism is can search. Despite the activity of various morphogenetic systems in different parts of the catchment, fluvial processes, and in particular the occurrence of debris flows within the catchment is the most important geomorphological hazard. These hazards threaten the Parsian alluvial fan surface and specially it’s active part, main channel of the catchment and channels around the Parsian alluvial fan. All morphogenetic systems operating in the catchment area are very sensitive to environmental change, particularly climate change and these changes may be due to any reason that could undermine the system balance. In any case, keep Geotourism facilities of catchment area is closely associated with the activities of morphogenetic systems.

Now, despite the necessity of geotourism views on exploiting geomorphologic sites, exploiting the Asyab-Kharabeh fall as only being exploited geomorphosite in the study area, is done with non Geotouristic methods, and the performance morphogenetic systems that make these attractions are not addressing. Here, it is necessary to empasis the role of geomorphologists in managing of such areas because only the agent-based model of conservation and management of natural resources that can provide these.
CONCLUSION

Based on the results of this study, the Asyab-Kharabeh is designed as a geomorphosite and it can be considered one of the region’s natural and tourism resources. Fluvial system, Periglacial system, Tufagenesis system and a biogeomorphologic system are the most active morphogenetic systems are known in the catchment. Asyab-Kharabeh fall, Kalazir sub basin, Marza-Dara sub basin, and Azay-tapa Tufa hill are the four geomorphosite in the study area.

In general, providing a new look at the drainage basin and geomorphological units and define them in the framework of the concepts of geotourism is the main achievement of this study. This issue is powered by the researchers is essential. Track this topic from researchers is essential, a means to be able to dream of how the nature of morphogenetic systems and what planners want to connect?, Fulfilled.

REFERENCES


Overcoming Barriers and Developing Strategies for Achieving Dubai’s Tourism Vision for 2020

Esmat Zaidan
Department of Geography and Urban Planning
University of United Arab Emirates, UAE
E-mail: esmat.zaidan@uaeu.ac.ae

INTRODUCTION

With ambitions to become a top leisure destination in the Middle East and in the world, Dubai, with small territories and limited natural and cultural tourism resources (Stephenson, 2013) but relatively wealthy, has been spending billions of dollars to build an astounding modern city almost from scratch in less than 20 years. (Bageen, 2007). With UAE significant steps in diversifying it’s economy to decrease it’s dependency on dwindling oil supplies and to increase the non-oil sector’s contribution to the country’s (GDP) by the year 2030, Dubai, has already developed its economy to the point where oil accounts for only 7 per cent of the emirate’s GDP. Today, Tourism accounts for almost a quarter 22.6 % of the emirate’s annual GDP (Henderson, 2008). Dubai converted its urban landscape, and its image to a mixed-use urban development’s containing luxury residences, shopping complexes, tallest steel towers, luxury hotels (7-stars Burj Al Arab hotel), man-made islands (one shaped like a Palm and another like a map of the world), largest malls, and inventive theme parks, international events, and entertainment complexes (Smith, 2010). The main outcome of all tourism development initiatives is the creation of modern Dubai that has achieved significant accomplishment in attracting international visitors (Henderson, 2008; Stephenson & Night, 2010). This dynamic progress and vitality has created the fastest, biggest, most amazing structures that have rapidly changed the face of Dubai (Bageen, 2007) to make it step with confidence on the world stage. Modern Dubai, today, is very-well positioned on the international tourism map as the world top destination.
However, Dubai government wishes to further expand the sector. The ruler of Dubai His Highness Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid Al Maktoum, is widely recognized as the driving force behind the prosperous economic growth and the successful tourism development. Sheikh Mohamad, is also the Vice President and Prime Minister of the UAE and the head of the DTCM has announced early 2013 Dubai’s Tourism Vision for 2020 identifying how Dubai will double its annual visitor arrivals from 10 million in 2012 to 20 million in 2020. This vision implies triple the annual economic contribution made by the tourism sector. This paper examines the strategies developed by the tourism planning authority in Dubai to accomplish this vision.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Dubai Tourism Vision for 2020 is to welcome 20 million tourists per year by 2020 and to treble the economic contribution tourism currently makes to the city’s economy. The city has succeeded in attracting more tourists in 2013 than in 2012. The keys for this success are the development of world-class facilities and creative infrastructure projects such as, metro Dubai, ring roads, private bridges, double-decked highway flyovers, air-conditioned bus-stops, and monorail system. Dubai International Airport which is recording the second highest traffic in the world played significant role in bringing new visitors to Dubai (Bageen, 2007; Stephenson, 2013). The airport that consists of three terminals (Terminal 3 is the largest airport terminal in the world and the largest building on earth by floor space) has a total capacity of 80 million passengers per year. There are over 7,000 weekly flights operated by 140 airlines to over 230 destinations across every continent (DXB website, 2014).

In addition to the major concerts and world-level sporting events, Dubai is leading Meetings Incentives Conferences and Events (MICE) (Sharpley, 2008); such status has also played a central role in boosting first half visitor numbers in 2013. The Department of Tourism and Commerce Marketing (DTCM) was established in 1997 to be the principle tourism authority. This authority, chaired by Dubai’s ruler is solely responsible for tourism planning, supervision and development in Dubai (Sharpley, 2008). The DTCM released its tourism figures for the first half of 2013 as shown in Table 1 & 2. Dubai received more than 5.5 million tourists in the first half of 2013. As demonstrated in these tables, Dubai achieved a 9.8 per cent year-on-year increase in new visitor’s arrivals. Moreover, the figures show increases across all key indicators including, hotel establishment guests, hotel and hotel apartment revenues, room occupancy, and
average length of stay. This may indicate that Dubai is on the way to achieving its Tourism Vision for 2020.

Table 1: Dubai’s Top Source Markets –

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Total Guests</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Total Guests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>1,052,353</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>843,568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>631,638</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>549,450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>535,284</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>489,884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>356,971</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>369,474</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>263,969</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>262,881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>261,346</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>242,289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>234,505</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>229,685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Oman</td>
<td>218,775</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>226,326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>201,036</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Oman</td>
<td>213,995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>196,897</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>181,180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>194,448</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>178,887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>185,919</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>144,121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>152,825</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>124,545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Qatar</td>
<td>132,435</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Qatar</td>
<td>123,513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>132,383</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>120,307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>95,138</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>92,339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>90,919</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>85,942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>85,528</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>76,031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>80,098</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>72,640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>73,486</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>69,580</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (DTCM, 2013)

Table 2: Dubai Hotel Establishment (Hotels and Hotel Apartment Guests) – Key Results, Jan-Sep 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Jan-Sep 2013</th>
<th>Jan-Sep 2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Guest Arrivals</td>
<td>7,941,118</td>
<td>7,231,670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Guest Nights</td>
<td>30,874,916</td>
<td>27,163,974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Length of Stay (in days)</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Room Revenue (‘000 AED)</td>
<td>9,399,782</td>
<td>8,000,414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Revenue (‘000’ AED)</td>
<td>5,927,453</td>
<td>5,083,192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Revenue (‘000 AED)</td>
<td>15,327,235</td>
<td>13,083,605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Operating Hotel/Hotel Apartments</td>
<td>609</td>
<td>588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Hotel Rooms &amp; Hotel Apartments Available</td>
<td>82,879</td>
<td>76,792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupancy Rate - Hotels</td>
<td>78.6%</td>
<td>76.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupancy Rate – Hotel Apartments</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>75.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Room Rate – Hotels (AED)</td>
<td>589</td>
<td>558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Room Rate – Hotel Apartments (AED)</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>409</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (DTCM, 2013)
METHODOLOGY

In authoritarian states, significant challenges face researchers regarding collecting data and having access to key informative professional (Sharpley, 2008). Nevertheless, the researcher was able to have key interviews with planners from the Department of Tourism and Commerce Marketing (DTCM) through telephone and email. The DTCM was established in 1997 to be the principle authority for tourism planning and Development. The chairman of the DTCM is Dubai’s ruler, His Excellency Shiekh Mohammed Bin Rashid Al Maktoom. Discussion and finding are based upon analysis of the interview manuscripts and the available secondary data including previous tourism studies, published articles, and tourism figures and reports provided by DTCM, in addition to fieldwork observations.

DISCUSSION

Dubai Tourism development as a destination is ongoing and uncompleted; however, it is successful in placing Dubai in a leading position on the global tourism map. Yet, the achievement of its tourism vision of the future will significantly depend on stable and secure circumstances, which, in an era of uncertainty, cannot be guaranteed. This continuing development of Dubai implies growing demand that can keep up with the economic wealth and the expensive investment in constructing and expanding the tourism infrastructure and facilities. According to Henderson (2006), Dubai today is at a critical stage where it is essential for its development to sustain extraordinary growth, increase length of stay, fill the capacity of the expensive hotels and entertainment facilities and endeavour to create a tourism industry that is economically, socially, and environmentally sustainable. The tourism planning authorities should continue with their marketing and product development enterprises to relocate Dubai from just a luxury destination to a unique vacation destination as well as a distinctive natural and cultural heritage destination. While Dubai’s image as a luxury destination is significant to tourism planners and developers in Dubai, official tourism planners of DTCM recognize that they have to show what else Dubai has to offer to the world in order to differentiate their tourism market. Dubai has to plan for mass tourists in order to accomplish Dubai Tourism Vision 2020. For Dubai to accomplish its vision the following strategies are developed based on the analysis of interviews with DTCM officials, previous studies, and secondary data provided by the DTCM:
Increasing Dubai’s ‘destination offering’ across events, attractions, infrastructure, services and packages and creating and developing more festivals and events.

Reaching an even wider audience by targeting travellers on a budget and business visitors so they may consider extending their trip to experience Dubai’s attractions and activities.

Maintaining market share across Dubai’s existing source markets as economic and demographic growth will lead to a natural rise in visitors from Dubai’s top markets (including Saudi Arabia, the UK, Germany and the USA).

Focusing on tourism markets that have been identified as high growth potential (such as India, China and Australia).

Increasing the amount of repeat visitors by increased bouquet of offerings.

Working with 33 offices of the DTCM across the world into turning awareness of Dubai into flight and hotel bookings.

Establishing largely indoor attractions (For example, Atlantis is leading a new wave of theme park style tourist attractions, including Universal Studios, SeaWorld and Legoland) to continue attracting visitors in the scorching summer months that have kept tourists away.

Targeting families (a market segment that is growing at six per cent annually in the key Gulf source market) by establishing Dubai as the top family destination, for example offering segmented packages across different themes to ensure that Dubai is the most welcoming destination for families. For example having the ‘Kids Go Free’ initiative as parts of events which offer opportunities for children to stay in hotels and visit tourism attractions for no cost.

Conduct extensive research in order to identify the needs and the expectations of Dubai’s top source markets to ensure that Dubai provides for them what they need and meet their expectations and to identify areas which Dubai can improve upon.

Unifying the approach to leisure and business tourism Dubai is already the MICE and trade hub for the MENASA region (Middle East, North Africa and South Asia. Dubai has the potential to further develop tourism using its existing conference event business as a platform for expanding its leisure tourism market. – Under the logo “today’s business visitor is tomorrow’s leisure tourist”, DTCM is encouraging visitors to extend their length of stay and return for future holidays with families and friends.
On the other hand, Dubai still has to entirely overcome many barriers to its development as a destination. These barriers according to Henderson (2006) are represented by the increased competition from other destinations in the Middle East and in the Gulf countries, such as Oman, Qatar, and even Abu Dhabi. Such competition may further dilute demand for tourism in Dubai. Furthermore, the lack of national plan for tourism development in the UAE results in the fact that individual emirates are developing their own tourism sector, which implies further competition within the UAE itself for a share of similar markets. Another barrier is represented by non-repeat tourism in Dubai which creates a concern about the continuous rapid development of facilities and attractions that may result in the supply significantly exceeding the demand. Environmentally, tourism impose significant pressure on the scarce natural resources as energy sources and water supplies, particularly that per capita water consumption in Dubai is already threefold the world average. From a socio-cultural perspective, significant increase in western tourism may lead to several negative impacts such as loss of local identity, cultural conflict, changes in the vernacular landscape, higher prices for goods and services, higher cost for real state and land, traffic congestion and noise pollution.

CONCLUSION

Tourism development in Dubai is driven by a significant target of 20 million visitors by 2020, requiring arrivals to be more than double in 6 years. Achieving Dubai Tourism Vision also entails an annual growth of 9 per cent which is in line with current growth rates, according to the data released by the DTCM. Economic wealth and investment in expensive facilities has successfully generated strong economic growth in tourism. Dubai is a hub between East and West and is a natural gateway to emerging tourism markets. Apparently, all key factors in order for Dubai to achieve its Tourism Vision for 2020 already exist, particularly after Dubai won the bidding for hosting EXPO 2020 which for a period of six months, will attract millions of visitors. Indeed, Dubai may celebrate all its development achievements, yet the feasibility to achieve its ambition to be the world top tourism destination may be debatable. As discussed earlier, Dubai still has to entirely overcome many barriers to its development as a destination. Furthermore, despite Dubai’s optimistic tourism development enterprises and the distinctive expansion of its tourism facilities and infrastructure in the last twenty years, the initial concern is what strategies should be developed by the tourism planning authorities in Dubai in order to achieve the determined target of attracting 20 million visitors by 2020. Such strategies should imply, as
mentioned above, destination marketing objectives that extensively focus on repositioning Dubai from a luxury and exclusive destination to a more attainable and cost-attractive destination. Furthermore, given the global downturn which affects the economic capacities of tourists originating from Dubai top source markets such as USA, UK, Germany, and Russia, in addition to the tourism industry’s economic requirements to sustain the modernization of Dubai and the rapid development of tourist serving infrastructure and facilities (as hotels, amusement parks, malls, and event and leisure destinations), the prospective of the development of budget hotels in Dubai is significantly encouraging. Establishing or expanding budget hotels was not conventionally of high importance for local and foreign investors, since developers preferred luxury hotels because of the high land prices and investment costs. Lastly, Dubai emergence as a tourist destination is an outcome of prevailing specific political, economic, socio-cultural conditions, thus accomplishing Dubai Tourism Vision 2020 will certainly face many challenges and barriers that the city may overcome by developing sustainable strategies for tourism planning and development. The question that may rise herein is whether Dubai tourism vision 2020 is even desirable given the probable adverse impacts, which could signify further obstacles to a sustainable long-term growth.

REFERENCES


The Determinants of Sustainable Tourism and Hospitality Practices in Family Firms

Esra Memili
Bryan School of Business and Economics
University of North Carolina at Greensboro
Greensboro, NC, 27402-6170, U.S.A.
E-mail: e_memili@uncg.edu

&

Sevil Sonmez
Bryan School of Business and Economics
University of North Carolina at Greensboro
Greensboro, NC, 27402-6170, U.S.A.
E-mail: sesonmez@uncg.edu

&

Özlem Yıldırım-Öktem
Bogazici University, Hisar Campus
Department of International Trade
Bebek, İstanbul, Turkey
E-mail: ozlem.yildirim1@boun.edu.tr

&

Burcu Koç
Gazi University
Department of Tourism Management
Ankara, Turkey
E-mail: burcukoc@gazi.edu.tr

INTRODUCTION

Family firms in hospitality and tourism sectors have been under researched despite the prevalence of businesses owned and managed by families in these sectors. Previous research suggests potentially higher propensity to engage in sustainable tourism practices in family firms compared to non-family firms. We extend this line of research by drawing primarily upon theory of Corporate So-
cial Responsibility (CSR), Psychological Capital (PsyCap), and the extant family business literature to explore the determinants of sustainable tourism and/or hospitality practices in family firms. Specifically, we suggest that intra-family succession intentions will lead to a greater degree of CSR of family firms in these sectors, which in turn will influence sustainable tourism and/or hospitality practices. We also suggest the interaction effects of Organizational PsyCap on these links.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A large number of firms in tourism and hospitality sectors around the world are owned and operated by families and this is thought to significantly impact their strategic behavior such as sustainable business practices (Carlsen, Getz & Ali-Knight, 2001). Carlsen et al. (2001) suggest that family firms may have higher propensity to engage in sustainable tourism and hospitality practices than non-family firms; however, we still do not know enough about the determinants of sustainable tourism and hospitality practices.

Family involvement occurs when a family exerts control over the firm through ownership and management (Chrisman, Chua & Litz, 2004). Litz (1995) distinguishes between family involvement based on structure and intentions. Structural involvement focuses on the family’s ownership and management. However, not all family owned and managed firms use their involvement to influence firm behavior in a way that distinguishes them from non-family firms (Chua, Chrisman & Sharma, 1999). By contrast, when involvement is based on intentions, controlling families are more likely to exert a significant influence on firm behavior. Indeed, the “essence” of a family firm is thought to be a function of a family’s influence on the culture, functioning, and behavior of the firm owing to the pursuit of a family’s vision for the firm (Chua et al., 1999).

In our paper, we suggest that intentions for transgenerational control through intra-family succession are an important indication of a family’s willingness to use its influence to distinctively affect firm strategies and behavior. In particular, we suggest that such intentions imply that a family firm’s strategic behaviors will be oriented toward corporate social responsibility (CSR) and in turn lead to its sustainable tourism and hospitality practices. This will help families preserve and enhance the economic as well as socioemotional value of the firm for the family in the long term (Gomez-Mejia, Hynes, Nunez-Nickel & Moyano-Fuentes, 2007).
Aside from socioemotional wealth, another important intangible asset of family firms is their organizational PsyCap (Memili, Welsh & Luthans, 2013; Memili, Welsh & Kaciak, forthcoming). PsyCap is based on the work on Positive Organizational Behavior that can be defined as the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capabilities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement. Positive Psychological Constructs (or simply PsyCap) are defined as an individual’s positive psychological state of development and are characterized by hope, self-efficacy, resilience, and optimism as identified by Luthans and colleagues (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007). Memili et al. (2013) introduce the organizational PsyCap of family firms, which can be particularly valuable for family firms owing to their challenges in raising other forms of capital such as financial or human capital. The authors also suggest that family firms may exhibit higher levels of organizational PsyCap than non-family firms due to their family firm idiosyncrasies such as family bonding, collectivity, shared history, and long-term orientation. In our study, we examine the Organizational Psychological Capital (PsyCap) as a valuable intangible asset in turning not only intra-family succession intentions into CSR activities, but also CSR into sustainable tourism and hospitality practices in these family firms.

Hence, our paper addresses three important research questions: (1) How do intra-family succession intentions affect CSR in family firms in tourism and hospitality sectors, (2) How does CSR influence sustainable tourism and hospitality practices in family firms, (3) How can organizational PsyCap impact these relationships?

**HYPOTHESES**

**Hypothesis 1.** Intra-family succession intentions will be positively associated with Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) activities in family firms in tourism and hospitality sectors.

**Hypothesis 2.** CSR activities will be positively associated with sustainable tourism and hospitality practices in family firms.

**Hypothesis 3a.** Organizational PsyCap will positively moderate the link between intra-family succession intentions and CSR activities in family firms in tourism and hospitality sectors, such that the relationship will be stronger.
Hypothesis 3b. Organizational PsyCap will positively moderate the link between CSR and sustainable tourism and hospitality practices in family firms, such that the relationship will be stronger.

METHODOLOGY

To test the aforementioned hypotheses, responses to surveys conducted by universities in Turkey in 2014 will be utilized, as part of a broader collaboration project with a university in the U.S. The questionnaires will be completed by the principal managers of the tourism and hospitality firms who in most cases will also be the primary owner.

Before conducting the primary analysis, t-tests will compare early and late respondents to the survey along the variables of interest. Results will indicate whether or not a non-response bias might be a problem (Kanuk & Berenson, 1975). Furthermore, to ensure the robustness of the results, the analysis will be replicated by systematically using different restrictions.

To measure the dependent variable, we will use various multi-item sustainable tourism and hospitality scales (Bramwell & Alletorp, 2001; Hassan, 2000; Ryan, 2002; Vernon, Essex, Pinder & Curry, 2003) and indicators (e.g. certifications, memberships to organizations, and awards) to measure Sustainable Tourism and Hospitality for robustness.

The independent variable succession intention will be measured by the single-item question “Do you wish/expect that the future successor as president of your business will be a family member?” A dummy variable will be created so that 1 will denote a “yes” response and 0 will denote “no”.

To measure the mediator Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), a 15-item 5-point Likert scale will be used, adapted for the family business context (Turker, 2009). The items measure CSR toward society, future generations, non-government organizations, employees, customers, and the natural environment.

To measure the moderator PsyCap, the PCQ-12 (Luthans et al., 2007) will be adapted for the organizational level by following Memili and colleagues’ work (forthcoming). Respondents will be asked to rate items such as “We all feel confident in representing our firm in meetings with external stakeholders” (confidence), “We all can think of many ways to reach our current firm goals” (hope), “We all usually take stressful things at the firm in stride” (resilience), or “We always look on the bright side of things regarding our firm” (optimism).
In line with previous studies (Chrisman et al., 2004), firm age and size will be controlled for. Firm age refers to the number of years that a firm has been in operation. Firm size will be measured by both the log of firm sales and the log of total employees in the current fiscal year. Prior firm performance will be also controlled. Firm productivity will be used to measure prior firm performance, operationalized by the log of total firms sales divided by the total number of employees in the previous fiscal year. In addition, the year in which the survey will be conducted will be controlled using a dummy variable. This control will account for the possibility of periodic fluctuations. Finally, each firm’s location in terms of city will be controlled for to account for possible differences in geographic regions.

Tobit regression will be used for the primary analysis. White’s (1980) method for variance correction of the error terms will be applied to adjust for the potential impacts of autocorrelation and heteroscedasticity. Descriptive statistics and the correlation matrix for the variables will be provided. We will examine the correlations among the variables concerning multicollinearity.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Our paper contributes to the tourism, hospitality, and family firm literatures in several ways. First, we contribute to the tourism and hospitality literature by presenting a model demonstrating the unique family firm characteristics, CSR, and sustainability practices. Second, our research enhances the development of the theory of the family firm and highlights the importance of incorporating Psychological Capital, CSR, sustainable tourism and hospitality theories into family business studies. Third, we contribute to a better understanding of the family firms’ heterogeneity. Indeed, family firms are not only different from non-family firms but also other family firms (Melin & Nordqvist, 2007).

In conclusion, our conceptual framework presented in this paper provides a PsyCap perspective to family firms and their strategic decisions concerning CSR activities and sustainable tourism and hospitality practices. If family-owned tourism and hospitality firms can successfully develop and capitalize on organizational PsyCap through long-term orientation deriving from succession intentions, they can enhance long-term prosperity through CSR activities and sustainable practices.
REFERENCES


Tourism Sustainability Issues in Axios Delta, Central Macedonia, Greece

Fotios Kilipiris  
Department of Business Administration  
Alexander Technological Educational Institute (ATEI) of Thessaloniki, Greece  
E-mail: fkili@tour.teithe.gr

Athanasios S. Dermetzopoulos  
Department of Business Administration  
Alexander Technological Educational Institute (ATEI) of Thessaloniki, Greece

INTRODUCTION

Tourism as an economic phenomenon is often anticipated as a prospect for upholding economic and social development. However, at the same time, it represents an effort that could affect ecosystem structures and processes and degrade the quality and quantity of natural resources. In the case of Axios river delta, in the region of Central Macedonia in Northern Greece, an effort is made to design and plan sustainable tourism activities for the local rice and mussels producing area. This study proposes tourism as a complementary economic activity to those traditional in the rural environment, based mainly on the existence of natural and cultural local resources, especially elements linked to the rural context.

Tourism development, like any other type of economic activity, is not an end on itself, but it concerns us since it contributes to the total regional development. For that reason, its success is not defined in the number of tourists that visit the destination (although this factor remains of great importance), but in the tourism’s contribution to the prosperity of the local population. To assess the human prosperity, it has been introduced in global level since the early 80’s, the concept of sustainable-long term development, which, although defined
and interpreted in multiple, it integrates two central ideas (Creaco and Querini, 2003:3):

- The field of development can be conceptually broken into three constituent parts –environmental, economic and sociopolitical– while its accomplishment is achieved through the balance between those parts that contribute to the maintenance of the system of life.
- The needs of the present generation should be met without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs – economic, environmental and social. The main goal of sustainable development is to achieve relevant quality of life now and for coming generations.

**SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT**

Sustainable development should be considered as a “process” and not as an end product (“sustainability”) with specific limits to be achieved (Wall, 1997:485). Schematically is an equilateral triangle, with vertices the dominate targets of sustainable development in a short and long term basis: economic productivity, social equity and environmental protection (figure 1). And exactly because it is about a dynamic balance, any spot but the barycentre, indicates a non equal mix of the three goals (Coccosis & Tsartas, 2001:137)

The most important thing that should be understood is that the desired model of sustainable development depends on the certain characteristics of each area and there is no “model-panacea” that could be applied in all occasions. The term “sustainable tourism” started to be used at the end of 1980 when academics and tourism professionals started studying the influence of the Brundtland Report on the tourism sector (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). The fact that there is no generally accepted definition for sustainable tourism, leads frequently to confusion with what this term means in practice. According to Baum (1995:245) “sustainability by its nature has an underlying moral dimension in the humanist tradition which, at its simplest, argues that people respond positively to good treatment and negatively to mismanagement”.

Furthermore, along with Butler (1998), sustainable tourism exists when tourism is developed and maintained in an area (community, environment) in such a way and such an extent that it remains viable over an indefinite period. Moreover, sustainable tourism does not misquote or alter the environment (human or physical) in which it exists, to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being of other activities and processes (Christou, 2000).

A very important statement made by Butler (1993:29) who clearly adapted the concept of sustainable development into the context of tourism and introduced an intrinsic distinction between “sustainable development in tourism destinations” and “sustainable tourism”: “…sustainable development in the context of tourism could be taken as: tourism which is developed and maintained in an area (community, environment) in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (human and physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being of other activities and processes. That is not the same as sustainable tourism, which may be thought of as tourism which is in a form which can maintain its viability in an area for an indefinite period of time”.

TOURISM DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

Tourism Development Planning –a process that aims on the spotting and the solution of problems and the production of a regulative plan in order to
achieve the desired outcome– is found among the general frame of the systemic approach. According to the systemic concept, a “system” is a dynamic and complex whole, interacting as a structured functional unit. All systems are open to their environment and interact with it, while they can obtain new qualitative attributes, having as a result their continuous evolution. Each system is characterized by interdependence and interrelationship between its subsystems, as well as by its intense to ensure balance (UNEP, 1996). At this spectrum, each destination can be perceived as a system that contains four individual subsystems (Konduli and Spilanis, 2003:3):

1. The economic subsystem that constitutes the employment and the productive capabilities of the region,
2. The sociopolitical subsystem that constitutes various elements, such as cultural, local institutions, public administration and regional demographics,
3. The environmental subsystem, which is shaped by the elements of natural and constructive environment,
4. The infrastructure subsystem, which constitutes the infrastructures and services that support regional function.

The individual elements of each subsystem are characterized by relationships and interdependences either between them, or between the elements of other subsystems. Each system does not constitute an “isolated piece of the world”, but exists as a part of a wider system; the systems approach gives primacy to the interrelationships, not to the elements of the system. In our case, the external environment of the region constitutes the broader system, which comprises external factors like the statutory framework and the National and European Union’s policies. Decision making upon tourist development is characterized by the great number and the variety of indigenous and exogenous factors of the regional system, which contains the involved individual and collective carriers’. More specifically, with regard to domestic factors, determinative is the role of tourism enterprises, local authorities and local population including land owners, second residence owners and local non-governmental organizations (e.g. environmental organizations, cultural associations).

On the other hand, tourism development depends on external factors, such as the tourists’ preferences, the financial condition of their countries of origin, the tour operator policies, competition of other destinations, foreign investment, national and international institutional framework, and currency differences (Briasouli, 2000:127-128). To conclude with, sustainable development is
the combination of economic, social and environmental parameters, which allow in an action or in a region to be sustainable, to be developed and be adjusted in the new conditions and correspond at the new challenges, in long term (Spilanis, 2000).

THE CASE OF AXIOS DELTA

Focusing on the specific case, the basic purpose of this project has been to secure additional or supplementary resources to the population of an area through the development of tourism related activities. According to this, the residents that today are occupied in the rice cultivation sector or the mussel feeding they will have the potentials to be employed in activities related to the followings: selling local agricultural products like rice, mussel and wine, tourists sight-seeing or building and development of special exhibition centers. The need to ensure additional resources for the local community made the implementation of that project imperatively, taking into account the following:

1. The status for the protection of the rice production in the EU countries will stop to exist in the near future. This funding abolition will cause a great financial problem to the rice producers.
2. The environmental pollution of the Thermaikos Golf impacts directly the shell feeding of the area.
3. There is an obvious change on the rice consumers from the classical rice varieties through different varieties that are produced abroad (e.g. Basmati rice). In marketing terms, this is a threat.

4. There is a tenderly change in tourism consumption that directs to activities that are related with the nature, ecology and education, in general. In marketing terms, this is an opportunity.

According to the analysis and the nature of the particular environmental values of the study area, the potentials for alternative forms of tourism in the area are interesting. Consistent with these data, the researchers analyzed and evaluated the present parameters and concluded in a set of recommendations, in a short-medium and long-term perspectives, relevant with the necessary interventions and recommendations for the development of alternative forms of tourism in the area. These recommendations and interventions were classified into the following levels:

a. On activities level
b. On infrastructure level
c. On human resources level
d. On institutional level

In reference to the project aims, it has attempted to integrate parameters and experiences that have been recorded in the international bibliography and are related with products that comprise the special interest of this study. The international experience has been adapted to the local situation and to the particular aims of this project. At the same time, the project has pursued to establish practices and solutions that could be adopted from the other countries participating in the project and has attempted to transfer the best-practice know-how. For the implementation of this study, primary and secondary data have been used. In particular, field research, photo shooting and interviews with local authorities, local carriers, entrepreneurs, residents and professional associations, as well as literature review and internet resources have been the main research tools and methods.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The tourism development is not an end in itself, but aims to contribute to the local economic and social development. This by improving both the income and the living conditions of the residents (short-term aims), as well as the gen-
eral development prospects of the area. Short-term processes regarding the natural environment protection and long-term processes on accumulation of capital and knowledge provide alternative future solutions. In order these targets to be achieved, the role of the planning is important. Proper planning identifies and gives solutions to undesired situations that are directly related to the ongoing market mechanisms. Research shows that local conflict of interests does not underestimate the perspective of the area to develop sustainable-alternative forms of tourism based on the interest resource base of the area.

**ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

This research has been co-financed by the European Union (European Social Fund – ESF) and Greek national funds through the Operational Program "Education and Lifelong Learning" of the National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF) - Research Funding Program: ARCHIMEDES III. Investing in knowledge society through the European Social Fund.
Title: Emotional Experience During a Visit to a Heritage Site: A Case Study of Auschwitz-Birkenau

Gila Oren
Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Israel
The College of Management Academic Studies, Israel

&

Yaniv Poria
Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Israel
Virginia-Tech, USA

&

Arie Reichel
Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Israel

ABSTRACT
The literature on heritage and dark tourism almost ignores the tourist onsite experience and specifically the emotional experience. Focusing on the Auschwitz-Birkenau death camp (hereafter Auschwitz), the epitome of dark tourism (Stone & Sharpley, 2008), the present study theorizes the visitor experience by addressing pre- during- and post components - of the visit. The study was conducted using a mixed-method approach. During the first stage, the qualitative one, a series of structured interviews with people who had visited or were planning to visit the site were conducted. This was followed by the distribution of 553 structured questionnaires.

The study has contribution to the body of knowledge and site management alike. The findings emphasize the importance and contribution of negative emotions to the quality of the visit experience. Additionally, the findings suggest that tourist’ perception of the displayed heritage is a differential factor meaningfully distinguishing between visitors. The study also revealed that visitors assigned moral ramifications to the visit, which would have an impact on their life. The findings also indicate that visitors’ awareness of their own death (i.e. mortality salience) which emerge during the visit, should play a role when theorizing the visit. The study’s findings are also of importance to the management of heritage sites and specifically to the marketing and the on-site interpretation.

INTRODUCTION
Heritage sites of death and atrocity are drawing increasingly larger numbers of tourists (Timothy & Boyd, 2006). While many studies have been conducted on these visits, the actual visit and the on-site emotional experience were almost
ignored. It is the visitor experience and the emotional experience which are at the core of the present study.

There are three main gaps in the literature pertaining to heritage sites, especially site of death and atrocities:

1. The current literature primarily focuses on those aspects of the visitor experience that are important to understanding the volume of visitors and site’s profitability. Many studies (e.g. Park & Yoon, 2009; Poria, Reichel, & Biran, 2006) are concerned with the motivation for visiting or attempts to distinguish between various visitors to heritage sites, others (e.g. Biran, Poria, & Oren, 2011; Chen & Chen, 2010) with visitor satisfaction and the intention to revisit the site. These studies address mainly pre- and post-visit issues, ignoring the visit itself. The present research clarifies the visitor experience by revealing the relationship between variables related to the experience before, during and after the visit.

2. Although the marketing literature emphasizes the importance of identifying the emotional experience during consumption, only little research has addressed the emotional aspects in the tourism context, especially at heritage sites (Kang et al., 2012). Moreover, the present corpus of knowledge is based on studies of leisure and recreation activities that tend to emphasize “positive” emotions and the desire to enjoy, while ignoring “negative” emotions that could be at the core of the visitor experience to sites of death and atrocities (Hosany, 2012; Hosany & Prayag, 2013). Using customary psychological tools, the present study investigates the emotional experience, considering the possibility that visitors’ emotional experience is composed of both negative and positive emotions of high potential to contribute to the perceived quality of the experience.

3. In the tourism literature on sites of death and atrocities, no studies have examined the visitor’s awareness of death or the sense of mortality evoked by the visit. The present study was designed to do so, as part of the conceptualization of the visitor experience.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The research objective is to unveil aspects of the visit experience to heritage sites of death and atrocities which were not yet subject to in-depth empirical
investigation. Special attention was given to the emotional experience, the perception of benefits received from the visit, and the perception of the quality of the experience. As seen in the diagram, the hypotheses relate to the time before, during and after the visit, with the aim of obtaining a comprehensive picture of the visit experience.

**METHODOLOGY**

The mixed-method approach was adopted for this study. Following a qualitative stage which was based on fifteen structured interviews with people who had visited or were planning to visit the site, a quantitative research was conducted. The questionnaire was based on scales used in psychology and tourism: Self-perception of Heritage Displayed (PSOH, Poria et al., 2006), meaning of life and the search for meaning (Steger et al., 2006), the semantic differential of the emotional experience (PED, Russell, 1980), and Positive Affect Negative Affect scale (PANAS, Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Additional variables,
such as the motives for visiting, the quality of the experience, awareness of mortality, and perception of benefits were examined using questions based on the literature and the preliminary qualitative stage.

The research sample included 553 visitors to Auschwitz. Visitors, age 18 and over, were approached as they were leaving the site. Questionnaires were available in Hebrew, English, German, and Polish; despite the length of the questionnaire about 85% of those approached agreed to participate.

This study focused on Auschwitz where 1.2 people (mostly Jews) had been murdered in what became the largest Nazi death camp (Gutman & Berenbaum, 1998). This site was chosen as the focus of this study because it is visited by large number of visitors (1.4 million visitors in 2013) who perceive it in various ways (Miles, 2002).

FINDINGS

A statistical analysis of the data confirmed most research hypotheses, and the results revealed a broad and coherent portrait of the visitor experience. The findings revealed the existence of an emotional duality which characterizes the visitor experience. In addition, the study exposed the central role of the negative emotions and their significant contribution to the perception of the quality of the experience, and its benefits. This latter finding challenges a common notion in tourism research which emphasizes positive emotions, and associates negative emotions with visitors’ dissatisfaction. The PANAS and PED scales which were used to clarify the intensity of visitors’ emotional experiences, revealed that tourists can be classified by the aforementioned.

The findings indicate that the actual visit experience is composed of four sub-experiences: (1) emotional experience, (2) intellectual experience, (3) a heritage experience impacting the visitor’s identity, and (4) moral experience. However, the weight and importance of each experience were found to be related to each visitor’s perception of the site and the meaning ascribes to it.

Other findings of importance to the current literature relate to awareness of death and mortality, and its importance to illuminating the visit experience. Surprisingly, the tourism-research literature which focuses on dark sites acknowledges the interest in death. However, it has not yet empirically examined visitors’ awareness of their own mortality, yet this awareness positively affect the quality of visitor experience.
The study also explored the role of the tourist’s perception of the heritage presented. In line with the experientially based approach, the visitor perception of the heritage exhibited as being part of his/her heritage was found to be related to the overall visitor’s experience, particularly to the emotional component. This study also explored the individual’s motivations for the visit. In similar to previous studies four main constructs were revealed: (1) cognitive motivation - the interest in learning what happened at the site; (2) authentic motivation - connected to the authenticity of the site; (3) social motivation - linked with the social aspects of the visit; and (4) heritage motivation - connected to the personal ties between the site and visitor’s own heritage.

Additionally, the study revealed the perception of three benefits derived from the visit: cognitive benefits related to the expenditure of the visitor’s knowledge and understanding of the events that took place at the site, and a heritage-related benefit associated with constructing the visitors’ identity as related to the onsite heritage. Finally, and novel to the tourism literature, is the moral benefit, which indicates that visitors attribute the visit with an effect on their attitudes and moral perception of issues related directly and indirectly to the exhibits. The reference to this rarely mentioned benefit should make a major impact on the corpus of knowledge which focus on the role of heritage settings in modern society.

DISCUSSION

This study’s findings are of importance to tourism body of knowledge. The findings indicate the relevance of the experiential approach to the understanding of heritage tourism, suggesting that the visit is composed of several sub-experiences different one from each other. The findings also challenge the common notion that the visitor experience to heritage settings can be understood based on leisure and recreation research only. Specifically, most leisure and recreation related studies ignore negative emotions, and emphasize positive emotions and the desire to enjoy. The findings indicate the need to conceptualize the visitor experience by addressing the negative emotions as well, as they are significant to the on-site experience and the perceived quality of the experience.

The research findings support the emphasis in dark-tourism literature on the need to consider the role of death when analyzing the visit experience at sites of death and atrocity. The visit as exemplified here evokes among the visitors’ awareness of their own mortality, and this awareness is congruent with
the emotional experience and the perception of the experience quality. To conclude, this study challenges the current approach to the conceptualization of the visitor experience in heritage sites, especially sites of death and atrocities. Specifically, people’s desire to experience “negative” emotions cannot be ignored as it is at the core of the onsite experience. Researchers and practitioners alike should note that constructing a theoretical approach to heritage tourism solely on a corpus of knowledge related to leisure and recreation may lead to mismanagement and misunderstanding.

Managerial Implications Future research and Limitations

Despite Auschwitz’s uniqueness, the findings have far-reaching, generalizable managerial and marketing implication. The study points to the need to recognize that visitors are interested in a broad range of experiences during their visit, and site managers should aim at providing them. Moreover, the study indicates that segmentation of visitors can be based on preliminary variables such as visitors’ perception of the heritage displays as their own. This information could be crucial to the marketing mix (e.g. - how/when to market the site) and to the actual management of the on-site experience (e.g. - guiding, tour route in the site, etc.).

The revealing nature of the present study and its results can form the foundation for future studies that will conceptualize the visitor’s experience in heritage sites. Further research should investigate the hierarchal (pre- during and post-visit) nature of the visitor experience as well as the role and contribution of negative emotions. Research which will further learn the emotional duality of the visitor experience is recommended. Present research limitations mainly concern the iconic unique site. Clearly, findings should be validated in a range of different heritage sites.

REFERENCES


EU Directive on Cross-Border Health Care: An Opportunity for Health Tourism in Portugal’s Central Region?

Gonçalo Santinha
Department of Social, Political and Territorial Sciences
University of Aveiro, Portugal
E-mail: g.santinha@ua.pt

Zélia Breda
Department of Economics, Management and Industrial Engineering
University of Aveiro, Portugal
E-mail: zelia@ua.pt

INTRODUCTION

The law proposal providing for the transposition of the European Directive 2011/24/EU, on the application of patients’ rights with regard to cross-border healthcare, has been approved this year by the Portuguese Council of Ministers on January 30. The rules for the access to healthcare are thus established, in order to ensure the mobility of patients and promote cooperation in this field between the different Member States. In fact, the demand for cross-border care is not new, with mobility of patients already existing, to a greater or lesser extent, in different contexts. However, the Directive clarifies some dubious issues, particularly with respect to certain administrative procedures and reimbursement of healthcare costs incurred in another territorial space, also introducing obligations to be met by each Member State in the provision of care and information to patients.

This study aims to understand the impact of the cross-border healthcare Directive and the role that tourism can play in the health context in Portugal. On the one hand, it makes a reflection on the challenges arising from the adoption of the Directive, as well as the potential contributions, from a theoretical point of view, that health tourism can produce in this context. On the other hand, it discusses the possible impacts of the implementation of the Directive in Portugal (in general) and in two sub-regions of the Central Region (in particular),
and the role of health tourism, in light of the perception of health policy makers and other local and regional stakeholders. It is increasingly clear that this debate should occur, and this study seeks to contribute to it. A debate that necessarily mobilizes arguments and different stakeholders, but with a common background: the need to find solutions to the economic development of the country and of the region, in order to take advantage of the excellent geographic conditions, climate, hospitality, tourist infrastructures and quality of healthcare.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It is still not possible to predict the actual impacts emerging from the implementation of this Directive in the Portuguese context. However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no national strategy aiming to anticipate the risks arising from this ‘market opening’ in healthcare provision. In essence, it seeks to promote greater freedom of choice for patients and, simultaneously, increased competition among providers. This can endanger not only the quality of services and the timely access to healthcare, but also the decision of the country in becoming a healthcare exporter. That is, the benefits arising from healthcare export to the economic development of the territories (associated with an increased volume of healthcare and the emergence of other service activities) can, thus, be underexploited because the lack of a strategic vision and planning.

In this discussion, it should be noted that healthcare services may also support certain economic activities, being complementary in relation to directly productive capital and even allowing generating an economic multiplier effect. An example lies in its strong links with tourism. First, because healthcare can play a decisive role for tourists, particularly the elderly, being a differentiating factor for destinations. Second, because of a product that has gained expression over the last decades – health tourism –, due to the healthcare high costs and long waiting lists in some countries (or the unavailability or low priority of specific treatments), higher incomes, new technology and skills in destination countries, alongside reduced transport costs and internet marketing (Connell, 2008). It concerns people travelling beyond national boundaries in search of specific treatments or operations, usually referred to as medical tourism, or the search for an improved physical and psychological well-being, or better health conditions in general. It is an economic activity that entails trade in services and represents the union of at least two sectors: medicine and tourism. Presently, medical tourism is small in comparison to the overall service trade or the
consumption of medical services or even the trade in tourism services. However, it is a growing product with enormous economic implications for destinations (Bookman & Bookman, 2007).

METHODOLOGY

In order to understand the impact of the cross-border healthcare Directive and the role that tourism can play in the health context in Portugal, a study was carried out by conducting 23 semi-structured interviews, between 2012 and 2013, to policy makers and former policy makers in the area of healthcare, at the governmental level, as well as in central and regional administrations. Moreover, similar interviews were conducted to 13 local and regional stakeholders belonging to two NUTS III sub-regions in the central region of Portugal – Baixo Vouga and Beira Interior Sul –, in order to assess the challenges they face in relation to the phenomenon under study, but also the level of involvement and motivation of the different stakeholders (healthcare providers, local authorities and charity groups - *misericórdias*).

It should be noted that this data collection falls within the context of a broader research, which intends to gain a deeper understanding of the construction process of health policies and on how the territorial component is considered, joining the perspective of combating disparities to the logic of territorial recovery.

This study is exploratory in nature and, therefore, presents a set of constraints that, in the future, should be taken into consideration so that the findings can be generalized. Reference should be made to three limitations in particular. Firstly, the fact that these results are within the scope of a broader scientific research, not specifically focusing on the topic under study, limited the depth of the discussion on this matter during the interviews. For this reason, and secondly, tourism entities linked to the development and promotion of health and wellness products were not auscultated. Their perception and point of view on the phenomenon under study is important for the effective link between healthcare, leisure and wellness, and tourism. Thirdly, the number of local and regional actors was limited, both in nature and in number, to effectively be able to move forward with concrete arguments about the role of health tourism in the region.
RESULTS

From the data gathered from health policy makers and from local and regional stakeholders, it is possible to emphasize three ideas:

i. The application of the cross-border healthcare Directive entails a number of risks. First, the philosophy of the Directive, favoring countries whose health system works through a social health insurance, makes Portugal less competitive in this sphere. Secondly, the fact that the Portuguese government has not responded quickly to adapt to the challenges arising from the transposition of the Directive into the national context suggests a delay in the ability to overcome existing weaknesses and take advantage of any potential resulting therefrom for the country. Thirdly, given the response time of the National Health Service, which is lower than expected (waiting lists), Portugal may prove to be mainly an importer of healthcare, with the Portuguese population preferring to seek medical services in other countries.

ii. Although it does not derive directly from the Directive, health tourism (in general) and medical tourism (in particular) can be differentiating factors in this interrelationship between healthcare and economic development. There is a common belief that the country has excellent conditions to take advantage of joining the excellent climate, hospitality and food with healthcare and the existing technology. Therefore, the development of a strategy for the implementation of the Directive, which considers the relevant role of health tourism in the process, constitutes a window of opportunity to turn the challenge into a competitive advantage.

iii. The depth of knowledge about this matter exhibits different degrees among health policy makers and local and regional stakeholders. Whilst to the first this question, globally, has deserved their attention, for a good part of regional and local stakeholders this is a subject about which information they hold is still vague. This suggests that it is important to reflect on how the Directive and health tourism are being discussed and how the processes of decision making, which a fortiori must be articulated, are conducted.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The debate on the impacts of the implementation of the cross-border healthcare Directive in the Portuguese context is still to deepen with regard to its potential and its relevance as a tool for destinations’ economic development. The attrac-
tive conditions that Portugal offers – amenities, hotel infrastructure, quality of medical resources – translates into a potential tourist destination. However, the transposition of Directive reveals a number of weaknesses which need to be overcome quickly, effectively, the goal be to have a stronger and internationally qualified presence, getting the maximum benefit from the advantages of betting in health tourism. Only through the design of a navigation plan necessarily collective, participative and accountable, that lists the existing supply (with whom, where and how to bet?) With the potential demand (markets that distinguish?), Which is able to identify options taking priority for the country and for each particular territorial space .It is thus necessary to discuss the interests and ideas and to mobilize the different stakeholders around this common goal, informing and complementing the process of formulating public policies.

REFERENCES


A Review of Life Cycle Model by Plog from a Marketing Perspective

Grace K.S. Ho
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong
Email: graceho98@gmail.com

&

Bob McKercher
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong
Email: bob.mckercher@polyu.edu.hk

INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades, Plog’s life cycle model has been extensively criticized for being impractical, for having significant flaws, and for not working in practice; while at the same time, the model is still one of the most cited and applied models within the field of tourism studies. This paper aims to discuss the validity of the model from a marketing perspective, whereas prior mistreatment; misunderstanding and misuse of the model by others will be criticized.

The model was written as conference paper and later developed as journal article at the earliest stages of the conceptualization of tourism, thus the model formed the groundwork for much of the critical thinking about the development of tourism in recent decades. The model by Plog (1974) was a psychographic portrayal of tourists to explain their motivation and behavior, their wants from the travel experience, and how the tourists behave in choosing and taking the holiday. This paper will discuss the marketing concept of product life cycle, followed by the validity of the model.

PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE IN MARKETING

Plog’s model was based on a marketing concept of product life cycle (PLC). The original PLC model was first used by Levitt (1965). The model suggested that, like human beings, products have a life cycle. From birth to death, human be-
ings pass through various stages such as birth, growth, maturity, decline and death. A similar life cycle is seen in the case of products with stages of introduction, growth, maturity and decline (Kotabe & Helsen, 2010). The model assumed that products have a limited life, product sales pass through distinct stages, and products require different marketing strategies in each stage of the life cycle. The model has significant impact upon business strategy and corporate performance.

As with most models, the PLC model has its own limitations. Firstly, the model is not well-suited for forecasting. Products do not have a predictable life as living organisms, and the specific life cycle curves followed by different products vary substantially with unpredictable duration for each stage. Secondly, not all products go through every stage of the PLC, there have been many cases where products have gone straight from introduction to decline, because of bad marketing, misconceived features, lack of value to the consumer or simply a lack of need for such a product. Moreover, some products have not yet experienced a decline, but remained popular over years. These limitations, not surprisingly, also apply to Plog’s model.

**PLOG’S PSYCHOGRAPHIC CURVE**

Plog’s model (1974, 2001) was to explain the travel characteristics of the various psychographic personality types, and how this leads to a different view of destinations rise and fall in popularity. Basically, his model was based on his New Yorker social psychologist point of view, it assumed that a destination evolves through a life cycle and attracts firstly the adventurers then progressively less adventuresome tourists. The psychographic types of travelers fall on a continuum with two extremes from Allocentric or Venturer to Psychocentric or Dependable, with most people falling somewhere in between (see Figure 1).
Figure 1. Plog’s Psychographic Personality Types

Source: Plog (2001, 20)

The Allocentrics or Venturers tend to be self-confident and intellectually curious, they have a strong desire to explore the world of ideas and places. They prefer non-touristy areas, novel and different destinations. They enjoy sense of discovery and delight in new experiences, before others have visited the area. The Psychocentrics or Dependables, at the other extreme, are self-inhibited and non-adventuresome. They prefer familiar atmosphere, heavy tourist accommodations in travel destinations. From his study, the archetypes of the two personalities are rare, about 2.5 percent of population can be classified as Dependables and slightly over four percent as Venturers. The remainder falls into the groups in between, such as Near-Dependable, Near-Venturers, or the largest group, Mid-Centrics. Mid-Centrics display a balance of all the normal and usual motivations, such as relaxation, the aesthetic pleasures of natural and historic features, need for a change, for sensual pleasure, for pleasant social interaction with friends and relatives. Plog claimed that most destinations typically follow a relatively predictable but uncontrolled close-ended cycle from birth to maturity and finally to old age and decline.

The destination life cycle has different stages, and at each stage the destination appeals to a different psychographic group of travelers. An ideal age exists for most destinations, which Plog called it ‘young adulthood’, which is an early stage of development appealing to Venturer-types. In the middle of the
growth-cycle stage, when Near-Venturers constitute the majority of tourist arrivals, Plog stressed it is the ‘ideal psychographic positioning’ for most destinations. Proper planning, protection and preservation are needed at this stage. The life cycle then reaches the peak when there are the majority of Centrics travelers. After this ‘magical mid-point’ the destination will then face almost inevitable decline, as the destination tilts toward the shrinking segment of Dependable side of the curve.

Plog stressed that if a destination’s planners understand the psychographic curve, it is possible for them to control tourism development and to maintain an ideal positioning, as there are many unplanned destinations facing a declining future because uncontrolled growth has discouraged influential Venturer-type travelers.

In the past four decades since it first published, Plog’s model has received some criticisms. Smith (1990a,b) questioned the model’s measurability and applicability to other cultures. Other key criticisms include the normal bell curve shape, the person specific descriptors, and the applicability of the model. Jackson et al. (2000) argued the curve should be skewed toward the Psychocentric end of the spectrum but not a symmetric bell shape. McDonnell(1994) found the model had flaws when tested on Australian tourists to Bali and Fiji. McKercher (2005) suggested that the descriptors should be trip-specific rather than person-specific as a tourist could display Psychocentric characteristics on one trip, Mid-Centric on another and be the prototypical Allocentric tourist on yet another trip. Others commented that they had tried to apply the model and found it wanting. Pearce (1993), in the comparison of motivation theories, raised questions of Plog’s model on measurement, the dominance of a single trait approach, failure to distinguish between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations and lack of a dynamic perspective for individuals (compared with destinations). McKercher (2005) also highlighted a number of questions: can destinations exist simultaneously at different places in the continuum? Can markets evolve fully through their lifecycles? Must Psychocentric destinations be in decline?

Plog’s model with its assumptions, seeks to apply a single, definitive life cycle stage descriptor to a destination, while McKercher (2005) claimed that how a destination is classified is market-specific rather than destination-specific. He suggested that as each market has a unique perception, a destination may be Psychocentric or Dependable for some markets, Mid-Centrics for others and Allocentric or Venturer for others still. McKercher also argued that destinations
can be seen to exist at multiple stages in their life cycle and serve many markets simultaneously.

THE VALIDITY OF PLOG’S PSYCHOGRAPHIC CURVE

In fact, Plog’s psychographic curve is a conceptual model. It is meant to be a simplified and idealized version of the complex and dynamic reality, and one should not treat a model as simply a cookbook manual in applying it.

Similar to the original product life cycle, Plog’s psychographic curve has its own limitations. Plog’s model is good for narrative and not predictive purposes. It is useful as description but not for explanation. As Leiper (1995:90) mentioned, ‘the theory is merely a teleology, (it is) not a useful explanation of why a process occurs.’ And there are exceptional cases where the model is not applicable, where the destination has not gone through all the stages, this can be caused by poor tourism management and planning or lack of interest from tourists. Furthermore, some destinations have not yet experienced a decline.

There should be no doubt that Plog’s life cycle can be applied to one single destination that appears in different markets, or targets different segments or different stages simultaneously, for the reason that the original marketing PLC model can be applied in the same way. The PLC can be applied to a specific product, and the product can appear in different stages of the PLC at the same time, and no one has claimed that the PLC model is invalid. For instance, the motorcycle used to be a popular transportation mode in the post-war period in the United States, reaching its maturity in 1980s, and the product is now at the decline stage, only left with niche market for leisure, mountain bikers, Harley Davidson die-hard fans and the scooters fan clubs. While the same product is still at its growth stage, having a huge demand on the other side of the world, as it is still the major transportation mode in many developing cities. The product is appearing in these markets the same time, targeting different segments, with different usage and purposes of the product.

CONCLUSION

In fact, the model by Plog remains relevant today. The model puts forward useful insights of issues a destination must pay attention to in order to ensure an ongoing sustainability. As Chen et al. (2011) concluded, Plog’s model highlights the personality aspects in explaining tourist behavior, which differ from the conventional interpretations that assume homogenous personality.
The models was effective in identifying the components of any tourism system, but might not be as practical as other approaches such as the Complexity Approach (Lewin, 1992) and the Chaos Approach (McKercher, 1999) in explaining how or why the interrelationships of the components change over time. The Chaos and Complexity approaches might be more appropriate in explaining the dynamic, complex, non-linear reality. Same with most models, Plog’s model has its flaws and limitations. It is just a matter of the degree of usefulness and applicability of the model to explain the real world.

REFERENCES


Less Known Destinations as Potential Products for Developing Sustainable Cultural Tourism in Egypt
“The Case of Tuna el Gabal”

Hassan Refaat Hassan
Egyptian Tourist Authority, Egypt
E-mail: hassan79_2003@yahoo.com

&

Islam Elgammal
Faculty of Tourism and Hotels
Suez canal University, Egypt
E-mail: el_gammal9@hotmail.co.uk

&

Waheed Atia Mohamed Omran
Faculty of Tourism and Hotels
Fayoum University, Egypt
E-mail: waheed_tourism@yahoo.com

&

Magdi Ali Mohamed Selim
Egyptian Tourist Authority, Egypt
E-mail: magdi.selim@yahoo.com

INTRODUCTION

One of the most important industries in the world is tourism. It is the largest and one of the most profitable industries in comparison with other industries. Based on potential of tourism attractions Egypt enjoys very distinctive and diversified culture and natural Heritage (Hassan, F. & Tassie, G., 2009) the matter which led to the existence of many tourism styles such as recreational tourism, beaches tourism, religious tourism, therapeutic tourism, eco-tourism, sports tourism, golf tourism, safari tourism, yacht tourism, and maritime tourism in addition to festivals tourism, and cultural events and finally conferences and exhibitions tourism.
Despite the multiple types of tourism, Egypt’s cultural tourism remains the unrepeated, unique and non-competitive component of tourism as Egypt possesses a great diversified culture Heritage whether tangible or intangible which can be traced all over the country.

As Egypt contains dozens of archeological sites dates back to the times of the Pharaonic, Greco-Roman, Coptic and Islamic eras, also many museums with different themes.

Egypt also has a distinctive intangible heritage includes music, dance, food and oral tradition, Handicrafts, social and religious festivals.

In spite of this great diversity of the Egyptian culture heritage, the cultural tourism in Egypt has been shortened to just one product which is the visitation of the archaeological sites, and what makes the matter much worse is that the visits of the archaeological sites have been concentrated only on a very limited number of provinces, specifically in four provinces, namely, (Luxor, Aswan, Cairo, Giza) and thus a great number of provinces have become marginalized.

The culture tourism in Egypt now, according to the numbers of the ministry of tourism, has been deteriorated (see the following figures)
These mentioned challenges are considered the main reasons which motivated the researchers to conduct this study that focusing on Tuna el-Geble one of the less known destinations in Egypt. Despite its great and diversified tangible and intangible culture heritage, as recently the ministry of tourism has acknowledged the urgent need for adding new sites to the map of cultural tourism in Egypt in order to diversify the exhibited products to increase overall attractions.

**OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

1- To explore the current status of Tuna el-Gebel and define the main challenges which face this site.
2- To provide an action plan towards and development of site in order to be included in the touristic itineraries and use it as a tool for achieving sustainable culture tourism development.
3- To diversify the cultural products in Egypt to increase the number of cultural attractions to be able to attract large number of tourist.
RESEARCH QUESTION

The research is trying to find an appropriate answer to the following questions:

1- What are the major challenges that face Tuna el-Gebel which makes it not included in the touristic itineraries?

2- Can Tuna el-Gebel be used as a tool for sustainable culture tourism in Egypt?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tuna el-Gebel was the necropolis of Khmun (Hermopolis Magna). It is located in Al Minya Governorate in Middle Egypt on the edge of the Western Desert; a large site functioned as the necropolis for the ancient town of Khnum or Hermopolis. The cemetery was located 11km from the city, in an area which is perhaps better known as the north-western boundary of Akhenaten’s city of Akhetaten and is marked by a boundary stela (Ibrahim S., 1999).

When visiting Tuna el-Gebel contains many attractions; Akhenaten’s boundary stela is the first monument to be reached, on the right hand side of the road and also the earliest monument at the site. (Nureldin, A., 1999).

THE NECROPOLIS

The Necropolis is located about half mile away from the Border Stela of Akhenaten. The graves range from the Late Period to the Roman Period and architectural styles vary with the period of their construction. A great part of the necropolis is still unexplored (Zobida M.A, 1982).

The Tomb of Petosiris is the most interesting among those that today is possible to see in the necropolis. Petosiris, also called Ankhefenkhons, lived in the second half of the fourth century during the reign of Philip III Arrhidaeus6, half-brother and successor of Alexander the Great. (Lefebvre, G., 1923).

THE TOMB OF ISADORÁ

The Tomb of Isadora is behind the tomb of Petosiris, not far from this and is dated to the second century A.D. Isadora was a young girl who lived in Hermopolis during the reign of Emperor Antoninus Pius, and died in 120 A.D. According to the legend, Isadora fell in love with a young boy of Hermopolis and drowned in the Nile in an attempt to reach him (A.J.B. Wace & et al., 1959).
ROMAN WELL

A Roman well, positioned a little further south, 105 feet deep, supplied water to the entire area during the Roman Period. (Nureldin, A., 1999).

CATACOMBS OF IBIS AND BABOONS

The Catacombs of ibis and baboons, animals sacred to Thoth, are located south of the necropolis. Abdul Hamid Z. (1960).

METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

The research will be implemented by linking qualitative and Quantitative data as well as qualitative observations.

PRIMARY DATA

Open interviews will be held with sample of the officials in the Tourism Ministry in order to know the main challenges which face the site and led to its exclusion and if is there is any kind of marketing for this site or not and also the point of view of a sample of Tourist companies will be collected with open unstructured questionnaires to know reasons which led to the exclusion of Tuna el-Gebel from the cultural tourism itineraries.

SECONDARY DATA

This study is based on comprehensive reading of many published references and other reliable internet sources which speaks about the tangible and intangible culture heritage of this site.

RESULTS

- The concentration of the Egyptian Authorities on marketing Egypt as being limited to Cairo, Luxor, Aswan, Hurghada, and Sharm El-Sheikh!
- Tuna el-gabel has a tremendous wealth in tangible, intangible, and natural heritage resources that are practically untapped
- This piece of research proved that there is Lack of Awareness about tuna el gable and its Cultural Heritage Resources at the National and local Levels
- The lack of advertisement about el Minia governorate and its cultural heritage resources (inside Egypt as well as abroad.
- The lack of well-designed and produced brochures about the tuna el gabal.
- The reputation of being unsafe has affected negatively the number of the visitors of the Tuna el gabal.
- The banning of the long Nile cruise has affected negatively on the number of visitors of the site.
- The budget allocated to the Tourism Sector in El- Minia Governorate is low.
- Finally this piece of research proved Tuna elgabel in its current status cannot be used as a tool for achieving sustainable tourism, unless we find appropriate solutions for the challenges which face it.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Tuna el-gabel is one of the most important archaeological sites in Egypt as it has a tremendous wealth in tangible, intangible, and natural heritage resources that are practically untapped till now, so governmental and private support is urgently needed to turn Tuan el- gabel into touristic destination.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my deepest appreciation to my colleagues who have contributed in this research, thanks to them for all what I have learned from them.

REFERENCES


Dia Abou-Ghazi and Ramadan el-Sayed (Eds.), Sami Gabra, From Tasa to Touna (Vies et travaux II), Cairo 1984.


Kessler, Tuna el Gebel, in Lexikon der Ägyptologie Bd. 6, Wiesbaden 1986.

Lefebvre, G., (1923). Le tombeau de Petosiris, 3 vol., Cairo.


R. Stewart,“ Minya” in the Coptic Encyclopedia , vol.5 .


How do Portuguese Women Golfers Cope with Gender Inequities?

Helena Reis  
School of Management, Hospitality and Tourism  
University of Algarve, Portugal  
E-mail: hreis@ualg.pt

Antonia Correia  
Faculty of Economics  
CEFAGE, University of Algarve, Portugal  
E-mail: acorreia@ualg.pt

Lee Phillip McGinnis  
Department of Business  
Stonehill College, Easton, MA, USA  
E-mail: lmcginnis@stonehill.edu

INTRODUCTION

The study of women’s leisure is not a recent issue. The women’s “sense of entitlement” to leisure has been vastly studied (Bialeschki & Henderson, 1986; Kaczynski & Henderson, 2007; Wearing & Wearing, 1988, among others) but there is still need for further research examining constraints women face, as evidence suggests that a gender gap in participation still exists. The practice of golf could be considered ideal for both genders, since this activity is open to players of all ages, played in the open air, and creates opportunities for exercise and socialization (see: Reis & Correia, 2013). We position the present study in Portugal where golf was introduced by the British in 1890, reproducing their cultural and social traditions related to the “for-gentlemen-only” game. Despite all the constraints that inhibit female participation, women have found ways to cope with male-hegemony and develop strategies to overcome prejudice.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Not many studies address the strategies (Reis, Correia & McGinnis, 2013). Departing from McGinnis, Gentry & McQuillan’s work (2009), we explore the strategies that Portuguese female amateur golfers use to stay in the game. To address these issues, we made 33 in-depth interviews in Portugal, and applied Ecological Systems Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1989, 1992), and the three dimension of factors paradigm (Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991; Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010) in order to establish the extent to which participants perceive intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural factors to be constraints that influence their participation in a male-dominated leisure activity. Having done that, we propose the interaction of the three dimensions of factors – intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural - with the three types of negotiation strategies depicted by McGinnis et al., (2009): accommodating, unaware and unapologetic participants. We consider the merger of these two frameworks to be the most important contribution of this study because it will not only help advance theory but also help tourism managers create more effective strategies, especially in places such as Portugal where traditional norms and other factors inhibit equal participation between men and women.

METHODOLOGY

Our research posits that each dimension of factors conforms to each type of negotiation strategy and (1) the higher perception of intrapersonal factors resides in the adoption of the unaware strategy; (2) the higher perception of interpersonal factors resides in the adoption of the accommodating strategy; (3) and the higher perception of structural factors resides in the adoption of the unapologetic strategy. The participants we interviewed were from different areas of Portugal, including Madeira and Azores Islands. They were recruited using snowball sampling, which provides “formal and informal networks connections” (Jennings, 2010:140). Our group included 33 amateur golfers of various golf experience and playing levels: ages ranged from 14 to 67; two were divorced, 13 single, and 18 married; 22 without children and 11 with children; five were students while the others had occupations. Interviews lasted between 45 minutes and five hours at a place chosen by the participants, and all were conducted in Portuguese, even with the two foreign women who live in the country.

The in-depth interview (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Jennings, 2010; Woodside et al., 2005) was applied in order to reach a holistic interpretation of the partici-
pants, their present and past environments and to realize their participation decision. Following La Pelle (2004) and MacQueen (1998) a “theme codebook” was used, which allows listing and coding the factors retrieved from the literature that were perceived by these women. Extracts of their verbalizations were included in the coding book to facilitate relation to the factors. These extracts were translated by the first author and verified and confirmed by the other authors. The coding was prepared, discussed and adjusted until a satisfaction level was reached. We used a qualitative software tool that counted how many women mentioned each factor and how many times it was mentioned thus providing results for the number of instances for the intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural dimensions. At a later stage, a questionnaire incorporating the most recurrent factors derived from the transcript statements was applied to the same 33 respondents with the intention of confirming the interpretation of the interviews. This questionnaire included two sections, one with a concordance scale of five points with 50 factors that act as facilitators or constraints. The second part comprised a set of questions to characterise the women in socio-demographic terms. As a result, a theoretical sampling and data triangulation supported this research. The questionnaire was codified and treated with SPSS software. Non-parametric tests were performed using the Kruskal-Wallis test, which provides a one-way analysis of variance and detects differences in distribution location.

RESULTS

Findings indicated that the perception of the 3D (i.e., intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural) factors have a strong influence on the different levels of women’s participation in a masculine-influenced game. Using the definition and characteristics of the factor dimensions and the strategies women use to cope with gender prejudice, this study suggests that a higher perception of intrapersonal factors resonates with the unaware mode, whereas a higher perception of interpersonal factors relates to the accommodating mode, and a higher perception structural to the unapologetic mode.

Accommodating Participants

We identified 17 participants who verbalized a higher number of interpersonal factors, showing an accommodating behavior, meaning that they acknowledged “masculine rituals and work around them; these participants do not confront the male hegemony of the game, prefer to participate in separate groups
from men and help to perpetuate this *status quo*. This group also tends to defer to their male partners’ wishes” (McGinnis et al., 2009). Our interviewees showed to have a strong family support or enjoy socializing. They establish bonds with others and influence or are influenced by family and/or friends. These women agree with the rules and do not find golf male-hegemonic because of all the advantages women have. At the same time, by accommodating the masculinity-reinforcing rituals, women in this group find ways to enjoy golf in women-only groups or by playing with intimate male partners” (McGinnis et al., 2009:25).

**Unapologetic Participants**

This group showed a higher perception of structural constraints that interfere with their participation in golf. They were conscious and strongly criticized gendered golf course policies or the lack of facilities for women golfers, golf institution conduciveness, cultural and social attitudes or even lack of time or money. Thus, we connect this dimension to the *unapologetic* strategy: “the unapologetic group expressed bold disregard for the respect that they knew they were expected to show to the rigid history and ritualistic formality of golf”. (McGinnis et al., 2009:28). We found that women in this group are aware of gender inequality in general, confronting the rules and trying to introduce changes to balance the game. They criticize institutions and golf structures and feel entitled to the game as much as men. They often start from the men’s tees and like to play on men’s terms: “their rebellious actions served to highlight and disrupt the notions of gender that are woven into golf rituals but are unnecessary for playing the game, which tend to limit women’s enjoyment” (McGinnis et al., 2009: 33). Although fewer than the accommodating participants, these women are aware of gender prejudice and verbalized their criticism in different ways, highlighting several structural constraints and cultural traditions inherent to the Portuguese society.

**Unaware Participants**

The intrapersonal dimension may be the most difficult to define since it relates to the inner self of the individuals. When facing a long interview about gender in golf - a subject that clearly interested all participants - we found that they tend to concentrate more on the interpersonal and structural facets of the golf activity. Nevertheless, three women in our sample verbalized more intrapersonal factors than the other dimensions, showing that they were not
aware or disregarded the gender bias of the game. The mention of a higher number of intrapersonal factors was registered in the speeches of these participants, inducing the *unaware* strategy. Two of the interviewees were strongly focused on the game, enjoy the different facets of golf and are very competitive. The third woman is an inexperienced golfer, playing with her husband, son and friends. None of these participants acknowledged gender in golf, devaluing or ignoring structural constraints. Yet the number of women in this category was too low to allow any definite conclusion, but still they conform to McGinnis et al. (2009): “the unaware group was committed to women golfers being treated based on their golf abilities, not their gender. Women in this group, however, did not directly challenge rituals that reinforced hegemonic masculinity. Instead, they either determined the rituals were illogical or refused to see them and therefore, ignored them” (McGinnis et al. (2009: 31). Especially for this strategy, further studies centered on disclosing intrapersonal factors leading to unaware strategies to continue participation in golf will be needed.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

In conclusion, the interpersonual interactions are very strong for women irrespective of experience, age and marital status. The women on the accommodating style value more the socialization with friends or family, even if it involves ignoring or accepting gendered practices or deferring to their male partners’ wishes. This is consistent with McGinnis et al., (2009), who found that women in this group “came to and stayed in golf through their connection to another golfer. All of the women in this study either found a way to be accepted or decided that acceptance by other golfers was not essential to their enjoyment of the game” (McGinnis et al., 2009: 31).

This study analyzed the strategies Portuguese female amateur golfers adopted in order to cope with gender inequities in the practice of the game. Since the understanding of these options may lead to the introduction of changes in golf structures that will help to attract more female participants, there is need for further research to examine and evaluate a much larger number of participants and verify if the disparity in behavior remains. In case it does, results can suggest guidelines to help golf courses and marketers to develop more friendly environments to welcome the accommodating participants and/or take re-adjusting measures to meet unapologetic participants’ requests. Further, the geographic scope of the study was limited to Portugal, whereas other golf destinations deserve to be considered. Considering that strategies used by Ameri-
can female golfers are also verified among Portuguese amateurs it is worth researching other nationalities.

REFERENCES


Diversification Tendencies of Hotels in a Single Asset Tourism City: Evidence from Antalya

Hilal Erkuş-Öztürk
Akdeniz University
Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Turkey
E-mail: herkus@akdeniz.edu.tr

INTRODUCTION

In the volatile economic conditions imposed by globalisation, “being different” is the only way to cope with competition (Porter, 1990). ‘Innovation and product diversification’ as an indispensable activity not only for the survival of a company and the development of a region due to their roles in the promotion of competitiveness and long-term growth (Sørensen, 2007). Innovation and diversification are also very crucial factors for sustaining the competitive advantage of tourism firms and tourism places. As tourism is a highly fragile and risky market that includes high user uncertainty and user differentiation, companies working in the sector are forced to be innovative and to produce diversification in products and services.

Over the last two decades, it has been stressed again and again in tourism literature that the era of fordist mass-tourism is over now and has been followed up by market differentiation (the growth of niche markets) that goes hand in hand with flexibly specialized production. As in all consumer markets, niche markets in tourism create a feeling of exclusiveness and offers ample opportunities to tourists to distinguish themselves in class- and status position. And ever more tourism entrepreneurs have entered and/or created niche markets in tourism in order to keep out of the price-fighters markets in mass tourism. There is more competition on quality than on price in niche markets. However, the assets on which the competitive advantages of tourist places are based are highly variegated, and can range from one dominant asset such as sea-sun-sand tourism to a broad mix of different assets. It is claimed that in the long term single-asset tourism places seem to be more vulnerable than multi-asset ones.
The competitive advantage of multi asset tourism places are based on a *combination* of historical identity and other assets. The competitive advantage of Florence, Siena, and other Tuscan cities is based on a mix of historical identity, beautiful landscape of the surrounding countryside, and high-quality food and wines, and that of Amsterdam on a mix of historical identity, a highly varied land-use, museums, and a libertarian atmosphere (fun, soft drugs, and sex). And the variety of assets on which the competitive advantage of world cities like New York, London, and Paris is based is even much broader. In those cities gentrifiers, business people, and tourists support such a wide range of urban amenities, ranging from symbolic landmarks, movie multiplexes, superstores, exclusive shops, a huge variety of restaurants and pubs, museums, symphony orchestras, opera houses, jazz and pop-music clubs, professional sports, bohemian life styles to a dynamic urban atmosphere in general, that ever more tourists are attracted.

Apart from the importance of multi-asset cities, ‘Monopolies of place’ is very important for tourism entrepreneurs by offering good opportunities to innovation and differentiation in niche markets. That innovation opportunity offer good competitive power for making monopolistic profits and keeping of out price-fighters markets. Tourism entrepreneurs that first exploit such an asset are real innovators in a Schumpeterian sense because they make a ‘new combination’ that no one had done before. But their monopoly position is only temporary because imitators attracted by the excess profits made by the innovator enter the market. Consequently, a process of homogenization takes place in which the excess profits of the first innovator are being eroded. This process of homogenization is characterized by an ever stronger competition by price rather than by quality. And some firms (think of McDonalds) perform much better under these market conditions than do others. This process of homogenization, however, does not end in a static equilibrium in which no actor has an interest to change his or her position. As both Braudel and Schumpeter have argued, no capitalist wants to operate in fully competitive markets because that is not where the biggest profits are made. They are made in monopolies or oligopolies. That is why the spur for economic change is not market competition but how to keep out of such competition. Thus the process of homogenization stimulates tourism entrepreneurs to escape from fully competitive markets by innovating, i.e. by offering new tourism services and/or opening up new niche markets in different places of the city.

The growth tourism in single asset cities is highly fragile because (i) it is based on so-called localization economies (stronger specialization) instead of
urbanization economies (Polèse, 2009; Sheng and Tsui, 2009) and (ii) the development of tourism places follows the same life cycle as “Tourism Area Life Cycles” (Butler, 2011) which implies that not until the stagnation phase of the life cycle tourism entrepreneurs become interested in diversification and innovation.

It is doubted whether a high urban tourism growth in a single asset tourism city implies an ever stronger specialization and, therefore, a locked-in process of path dependent urban economic development. In this paper, contrary to above arguments stating that multi-asset cities have better opportunities to diversification and differentiation in niche markets (Jacobs 1969, 1984; Florida, 2002), it is claimed that even in single asset tourism places growth of tourism, by time, stimulates tourism actors to diversify their products and urban tourism growth generates a diversification of the economy. It is highly likely that tourism stimulates not only the growth of various business services but also of various cultural industries.

By this paper, opportunities of single asset tourism cities, Antalya in Turkey case, in terms of economic diversification will be elaborated by focusing on hotels as one of the main agents of tourism. Therefore in this paper, the question; whether tourism growth in a single asset city stimulates hotels to diversify their products, to become more innovative or not, will be elaborated. If yes, the factors (such as company type, company size, within sector investment, collaborations with other companies) influencing product and service diversification/innovation will be defined based on their correlations. Studies still far from reveal the factors that are influential diversification in tourism. Therefore, this article will take these arguments one step further by combining and exploring the relationship between firm size/type, collaborations, within sector investment and innovation/product diversification in hotels.

In this context, three propositions are put forward in this paper to identify the level of diversification in hotels: ‘The more within sector investments, the more the product diversification and innovation of a tourism company’; ‘The larger the company, the more the product diversification; and ‘The more collaborations with related institutions, the higher the development of diversified projects of that respective company’.

**METHODOLOGY**

Antalya tourism city from Turkey is selected as a case study area not only by its dominant tourism role in the country (attracting more than ten million tourists
in recent years) as a single asset tourism city, but also its diversification tendency based on the findings of main sectoral statistical analysis. After evaluating the results of quantitative analysis on diversification at the sectoral level, factors that influence diversification in hotels will be explored by analyzing primary data taken from in depth interviews with hotels. To define the sample for making interviews with hotels, the unit of analysis and the data universe were defined and 66 hotels were found in the city center of Antalya with varying sizes and types such as 5, 4, 3, 2, star hotels and boutique hotels. 50% sampling is applied (95% confidence level) while making face-to-face interviews with all type of hotels. While choosing the samples for each type of hotel category, an equal distribution tried to be made on the coastal location of hotels. Case study research was completed between January and March 2014. Based on the data we get from different type of hotels, simple cross tabulations, correlations and some techniques of multivariate analysis will be employed to evaluate the findings.

**FINDINGS**

The relationship between firm size/type, collaborations, within sector investment and innovation/product diversification in hotels is scrutinized to examine whether hotels in a single asset city diversify their products, to become more innovative or not? If yes, the factors (such as company type, company size, within sector investment, collaborations with other companies) influencing product and service diversification/innovation is evaluated by using simple cross tabulations on data findings.

We have seen that only 47% of hotels have innovative product and service development. When product and service diversification/innovation level of hotels is crosstabulated with type of hotel, high innovation in product and services is seen in 5 star hotels. 5 star hotels have got 60 percent of high and 10 percent of low innovation in product and services. Boutique hotels also have some products and services that have high innovation (12.5%) and low innovation (25%). However, 2, 3, 4 star hotels have not got any high innovation in their products and services and most of them have no innovation in products and services varying between 40 to 80 percent. They have some products and services covering low innovation varying between 20 to 60 percent.

According to findings, there is also a strong connection between the big sized hotels and the existence of innovative products and services. 100 percent of high innovation in products and services are only seen in big sized hotels. 67
percent of small sized hotels, 17 percent of medium sized and 16 percent of big sized hotels have no innovation in products and services. However, some small sized hotels, especially the boutique hotels, have 71 percent low innovation and 67 percent medium innovation in the products and services. Except boutique hotels, the shares of small sized companies and hotels are low when compared to medium- and large-sized tourism companies.

According to the relation between number of membership to associations and innovative product/service development, hotels which have innovative product and services are the ones which have membership to associations. Especially 57% of hotels with the highest innovative product and services have 3 and 4 membership to tourism associations and 43% of them have 1 to 2 memberships to tourism associations. Hotels which have no innovative product also don’t have membership to 3 to 4 associations. Hotels which have no membership to any associations also do not have any high innovation products and services. They have only low level (22 percent) innovative product development.

In terms of relation between innovative product and service development and the existence of collaboration with other firms, hotels which show collaboration with other firms have more innovative product development. 89% of hotels which have collaboration with other firms have both high and low level of innovation in their services and products. 68% of hotels which has no collaboration with other firms have no innovative product or service development.

When we evaluate the relation between within sector investment and innovative product development, we see a strong connection between innovative product/service development and investing within sector. 65 percent of hotels which have investment within sector, having other hotels in other terms, have produced innovative products and services. 65 percent of hotels which have no within sector investment have no innovative product and service development. It can be stated that hotels that are investing within sector are more innovative than the ones which have no investment in Antalya.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This paper is the product of TUBITAK 1001 Project, named as; “Economic Diversification and Homogenization In Tourism Cities: The Case Of Antalya”, Project No:112K443
REFERENCES


Cultural Barriers facing Qualitative Inquiry in a Conservative Society: The case of Yemen

Hussein Abdulqader Al-Gahuri  
School of Tourism, Hospitality and Environmental Management  
Universiti Utara Malaysia  
Email: aljahwari2001@yahoo.com  

&  

Azilah Kasim  
School of Tourism, Hospitality and Environmental Management  
Universiti Utara Malaysia  
E-mail: azilah@uum.edu.my

INTRODUCTION

This paper highlights a methodological issue in the application of a qualitative inquiry in Yemen - a country with a very conservative society. The qualitative inquiry was a part of the study’s design to measure residents’ attitudes towards tourism development at Socotra Natural Reserve (SNR), Yemen. The thesis was motivated by the fact that many studies have been conducted in the western world to address the issue of residents attitudes towards tourism development (e.g. Snaith & Haley, 1999; Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Mason & Cheyne, 2000; Carmichael, 2000; Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002; Wang & Pfister, 2008). However, very few empirical researches investigated residents’ attitudes towards tourism development in the Arab countries (Akkawi, 2010; Henderson, 2003; Burns & Cooper, 1997). According to Akkawi (2010) since the Arab region has witnessed a consistent increase in the number of international tourist arrivals to approximately 48 million in 2008, studying residents attitudes in conservative cultures there will give a broader understanding on acceptance of tourism as an avenue for economic development. In short, the region’s cultural diversity, religious difference, and conservatism call for pragmatic research of
tourism development from viewpoint of residents’ attitudes towards foreign tourists.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As far as understanding resident attitudes towards tourism development is concerned, there are various models of residents’ attitude available in the literature. Attitude is defined by McDougall and Munro (1987) as an “enduring predisposition towards a particular aspect of one’s environment” (p. 87) and can be reflected in the way one thinks, feels and behaves with respect to that aspect (Carmichael, 2000). The scholar went further to classify attitudes of individuals along three dimensions. These dimensions are: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. Under cognitive dimension, there are beliefs, knowledge and perceptions, while affective dimension treats the ‘likes and dislikes’ of individual attitudes. The last dimension of individual attitude is behavioral, and it treated behavior such as action taken or expressed by residents. As asserted by Carmichael (2000) residents of host tourist attraction centre can base their attitudes towards tourism development on any of the stated attitude dimensions.

In support with McDougall and Munro’s (1987) definition, Getz (2000) posited that attitudes are “reinforced by perceptions and beliefs of reality, but are closely related to deeply held values and even to personality” (p. 140). Andriotis and Vaughan (2003) opined that the important aspect of residents’ attitude is that what is perceived does not have to be truth. Thus, it is perception rather than reality that encourage individuals to behave or act in a way. When residents feel that tourism development threatens their identity, then they may develop attitudes that can bring hostility to the tourists.

Capenerhurst (1994) argued that the concern of resident attitude towards tourism development arises when tourism is recognized as being a danger to the community’s identity, status quo or to local culture. Scholars have been advocating series of models and theories to investigate residents’ attitude towards tourism development. Few amongst these theories are; a typology of host-community interactions extensively discussed by Singh et al, (2003), and Williams & Lawalson (2001), Doxey’s ‘Irridex model or Irritation Index model. This model is extensively discussed by Doxey (1975). Other researchers that corroborated the position of Doxey, using Irritation Index model included Keyser, (2002), Bramwell, (2003), Cavus and Tanrisevdi (2003), and Zhang et al. (2006), extrinsic dimension versus intrinsic dimension is closely studied by Faulkner and Tideswell, (1997), Fredline and Faulkner, (2000). Other models used by re-

METHODOLOGY

As per the methodology used to measure residents attitude towards tourism, past researchers have mostly adopted the use of quantitative method to generate their findings. This study took a slightly different methodological approach in order to obtain a deeper understanding on residents ‘attitudes towards tourism in the context of Yemen. It utilized a mixed method approach, with interview based qualitative inquiry data gathered to triangulate the quantitative data of this study. The qualitative approach consists of semi-structured interviews with willing representatives from the local community of Socotra Natural Reserve. The objective of structured interview was to discover the ‘factors in the situation that might be central to the broad problem area...’ (Sekaran, 2003, p. 228). This approach was taken because it is believed that adopting a ‘holistic’ approach that considers the different perspectives, experiences and perceptions of the different stakeholders of Socotra is important. As suggested by Gertz (1976, p.235): “Design in qualitative methodology is an iterative process that involves “tacking” back and forth between the different components of the design, assessing the implications of purposes, theory, research questions, methods, and validity threats for one another.” Therefore the qualitative component of this study was intended to elicit the ‘subjective understanding’ of target informants’ voices of their own personal experiences and behaviours which are valuable for triangulation purposes with the survey findings.

A research protocol was designed to understand the conservative society’s attitude towards tourism impacts on the local economy, environment, culture, social environment and religion. The study managed to interview twenty informants. However, one concern that surfaced was the possible lack of representativeness due to cultural barriers that may have deprived the study from a more representative outlook on the issues investigated. The challenges revolved around the fact that the Yemeni society is largely sensitive to religious code and the traditional and cultural values that are inspired by religion and the Yemeni tribal-based system (Al-Nini, 2009). Therefore the idea of tourism as a development tool is novel and not widely understood by Yemenis.
According to Henderson (2003) the arrival of the Western tourists into the Muslim or the conservative communities can be more disruptive in comparison with the arrival of the Middle Eastern tourists into the Western countries. He states that such a situation is due to “the religious codes that informs and is manifest in their daily lives and that may be violated by tourists knowingly or accidentally” (Henderson, 2003, p.449). For example, the arrival of Western tourists into the Middle East countries is traditionally associated with unmarried males and females which is an unacceptable feature in Islamic cultures based on society and gender roles (Wigan, 1986). Moreover, Burns and Cooper (1997) argue that Western tourists may go into several outdoor activities that are unacceptable in Islamic cultures such as bathing in beaches and recreational resorts with bikini, a behavior that is considered to be an unacceptable from an Islamic perspective as well as to the Arab culture.

Alsagher (2009) posited that where there are clashes between conservative traditions and tourists’ cultural values, tourism development will be deemed “culturally undesirable”. This cultural discrepancy is heightened when there is a clash or a gap between Islamic and European values (Sharpley, 2008; Poirier, 1995) as well as contradiction in beliefs could lead to conflict between tourists and people (Binsumeet, 2011). In fact, there are evidences of extreme residents’ attitude rejecting other foreign cultures. For example, in March 2009 a South Korean tourist group was attacked where sixteen were killed and three were reported injured. Moreover, in 2010 two German tourists were kidnapped and killed. A few days later, twenty four tourists were kidnapped, but were finally released unharmed. In some local communities residents usually express their hostility towards tourists visiting their towns by throwing stones at them (Binsumeet, 2011). For this reason, the quest to find suitable respondent for the interview was quite difficult, leading to fewer than anticipated research participants.

Gender bias in the response couldn’t be avoided because the most obvious features of the Yemeni culture are the subordination to men in all aspects of daily life and the strict adherence to Islamic regulations and values such as the segregation between women and men, and the dress code. Therefore, even though understanding residents’ attitude calls for understanding a representative sample of the population, the conservative Islamic culture in Yemen and the Middle East in general (Alsagher, 2009) led to fewer women participation, which may have introduced bias in the results.
RESULTS

The concern about representativeness was answered when we came across a recent publication that highlighted otherwise. The authors, Baker and Edwards (2012) contend that insistence on larger numbers is a fundamental misunderstanding of the purpose of inductive research. Gathering the voices from 14 prominent qualitative methodologists and five ‘early career reflections’ they found that the answer to the question ‘how many’ qualitative responses would be considered adequate is ‘it depends’. It depends on the focus of the objectives and of analysis; on practicality issues, and on the “judgment of the epistemic community in which a student or researcher wishes to be or is located” (p42). In short, they contend that the appropriate number of sample is context-dependent.

As the Yemen community is one of the most conservative and hard to access communities in the world, the above contention justifies the adequacy of our qualitative inquiry outcome for the purpose of our study. The outcomes were that: The majority of the residents who agreed to be interviewed were male (15 men or 75%), while female residents accounted for 5 participants (25%) of the informants. Highly educated informants accounted for 6 participants (30%) of the sample, while those who were moderately educated or less educated accounted for 8 participants (40%) and 6 participants (30%) respectively. Further probe and observation indicate that the overall low education of the local people is due to the fact that the level of the education in the island is moderate because of the tendency among the residents to not to let their sons continue schooling after certain ages. Instead, they would force their sons to leave school and find employment to help their families. Daughters at a certain age to stop going schooling because they think it is of a shame to let an adult girl to go outside their houses and join schools where they can be taught by male teachers or meet their male class-mates. Such attitude towards education in the island contributed in the low educational level of the residents.

The low education level probably also explained why only three informants belonged to the high-income group accounting for 3 participants (15%) of the sample, while the majority of the participants belonged to the medium or low-income groups accounting for 5 participants (25%) and 12 participants (60%) respectively. The residents indicated that they work in the fishing industry (6 participants, accounting for 30%), restaurants (3 participants, accounting for 15%), hotels (3 participants, accounting for 15%), agriculture (4 participants, 20%), education (2 participants, 10%) and tourism (2 participants, 10%). In
terms of age, a majority of the informants (13 participants or 65%) belonged to the 18-29 age-group, while the other 7 participants (35%) belonged to the 30 plus age group. With regard to length of residency, 10 (50%) of the participants indicated that they stayed in Socotra more than 10 years, 6 participants (30%) showed medium length of residence (6-10 years), and 4 participants (20%) indicated short length of residence (1-5 years). The qualitative data enhanced our understanding on residents’ attitude towards tourism development.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

There is a need to understand the residents’ attitudes and perceptions towards tourism in Yemen so that more supportive attitudes can be cultivated. However the Yemeni’s Islamic culture and values, which are reinforced by cultural and tribal traditions that are widespread in almost every aspect of the Yemeni community, may have limited a complete understanding of residents’ attitude towards tourism as a development tool. Though this is not an issue from the standpoint of qualitative methodology, future research should still try determine strategies to counter these issues such as by seeking approval and support of village elders, using women research assistants to access more women respondents or by understanding how to use persuasive techniques to ask permission from the men for their women family members to participate. Better understanding of the attitude of all components of a community will open door for better strategy formulation to encourage more residents to embrace tourism as a useful future development tool.

REFERENCES


Alsahger, O. (2009). 101 Things to see and do in Yemen: Top tips to make your trip truly memorable, Sana’a: Yemen Tourism Promotion Board.


How Climate Change will Change Jamaica’s Tourism Industry

Ian Boxill
Centre for Tourism and Policy Research
The University of the West Indies, Jamaica
Email: ian.boxill@uwimona.edu.jm

&

Diaram RamjeeSingh
Centre for Tourism and Policy Research
The University of the West Indies, Jamaica
Email: diaram.ramjeesingh@uwimona.edu.jm

&

Anthony Chen
Department of Physics
The University of West, Indies, Jamaica
Email: anthony.chen@uwimona.edu.jm

INTRODUCTION

The Caribbean is the most tourism dependent region in the world. In the Caribbean, Jamaica has the fifth most tourism dependent economy (Clayton 2004). As with many other Caribbean countries, the fallout in the traditional sectors has resulted in a greater reliance on tourism as the engine of growth for the country (Boxill, Ramjeesingh and Segree 2004). As the largest of the English speaking Caribbean countries, Jamaica is classified as a middle-income developing country. The major sectors of the Jamaican economy are bauxite/alumina, agriculture (viz. sugar and bananas), manufacturing, tourism and remittances (the single largest contributor to the GDP). The Jamaican economy is estimated at 14.4 billion US dollars (2011) and is the second largest in CARICOM, behind Trinidad and Tobago which is a petroleum exporting country. The Jamaican economy is dominated by services, which account for approximately 60% of GDP. Remittances account for approximately 20% of GDP, while tourism is estimated at approximately 13% of GDP. Over the years, Jamaica has witnessed significant declines in revenues from agriculture and bauxite, due to the termi-
nation of preferential access of bananas and sugar to the EU and more recently, especially in the case of bauxite and alumina, contraction in the global economy. While tourism is an important economic sector in Jamaica, it has been associated with a number of negative environmental impacts, including the destruction of coral reefs and the filling of wetlands that protect the shoreline in times of hurricanes. Furthermore developments from both cruise and land-based tourism could lead to other significant negative impacts associated with climate change. In turn, such changes are likely to have a deleterious influence on the sustainability of the industry. This paper discusses the likely impacts of climate change on Jamaica over a number of decades and suggests ways in which the industry will have to adapt to ensure that it is sustainable.

LITERATURE REVIEW

By the end of the century sea levels are expected to rise by 0.21 to 0.48 meters under an A1B scenario using IPCC (2007) projections, but the models exclude future rapid dynamical changes in ice flow. Global sea level rise over the 20th century is estimated to have been 0.17 ± 0.05 m. From estimates of observed sea level rise from 1950 to 2000 by Church et al. (2004), the rise in the Caribbean appeared to be near the global mean. Satellite altimeter measurements show a rate of sea-level rise of about 3 mm/year since the early 1990s (Bindoff, 2007). Evaporation is also projected to increase by approximately 0.3 mm/day over the sea. The changes over land may be less. The frequency of hurricanes increasing or decreasing is uncertain but it is likely that with increased sea surface temperatures, rainfall amounts from storms and hurricanes will increase. While frequency of occurrence is uncertain, one model (Oouchi, 2006) has projected more intense hurricanes in the Atlantic. Despite the findings from the research, the expansion of Jamaica’s tourism industry has followed the traditional model, with concentration of the built environment along low-lying coastal areas which have proven to be vulnerable to sea-level rise, heavy rainfall and wind (Boxill, 2004).

METHODOLOGY

This Study estimates the likely cost of climate change for the Jamaican tourism industry concentrating on tourist arrivals, climate (represented by temperature and precipitation) and other relevant economic variables using data from 1976 to 2008. This is done by focussing on two climate change scenarios, -- A2 and B2. It utilises data generated by the Climate Change Group at the University of
the West Indies, Mona, to project the likely impact of the temperature and precipitation on tourism demand in Jamaica. Following these projections, adaptation strategies are identified accompanied by a cost-benefit analysis of each.

RESULTS

The above map shows the impact of sea level rise on Jamaica. According to the Geoinformatics Institute a 1-2 m rise in the sea level would have a major impact on infrastructure of vital sectors of the economy including transport, i.e., airport and port facilities, finance, i.e., central bank and commercial banks, manufacturing and service industries, as well as, major road networks and public institutions. Along the coastal zones in Negril, Montego Bay and Ocho Rios, the high population densities within these areas increase the vulnerability of tourist resorts to the adverse impact of flooding, storms and hurricane events.

The projections for annual mean temperature (based on the average of maximum and minimum temperatures) were based only on regional modelling. Based on a combination of the results of regional modelling and statistical downscaling the projections for rainfall in Jamaica as a whole are given in the below table. The changes are for the decades centred on 2015, 2030, 2050 and 2080\(^1\) with respect to the 1960 to 1990 baselines. The increases in temperature are in °C and are progressive and almost exponential. The changes in rainfall

\(^1\)These were the years considered for Jamaica’s 2\(^{nd}\) National communication to UNFCCC
are percentages of the 1960 to 1990 baseline. The data show that rainfall decreases are very small up to 2030 and may even be slightly positive in 2030 under a B2 scenario. It is not until after 2050 that decreases become pronounced. There is more confidence in the temperature projections than in the rainfall projections because the spread in changes are greater for rainfall than for temperature in the GCM multi-models.

Table 1. Percentage rainfall changes from the 1961–1990 baseline for A2 and B2 scenarios

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2030</th>
<th>2050</th>
<th>2080</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>-4</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>-8</td>
<td>-39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>-23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Climate change will seriously impact Jamaica and, consequently, its tourism industry over the next six decades. This could potentially devastate the tourism industry in Jamaica, unless effective adaptation measures are implemented. While the literature on mitigation is quite extensive because mitigation requires international effort, the literature on adaptation costing is relatively sparse, especially in the tourism sector, since adaptation measures are more diffused and are coordinated at the national level. No standard metrics have emerged to judge the efficacy of adaptation policies and measurement. Whether or not adaptation actions are undertaken by public or private agents the decision to pursue a particular course of action will be determined by analytical tools such as net present value and the cost versus the benefits of a particular course of action.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We wish to thank the Climate Change Group at the UWI and the UWI MonaGeoinformatics Institute for the data used in this study.

REFERENCES


Why Archeological Tourism Does Not Work?: Evidence From Two Discoveries In Kosovo

Isa Mulaj
Institute for Economic Policy Research and Analyses (INEPRA)
Pristina, Kosovo
E-mail: isa.mulaj@gmail.com

INTRODUCTION

This paper brings an evidence about two unique archeological discoveries in Kosovo: i) Fingerprints in a rock from Pleistocene period; and ii) the Star of David, the Flower of Life, the Tree of Life, and “Eye of the Masonry” found together engraved in a marble stone 1 meter long and 30 centimeters wide. The carbon test (C14) of the latter puts the age of the engravings circa 2500 BCE. It was found by the Author in 2013, located in the coordinate 42°48′41.50″N 20°34′16.00″ E, 400 metres away from Fingerprints to the southwest, in Shushica village, municipality of Istog.¹

Archeological tourism is subject to a number of measures that should be undertaken to make it work. The sites where the two our discoveries are located are intensively polluted by the nearby residents. The municipal authorities of Istog have further neglected the sites after taking away the artifacts and no longer showing any interest.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Archeological discoveries are an ongoing process, trying to better understand the evolution of human civilization going back to very old times. In May 2013, the Happisburgh Footprints were discovered in a rocky terrain in eastern England. The results suggested the footprints to be circa 800 000 old from the Pleis-

¹ Shushica village is also the birthplace of Tahir Efendi (1826-1888), the father of Mehmet Akif Ersoy (1873-1936). Tahir Efendi was a tutor at Fatih Madrasah in Istanbul. His closest relatives among Albanians are from Mulaj family, including the Author of this paper.
tocene period, making them the oldest evidence of human presence outside Africa (Ashton et al, 2014).

Tourism related to archeology or archeoturism aims to promote and preserve cultural heritage. Efforts in its development are faced with the challenge of protecting the artifacts from the theft, uncontrolled or poorly planned tourism associated facilities such as restaurants, residences and infrastructure (Douglas, 2012). The motive of destination to archeotourism is often to search the lost knowledge from the past, or the origin of a work that we know today, which was adopted from others and being presented as exclusively their own. A typical example is the Star of David. The Jewish Encyclopedia (1906) noted that its possible origin may be linked to the term “Magen Dawid” as the earliest source in a 12th century CE document, though the form of the symbol is not described. The blue hexagram currently in the Flag of Israel has been the official emblem of the Karamanid Dynasty (1250-1487), used by a Jewish community only from the 17th century, 1648 respectively. Human evolution, intermarriage and cultural development makes it hard to find how today Jews descended from ancient Israelites or Albanians from Illyrians, despite DNA tests confirming some genetic links. Sand (2009) asserts that modern Jews are not a nation, but more a result of cultural development and ideology. He further rejects the Old Testament which portrayed the creation of ancient Israelites together with the Earth.2

The Star of David became a symbol of Zionism in the first Zionist Congress held in Basel (Switzerland) in 1897. David himself left no idea or trace how his Star would look like much later attributed to him by others. Its massive use as the Yellow Badge for identification of the Jews was introduced by the Nazis during the Holocaust. The six pointed star, often referred to as the Seal of Solomon, is drawn inside a circle having six points between the six little triangles of the hexagram. However, the evidence on the Solomon’s Seal of the time, is missing.

The earliest presence of the Jews in the Balkans began in the 70s CE after, after a group of Jewish captives en route from the Roman Province of Judea to Rome escaped from a ship and settled on the shores of northwestern Epirus. They had built a synagogue there, the remains of which can be traced in the

2 Sand (2009: 64) refers to the Hellenized Jew, Flavius Josephus, who wrote probably the earliest known but reconstructed history about the Jews in the late first century CE: “The ancient historian [Flavius Josephus] was certain that the Pentateuch (the first five books of the Old Testament) was dictated by God to Moses, and he took for granted that the history of the Hebrews and Judeans ought to start with the creation of the world, since this was how the Scriptures present it.”
town of Saranda (Bajraktari, 2009). The mass Jewish immigration to the Balkans came from their exodus fleeing the Spanish inquisition from 1492. At the time, today’s Kosovo was largely inhabited by the Slavs, with Shushica settlement having 38 households, all of them Slavs (Pulaha, 1974). 3 From then to the present, there is no any record for the Jews in Shushica, except the migration through to Albania during the Holocaust where, Albanians were a unique case in sheltering the Jews (Sarner, 1997). The saving of the Jews by the Albanian Muslims was done under the code of honor called besa (Gershman, 2009). The Ottoman rule had not caused any change or imbalance of ethnic composition of the population in today’s Kosovo borders until the Austrian-Turkish wars in the late 17th and beginning of 18th century. The Ottomans then favored those who embraced Islam. The overwhelming majority of them were Albanians coming from northern Albania, thus Kosovo was becoming predominantly Albanian (Horvat, 1998). To sum this section up, the artifacts discovered in Shushica are not the work of Jews, Albanians, Slavs, or Ottomans.

METHODOLOGY

The methodology uses ontological and epistemological approach. Ontology takes into account what actually exists, while epistemology is the study of knowledge. This combination implies that kind of knowledge for which there is a back up with real things. Legends as knowledge are useful only in cases when we are unable to decode forgone events that have left traces. A limited literature review was undertaken to see whether our findings are in line with the mainstream theory, or to what extent are diverging. The search for the original or the first and finding it, enables us to challenge respective standard theories, and provides a reason to drop the current naming of symbols in a massive use such as the Star of David.

RESULTS

The results of this paper belong to two periods: i) Fingerprints from Pleistocene period; and ii) engravings in a marble stone from the Bronze Age. There is no testing technique by which the age of the Fingerprints called by the legend the

---

3 This is based on the Ottoman Defter (a kind of census) of 1485 by personal names of family heads and their fathers, e.g. Radovan the son of Stanisha, Jovan the son of Radivoje, Vladisava the widow, and so on (Pulaha, 1974: 202). All these are inherited among the Serbs as typical Serb names and no Albanian bears them, suggesting that nearly 100 years after the Battle of Kosovo, the overwhelming majority of the population was still Slavic.
Fingers of Mujo-Halil, can be determined, but they should be approximately old as the Happisburgh Footprints.

Picture 1: "The Fingers of Mujo Halil"
Research Papers

Picture 2: Engravings and symbols in a marble stone 2 500 BCE: 1) Mortise of extended order; 2) Mortise of the first order; 3) Cape/level; 4) the Flower of Life with four petals; 5) Unknown (possibly a whole for linkup with tenon lumber through mortise of the first order by a metallic bar); 6) “The Eye of the Masonry” inside the hexagon of Illyricum Sacrum (the Star of “David”); 7) Illyricum Sacrum; 8) The Tree of Life; 9) the Flower of Life with five petals.

The Flower of Life does not yet have an original source as where it has come from. The Albanian name for it is Lulja e Jetës or simply Luljeta, a widespread name for Albanian women in Kosovo. As a symbol, it was present almost in every cradle, especially from 1970s through 2000, the period which corresponded with the largest frequency of the name Luljeta among the women.

The Tree (or Fruit) of Life is an ancient symbol, referred to even in religious textbooks such the Bible and the Qur’an, e.g. reporting the story between Adam and Eve in the Garden of Eden as the Tree of Knowledge to make a distinction between the wrongs (sins) and the good.

Illyricum Sacrum engraved inside a square, different from the Seal of Solomon inside a circle, is the work of the Illyrians. Sacrum is a Latin term even in today’s anatomy denoting a large triangular bone located in the human pelvis connecting body with the legs. A man was represented by a triangle in a pyra-
mid shape, while the woman by the triangle upside down to denote the opposite sex. When the two triangles are merged, they form the hexagram. A careful look at Picture 2 shows how the lines of one go above then underneath the lines of the other triangle. We cannot go beyond other known or speculated interpretations for this symbol except the one that we have found and believe to have the meaning as it appears engraved.

The Eye of the Masonry or of Illuminati inside the hexagon of Illyricum Sacrum, is a mysterious symbol that has given rise to many conspiracy theories on alleged world rule. This symbol is currently in use with the Freemasonry and in the U.S. bill of 1 dollar. It probably was a mysterious symbol in Illyricum Sacrum, as an all around (human) looking eye.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Shushica provides two unique archeological discoveries, probably the oldest and most original of their kind so far discovered. The Fingerprints can be more important and advanced than the Happisburgh Footprints. The Flower of Life has Illyrian origin and is inherited by the Albanians as a symbol and personal name for women as Luljeta. As the age of the Tree or Fruit of Life is much older than the stories about it written in the Bible and the Qur’an, we may conclude that the writings in the Holly Books are not the words of God but of humans attributed to God. The first use of the Star of “David” so far discovered is Illyricum Sacrum. The true name of the Eye of the Masonry has yet to be discovered.

Archeotourism first of all requires the rising significance of knowledge for discoveries. Such knowledge in Shushica, and generally in Kosovo, is deficient, therefore, the chances of promoting tourism about this cause are relatively small. In addition, archeotourism falls out of favor as the inhabitants nearby continue to pollute the environment, and the institutions just take away the priceless artifacts and forget the site.

REFERENCES


Americans Traveling to Cuba the Forbidden Communist Fruit

Jackson Wilson
Department of Recreation, Parks, & Tourism
San Francisco State University, USA
E-mail: wilsonj@sfsu.edu

&

Pavlina Látková
Department of Recreation, Parks, & Tourism
San Francisco State University, USA
E-mail: latkova@sfsu.edu

&

Melissa Camacho
Department of Broadcast and Electronic Communications Arts
San Francisco State University, USA
E-mail: mcamacho@sfsu.edu

INTRODUCTION

When asked to describe Cuba as a travel destination, a recent American tourist that visited Cuba stated, “The first word that comes to mind is that it is illegal. You know Americans can’t get there.” Even though she just went to Cuba on a legal trip, this tourist still believed Americans could not go there legally. The embargo that restricts the travel of Americans to Cuba heavily impacts American perceptions of Cuba as a dangerous (Firpo-Cappiello, February 20, 2013) or forbidden travel destination (Padilla & McElroy, 2007). Given the evolution of the Cuban-American relationship, this study examined a group of American tourists’ perception of Cuba before and after a tour in Cuba.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) found that foreign tourists’ perception of how safe a destination was positively correlated with intentions to travel to that des-
tination. Part of what molds American perceptions of a travel destination is the official US government description of the country. The Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) World Factbook starts its description of Cuba by explaining about the former “iron rule” of Fidel Castro and transition to his younger brother, Raul Castro in 2008 (Central Intelligence Agency, 2014). The World Factbook further explains that the country was severely impacted by the 1990 withdrawal of subsidies from the Soviet Union. It closes this introduction to Cuba by discussing the “illicit migration” of Cubans attempting to enter the US. The US State Department also characterizes Cuba as a potentially dangerous place for American travelers (US State Department, 2014). The State Department describes Cuba as, “An authoritarian state that routinely employs repressive methods against internal dissent and monitors and responds to perceived threats to its authority.” It further states that American tourism into Cuba is illegal. The consistent message from these two parts of the US government is that Cuba is a poor and dangerous place that is illegal for American tourists to visit.

While travel to Cuba is highly restricted by the US government, there are exceptions. For example, travelers can travel to Cuba under “general licenses “which cover eight different travel-related transactions including “professional research by full-time professionals in their professional areas” (31 C.F.R. § 515.564(a)) (Office of Foreign Assets Control, 2012, p. 5). Section 515.564(a) requires participants to conduct professional research, attend international professional organizations meetings or conferences, or meetings related to telecommunication services (Office of Foreign Assets Control, 2012).

Travel to Cuba is likely to be heavily impacted by the perception of Cuba as a dangerous place to visit due to the international conflict between Cuba and the United States. When applied to inter-nation context, Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) suggests international conflicts may lead potential tourists to think or act based on their national identity, which might result in “collective perceptions of a foreign nation as hostile” (Chen, Lin, & Petrick, 2013, p. 3). Country stereotyping might negatively influence country images which in turn might result in negatively biased destination perceptions, consequently impacting international tourism (Chen et al., 2013). As Reisinger and Mavondo state, “Tourism cannot develop in places that are perceived as dangerous” (2005, p. 212).
METHODS

This study uses qualitative methods to understand the impact of communism on American tourists’ image of Cuba as a travel destination. Eight American tourists and the American guide on the 8-day Professional Research & Professional Meetings delegation were interviewed within two-weeks before and after a trip to Cuba. Interviews were conducted via Skype, recorded with the Tapur application, and lasted on average 21 minutes. The script of questions and extant codes were based on Gartner (1993), Echtner and Ritchie (1993) and Reilly (1990).

Two authors independently coded the data using the extant codes and developed emergent codes based on the content of the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Throughout the coding process the authors conducted regular discussions of the emergent codes that led to the further refinement and connections between codes. It is relevant that one of the authors grew up in a communist country (Czechoslovakia) while the other author grew up in a capitalist country (USA). Beyond the comparison of codes between researchers, the coding results were discussed with research participants and further refined (member check) (Green, Creswell, Shope, & Plano Clark, 2010).

RESULTS

Both before and after the trip, many of the participants described Cuba as a forbidden fruit, a tropical paradise that Americans were not allowed to visit.

Forbidden Fruit

“So I think most of the interest that I have heard at least it’s been because it’s been forbidden fruit or off limits for a long time and people are dying to go visit now that it has opened up.”

“Because of the US embargo, and Bay of Pigs, and things like that, you know Cuba is this forbidden fruit. It’s the exotic other. It’s a place where your grandparents went from New York or from Miami to have a weekend, and have you know, cheap prostitutes and great music and gambling you know, it was the Las Vegas of the Caribbean, so to speak, in the US backyard.”

In the biblical story the forbidden fruit was the apple of knowledge that the original humans were instructed by God not to eat, but were tempted by Satan
Many participants explained their experiences before and after the trip about fellow Americans perceptions that travelling to Cuba is illegal.

“Most people are like, ‘Wait how? You can’t go to Cuba!’ And I was like, ‘Well actually I can.’ A lot of people just didn’t realize that it was possible. They’re all jealous and excited for me.”

“A lot of people have just been surprised, they did not know that you could go to Cuba. So, everyone is like, Wow, Cuba!’ And a lot of the friends and people that I hang out around with are pretty adventurous people and do stuff like that so their reaction is just super excited for me but a lot of people have just been surprised that they didn’t think that you could just go to Cuba.”

A participant that grew up in a communist country explained that it was seen as a tropical paradise that was, literally, full of exotic fruits. However, the relative cost of traveling to Cuba made it an impossible destination to visit.

“Cuba was one of the countries we were allowed to go, at that time, for political reasons. So it wasn’t necessarily the question of getting a visa and being allowed to go but the question of having the amount of money, because it was about ten to twenty times as much expensive as going anywhere else. So it was an approachable, acceptable destination for Soviet Union run countries. But the money was the issue.”

Moreover, she explains that costs continue to prevent Americans from going to Cuba.

“A few of my colleagues were going to go with me,… but they cannot financially. But everyone is giving me positive, ‘I wish I could go.’ and ‘It’s too bad it is so expensive. But I just cannot do it.”

Arguably, most Americans see the embargo and the associated financial cost of going to Cuba as preventing them from travelling to Cuba. This gives the experience of travelling to Cuba value through its perceived rarity.
Safety

A major concern of a majority of the participants before the trip was safety. Participants shared how their friends and family warned them against the danger of travelling to Cuba. The factors that they cited were expectations of poverty leading to desperation and government violence against them as Americans. Before the trip one participant stated,

“Maybe I might say the wrong thing or someone may not like me. Like I’ve heard stories from... my friend from a communist society, saying, ‘Someone said the wrong thing and they’d be in jail’. And I’m hoping, I don’t say the wrong thing or something, yeah.”

After the trip, this particular participant described how different the situation was from her expectations.

“Well I thought I was going to see a lot of military folks around with their guns and stuff like that. I didn’t see one. I was like, ‘Huh?’ And we even went to Bay of Pigs and there were no armed guards. And it was just a really tiny little museum, you know?... I didn’t see the military anywhere. I rarely even seen a police officer.”

After this trip, participants positively described their experience of safety in Cuba.

“Probably one of the safest places I ever visited”

“I never felt afraid at any point”

“I feel like I look over my shoulder a lot more in San Francisco”

The lack of expected violence was explained by participants as due to three factors, intact communities, a lack of desperate economic disparity, and an absence of what they expected to be an omnipresent oppressive government security presence.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The primarily American tourists described Cuba as a forbidden fruit, a tourism destination that Americans are either overtly or covertly not allowed to visit. From the perspective of tour providers, Cuba being perceived as a communist country directly affects the image of Cuba as a tourism destination. On the po-
sitive side, Cuba is seen as a potential adventure - a forbidden place that offers an exciting travel destination.

Arguably, the image of Cuba as a desperate and dangerous location may cause some travelers to hesitate before committing to travel there. However, all of the travelers reported that Cuba was “ridiculously safe”. Moreover, these tourists explained that most of the Americans they spoke to that felt like Cuba was dangerous based their opinion on very low levels of information. They also related that after these individuals heard about the travelers’ experiences in Cuba, in most cases, their opinion shifted to seeing Cuba as a safer travel destination.

This leads to the major finding in this study that the communist aspect of Cuba is generally a positive aspect for tourism to Cuba and the associated perception of Cuba as a dangerous destination has the potential for being negated with information-based marketing. The findings support the predictions of Social Identity theory that a negative image has a negative impact on the perception, and hence likelihood of visiting Cuba, up until individuals personally experience the destination and then that organic knowledge prevails in their perception of the travel destination.

REFERENCES


Tourism Development and Social Conflict

Jingjing Yang
School of Hospitality and Tourism Management,
University of Surrey, United Kingdom
Email: jingjing.yang@surrey.ac.uk

&

Chris Ryan
Management School,
University of Waikato, New Zealand
Email: cryan@waikato.ac.nz

&

Lingyun Zhang
Beijing Union University, China.
Email: zhanglingyun1960@163.com

INTRODUCTION

This paper is based upon 12 months of ethnographic study while living among the Tuva and Kazakh people in Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region, China. Based on observation, interviews, participation and secondary documents the paper uses Coser’s theory of Social Conflict to suggest a four part model of how tourism engenders different forms of social conflict and fluctuating alliances between stakeholders in an environment where tourism has been introduced by agents external to the indigenous community. The actors are ethnic groupings and members of those groups, governmental officials at local, regional and national level, intermediaries of the tourism industry and private sector entrepreneurs drawn from the majority and minority ethnic groups. Tensions are identified as being based on beliefs, resources and power, and a sequential pattern of primacy is identified consistent with stages of the tourist area lifecycle.
LITERATURE REVIEW

This research fills a number of literature gaps. The impacts of tourism have been well researched and such studies have developed into a rich body of literature. Equally the subject of social conflict has also been well developed with its own stream of analytical works extending over several centuries; for example, in western literature one might cite Machiavelli’s Renaissance work The Prince. However, while academics have proposed concepts of community tourism, a lack of empirical evidence remains as to the functions of social conflict and its relationship with tourism development, especially with reference to China and marginal groups as defined by access to decision-making power structures. It is suggested that traditional concepts have been primarily directed toward the reduction of conflict. However, conflict can be a necessary and positive part of all social relationships, and a requisite for social change (Coser, 1956). Second, conflict is often accompanied by cooperation, unity and the formation of alliances, but in tourism studies the relation between conflict and cooperation/unity/alliance has rarely been discussed. Third, a theoretical base for social conflict is needed to support the empirical studies regarding tourism development and conflict. Fourth, from the perspective of background and context, functions of social conflict are still an under-researched area within multi-ethnic communities affected by tourism. This study considers all these issues in the discussion.

METHODOLOGY

This research is derived from an ethnographic study undertaken by the first author who lived for 12 consecutive months among the Tuva and Kazakh communities of the Kanas Scenic Area of Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region in China, and became an ‘adopted daughter’ of a Tuva family. She participated in daily life, attended various festivals, including those held away from public areas and which were accessible only by horseback, and spoke the local languages.

Data were derived from observation, informal conversations, daily note taking, informal and more formal interviews among residents, outside entrepreneurs, visitors and government officials (both local and provincial). Additional reports, papers and texts were also collected. She is of the same ethnicity as the majority of tourists and government officials, and many of the external entrepreneurs who come during the summer season, but unlike them lived through the harshness of the winter when the villages are cut off from the outside
world, even to the point of losing power supplies. She also speaks Tuva, and Kazakh in addition to Mandarin and English.

RESULTS

In undertaking this study, Coser’s (1956) 16 propositions are examined and extended by making comparisons between Western and Chinese societies, by applying those concepts to an ethnic community, and by looking at the administrative realities of the Kanas Scenic Area. Based on the differences in culture between Western societies and China, it is suggested that some theories and research methods might need modification in the Chinese context.

This study demonstrates the nature, forms and means of the conflict between the groups and subgroups, thereby contributing to an understanding of the extents, approaches and reasons behind the nature of observed tourism impacts.

Based on social conflict theory and in line with tourism development (especially in ethnic communities), a tension-directed tourism development model for studying tourism impacts is suggested. A tension-directed tourism development system consists of four parts:

- A tension-directed evolution of some ethnic tourism areas
- The emergence of key power clusters
- A community tension-directed mechanism of tourism impact (community development perspective)
- An inter-personal tension-directed mechanism of tourism impact

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study employs Coser’s (1956) social conflict theory for a discussion of tourism impacts on the ethnic communities, and proposes a tension-directed tourism development system with which to analyze tourism impacts. This system involves both macro and micro perspectives of tourism impacts. It embodies the evolutionary mechanism of tourism destinations, an emphasis on, in this case, four primary groups (tourists, governments, tourism entrepreneurs, and local community) and sub-groups, and the changes of inner-personal relationships during tourism development. Not only are the consequences of tourism on the locals assessed, but also the determinants and the mechanism of tourism impacts involved. It demonstrates the conflict and negotiations between the groups and subgroups, thereby contributing to an understanding of the functi-
ons of social conflict on tourism destination development. The combination of ethnographic description and sociologically-oriented analysis, drawing upon both Chinese and western paradigms that are, at times very different in their underlying value system, challenges several of Coser’s suppositions.

Many tourism impact studies are empirical studies that emphasize the specific characteristics of the case areas, and lack a comparison with other case areas and related studies. The framework of analysis and the tension-directed tourism development system provide a tool for comparing and contrasting tourism impacts on different areas. It permits a discussion of the determinants of different tourism impacts on different destinations. It permits cross case study analysis from which generalization becomes possible.

Theoretical implications

- The functions of conflict/tension in relation to social change in the community
- Stakeholders in tourism development
- The heterogeneity of a community/group
- The distinction between behaviour (conflict) and attitude (hostility)
- Pre-existing conditions for conflict/tension
- The correlation between conflict and unification

Practical implications

- An objective attitude towards conflict
- A balance of stakeholders’ interest
- An attention to sub-groups’ interests
- When poverty is the major concern of the people
- Ethnic people’s psychological problems during social change
- Antecedent conditions for tension need to be considered
- Conflict and cooperation/unity/alliance

REFERENCES

The Role of Edu-tourism in Bridging Racial Divides in South Africa

Julia Wells
History Department
Rhodes University, Grahamstown, South Africa
Email: J.Wells@ru.ac.za

INTRODUCTION

This paper explores efforts currently being made to develop a robust Edu-tourism sector in the small, historic town of Grahamstown in South Africa’s Eastern Cape Province. The concept arises from the unique combination of a university town with numerous libraries and museums, the home of the annual National Arts Festival, in close proximity to relatively unspoilt natural features. The surrounding area is also the site of numerous frontier wars from the late 1700s through the mid-19th century.

While people from diverse backgrounds have occupied the area in different historical periods, the English took over, through military conquest, in 1812. In 1820, nearly 5,000 British settlers arrived, resulting in a long-standing tourism brand of ‘settler country.’ The Grahamstown city centre consists of mostly Victorian buildings and an imposing Anglican cathedral.

Since the advent of democracy in South Africa in 1994, the inclusion of all population groups into the domain of public memory has been a high priority of the government. Yet in the vicinity of Grahamstown, this has been difficult to achieve because of the domination of British culture in the entire built environment, which is echoed throughout the tourism support sector. Very few facilities for visitors have any character other than Victorian English and most are in the hands of English descendants. In recent years, private game-farming has become quite popular, but has developed around a generic African look and feel with virtually no reference to the earlier human inhabitants.
As South African democracy reaches its twentieth anniversary this year, there is a widespread sense that progressive change has been far too superficial. The ideals of commitment to shared humanitarian values have not brought the anticipated changes. The tourism industry in South Africa has included previously disadvantaged people in a number of ways: cultural villages which claim to recreate traditional ways of living, the emergence of arts and crafts projects near game parks and tour guides to sites of significance in the struggle against apartheid. All of these, however, conform to existing cultural stereotypes (Rassool, 2000, 5-6).

The Edu-tourism model seeks to include people from diverse backgrounds in packaged tours targeting visitors who seek an intelligent and well-informed introduction to South Africa as it is today. Innovative packaging creates space for a variety of voices and viewpoints, allowing previously marginalised people to become involved on a small, but eminently do-able scale, as experts with valuable knowledge to share. The designing of such packages offers a chance for South Africans to reflect on the past in ways that can help them heal and move forward. Edu-tourism offers such a space because it self-consciously seeks a break from old views and promotes debates.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The well-developed concept of the ‘new tourism’ fits contemporary conditions in South Africa quite well. Erve Chambers describes the new tourists as well-educated elites who ‘will increasingly value principles of environmental sustainability, human equality and cultural diversity, and will, as a result be more sensitive than any other generation of recreational tourists to the consequences of their travels.’ (Chambers, 2008, 353). He sees these tourists as consumers of products that are intellectually challenging as well as offering some sense of self-improvement (Chambers, 2008, 354). Such tourism is viewed as inviting new types of inputs from the host countries. Poon further describes the new tourism as characterised by a demand for flexibility, authenticity and respect for the environment, rejecting rigid packaging and superficial exposures (Poon, 1994, 92). Mowforth and Munt’s Tourism and Sustainability, now in its 3rd edition, asks how the gap between rich and poor of the world can be closed by tourism. (Mowforth & Munt, 2009). They see the emergence of new forms of tourism as offering an important alternative to inherited patterns of exploitation as visitors self-consciously choose to avoid all the pitfalls of old-fashioned tourism.
In South Africa, new tourists face the extra challenge of transcending the lingering stereotypes of the apartheid past. ‘A World in One Country’ was the official tourism slogan of the newly democratic South Africa in 1994. It capitalised on its first world qualities of wealth and comfort, as the leader in bringing modernity to Africa, where the world of the poor was portrayed as fascinating ‘real Africa’, all surrounded by fantastic wildlife and breathtaking scenery (Rassool and Witz, 1996, 337). This allowed for black poverty to appear as normal, simply to be gazed upon. Bheki Peterson warns of the temptation to bypass everyday realities in South Africa by using slogans which refer to the ‘South African Miracle’ and the ‘Rainbow nation’ (Peterson, 2012, 1). When communities participate in constructing their own stories, they generally reject the simplistic notion of a suddenly happy South Africa, instead articulating more honest and inclusive versions of the past which include ‘complexity, controversy and contestation’(Rassool, 2000, 1). Edu-tourism aims to offer a corrective by both raising tough questions and allowing the previously marginalized to speak for themselves.

A substantial body of writing exists about the overwhelming need in South Africa today to allow people to tell their stories as a form of healing from the pains of the past (see for example, Field, 2006; Meskell, 2008 & Marschall, 2010). The use of a wide range of experts from previously disadvantaged communities within Edu-tourism packages serves this function. Telling one’s own stories about cultural practices and personal experiences is in itself empowering, but also brings the possibility of economic benefit.

Critics of how South Africa uses its past today bemoan the fact that the late 20th century struggle against apartheid dominates the public terrain, to the exclusion of numerous other issues (Meskell, 2008, 154). An important component of the Edu-tourism approach in Grahamstown is to tap into the much longer legacy of the interaction of differing cultures over a 200 year period. During this time, engagements between black and white ranged from aggressive to assimilative.

While pro-poor tourism has been around since 1999, it cannot be said to have achieved as much as was originally hoped for (Ashley & Goodwin, 2007, 80). It recognises the need for strong, financially-supported interventions to make a dent in industry norms. One of the advantages of the Edu-tourism concept is that it does not require major investments in capital, such as the construction of lodges, as it is a knowledge-based approach.
METHODOLOGY

The idea of creating tourist attractions which would combine fairly serious educational content with traditional activities such as action sports, hiking, game viewing and visiting sites of historical significance emerged in Grahamstown in 2005. The Edu-tourism concept aimed to use the expertise available among university staff as an attraction, especially for young people who might be students themselves. Funding from the European Union supported the creation of an Edu-tourism website, through which this combination of attractions could be advertised.

As both a lecturer in Public History and a local government Councillor, I was familiar with the concepts of Edu-tourism and had access to its key role players. Over the years, many conversations took place with the designers of the Edu-tourism project, tour guides, the local tourism office, municipal tourism staff, academics with relevant interests and the university international office. I also as worked directly with several groups of visiting international students as a historical consultant.

In 2013 and 2014, students of Public History in the History Department of Rhodes University undertook to develop special packages for potential Edu-tourism customers under my guidance. The approach arose from the recognition that the Edu-tourism website mostly captured existing tourist facilities, without developing new offerings tailored specifically to visitors with educational interests. In 2013, students produced seven-day packages for hypothetical groups of 15 students from overseas universities. These covered the themes of the frontier character of Grahamstown, the legacy of the Kohekohe and San people, as well as eco-history. Each package included a balance of both educational and recreational offerings, using local museums, travelling to near-by places, meeting people with expertise and engaging in hands-on activities. Central to the planning was a requirement that the packages should provide a good mix of black and white experts, regardless of formal educational qualifications, each to be paid a standard fee. This allowed people from previously disadvantaged backgrounds to speak about cultural and personal experiences as equal participants.

In the second year of the project, students used the original packages as a foundation, but redesigned them as stand-alone one-day packages with some key improvements. The first change required the development of digital inputs. As most visiting students would have either tablets or smart phones, the new plan was to package information that they could carry with them and
view on site instead of spending time inside classrooms. My students also developed pre-travel reading lists, so that visitors could arrive well-prepared. Their time would then be spent primarily viewing and experiencing first-hand the places and issues they had read about.

The biggest innovation in the second round was the requirement that each one-day package should include a ‘Ghost Story.’ Ideally, this would be a relatively short performance done by 1-3 actors around an evening campfire. The goal was to create an opportunity for the experiences of obscure historical characters, mostly from the silenced black majority of the population, to be explored. The idea was to allow artistic interpretation to fill in the silences, based on what is knowable about the person’s historic context. As the home of South Africa’s National Arts Festival, Grahamstown is well-endowed with actors coming from low-income backgrounds, as well as the Rhodes University Drama Department. The student designers of packages had to develop a Ghost Story concept and provide documentation about the historic figure for use by actors, who would, in turn, develop the actual scripts.

RESULTS
The experience of developing Edu-tourism packages reveals a great deal about where South Africa is today in relation to altering the tourism status quo. Deep social and economic differences remain difficult to transcend. Today’s South African students have little first-hand experience of the world outside university walls, and have not been exposed to viewing people of low-income status as having valuable knowledge to share. While some saw the inclusion of black people mostly in terms of voluntourism acts of charity, others learned the value of meeting people with expertise. Another limitation came from black students who felt that digging too deeply into the apartheid past is still too painful because economic and racial divides remain harsh realities.

It proved to be quite difficult for the students to think in terms of potential job-creation and extending the benefits of tourism more widely to people from disadvantaged backgrounds. Instead, they readily grasped the services of existing tourism professionals. In many of the packages, the only ‘black’ component was the Ghost Story, which at times felt like an uncomfortable add-on. Using black people in digital interviews was seldom done, mostly due to student unfamiliarity with relevant informants. Initially, the South African students were wary of their international counterparts, assuming that they would bring only superficial understanding into the
local context. However, after meeting a few ‘volunteer’ international students, an alternate view emerged, that they were less tainted, open to trying new things and meeting new people, offering more of a ‘clean slate’ on South African dynamics.

The project also exposed several barriers to quick implementation. Several local historic sites, including rock art and the ruins of an old mission station, are located on private land where access is limited. In some instances, low-income people could not develop useful products due to their poverty. For example, eager traditional cooks lacked electricity and sufficient pots to carry out their cooking lessons. Others knew the value of what they had to offer, but would not talk about it with students unless paid a professional fee first. Similarly, many academics with expertise were not willing to take the time to share it, lacking sufficient incentive.

In the design of the packages, it was often hard to find digital inputs that genuinely complimented what visitors would actually be seeing. The potential for recording numerous interviews to use while travelling and viewing places is enormous and offers an opportunity for the inclusion of multiple points of view and a range of expertise from all population groups. In a few cases, telephonic audio interviews with people who are not local were used, but too often students chose to record the same person who would be leading a tour.

Using museum and academic experts tends to reproduce the racial divide, where white people speak extensively about black people. While all public institutions today have goals to transform the composition of their staff, these have not yet been met in many instances. Further ways and means need to be sought to break down this dichotomy.

A number of successes can also be noted. First, students generally designed well-balanced packages which included good variety, from travel to interesting places, to do-it-yourself participatory activities, to hiking and wildlife viewing and creative eating experiences. Secondly, creating Edu-tourism packages also revealed areas where interpretations of the past are still contested and undeveloped, but worthy of extensive further research and exploration. Locally, these include,

- De-mystifying British supremacy through class and gender analysis
- The evolution of the print media from white cultural domination into a tool for black criticism
The evolution of the Mfengu people from hungry refugees, to mercenaries, to the earliest black elite
Why people of Kohekohe descent eventually openly rebelled against assimilation into British culture
The integration of the human history, both black and white, into today’s world of game farming

Through Edu-tourism, smaller slices of South Africa’s past can be used, even before extensive research takes place.

Ghost Stories are by far the most creative part of the Edu-tourism packages. They require a sophisticated audience who can appreciate the blending of fact and fiction, in the guise of creative entertainment – ideal for new tourists. The Ghost Stories allow for exploration of little-appreciated dynamics and obscure characters. Examples used by the students include a conversation between a Xhosa woman and the British settler who kidnapped her in 1820 when she sought traditional clays within the colonial boundary; a love story between a French explorer and a Kohekohe woman in the 1780s and an argument between two brother Xhosa chiefs over whether to convert to Christianity. In other cases, students invented stories using talking animals and dreams to transcend human barriers.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The development of Edu-tourism packages reveals the potential within the concept. By targeting young international students, the dynamics of the global new tourists come into play, inviting a level of complexity and diversity in presentation. Chambers sees new tourists as enjoying activities which offer ‘a playful disregard for the presumed reality of any tourism object or event, allowing for both ambiguity and entertainment in the interpretive process’ (Chambers, 2008, 355). This serves the needs of South African society today, as it creates a rare space for speaking about contested issues, touching on unofficial silences of the troubled past and showing respect for the indigenous knowledge and lived experiences of the black majority population. In meeting the intellectual interests of the Edu-tourists, South Africans can engage with their own past in new, innovative and healing ways.

The Ghost Story approach provides an invitation to think creatively about what is left out of the written records and to deeply imagine how the events of the past might have felt from both sides of the story. The use of multiple digital interviews makes it possible to provide both diversity and an element of con-
trovery in safe and managed ways. The variety of people and views do not have to be all gathered in one place for face-to-face confrontations, but can still be heard.

The development of the packages also shows exactly how funding support could best be used. To date, the packages remain on paper only. As with other attempts at pro-poor tourism, implementation needs focused interventions to bring about meaningful change. But unlike many other pro-poor tourism projects, this one does not need massive investment in infrastructure. Investments in harnessing existing knowledge and expertise are most appropriate, including:

- Ghost Story development
- Start-up capital for modest cultural activities
- The wider inclusion of black instructors in museum offerings
- Training black tour guides in how to talk about complex ideas, diversity of views and unresolved debates
- Modest payments for interviewees for digital inputs
- Securing the services of IT experts
- Marketing at all levels

Tourists offer an opening for fresh looks and new stories when it is still hard for South Africans to imagine a change. Through working on packages, within the general targets of social empowerment, inclusivity and job creation, South Africans can move towards a different way of being.

Edu-tourism should not be expected to alleviate the deepest pains of injury and insult from the apartheid past, but it can gently create space for previously marginalised people to find forms of self-affirmation and economic empowerment. The prospect of financial return offers an important incentive to develop the necessary skills.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Appreciation must be expressed to all the students of Public History, who for the past two years, have diligently explored ways to share local historical content and experience with international visitors. Most of the thinking around the possibilities inherent in Edu-tourism has arisen from extensive conversations with a range of tourism and museum staff.
REFERENCES


"Orphanage Tourism" and the Campaign Against "Orphanage Tourism" in Cambodia

Kathie Carpenter
Department of International Studies
University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon, USA
E-mail: kathiec@uoregon.edu

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Cambodia has become an epicenter both for what is widely referred to as "orphanage tourism," as well as for the controversy that surrounds it. In this paper, I will explore the phenomenon through the perspectives of the four parties that together and separately construct the sometimes competing, sometimes overlapping narratives about orphanage tourism - local NGOs, volunteer agencies, orphanages, and tourists.

"Children are not tourist attractions" stress the posters featuring children trapped in glass exhibit cabinets, scrutinized from every angle by camera-toting foreigners; these posters are part of a campaign to discourage foreign visitors from visits or short-term volunteer stints at orphanages. Meanwhile, orphanage websites proliferate in an attempt to attract prospective visitors with statements such as "The moment you arrive at the gates our children will greet you with open arms, beaming smiles and screams of joy." Volunteer placement agencies encourage prospective volunteers to "have a once-in-a-lifetime experience not only as a teacher, but also as a mentor and a friend to the warm and loving children". And former volunteers entice prospective

http://www.thinkchildsafe.org/thinkbeforevisiting/
http://www.buildhopeinternational.org/portfolio-view/orphanage-in-cambodia/
http://www.globalservicecorps.org/site/cambodia-orphanage-care/
ones with descriptions of their experiences such as "My apprehension about visiting an orphanage was lost in a sea of smiles." The tensions between these all these positions are reflected in earnest conversations and frequent "flame wars" on travel blogs as prospective visitors struggle to channel their expressed desires to give back or to do the right thing with confusing messages about what the right thing really constitutes or entails.

THE PHENOMENON

Tourism to Cambodia has increased exponentially from 118,000 arrivals in 1993 to over 2.5 million in 2010. At the same time, Cambodia continues to struggle with serious social problems, including poverty and challenges within the education sector. Visitors who come primarily for the Angkor Wat World Heritage Site, are often moved by the social conditions they observe. An inclination to help is encouraged by the many hotels, guest houses, restaurants and taxi drivers that now name a visit to an orphanage as one of the things to see and do in Siem Reap, the city closest to the temples. Impromptu visits, or even pre-arranged tours, take visitors to orphanages for a few hours, where they invariably make a donation, and often make plans to return as short-term volunteers.

There is no question that the presence of foreign visitors is a pull factor, causing more orphanages to be located in Siem Reap, and causing more children to be placed in them, than would otherwise be the case. Siem Reap, a town of 172,000 inhabitants, has over 40 orphanages, with three or four new ones opening every year. Furthermore, Sihanoukville, Phnom Penh and Battambang, all tourist destinations, are the other cities in Cambodia with proportionately many orphanages, while other similarly sized cities, for example the provincial capital of Kampong Cham, a large and accessible city, have relatively few orphanages.

It is this pull factor that concerns child welfare professionals, who worry that tourists are encouraging Cambodians to house more children in orphanages than is necessary or healthy for them or for their community. Indeed, the predictable inflow of foreign tourists looking for a meaningful experience volunteering in an orphanage has made opening an orphanage a

http://www.travelblog.org/Asia/Cambodia/South/Phnom-Penh/blog-566242.html
Tourism Cambodia (2012)
potentially very lucrative business niche. Even children's centers with well-established foreign fundraising networks also receive substantial donations from walk-on visitors, as well as foreign donors who first learned of them while vacationing in Cambodia. There are also concerns about corruption among orphanage staff, and the extent to which donations are actually used to benefit the children.

The close relationship between tourism and orphanages has sparked other kinds of concerns. Many orphanages offer dance performances on site or in tourist venues, which are either directly or indirectly vehicles for fundraising: directly when the children are sent through audiences asking for donations; indirectly when free dance performances are used as a way to increase visibility and draw visitors to the orphanage site. There is a general unease about the notion of children putting on shows to support themselves and staff, as well as specific concerns about the amount of time children spend practicing and performing, and especially about whether it interferes with their formal schooling. Concerns are exacerbated by the fact that many of Cambodia's orphanages, while registered as small non-profit NGOs or schools, are often the primary source of livelihood for directors and other adult staff, putting children in the position of soliciting donations from tourists in order to provide staff salaries and operating costs. Such concerns about exploitation are complemented by concerns about lack of oversight and potential for outright abuse and neglect.

Criticism of "orphanage tourism" targets both short-term visits and volunteer stints, as well as cash and in-kind donations. Short-term visits are criticized for possible destructive effects they may have on children's wellbeing, while donations are criticized for the role they may play in encouraging orphanages to be regarded as an entrepreneurial niche, causing children to be placed inappropriately in them, as well as the possibilities they open for corruption.

Critics also point out that foreigners' disproportionate concern for orphans and orphanages not only distracts attention from more durable and general approaches to improving the welfare of Cambodian children, but actually creates 'pull factors' that cause increasing numbers of children to be placed into orphanages unnecessarily. Because of widespread poverty - with a Human Development Index of .523, Cambodia ranks among the countries with a low-medium HDI - and concerns center especially on the possibility that families might relinquish children to institutional care for cash payments, or simply out

http://www.concertcambodia.org/orphanages.html
of sheer poverty-driven desperation rather than because of any inadequacies as parents.

"WHEN CHILDREN BECOME TOURIST ATTRACTIONS"

The campaign against orphanage tourism has largely been spearheaded by Friends International, with the support of UNICEF. Friends International began in 1994 with outreach and support to children living or working on the streets in Phnom Penh, the capital, and has grown to include social businesses such as training restaurants, other vocational training opportunities, drop-in centers, remedial education and other preventive and reintegration programs. They are widely viewed by child welfare professionals, in particular UNICEF, as a model that can be successfully transferred to other contexts where children are suffering the effects of widespread poverty and social disruption, and they have begun similar projects in Thailand, Indonesia and Lao PDR. In 2005, Friends-International launched the ChildSafe initiative, designed to address the problem of child exploitation in the tourism sector. They trained and certified staff working with tourists, including drivers, hotel clerks, restaurant waitstaff, etc. to recognize and respond to situations where children might be at risk of exploitation, and provided them with clothing or other articles where the distinctive "thumbs up" ChildSafe logo was prominently visible so tourists could choose to selectively patronize them.

In 2011, Friends International, with the backing of UNICEF, announced a new focus for ChildSafe, under the headline "When children become tourist attractions," in response to the increased popularity of orphanage visits and short-term volunteering. The campaign quickly gained a strong media and internet presence, particularly after an Al Jazeera 101 East segment "Cambodia's orphan tourism".

Despite the high quality and the high profile of the campaign materials and content, websites promoting volunteer opportunities at Cambodian orphanages continue to proliferate.

"AN ENDLESS SUPPLY OF ORPHANS"?

The internet has dramatically expanded the reach and evocative power of fundraising appeals by small, local organizations, certainly fueling the increase in numbers of foreigners who are aware of, and who desire to support, orphanages in Cambodia. The image of Cambodia that they promote is of a
society that "has broken down," and a population that "lives in fear and abject poverty," ... "with a moral fabric that has all but disintegrated," and a "seemingly endless supply of Cambodian orphans."9

Not surprisingly, this message is gripping to idealistic young foreigners, especially the current generation which has grown up with a formal expectation of community service to show on their college applications, and who have attended schools in which parent volunteering has been the unquestioned norm. However, it is not possible to document the numbers of visitors to orphanages, or the numbers of visitors who volunteer while they are in Cambodia. Most volunteers come on tourist visas, many through private agencies which don't consistently report numbers of placements. Many others come on their own and find their own placements, or add a short volunteer experience to holiday travel. Although the Ministry of Tourism maintains a prominent promotional internet presence, nowhere do the terms volunteers or orphanage appear on the Ministry of Tourism website. One agency reports placing over 400 volunteers in Cambodia, and although they are one of the largest, they are by no means unique. Go Overseas, a website that features reviews of volunteer agencies, lists 45 agencies that place volunteers in Cambodian orphanages on its website, although there are many more with an internet presence that don't appear in the Go Overseas reviews. The upshot is that it is safe to say that the total number of foreigners visiting Cambodian orphanages is in the thousands.

"SUCH AN AMAZING EXPERIENCE": VOLUNTEERS' TESTIMONIALS

One reason that foreigners continue to visit orphanages in large numbers, despite the very convincing campaign to discourage them, is the prominent internet presence of returned and prospective volunteers, usually testifying to the life-changing effect of even very short-term encounters. In the discourse most prominent on travel forums, the benefits of even very short encounters are assumed implicitly, and therefore not readily open to explicit challenge or questioning. Volunteering in an orphanage has even become a "bucket list" must-do, with frequent inquiries on travel blogs about the best places to volunteer, what to expect, and how to manage the logistics of the experience, and very little inquiry into the possible consequences. For example:

"I am going to Cambodia at some point later this summer, for a period of 2 weeks to a month. While there, even though I wouldn’t be there long, I would love to volunteer

http://thirdworldorphans.org/gpage12.html
in an orphanage, in any way possible.”

"I was looking at going back to Cambodia in July and thought I might as well volunteer rather than just travel. ... There are a lot of volunteer programs around but they charge quite a bit of money. I’m looking at going for about 3-4 weeks.”

**PLAN FOR THIS PAPER**

This paper will describe and analyze the extreme polarization that characterize Cambodia’s rancorous "orphanage tourism" controversy, and discuss what is at stake, particularly since all sides are basing their positions on what they believe to be the best interests of the child. It will also explore how the various positions are informed by, and take shape at, the confluence of two very evocative meta-discourses - on the one hand, tourism discourses of Cambodia, and on the other hand, constructions and connotations of the term orphan itself.

Methods used include analysis of textual and visual materials found on the websites of child welfare organizations, orphanages and volunteer agencies, travelers' blogs and discussion forums, complemented with participant-observation research conducted at several orphanages in Cambodia by the author. In this paper, I will particularly focus on the forms and content of the anti-'orphanage tourism' campaign, the forms and content of agencies' promotions to prospective orphanage volunteers, the forms and content of orphanages self-presentation, and the discourses surrounding orphanage volunteering among prospective and returned volunteers.
The Economic and Political Utility of Banff National Park

Kathy Rettie
Department of Geography
University of Calgary, Canada
E-mail: kmrettie@gmail.com

INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, national parks shape and are shaped by tourism. Parks’ creation and development remains tied to the political economy of tourism development and in many cases parks have been created to stimulate the local tourist economy (Wilson 1991:227, Bella 1987). Tourism and conservation are the mainstays of Banff National Park’s economy. The park was created on the assumption that ‘if you build it they will come’; conservation was adopted as the tool to protect the wilderness that would keep them coming. This paper takes a closer look at the subsequent economic and political utility existent in Banff National Park.

BACKGROUND

Located in the Rocky Mountains, on the border between Alberta and British Columbia, Banff National Park is Canada’s first national park and part of the Canadian Rocky Mountain Parks World Heritage Site. Banff is famous for its mountains, glaciers, lakes, rivers and abundant wildlife.

The historical significance of Banff National Park to the provincial and national tourism industry is undisputed. Following CPR workers ‘discovery’ of hot springs at the base of Sulphur Mountain in 1883, businesses supporting the tourism industry sprang up adjacent to the hot springs, and the town of Banff began to take form. The Canadian Pacific Railway (CPR) was constructing a rail line across Canada to open the west to settlement and to ensure that the territory of British Columbia became a part of Canada’s confederation. The section of track through the Canadian Rocky Mountains was exceedingly expensive to build. To offset the costs of rail line construction the Prime Minister provided the CPR with an opportunity to build a luxury hotel near the hot springs.
Wealthy tourists from Europe and eastern Canada and United States, attracted by the scenery and the health benefits of the hot springs, would pay to ride the train and stay in the hotel. The motto, “If we can’t export the scenery, we will import the tourists”, was touted by the General Manager of the CPR. The scenic and natural values of landscape soon evoked monetary meanings as well as aesthetic ones. Designated in 1885 Banff National Park was truly a park for profit (Bella 1987).

In these early days Banff town, with a population approaching 300, had six hotels, nine stores, two churches, a school and a post office. North America-wide, the modern working class developed an aspiration to seek leisure activities ‘acceptable’ to society. Reports produced in Canada suggested that “outdoor recreation, far from being a fad, was a component of the national character” (Wilson 1991: 44). The contradictory recommendations of both the US and Canadian governments to “conserve what is left of natural areas and develop them for maximum enjoyment” (ibid: 44) had a direct relationship on the creation of new national parks and the infrastructure needed to accommodate increasing tourist demands. Less expensive hotels, camping and the automobile came onto the scene. New highways democratized society, making natural wonders in national parks more accessible to all sections of society (ibid: 30).

Successful marketing of some of the world’s most breathtaking scenery has resulted in a tourist trade that today reaches 3 million visitors per year. Banff National Park’s well-established system of visitor services now includes 50 hotels and 40 bed and breakfasts, 150 restaurants, 250 retail shops and 1180 businesses. In the greater park area there are 13 campgrounds, with 2500 campsites and world-class downhill skiing at three ski areas. While most services are geared towards visitors, Banff town also provides a number of basic services for its 8000 + residents. In summer, the town’s population increases by up to 40,000 people with overnight and day use visitors. Parking lots at popular sites and trail heads are full with vehicles parking well down the roadways raising concerns over perceived compromises to visitors’ experience due to overcrowding and threats to the natural resources due to overuse.

Parks Canada employs up to 500 people in various conservation and national park operations-related roles, from direct involvement through wildlife and vegetation research and monitoring to less obvious involvement through education, interpretation, and administration. The local tourism industry employs over 3000 seasonal and full time workers.
FROM SOCIAL VALUE TO ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL UTILITY

There is a convincing argument that one cannot put a value on the environment (Pearce et al 2000: 181). The utilitarian measure is one of rating human preference with respect to the environment. Here environmental economists have developed a taxonomy of economic values reflected in the following formula:

Total use value = Actual use value + Option value.

Actual use value refers to direct benefit, for example fishing, bird watching and photography. Option value refers to potential benefit as opposed to actual present use value. It is an expression of preference, a willingness to pay for the preservation of the environment against the probability that the individual will make use of it at a later date. It relates to the availability or supply of the environment, and the theory is that this optional value is likely to be positive (Pearce et al 2000: 175-6). As once stated by J.B.Harkin, Canadian Commissioner of National Parks: “The parks will pay not only in the strictly commercial dollars and cents way but they will also pay in a still more important way by adding to the efficiency and vitality of the nation” (Lothian 1979: 16).

Assigning an economic value to nature in biocentric terms is difficult because such value is based on non-use. Therefore, the equation is simply stated: intrinsic value = existence value. This is usually coupled with the altruistic motive, where nature takes on yet another value, that is, the bequest of natural environments to future generations, one’s heirs in general. In biocentric thinking it is simply the mere existence of the asset that is being bequeathed. The expectation is that the asset will be appreciated and valued in the same way by that future generation. Assigning economic value to something’s existence, and not use, seems superfluous. However concepts of economic value dominate considerations in national parks, for they comprise the core of environmental funding and of campaigns for the protection of endangered species and natural environments. In national parks economic value legitimates the taxpayers’ dollars and entrance fees that go towards the preservation of non-usable or non-convertible-to-cash resources. As pointed out by Pearce, Makanday and Baraber (2000:178), it is very often a remote environment that may never be seen by the person supporting the campaign now or even in the future that is the subject of intrinsic/existence value.

Business operators view environmental problems as business issues. They consider environmental investments for the same reasons that they consider other investments – they expect a positive return or a reduced risk. Environmental improvements can have direct monetary value by increasing the num-
ber of visitors. Products are created that offer greater environmental benefits than environmental costs, ahead of competitors. The notion of environmental gain is an investment, which can then justify higher prices and reach the environmentally sensitive market share by publicizing greenness and support for the national park ideology of conservation and protection. Business contributions to environmental studies, in particular studies that focus on issues commanding public sympathies are tools for strengthening public approval and consumer loyalty (grizzly bear studies are an obvious example).

There is an enormous felt or emotive difference between feeling that a place should be valued or respected for itself, for its perceived beauty and character, and feeling that it should not be defaced because it is valued by one’s fellow humans, and provides pleasurable sensations or money or convenience for them (Routley & Routley 2000: 141). Rather ironically, the spiritual values of nature and the non-tangible personal benefits are most eloquently expressed in the rhetoric produced by those upholding utilitarian values. Utilitarian discourse specifies nature as a tool to accomplish something else – but with more ‘natural’ results. In Banff National Park the Lake Louise ski area operators promote their location in the majestic Rockies through the use of the marketing slogan, ‘nature and beauty at your doorstep’. Meanwhile, the Fairmont Chateau Lake Louise, which boasts of its location near the serenity and tranquility of a beautiful glacier-fed lake, constructed a seven-story conference center on the lakeshore, a rather poignant example of an irony that exists between respect for nature and the utility of nature.

The social attachment to nature and, subsequently nature-based national parks builds useful political capital. Increased tourism led to increased public participation and collaboration in the formulation of park policy, increased education of the public in park philosophy and calls by the public for more sophisticated park management. Elaborate plans for the expansion of Lake Louise in line with a bid to host the winter Olympics in the 1970’s prompted an overwhelmingly negative response from citizens; this was no how they envisioned their national park. As a result, the National Parks Act was amended to include the requirement for 15-year park management plans subject to public review for every national park. This effectively put the responsibility for the care and protection of national parks in the public’s hands, building a stronger sense of attachment. During the Quebec crisis (1970s) a national poll reported that next to the flag, what Canadians valued the most was their national parks. This political capital was not lost on politicians who use(d) their perceived role in saving parks to garner public favor.
As human use increases, extra provisions are made for the protection of native species including restrictions on human access to popular trails; an often unpopular means of shaping the touristic experience. As costs to maintain Banff National Park increase, so does the need to increase entry fees and reduce services. ‘Not making people mind’ by building a personal connection to the nature within the park and thereby making a personal sacrifice more palatable is part of a current strategy. The Agency’s vision is as follows:

_Parks Canada will pursue this vision and accomplish its strategic outcome by ensuring Agency activities are relevant to Canadians and thus strengthen and deepen Canadians’ understanding and appreciation of their national heritage places. This will, in turn, build a strong sense of connection to these places in the hearts and minds of Canadians._ (Parks Canada Agency 2012)

The push for individuals’ sense of stewardship, based on first-hand experience, lead to the shift in focus. Since 2010, resources have been directed away from ecological integrity to visitor experience. The Agency’s national target is for 60 % of Canadians to report a personal connection to Parks Canada-administered places by March 2014. A target for increased visitation to Banff National Park is set at a 3% increase per year for five consecutive years.

**CONCLUSION**

The adage that ‘the more it changes the more it stays the same’ applies to Banff National Park, and to Canada’s national parks in general. The opportunities to profit from the economic and political utility are not that dissimilar from those in the late 1880’s as the social values and benefits of nature are easily translated into more tangible assets. The purpose(s) behind new park creation also reflect 1880’s ideology as demonstrated with Canada’s newest and most northern national park on Ellesmere Island established to define and preserve national boundaries.

**REFERENCES**


Exploratory Study of Colour and Interactivity Effect of Tourism Websites on Internet Users’ Reactions

Kefi Dorra
Higher School of Business Tunis
E-mail: dorakefi@yahoo.fr

&

Mzali Hassen
IHEC Tunis
E-mail: hassenmzali@yahoo.fr

INTRODUCTION

This analysis aims principally to pinpoint items related to colour and to the interactivity of websites. In addition, this work explores the implication typologies and the behavior of internet users towards the website during the navigation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This analysis is based on Mehrabian and Russell’s (1974) stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) Model. The latter is divided into three parts: stimulus, organism and responses. In the actual research study the atmosphere of the website consists of two main dimensions, namely: colour and interactivity, which will act as stimuli. These stimuli affect the consumer’s implications (organism) and their behaviours (intention to buy).

METHODOLOGY

The methodology is based on two complementary techniques, face to face interviews and focus group. The main objective of the usage of interviews is to determine the personal feeling of each internet user. However, the focus group results aim to collect general atmospheric influence variables within a tourism website.
RESULTS

The result concludes that the colour and the interactivity are variable which influence internet users’ reactions (cognitive, affective and conative).

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Furthermore, perceived risk and trust are relation’s moderators between the cognitive and affective implication of the user, and the intention of the latter to buy the tourism product.

REFERENCES


Swiss and Italian Identities: Celebrating Heritage and Culture in Regional Australia

Leanne White
College of Business
Victoria University, Australia
Email: LeanneK.White@vu.edu.au

INTRODUCTION

This working paper examines a community festival known as the ‘Swiss and Italian Festa’ which is held annually in the popular tourist towns of Daylesford and Hepburn Springs in Central Victoria, Australia. The Swiss and Italian Festa was first staged as a small community event in 1992. Since then, it has evolved to become a 12-day event with a focus on heritage and culture attracting around 14,000 attendees (Laing and Frost, 2013: 327). The festival incorporates a variety of aspects and activities such as: music, food, wine, the arts, heritage displays, street parades, and sporting events. The Swiss and Italian Festa has become the largest celebration of the region’s cultural heritage. Like many community festivals, it relies on an enormous amount of good will and commitment from a very small group of committed volunteers.

The paper explores the interconnections between an established and popular community festival, tourism, tradition and identity in Australia’s leading spa tourism area – Daylesford and Hepburn Springs. Gammon has argued that heritage has the ability to ‘guide and cement national identities’ (Gammon, 2007: 1). When exploring our past, we are delving deeper into our own heritage and also that of the nation. Underlying this suggestion is the proposition that heritage is a ‘cultural and social process’ that is ‘ultimately intangible’ (Smith, 2006: 307). With this in mind, this paper aims to explore the ways in which the often intangible concept of heritage is imagined, and will examine the decisions made by those associated with this festival to make that case.
DISCUSSION AND RESULTS

Daylesford and Hepburn Springs in regional Victoria were founded in 1852 and 1837 respectively and boast a combined population of around 3500. The towns are located approximately 120 kilometres north west of Melbourne. Daylesford is named after the town by the same name in England, while Hepburn Springs is named after Captain John Hepburn who discovered the mineral springs in 1836 having travelled from Sydney to settle in the area. Hepburn claimed that the area was the most attractive he had seen and he planned to spend the rest of his life there.

The local tourism board promotes the towns with the words: ‘famous twin villages built on gold, fertile soils and mineral water….in the foothills of surrounding state forests, these boutique towns are dedicated to indulgence and wellbeing’ (Daylesford and Macedon Ranges Tourism, 2011: 38). The population grew rapidly with an influx of thousands of miners following the discovery of gold in the 1850s. Gold was discovered in 1851 at the Jim Crow diggings and by 1855, a substantial number of people had settled in the area. Many thousands of Chinese and European settlers (including around 2000 from the border regions of Italy and Switzerland) were attracted to the cool climate, ample mineral water and the prospect of finding gold.

With its emphasis on health and wellness, mineral water, heritage, fine food, wineries, art galleries, festivals and more, the historic towns are considered the perfect weekend destination for many Melbournians. The Daylesford and Hepburn Springs area can boast 72 mineral springs. This represents 80% of Australia’s mineral springs and the highest concentration in the Southern Hemisphere. As a result, Daylesford authorities promote the town as the ‘Spa Centre of Australia’. Not to be outdone, the neighboring town of Hepburn Springs claims to be the ‘Spa Capital of Australia’.

Italian speaking Swiss and northern Italians (along with their descendents) have had a significant impact on the way in which the towns of Daylesford and Hepburn Springs have developed over the past 160 or so years. The Swiss-Italians (as they are often referred to) campaigned to preserve the mineral springs (in danger of being damaged due to excessive gold mining) and ensured that the health-giving waters would continue to flow for future generations. Amongst other achievements they: established vineyards; built impressive stone mansions, farm houses and walls; planted chestnut trees, pencil pines and olive trees; and introduced the culinary traditions of their countries to the
wider community. Settlers came from a range of areas including: Ticino, Piedmont, Lombardy, Veneto and Parma.

The Festa began 22 years ago as a small community event. Since then, it has evolved to become a 12-day event with a focus on heritage and culture. It incorporates a variety of activities such as: music, food, wine, the arts, heritage displays, street parades, and sporting events. It has successfully managed to retain some of its most popular aspects including a community parade and candle-lit procession.

Apart from the annual community festival, the Swiss-Italian heritage of the region has been celebrated in many ways. In 2007, the Melbourne Immigration Museum staged an exhibition entitled *Wine, Water and Stone* which showcased the Swiss and Italian heritage of the region. Exchange visits between the twin towns and the border regions of Italy and Switzerland have also created valued cultural connections (Mulligan et al., 2006). Bridget Carlson also documented the stories of 15 Swiss-Italian families in the region for a doctoral thesis. Another descendant, Maria Viola, wrote about the Lucini family; while Clare GerVASoni (also a descendant) captured the remarkable stories of the Swiss and Italian settlers in the book *Bullboar, Macaroni and Mineral Water*.

The 19th Swiss and Italian Festa held in October, 2011 adopted the theme ‘Unity and Individuality’ in recognition of the 150th anniversary of the unification of Italy. Some of the highlights of the Festa included: a Slow Food Dinner (featuring pork from Abruzzi, Ligurian pumpkin, gnocchi Milanese, Piedmont potatoes and Sardinian spinach); Dinner under the Frescoes at the Old Macaroni Factory; the Grand Parade and Family Festa with a concert featuring Swiss Matterhorn Yodellers, Swiss Companion Singers, Alpenrose Dancers and many other performers; an Opening Weekend Ball – La Dolce Vita; a Village Family Soiree – A Heartfelt Community Gathering of Wine, Food and Song; a Winery Wanderer Bus Tour; Film Screenings of Italian classics such as *La Dolce Vita*, *Cinema Paradiso* and *Il Postino*; a Descendants’ Gathering; Heritage Walks; Bocce and Boccia (an indoor version of Bocce) Tournaments; an indoor Soccer match; and the popular twilight Lantern Parade and Fireworks Finale.

The festival provides an opportunity for the smaller town of Hepburn Springs to display its rich heritage and traditions. The Swiss and Italian Festa has become the largest celebration of the region’s cultural heritage ‘probably because it is a highly unusual heritage in Australian terms’ which must ‘surely rank among the best uses of stories from local history in Australia’ (Mulligan et al., 2006: 106-123). Of the many festivals held each year in the towns of Dayles-
ford and Hepburn Springs, a 2006 report focusing on community celebrations and wellbeing found the Swiss and Italian Festa to be the most interesting as it has ‘revived interest in the unique Swiss-Italian heritage of Hepburn Springs’ (Mulligan et al., 2006: 88). Like many community festivals, it relies on the good will and commitment from a small group of volunteers.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Despite numerous challenges, the fact that the annual Swiss and Italian Festa has been celebrated for more than 20 years with the support of government grants, the local shire, business donations, and the tireless work of dedicated volunteers, is evidence that a core group of people value and are proud to share their rich and fascinating heritage.

The Swiss-Italian heritage is a key component of Australia’s national identity. When visiting Daylesford and Hepburn Springs, the heritage experience is integrated into the tourist gaze through visitors’ overall interaction with tourism operators in the region. The heritage moment can be savoured by partaking in activities such as: eating a Bullboar sausage, pumping water from the mineral springs, marvelling at the work of stonemasons, listening to Swiss singers, and of course capturing some of these memories with photographs which are often readily shared with friends and family via social media. Indeed gastronomy tourism provides ample opportunities for positive reflection about the experience – often long after the initial encounter (Hall and Mitchell, 2005).

The enduring traditions of community festivals such as this one hold an important place in the heritage, culture and identity of billions of people. Focusing on just one of the many community festivals staged around the world each year, this paper has sought to illustrate how the Swiss and Italian stories of Daylesford and Hepburn Springs might be viewed as a microcosm for the early development, diversity and tolerance of multicultural Australia.

REFERENCES


Place Marketing Concepts for Slovakia – A Possibility or a Necessity?

Marica Mazurek
Institute of Economic Sciences
Matej Bel University, Slovakia, Europe
E-mail: marica0011@yahoo.ca

INTRODUCTION

Territory is a place, where intersect the strategies of public places, projects of infrastructure, organizational and administrative structure and vision of places management, strategies and financial goals. A success depends on specific factors – planning, vision and strategy, identity of territory, image, partnership of public and private sector, political unity, global market factors, local development, the managerial process, etc. Our attempt is to focus at managerial and marketing strategies in territories. The importance of strategic management, dynamic management and innovation management, as a source of new value for territories, has been stressed by the authors as Crouch, Ritchie (2003), Cooper (2005), and later in the different new concepts of strategic management and marketing. Territories and spaces became a target of competition among clusters of industrial activities, service providing entities, social and economic formations.

Slovakia is a country with the ambition to build its branding strategy and the official representatives in government stated recently that the branding process has been delayed for 20 years. In our opinion, the problem of Slovakia is not only to understand the concepts of place marketing and place branding, but to apply the concepts into Slovakian reality. The attempt of this article is to present a contemporary state of place marketing in Slovakia, especially focused on city marketing and specifically the approach of city representatives and users of the product – a city in Banska Bystrica. The study has been prepared in the framework of doctoral studies and research.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Topics dealing with different approaches to marketing have been studied by the academics and practitioners dealing with place marketing and place branding. A territory is a space where intersect the strategies of public spaces, infrastructure of private and public sector, the organization and administrative potential, economic, social, and environmental strategies. The complex system and its success depend on such factors as the comparative and competitive advantage and its implementation into the successful strategy of a specific territory. Place marketing and place branding are significant tools of the enhancement of competitive advantage. Both concepts aim at the same target, the improvement of competitiveness of a place; however, the tools and especially a time of performance are different. A shift from classical marketing and branding theory (branding of products) to the place marketing and branding by offering the relational and network marketing paradigms and alternative branding perspectives (relational branding) demarcated the contemporary development of marketing and the growing importance of the brand equity function in territories and especially in the cities. Ambler (1997) distinguished “the underlying discipline of the marketing mix or neoclassical paradigm is microeconomics, whereas the relational paradigm is about people and draws its substance from the other social sciences.” A shift of traditional approach to marketing of places to new paradigmatic stance with new methods, methodologies, topics and focus of research has influenced the development of questions trying to answer such problems as how to combine the classical marketing tools and approaches with the new changes in a society and global world. For this reason, place marketing and especially place branding concepts attracted the attention of researchers as Pritchard and Morgan (1996), Pike (2004), Kotler and Keller, 2006, Gnoth, 1998, Hankinson, G. (2004), Henderson (2000), Ashworth and Voogd (1994), Deffner and Metaxas, 2006, Reinisto and Moilanen 2009, Kavaratzis 2005, etc. The objective of our research will be place marketing and especially how places (cities) of countries with a relatively poor understanding of place marketing concepts (not even including place branding concepts and their successful implementation) are able to use the concept of place marketing into their practices. Kotler et al. (2002a) defined place marketing as “the organization of a territory with the aim to fulfill needs of the target markets.” A city and its target markets are citizens, entrepreneurs, tourists, students from different places, e.g. a community and the external users of the city products and services. Deffner and Metaxas (2006a), Ashworth and Voogd (1990) underlined a necessity to combine city marketing, promotion and the spatial-functional, organizational and finan-
cial characteristics. Kotler et al. (1999) included into marketing mix of a territory in his place marketing concept a character of territory (structure and design), infrastructure, services, and attractions. One side or dimension of place marketing is a side of creators of marketing strategies; however, our goal is to explore the side of users, especially to explore existing gap between two perceptions and understanding of a city in Slovakia, which belongs to the former jewels of history, architecture and mining entrepreneurship. Banska Bystrica, which is situated in central Slovakia, has a potential to become a tourism attraction and to attract the attention of entrepreneurs. However, a city turned to stagnation without any signs of improvement and as a result of it a city is losing its inhabitants, students, and the perspective entrepreneurs. We tried to explore reasons of this state and used the following methodology.

**METHODOLOGY**

The aim of our research was to explore the contemporary state of application of marketing strategies in specific Slovakian cities and by the application of methods of comparison and benchmarking to propose the innovative approach to marketing in Slovakia and to explore the success factors of those approaches. The major assumption and statement is that the innovative marketing is contributing to the local economic and social development and contributes to the improvement of quality of life in a city.

The following research questions have been created in order to support our research:

**Question 1** - Does the innovative marketing of place contribute to the local development of a territory?

**Question 2** - How important is the active co-operation of partners in territory for a successful strategy and marketing?

**Question 3** – How important is for the competitive marketing strategy to respect the needs of the users of territory (the innovative approach to marketing based on co-creation principles and prosumer approach concept)?

In this primary and secondary research has been applied mixed methods approach as has been presented by some authors as Tashakkari and Teddle, 1998, 2003, Cresswell, 2002. The multilevel model (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998) has been applied, which allows to combine quantitative methods (a survey among the users of territory) and qualitative methods (interviews with the
representatives of municipalities). For better understanding of the existing cases and the application of some benchmarking strategies, a method of case studies from several European destinations, for instance Scandinavian cities, Lisbon, Budapest, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Birmingham and Canadian cities (Waterloo, Hamilton) and Niagara on the Lake has been used.

RESULTS

A primary research has been conducted in a city of Banska Bystrica and the used analysis of the importance and performance of city and its potential has been researched by the application of the Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) created by Martilla and James (1977) as the managerial method used in marketing research.

Table 1. The Importance and performance Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERFORMANCE</th>
<th>QUADRANT 1 (High importance; Lower performance)</th>
<th>QUADRANT 2 (High importance; High performance)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IMPORTANCE</td>
<td>This quadrant displays attributes which are considered to be important, yet are not being performed to the same standard, or level. If an attribute falls within this quadrant efforts should be made to shift it to quadrant two (upper right).</td>
<td>This quadrant represents those attributes of VRM which are considered to be important and are also being performed to a higher standard. Attributes that fall into this quadrant should be maintained to ensure they remain at this level of performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SATURANCE</td>
<td>Quadrant 3 (Lower importance; Lower performance)</td>
<td>Quadrant 4 (Lower importance; High performance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This quadrant indicates attributes which are of a lower priority. Resources are not being channeled towards them as much as other attributes. Attributes which fall into this quadrant should remain untouched.</td>
<td>This quadrant indicates a possible overuse or resources. Organisations are allocating resources to, and highly performing these attributes, yet they are not deemed to be exceptionally important to the organization.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Martilla and James, 1977.

A sample of 134 respondents (citizens, visitors and entrepreneurs/developers) was used in Banska Bystrica. The answers were compared with the interview results of the municipality representatives. The evaluation has been performed with the use of non-parametric methods, Friedman and Wilcoxon test. The importance of factors has been confirmed by the application of the function Monte Carlo Sig. In Banska Bystrica, the following chart of importance and satisfaction with the place and the factors has been created and analysed.
The most critical factors in the city from the side of citizens, visitors and entrepreneurs were chosen the opportunities to work, the quality of infrastructure, entrepreneurship opportunities, innovative approach to governance and city competitiveness.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS
The possibilities for cities as Banska Bystrica in Slovakia are open for further decisions. Douglas North (a Nobel Prize winner) in the concept of the „adaptive effectiveness“ underlined the necessity of the effective change. For this reason, cities have to be open to continual changes and improvements and marketing and city representatives need to understand the meaning of place marketing, branding and be able to use it for their effective and adaptive governance with a co-operation a community.

REFERENCES


Effect of Work Experience on Students’ Perceptions of Hospitality Career Attractiveness and Job Pursuit Intentions

Marlena A. Bednarska
Department of Tourism
Faculty of International Business and Economics
Poznan University of Economics, Poland
E-mail: m.bednarska@ue.poznan.pl

&

Hania Janta
School of Hospitality and Tourism Management
University of Surrey, UK
E-mail: h.janta@surrey.ac.uk

&

Marcin Olszewski
Department of Tourism
Faculty of International Business and Economics
Poznan University of Economics, Poland
E-mail: marcin.olszewski@ue.poznan.pl

INTRODUCTION

While much academic work has been devoted to the topic of understanding the industry’s perceptions of tourism and hospitality students, this has been undertaken in Western countries (Jenkins, 2009; Richardson, 2010), and more recently in Asian context (Jiang & Tribe, 2009), with no studies conducted in the context of Central and Eastern Europe. The novelty of our research therefore lies in looking at perceptions of students towards working in the hospitality industry in one of the transition economies – in the context of Poland. In addition, empirical studies provide evidence that prior work experience influences students’ attitudes towards career in the tourism and hospitality industry (i.e. Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000). However, they are limited to industry-related experience. This study seeks to contribute to the body of literature by investigating the role of work experience both inside and outside the hospitality industry in shaping hospitality career attractiveness perceptions and job pursuit intentions.
LITERATURE REVIEW

In recent years the career choice behaviour of tourism and hospitality students has received an increasing attention in academic literature, which is stimulated by the fact that tourism and hospitality organisations across the world face the growing problem of attracting and retaining employees with desired skills and commitment. Recent research undertaken to understand students’ industry perceptions in Western countries (Barron et al., 2007; Jenkins, 2009; Richardson, 2010), and Asia (Jiang & Tribe, 2009; Richardson & Butler, 2012) has revealed a number of factors that influence prospective employees’ decisions and determine the industry’s image. One major finding is that as the degree progresses and students gain relevant work experience, their perception of the industry deteriorates (Jenkins, 2009; Richardson, 2010). It appears that many choose to study tourism and hospitality subjects without having sufficient knowledge about the industries. This issue deserves further detailed attention, especially as pointed out by Kusluvan and Kusluvan (2000), students’ attitudes may spell negative consequences for the students, the tourism industry, the government, and tourism and hospitality education providers. Hence, understanding those negative perceptions, and specifically, whether students differ in their opinion if they experienced working in non-tourism and hospitality industries, deserve further attention.

This study examines tourism and hospitality students’ perceptions of the industry conducted in one of the leading centres for higher education in Poland – Poznan. The range of employment opportunities in the industry has increased significantly, along with various degrees related to tourism and hospitality offered by the Polish universities, making this topic a timely one to examine. While much academic work has been devoted to examining the industry’s attractiveness as a place to work and intentions to enter it upon graduation, many questions about differences in students’ attraction to the hospitality industry remain largely unaddressed (Bednarska & Olszewski, 2013). For the purpose of this article, in this study we address the following research questions:

Q1: Is type of work experience related to preferred and perceived job and organisation attributes in the hospitality industry?

Q2: Is type of work experience related to perceptions of hospitality career attractiveness?

Q3: Is type of work experience related to intentions to apply for a job in the hospitality industry?
Examining those issues will further contribute to understanding the role of work experience both inside and outside the hospitality industry in shaping hospitality career attractiveness perceptions and job pursuit intentions.

**METHODOLOGY**

This research represents part of a larger study examining person-environment fit as a predictor of tourism and hospitality students’ job pursuit intentions. The target population comprised undergraduates and graduates enrolled in tourism and hospitality studies in Poznan, one of the leading centres for higher education in Poland. In academic year 2012/13 eight public and private universities in Poznan offered bachelor and master degrees in tourism (a total of 4150 students). To obtain a representative subset of the target population a single-stage cluster sampling was employed. The sample accounted for 348 respondents, yielding a response rate of 66.3 per cent.

Tourism and hospitality courses’ providers were contacted and they all agreed to facilitate accessing their students. Data were collected through group-administered questionnaires distributed during a regularly scheduled class period. A measurement instrument was developed based on previous studies on employer image (Berthon, Ewing, & Hah, 2005; Schlager et al., 2011) and five core dimensions of employer attractiveness were investigated: job content, economic benefits, development opportunities, social relations and reputation. A seven-point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7) was employed. As applicants are attracted to a firm based on the extent to which they believe that the firm possesses the desired attributes and the relative importance they place on those attributes (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004), respondents were requested to assess both perceived and preferred job/organisation characteristics. Next, students rated general career attractiveness and their willingness to search for a job in the hospitality industry. At the end of the survey, questions about students’ work experience and demographic characteristics were included. In order to analyse the questionnaire data, one-way ANOVA was conducted which examined the differences among the subgroups under study.

**RESULTS**

As can be seen from Table 1, the majority of tourism and hospitality students in Poznan have had some type of work experience. In this study, four sub-groups of students are compared – with hospitality-related experience only, with hos-
pitality-unrelated experience only, with experience both in hospitality and in other sectors, and with no working experience (see Table 2).

Table 1. Characteristics of survey sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>69.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>20 and less</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21-22</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23-24</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25 and more</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study mode</td>
<td>Full time</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>82.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Part time</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study degree</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>77.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year of study</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work experience</td>
<td>Hospitality-related only</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hospitality-unrelated only</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hospitality-related/unrelated</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>37.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No experience</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Variable means – comparison of students with different types of work experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Hospitality-related experience</th>
<th>Hospitality-unrelated experience</th>
<th>Hospitality-related/unrelated experience</th>
<th>No experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expectations:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. job content</td>
<td>5.73 &lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>5.59 &lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>5.68 &lt;sup&gt;c&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>5.26 &lt;sup&gt;abc&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. economic benefits</td>
<td>6.06</td>
<td>6.18 &lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>6.03 &lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>5.71 &lt;sup&gt;ab&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. development opportunities</td>
<td>5.91</td>
<td>6.02 &lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>5.64</td>
<td>5.58 &lt;sup&gt;ab&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. social relations</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>6.20 &lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.86 &lt;sup&gt;ab&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. reputation</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>5.54</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. job content</td>
<td>5.35 &lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>5.18 &lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>4.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results reveal that type of work experience displays a stronger relationship with preferred than with perceived job and organisation attributes. Students who experienced working life in non-hospitality industries have significantly higher expectations towards four out of five facets of employer image. The analysis further revealed the largest mean differences with regard to challenging and diverse tasks (constituents of job content), ability to influence organisational growth and prospects for career advancement (constituents of development opportunities), and stable employment conditions (constituent of economic benefits). Students with working experience in the hospitality industry rate job content higher both as expected and as perceived attribute, particularly job that matches individual interests and tasks that are challenging. One striking result is that in the eyes of the students, the main strength of hospitality job, in each sub-group of participants, is that it offers useful experience for future employment in other sectors. The results also reveal that type of work experience is related to perceptions of hospitality career attractiveness both in the long and in the short run. Those who gained direct experience in hospitality hold much more favourable attitudes to the industry as a career field than their colleagues who did not. Finally, type of work experience is related to intentions to apply for a job after graduation. Students with hospitality-related experience only declare the highest commitment to the industry as a workplace, students with hospitality-unrelated experience only – the lowest one. It is noteworthy that with regard to job pursuit intentions the mean difference between these two sub-groups is larger than with regard to any other variable under study.
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study revealed that students are less positive towards the industry as a long-term career option comparing to short-term one. This is typical for generation Y, who moves jobs to experience new challenges and finds job switching an appealing alternative (Solnet & Kralj, 2011). Thus implementing human resource practices that are in alignment with work-related needs and preferences of generation Y employees and make them committed to organisations which employ them appears to be a major challenge for the hospitality industry.

Considering that the study confirmed relationship between work experience and career attractiveness perceptions, hospitality employers should bear in mind the importance of making a good first impression on new employees, particularly when they are in their first job. Companies should make the students’ placements offer more attractive to ensure students are receiving positive experiences while working during their degree.

The findings identified a group of respondents who were interested neither in gaining experience, nor in searching for employment in the hospitality industry after graduation. This may suggest that students are committed to careers in other sectors of the tourism industry or they enrol in tourism and hospitality program for other reasons than career interest. It would be worth to investigate this issue. It would be of value to conduct a longitudinal research following students as they progress through their degrees to explore the causality of the identified relationships.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The paper is the result of the research project “Quality of work life in competitive potential development in the tourism industry” financed by the National Science Centre, Poland (decision no. DEC-2012/07/B/HS4/03089).

REFERENCES


Tourism Open Data in Jamaica: An Actor-Network Perspective

Maurice L. McNaughton  
Centre of Excellence Mona School of Business & Management  
The University of the West Indies, Jamaica  
Email: maurice.mcnaughton@uwimona.edu.jm

&

Michelle T McLeod  
Mona School of Business & Management  
The University of the West Indies, Jamaica  
Email: michelle.mcleod@uwimona.edu.jm

&

Ian Boxill  
Centre for Tourism and Policy Research  
The University of the West Indies, Jamaica  
Email: ian.boxill@uwimona.edu.jm

INTRODUCTION

Open Government data\(^1\), has emerged as a significant global policy and technological trend within the last 5 years. While it’s genesis was in the accountability/transparency agenda\(^2\), open data is increasingly being seen as a powerful entry point and enabler for Governments and civil society partners to collaborate around the use of ICT to improve public sector efficiency, service delivery and innovation. Several studies (Capgemini Consulting, 2011; McKinsey Global Institute, 2013; Vickery, 2011) underscore the potential for Open Data to create new jobs and generate economic value.

This study examines the opportunities and potential impact for Open Data policy and initiatives within the tourism sector in Jamaica. We apply the lens of actor network theory, using social network analysis techniques (McLeod, Vaughan et al. 2010), to explore the nature of data and information sharing

---

\(^1\) The policies and practice where government data is published online in structured, machine readable formats, and available for interested users to access, consume and reuse those data

within the sector and identify key actor roles, and sources of constraints and inefficiencies that lead to information asymmetry.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Tourism is not a commonly referenced sector in the emerging Open Data discourse and applications. The recent McKinsey (McKinsey Global Institute, 2013) study estimates $3.2 trillion of economic value in the potential use of open data in seven “domains”: education, transportation, consumer products, electricity, oil and gas, health care, and consumer finance. However, for Jamaica and the Caribbean, Tourism is likely to be a much more significant domain for value-creating Open Data initiatives, given the importance of the sector to national economies. There are also relatively well-developed processes and mechanisms for collecting and publishing data and statistics within the sector.

An assessment of the potential economic value of Open Data in any specific industry sector is usually best informed by an understanding of the current state of data, information and knowledge assets, exchanges and degree of asymmetry that exists within the ecosystem of actors participating in the sector. The Tourism industry in general, and the hospitality sector in particular, functions most effectively with the free flow of information about the tourism product, service providers and consumer experiences. According to (Buhalis & Jun, 2011), recent studies in the UK showed that most search activity conducted online was making travel plans (84%), followed by getting information about local events (77%), looking for news (69%) and finding information about health or medical care (68%). Ready access to current information provides the basis for awareness, choice and improved service delivery between the prospective tourist and operators in the sector, including hotels, attractions and other service providers such as restaurants, transportation and entertainment operators. Freely accessible information can help businesses in the tourism sector to improve their competitive position (Cooper, 2006; Novelli, Schmitz, & Spencer, 2006).

Actor network theory can be applied to the tourism context (van der Duim, Ren, & Jóhannesson, 2012). This theory explains the agency that both human and non-human elements have and therefore tourism is ‘translated’ by the enactment of both agencies to bring ‘touristscapes’ (van der Duim, 2007) into a particular ordering (McLeod, 2013).
METHODOLOGY

An understanding of the principal organizational stakeholders, their roles and responsibilities in the Governance arrangements of the sector, is an important component of defining the context within which Open Data initiatives will be situated. In particular, the responsibilities of stakeholders in the collection/production, management and dissemination of data in order to serve the needs of the wider sector interests in service delivery and decision-making, is relevant to any Open Data assessment.

We identified the key stakeholders in the Jamaican Tourism sector, including the principal Government agencies and several industry groups that represent the collective interests of various segments within the sector. A questionnaire was sent to each of the Agencies/Stakeholders to compile an inventory of the principal data sources and data being collected, managed and disseminated within the sector, including: Source & Type of Data; Purpose and Primary Users; Means of dissemination; Any Access Restrictions; Typical Cost and/or Challenges in collecting the data. In total 7 organizations were contacted, including the 3 principal government agencies and 4 representative industry groups. Complete information, suitable for analysis was received from 5 organizations.

Social network analysis was used in analyzing the findings. The literature shows that the networking element of actor network theory, social network analysis, can be applied to understand networks of actors. For instance, the centrality of actors in relation to the most central actor is important to understand the important role a particular entity makes to the system of actors. Borgatti, Everett and Johnson (2013) viewed centrality as the contribution a node makes to network structure. This contribution can be ascribed a value which will explain the inter-relationship of actors and the potential flows between actors. Centrality measures are examined using UCINET software (Stephen P Borgatti, Everett, & Freeman, 2002). Degree centrality is simply the number of alters connected to the actor and this can be divided into an in-degree (incoming links) and out-degree (out-going links). Closeness centrality relates to the reach of an actor in relation to other actors in a network.

For purposes of the analysis, the respondent data elements were coded as shown in Appendix I.
RESULTS

There are nine (9) centrality structural positions in this actor network (Table 1). Centrality is an indicator of the power an actor has to influence the resources in a network and therefore closeness centrality has been described as the expected time of arrival of a resource (Stephen P Borgatti et al., 2002). In this network the key influencers which can control a tourism open data system are dt1 (assets), dd1 (e-mail), dr1 (yes, restrictions) since it was revealed that these actors had the highest in-closeness value. The gov1 (TPDCo) and gov2 (JTB) are essential actors for out-going resources with 14 and 13 out-degree centrality values respectively.
Table 1. Tourism open data actor network (degree and closeness centralities)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>OutDegree</th>
<th>InDegree</th>
<th>NrmOutDeg</th>
<th>NrmInDeg</th>
<th>OutFreeClo</th>
<th>InFreeClo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gov1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>43.75</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.639999986</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gov2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>40.625</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.627451003</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>da1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28.125</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.581818163</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>da2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.571428597</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>da3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>28.125</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.581818163</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dt2, dt3, ds2, du1, du3, du6, du7, du8, dt7, dd4, dd3, dt8, du4, du12, du13</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.125</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.50793654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>du2, ds1, du9, du5, du10, ds3, du11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.51612902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dd2, dd5, dr3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9.375</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.52459013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dt1, dd1, dr1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15.625</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.54237288</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Open Data is still a relatively new political, social and economic phenomenon. As it evolves from the initial pre-occupation with publishing open government data portals, key stakeholders such as governments, citizens and multilateral agencies, are becoming increasingly interested in more analytic methods for evaluating the value potential and impact of open data initiatives. The purpose of this study was to examine the potential for Open Data within the Tourism sector in Jamaica, using Actor Network Theory as the lens and social network analysis as the means by which we examine, represent and interpret this potential.

The analysis illustrates the use of network attributes such as density, centrality, the existence of brokers to assess the characteristics of an open data ecosystem, identify the influential actors and opportunities for improved network effectiveness.

In this particular case, asset data i.e. data on the tourism product including accommodations, attractions and transportation assets is an important information element. The analysis shows that the Government agency, TPDCo, consistent with their role as the effective regulatory body of the industry, is
uniquely positioned to be the data broker for the sector and to become the focal point for the development of a Tourism Open Data ecosystem.

A strategic, value-driven approach to open data policy and initiatives within the sector could realize a range of benefits opportunities including: Increased visibility and clientele for smaller tourism operators; Enhanced tourism product information and diversity of choices for discriminating tourists; Improved quality of service delivery in support services such as transportation, entertainment and merchandising. All of this should ultimately create a more competitive tourism product in a crowded global market.

A limitation of this study arises due to the application of this analytic technique being driven primarily from a supply-side perspective only, based on some of the key producers of data. In this case, use distribution becomes a proxy for the value of data. An extension of this study to survey data consumers and their perception of the value and opportunities associated with access to data and it’s use, will likely enhance the analysis.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We wish to thank the following Organizations for their responsiveness and engagement in supporting the study: Jamaica Tourist Board (JTB); Tourism Product Development Company (TPDCO); Tourism Enhancement Fund; Jamaica Association of Villas and Apartments (JAVA); Jamaica U-Drive Ass./Jamaica Rent-A-Car Association; Jamaica Union of Travellers Association (JUTA); and Countrystyle Community Tourism Network (CCTN)

This study was undertaken with the kind support and funding from the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC) and W3C Brazil as part of the Open Data for Development project in Latin America & the Caribbean (OD4D).

REFERENCES


Economic Aspects of Preserving Traditional Cultural Landscapes for the Purpose of Sustainable Tourism Development

Miha Markelj
Department of Ecology and Environment
Institute for Civilization and Culture, Slovenia
E-mail: miha.markelj@ick.si

&

Gordana Ivankovič
Faculty of Tourism Studies - Turistica
University of Primorska, Slovenia
E-mail: gordana.ivankovic@turistica.si

INTRODUCTION

Cultural landscapes - areas of rich natural and cultural diversity, illustrative and imaginary areas of fairy tales and fables. Exploring interaction between the elements within you get a sense of their great importance on which the protection and preservation is based on? Despite the huge symbolic, socio-economic, cultural as well as natural importance they represent a fragile ecosystem that cannot exist as such without a balanced and sustainable development.

We need to acknowledge the fact that cultural landscapes are in the eyes of the general public still represented as places with low income value. However the fact remains that different ecosystem provide a large variety of services that have great practical value (Ruzzier et al., 2010).

LITERATURE REVIEW

To determine economic aspects and to measure the value of natural and cultural heritage in the field of tourism a variety of methods and methodological approaches are used. These approaches consist of: Market price approach (MPA), Hedonistic pricing method (HPM), Contingent valuation method (CVM),
Choice modelling approach (CMA), Damage cost avoid method (DCA) (Verbič and Slabe, 2004), Market approaches (Tribe, 2005) as well as Individual travel cost methods (ITCM), Zone travel cost methods (ZTCM) (Garod and Willis, 1999), Lost of output approach (LOA) Costs of illness methods (COI), Total economic value methods (TEV), Cost Benefit Analysis (CBA) and Benefit transfer methods (BT) (Ruzzier et al., 2010).

Above stated methodological approaches in general represent complex research methods as well as difficult and time consuming data acquisitions but most of all they are intended to carry out research within a larger and more well-known tourist destinations and thus cannot be applied to small and not jet developed tourism areas.

**METHODOLOGY**

The research within this article thus introduces a new interdisciplinary methodological approach that primarily identifies the traditional elements within a cultural landscape and combines them according to accurate historical data and modern day cartographic material in order to recognize their modifications in the past and to accurately position them in regard to the present time.

With the establishment of the primary research filed the focus then identifies direct / short term and indirect / long term economic benefits of restoring the traditional cultural landscape.

In regards to the gained theoretical knowledge the article also looks upon a protected cultural landscape in the upper part of the Selščica valley in Slovenia and presents real direct and indirect economic aspects that the local population will benefit from. The results are also then combined with the acknowledgements from a pilot research project in Tuscany (Randelly et al., 2011) to highlight the possibilities for sustainable tourism development in the future.

**RESULTS**

The cultural landscape of the upper part of the Selščica valley is scattered with a large variety of Tyrolean cultural elements. They are the consequence of a medieval Freising colonization dating back to the 13th century. Elements of that period include architectural heritage, tyrolean dialect, particular knowledge and skills that are a consequence of living conditions on steep mountain ridges.

In the case of the upper Selščica Valley it had been shown (Markelj, 2009) that several factors have contributed to the changing of the Tyrolean heritage.
The ones that had the most impact can be categorized as reforms of Maria Theresa and Emperor Franz Joseph (fiscal, educational and economic reform) and later emigration to cities and depopulation, which gradually lead to uncontrolled natural reforestation of the surfaces. It has been established that as well as in other cultural landscapes spaces in Slovenia (Kobler, 2001) reforestation is the most evident also in the upper part of the Selščica valley. For that reason the Franciscan cadastre map of 1825\(^1\) was analysed, because it represents the most reliable and accurate depiction as well as because it shows the landscape of the upper part of the valley before the major changes occurred.

While it has been established that the cultural landscape has been changing primarily because of reforestation, other analyses have been carried out to determine if the same can be said about the cultural heritage. Based on the research (Markelj, 2011) it has been shown that regardless of the changes that happened in the natural environment they did not have as much influence on the changes in the field of cultural heritage.

The research thus firstly focuses on identifying individual units that have been reforested (overgrown with forests) in the sequence between 1825 in 2013 and will represent the primary object of the researcher.

Based on the primary data that can be obtained from the interactive map of the Slovenian cultural heritage register (2013) that give us an insight in the fragmented overview of Franciscan cadastre and based on the interactive territorial map (Atlas of environment, 2013) that allows the possibility of calculating the surface area of each significant land unit and displays its cadastre numbers gave us the possibility to accurately detect the units that have been overgrown with forests.

The total equivalent of forest and non-forest cadastral units in the year 2013 looking upon the year 1825 in the upper part of the Selščica valley is therefore 7.7568 hectares.

In order to calculate the net income per hectare of forest, the data from the Forest Management Plan of the Forest Management Unit Kranj (2012) had been taken into account. The Forest Management Plan for the Kranj region states that the total income on a hectare of forest in government owned forests is 771 EUR. In forests that are owned by the local communities a hectare of forest is

---

\(^{1}\) The oldest territorial map for the present day territory of Slovenia and beyond is the Josephine military map from 1763 (Rajiš & Srše, 1998).
worth 584 EUR. And in the privately owned forest the income on a hectare of forest is 1038 EUR.

According to the different estimated incomes per hectare of forest ownership of the land has to be determent. But because the data of each individual forest plots owner in Slovenia is not publicly available it was necessary to rely on official information from the Slovenian Forest Service office (2013) where it can be seen that more than 93% of forest owners in the upper valley are individuals. According to the official statistics it is thus clear that a hectare of land is worth 1038 EUR.

Table 1. Calculation of income, Forest Management Plan for the Kranj region (2012).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revenue - value of timber</th>
<th>2841 EUR / ha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The cost of replanting, extraction and manipulation</td>
<td>1617 EUR / ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cost of cultivation and protection of forests</td>
<td>122 EUR / ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cost of road maintenance</td>
<td>75 EUR / ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance of forest roads</td>
<td>59 EUR / ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance of tracks</td>
<td>15 EUR / ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income (revenue - expenses)</td>
<td>Total 1803 EUR / ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income (revenue - expenses)</td>
<td>1038 EUR / ha</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, while calculating such a variable product as wood, is it is necessary to establish a parallel calculation to give us more accurate results. The data for the second calculation was taken from an independent research carried out at the Jemec estate in the upper part of the Selščica valley (Jemec, 2010). Calculated income per hectare of forest according to the second calculation is 2352 EUR. Taken into consideration both calculations it is clear that the land owners
would receive between 1038 in 2352 EUR per hectare of forest by selling timber and wood products.

Positive conclusion can also be found if we summarize the main findings of the research from Tuscany (Randelly et al., 2011). Although they depict a larger variety of factors not just reforestation we can underline that the development of tourism in the area identified as a protected cultural landscape must be balanced and sustainable and above all it must represent a comprehensive set of socio-economic, cultural and geographic activities that maintain the landscape.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

From the research we can primarily see direct economic value in forest reduction for the purpose of revealing the traditional cultural landscape of the upper part of the Selščica valley. Approximately 7.7568 hectares of forest on 184 cadastral units of land in seven rural communities of the upper valley would have to be cut down.

Taking into account that the average estate in the area measures 109 hectares the estimated number does not represent a significant amount of forest for each individual land owner. Collectively by selling timber and wood products forest owners in the upper part of the valley would earn between 8051 EUR and 18244 EUR. However it is important to take into consideration also alternative sources of income primarily auction of wood logs for various musical instruments. Based on the research that the majority of tress that have to be cut down are rare alpine Spruce (86%) and Larch threes (10%) and if approximately 5% of al trees could go to auction the estimated net income could be between 75000 EUR and 60450 EUR per hectare (Association of forest owners Slovenia, 2014).

It has also been shone that the cutting down of forest represents also the biggest indirect economic benefit because it allows the revitalization of the protected traditional cultural landscape that provides the foundation for sustainable tourism development in the future.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Acknowledgements can be categorised in to two main fields. Overall findings thus present a key policy development tool that will not only bring positive economic effects but the optimal starting point from which further manage-
ment of cultural landscape as well as sustainable tourism development in the upper part of the Selščica valley can be derived.

And furthermore the article also represents a significant contribution to tourism and environmental studies while the used methodology is also applicable to numerous other cultural landscapes with accurate historic and cartographical data in the world for determining the economic benefits of each individual unite while maintaining the traditional landscape elements.

REFERENCES


Jemec, U. (2010). Forest management plan for the Jemec estate. Ljubljana, Biotechnical Faculty, Department of Forestry and renewable forest resources, University of Ljubljana.

Koblar, A. (2001). Acceptability of Spontaneous Afforestation with Forest as a function of Landscape. Faculty of Civil and Geodetic Engineering, University of Ljubljana.


The Effect of international Tourism on CO\textsubscript{2} Emissions in D\textsubscript{8} Countries: A Panel Data Approach

Mohammad Mahdi Barghi Oskooee
Faculty of Economics, Management and Business
University of Tabriz, Iran
E-mail:mahdi_oskooee@yahoo.com

Shabnam Parvizpoor
Faculty of Economics, Management and Business
University of Tabriz, Iran
E-mail:Shabnam_parvizpoor@yahoo.com

INTRODUCTION

Tourist activity has played an important role in global economic activity, and tourism industry has been the important industry that many countries make effort to develop. According to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), international visits worldwide have risen from 675 million in 2000 to 940 million in 2010, and tourism industry contributes 9\% of global gross domestic product (GDP).

The tourism industry has more environmental impacts than other service sectors, such as, finance and insurance and real estate, rental and leasing. That is because tourist activities have higher relation with the transportation and which may result in the amount of pollution. In addition, wholesale trade and retail trade has a lot of relation with manufacturing, and Accommodation and Food Services also need a lot of electric power input. This industry, as a distinctive economic sector, contributes to GHG emissions and consequently to climate change. Tourism is responsible for about 5 \% of global emissions of CO\textsubscript{2} (UNWTO, UNEP, WMO, 2008) and an estimated 7.9\% of global warming (medium range estimate), if measured as irradiative forcing for the year 2005 (Scott et al., 2010). Nevertheless, a debate exists about the impact of the travel and
tourism sector on the environment. On the one hand, tourism is one of the main sources of wealth for numerous destinations (UNWTO, 2011).

On the other hand, it is also pointed out that tourism consumes energy and water, produces waste and damages the environment. Tourism has been called a "non-negligible" emissions sector (UNWTO, UNEP, WMO, 2008), but this view can be challenged considering the sectors observed and projected growth: Up to 2035, emissions from tourism are expected to more than double (UNWTO, UNEP, WMO, 2008). As most of this growth is associated with aviation, the sector’s contribute on to global warming can be expected to be even greater, particularly if emission reductions in other sectors are achieved (Scott et al., 2010). If growth of tourism continues, the sector will be responsible for a considerable share of “sustainable” emissions by mid-century—notably, this scenario already considers rather optimistic assumptions for efficiency gains in the sector in the order of 1.5% per year (Scott et al. 2010). They conclude that "continued substantial growth in GHG emissions from the global tourism sector would be in conflict with emission reduction recommendations of the IPCC and existing climate policy objectives of the international community".

Since an increase in tourism and transportation activities comes with an increased demand for energy, the importance of energy for the tourism sector is beyond debate. In this respect, an investigation of the nature of the relationship among energy consumption, climate change, and tourism (including international transportation) is of interest to both policy makers and practitioners. It is expected that as tourism develops, it will start relying more on energy. Hence, it may lead to an increase in energy consumption. Furthermore, not only an increase in international tourist arrivals but also increased energy consumption may affect the environment or climate quality. It is evident that climate change is also likely to occur resulting from increased energy consumption due to tourism development through increased transportation (including air transportation) and construction of hotels and tourist establishments. But, initiatives that aim to reduce the energy intensity of tourism might prevent climate deterioration through energy consumption. This paper investigates the relationship between carbon dioxide emissions and international tourism using panel data obtained from 8 developing countries (D8 countries) from the period 1995 to 2011.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Despite energy-efficiency and renewable-energy initiatives, tourism remains an energy-intensive industry and a significant emitter of greenhouse gases, especially CO₂. The use of energy for tourism can be divided in transport-related purposes travel to, from and at the destination and destination-related purposes, excluding transports accommodation and tourist activities. According to the Inter governmental Panel on Climate Change IPCC, the transport sector, representing roughly 13% of global GHG emissions, is contributing considerably to climate change. It is clearer now that the tourism industry needs to pay more attention to sustainable development if it wants to successfully support and preserve the environment, by implementing green principles. Future tourism development cannot be projected without taking into consideration climate change and its effects on various levels, both in demand and supply sides. However, it is also likely that tourism development might have indirect effects on climate change through economic growth and energy capacity expansion. For example, an increase of tourism activities creates increased demand for energy at various functions such as transportation, catering, accommodation, and the management of tourist attractions (liu et al., 2011). Which is also likely to lead to environmental pollution and degradation. They suggest that transportation is a major contributor to energy consumption and carbon emissions in the tourism industry.

On the other hand, tourists from countries with higher energy awareness prove to be more willing to choose hotels with energy-saving installations and renewable energy sources (Tsagarakis et al., 2011). They argue that citizens from those countries (i.e. Canada, Japan, Sweden, and Finland) that adapt energy-saving policies successfully are more likely to prefer hotels with energy-saving installations in destination countries. In this respect, an investigation of the relationship among international tourism, energy consumption, and climate change will be of interest to both policymakers and practitioners. As also mentioned by Nepal the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, South Africa, in 2002, has acknowledged international tourism as one of the major energy-consuming sectors. Becken et al (2001) indicates that the transportation sector, especially air transportation, is responsible for the majority of energy consumption and resultant emissions from activities related to international tourism.

A relatively smaller strand of the literature studies the issue of energy consumption related to the tourism sector, mainly due to its implications for envi-
ronmental issues, such as its contribution to climate change. The link among the energy sector, the environment, and international tourism has rarely been considered from different perspectives in the relevant literature. Tourism-related energy studies generally focus on estimating total energy use and efficiency and comparison of energy consumption across different parts of tourism-related activities Becken et al (2001). Nepal (2008) finds that primary energy sources include wood and kerosene, but the use of renewable energy and locally developed energy-saving technologies increases in the tourism sector of Nepal.

**METHODOLOGY AND DATA**

To investigate the effect of tourism on CO$_2$ emissions in D$_8$ countries, this article follows closely the methodology of the study of Katircioglu et al (2014).

A log linear quadratic equation is specified to test the long-run relationship among CO$_2$ emissions, energy consumption, economic growth and international tourism in order to test the validity of the Environmental Kuznets Curve hypothesis. The estimable econometric regression line is as follows:

\[
\ln CO_2_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_0 \ln Y_{it}^2 + \beta_0 \ln Y_{it} + \beta_0 \ln E_{it} + \beta_0 \ln T_{it} + \epsilon_i
\]

Where lnCO$_2$ is the natural log of CO$_2$ emissions; lnY is the natural log of GDP; lnE is the natural log of energy consumption; lnT is the natural log of the international tourism variable; and $\epsilon$ is the error disturbance. i is the cross section dimension, t is the time dimension. The data used in this paper are annual from 1995 to 2011 for D$_8$ countries (Bangladesh, Egypt, Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan and Turkey). Data of CO$_2$ emissions, GDP, energy consumption and international tourism have been obtained from the World Bank Development Indicators.

**RESULTS**

As shown in Table 1, we checked the stationary of variables employing Levin, Lin, Chu panel unit root test. The results presented that the unit root null hypothesis could not be rejected in level variables at all significance levels. However, after taking the first differences of series, the variables of interest turn out to be stationary. Thus, we can confirm that all variables are integrated of order one.
Table 1: The results of Levin, Lin, Chu panel unit root test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Trend and intercept case</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>1st difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>Statistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln CO2</td>
<td>-0.1567</td>
<td>1.3423</td>
<td>-3.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln Y²</td>
<td>-0.2831</td>
<td>0.6534</td>
<td>-3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln Y</td>
<td>0.9352</td>
<td>1.5561</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln E</td>
<td>-0.0961</td>
<td>1.4674</td>
<td>-3.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ln T</td>
<td>0.8543</td>
<td>0.9887</td>
<td>2.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a indicates rejection of unit root null hypothesis at 1% level of significance.

Estimate of CO₂ emission from international tourism
Results of estimation of model are presented in Table 2. Column (2) refers to pooled OLS model, meanwhile column (3) refers to fixed effect model (FEM) and it assumed that the slopes are common however, differ in intercept. Column (4) refers to random effect model (REM) in which the variation across entities is assumed to be random and uncorrelated with the independent variables included in the model.

In order to confirm whether FEM is more favorable than the REM, Hausman specification test has been applied. Based on the result of the analysis, the Hausman statistics is computed at 0.48 and this implies the acceptance of hypothesis is that individual effect is correlated with the regressor. Hence, REM is more appropriate for estimation of model.

Table 2: Estimation results for CO₂ emission

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Pooled OLS</th>
<th>Fixed Effects</th>
<th>Random Effects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>10.2143</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.1403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(30.940)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(21.127)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The linkages of tourism development to CO\(_2\) emissions are basically defined as transportation and economic activities through domestic energy consumption. Transport sector is a key factor of tourism development that is facilitated the movement of tourists from their sources to the destination. Whether the air, sea or land approaches, its routes are depended on the energy as a fuel source and it also becomes the sources of the CO\(_2\) emissions. In this paper, the effects of International tourism on CO\(_2\) emissions in D\(_8\) countries have considered. The result of REM reveals that \(\ln Y^2\) is statistically insignificant and \(\ln Y, \ln E\) and \(\ln T\) are statistically significant. In term of elasticity, CO\(_2\) emission is inelastic to \(\ln T\) as the coefficient value of \(\ln T\) is lower than 1 (0.67). Thus, the increase in international tourism will increase CO\(_2\) emissions in D\(_8\) countries.

### REFERENCES


Municipalities, City Councils and the Development of Tourism in Iran

Mohammad Taghi Alavi  
Department of Law  
University of Tabriz, Iran  
E-mail: alavi@tabrizu.ac.ir

Mohammad Mazhari  
Department of Law  
University of Tabriz, Iran  
E-mail: mazharipnu@yahoo.com

INTRODUCTION
Cities have long been of the most attracting destinations for tourists. That is because they are the most advanced and complete places for people and include the most important economic academic, recreational and medical centers. Moreover, they benefit from natural attractions and Cultural Heritage and therefore they turn into the main focus of attention of tourists. But, first of all it is necessary to consider the precise definition of urban tourism. Urban tourism is most completely defined by the French National Institution of Research and Safety of Transportation, based on open questions and answers, that is: Travel with different motivations based on a variety of attractions and available facilities to centers with more than 20,000 people in population and to an area of more than a hundred kilometers far with a time that is longer than 24 hours. It also requires spending a night outside the main house. The main goal of this travel should be other than work, education, visiting friends and family or participation in academic seminars and exhibitions etc. (François Poitiers, 2009:26).

Tourism in Iran has huge potential for growth and development. Iran is one of the most attractive countries to visit. According to the UNESCO research it has been included among 10 top countries regarding historic cultural 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 region. Despite the fact that Iran has a Jealousy-
provoking position in the world tourism map, but the reality however, proves
something else! Its real share is as low as 1/500 of the world markets (Heydari
Chianeh, 2003: 218). As Inefficient policy rules that are based on the political
economy, is one of the most important challenge in tourism development in
Iran. As some recent research’s show Iran’s tourism policies are rarely based
on tourism nature and its current patterns and these policies are mostly affect-
ed by cultural, social and especially Iran’s unique political economy (Heydari &

One of the most important factors in the development of tourism in each re-

gion is the way of management
of these activities. Management involves a systematic approach through which
the dynamics of tourism is in relation with supply and demand and is consid-
ered with an emphasis on sustainability. Therefore, it is necessary to consider
economic benefits and social impact of tourism in the city along with thinking
about the development of tourism and its sustainability. (Erabi, 2005:69)

TOURISM AFTER THE ISLAMIC REVOLUTION AND ITS LAWS

The law of aims and objectives of Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance
which is passed on 3/3/1986, considered “tourism” in various passages, some of
which are:

- According to paragraph 6 of Article 2 of the mentioned law, signing
  agreements in exchange tourism and participation in g regional and in-
ternational meetings on this issue, are the main responsibilities of these
ministries which should be in cooperation with the ministry of foreign
affairs and the observance of the Constitution

- According to paragraph 11 of the mentioned article, The main task of
  the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance is considered as: Devel-
opment and operation of tourism facilities and the provision of land, air and sea facilities for tourists to travel within the country and do
necessary actions to provide the country’s progress and introduction of
its culture, civilization and tourist attraction to the world.

- According to paragraph 18 of the above article, creation and modifica-
tion of tourism facilities through direct investment or loans to the pri-

date sector or participation with government agencies and municipalities
should be planned and these agencies should monitor the establish-
ment and management of residential units, hotels and tourism of-
fices. Grading and pricing of these facilities, is the responsibility of the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance in cooperation with relevant organizations.

- As mentioned in paragraph 30 of Article 2 of the mentioned law, it is the task of the mentioned ministry to Establish and administer educational institutions to train professionals in different disciplines like tourism with cooperation with relevant agencies. Although the Ministry of Culture has the most important role in tourism management but this role makes problems for management of city in the territory of municipalities. It is proposed that in future legislation, a significant part of tourism authority within the limits of cities be delegated to municipalities.

According to article 6 of the mentioned law, municipalities are responsible to prepare the required land for the construction of tourism facilities and assign it to applicants who are introduced by the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance. It is also mentioned that these lands are granted solely for the mentioned purpose and any change in its use or failure of the project to meet the deadline will result in return of the land to state ownership.

Issuing any license for the establishment and development of tourism facilities or its cancellation is the responsibility of the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance. According to Article 7 of this law, all tourist facilities owned by private individuals and public institutions (like municipalities) are obliged to respect the policies that are communicated by the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance and Violation of these rules will be punishable according to Clause 2 of Article 7 of this law. In 1986, Iran's membership in the South Asia tourism Organization was specified and therefore legal principles underlying the development of the tourism industry have been provided. Islamic city councils also have responsibilities in tourism management as mentioned in the authority of the City Council in Article 71 of the Law on Organization, Functions and elections of Islamic councils that have passed on 03/22/1996. The following topics refer to the role of Islamic city councils in tourism management:

- Pursuant to paragraph 2 of Article 71 of the law aforesaid, the assessment of social, cultural and welfare needs and preparing modification plans for delivering to relevant authorities in "tourism" should be carried out.
According to section 4 of the mentioned article, cooperation with officials of the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance and representative of Iran Touring & Tourism Organization at their request, can be the proof of legislator sentence.

Planning about Public participation in social, civil, economic, and welfare services (tourism aspects can be thereinafter) as described in paragraph 5 of Article 71, can be considered as an authorization for systematic intervention of City Council in tourism affairs.

As mentioned in paragraph 6 of article, city councils can help and encourage people to expand recreational centers in coordination with the concerned agencies.

Establishing associations and social institutions with the consent of concerned agencies in the areas of Tourism may be a salient meaning for city council activities.

Other items such as Supervision of theaters, cinemas and other public places (Article 19) and legislation regarding municipal collaboration with relevant departments or agencies to establish tourism exhibitions (paragraph 29) and some other subjects which are related to the tourism are considered as legal authorization in the field of tourism activities.

As stated, the origin of primary activities in the field of tourism was set in the Interior Ministry and incipiently the greatest share of assets and gains were owned by municipalities. However, municipal duties, based on municipal law and other laws and regulations relating to the city councils, can directly be related to the field of domestic and international tourism, moreover, a municipality can provide technical and professional programs to the creation and redeployment of Iran touring and tourism foundations. Municipality is related with body, physics and basic structure of land, properties and passages of the city, and has a direct and immediate effect on managing many social welfare services of it. Therefore, it can act directly or through contractors and volunteers in the field of tourism activities in coordination with authorities. In addition, pursuant to the legal authority of city council, regarded as permission for municipalities in tourism affairs, the following subjects are considered to be its legal document:

As mentioned in section 18 of the Act in terms of aims and objectives approved by the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance, 3/3/1986, partnerships with municipalities to create, modify or completion of
tourism foundations and investment or loan facilities in this field, was administered. Therefore, coordination and planning is the solution.

- Municipal obligations, as described in Article 6 of the Law about development of Iran touring and tourism industry, Adopted 9/29/1991, to resign the land required for establishing tourism foundations by introducing via the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance with regional or cost price to applicants is subjected to reject reducing general revenue.

Therefore, the rule announced by the legislature is considered as a prescription for a serious and planned intervention by municipalities in the field of tourism. Municipalities can consider necessary provisions, in coordinate with the relevant authorities, in their budget annually.

- Because the municipality's activity field is limited to managing the city affairs within ratified borders, therefore, the municipality cannot directly act outside the legally mentioned range. There are some suggestions that municipalities can retain the appearances and tourist facilities within the city limits, while the approval of the city plans, as in Article 99 of the municipalities, by the approval of the city limits map, they predict the necessary foresights in areas related to tourism and Iran touring.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

It can be deduced that several issues should be taken into consideration in order to develop a fundamental program about tourism development and effective participation of non-state public agencies and local governments in our country:

- Regarding the prescription of lawmakers, Municipalities and Islamic city councils should conduct initial surveys by identifying local needs and circumstances in order to introduce the potential tourism attractions of the city or region.
- The Ministry can present and pursue the prepared plans and proposals to the Supreme Council in order to enable this field in partnership with the City Council and municipalities.
- Suggesting modifications of existing laws to the relevant authorities so that the role and influence of the Ministry, municipalities and local governments become more serious.
An important point worth mentioning here is the crucial role of municipalities in the "tourism". No agency other than municipalities has as much activity in the territory of the municipalities, which includes the legal limits of the city. City management and urban governance is the responsibility of the municipality. Urban utilities and infrastructures are related to the municipality and its responsibility. A significant part of the tourism facilities are located in the territory of municipality. Municipality is the only authority that has direct responsibility in respect of these facilities due to its important role in any aspect of urban management. Although the current law gives a central role to the Ministry of Culture and Islamic guidance, but it seems that municipalities should be held responsible for issues that are within the legal limits of the city and have all legal authority so that they be able to provide the necessary coordination and planning and establish tourism institutions to be able to manage this important issue.

REFERENCES

Banadarvish, Fatemeh, The role of government and the public sector in promoting and enhancing tourism, journal of tourism studies, No. 1, Bi ta.

Erabi, Mohammad, Tourism Management, office of cultural research, Tehran, 2005

François poitiers, Urban Tourism, translation by Salahodin Mahalati, Shahid Beheshti publications, Tehran, 2009


The Impact of Tourism on Income Inequality

Ahmad Assadzadeh  
Department of Economics, University of Tabriz, Iran  
E-mail: Assadzadeh@gmail.com

Akbar Ghasemi Yalghouzaghaj  
Department of Economics, University of Tabriz, Iran  
E-mail: yalgouz@acecr.ac.ir

Mohammad Hossein Manafi  
Gugan University, Iran  
E-mail: mh.manafi@yahoo.com

Maryam Saremi  
Gugan University, Iran  
E-mail: sareminmar@gmail.com

Yadollah Divsalar  
Gugan University, Iran  
E-mail: ydivsalar@yahoo.com

INTRODUCTION

Current data show that tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors in the world economy. Tourism is frequently viewed as an important engine for the economic growth and development of countries (Brida & Risso, 2009; Tang & Tan, 2013; Webster & Ivanov, 2014), helping to increase the economic welfare of local populations. Also, there has been much talk of income inequality. Nowadays increasing inequality is most pronounced in the world, but measuring inequality is not simple. In this paper, considering the relation between the tourism and income inequality will experience the utmost importance. Merriam-Webster Dictionary defines inequality in the most general sense as “the dispari-
ty of distribution or opportunity.” Most measures of inequality are constructed using mathematical formulations.

The purpose of this paper is to empirically examine the impact of tourism on income inequality in Mena countries. On the other hand, there is an important point: Is there a positive correlation between tourism and income inequality? A question rises in this framework, will tourism affect Mena countries income inequality? In the light of the above discussion, this research empirically determines the tourism’s impact on income inequality. The paper proceeds as follows: Section two is a review of literature followed by section three presenting the used model and data. In section four, the estimated results will be both presented and analyzed. And in the end, section five dedicated to the presentation of conclusions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Inequality is a distinct and broader measure than poverty since it includes the whole population and not just particular segments of the population. In an economic sense, inequality is a measure of the extent of dispersion of wages, income, land, assets, or overall wealth among individuals or groups of individuals in a locale, country or a region. Income inequality is a much narrower measure of inequality that shows how the income is distributed in the population, thereby enabling the study of relative poverty. The simplest measure of income inequality is the range that is the difference between the highest and the lowest income values for a population sample. However, this measure is extremely limited as it relies only on two observations.

Haughton et al. (2009) mention a list of criteria necessary for an inequality measurement to be classified as good. Firstly, the measurement should have the property of mean independence; and also should have population size independence. Thirdly, a good measurement of inequality should also have the symmetry property. The fourth criterion sets forth the condition of Pigou-Dalton transfer sensitivity that implies that income transfers from the rich to the poor should reduce the value of the inequality measurement. Two of the most sophisticated measurements of economic inequality used in the construction of cross-country data sets are the Gini coefficient and the Theil’s T statistic.

The Lorenz curve is widely used to represent and analyzes the size of distribution of income and wealth. The curve relates the cumulative proportion of income units to the cumulative proportion of income received when the units are arranged in ascending order of their income (Kakwani & Podder, 1976). The
Lorenz curve for a population will be different depending on the country or time. The Gini coefficient is then a measurement of the deviation from perfect equality where the Lorenz curve is superposed with the line of perfect equality, and consequently income inequality. The curve in Figure 1 represents the cumulative share of income for any country and the solid line represents the line of perfect equality. The Gini coefficient of inequality measures the deviation of the dashed curve from the straight line. For perfect equality, the area A needs to be 0, in which case the Gini would be 0. For complete inequality, B needs to be 0, in which case, the Gini coefficient becomes 1 (or 100 in percentage terms). Therefore, the value given by the Gini coefficient is always between 0 and 1. The Gini coefficient passes the four required criteria enlisted by Haughton and Khandker (2009), and there have been recent developments that enable to decompose the Gini (Mussard et al., 2003).

In light of the above discussion, there is a theoretical principles based on the Heskcher-Olin theorem for promoting tourism as a development strategy for countries with a comparative advantage in tourism. Lee and Kang (1998), using the data on wages of South Korea from 1985 to 1995, analyze the impact of earnings inequality in the South Korean tourism industry in comparison to other industries. Using the Gini coefficient of inequality, they found that tourism generates a relatively more equal distribution of earnings, and performs better than the secondary and tertiary industries, which include mining, manufacturing, construction, finance, and social services.
Blake et al. (2009) confirm this effect of tourism in decreasing income inequality in the case of Brazil. They developed a computable general equilibrium (CGE) model of tourism that includes earnings by different types of labor in the tourism industry, households with different income levels, and the channels through which tourism alters the income distribution between the households with different income levels. Through their study, they found that tourism benefits the lowest income segments of Brazil and leads to a more equal distribution of income through changes in earnings, prices, and government transfers. They also mention other CGE analyses that have been employed in other countries, and report that tourism is found to reduce income inequality in Australia and Spain.

Suraj Pant (2012), using data cross-country and panel data regressions, determined tourism’s impact on income inequality. Results from the regression analyses show that the tourism sector has decreased gross income inequality in the sample countries used in this paper. The results also demonstrate that domestic tourism contributes more to decreasing income inequality than international tourism does and weakly support the hypothesis that the tourism sector decreases income inequality more than other sectors linked to tourism.

**METHODOLOGY**

In order to measure the impact of tourism on income inequality we apply panel data regressions with 21 countries. In this paper, “S, Pant, 2012” model has been used to the analysis of the tourism development impact on income inequality:

\[
\text{Grossgini} = F (\text{tourGDP}, \text{labor}, \text{realincome}, \text{urban}, \text{educ})
\]  

(1)

Following the empirical literature on income inequality, the Gini coefficients of inequality are included in their original specification for the analysis. All the other variables are also used in their normal specification. Therefore, the used model for this paper is as follows:

\[
\text{Grossgini}_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{tourGDP}_{it} + \beta_2 \text{labor}_{it} + \beta_3 \text{realincome}_{it} + \beta_4 \text{urban}_{it} + \beta_5 \text{educ}_{it} + \beta_6 \text{Open}_{it} + \epsilon_{it}
\]  

(2)

Where “Grossgini” as independent variable, stands for Gini coefficient and “tourGDP” represents the tourism GDP. “labor” stands for a country’s labor rate, “realincome”, “urban”, “educ” and “Open” stand for real income, per-
percentage of population residing in urban areas and percentage of population over 15 with secondary schooling and a measurement of openness as dependent variables. \( \varepsilon_t \) is the disturbance term. \( \iota \) and \( \tau \) stand for a country and time of study undertaken respectively. In this study, data from Mena countries were used during 2000 to 2010. These countries were selected from the categorization of WDI\(^1\) (2014).

**RESULTS**

The results estimating model (2), for Mena countries have been presented in table 1. In estimation being done using “F” test, the existence of individual effects have been verified. Next, fixed effects have been accepted using Hausman test. The results show that the tourismGDP has a negative and significant effect on income inequality of Mena countries. Labor rate, real income and openness have positive and significant effect of income inequality. Estimating coefficient of urban and Educ also as the proxy Urbanization and Education variables respectively, indicates a positive relation between urbanization, education and income inequality.

**Table 1: Estimation results- Equation (2)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Estimating coefficient</th>
<th>t-statistics</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-124.8585</td>
<td>-5.1343</td>
<td>0.0068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tourGDP</td>
<td>-0.3317</td>
<td>-3.4471</td>
<td>0.0261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labor</td>
<td>1.036</td>
<td>3.7844</td>
<td>0.0194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Realincome</td>
<td>11.6144</td>
<td>4.7876</td>
<td>0.0087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>-0.0789</td>
<td>-1.4550</td>
<td>0.2196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educ</td>
<td>-0.3582</td>
<td>-4.1860</td>
<td>0.0139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open</td>
<td>0.2797</td>
<td>2.0698</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( R^2 = 0.8820 \)

D.W=2.9221

\( i^1 \). World Development Indicator
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The aim of this paper was to consider the impact of the tourism on income inequality in Mena countries from 2000 to 2010 using unbalanced panel data. The results of the empirical analysis in this study show that increases in the overall contribution of the tourism sector reduce the income inequality calculated over gross income. An overall broad policy implication which may be drawn from this study is that Mena countries can improve their income inequality performance by strategically harnessing the tourism.

REFERENCES


INTRODUCTION

The last decade (2003-2013) has seen dramatic shifts in global economic power. It remains to be seen if this also reflects a corresponding political and cultural transformation in global relations. The recent rise of the BRICS countries (Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa) has challenged the economic and political hegemony of the United States. In fact, these changes challenge the paradigm set into motion in the fifteenth century by colonialism and imperialist expansion of Western Europe. The economic policies promoted by the United States and the European Union precipitated the decline of the same. At the same time, the United States, via the IMF and the World Bank, was promoting austerity measures for other countries; they were enjoying a level of consumption far beyond their productive capacity. This unsustainable pattern of consumption and subsequent accumulation of debt ultimately led to the collapse of the housing market followed by the banking and financial sectors. The BRICS countries started their ascent earlier (circa 1995) but the strength of their economies became more apparent when they continued to grow despite the global economic crisis of 2007/08. During the last ten years the BRICS countries have also exhibited relative political stability and expanded military capability, which afforded them relative immunity, and independence from U.S.’s seemingly omnipresent spheres of influence. This process made it possible for BRICS countries to negotiate more favorably with all countries politically, economically and culturally; including expanded South-to-South dialogues unmediated by the West (Pacini-Hernandez 1998; Moehn 2011).
In this paper, we argue that these global changes have implications for tourism research. They highlight poignant contradictions and possible shifts in theories and conceptualizations of North-South & East-West relationships, notably, theories about tourism and conceptualization of the tourist gaze (Urry & Larsen 2011), theories about migration and representation of “migrants”, and research paradigms reflective of postcolonial disposition of subjects. Therefore, the overall objective of this paper is to elucidate these shifts in terms of an “inversion of the tourist gaze”, which requires a re-articulation of power assumed in the following relationships:

1. Tourists and host countries;
2. Migrant and host country; and
3. Ethnographer and ethnographic subject.

We also explore the possible implications of such shifts in power, and discuss the interconnections between them. According to Spivak (1988), “to gaze implies more than to look at – it signifies a psychological relationship of power, in which the gazer is superior to the object of the gaze.” Shifting centers of economic power may have brought about a change in paradigms of otherness, which is a vestige of colonialist discourses that lie at the core of postcolonial theory (Fanon 1961; Said 1978; Mohanty 1988). What makes the gaze hegemonic - particularly concerning various manifestations of cultural appropriation? Is the appropriation of let us say ‘performance practice’ in exclusion of aesthetic and spiritual significance in itself a form of hegemony? Have these shifts challenged or changed the broader social/institutional relationships of power? Is it suggesting multiple poles of power, or an evolving balance of power? These are some of the questions we address in this paper.

**Tourism and host country**

In conceptualizing the tourist ‘gaze’ Urry assumes that the typical tourist is from middle to high-income countries and comes to tourist destinations to consume cultural and other services offered by the host country. Recent economic growth in BRICS countries has created a growing middle class in these countries, seeking status through luxury consumption – particularly tourism. The latest data from the World Tourism Organization (Tourism Highlights, UN-WTO 2013) reveal that the share of emerging economies in world tourism has increased from 30% in 1980 to 47% in 2012. Specifically, Chinese tourists became the number one source country in the world, spending $102 billion dollars on international tourism. Therefore, the typical tourist is more likely to be
from emerging economies, which challenges Urry’s assertions. In other words, the tourist gaze has been inverted. The inverted gaze is reflected in Goa in the following ways: Domestic tourists, i.e. Indians coming to Goa, are now the chief driving economic force of Goan tourism. The number of domestic tourists has exceeded the number of foreign tourists, therefore the tastes and preferences of the former have become the focus of the music presented in tourist venues. Additionally, we have observed a greater presence of Bollywood-style musics, bands, karaoke singers, and disco/house performance formats (Imara & Basu 2013). In this instance, the relationship between Goans and non-Goan Indians is the focal point; a relationship not constructed by the western gaze upon the eastern other.

We also see this phenomenon internationally where tourists from China and India have an increasing presence in tourist destinations in Europe. For example, the number of Indian tourists in Spain in 2013 increased by almost 30% compared to last year. According to the Deputy Minister of Tourism in Spain, “Spain aspires to be the preferred tourist destination for India”. A major part of Spain’s marketing strategy includes partnerships with the Indian film industry (Dev, 2011).

**Migrant and host country**

Movement of labor from low-income countries to high-income countries has dominated global migrations in the second half of the twentieth century. Despite a persistent demand for low skilled immigrant labor, high-income countries have resisted and often demonized the very same migrant labor. High economic growth in the BRICS countries since 2000 has started to reverse this trend. In the case of Goa, tourism has attracted musicians from other countries. There is a growing presence of foreign musicians in Goan tourist venues, performing in pop/rock, jazz, and disco/house genres. If the influx of domestic tourists is driving the aesthetic, then why is there a need for foreign musicians? Is there a cultural quagmire, whereby fusion or confusion about cultural identity is in play; a confusion of what to consume now that we (BRICS) are flush with money? Are consumptive choices de facto cultural choices? In this paper we address these questions in the context of international migration theories and their linkages to tourism and cultural change.
Ethnographer and ethnographic subject

Although there has been a greater number of people of color earning their Ph.D.’s and conducting ethnographic research since the 1960s (post-civil rights movement in the US and post-independence elsewhere), it is only recently that the subject of their research has been the white other. In the current phase of our research in Goa, the subjects being interviewed are largely composed of white Europeans/westeners who have migrated to Goa as musicians, working in the tourism industry. The degree of influence of westerners is being interpreted and mediated by ethnographers that hold liminal positions within the western academy: an African American musician and an ex-pat Indian American economist. This reversal of the power relationship inherent in the ethnographer’s gaze is a challenge to many westerners who resist this loss of power by refusing to participate in the research – ostensibly on these same grounds. This resistance not only makes the research process more difficult but it also motivates a reflexive analysis of the research methodology itself.

In this paper, we examine the implications of these reversals for tourism research, in particular and ethnographic research, in general. We hope that our paper will generate discussion within the tourism research community about future trends that we can anticipate and prepare for as global shifts continue to occur.

REFERENCES


Environmental Management System in Tourism Sector: 
In Case of Marmaris

Muammer Tuna
Faculty of Literature
Department of Sociology
Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University, Muğla, Turkey
E-mail: muammert@hotmail.com

&

Melike Kaymaz
Graduate School of Sciences
Department of Environmental Sciences
Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University, Muğla, Turkey

INTRODUCTION

Environment related problems are one of the most important issues of today’s world. Air pollution; groundwater, sea and river pollution; health problems and impairment of work efficiency losses related to the noise pollution; the quality of life deteriorating due to pollution; the loss of the natural environment of plants and animals and environmental degradation such as climate change caused by greenhouse effect lead to a rapid depletion of natural resources. Increase in environmental problems expands the level of environmental degradation from local to regional and regional to global. The influence of environmental degradation and threat is not only limited to the country or regional level it also impacts the entire planet.

Tourism as social activity and economic sector is also under threat and impact of increasing environmental problems. Because of the tourism activities take place in the preserved land and clean environment, natural environment is main source of tourism activity. As far as sustainability has become as a major determinant of social and economic systems lately; accordingly, structure of tourism activities has been changed to more sustainable way for last few decades after noticing the negative effects of tourism development on the natural environment. Sustainable tourism activities are defined as the ability to use natural resources, avoiding over use. All the actors of tourism should have
been recognized that natural resources are not limitless and they have begun to make efficient use of natural resources. On the other hand if we look at demand side of tourism, today’s consumers demand natural environment and preferred vacation in the natural environment. Many of the tourism sector entrepreneurs are now creating environmental policies, implementing environmental management systems, measuring environmental performance and benefitting from environmental design and eco-friendly products. Continuous and stable improvement of the environment which is the source of tourism and the environment, contrary to degradation of the environment, will help to increase the quality.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

One of the most important factors to protect the natural resources in ensuring an effective environmental management is to improve people’s environmental concern and consciousness levels. Environmental protection is not only possible with just legal sanctions; it also needs to promote environmental awareness. Tourism industry employees should be trained in sustainable tourism context. The tourism industry should be recognized that natural environment should be protected for not only human usage; but also it is valuable on its own sake.

Therefore, protecting environmental resources is an avoidable necessity for a sustainable tourism development. Environmental management system in tourism facilities is an important indicator of environmental protection in tourism industry. New tourism industry builds environmental management systems in accommodation facilities. Furthermore, performance of the environmental management systems is also important to protect natural environment and sustainability of tourism industry. Development of environmental management system and its efficiency is evaluated in this paper. In order fact that a sociological field research has been accomplished to investigate environmental management system in tourism accommodation facilities in Marmaris, year 2011.

**METHODOLOGY**

Marmaris is an extraordinary tourism center with rich cultural heritage, natural beauties, bays and beaches. Environmental management system and its efforts in accommodation facilities in the tourism sector in Marmaris investigated in this study. Main target of this study is to identify, whether current environmental management efforts in tourism sector are sufficient. Additionally, some
suggestions will be accomplished about environmental management in tourism industry. This study is accomplished as a sociological fieldwork, in the summer of 2010-2011 in 63 accommodation facilities, including three, four and five star facilities located in Marmaris. The study is constructed as face to face interview with fully structured close ended questions. The interviews took place with official representatives of the accommodation facilities. The answered questions statistically evaluated. The research population and the sample are the same in this research with 63 facilities. The interview has been accomplished with general manager or official representative of the manager of the each facility. The research questioner comprehends questions such as environmental management system, environmental sensitivity of the hotel management, efficient water, energy consumption, waste management and recycling, personnel training on environmental issues. Respondents expected to be answered prospected questions which are most appropriate for their facilities.

RESULTS

The research findings indicate that although, there are evidences for the raise of awareness about environmental protection tourism facilities in the region, efforts remained limited by laws or made by the cost concerns, was not enough being done to consider in terms of sustainable tourism. The research findings most likely indicate that most of the facilities do not have any environmental management system. Additionally, most of the personnel of the most of the facilities do not have any environmental training and education; furthermore, most of the managers of facilities do not have any idea about environmental management and environmental protection. Just few of the facilities have waste management and recycling system. Especially in the large number of small enterprises sustainable environment does not take into account, the government audits and tour operators performed by inadequate, taking in the account the saving work of the hotel were made to reduce costs.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In general tourism accommodation facilities in Marmaris area are not well condition in term of environmental management and environmental protection. Most of the facilities do not have any environmental management system and level of environmental concern and environmental sensitivity among the managers are so low in the area. Therefore, to take necessary measurements is a basic requirement to improve environmental management and environmental
protection in Marmaris region and in Turkey in large. This is of course critically vital for sustainability of sector in Marmaris area and Turkey.

REFERENCES


Comparing Effects of Demographic and Trip Characteristics on Holiday Choice: Evidence from Alanya, Turkey

Muhammet Kesgin
Hospitality and Tourism Management
College of Applied Science & Technology
Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, NY, USA
E-mail: muhammet.kesgin@rit.edu

INTRODUCTION

This paper presents results from a broader investigation into holidaymakers’ motivations and experiences (Kesgin, 2013). Employing a convenience sample of holidaymakers, the study provides a destination based analysis of tourist experience process in three analytical phases (anticipatory-experiential-reflective). The study is based on the analysis of quantitative and qualitative data gathered through structured self-administrated questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The study addresses two specific objectives: Motivators, constraints and facilitators of holiday choice and evaluative assessments of holiday/destination experiences. This paper provides results for the first objective. The evidence derives from the visits of 505 British holidaymakers to Alanya, Turkey. Possessing typical characteristics of Mediterranean tourist resorts, Alanya is often described as naturally beautiful area with much to offer tourists. Appearing as a major sunshine tourist resort, Alanya is interestingly promoted as an identikit destination that calls for fun in the sun (Pike, 2008).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Despite the considerable emphasis on the multiplicity of tourists’ motivations, and growing divergence and segmentation in contemporary tourists’ behaviors and experiences (Cohen, 2004; Wang, 2000), tourists are continually treated as a homogenous group (MacCannell, 2001; Boorstin, 1992). The convergence-divergence debates may be useful to reveal why tourists are treated as a homogenous group by many analyst and heterogeneous groups by others. Both convergent and divergent lenses have their advantages and disadvantages. As segmentation theory is based on market disaggregation, treating all tourists uniformly contradicts its tenets. In contrast, it is impractical to treat all tourists
individually. Successful destination marketing, thus, requires more than the recognition of market divergence and convergence. By recognizing the divergence, it is of primary importance for the success of destination marketing to form meaningful segments that shows homogenous characteristics through the identification of common preferences and expectations among tourists. This suggests the need for a pluralist framework both in theory and practice.

The evidence suggests that what distinguish tourists are their motives (Cohen, 2004; Dann, 1981; Crompton, 1979) and tourist behaviors and experiences differ significantly at destinations (Ryan, 2003; Wickens, 2002). The paper, thus, draws primarily on those works that suggests ‘tourists are not alike’ (Pearce, 2005, p. 2) and employs a destination-based approach. It has been demonstrated that socio-demographic and trip characteristics are also relevant and influential (Özdemir, Aksu, Ehtiyar, Çizel, Çizel, & İçigen, 2012; Oh, Parks, & Demicco, 2002; McGehee, Loker-Murphy, & Uysal, 1996). The paper focuses on subgroup variations of anticipated holiday activities and/or experiences reflected as a complex array of push-pull and constraining/facilitating factors (Uysal, Li, & Sirakaya-Turk, 2008). Learning about motivational and behavioral differences of tourist groups have theoretical and practical implications and is crucial for the providers and marketers of tourist experiences (Meng & Uysal, 2008).

Regarded as a simple and inclusive framework, push-pull model has been the most accepted approach in investigating tourist motivation (Uysal & Hagan, 1993). Based on push-pull model, much more information has become available on travel motives, destination selection, on-site holiday activities, and experiences during the last decade (Prayag & Ryan, 2011; (Uysal et al., 2008) Lee, O'Leary, Lee, & Morrison, 2002). Of those studies some did not examine or report variations on subgroups, others targeted specific group of travelers (Sangpikul, 2008). Several studies indicated significant differences in the push and pull factors domains between the subgroups. For example, with respect to income (Kim, Lee, & Klenosky, 2003), occupation (Kim et al., 2003), marital status (Zhang, Qu, & Tang, 2004), education (Sangpikul, 2008), age (Kim et al., 2003), and gender (Sangpikul, 2008; Kim et al., 2003).

The themes of escape, relaxation, isolation, social status, nature, self-actualization, self-enhancement, self-development and novelty have been identified as core tourist/travel motives (Pearce, 2011; Uysal & Hagan, 1993). These motives are considered as push factors. Push factors are often equated to the 'escape' dimensions in that a desire for change has been considered as a key
consideration for holidaying, particularly, to coastal resorts such as Alanya. Escape, relaxation, and nature have been thought as key push factors of this type of holiday. The most important pull factors of this type of holiday are suggested to include beaches, climate, sunshine, scenic beauties, accommodation, and destination facilities. Price, time and social dimensions are considered as critical factors in choosing a sunshine holiday resort. Tourist-related factors have been thought to be more influential than destination-related factors in reaching a destination selection (Teare, 1994).

Within this overall framework, the purpose of this paper is to compare British holidaymakers’ motivations and behaviors in choosing a holiday in Alanya, describes similarities and differences between tourists, and obtain insight into the relevance and influence of socio-demographic and trip characteristics and formulate recommendations for theory and practice. It utilizes push-pull motivation framework and constraining/facilitating factors to assess tourist behavior.

**METHODOLOGY**

The reader should bear in mind that the outcomes that sought to identify the motivations of British holidaymakers were previously discussed in a published book chapter (Kesgin, Bakir, & Wickens, 2012). Six push, seven pull and three constraining/facilitating factors were identified. In order of importance, push factors included: 'fun & enjoyment', relaxation', 'family & friend togetherness', 'escape', 'learning & exploring' and 'excitement & relationship'; pull factors included: 'nature & weather', 'novelty/familiarity & prestige', 'hospitality & accommodation', 'culture & sightseeing', 'activities & shopping'; 'convenience & facilities' and 'popularity'; and constraining/facilitating factors included 'price & deal', 'time & children constraints', and 'information & recommendation. Evidently, seeking fun (push) in the sun (pull) at an affordable price (constraining/facilitating) was the defining characteristic of the holiday choice. In addition, 'relaxation', 'family & friend togetherness', 'escape', 'learning & exploring', 'novelty/familiarity & prestige', 'hospitality & accommodation' were also among important factors. A fuller discussion of these outcomes is beyond the scope and limits of this paper. The paper, thus, follows on from the discussion of the analysis on the effects of socio-demographic and trip characteristics on motivators, constraints and facilitators.

The analysis included thirty-eight subgroups of categorical variables on gender, age, marital status, education, country, revisiting patterns, experience
levels, length of stay, hotel types, boarding types and hotel locations. The paper employs quantitative analysis. The data was collected during the summer period in 2010. SPSS was used for the analysis. Descriptive statistics, T-test, Pearson correlation coefficient and analysis of variance were used in the study.

**RESULTS**

Whilst a big majority of respondents were first-time visitors to Alanya (87.5 percent), 31 percent of respondents had previous experience of Turkey (twice to 28 times). Almost all respondents were travelling either with family or friends. More than half (60.8 per cent) were on a two-week holiday; the vast majority of them (93.7 per cent) were on a package holiday; with 37.4 per cent on an all-inclusive package and 32.3 per cent half-board. Respondents were staying mainly in the three to five star hotels (88 per cent). One in every two respondents was staying at hotels located along the Keykubat Beach. British tourist profile based on socio-demographic and trip characteristics in Alanya showed variations. Respondents' holiday life-styles showed that they are experienced holidaymakers and they take holiday abroad at least once a year. Buying package holidays in groups they most probably travel to one of the Mediterranean destinations each year.

Comparison of push-pull motivations and constraining/facilitating factors across socio-demographic and trip related subgroups indicated both similarities and differences. The results indicated high degree of unanimity on the importance of 'fun & enjoyment' and 'family/friend & togetherness' factors rather than significant variations between tourists. Table 1 shows the significance values (p value) of the results yielding from the analysis of Pearson coefficient correlation and analysis of variance. Of seventeen factors, at least seven factors had significant variations in their means scores in the subgroups of age, revisiting patterns, marital status and experience levels. Subgroups of hotel types and boarding types had significant differences on five factors. The number of significant differences ranged from two to four factors for education, country and hotel location subgroups. No significant differences in scores of gender (with the exception of one factor) and travel length. Table 2 presents means scores for comparison.

Most distinct differences on these factors dealt with age, revisiting patterns and experience levels. Respondents in over 55 years age group placed higher importance on 'learning & exploring', 'excitement & relationship', 'culture &
sightseeing', 'hospitality & accommodation' and 'convenience & facilities' factors. Respondents in the 11-17 years age group placed lower importance on 'learning & exploring', 'relaxation', 'escape', 'culture & sightseeing', 'nature & weather', and 'price & deal' factors. Moderate and high experienced respondents placed higher importance on 'relaxation', 'escape', 'culture & sightseeing', 'hospitality & accommodation', 'convenience & facilities', and 'price & deal' factors than low experienced respondents. Repeaters to Turkey and repeaters to Alanya placed higher importance on 'excitement & relationship' and 'escape' factors. Repeaters to Alanya considered 'culture & sightseeing', 'hospitality & accommodation', 'convenience & facilities', activities, and 'nature & weather' more important than their counterparts. 'Time & children constraints' were significantly higher for repeaters to Turkey compared to repeaters to Alanya and first timers to Turkey.

Based on these variations, the importance rankings of these factors differed among these subgroups. One of the most obvious finding to emerge from this study is that majority of the respondents (seventy percent) were price sensitive. Whilst price sensitivity was significantly higher for those respondents in higher education, 3 star accommodation, and 10 days groups, it was significantly lower for those respondents in the low experience and 11-17 years age groups.
Table 1. The significance values (p value) of statistical analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender groups</th>
<th>Socio-demographic subgroups</th>
<th>Trip-related subgroups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Push factors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning &amp; exploring</td>
<td>.322</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Excitement &amp; relationship</td>
<td>.732</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxation</td>
<td>.373</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pull factors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture &amp; sightseeing</td>
<td>.710</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality &amp; accommodation</td>
<td>.178</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenience &amp; facilities</td>
<td>.305</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>.531</td>
<td>.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature &amp; weather</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novelty/Familiarity &amp; prestige</td>
<td>.558</td>
<td>.251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Popularity</td>
<td>.559</td>
<td>.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Con constrain</td>
<td>Price &amp; deal</td>
<td>.134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constraining/facilitating factors</td>
<td>Time &amp; children constraints</td>
<td>.351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constraining/facilitating factors</td>
<td>Information &amp; recommendation</td>
<td>.220</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p ≤ 0.01  **p ≤ 0.05
Table 2. Mean scores of push-pull and constraining/facilitating factors by subgroups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroup</th>
<th>Mean scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>full</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-17 years</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-24 years</td>
<td>3.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34 years</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44 years</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54 years</td>
<td>3.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55+ years</td>
<td>3.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pitman's ecclesiary</td>
<td>3.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-secondary education</td>
<td>3.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>3.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>3.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>3.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
<td>3.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First-time to Turkey</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeaters to Turkey</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeaters to Athens</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low experience</td>
<td>3.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate experience</td>
<td>3.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High experience</td>
<td>3.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 days</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 days</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 days</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 star</td>
<td>3.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 star</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 star</td>
<td>3.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bed &amp; breakfast</td>
<td>3.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Half board</td>
<td>3.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All inclusive Service</td>
<td>3.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keykobal Beach</td>
<td>3.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleopatra Beach</td>
<td>3.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neighborhood</td>
<td>3.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Tourist profile statistics and knowledge about preferences and perception structures of tourist groups are important for tourism businesses (Masiero & Nicolau, 2012). Considering the profile of different tourist groups, managers can develop specific strategies not only to attract these experienced tourists to their destinations but also to meet their needs and wants while they are holidaying at the destination (Uysal et al. 2008; Pearce, 2005)). Since Alanya is promoted and sold mainly for two-week all-inclusive package holiday market, the majority of those surveyed were on 14 days package holiday with all-inclusive boarding. It should however be noted that showing different motivational and behavioural patterns, those respondents on 7 and 10 days package with non-all-inclusive indicated higher levels of overall satisfaction and destination loyalty (Kesgin, 2013). Managers may need to monitor the consequences of different trip arrangements and develop strategies for more sustainable and profitable markets.
The study found that whilst 'fun & enjoyment' and 'family/friend togetherness' were common push factors for all respondents, there were significant variations on other push and pull factors among the subgroups of socio-demographic and trip characteristics. Pull factors provided the largest set of significant differences with respect to both socio-demographic and trip related subgroups. Socio-demographic subgroups of age and marital status, and trip related subgroups of revisiting patterns, holiday experience levels, accommodation and boarding type were found to be more influential than other subgroups. Length of stay, location, education, and country had a certain degree of influence on these factors. No significant differences were found between males and females on these factors.

While most findings are supported by the existing literature (Uysal et al. 2008; Ryan 2003; Jang & Cai, 2002), some findings are contrasted with findings from other research (Ryan, 2003; McGehee et al. 1996). The evidence suggests that both convergence and divergence of the market should be considered for particular marketing strategy. Based on the slogan of 'fun in the sun', it can be said that Alanya’s marketing is convergent. Covering the core motivation, the appeal for this slogan may please all travellers. However, recognising the multiplicity and divergence of motivations and expectations marketers may consider various market segments of socio-demographic and trip characteristics.

REFERENCES


Potential Effects of Climate Change on Tourism Industry by Demographic Factors: A study in Turkey

Musa Pinar
Valparaiso University, USA

&

Ibrahim Birkan
Atilim University, Turkey

&

Gamze Tanil
Karlstad University, Sweden

&

Muzaffer Uysal
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, USA

INTRODUCTION

Scientific research shows that global climate has changed as a result of human activities that are increasing greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere. Climate change includes an increase in continental-average temperatures, temperature extremes and wind patterns, widespread decreases in glaciers and ice caps and warming ocean surface temperature which contributed to sea level rise of 1.8 mm per year from 1961 to 2003, and approximately 3.1 mm per year from 1993 to 2003 (IPCC, 2007). These changes to the world’s climate cause substantial concerns for many reasons. For example, the rising sea level threatens the viability of many coastal zones and small islands, temperature rises are predicted to change precipitation patterns that could exacerbate water supply problems and create a greater risk of both flooding and drought conditions in many parts of the world. Moreover, recent research indicates that hot extremes, heat waves and heavy precipitation events will become more frequent, and tropical cyclones (typhoons and hurricanes) will become more intense
Water scarcity and increased drought will also be serious problems for some regions.

There is a reciprocal relationship between tourism and climate change. On the one hand, tourism has an obligation to minimize its adverse impact on the environment and thus on the emission of greenhouse gases which in turn contribute to climate change. On the other hand, it is recognized that changes to the world’s climate would have a direct impact on the use of resources which could have far reaching implications for the tourism industry and destinations. Given the tourism industry’s vulnerability to climate change and variability, UNWTO reports that climate change will affect global tourism in several broad ways (UNWTO 2009, p.5). They are: 1.) climate defines the length and quality of tourism seasons and plays a major role in destination choice and tourist spending; 2.) it affects a wide range of the environmental resources that are critical to tourism, such as snow conditions, wildlife productivity and biodiversity, water levels and quality; 3.) it influences various facets of tourism operations (e.g., snow-making, irrigation needs, heating-cooling costs); 4.) it impacts environmental conditions that can deter tourists, including infectious diseases, wildfires, and extreme events; and finally 5.) weather is an intrinsic component of the travel experience and influences holiday satisfaction.

The recent global warming and climate changes and the potential impacts on personal life as well as business performance have become an important concern for all types of industries (Viner, D. & Nicholls, 2012. Since tourism industry as a whole could be impacted directly or indirectly, it is important to understand how managers in the hotel industry perceive the potential impact of global warming and climate change on the hotel industry. Generating information involving hotel managers, as the key stakeholder, on how tourism may be affected by climate change, and developing suitable adaptation and mitigation policies would be of immense value for the success and sustainability of business activities. This specific objectives this study are: (1) to examine the hotel managers’ perceptions regarding global warming and climate change regarding: a.) Potential or expected impact on personal well-being of managers and on tourism industry, and b.) Commitment to actions within the tourism industry to combat these potential impacts of global warming and climate change; (2) to investigate the relationship between the managers’ perceptions regarding the impact of global warming and climate change and their demographic profiles of gender, age, education, and managerial position; and (3) to discuss the managerial implications of the findings.
METHODOLOGY

In order to accomplish the study objectives, a survey instrument was developed. Based on a literature review and interviews with experts on the topic, the survey included questions to address the research objectives. More specifically, the survey included questions to measure the potential negative effects on respondents’ personal and financial well-being and on environmental and financial aspects of tourism industry, and the level of commitment to the activities to combat the global warming and climate change. Also, there were questions related to respondent’s demographic characteristics.

Since the survey was originally developed in English, it was translated into Turkish and later back-translated into English by persons bi-lingual and experienced in research in order to avoid translation errors (Ball et al., 2002) and to ensure that the intended meaning of the questions was maintained. The survey was pretested with respondents (hotel administrators) similar to the target population, which provided useful input for improving the survey questions and for establishing face validity of the constructs (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005). The survey was administered to the managers at hotels in Turkey, using the membership directory of the Turkish Hotel Federation Association. After several follow-ups, this process produced 154 usable surveys for analysis of 2000 surveys sent out, with a response rate of 7.7%. This is a typical response rate in developing countries.

FINDINGS

This study examined Turkish hotel managers’ perceptions regarding the potential and/or expected impact of global warming and climate change on the tourism industry at personal and industry levels, as well as their commitments to action to combat the effects of these changes during the next 10 years. In order to accomplish this objective, a survey instrument was designed and administered to hotel managers in Turkey. The factor analyses identified five distinct factors, and as shown in Figure 1, they are labeled as factor 1 - potential negative effects, factor 2 - commitment to protecting, factor 3 – expected effect on environment, factor 4 – consequences for hotels, and factor 5 – mental concerns. These five factors collectively explained 65.68% of the variance, and Cronbach’s

---

1 Because this paper is based on a survey that was designed to provide data for more than one study, the methodology presented in this paper is similar to the methodological discussions presented in other papers.
alpha coefficients indicated high internal consistency among the factor items (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

The factor means indicate that the respondents (hotel managers) are most concerned about the consequences of global warming and climate change for hotels. This is followed by commitment to protecting environment and perceived negative effects. These results suggest that hotel managers have the highest concerns for protecting their hotels, and thus, invest against the potential effects of global warming and climate change. The hotel managers have the second highest concerns for potential negative effects that global warming and climate change could have on such areas as physical health, leisure and recreation, quality of life, work environment, sustainability of tourism, and economic and financial situations. Since factor 2 – commitment to protecting has the third highest rating, this may support the managers’ concerns for the effects and consequences of global warming and climate change, which in turn may imply that they are willing and ready to deal with global warming and climate change issues.

The comparisons of factors by the respondent demographics indicate that, as for gender, both male and female managers have similar perceptions about
the potential effects of global warming and climate change. Concerning their age, all age groups have the same perceptions for all factors, except factor 4 – consequences for hotels, where it seems the older managers have significantly more concerns for the consequences of global warming and climate change for their hotels. This may imply that because of their age and experience, they might become more aware and concerned about the potential consequences of global warming and climate change. These experienced managers could serve as change agents and “influencers” in promoting and dealing with global warming and climate change issues. Education level was not important for differentiating the hotel managers’ perceptions about the climate change factors, except for factor 1 and factor 5. It seems that managers with more education are significantly more concerned with perceived negative effects (factor 1) and mental concerns (factor 5) resulting from global warming and climate change. Finally, the results show that the managerial position of the respondents has no significant effects on their perceptions.

In summary, the findings show that hotel managers are collectively concerned about global warming and climate change, especially as it relates to consequences for hotels and potential negative effects, and are committed to protecting against the potential consequences. One major practical implication is that if employees of hotels are also as aware and sensitive as their managers about the possible impacts of climate change. Perhaps, hotels can initiate mitigation and combat strategies that can be conveyed to employees and instill the importance of climate change on business practices and strategies. However, despite these insights, this exploratory study has some limitations; therefore, a caution should be exercised in interpreting and generalizing the results. One limitation is that this is an exploratory study and the survey instrument should be replicated in other studies. The second limitation is that the study included only hotel managers. The future research should include managers from other tourism related fields, such as travel agencies, airline companies, etc. The third limitation is that the study was conducted in Turkey; thus, the results are limited to the perceptions of the Turkish managers. We recommend that the same survey should be conducted with hotel managers in other countries.

REFERENCES


New Map for Dubai Tourism Attractions to Maintain Its Top Source Market; the Young Male Saudis Tourists

Naeema Al Hosani
Geography & Urban Planning Department
University of United Arab Emirates.
United Arab Emirates University
Email: naeemam@uaeu.ac.ae

INTRODUCTION

This paper is concerned with tourism planning development in Dubai particularly, planning for Dubai’s top source market; the Saudi tourists. Aspects of the relationship between Saudis single male tourists and planning for Dubai Tourism Vision 2020 are discussed within the context of this paper. In addition to, issues of tourism policies, management, and marketing. This paper call for having new tourism map for Dubai that takes into consideration the needs of its top tourism market.

The United Arab Emirates (UAE), a federation of seven independent emirates in the Arabian Gulf have put tourism at the core of their economic development plans in order to diversify and strengthen their economies whilst decreasing their dependency on fluctuating oil prices. The leading emirate in diversifying its economy though tourism is, Dubai. Dubai is a member of the UAE, located in the south-western corner of the Arabian Gulf bordering Qatar to the west, Oman to the east and Saudi Arabia to the south. The UAE as a whole, with an area of 77,000 km2, is mostly flat, although mountainous to the south, and is 97% desert. Dubai, the second largest state in the UAE after Abu Dhabi, occupies a land area of just 3,900 km2 (DDIA, 2006). In particular, the city-state of Dubai has experienced rapid growth in tourism arrivals and is now widely acknowledged to be amongst the world’s leading international tourist destinations (MacDonald, 2000). Indeed, the highly publicized development of Dubai’s tourism infrastructure, described by one commentator as “an emerging
dream-world of conspicuous consumption” (Davis, 2006), has placed the city-state in a dominant position on the global tourism map.

Planning is an essential element of successful tourism development (Hall, 2000). That is, effective planning is necessary to ensure that tourism is developed according to broader economic and social development goals, that it is developed sustainably (Timothy, 1998) and that appropriate mechanisms and processes are in place to ensure that tourism development is managed, promoted and monitored. For Dubai with an ambitious to accomplish its vision for 2020, which is attracting twenty million visitors, planning should take into consideration maintaining their top source market, the Saudis tourists.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism development in Dubai has attracted considerable academic attention (Bagaeen, 2007; Balakrishan, 2008; Govers & Go, 2005, 2009; Henderson, 2006a, 2006b; Junemo, 2004; Sharpley, 2008). The Department of Tourism and Commerce Marketing is the only authority in Dubai that is responsible for tourist planning and development in the city. Data released by the DTCM has shown that more than 5.5 million tourists arrived to Dubai from January to June in 2013, which indicates and an increase of 11.1 per cent over 2012. Table 1 shows the number of tourists visiting Dubai based on nationality, these figure shows also an increase in the number of tourists visiting Dubai in the first 9 months of 2013 over 2012. The Director-General of DTCM Helal Saeed Almarri said: “The figures for the first half of 2013 are extremely encouraging and indicate that we are on the way to achieving our Tourism Vision for 2020.” His Highness Sheikh Helal Almarri also indicated that Dubai is the first choice for Saudi tourists during their holidays. Dubai offers several tourism attractions that are not available in other Gulf countries such as luxurious hotels, imaginative shopping malls, luxuries restaurants and coffee-shops, and all types of entertainment. Map 1 demonstrates Dubai tourism attractions.
Map 1: Dubai Tourism attractions (DTCM, 2013).

Table 1. Dubai’s Top Source Markets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Total Guests</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Total Guests</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>1,052,353</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>843,568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>631,638</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>India</td>
<td>549,450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>535,284</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>489,884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>356,971</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>369,474</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>263,969</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>262,881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>261,346</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>242,289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>234,505</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>229,685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Oman</td>
<td>218,775</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Kuwait</td>
<td>226,326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>201,036</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Oman</td>
<td>213,995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>196,897</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>181,180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>194,448</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>178,887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>185,919</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>144,121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>152,825</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>124,545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Qatar</td>
<td>132,435</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Qatar</td>
<td>123,513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>132,383</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>120,307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>95,138</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>92,339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>90,919</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>85,942</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>85,528</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>76,031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>80,098</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>72,640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>73,486</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>69,580</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (DTCM, 2013)
According to the data released by the DTCM which is represented in Table 1, Saudi Arabia is the top tourism source market for Dubai. This implies that tourism planners within DTCM should put significant focus on Saudi tourists visiting Dubai as they provide substantial opportunities for growth.

Dubai is the favorite tourism destination for Saudis with all imaginative and luxury tourism facilities and infrastructure including shopping malls and hotels featuring wonderful tourist’s services. Because of the significance of Saudi tourists to Dubai, this paper focuses on the demographic characteristics of Saudis visiting the emirate, as the outcome of this paper will have significant implications for tourism planning and development in the emirate, particularly for accomplishing Dubai Tourism Vision 2020.

METHODOLOGY

A survey was conducted through a questionnaire containing closed questions about the tourist. The questionnaire was developed in English, translated into Arabic by a professional translation source. Only those visitors who were older than 18 years of age were asked to participate in the study. The total number of participants was 1,110.

Data were collected by ten trained research assistants during Oct. 2013 until February 2014. Respondents completed the questionnaire in the presence of research assistants. The questionnaires were immediately collected upon their completion. Out of the total of 1,200 questionnaires distributed, 90 were incomplete. These questionnaires were eliminated from data analysis. As a result, the total of 1,110 usable questionnaires was obtained. Survey results were analyzed using SPSS.

RESULTS

The demographic profile of the sample surveyed is provided in summary form in Table 2.
The age distribution of the Saudis in the sample shows that Saudis visiting Dubai are mostly of young age groups as 45.8% are between the ages 20-30, while 33.2% are between 31-40 years old. With 79% of Saudis tourists are under the age of 40, this indicates that Dubai is impressively offering tourism attractions for the young individuals. Furthermore, the sample shows that 45.3% of Saudis visiting Dubai are single compared to 31.4% who are married. This certainly has implications on tourism planning in Dubai.

CONCLUSION

This study represents a preliminary step in understanding the tourism development planning in Dubai. The study results have indicated that the majority of the Saudi tourists are female and are single. Taking into consideration the Saudi government social restrictions regarding men and women mixing, adult entertainment are completely banned. For example, movie theaters, coffee-shops, night clubs, water parks, theme parks, or any other sites where men and women might socialize are completely banned in Saudi Arabia. Police patrol all places where all these young single male Saudis may go, they even are the target for the government-supported police. Police follow young males in streets, malls, cafes and all other public areas. Men are not only allowed to mix with unrelated women, they are even not allowed to smoke or wear shorts in public. All these may be push factors for Saudis tourists, while Dubai as a mo-
modern and open city with all the imaginative tourism attractions it is offering are pull factors for Saudi tourists to come and visit Dubai frequently.

On the other hand, tourism development plan should take into consideration the Saudis single male visitors who are coming to them and thus, provide them with all their tourism favorite’s places. Dubai should consider significantly the needs of it’s top source market and make sure to offer them what they want and expect from their favorite tourism destination. The paper calls for having new map for Dubai tourism attractions with more adult activities, events, and attractions. This strategy will help Dubai maintain growth rates in its tourism top markets in order to achieve its vision for 2020.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author wishes to thank all the Saudi tourists who kindly participated in the study’s survey.

REFERENCES


Culinary Tourism as a Part of Cultural Tourism Focused on Cultural Motivation in Korea

Namhee Lee
Department of Tourism
Hanyang University, South Korea
E-mail: namhee1101@hanyang.ac.kr

&

Chul Jeong
Department of Tourism
Hanyang University, South Korea
E-mail: jeong72@hanyang.ac.kr

&

Jin Ok Shin
Department of Tourism
Hanyang University, South Korea
E-mail: jo1477@hanyang.ac.kr

INTRODUCTION

Food and beverage may be not only a basic necessity but also one of the key interests for many visitors in a destination. Jones and Jenkins (2002) state that food and beverage are used as a means of developing new niche markets, supporting regional identities, developing quality tourism and sustainable tourism. Food and beverage have developed from being a basic necessity for tourist consumption to being regarded as an essential element of regional culture. Although a number of studies have been conducted on the role of food and beverage in tourism, most studies focus on food and beverage in tourism not as a cultural element but as an attractor or motivator to visit a destination (McKercher et al., 2008), as a marketing tool for building destination image (Smith & Costello, 2009), or as an economic benefit from food consumption by visitors (Karim & Chi, 2010). Moreover, a number of studies have been conducted on the motivation of culinary tourists to understand characteristics and behaviours of culinary tourists. However, most studies exclude the factor of cultural
experience from culinary tourism. For example, Shin and Gwak (2008) mention that Uysal et al. (1993) identified visitors’ motivations for attending a country Corn Festival in South Carolina in terms of factors of escape, excitement/thrills, event novelty, socialisation and family togetherness. In addition, although culinary tourism involves a various rage of facilities and activities such as museum, cooking class, farm visit, and so on, most studies have investigated events or festivals related to food and beverage (Kim et al., 2009; Smith et al., 2010) or dining experience in restaurants (Batra, 2008; Chang et al., 2010).

Each visitor could be participating in culinary tourism with different motivation. Crompton and McKay (1997) state that tourists’ motives are likely to be multiple. Also, culinary tourism is rarely the result of a single motive. For some, culinary tourism may be a means of experiencing a cultural tradition, while for others it may be a means of facilitating socialisation. Culinary tourism is defined as one of the part of cultural tourism for exploring, enjoyment and experience in destinations (Smith & Costello 2009). According to Canada Tourism Commission (2002), cultural tourism is a new opportunity for education and excitement. Visitors can learn and experience culture through the culinary tourism. Kim et al. (2009) stress that the purpose of culinary tourism is not only to taste food and beverage primarily but it is the process of learning or experiencing different cultures and lifestyles through food and beverage or food and beverage-related experiences.

The aim of this study is to identify the major factors that motivate visitors to culinary tourism according to socio-cultural characteristics and the types of culinary tourism. Also, the study is explored how far cultural motivation factor have an effect on the participation in culinary tourism and to assess whether there are significant differences in the cultural motivation factor according to the socio-cultural characteristics in Korea.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Culinary Tourism

Ignatov and Smith (2006:238) define culinary tourism as “tourism trips during which the purchase or consumption of regional foods including beverages, or the observation and study of food production from agriculture to cooking schools represent a significant motivation or activity”. Culinary tourism includes the activities related to food and beverage such as restaurants, food festivals, wine festivals, farm visits, factory tours, museum tours, event, exhibition,
expo, cooking school, cooking class, educational seminars, souvenirs of food and beverage, and so on (Smith and Costello, 2009). However, Ignatov and Smith (2006) argue that culinary tourism is quite different from the simple consumption of food and drink during a tourism experience. The term refers to the experience that regionally produced food and beverage can provide when they are used to tell a story or to convey some aspect of the culture of the region being visited. Culinary tourism implies transference of knowledge or information about the people, culture, traditions and identity of the place visited. It conveys something that is indigenous, perhaps even unique, to a specific destination.

Motivation of Culinary Tourism

Mason and Paggiaro (2009:367-368) define that motivation is “the expression of the motives that induce an individual to perform a specific action. Motivation implies an objective and refers to the interaction between motives and situations”. Visitors’ motivation could be different according to each individual visitor and the types of culinary tourism. For example, the results of the study conducted by Uysal et al. (1993) in a county Corn Festival in South Carolina showed that the motivation of family togetherness was stronger among married people than singles. It was also found that older people tended to place more importance on the event novelty and socialisation than other age groups (Lee et al., 2004). Also, cultural exploration is the most important factor stimulating tourists to attend the Kimchi cultural festival in Korea (Shin & Gwak, 2008). In case of farm visitor, the research in Taiwan by Chen et al. (2010) shows that only 12.9% of visitors are motivated by cultural opportunities. Attractive scenery, wildlife, and uniqueness of the local people’s life are the strongest motivation of farm visitors (37.1%). Also, 24.9% of visitors exhibited a strong interest in a variety of recreational activities, activities for children, and opportunity to increase knowledge and 25.1% of visitors visit for the famous restaurants and local specialty. Sparks et al. (2003) investigate reasons why tourists eat out when on holiday in Australia. The relaxation aspect of the dining experience emerged as the most important reason for dining out.

METHODOLOGY

Questionnaire design

The questionnaire was designed as a survey instrument with two sections. The first section is the measurement of motivation of culinary tourism with 19 attributes. The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging, which invol-
ve from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. The second section is involved in the demographic profile of the visitors including nationality, gender, age, material status, occupation, and level of education.

**Data collection**

The survey was carried out on 185 visitors involving 125 domestic visitors and 60 international visitors in food and beverage festival, food and beverage museum, cooking class, farm visit, restaurant, and market in Korea from 19 July 2011 to 30 July 2011.

**Data analysis**

The collected data was analysed by employing the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17 programme. Frequency analysis was used to analyse respondents’ profile including demographic characteristics. Exploratory factor analysis using principal component method with varimax rotation was conducted on motivation to examine dimensionalities and reliability. Mean scores were calculated to compare motivational factors according to socio-cultural demographics and the types of culinary tourism. The Independent Samples Test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were carried out to identify whether there are significant difference on cultural motivation between socio-cultural demographics.

**RESULTS**

In this study factor analysis was employed to test the reliability and internal consistency of the survey instrument. Factors of escape, family togetherness, cultural exploration, novelty, and socialisation were used as the measurement variables of motivation of culinary tourism. The 19 items of the culinary tourism motivation were assessed for sampling adequacy using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test. The KMO value is 0.801 and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity value is significant (p=.000). Therefore, the data sets were perceived as being adequate for factor analysis. Five motivation factors for culinary tourism emerged with eigenvalues>1 and Cronbach alpha ranging from 0.940 to 0.807 which means internal consistency of the motivation items is very good. The Table 1 shows the mean scores of motivation factors of culinary tourism according to socio-cultural characteristics.
Table 1. Mean scores of motivation factors of culinary tourism according to socio-cultural characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Cultural exploration</th>
<th>Novelty</th>
<th>Escape</th>
<th>Socialisation</th>
<th>Family togetherness</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>3.60</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 19 year</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29 year</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39 year</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>3.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49 year</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>3.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59 year</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>3.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 60 year</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>4.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unmarried</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>2.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>3.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>3.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>2.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educational Level</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary-high school</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor degree</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>3.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master or Doctoral degree</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nationality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic visitor</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>3.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International visitor</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>2.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the result of the Independent Samples and ANOVA test, there was no significant difference in cultural motivation according to gender, age, material status, occupation, and educational level. However, there is a significant difference between domestic and international visitors, and therefore, international visitors were even more motivated by cultural exploration than domestic visitors.
There is a different motivation factors in terms of the types of culinary tourism as shown in table 2. Visitors attending cooking class were most motivated by cultural exploration, followed by farm visit, food and beverage museum, restaurant, market. On the other hand, visitors attending food and beverage festival were the least motivated by cultural exploration.

Table 2. Mean scores of motivation factors in terms of the different types of culinary tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation Factor</th>
<th>The types of culinary tourism</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural exploration</td>
<td>Cooking class</td>
<td>4.1979</td>
<td>.60334</td>
<td>.12316</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Farm visit</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>.70711</td>
<td>.14434</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Food &amp; beverage museum</td>
<td>3.8594</td>
<td>.66277</td>
<td>.11716</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>3.7188</td>
<td>.72983</td>
<td>.11540</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Market</td>
<td>3.3258</td>
<td>.59123</td>
<td>.10292</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Food &amp; beverage festival</td>
<td>3.3047</td>
<td>.66519</td>
<td>.11759</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novelty</td>
<td>Farm visit</td>
<td>3.9792</td>
<td>.68333</td>
<td>.13948</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>3.9625</td>
<td>.59525</td>
<td>.09412</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooking class</td>
<td>3.9271</td>
<td>.52894</td>
<td>.10797</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Food &amp; beverage festival</td>
<td>3.7734</td>
<td>.76295</td>
<td>.13487</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Market</td>
<td>3.6136</td>
<td>.75543</td>
<td>.13150</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Food &amp; beverage museum</td>
<td>3.5234</td>
<td>.71097</td>
<td>.12568</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape</td>
<td>Farm visit</td>
<td>3.4917</td>
<td>.98330</td>
<td>.20072</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Food &amp; beverage festival</td>
<td>3.2625</td>
<td>.81982</td>
<td>.14492</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cooking class</td>
<td>2.8333</td>
<td>.81862</td>
<td>.16710</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>2.8200</td>
<td>.59018</td>
<td>.09332</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Food &amp; beverage museum</td>
<td>2.7250</td>
<td>.87952</td>
<td>.15548</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Market</td>
<td>2.3697</td>
<td>.84131</td>
<td>.14645</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socialisation</td>
<td>Food &amp; beverage museum</td>
<td>3.0729</td>
<td>.89497</td>
<td>.15821</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>3.0167</td>
<td>.99557</td>
<td>.15741</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Food &amp; beverage festival</td>
<td>2.9688</td>
<td>.86077</td>
<td>.15216</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Market</td>
<td>2.9394</td>
<td>.97701</td>
<td>.17008</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooking class</td>
<td>2.8056</td>
<td>1.15435</td>
<td>.23563</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Farm visit</td>
<td>2.5000</td>
<td>.96809</td>
<td>.19761</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family togetherness</td>
<td>Food &amp; beverage festival</td>
<td>3.6146</td>
<td>1.11397</td>
<td>.19692</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Farm visit</td>
<td>3.4722</td>
<td>1.42414</td>
<td>.29070</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Food &amp; beverage museum</td>
<td>3.2500</td>
<td>1.18835</td>
<td>.21007</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cooking class</td>
<td>3.1111</td>
<td>.97637</td>
<td>.19930</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>3.0583</td>
<td>1.01804</td>
<td>.16097</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Market</td>
<td>2.8687</td>
<td>.96443</td>
<td>.16789</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study offers the empirical evidence on culinary tourism as a cultural tourism though the measure of key factors including the motivation. Although the motivational factors are different according to socio-cultural characteristics and the types of culinary tourism, the motivational dimension of cultural exploration has an important effect on culinary visitors. Specially, there is a significant difference between domestic and international visitors. While domestic visitors were most motivated by novelty, followed by cultural exploration, family togetherness, escape, and socialisation, international visitors were most motivated by cultural exploration, followed by novelty, socialisation, escape, and family togetherness. This finding is consistent with Lee et al. (2004). Foreign visitors are more motivated by cultural exploration than domestic visitors according to the study about motivation attending 2000 Kyongju World Expo in Korea.

Furthermore, this study can help setting marketing strategy to develop culinary tourism and cultural tourism, and to satisfy with culinary tourists. Park et al. (2008) state that understanding tourists’ motives is a key prerequisite to designing and tailoring offerings to particular target markets, creating favourable experiences and enhancing levels of satisfaction for tourism industry. Fodness (1994) argues that under increasingly competitive conditions, effective tourism marketing is impossible without an understanding of tourists' motivations. Therefore, it is necessary to set marketing strategy focused on cultural motivation to consider as a popular destination for culinary tourism according to the different motivation and to satisfy with culinary tourists including international visitors as well as domestic visitors.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors wish to thank participants who were willing to participate in our questionnaire.

REFERENCES


An Analysis of the Relationship between Economy Sector and the Tourism Industry from a Data-Mining Perspective

Nanxi Yan
Faculty of Applied Health Science
University of Waterloo, Canada
E-mail: n5yan@uwaterloo.ca

&

Ye Zhang
B.Thomas Golisano College of Computing & Information Science
Rochester Institute of Technology, USA
E-mail: yxz4728@rit.edu

INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry is referred to as “the world’s largest industry” (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002, p 1). According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), the tourism industry is a US$3.5 trillion business and contributes 11% to global GDP (1998). Tourism is regarded as an effective means of achieving development; both developed and undeveloped countries make tourism an important element of their economy strategies (Jenkins, 1991). As a result, the tourism industry can positively affect the economy (WTO, 1980).

According to the United Nations World Travel Organization (UNWTO), economic conditions may impact the tourism industry (n. d.). For example, from 1990 to 1993, the recession of Mainland United States caused significant decline of Hawaii’s tourism (Sian et al., 2009). In 1997, the world economic crisis, which began in Asia and spread to the European countries and America, decreased travel demand around the world (Henderson, 2006). Ritchie et al. found that, in North America, the financial crisis that started from 2007 and stretched to 2012, affected the performance of the tourism industry in the United States and Canada (2010). By the first quarter of 2012, the travel demand in the United States dropped 6% over six quarters, and more than 250,000 jobs
were lost in the industry (Ritchie et al, 2010). Meanwhile, the Canadian Tourism Research Institute (CTRI) found that around 10% fewer Canadians planed to travel on holiday than that of the previous year (2009).

The examples abound show that economic conditions and the tourism industry are interrelated (Bodie, Kane and Marcus, 2008). Finding the relationship between the economic indexes and the tourism industry has many benefits: it may provide better references for making future tourism policies. Meanwhile, understanding this relationship may benefit individuals working in the industry, they can use the knowledge to adjust strategies and lower risks.

To understand the relationship between tourism and the economy, as the index of stock price is one of the very important indexes of economic condition (Pearce, 1998), we compared the performances of NASDAQ index with the tourism reports, such as the Total US Travel and Tourism Exports (2002-2011)". We found that the fluctuation of travel and tourism spending has almost the same pattern as the changing of NASDAQ composite index. This positive result also motivates us to go farther in this topic. Many researchers have studied economic relationships by statistics methods, such as regression theory (Chen et al., 1986). But, statistics emphasizes on testing hypothesis, while data mining is discovering secondary knowledge or implicit relationships (Witten et.al. 2011), hence we choose to use data mining methods to dig their relationship deeper.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Do the fluctuations in stock market closely related to the inconsistent performance of the tourism industry?
2. What is the quantitative relation between the fluctuations in stock market and the tourism industry?

LITERATURE REVIEW

The role of stock price in economic growth is increasingly important (Levine & Zervos, 1996). Policy makers and people work in business related industry appreciate it very much, as the stock market always works as a barometer of the business of an industry or economic conditions of a country (Osinubi, 2002). For example, in 2000, the NASDAQ Composite Index peaked at 5408.60, then it decreased more than a half in one year time because of the collapse of Dot-com bubble. Then, when Subprime Mortgage Crisis came, the NASDAQ Composite Index also dropped more than 1000 points, and Dow Jones Indust-
rial Average evaporate around 50% in the same period (Yahoo Finance, 2014a). During these months, as the US economy recovered gradually, the NASDAQ Composite climbed to 4000 points again. Therefore, along with the changing of economic condition, the stock market is fluctuating in the same time (Yahoo Finance, 2014b).

Travel is an expense, and overseas travel is also widely known as a luxury good (Lim, 1997), so the outbound travel demand is much more sensitive to people’s income and the economic conditions (Kim et.al, 2011). In the United States, with the economy’s development, the real outbound travel demand was nearly steadily growing up from 2001 to 2008, but it dropped from 2008 because of the financial crisis’s impacts (Ritchie et.al, 2009). Therefore, the paper aims to understand the relationship between stock price, as an economic index, and the tourism industry.

METHODOLOGY

“Data Mining is a set of methods used in the knowledge discovery process to distinguish previously unknown relationships and patterns with data” (Friedman, 1998, p.1). Association rules and regression are main theories applied to this research. Association Rules offer us a different angle about the relationship between different groups or certain facts. For example, we may find in certain season and when the stock market reaches certain point, the tourism industry may fluctuate dramatically. In addition, other possible data mining techniques that could be used include Classification Rules, Linear Models, Clustering, etc. The Classification Rules help us organize customers or nations into different groups, which we use to depict certain features. Linear Models is a very good prediction tool, which could offer us a quantitative way to measure the impacts of a group of variables. The Clustering techniques could help us find the features of a group of samples, which is more positive, compared to Classification Rules.

In our demo, we used the Association Rules to discover new knowledge from comparing the NASDAQ composite index and the reports: Total US Travel and Tourism Exports (2002-2011).

RESULTS

Rule I: NASDAQ index’s positive performance would lead to a positive travel and tourism exports in next year.
Rule II: The most significant performance in the previous year and the first and third season’s NASDAQ would decide the total travel and tourism exports. In the data set, the accuracy of rule I is 80%, and the accuracy of rule II is 90%. See Table 1 & 2

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In our demo, we find the NASDAQ’s most significant performance in first and third quarter and the performance in the previous always decide the trend of total travel and tourism exports. For example, although NASDAQ increased 21% and 12% respectively in first and third quarter of 2003, it decreased 27% in 2002. The total US travel and tourism exports decreased 4% in 2003. In fact, between 2002 and 2012, the only exception happened in 2008. In 2008, the exports still increased other than decreased, and this may be caused by the business travel increase in Subprime Crisis. In our future work, we will compare them with other stock indexes, such as, Dow Jones Industrial Average and S&P 500. Meanwhile, other macroeconomic indexes, such as CPI and rate of unemployment, should also be considered. Moreover, the time range should also be extended. In addition, whether tourists’ source countries’ stock market’s performance would affect the total US travel spending should also be studied.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like to thank the following people for their help in writing the paper: Professor Dr. Smith, from University of Waterloo, encouraged our research and gave us tremendous support. Our friend, Ms. Amy Greene, gave us useful suggestions and helped us reviewed the paper time and again.
REFERENCES


UNWTO. (n.d.). Retrieved January 1, from http://www2.unwto.org/content/why-tourism


## APPENDIX

Table 1: NASDAQ Composite Index (2001-2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Quarter1</th>
<th>Quarter2</th>
<th>Quarter3</th>
<th>Quarter4</th>
<th>YC</th>
<th>Ratio1</th>
<th>Ratio2</th>
<th>Ratio3</th>
<th>Ratio4</th>
<th>YR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>1840.26</td>
<td>2160.54</td>
<td>1498.80</td>
<td>1950.40</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>17.40%</td>
<td>-30.63%</td>
<td>30.13%</td>
<td>-5.39%</td>
<td>0.28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>1845.35</td>
<td>1463.21</td>
<td>1172.06</td>
<td>1335.51</td>
<td>-504.18</td>
<td>-20.71%</td>
<td>-19.90%</td>
<td>13.95%</td>
<td>0.42%</td>
<td>-27.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>1341.17</td>
<td>1622.80</td>
<td>1786.94</td>
<td>2003.37</td>
<td>653.05</td>
<td>21.00%</td>
<td>10.11%</td>
<td>12.11%</td>
<td>-0.46%</td>
<td>48.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>1994.22</td>
<td>2047.79</td>
<td>1896.84</td>
<td>2175.44</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>2.69%</td>
<td>-7.37%</td>
<td>14.69%</td>
<td>-8.10%</td>
<td>0.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>1999.23</td>
<td>2056.96</td>
<td>2161.69</td>
<td>2205.32</td>
<td>340.56</td>
<td>2.89%</td>
<td>5.09%</td>
<td>2.02%</td>
<td>6.10%</td>
<td>17.03%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>2339.79</td>
<td>2172.09</td>
<td>2258.43</td>
<td>2415.29</td>
<td>81.85</td>
<td>-7.17%</td>
<td>3.97%</td>
<td>6.95%</td>
<td>0.26%</td>
<td>3.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2421.64</td>
<td>2603.23</td>
<td>2701.50</td>
<td>2652.28</td>
<td>-142.54</td>
<td>7.50%</td>
<td>3.77%</td>
<td>-1.82%</td>
<td>-14.07%</td>
<td>-5.89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>2279.10</td>
<td>2292.98</td>
<td>2091.88</td>
<td>1577.03</td>
<td>-750.51</td>
<td>0.61%</td>
<td>-8.77%</td>
<td>-24.61%</td>
<td>-3.07%</td>
<td>-32.93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>1528.59</td>
<td>1835.04</td>
<td>2122.42</td>
<td>2269.15</td>
<td>869.37</td>
<td>20.05%</td>
<td>15.66%</td>
<td>6.91%</td>
<td>5.68%</td>
<td>56.87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>2397.96</td>
<td>2109.24</td>
<td>2368.62</td>
<td>2652.87</td>
<td>383.11</td>
<td>-12.04%</td>
<td>12.30%</td>
<td>12.00%</td>
<td>4.83%</td>
<td>15.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>2781.07</td>
<td>2773.52</td>
<td>2415.40</td>
<td>2605.15</td>
<td>310.50</td>
<td>-0.27%</td>
<td>-12.91%</td>
<td>7.86%</td>
<td>18.67%</td>
<td>11.16%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: YC: Yearly Change, YR: Yearly Ratio, Ratio#: the change ratio in # quarter

Sources: Yahoo Finance, NASDAQ Composite index from 2001 to 2011
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Yearly Quantity</th>
<th>Yearly Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>empty</td>
<td>empty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>83.7</td>
<td>empty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>80.3</td>
<td>-4.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>93.4</td>
<td>16.31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>102.8</td>
<td>10.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>107.8</td>
<td>4.86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>122.5</td>
<td>13.64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>141.4</td>
<td>15.43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>120.3</td>
<td>-14.92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>134.5</td>
<td>11.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>152.7</td>
<td>13.53%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: United States Travel and Tourism Exports, Imports, and the Balance of Trade: from 2001 to 2011
The Effect of Service Quality on Tourism Industry: Evidence from Medical Tourism Areas

Nasser Sanoubar
Faculty of Economics
Management, and Business
University of Tabriz
E-mail: sanoubar@tabrizu.ac.ir

&

Safoura Pourreza
Tabriz University of Medical Sciences(TUMS)
Health Tourism Unite
E-mail:Pourreza.sa@gmail.com

&

Sepideh Ghanbari
Geography and Tourism Planning
University of Tabriz
E-mail:Sepideh.ganbari@gmail.com

&

Masoumeh Adami
University of Tabriz
E-mail:Masoumeh_adami@yahoo.com

INTRODUCTION

Today, tourism is considered as the leading industry in economic development of different countries. Enormous positive economic impacts of this industry particularly its effect on employment and job creation has drawn the attentions of strategists and statesmen of different countries towards planning for developing infrastructures and investments in this sector.

While medical tourism has an important role in exchange technology in many countries and each year European and American countries have 40 to 50 milliard dollars of foreign exchange earnings via medical tourism, this industry
has not found its stand in Iran yet and is just taking the primary steps. In most cases, in addition to receiving medical services, leisure time and vacation are also added to the patient’s health package and the expression “medical tourism” is formed. Undoubtedly, the determining role of the global accepted quality of states in attracting such massive capital of billions of dollars in addition to factors such as low cost of services and qualified physicians and beautiful attractive sceneries should not be overlooked in the meantime. Mc Callum and Jacoby (2007) have identified superior service providers in medical tourism industry. It is quite obvious that tourist attraction ability in health sector and international health markets entirely depends on guaranteed international quality. Providing products and offering high quality services to customers continuously will lead to competitive advantages, increase of customer loyalty, production and distribution of distinct type of products, decrease of marketing cost and setting higher prices for the company.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Customer Satisfaction

Customer satisfaction refers to pleasant or unpleasant feeling of the customer towards the product performance compared to what he expects it to be. Yengfild believes that customer satisfaction is psychologically emotional which is resulted from the comparison of received products and customers needs and demands and social expectations in relation to the product. According to Rup, customer satisfaction is defined as an individual perspective which results from his continuous comparison between real performance of organization and his expected performance.


In order to measure customer satisfaction various models have been introduced (Maleki and Darabi) as the following:

Kano model, Fornell MODEL, Scamper model, SERVQUAL model, and customer satisfaction index model.
Service Quality

Service quality refers to the rate of customer satisfaction with meeting his needs, demands, and expectations which are necessary to distinguish the products and ensure the customer and keep him loyal. The fact that the perceived product quality is becoming the most important factor of competition in business world has made the current era of trade to be called quality era.

METHODOLOGY

Research Hypotheses

To cover the research objective, research hypotheses are presented as the following:

1. The increase of patient-oriented service quality leads to the increase of customer satisfaction in the field of medical tourism.
2. The increase of organization-oriented service quality leads to the increase of customer service in the field of medical tourism.
3. The increase of service quality leads to the increase of customer satisfaction.

Research Method

Descriptive-correlation method is used for the research. The present research is descriptive since it questions and evaluates the desired statistical population in relation to theoretical and practical aspects of quality; on the other hand, it is a correlation research since it investigates the relationship between the research variables through studying the obtained results.

Population and the Sample Size

In this research it has been tired to investigate service quality in the statistical population and its relationship with customer satisfaction using international standard checklists issued by Joint Commission on Accreditation of Health care Organization (JCAHO).

Research population includes the independent variable of Tabriz hospitals which have general conditions, mentioned in law approved by ministry of health, for medical tourist attraction centers and which offer services that are targeted by health tourism market. Therefore, the following private hospitals and medical training centers have been studied:
Amir-Al-Mo‘menin, Imam Reza, Shahid Madani, Nikookari (charity), Shohada (Martyrs). To estimate the number of samples for evaluating customer satisfaction, Cochran formula was used and 196 patients were selected randomly as the sample.

**Data Collection Method and its Reliability and Validity**

This research evaluates patient-oriented and organization-oriented factors with regard to international standard checklist. Customer satisfaction has been evaluated via a standard questionnaire translated into the target group (foreign and domestic patients within the population of available hospitals) which has been designed by means of Likert scale and the date has been analyzed through the analysis of variance.

Cronbach’s alpha coefficient has been used to evaluate the reliability of the questionnaires. The reliability of customer satisfaction questionnaire and service quality questionnaire is 68% and 65.9% respectively both of which are acceptable reliability.

**Data Analysis**

The research data has been analyzed in two levels:

1. Bivariate analysis
2. Multivariate analysis

In order to test the research hypotheses the data have been analyzed by means of SPSS software and through correlation analysis and with regard to the type of research variables which are ordinal the rate of correlation between variables and their types have been identified. The Kruskal-Wallis test has been used to analyze and examine the hypotheses and also Chi-square statistic has been used to analyze research bivariates.

**RESULTS**

**Bivariate Analyses**

First, in order to prioritize the effect of independent variable on each dependent variable of the research, and also to determine the effect of each one of these variables on the main dependent variable (customer satisfaction), Spearman correlation coefficient was determined and by obtaining significant correlation coefficient the effect of variables was prioritized.
Research findings show that the rate of correlation between organization-oriented standards and customer satisfaction is 30%. The rate of correlation between patient-oriented standards and customer satisfaction is 39% and between service quality and customer satisfaction is 30%.

Considering the variables scale and type of their distribution, Kruskal-Wallis test has been used to test the hypotheses.

Table 1. The results of Kruskal-Wallis test for examining the relationship between organization-oriented service, patient-oriented service, service quality, and patients’ satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patients’ satisfaction</th>
<th>Chi-square statistic</th>
<th>Degree of freedom</th>
<th>Asymptotic significance level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.796</td>
<td>Organization-oriented service</td>
<td>9.626</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.626</td>
<td>Patient-oriented service</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.473</td>
<td>Service quality</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research findings

**Multivariable Analyses**

In order to test the overall validity of the research model, regression analysis will be used.

Table 2. The results of regression analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Significance level</th>
<th>Beta value</th>
<th>Standard coefficient</th>
<th>t-statistic</th>
<th>variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.269</td>
<td>.326</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>Organization-oriented standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.328</td>
<td>.816</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>Patient-oriented standards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.378</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>Service quality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Research findings
According to table (2), there is a positive relationship between variables at 0.5% significance level and 95% confidence coefficient so that through the increase of each one of above independent variables, customer satisfaction will increase as dependent variable. The results are consistent with the results obtained by Kruskal-Wallis test. Moreover, Beta coefficients show the rate of the effect of each one of independent variables on dependent variable.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The obtained sig in Kruskal-Wallis test related to the first hypothesis shows that there is a positive relationship between the rate of organization-oriented standards and customer satisfaction.

Considering the obtained significance level and Chi-square statistic the positive relationship between customer satisfaction and standard patient-oriented service has been approved for the second hypothesis and finally the third hypothesis which states that there is a relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction has been confirmed and the positive relationship between them has been proved.

In addition, the results of regression analysis and the value of Beta confirm the abovementioned points, so that among the relationship between customer satisfaction and organization-oriented standards, patient-oriented standards, and service quality the value of obtained Beta is like organization-oriented standards. So that at 1% significance level and confidence correlation of 99% the value of Beta is 38%. Also in bivariate analyses the correlation coefficient of 295 at significance level of 1% approves of the matter. Since the customers and consumers awareness has enhances and all of them are looking for goods and services which guarantee their health in the best way, they will prefer organizations and centers which have the required quality in this regard; therefore, it is quite obvious that having the minimum international standards and developing and implementing necessary measures and strategies for achieving the desired level of global quality more and more, are not only necessary but also quite vital and critical.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to express my sincere gratitude to my project guide Dr Nasser Sanoubar and the Tabriz University of Medical Sciences staff for providing me an oppor-
tunity to do my project. I sincerely thank to my beloved parents for their support, help and for everything.

REFERENCES


Haghkhah, A., & et al. (2011). The impact of service quality on tourism industry. 2nd international conference on business and economic research proceeding, Langkawi Kedah, Malaysia.


The Role of Tourism Infrastructures in Tourist Attraction to Rural Areas

Neda Rezaye  
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran  
E-mail: nedarezaee45@yahoo.com

Maryam Ghasemi  
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran  
E-mail: magh30@um.ac.ir

INTRODUCTION

Tourism, in some past decades is considered as one of the main and most controversial concepts of rural development, because using natural and cultural capabilities existent in rural areas can have an important role in village restoration to life, creating job opportunities and revenue for rural people, taking care of natural, historical, and cultural heritage, and finally in solid and stable rural development (Soteriades, 2009:36). But formation of tourism in rural areas and its development is not possible without “infrastructures and tourism services”, since infrastructures and services along with tourism attractions are accounted for as the main factors forming tourism spatial structure. The existence of beneficial tourism infrastructures in rural areas will provide the tourists with further traveling while responds to their needs. Rural residences on Salehan Dehestan in Markazi province like other rural residences of Iran have various (natural and cultural) tourism attractions but these are not the reason for attracting tourists by themselves and there is a need for appropriate tourism infrastructures. In this relation, knowledge about infrastructures and tourism services can be effective in tourism planning and development. The present study, besides inspecting the tourism infrastructures in four dimensions of health, relation, infrastructure, and service in the villages of Salehan Dehestan, is after studying the effect of tourism infrastructure in attracting tourists to these areas. So the research questions are brought up as follows: Are tourism infrastructures effective in attracting tourists to the under study villages? Which one of the infrast-
ructure dimensions has been more effective in attracting tourists to the under study villages?

LITERATURE REVIEW

By studying the literature of this subject it was found out that various sources have investigated the effective infrastructures in tourist attraction from different dimensions. Sadr Musavi and DakhiliKohanmui (2008) evaluated tourism facilities of AzarbayjanSharghi from the tourists’ viewpoints and give some suggestions for optimum use of the existent tourism capabilities and facilities. Emphasizing the importance of “ethical issues and dilemmas” in tourism, Agheorghiesei, D. T. (2013) notes that there is not enough studies focusing on this aspect of tourism. B Seetanah et.al. (2013), in a study showed the importance of some effective factors in tourism one of which was island infrastructure. This study has taken into consideration the whole background of this research and it is difference from previous studies in this matter that while quantifying the rural tourism infrastructures in four dimensions in separation, it investigates the tourism infrastructures effect on attracting rural tourists and it tries to identify the most effective dimension in attracting rural tourists.

METHODOLOGY

This is a cross-sectional study and analysis unit is “village”. The subjects are all the villages with residents (24 villages) in Salehan Dehestan in Markazi province. Considering all the under study villages, sampling was not done. Data gathering was in track document way. The data related to tourism infrastructures and the average annual tourists was gathered in separation with the questionnaire (in track way). Then using the Technique for Order Preferences by Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS) which is one of the Multi Criteria Decision Making, the tourism infrastructure score was determined for each one of the 24 villages. In the present study 25 tourism infrastructures and services in 4 dimensions of health care, communicational, commercial, and foundational as the tourism infrastructures were investigated as independent variables. Communicational infrastructures have been asphalt access, transmission office, public access to internet, access to public vehicles. “health care” infrastructures has included bath access, health care centers, pharmacy, doctor, dentist, health care assistant. “Commercial” infrastructures have included car repair shop, restaurant, cooperative society, store, bakery, bank and houses for accommodation. And “foundational” infrastructures have included gas station, electricity, gas
plumbing, water plumbing, and water purification system. According to unequal importance of each of these infrastructures, the level of each of them was measured in separation. It should be noted that the scale of the under study variables have been interval and relative. To determine the level of the effect of tourism infrastructures (independent variables) on tourist attraction (dependent variable) Linear Regression and multi-variable Linear Regression in Stepwise method was used in SPSS.

**RESULTS**

To measure and prioritize the infrastructures and tourism services in the under study rural accommodates TOPSIS technique was used. In this technique, a hypothetical alternative is considered as the positive ideal alternative and another hypothetical alternative as negative ideal alternative, and the interval between all the alternatives are calculated by these two. The final alternative must have the least interval from the positive ideal and at the same time the most interval from negative ideal (Poor Taheri 2011: 118). The obtained results in this way in Table 1 (last column) show that Goldasht, Varabad, Khugan, and Aznojan with .99, .52, .44, and .30 respectively have the best facilities and tourism infrastructures. It should be noted that determining the existent infrastructures can be effective in developing tourism.

Table 1: villages of Salehan Dehestan based on research variables and TOPSIS results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>village</th>
<th>population</th>
<th>Number of tourists (dependent variable)</th>
<th>Health care infrastructures</th>
<th>Communicational infrastructures</th>
<th>Foundational infrastructures</th>
<th>Commercial infrastructures</th>
<th>Interval from negative ideal</th>
<th>interval from positive ideal</th>
<th>tourism infrastructures (Independent variable)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goldasht</td>
<td>1873</td>
<td>5000</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>69.417</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varabad</td>
<td>744</td>
<td>4000</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>37.169</td>
<td>33.27</td>
<td>0.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khugan</td>
<td>645</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>33.162</td>
<td>41.78</td>
<td>0.443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aznojan</td>
<td>698</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>23.383</td>
<td>52.30</td>
<td>0.309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mishijanolia</td>
<td>679</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20.285</td>
<td>51.87</td>
<td>0.281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imam</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>5000</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16.628</td>
<td>55.85</td>
<td>0.229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>Area (km²)</td>
<td>Pop. (1000)</td>
<td>Towns</td>
<td>Comm.</td>
<td>Pop. (1000)</td>
<td>Water (1000)</td>
<td>Forest (1000)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>za-dehY ojan</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15.215</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khorra-vand</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.595</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghase-mabad</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.463</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zo-rag-han</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.540</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gha-leYo-jan</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12.010</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mish-jan-Sofla</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.920</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gha-leAfs-har</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hey-darab-ad</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9.500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hos-ey-nab-ad Sadat</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Razan</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7.433</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seye-dabad</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.801</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jafa-rabad</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.801</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Majdi-an</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.576</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vapi-leh</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mah-moo-dabad</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Div-kan</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haji-abad</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.590</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akba-rabad</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: authors
To investigate the level of infrastructures and tourism facilities effects on the number of rural tourists of Salehan Dehestan Linear Regression was used (Table2). According to Adjusted R Square, 58 percent of dependent variable variance (number of tourists) was explained by independent variable (tourism infrastructures).

Table 2: summary of Linear Regression about the effect of tourism infrastructures on the number of tourists in rural areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dimension0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.774</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td>.581</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Predictors: (Constant), tourism infrastructures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: the level of the effect of tourism infrastructures on the number of tourists in rural areas

Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-193.956</td>
<td>306.691</td>
<td>-.632</td>
<td>.534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tourism infrastructures</td>
<td>6061.965</td>
<td>1056.729</td>
<td>.774</td>
<td>5.737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Dependent Variable: the number of tourists</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So the equation of Regression with standard Beta is:

The number of tourists= -193.9+0.774 (tourism infrastructure).

According to t measure and sig<0.05 it can be concluded that the variable under consideration (tourism infrastructure) has significant statistical effect in explaining dependent variable. Also, sig=0 of F in ANOVA means that independent variable can explain the dependent variable well. To investigate the level of the effect of different dimensions of tourism infrastructure on tourist attraction, multi-variable Regression analysis was used. The obtained results showed that only “communicational infrastructures” enter into equation. According to Adjusted R Square which was obtained to be .578, the only entered dimension (communicational infrastructures) in Regression analysis explains 57.8 percent of the effective factors on tourist attraction in rural areas. According to the Reg-

Due to of the limitations of conference, Regression tables are summarized.
ression results and Beta measure (.772) communicational infrastructures are the most effective dimension in tourist attraction in this rural district. So, the Regression equation with standard Beta coefficient is:

The number of tourists = -533 + 0.772 (communicational infrastructure)

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In creating rural tourism, natural and cultural attractions are in the center and all the of the other tourism factors as infrastructures and tourism facilities are beside this center. The present study, aiming at investigating the role of tourism infrastructures in tourist attraction in rural areas of Salehan Dehestan was conducted. According to Adjusted R Square, in Linear Regression, 58 percent of dependent variable variance (tourist attraction) was explained with independent variable (tourism infrastructures). Also, the results of multi-variable regression analysis showed that from four defined dimensions in the research, only communicational infrastructures come into equation. According to Adjusted R Square, in Regression, 57.8 percent of the effective factors in tourist attraction are explained with communicational infrastructures. The obtained results of this study are in line with those of Khadaroo and Seetanah (2008) which emphasizes the importance of transportation in tourism place attraction, and also they are in line with Nilanjan (2012) which was conducted in Bishapoor of India. This study could introduce the most effective infrastructure in increasing the coming tourists in rural areas and based on this study, increase in the number of tourists is dependent on inevitable development of communicational infrastructures.

REFERENCES


Innovative System Indicators for Islamic Tourism
Using C-PEST Factors

Nor’Ain Othman
Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Shah Alam, Selangor, MALAYSIA
E-mail: norain568@salam.uitm.edu.my

&

Norzuwana Sumarjan
Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Shah Alam, Selangor, MALAYSIA
E-mail: norain568@salam.uitm.edu.my

&

Salamiah A. Jamal
Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Shah Alam, Selangor, MALAYSIA
E-mail: norain568@salam.uitm.edu.my

&

Mariam Abdullah
Faculty of Law
Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Shah Alam, Selangor, MALAYSIA

INTRODUCTION
Islamic tourism can be seen from a different perspective as compared to the
conventional tourism such as economic, cultural and religious perspectives.
According to the World Tourism Organization, the Islamic tourism market
provides a wealth of investment opportunities and currently gaining global
popularity. Statistically, Tourism Malaysia reported an increased in the Muslim
arrivals in 2011; nevertheless, the arrival was mainly from Saudi Arabia, United
Arab Emirates and Iran. This indicated that there are many other potential
Muslim tourist markets such as Turkey, OIC countries, Europe, China, Australia,
Russia, USA and South Africa have been unexplored. An exploration of the
C-PEST (Competitive, Political, Economic, Socio-cultural and Technological)
factors that stimulate Islamic tourism to introduce many other Islamic compli-
ance products and services is important before it can be successfully promoted. Failure to address these factors leads to wasted investments. Therefore this study aims to assess the C-PEST factors to understand the current and potential Islamic tourism market in the country. Further analysis will be conducted to investigate the market on their acceptance, expectation, motivation and values towards Islamic tourism. This study is in line with the 10th Malaysia Plan and Tourism National Key Economic Area (NKEA) and the Tourism Transformation Plan aims at attracting high yield tourist markets and contributes significantly to the GDP. The Plan will chart Malaysia’s tourism roadmap whereby in the year 2020 that plan to receive 36 million foreign tourist bringing in foreign revenue of RM168 billion (USD54.3 billion)

LITERATURE REVIEW

The tourism industry is volatile, complex, highly competitive and unforgiving industry. The complexity of this industry requires travel organization to assess the external environment or outside factors that will affect the performance and existence of an organization. Besides the performance of individual businesses and attractions, the environment and community in the country will also contribute to positive travel experience among tourist (Formika and Kothari, 2008). Stability in economic, social and political domain is essential for tourism as severe disturbance and volatility will deter many tourists, investors and the industry of tour operators and travel agents in generating the income of the country. The scenario can be seen after the September 11, 2001 or even the disaster of the tsunami in Phuket, Thailand, Sri Lanka, Acheh that effected the tourism industry in the related countries.

Malaysia is now looking for a new horizon of global tourism and plays a leading role in promoting Islamic tourism (Utusan Malaysia, 2010). The Muslim market is of great significant and the number of Muslim travelers is expected to increase in future as the global population increases and the prosperity in Muslim countries such as Brunei, Indonesia, Malaysia and Singapore (Scott & Jafari, 2010). Most Muslim countries realize the opportunities for tourism development in line with Islamic principles. The study will cover and examine characteristics of demand and supply for Islamic tourism. The former encompasses the demand of Islamic tourism from the domestic and international tourist especially from the top generating Muslim tourist market (Saudi Arabia, UAE) and Iran) and potential markets such Turkey, China, Singapore, Russia and USA. The latter is to identify the product and services provided by tourism businesses such the accommodation provider, travel operators and
travel agencies, transportation and other businesses related to tourism to meet the demand and expectation of Muslim tourists.

Tourism from the Islamic point of view is integrated in the global vision of civilized interdependent tourism whose principal bases are: to respect for noble human values and ethics which preserve human dignity and pride; the respect for the natural and societal environment; enhancement of social solidarity by ensuring local people profit from tourist activities; making effort to give the right of travel to all people by offering services at suitable prices to all the social classes; respect for the families of various religions and various people who want to preserve their values and the education of their children, respect for people who observe Islamic values (Muhammad, 2008; Yusuf, 2009). Tourism strategies need to be formulated to meet the demand of the new Islamic market. Strategic analysis utilizes technique for situational analysis. This involves the reporting on current and future opportunities and threat and the internal strength and weaknesses of the situation. The opportunities and threats summarize the external environmental factors and the key elements are C-PEST factors refers to the Competitive, political, economic, socio-cultural and technological. While the strength and weaknesses analysis summarizes the state of the internal resources of the organization. The study examine other significant destinations for comparative purposes, for example some Muslim countries that are well known in promoting their Islamic heritage as their tourism products to the tourists and some other countries for example Korea and Switzerland are trying to provide ‘halal’ tourism products and services for Muslim tourists from other parts of the world. Thos countries are known as destination that have become part of Islamic routes and are safely accessible for Muslim and non-Muslim tourist.

Demand for Islamic tourism especially in relation to the needs and expectation of Muslim travelers will be carried out by the researcher. The opinions and feedbacks from the domestic and international travelers on the importance of Islamic tourism that includes various components within the tourism industry namely tour packages, accommodation, transportation and food and beverages that are in accordance with the principles and rules of Islam. Islamic tourism can be targeted to both Muslim and on-Muslim market and could be viewed as another of seeking Islamic knowledge. Is there a demand for Islamic tourism and what are the travelers’ opinion and expectation of Islamic travel?
METHODOLOGY

The involvement and participation of the private sectors such as the tour operators, travel agencies, hotels, airlines and restaurants are essential to the success of marketing Islamic tourism in Malaysia. Feedbacks from the supplies are therefore important in the formulation of the Islamic tourism strategies and the implementation of an integrated marketing communication targeted to specific market segment.

- What are the Islamic tourism activities (include goods/products and services) that the travel and tour businesses involved and developed?
- What is the existing level of travel and tour businesses participation in Islamic tourism activities?
- What is the benefits/contribution of Islamic tourism towards the economy, social and cultural aspects of the country?
- What are the challenges and opportunities faced by the tourism and hospitality businesses in practicing Islamic tourism?

The study will be carried out in four phases:

Phase 1- Preliminary Stage

The preliminary stage of the study will identify the related organizations that are involved in Islamic tourism such as the Islamic Tourism Center, Ministry of Tourism. A comprehensive literature review aims as the foundation of the Islamic tourism concept, theory, definition, principles and other information related to Islam and tourism. Sources of information are gathered from the Holy Quran, Hadith, journals tourism reports, books, conference proceeding and other research publications.

Phase 2- Data Collection: Tourism and Tourist Supplier

The data collected in this study are a combination of primary and secondary data. This study uses quantitative and qualitative methods. Field survey conducted with domestic tourists on site and potential tourist at offside selected market that will be approached within the vicinity of their workplace or residency or at international airport. Personal interviews will be conducted with the key informants from travel and tour operators, exhibition and convention centers, hotels and other related tourism agencies. The purpose of the interview
is to identify and examine their involvement in Islamic tourism activities and promotion. This will be further supported by the secondary data.

Phase 3- Analysis and Synthesis

The analysis of the data will carried out using frequency analysis, descriptive analysis, gap analysis, factor analysis, cross-tabulations, correlations, t-test, Anova and regression. There should be indicators used to construct the survey questions and analyze the outcome. The outcomes of the analysis will be extracted by SPSS and the Likert-scale technique is used in obtaining the score value. The final and complete analysis will provide the basis for synthesizing the issues.

RESULT

The study will be completed in 2015 and development of the C-PEST indicator index for the Islamic tourism will assist the government agencies in measuring the values of the potential Islamic tourism market. This is in line with the Tourism National Key Economic Area (NKEA) and the Tourism Transformation Plan that aims at attracting high yield tourist markets and contribute significantly to Malaysia’s tourism roadmap in receiving 36 million foreign tourists and bringing in foreign revenue of USD54.3 billion in 2020

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This research on Islamic tourism is very limited and there are very few Muslim scholars that focused on area of tourism from the Islamic perspectives. The motivation, expectation and value of Muslim travelers are unknown among the academic and tourism practitioners. The significant of the study is the current emergence of new ideas from Islamic intellectual transformation on modern and western models with its emphasis upon the unity of Islamic tourism ideology and theories. Therefore this study will develop new expertise and approaches to establish in the study of tourism from the Islamic perspectives. The main output of the study will be the form of the development of marketing strategic plan-strategy formulation and implementation for Islamic tourism. It is to recommend a system for the development of the knowledge base for Islamic tourism and to introduce the best monitoring system for the indicators of Islamic tourism.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We wish to acknowledge to the Institute Research Management, Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Malaysia and the Ministry Education of Malaysia for supporting this research through the Exploratory Research Grant Scheme (ERGS) from 2012-2015

REFERENCES


The Interpretation and Presentation of Giza Cultural Heritage Site in Egypt

Osama Ibrahim  
Faculty of Tourism & Hotels,  
Fayoum University, Egypt  
E-mail: osa00@fayoum.edu.eg

&

Sally Khalil  
Faculty of Tourism & Hotel  
Fayoum University, Egypt  
E-mail: salsola_27@yahoo.co.uk

INTRODUCTION
Giza Plateau is a part of the World Heritage Site that encompasses Memphis – the ancient Pharaonic capital – and its Necropolis, the Pyramid Fields from Giza to Dahshur, since 1979. It has an immense necropolis full of funerary monuments, including pyramids' complexes and mastabas date back to thousands of years. However, interpretation and presentation of this world-importance heritage site don't meet the international standards; the matter that in turn affects the site conservation.

LITERATURE REVIEW
In its final report, the ICOMOS Charter for the Interpretation and Presentation of Cultural Heritage Sites identified the terms 'Interpretation' and 'Presentation'. It stated that 'Interpretation refers to the full range of potential activities intended to heighten public awareness and enhance understanding of cultural heritage site. These can include print and electronic publications, public lectures, on-site and directly related off-site installations, educational programs, community activities, and ongoing research, training, and evaluation of the interpretation process itself'. It also asserted that 'Presentation more specifically denotes the carefully planned communication of interpretive content through the arrangement of interpretive information, physical access, and interpretive infrastructure at a cultural heritage site. It can be conveyed through a variety of technical means, including, yet not requiring, such ele-
ments as informational panels, museum-type displays, formalized walking tours, lectures and guided tours, and multimedia applications and websites’.

In a word, site interpretation comprises several steps including: the choice of what to preserve, how to preserve it, and how it is to be presented to the public. The (ICOMOS) Charter for the Interpretation and Presentation of Cultural Heritage Sites emphasized the need for clear principles for interpretation and presentation of worldwide heritage sites as essential components of heritage conservation efforts and as a means of enhancing public appreciation and understanding of cultural heritage. This Charter defined seven fundamental principles of Interpretation and Presentation of heritage sites including: I) Access and Understanding; II) Information Sources; III) Attention to Setting and Context; IV) Preservation of Authenticity; V) Planning for Sustainability; VI) Concern for Inclusiveness; and VII) Importance of Research, Training, and Evaluation.

METHODOLOGY

This paper contributes to the sustainable conservation of Giza world-famous Cultural Heritage Site in Egypt, as it aims to evaluate the implementation of these principals in the interpretation and presentation of Giza. To approach this complex phenomenon, decision-oriented evaluation approach underpinned five qualitative data collection methods including documentation, semi-structured interviews and focus groups, was adopted. Documentation analyzes relevant literature on Giza site significance and ICOMOS Charter for the Interpretation and Presentation of Cultural Heritage Sites and its principals. Direct observation conducted by the researchers following a check list with fixed observation notes. Semi-structured interviews gather data from the management levels of Giza cultural heritage site (34 interviews); while other semi-structured interview was conducted with tour guides (22 interviews). Finally, focus groups collect data from local people from horses and camels riders, and pyramids and tombs guards (four focus groups of total 27 participants). Carrying out this variety of methods allows us to compare between the outcomes, enriching discussing results, and ensuring research validity and reliability. The literature review conducted for the purposes of this research project was also instrumental in developing the interview protocols.
RESULTS

Outcomes were then translated, coded and the implications that evaluate the implementation of ICOMOS principals in the interpretation and presentation of Giza have resulted and findings were then discussed. The results provide Giza cultural heritage site managers with a knowledge and value base for making and defending decisions regarding the sustainable conservation of the site through the implementation of the principals of ICOMOS Charter for the Interpretation and Presentation.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The paper identified the managerial problems in terms of the interpretation and the presentation when a UNESCO cultural heritage destination is evaluated.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like to thank Giza heritage site inspectors, tour guides, guards, and local people who were more than generous with us and provided us with required data. We do promise to send a copy of the paper to the Head of Giza cultural heritage site and another one to the Egyptian Minister of Antiquities as soon as it is published.

REFERENCES


Collaboration and Rural Development in Tourism Context: A Conceptual Approach

Parhad Keyim
Department of Geographical and Historical Studies
University of Eastern Finland, Finland
Xinjiang University of Finance and Economics, P.R China
E-mail: keyimu.pahati@uef.fi

INTRODUCTION

Rural economies and societies around the world, whether in developed countries or developing ones, have faced major changes and challenges (Shortall & Shuckmith, 1998; Ashley & Maxwell, 2001; Sharpley, 2007; Saarinen, 2007; OECD, 2006; Gao, 2009). These ongoing phenomena in rural areas have manifested in socioeconomic pitfalls such as the decline in employment and income, deterioration of amenities and services, and endangerment of the ecosystem and landscape. In this context, tourism in rural areas is recognized as a useful development mechanism in terms of its socioeconomic contribution, by creating local incomes and employment, encouraging other local industrial sectorial development, contributing local amenities and services to residents, and aiding local cultural resources conservation (Hall & Jenkins, 1998).

However, an absent or relatively little explored theme in previous studies is the dependence of tourism’s potential benefits in rural areas upon rural development policies and practices (collaboration approach in particular) that have been formulated and implemented in different socio-political settings. More specifically, although the ideal tourism collaboration approach in a rural context emphasizes to increase the socio-economic contribution of tourism to rural areas (Selin & Chavez, 1995; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Bramwell & Sharman 1999; Vernon, Essex, Pinder, & Curry, 2005) through encouraging the non-hierarchical and flexible partnerships among the public, business, community and voluntary sectors, encouraging bottom-up development, and effectively mobilizing the local human, cultural and natural resources, the feasibility and
efficiency of this approach would be depend on the different socio-political settings of rural areas.

COLLABORATION, TOURISM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT: A REVIEW

Collaboration is defined by Gray (1989:227) as ‘a process of joint decision making among key stakeholders of a problem domain about the future of that domain’. The problem domain refers to a situation where the problems are complex and require inter or multi organizational response (Trist, 1983). Stakeholders are the actors with an interest or stake in a common problem or issue and include all individuals, groups or organizations ‘directly influenced by the actions others take to solve a problem’ (Gray, 1989:5). And, the concept of collaboration and/or similar concepts have been frequently applied in the field of tourism, and rural studies (Selin & Chavez, 1995; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Bramwell & Sharman 1999; Murdoch, 2000; Vernon, Essex, Pinder, & Curry, 2005; Graci, 2013).

Two development processes, namely exogenous (top down) and endogenous (bottom up) development, are distinguished for handling with these rural socio-economic pitfalls that illustrated above (Murdoch, 2000). Exogenous development is conceived as a process that rural development is the result of outside forces which including economic market forces and government policy measures. In contrast, endogenous development is conceived as a process in which rural development is the result of local initiatives. But, Murdoch (2000) further argue that due to the shortages of binary thinking of development it needs to consider ‘networks’ (collaboration) approach of rural development which would link together the internal development problems of rural area with the opportunities that are external. The state (the government) needs to redefine its role and to encourage the establishment of institutional architecture that supports cooperation and capacity building within and between governmental and nongovernmental stakeholders. That is to say, in order to solve the pitfalls of marginal rural areas, external rural development agencies (e.g. the government) not only needs to utilize their economic and political resources, but also needs to support the development of ‘soft infrastructure’ such as social capital, trust relations, learning capacities. And, the ‘soft infrastructure’ will only be effectively built by the enrolment of local actors. However, an absent or relatively little explored theme in previous studies is the dependence of tourism’s potential benefits in rural areas upon the ‘collaboration’ approach that have been formulated and implemented in different rural socio-political settings developed and developing countries.
A COLLABORATION PROCESS FOR TOURISM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT: A CONCEPTUAL APPROACH

The theoretical framework for this research draws primarily from Selin and Chavez’s (1995) evolutionary tourism partnership model. They propose that tourism collaboration progresses through five stages: antecedents, problem setting, direction setting, structuring and outcomes. Based on this evolutionary tourism partnership model I have outlined a tourism collaboration approach that would be moderated by differing socio-political settings of rural areas within developed and developing countries (Tab.1).

Table 1. A collaboration process for tourism and rural development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collaboration stages</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Antecedents</strong></td>
<td>• Socio-political settings of rural areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Problem-setting</strong></td>
<td>• Common identification of problem: The changes and challenges in rural areas (problem domain), which is mainly manifested in socio-economic pitfalls such as the decline in employment and income, deterioration of rural amenities and services, and endangerment of rural ecosystem and landscape, must be commonly identified by all rural (tourism) development related stakeholders;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Recognition of interdependence: The multiple stakeholders (e.g. the government, business, community and voluntary sectors) character of tourism industry would require collective action for solving the problem domain that can’t be solved by the single partner;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Involvement of broader stakeholders: The interdependence of stakeholders and the willingness to avoid problems that would emerge during the implementation phase of collaboration requires involvement of broader tourism related stakeholders;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Consensus on legitimate stakeholders (legitimate/skilled convenor): Common agreement within and among stakeholders concerning who has a legitimate stake in the issue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Perceived benefits to stakeholders: Common agreement within stakeholders concerning tourism derived socio-economic benefits to each partner that benefit would outweigh the costs of participation;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Direction-setting</strong></td>
<td>• Goal establishment: Tourism is identified and appreciated as a rural socioeconomic development mechanism within stakeholders;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Ground role establishment: Encouragement of non-hierarchical and flexible alliances partnership among tourism related stakeholders;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Explore options: The multiple interests of the multiple stakeholders need to be considered.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Structuring (Implementation)

- Formalizing relationship (redistribution of power): Select suitable structure for institutionalizing tourism and rural development process;
- Adequate resources to convene and enable collaboration that would be delivered by external and/or internal mandates: Initial investment for local rural capacity building that would be mostly depending on government foundations and resources;
- Monitoring ongoing progress and ensure compliance to collaboration decisions.

Outcomes

- Socioeconomic impacts of tourism towards rural areas: perceived more positive impact than negative impact.

Source: Adapted from Selin & Chavez, 1995: 848; Jamal & Getz, 1995; OECD, 2006;

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Based on Selin and Chavez’s (1995) evolutionary tourism partnership model, which progresses through five stages of antecedents, problem setting, direction setting, structuring, and outcomes, I have outlined a tourism collaboration approach that would be moderated by differing socio-political settings of rural areas within developed and developing countries. According to this framework, tourism collaboration begins with the antecedents that are common to both the developed and developing world: socioeconomic pitfalls that are caused by the changes and challenges in rural areas. Then, the problem setting stage will be initiated through all the rural (tourism) development related stakeholders’ (public, business, community and voluntary sectors) recognition of rural pitfalls. The broader involvement of stakeholders from all sectors is required at this stage in order to combine and utilize the resilience (e.g. knowledge, expertise, and capital resources) of various stakeholders, and to prevent the problems that may appear during the implementation phase of tourism collaboration. After this, the direction-setting phase of collaboration will be introduced through the all rural (tourism) development related stakeholders’ identification and appreciation of tourism as a socioeconomic development mechanism. However, this perceived goal of tourism development in rural areas might be set differently in differing socio-political settings of developed and developing countries (e.g. economy prioritized goal or all inclusive goal). Finally, the structuring phase of tourism collaboration requires the establishment of a broader partnership between governmental and nongovernmental stakeholders on an equal power base in order to advocate the representativeness of stakeholders with different backgrounds. However, the broader stakeholder involvement from all sectors during all the phases of the tourism collaboration approach, especially the involvement of nongovernmental stake-
holders, would be moderated by differing socio-political settings of rural areas within developed and developing countries. This all inclusive tourism collaboration approach would require adequate resources to insure implementation through the provision of external and/or internal mandates (e.g. government investment for community capacity building, and encouragement of ‘bottom-up’ development).

To sum up, the problem setting, direction setting, and structuring phases of collaboration approach in the context of tourism and rural development would be modulated by differing socio-political settings of rural areas with/within developed and developing countries. Thus, the outcomes of tourism collaboration, which would perceive more positive impact than negative impact, would also be modulated by differing socio-political settings of rural areas. This study only tries to investigate tourism collaboration in rural context through a conceptual approach. So, it is worth to conduct empirical research with/within differing socio-political settings of rural areas in developed and developing countries in order to testify the feasibility and efficiency of tourism collaboration in these contexts.

REFERENCES


The Transit Tourists in Hong Kong

Priscilla Chau Min Poon
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong
E-mail: Priscilla.poon2@connect.polyu.hk

&

Bob Mckercher
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong
E-mail: bob.mckercher@polyu.edu.hk

INTRODUCTION

Urban centres are commonly recognised as both the origins of outbound tourists and the destinations for inbound tourists, but are often being neglected their importance as the transit centers. McKercher (2001) remarked that many destinations serve two purposes: one as a main destination for visitors and the other as a secondary or through destination for people on touring trips or traveling to other; and he revealed that through travelers are a significant market, both in terms of total tourist numbers and total tourist expenditures.

This study attempts to investigate the characteristics of a group of transit passengers who took part in Hong Kong Transit Tour to provide insights to the transit passenger segment.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Lieper (1979) conceives the basic model of the Geographical Elements of Tourism (Diagram A). A transit route links the traveller generating region with tourist destination region, along with the tourist travel. This includes stopover points which might be used for convenience or because of the existence of attractions.
McKercher and Lew (2008) studied the movement of people by different itineraries. They found four types of commonalities and features in the itineraries, one of which involves a transit leg area, followed by a circle tour within the destination.

Liasisou (2013) claims that recent developments in the airline industry have given rise to new types of tourists who differ in terms of the ways they devise their own travel itineraries. Hence, the power of transit passengers in breaking a long haul flight in the transit region for visitation becomes an optimistic sign for developing transit passenger segment.

According to Beaver (2002), a transit passenger is a passenger who had disembarked from a mode of transport at an intermediate point, but who will be continuing his journey by a connecting flight. Subject to visa requirement for entry to the country, transit passengers who, during their transit-wait, may choose to go through the arrival immigration controls and enter the city. After visitation outside the airport, the transit passengers re-enter the airport for connecting flight for an onward journey, and they are subject to payment of airport tax.
De-regulation and privatisation in air transportation over the past three decades have led to increasingly globalised hub-and-spoke networks of airports (De Barros et al., 2007). A hub generates a high proportion of transit passengers, the volume of transit passengers itself becomes the indicator of hub activity. Redondi et al. (2012) deliberated that the concentration of transiting traffic represents a tourist market to be tapped. Hence, air transportation hub helps to configure new tourism spaces and transit passengers have become an important market for many airlines and hub airports, as they will make a fair contribution to the transit destination in particular with incremental visitor arrival. However, the transit passenger volume is rarely publicly announced and available for research.

Most of the existing literature is on origin-and-destination passengers that comprise the majority users of the airport and consumers of tourism attractions. To date, very little literature exists on transit tourism and not much research has been done on transit passengers.

**METHODOLOGY**

This study was carried out by analysing a full set of secondary data of passengers of the Hong Kong Transit Tour. The Tour was exclusively operated for transit passengers at the airport; enabling them to have a quick tour of the city before their connecting flights. The tour was offered at a cost to transit passengers who have at least 5 hours of transit time.

Prior to putting the transit passengers on the tour, the tour operator ran a short survey to on passengers’ flight schedules and transit duration. Structured questionnaire was used in the survey. Tour counter staff conducted the face-to-face interview with every transit passengers who paid to join the Tour. The data was compiled as a monthly passenger record of the Tour.

The Hong Kong Transit Tour passenger dataset from April 2011 to March 2012 was used in this study. The large dataset of 3,704 counts were analysed on aggregated and disaggregated levels. Firstly, the traveller generating regions and source market is discussed on an aggregate level. The sample is then divided into market specific: Long Haul and Asian markets. And by further differentiating into two groups, analysis was carried out on passenger characteristics: travel party, transit hours, trip breaking pattern and transit routes.

All the quantitative data were coded and analysed using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) software.
RESULTS

1. Generating regions

80% of transit passengers on the Tour are generated from North America, Europe and Australasia, while 13% from Asian region.

2. Country of residence

The Long Haul markets make up 75% of total tour passengers. USA (32%), Germany (13.6%) and Australia (12.8%) top the list, and it is followed by New Zealand (4.7%), Canada (4.5%), Netherlands (3.7%) and France (3.6)

3. Nationality

The Indians (22%), Americans (21%) Germans (14%) and Australians (11%) top the list.

4. Party size

The travel party size of the all tour passengers ranges from 1-24 persons. Single travelers made up 40% of the total while a travel party of 2 persons made up 38%. It is found that there is significant difference in travel party size between the Asian and Long Haul markets. By conducting an independent sample T-Test, the result is t(414.56)= - 2.49, p<0.029. The mean for Asian market is 1.94 persons or less than 2 persons in the party size while for Long Haul market is 2.23persons or more than 2 persons.

5. Transit duration

The transit-wait time of the tour passengers ranges from a minimum of 6 hours to a maximum of 24 hours. The mean is 12 hours and 07 minutes. It is found that there is a significant difference between the Asian and Long Haul markets in terms of transit duration. The independent sample T-Test shows a result of t(652.1)= -2.69, p<0.000 .

80% of the Transit Tour passengers had more than 10 hours of transit time, which is a very long transit time when compared with the norm of 3 hours in air transport management (www.iata.org). Those with 12 hours or more transit time made up the largest group on the Transit Tour.

Asian passengers had shorter transit time (mean of 11 hours 47 minutes) than those from Long Haul (mean of 12 hours 10 minutes).
6. Taking Transit Tour on outbound or return trip

Both the outbound trip (flying out of place of origin) and return trip (returning to place of origin) produce tourism inflow to the transit destination, but the greater inflow is from the outbound traffic. This is reflected by 74% of the tour passengers taking the Transit Tour on the outbound trip, while the other 36% on the return trip.

A Chi-Square test result of 0.00 shows a significant difference between the Asian and Long Haul markets in breaking long distance trips. The cross tabulation indicates that 80% Asian travellers took the Transit Tour on return trip while 82% of those from Long Haul on outbound trip.

7. The flight pattern

a. Outbound flights (from place of origin)

The analysis shows that 88% of the transit tour passengers arrived by Cathay Pacific (CX), while 11% on Non CX.

b. Connecting flights (at Hong Kong International Airport)

i. 53% of the transit tour passengers was connecting with CX (online transfers), and 34% on non CX (interline transfer).

ii. A Chi-Square test result of 0.00 shows that there is a significant difference between the Asian and Long Haul markets in making transfer connections.

8. Seasonality

There are two peak periods. December holds the highest monthly record of 770 passengers; and the second peak period is in June and July, recording a total of 777 tour passengers in two months. The two peak periods is contributing 47% of the total number of Transit Tour passengers (3,704 passengers) in that year.

In the peak period of December, Asian markets make up the larger share in the total number of Transit Tour passengers. Travellers from India make up 55%; and together with those from the Philippines and Vietnam make up 60% of the period, while Long Haul travellers from Australasia made up 31%. In the second peak period of June and July, Long Haul markets dominate. Travellers from US (44%), Australasia (21%) makes up over 60% for this period, while India accounts for 15%.
9. Transit route

The study reveals that

a) South bound

- Travellers originating from USA and Canada make up the largest group on the transit route from North America to India and South Asia, with 1,333 passengers representing 89% of loading.

- Travellers originating from Europe dominate the transit route from Europe to Australasia and Pacific Islands, known as the Kangaroo route, with 924 passengers representing 81% of loading.

b) North bound

- Travellers originating from Australia make up the largest group on the transit route from Australia and Europe, with 151 passengers representing 98% of loading.

- Travellers originating from India are the largest Asian group on the transit route from South Asia and North America, with 78 passengers representing 46% of the loading.

CONCLUSION

A better understanding of the transit passengers segment will enable transit region to provide more transit activities such as nature tours and museum visits etc. to generate greater total tourist numbers and total tourist expenditures.

Hong Kong’s regional hub position yields transit passengers originating from Long haul markets namely North America, Europe and Australasia. These Long Haul markets are much desired in balancing the tourism market portfolio of Hong Kong, of which 67% was dominated by Mainland visitors (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2011). The extent to which DMO works with airline and airport operator in transit strategy is a new path for balancing the current portfolio.

Lastly, the distinctive spatial pattern of the transit passengers shed light on the multi destination itineraries of the Long Haul and Indian markets. It reveals a new direction for transit regions to collaborate with the destination regions in developing complementary itineraries to grow transit passenger segment.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Vigor Tours of Hong Kong for proving dataset of Hong Kong Transit Tour passengers, without which this study could not have been taken.

REFERENCES


INTRODUCTION

The world is abundant with intangible beauty such as the hidden beauty of nature existing around us, which, besides its spectacular beauty, enjoys a practical aspect, too (Maser, 2006: 16). Today’s world is concerned with diversification of economy. For countries attempting to diversify their economy and strive to put
an end to single-basis economy, one of these factors is tourism industry (Lee, 2008: 21) as a passport to development (Heydari C., 2003:24). It is noteworthy that the tourism industry comprises some key elements on which tourists depend to provide their needs for achieving their general and particular goals in tourist areas. These classified elements are: facilities, hospitality, transportation, and attractions (Fennell, 1385, 27).

Classification of tourism destinations is a criterion for determining centrality and required infrastructure and adjusting disparity among areas (Christopher 2000: 120). In Iran, with the beginning of the first (1989-1993) and second (1994-1999) plans of development, urban tourism began to draw attention in theoretical and practical areas. In addition, in the past few decades, national research on tourism has been conducted based on regional divisions, proposing strategies, and introducing main tourism hubs. National studies are generally theoretical studies proposing strategies and introducing main tourism hubs in the country. Examples of these studies include the comprehensive plan of tourism developed by the Organization of Budget and Planning of Iran. Besides describing the strategies, this plan introduces main tourism hubs of Iran in terms of capacities and infrastructure (Shamaee and Musavand, 2011: 24). Iran’s tourism hubs are determined in different ways. They could be divided based on the type of tourist attractions. If they are determined on the basis of geographical area, all attractions are considered as a whole and the criteria is the number of tourists entering the fundraising place (Muvahhed, 2002: 4).

With respect to the necessity of the present study it should be noted that in order to develop tourism, optimally use the infrastructures, and identify disparities it is necessary to stratify tourism areas. Knowledge of infrastructures and their stratification in terms of areas could lead to better management for tourists. Therefore, it is necessary to maintain harmony between the number of tourists and the capacity of tourism spaces, particularly infrastructures. In addition, with the progress of statistical and computational procedures used in geographical studies, the use of various indices in different areas is the most common criterion for stratifying tourism areas. Therefore, it is necessary to determine and construct a hierarchy of tourism areas which is able to offer a framework to distribute tourists, to offer appropriate services, and to have an appropriate function.

The objective of the present study was to stratify the towns of the province of Mazandaran in terms of tourism infrastructures and to investigate factors effective in attracting urban tourists. Taking into account tourism infrastructure
and its special distribution among the towns of the province of Mazandaran, the study attempts to rank and stratify these towns in terms of tourism. In this way, one can gain an insight into comparative analogy, tourist attraction, and the efficiency of tourism spaces. Moreover, the spatial pattern of tourism infrastructure for balanced development can be designed.

**STUDY AREA**

The province of Mazandaran covers 1.46 percent of the Iranian territory. It is located between the geographical coordinates of 50 degrees, 23 minutes, and 16 seconds and 53 degrees, 13 minutes and 25 seconds of the east longitude; and between 36 degrees, 23 minutes and 13 seconds and 36 degrees, 44 minutes and 52 seconds of the north latitude (Gholamali Fard et al. 2012: 111). According to the results of the latest census of population and housing, the population of Mazandaran province exceeds 3073943, which accounts for about 4.3 percent of the population of the whole country (Public Census of Population and Housing, 2012).

![Figure 1: political position of Mazandaran province (Source: authors)](image-url)
METHODOLOGY

Considering the nature of the subject and research objectives, this study adopted a descriptive-analytical perspective. The population comprises 15 towns in the province of Mazandaran according to the country’s national divisions. The indicators used comprise the number of public accommodations; museums; historical monuments; art, recreational, and entertaining activities; holy shrines; vast green space; access routes; and tourism companies distributed in the town of Mazandaran province. Using VIKOR and SAW models, the study determined how recreational-tourism infrastructure is distributed in the towns of Mazandaran province. Also, the towns have been ranked on the basis of their accessibility to recreational and tourism infrastructure. It is worth noting that one of the main steps in VIKOR and SAW models is weighting the criteria involved in ranking. The study used AHP model to do the weighting.

FINDINGS

This study investigated the accessibility of the towns of Mazandaran province to recreation-tourism infrastructure by using the two VIKOR and SAW models. The following is a brief description of each of the models:

**VIKOR model:** This is a conventional MCDM procedure developed by Opricovic and Tzeng (Wei and Lin, 2008) based on the LP metric method.

This method can provide a minimum value of group utility for the majority and a individual influence for the opposition (Ahadnejad et al., 2013: 174).

**SAW model:** In this model, it is assumed that the exchange rate among the indicators is constant and equal to the unit. Besides, this method is a branch of the multiple relative utility theories. In these techniques, instead of the values of the table, utilities are taken into account (Dadashpoor Omrani and Khalili Bandpey, 2010: 4).

The first stage in the above model is the identification of the number and area of tourism infrastructures for each of the towns of Mazandaran province (Table 1).
Table 1. Indicators used to assess the distribution of recreation-tourism infrastructures in the towns of Mazandaran province

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Towns</th>
<th>Tourist companies</th>
<th>Holy shrines</th>
<th>Access routes</th>
<th>Vast green space</th>
<th>Art activities and entertainment</th>
<th>Historical monuments</th>
<th>Number of public accommodations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amol</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>285.3</td>
<td>1371851</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babol</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>453817</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babolsar</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3200000</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behshahr</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>280453</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tonekabon</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>123.9</td>
<td>1434337</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chalous</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>5406540</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joibar</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>66.4</td>
<td>400000</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramsar</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>119.9</td>
<td>646964</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sari</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>500000</td>
<td>681</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savadkooh</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>854700</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghā’emshahr</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>89.5</td>
<td>570000</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahmoud Abad</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>93.9</td>
<td>510000</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neka</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>103483</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noor</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>206.3</td>
<td>71682</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noshahr</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>236000</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Statistical Yearbook of Mazandaran Province (2012), Statistical Center of Iran

**DETERMINING THE WEIGHT OF CRITERIA**

One of the main stages in the above-mentioned model is weight assessment of the criteria used which serves to express the importance of the relation. In this study, AHP method was used to assign weights to the criteria.
Table 2. Assigning weights to criteria used in the VIKOR and SAW models using AHP model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Tourism companies</th>
<th>Holy shrines</th>
<th>Access routes</th>
<th>Vast green space</th>
<th>Art activities, entertainment</th>
<th>Historical monuments</th>
<th>Museums</th>
<th>Number of public accommodations</th>
<th>sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Weight</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.0223</td>
<td>0.0307</td>
<td>0.0981</td>
<td>0.2345</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.0446</td>
<td>0.3638</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: findings of this research

Afterwards, using VIKOR and SAW models, the towns are ranked in terms of the distribution of recreation-tourism infrastructures. The results are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3. Ranking of the towns of Mazandaran province in terms of the distribution of recreation-tourism infrastructures using VIKOR and SAW models.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Town</th>
<th>Rank in VIKOR</th>
<th>Rank in SAW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amol</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babol</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babolsar</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behshahr</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tonekabon</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chalous</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jouibar</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramsar</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sari</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savadkooh</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gha’emshahr</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahmoud Abad</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neka</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noor</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noshahr</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: findings of this study
Figure 2. Ranking of the towns of Mazandaran province in terms of the distribution of recreation-tourism infrastructures using VIKOR model.
CONCLUSIONS

Today, in many developing countries, as a new policy for development, tourism and activities related to it have received attention by planners and have been employed to prolong the economic viability of the developing countries. One of the main impediments to the development of tourism in Iran is the lack of appropriate tourism infrastructure. For this reason, identification of the infrastructure of tourism development and optimizing them in tourist areas takes priority in all tourism planning activities. Using VIKOR and SAW models and employing the eight criteria of tourism infrastructure, the present study prioritized the towns of Mazandaran province in terms of their accessibility to tourism infrastructure in order to plan the investment priorities in the province towns. The findings demonstrate that the town of Sari has the highest accessibility and the town of Neka has the lowest accessibility to recreation-tourism infrastructure.
According to the findings, it can be said that in order to optimally develop tourism, it is necessary to increase appropriate infrastructure in tourist-attracting areas so that appropriate facilities are provided for tourists.

REFERENCES


Movahhed, A. (2002). Investigating and analyzing the atmosphere of urban development model, the case of the city of Isfahan. Ph.D thesis of geography and urban planning, Supervised by Dr. Hossein Shokooyee, Teacher Training University.


Statistical Center of Iran, Public Census of Population and Housing. 2012.

An Application of VIKOR and SAW Models in Tourism Infrastructures Ranking: Cities of Mazandaran, Iran

Rahim Heydari Chianeh  
Department of Geography & Urban Planning  
University of Tabriz, Tabriz, Iran  
E-mail: rheydari@tabrizu.ac.i  

Ali Zolfi  
Department of Geography & Urban Planning  
University of Zanjan, Iran  
E-mail: alizolfi1365@gmail.com

Shahin Alizadeh Zenuzi  
Department of Geography & Urban Planning  
University of Tabriz, Iran  
E-mail: alizade.shahin1@gmail.com

Davood Eyvazloo  
Department of Geography & Urban Planning  
Shahid Beheshti University, Iran  
E-mail: d.evyazlu@yahoo.com

Hakimeh Imani Tabar  
Geography and Physical Planning  
University of Tabriz, Iran  
E-mail: imanitabar@gmail.com

Bahman Gholiki Milan  
Department of Geography & Urban Planning  
University of Tabriz, Iran  
E-mail: Bahmanmilan68@gmail.com

INTRODUCTION

The world is abundant with intangible beauty such as the hidden beauty of nature existing around us, which, besides its spectacular beauty, enjoys a practical aspect, too (Maser, 2006: 16). Today’s world is concerned with diversification of
economy. For countries attempting to diversify their economy and strive to put an end to single-basis economy, one of these factors is tourism industry (Lee, 2008: 21) as a passport to development (Heydari C., 2003:24). It is noteworthy that the tourism industry comprises some key elements on which tourists depend to provide their needs for achieving their general and particular goals in tourist areas. These classified elements are: facilities, hospitality, transportation, and attractions (Fennell, 1385, 27).

Classification of tourism destinations is a criterion for determining centrality and required infrastructure and adjusting disparity among areas (Christofher, 2000: 120). In Iran, with the beginning of the first (1989-1993) and second (1994-1999) plans of development, urban tourism began to draw attention in theoretical and practical areas. In addition, in the past few decades, national research on tourism has been conducted based on regional divisions, proposing strategies, and introducing main tourism hubs. National studies are generally theoretical studies proposing strategies and introducing main tourism hubs in the country. Examples of these studies include the comprehensive plan of tourism developed by the Organization of Budget and Planning of Iran. Besides describing the strategies, this plan introduces main tourism hubs of Iran in terms of capacities and infrastructure (Shamaee & Musavand, 2011: 24). Iran’s tourism hubs are determined in different ways. They could be divided based on the type of tourist attractions. If they are determined on the basis of geographical area, all attractions are considered as a whole and the criteria is the number of tourists entering the fundraising place (Muvahhed, 2002: 4).

With respect to the necessity of the present study it should be noted that in order to develop tourism, optimally use the infrastructures, and identify disparities it is necessary to stratify tourism areas. Knowledge of infrastructures and their stratification in terms of areas could lead to better management for tourists. Therefore, it is necessary to maintain harmony between the number of tourists and the capacity of tourism spaces, particularly infrastructures. In addition, with the progress of statistical and computational procedures used in geographical studies, the use of various indices in different areas is the most common criterion for stratifying tourism areas. Therefore, it is necessary to determine and construct a hierarchy of tourism areas which is able to offer a framework to distribute tourists, to offer appropriate services, and to have an appropriate function.
The objective of the present study was to stratify the towns of the province of Mazandaran in terms of tourism infrastructures and to investigate factors effective in attracting urban tourists. Taking into account tourism infrastructure and its special distribution among the towns of the province of Mazandaran, the study attempts to rank and stratify these towns in terms of tourism. In this way, one can gain an insight into comparative analogy, tourist attraction, and the efficiency of tourism spaces. Moreover, the spatial pattern of tourism infrastructure for balanced development can be designed.

The province of Mazandaran covers 1.46 percent of the Iranian territory and it is located in north of Iran between the Caspian See and Albourz mountains. According to the results of the latest census of population and housing, the population of Mazandaran province exceeds 3073943, which accounts for about 4.3 percent of the population of the whole country (Public Census of Population and Housing, 2012).

Map 1: Position of Mazandaran Province (Source: Authors)
METHODOLOGY

Present study is based on descriptive-analytical method. The population comprises 15 cities in the province of Mazandaran according to the country’s national divisions. The indicators used comprise the number of public accommodations; museums; historical monuments; art, recreational, and entertaining activities; holy shrines; vast green space; access routes; and tourism companies distributed in the town of Mazandaran province. Using VIKOR and SAW models, the study determined how recreational-tourism infrastructure is distributed in the towns of Mazandaran province. Also, the towns have been ranked on the basis of their accessibility to recreational and tourism infrastructure. It is worth noting that one of the main steps in VIKOR and SAW models is weighting the criteria involved in ranking. The study used AHP model to do the weighting.

RESULTS

This study investigated the accessibility of the towns of Mazandaran province to recreation-tourism infrastructure by using the two VIKOR and SAW models. The following is a brief description of each of the models:

VIKOR Model: The VIKOR (VIsekriterijumsko KOmpromisno Rangiranje) method is a multi-criteria decision making (MCDM) or Multi-criteria decision analysis method. It was originally developed by Serafim Opricovic to solve decision problems with conflicting and non-commensurable (different units) criteria, assuming that compromise is acceptable for conflict resolution, the decision maker wants a solution that is the closest to the ideal, and the alternatives are evaluated according to all established criteria. VIKOR ranks alternatives and determines the solution named compromise that is the closest to the ideal (Wei and Lin, 2008) based on the LP metric method. This method can provide a minimum value of group utility for the majority and a individual influence for the opposition (Ahadnejad et al., 2013: 174).

SAW Model: In this model, it is assumed that the exchange rate among the indicators is constant and equal to the unit. Besides, this method is a branch of the multiple relative utility theories. In these techniques, instead of the values of the table, utilities are taken into account (Dadashpoor and Khalili, 2010:4). The first stage in the above model is the identification of the number and area
of tourism infrastructures for each of the towns of Mazandaran province (Table 1).

Table 1. Evaluation indices of tourism infrastructures distribution in the case study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Towns</th>
<th>Tourist companies</th>
<th>Holy shrines</th>
<th>Access routes</th>
<th>Vast green space</th>
<th>Art activities and entertainment</th>
<th>Historical monuments</th>
<th>Number of public accommodations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amol</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>285.3</td>
<td>1371851</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babol</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>453817</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babolsar</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>3200000</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behshahr</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>280453</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tonekabon</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>123.9</td>
<td>1434337</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chalous</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>5406540</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joibar</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>66.4</td>
<td>400000</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramsar</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>119.9</td>
<td>646964</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sari</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>500000</td>
<td>681</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savadkooh</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>854700</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gha'eshahr</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>89.5</td>
<td>570000</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahmoud Abad</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>93.9</td>
<td>510000</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neka</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>103483</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noor</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>206.3</td>
<td>71682</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noshahr</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>236000</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Statistical Yearbook of Mazandaran Province (2012), Statistical Center of Iran

**Determining the Weight of Criteria**

One of the main stages in the above-mentioned model is weight assessment of the criteria used which serves to express the importance of the relation. In this study, AHP method was used to assign weights to the criteria.

Table 2. Assigning weights to criteria used in the VIKOR and SAW models by AHP model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Tourism companies</th>
<th>Holy shrines</th>
<th>Access routes</th>
<th>Vast green space</th>
<th>Art activities, entertainment</th>
<th>Historical monuments</th>
<th>Mu-seums</th>
<th>Number of public accommodations</th>
<th>sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>weight</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.2345</td>
<td>0.066</td>
<td>0.0446</td>
<td>0.3638</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: research findings
Finally, based on using VIKOR and SAW models, the cities are ranked in terms of the distribution and accessibility in recreation-tourism infrastructures and results are displayed in table 3 and maps No. of 2 and 3 following:

Table 3. Ranking Mazandaran Cities in Accessibility to Tourism Infrastructures by VIKTOR and SAW models.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>town</th>
<th>Rank in VIKOR</th>
<th>Rank in SAW</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amol</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babol</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babolsar</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behshahr</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tonekabon</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chalous</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jouibar</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramsar</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sari</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savadkooh</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gha’emshahr</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mahmoud Abad</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neka</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noor</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noshahr</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: research findings

Map 2. Ranking Mazandaran Cities in Accessibility to Tourism Infrastructures by VIKTOR models.
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Today, in many developing countries, as a new policy for development, tourism and activities related to it have received attention by planners and have been employed to prolong the economic viability of the developing countries. One of the main impediments to the development of tourism in Iran is the lack of appropriate tourism infrastructure. For this reason, identification of the infrastructure of tourism development and optimizing them in tourist areas takes priority in all tourism planning activities. Using VIKOR and SAW models and employing the eight criteria of tourism infrastructure, the present study prioritized the towns of Mazandaran province in terms of their accessibility to tourism infrastructure in order to plan the investment priorities in the province towns. The findings demonstrate that the town of Sari has the highest accessibility and the town of Neka has the lowest accessibility to recreation-tourism infrastructure. According to the findings, it can be said that in order to optimally develop tourism, it is necessary to increase appropriate infrastructure in tourist-attracting areas so that appropriate facilities are provided for tourists.
REFERENCES


Statistical Center of Iran (2012) Public Census of Population and Housing, Tehran

Wei, J. & Lin, X. (2008), The Multiple Attributed Decision-Making VIKOR Method and Its Application, IEEE.
Tourism Policies in Iran and Turkey: A Comparative Study

Rahim Heydari Chianeh
Department of Geography and Urban Planning
University of Tabriz, Iran
E-mail: rheydari@tabrizu.ac.ir
&
Seyedeh Khadijeh Rezatab Azgoumi
Department of Geography and Urban Planning
Islamic Azad University, East Azerbaijan Research & Science Branch, Iran
E-mail: kh_rezatab@tabrizu.ac.ir
&
Behnam Baghbani
Department of Geography and Urban Planning
University of Tabriz, Iran
E-mail: Behnambaghbani@yahoo.com
&
Hamid Hodjati
Department of Geography and Urban Planning
University of Tabriz, Iran
E-mail: hamid.hodjati@yahoo.com

INTRODUCTION

According to the World Tourism Organization forecasts, in 2020 tourism revenue of roughly 1561 billion international tourists to come to America and will become the world’s number one industry (Heydari Chianeh, 2007: 223). According to United Nation World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) figures of every ten jobs in the jobs related to tourism (UNWTO, 2012:11). Accordingly reasons show the impact and importance of tourism. Tourism industry is a very broad category. Its dimensions are very spacious and in an area beyond. Tourism in the area of sciences like anthropology, ecology, economics, geography, history, leisure, urban and regional sciences, management, marketing, political science, psychology, sociology (Graburn & Jafari, 1991:9). Explanatio
and understanding the relationship between economics, politics and tourism in Iran and Turkey is the purpose of paper.

The turnover of the tourism industry in this century, the industrial sector will exceed turnover in the next few years at least will reach $2 trillion. In the process of achieving those countries that are tourist attractions wide, even value as a percentage of turnover in the industry, will make about $20 billion in annual revenue (Noubakht & Pirouz, 2008: 7). But countries for the benefit of the industry and the infrastructure required to implement the industry’s most accurate World Wide or all of the have tremendous importance to the future welfare of the country are aware of it? Some countries are aware of the need to focus on tourism, and some still remain unaware of sleep. Do not know if the tourism industries with the lowest cost, most reliable and most profitable for the country or the region are tourism brings.

**IRAN**

Tourism in Iran has huge potential for growth and development. Iran is one of the most attractive countries to visit. According to the UNESCO research it has been included among 10 top countries regarding historic cultural 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 region. (Baghbani, 2012: 64). Despite the fact that Iran has a Jealousy-provoking position in the world tourism map, but the reality however, proves something else! Its real share is as low as 1/500 of the world markets (Heydari Chianeh, 2003: 218).

**Tourism Before and after the 1979 Revolution** It was the first time in 1935 when the office of the Ministry of Tourism was established in the name of governance. So that the number of foreign tourist visits the country of 241,198 people in 1348 to nearly 680,000 people will mature in 1978. Roughly tripled or nearly 12% growth. The Islamic Revolution in Iran in 1979, following the transformation, some inconsistencies and, unfortunately, some misconceptions regarding tourism categories and most importantly the war, in total disregard of the tourism industry in general and to say it was off the table. Reduce the increasing number of tourists was very clear peak in the late 79’s decline can be traced back to 1982. This year only 68 595 tourist entered Iran on tourist. But
looking to the tourist was thrown over. However dare say given the importance of tourism and profitability that will benefit, and is very low.

Table (1) Tourism Statistic for Iran Investment income and employment in the tourism sector in both 2009 and 2010 and forecasts for 2019 and 2020.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index - Year</th>
<th>2020</th>
<th>2019</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2009</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Revenue from incoming tourists to Iran</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2/4 % of the country's exports 5/1 billion</td>
<td>11/6 % of the country's exports 10/3 billion</td>
<td>2/5 % of the country's exports 2/4 billion</td>
<td>11/7 % of the country's exports 10/3 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Investment levels</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2/8 % of the total investment of $ 7/6 billion</td>
<td>24/3 % of the total investment of $ 4 billion</td>
<td>3/2 % of the total investment of $ 3/4 billion</td>
<td>3/7 % of the total investment of $ 4 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Direct employment rate</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 % of the total employment of 727 thousand jobs</td>
<td>2/6 % of the total employment of 772 thousand jobs</td>
<td>1/6 % of the total employment of 594 thousand jobs</td>
<td>8/3 % of the total employment of 598 thousand jobs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Closely related policy issues with an emphasis on tourism to international tourism through development programs and economic, social and cultural Islamic Republic from 1989 until now: **Tourism purposes in the First Development Plan (1989-1993)** Reform and reconstruction of tourism facilities and tourist attract capacity, increase the number of inbound tourists and business destinations in 318 thousand 450 million dollars over five years in exchange programs.

**Tourism purposes in the Second Development Plan (1995-1999)** Focus on the planning and policy Affairs and Tourism, encouraging the private sector to invest, develop and strengthen the promotion; establishment of training centers for tourism cooperation agreement with the Development Fund UN renovated residential facility improvements needed by him and the pilgrims. Funds intended for the program was approximately 100 million dollars. Budget compared with the importance of this industry seems to be very unfortunate.

**Tourism purposes in the Third Development Plan (2000-2004)** Give priority to the private sector and the public sector to prevent unprincipled race, knowing First tourist countries and planned to attract tourists to the country, creating a culture of tourism among the people, the granting of facilities for tourism development and it's the beginning of the program in 1379, about 47 thousand people were directly employed in the tourism sector (Heydari Chianeh, 2003: 267).
Tourism purposes in the Fourth Development Plan (2005-2009) Accelerating the growth of the tourism industry as one of the advantages of employment in order to achieve first place in the economic, scientific and technological area in Southwest Asia, expanded and constructive interaction of the world, land use planning.

Tourism purposes in the Fifth Development Plan (2011-2014) Strategy and facilitate cultural and tourist centers, NGOs, development, museums, tourism, rural development and tourism, pilgrimage towns optimal use of capacity strengthening currency fluctuations insurance to compensate for losses disadvantaged sectors of the tourism organization promoting competitiveness and consequently attracts tourists from around the countries, Advantage of economic opportunities in order to attract foreign Iranian investors.

Review Program This program than previous programs (in terms of tourism) has developed a somewhat more realistic and reasonable. However in many cases it is also generally viewed as if no matter how the program is operating. Example, the maximum use of natural resources and tourism motto seems excellent, but the strategy has been developed achieving this goal? In Iran tourism policies are rarely based on tourism nature and its current patterns and these policies are mostly affected by cultural, social and especially Iran's unique political economy (Heydari C. and Rezatab A. 2012, 456).

Turkey

The attention of authorities and effective policy formulation in tourism, tourism is one of the fastest growing and most dynamic sectors of the Turkish economy has become. Inbound tourism to Turkey in 2008, from 2.1 million in 1985 increased to 26.3 million. Turkey’s tourism ranked seventh and ninth in total foreign tourist destination in the world in terms of revenue from tourism development. In 2012, about 32 million tourists from Turkey and the warm beaches of the Mediterranean are seeing. Turkey’s tourism revenue in 2012 is equivalent to $ 23 billion. But how this was achieved tremendous progress? This is undoubtedly due to the development of policies that continue to be addressed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>Unit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1000 people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17517</td>
<td>21124</td>
<td>19820</td>
<td>3433</td>
<td>26337</td>
<td>International Tourist Arrivals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1000 people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 main market</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>4416</td>
<td>4150</td>
<td>3762</td>
<td>4244</td>
<td>3984</td>
<td>1000 people</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (2) most tourists entering Turkey and recites (2004-2008)
<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 2879   | 2465   | 1853   | 1864   | 1605   | 1000 people | *Belgium*
| 2170   | 1916   | 1679   | 1758   | 1388   | 1000 people | *France*
| 1142   | 1054   | 998    | 1254   | 1191   | 1000 people | *Netherlands*
| 885    | 768    | 658    | 701    | 549    | 1000 people | *England*
| 21951  | 18478  | 16853  | 18152  | 15888  | US$ Millions | *Recites*
| 3013   | 2169   | 1668   | 1570 Million $ | - | US$ Millions | *Income transport tourists*

Source: Zargham and Shalbafian (2009)

**Turkish Tourism Policy: Structure and Finance** More than four decades, the issue of Turkey’s tourism seriously in terms of its five-year development plans. Tourism Policy and Planning major draw is organized by the State Planning and the Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Turkey responsible for the implementation of this program. Allocated to the Ministry of Tourism indicates a serious interest in tourism and its importance to the Turkish authorities. Tourism in Turkey is tremendously important funding. In 2008, the total budget of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Turkey’s tourism amounted to about 400 million euros.

But the most important thing is going to be mentioned are the effective policies in Turkey. Tourism Encouragement Act of 1982, as revised and amended in 2003, the most important law in this regard. Turkey paid special attention to the cultural cities and tourists are able to clear with rich cultural and historical heritage, which is very effective role in encouraging Turkey to become familiar with their trip, as well as to travel to Turkey to encourage other countrymen. Famous phrase is common in the travel industry that the most effective advertising in each country and a tourist attraction that visitors already have done.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

The role and importance of the tourism industry today unmatched by any authorities not covered. Few developing countries such as Turkey like developing countries are leaving the country in Step and confidently step forward left and right. Some countries, like Iran, despite having a natural endowments and rich cultural heritage and historical monuments in the world are unmatched, as is necessary and appropriate. However, despite the bright prospects for a bright future in the tourism industry in Turkey and Iran, nature, history and spirit of
hospitality Iranians are a very strong attraction that tourists from all over the world are attracted to.

REFERENCES


Noubakht, Mohammad Bagher and Elham Pirouz (2008), Tourism development in Iran: Obstacles and Solutions, Tehran Islamic Azad University, Research & Science Pub.


An Analysis of Tabriz Urban Tourism Development: With an Emphasis on Market Segmentation

Rasul Afsari  
Department of Urban Planning  
University of Tehran, Iran  
E-mail: afsari1369@yahoo.com

Hossein Sadlounia  
Department of Geography and Planning  
University of Tabriz, Iran  
E-mail: hosseinsadlou1@yahoo.com

INTRODUCTION

The tourism phenomenon and activities associated with is considered not only as recreation but also as one of most profitable economic sector in the world which is identified as a" Industry ".tourism is a service industry which require a wide range of jobs which as a multiform activity launches diverse economic activities and generating foreign currency earning (Heydari Chianeh, 2009:40). Market segmentation is a first and most crucial step in marketing that is considered one of most important sector of tourism which is applied by different countries .market segmentation is one of steps would increase the number of tourists and developing associated activity with tourism.

In compliance of tourists every society has certain issues that what country comes from, what kind of cultural traits - behavior, attitudes, tastes and expectations has and where he considered visiting the places (Hosseinzadeh, 1996:27)market segmentation by answering to above questions providing practical advantage of the what result is. The classification theory of market , targeting and positioning occupies big portion of marketing researches .classification of market is the first and the most necessary step which means all market divide to identifiable and separated sections based on clearly defined characters( Lumsden, 2001:101).
However there are indexes and principles in the market segmentation which should be considered. And principles should be chosen in a way to be obeying because the profitability of segmentation is in obeying principles. Otherwise segmentation would be such a wasting of resources (Gholizadeh, 2003:20). Tourism as a phenomenon with plentiful profitability along with development of communication and technology stand in position which is worthy to be called as an industry. and tourism is considered not only as a recreation but also is an industry that like other industries needs to have tools ,therefore in order to be developed needs researches.(Hamidizadeh & Fazeli, 2003:108). However in order to reduce high cost of marketing and explaining of the structure of market, this researches considering crucial (Heydari Chianeh and Hosseinzadeh Dalir, 2003:26).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism refers to activities happening in the process of traveling of a tourist. This process includes any activities such as travel planning, traveling to destination, getting back and reminding of memories .this includes activities that tourist doing as a part of his trip like purchasing different goods. Any activities and interactions that take place during a tourist trip could be seen tourism (Lumsden, 2001, 16). Marketing segmentation is the process of segmenting of the market based on needs and characteristics. Because clients of sections have the same needs and desires; answering to a level of marketing and especial product (Golchin Forobakhtayi, 2006:78). Segmentation which is taken from micro economy theories; is considered one of modern fundamental subjects was presented by Adam Smith in the journal of Marketing. Indeed, he acknowledges the existence of heterogeneity in product and service demand and look for a heterogeneous market as a number of smaller homogeneous markets, in response to customer preferences to determine (Mortazavi et al., 2009:128).

METHODOLOGY

This paper study the topic of segmentation of tourists market input to Tabriz metropolis .actually this research try to recognize the best method to segmentation of urban tourism market and its position in life cycle of tourism destination .afterward with using of SWOT model attempt to study the case study's strengths, Weaknesses, opportunities and threats .and finally try to offer proposes to develop its tourism.
Hypothesis: according to the statuesque of Tabriz and its potential, the method of tourism market segmentation is appropriate.

First question: according to statuesque and potential of Tabriz where is the position of Tabriz in tourism industry?
Second question: according to the goals what is the best method to segmentation of Tabriz tourism market? And what are the weakness, strengths, opportunities and threats of Tabriz tourism market?

RESULTS

Populations of tourists which have traveled to Tabriz were 54 persons (%73) male and 20 persons (%27) female. The age status of statistical population who traveled to Tabriz is 5 persons(%7) under 20 years ,the majority category with 40 persons(%50)belongs to20-30,15 persons(%20)30-40 years old,6 persons (%8) 40-50 and 8 people (%10) was in 50-60 category .the majority of tourist who belongs to 20-30 category indicating youngster of Tabriz tourist population. By study on the tourists come to Tabriz were clear that 32 persons (43 percent)were single and 42 persons(57 percent)were married. Statistical population traveled to 1 persons(1 percent) had elementary education 9 persons with high school degree and 29 persons (39 percent) with diploma and associate’s degree ,28 persons(38 percent) with bachelor’s degree and 7 persons (10 percent )were with master’s degree or higher. Educational aspect of tourist came to Tabriz represent that 24 persons (32 percent) were employed in private sector , 19 persons (26 percent) civil servant ,5 persons (7 percent) unemployed, 13 persons student, 2 persons(3 percent)retiree, 4persons (5 percent) housekeeper and 7 persons (9 percent) is belonged to other jobs. Recognizing and prioritizing strategic factors of Tabriz tourism with using of SWOT model. SWOT model could be impacted by different factors in the diverse subjects and places. This factors is categorized by two factors: internal factors, external factors

Internal factors:
strengths:
- existence of diverse and unique tourist attractions in this area such as: different ecotourism attractions, unique historical manmade attractions (blue mosque, fire tower, the great bazar…)
- accessibility to transportation facilities like air, road and rail transportation
- desirable climate in different seasons especially in spring and summer
- having talent to being invested in its tourism
• having high level of hospitality
• attention of educated people to region’s tourism
• having ancient civilization background and establishment of different dynasties in the Tabriz city
• existence of diverse handcraft especially distinctive carpet industry
• Weaknesses
• not being known real capability of this city. Sometimes were forgotten
• there are some weaknesses in providing facilities to tourists
  - The lack of private sector investment in tourism
  - Destruction and damage to valuable historical monuments
• insufficient
• inadequacy of tourist facilities and infrastructure
  - The lack of coordination in the field of tourism
  - Inadequacy of advertisement to attract tourist

External factors
Opportunities
  having capability of being diverted to an tourist pole of Iran and region
  • creating employment and revenue in the area
  • increasing local revenue
  • industrial products and accessibility to attractions like ski track
  • Threats
    - Multiplicity of decision making centers and unsustainable tourism sector management
  - environmental threats
    - Lack of proper and systematic research in the field of tourism and capabilities of area
  • lack of supportive institution of tourism and its major

. Due to the rated internal factors, the most important and dominant strengths are:
  1. existence of ecotourism and manmade attraction
  2. having talent to being invested
  3. existence of high level of hospitality
  4. attention of educated people to tourism

And the most important weaknesses of the region’s tourism include:
  5. lack of private sector’s investment
  6. The lack of coordination in the field of tourism
  7. Inadequacy of advertisement to attract tourist
  8. weaknesses in providing facilities
Based on the rating of the external factors the most important opportunities are:

- creating employment and revenue in the area
- investment in tourism field
- capability of being pole of tourism
  - increasing local revenue
- And threats that would affect the area’s tourism include:
  - Multiplicity of decision making centers
- environmental threats

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Accordingly there are two ways to segmentation of market. The first way concentrates on behavior of tourists and the second one on their individuality. The first way is associated with prejudice. The second method is based on different behavioral methods of tourists to positioning of Tabriz tourism as a tourism destination in the evolitional process at first the index associated with steps were extracted and the statuesque of Tabriz were analyzed by the field study. Tabriz should be considered as a tourism pole to have good position. Given the different interests and passengers needs meet their needs as a first step in marketing segmentation must be seriously considered. Most of tourist countries have accepted market segmentation as a base of marketing plans and development of tourism that this strategy should be accepted by Tabriz managers. Most of tourists come to Tabriz have not inhabited in hotels. on the other hand the number of health tourists are high but the tourism plans don’t care about needs of tourists. Using of the concept of life cycle is the other proposal of this research. The best tool to planning is to access to update statistical .and updating tourist statistical could be helpful to develop tourism. Other destinations have used the ways which Tabriz needs to them .using the others countries experiences would be helpful.

REFERENCES

Doswel, R .W (2005).translated by Seyed mohammad Arabi, tourism management, third print, Tehran, office of cultural research,


Lumsden, L. (2001). Tourism Marketing, translated by Ebrahim Gohariyan, first print, office of cultural studies, Tehran, Iran


Football Fans in the Emerging EU: Profile of Spectators of 2012 UEFA EURO Cup

Risto Rasku  
JAMK University of Applied Sciences  
School of Business and Services Management / Sport Business School Finland  
E-mail: risto.rasku@jamk.fi

&

Kari Puronaho  
Sport Business School Finland / Vierumaki Unit  
Haaga-Helia University of Applied Sciences, Finland  
E-mail: kari.puronaho@haaga-helia.fi

&

Noni Zaharia  
School of Sport and Exercise Science – Sport Administration  
University of Northern Colorado, USA.  
E-mail: noni.zaharia@unco.edu

&

Douglas Michele Turco  
Business and Information Management Division  
Neumann University, USA  
E-mail: turcod@neumann.edu

&

Serkan Berber  
Department of Sport Management  
Anadolu University, Turkey  
E-mail: serkanberber82@gmail.com

&

Cem Tinaz  
School of Applied Sciences – Department of Sport Management  
Okan University, Turkey  
E-mail: cem.tinaz@okan.edu.tr
INTRODUCTION

The UEFA EURO Cup is one of the world’s largest sport events, attracting thousands of international spectators and millions of fans through various electronic mediums. The most recent edition was a 16-nation tournament held 8 June to 1 July 2012. The tournament took place in four Ukrainian cities: Kiev, Lviv, Donetsk and Kharkov, and four Polish cities: Warsaw, Gdansk, Wroclaw and Poznan. EURO 2012 represented a significant capital investment for the host countries. In Poland, infrastructure spending associated with EURO 2012 amounted to €25.6bn, the lion’s share of which (€15bn) was connected with infrastructure development, according to the Polish Ministry of Sport and Tourism Master Plan. Poland built or modernized four soccer stadiums for the event. In the hotel sector, 1,300 branded rooms were added during the 2009-2012 period. Overall, infrastructure projects added around 1.5% to the Polish Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Over 1.44 million people attended the matches in the EURO 2012 stadiums, representing 98.6% of total capacity, and an average of 46,471 spectators per match. The largest single attendance was 64,640 fans at the Olympic Stadium in Kyiv for the match between Sweden and England (UEFA, 2012). Moreover, UEFA reported total attendance of 260,000 at its official fan park in Gdansk, Plac Zebrań Ludowych.

It is a mild understatement to declare that Europeans are passionate about football. The FIFA World Cup and UEFA EURO Cup are high-profile events with widespread visibility and economic gains, at least to a few of their stakeholders. According to Puronaho (2011), there have been more than 235 accepted football-related abstracts and presentations (i.e., football mentioned in the title) during the European Association for Sport Management (EASM) conference period of 1993-2010, which means more than 13 abstracts and presentations per year. Furthermore, the trend has been increasing.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Several studies have profiled sport tourists at a range of events, from the Olympic Games to major automobile, yacht, and horse races (Cashman, 2003; Burns, Hatch & Mules, 1986; Soutar & McLeod, 1993; Rooney, 1988). These events have tended to be held in developed countries (e.g., England, Spain, Australia, United States, etc.). Few studies have examined sport tourists at mega-events in emerging European Union (EU) countries for the simple reason that few mega-events have been hosted in these countries the past quarter century. The purpose of this study was to profile visitors to the 2012 Union of Eu-
The European Football Associations (UEFA) EURO Cup, co-hosted by Poland and Ukraine. The main aspects under examination were demographic and geographic profiles of the visitors, travel behaviors and spending patterns including accommodation types, factors influencing decision to attend the event, and previous attendance/visitation.

**METHODOLOGY**

The survey procedures and questionnaire were a combination of questions from EURO 2008 hosted by Austria and Switzerland (Preuss & Schütte, 2008) and the 2010 World Cup from South Africa, with some additional questions related to services and recommendations based on other sport consumer behavior studies. Questionnaires were available in Polish, Ukrainian, English, Spanish, and Russian languages. The survey was conducted personally by the researchers and consisted of sub-samples collected in Gdansk, Lviv, and Kyiv. The data were collected using a systematic multi-stage cluster sampling approach. On each chosen match day, researchers were positioned at strategic locations adjacent to the stadium, within the official Fan Zone, or public areas.

A total of 1,573 individuals participated in the study. One hundred and eight surveys were disqualified due to incomplete information, resulting in 1,465 usable surveys. The threat of non-response bias was addressed by comparing characteristics of the respondents with known characteristics of the population. Comparisons were made on various demographic variables, including age, socioeconomic status, and gender as well as past experience with this type of sport event (Preuss, Siller, Zehrer, Schütte, & Stickdorn, 2010). Results of these comparisons indicated no significant differences between the obtained sample and the event population. All statistical analyses were executed in Webropol 2.0, an online survey and analysis software system, and SPSS 21.0. The study included descriptive statistics, regression analyses, hierarchical clustering, Sammon mapping, and pertinent diagnostics (scatters, residual plots, collinearity). Statistical significance was assessed at the $\alpha = 0.05$ probability level.

**RESULTS**

The largest percentage of spectators from the sample were from Poland (22.5%, $n = 329$), followed by Irish supporters (19.8%, $n = 290$), Spanish supporters (11.3%, $n = 165$), German supporters (10.1%, $n = 148$) and supporters from non-European countries (7.5%, $n = 110$). Foreign supporters (i.e., not from Poland and Ukraine) comprised more than three quarters of the sample (75.2%, $n =$
More than eighty-percent of survey respondents were male (80.5%, n = 1180); 19.5% (n = 285) were female. The average age of the survey subjects was approximately 31 years old (M = 31.3, SD = 9.39) and they travelled, on average, with 4.4 other persons. Approximately eight percent of EURO2012 spectators attended the 2010 World Cup in South Africa (8.3%, n = 122), and 14.5% of EURO2012 spectators also attended the EURO2008 (n = 213). In addition, more than 12% of the total respondents were a relative or a close friend to a football player at the EURO2012 (12.60%, n = 185).

A total of €6,833,270 was spent by spectators across all seven categories of expenditures (food and beverage, tickets, transportation, accommodation, souvenirs, shopping, and other expenditures). Moreover, the three EURO2012 host cities in this study had the following spectator spending breakdown: Gdansk, Poland: €1,870,726 (M = €1,963), Kiev, Ukraine: €4,153,150 (M = €13,019), and Lviv, Ukraine: €809,394 (M = €4,194). Dutch supporters spent the most per capita, trailed by the fans from outside of Europe. Almost 20% of the total spending was incurred by supporters from other European countries (19.8%), followed closely by fans originating from non-European countries (17.6%) and the supporters from Spain (17.4%).

The average stay in EURO2012 host cities by foreign spectators was more than six nights (M = 6.11, SD = 5.65). Most supporters preferred to rent an apartment/flat (n = 371), instead of staying at a hotel (n = 348) or camping (n = 182). Furthermore, the EURO2012® fans visited the special-made EURO2012® fan parks almost four times, on average, during their stay (M = 3.81, SD = 4.89).

Spectator net monthly income was evenly distributed, with those earning 1500 – 2249 € per month comprising 20.80% of the respondents (n = 304), while those with incomes of 2250 – 4499 € per month (19.1%, n = 280), under 500 € per month (15.4%, n = 226), between 3000 – 4499 € per month (14.2%, n = 208), between 1000 – 1499 € per month (13.3%, n = 195), between 500 – 999 € per month (9.4%, n = 138), and of more than 4500 € per month (7.8%, n = 114) followed. Furthermore, football fans present in the stands at EURO2012 were highly educated, with the biggest percentage of them (45.9%, n = 673) holding a university degree.

A four-point Likert-type scale was used to determine the variable of spectators interest in football (1 – ‘I am not interested in football but sometimes attend or watch it because my family or friends are interested’, 2 – ‘I am not particularly interested in football, but might enjoy seeing a match live somewhere’, 3 – ‘I am interested in football and watch it when I can’, 4 – ‘I am a passionate
fan of football, and always try to attend the matches or watch them on TV’). The majority of the questioned spectators were passionate about football (56.5%, n = 828) and interested in football (30.1%, n = 441).

With regard to age, the older the spectator, the higher his/her tendency to highly recommend a host city as a holiday destination. German supporters were more likely to recommend a host city than fans who were not from Germany. On the same note, spectators from outside Europe were more likely to recommend a host city than fans who were from Europe. In addition, international fans who had only a high school diploma were less likely to recommend a EURO2012 city than the supporters who at least had attended university course. Furthermore, international fans who visited Gdansk and who were present in the stands for one of the matches were more likely to recommend this host city than their counterparts who visited Ukraine for the EURO2012.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The relatively lower costs of goods and services in Poland and Ukraine may partially explain the record attendance figures for EURO 2012 reported by UEFA. Further, the pessimistic black cloud hanging over fans from financially distressed countries may have spurred their "feel-good" spending during the tournament. Future research on the EURO Cup will further compare and contrast the spectator consumption in Poland to Ukraine, as well as EURO Cup 2008, 2012, and 2016 consumer behaviors.

REFERENCES


Annual Conference, Montreal, Quebec, Canada, June 19-23, 1988. (pp. 93-99). Bureau of Economic and Business Research, University of Utah.


From the Pallet to the Bed - The Development of the Hotel Industry in Krakow in the XIX and the Beginning of XX Century

Robert Pawlusiński
Department of Tourism and Health Resort Management
Institute of Geography and Spatial Management
Jagiellonian University, Poland
E-mail: robert.pawlusinski@uj.edu.pl

Magdalena Kubal
Department of Tourism and Health Resort Management
Institute of Geography and Spatial Management
Jagiellonian University, Poland
E-mail: magdalena.kubal@uj.edu.pl

INTRODUCTION

Krakow has long tourism traditions. The city, as the former Polish capital has, since medieval times, been an important political, cultural, and religious centre, and therefore - a destination of many different social groups from Poland and abroad (Pawlusiński, Kubal 2011). The tourist development of the city on a large scale began in the mid-nineteenth century (Warszyńska 1992). At that time independent Poland did not exist, because for 123 years (1795-1918) it remained under the control of the three neighbouring forces: Habsburg monarchy, Russia, Prussia. Political freedoms within the Habsburg monarchy (to which Kraków officially belonged) contributed significantly to the city's cultural revival and the rebirth of the Polish tradition. City in the mid-nineteenth century was the target of patriotic arrivals and became the centre of Polish culture, the so-called "Spiritual capital of the country." Poles scattered throughout the area of the three partitions, made sentimental travels to the former capital, the burial place of Polish kings. The city became famous for numerous museums, theatre and patriotic initiatives, focusing on stimulating national consciousness. Krakow obtained a connection with the railway system of Prussia (1847) and Vienna and Warsaw, which resulted in rapid artistic and cultural revival of Krakow.
The growing importance of Krakow as the tourist destination has also brought changes in its hospitality sector. The old taverns, which form the basis of accommodation of the city, began to be transformed into hotels - some of them exist today, operating not only as the accommodation, but also as a historical monument of Krakow’s hospitality industry. There has been a great development - not only quantitative, but also qualitative – in the city: clearly differentiating districts, around which grew rich hotels for rich clientele, and neighbourhoods with taverns for merchants and traders. Although the outbreak of World War I slowed the development of tourism, up to the outbreak of World War II in 1939, the city was the most visited tourist destination in the country. Every year Krakow was visited by about 125 thousand tourists, of which about 6 thousand foreigners (Warszyńska 1996).

In the XX century, the city of Krakow grew into a tourist resort of international fame, attracting mass tourism. Currently Krakow is visited by about 9 million tourists, of which 28% are foreigners.

The complicated political situation in the XIX century and the beginning of XX century, the lack of statistical reporting prevents the correct diagnosis of shaping the hotel and catering industry in Krakow, in this first period of the tourist development of the city. The authors attempt to answer the questions - how the hospitality industry developed during this period, where did it concentrate, how did the hospitality offer expanded, as well as what was the nature of the competition between owners. Due to the limited availability of statistical information on the state of development of the service industry, the starting materials for the study were: guide books, diaries, calendars and newspapers; the latter proved a particularly rich source with a column entitled "Chronicle of Cracow".

LITERATURE REVIEW

Geographical studies attempt to exploit new sources of information, especially about the evolution of social and economic phenomena in geographical space in a historical context. For example, the landscape researchers analyzed the records contained in painting, literature, film (Bański, 2011). This brought new developments to the research on cultural landscape (e.g. in Kaufnam, 2004, Orłowska, 2002) and the natural environment or the space in which man lives and works. Tourist guide books were also used as the source of information in historical research in the field of tourism geography; their closer investigation allowed to gain deeper knowledge of the spaces and places explored by tour-
ists. Interesting facts were concluded by Towner (1996) in a publication: *An historical geography of recreation and tourism in the western World*. The local press, especially the part relating to advertisements and a list of entities operating in the city, was less frequently used in geographical research.

The research on the history of tourism in Krakow, especially on its early phase, is scarce. There are many more sources concerning the period after the WWII, and present times. Nevertheless there are still some rare sources that covered these topics, for example Warszyńska (1968, 1992, 1996), Kuźniarski (2001), Pawlusiński and Kubal (2011). The developments of Krakow’s hotel base have been included in volumes devoted to the general history of Krakow (Bieniarzówna and Małecki, 1979, 1984, 1997).

**METHODOLOGY**

In this paper the authors follow in the footsteps of geography researchers using the text as their source of analysis: newspaper ads, advertising, chronicles events of social, political and scientific utility. These texts often provide not only geographical information but also more complex knowledge of the social structure or differences in spatial characteristics of the regions. In addition to the advertising function, they also tell us about the city and therefore provide a particularly interesting documentation of the geographical space. Classified newspaper ads from archive newspapers have particular value because they can facilitate the analysis and comparison of the state of geographical space and Krakow’s hospitality industry at the turn of the century. It should be noted that this methodological choices are not consistent with the assumptions of mainstream cultural geography, which refers to newspaper advertisements not as an object of study, but as a source of information and knowledge in geographical research.

The study used mainly local newspapers issued in this period in Krakow. It is the only source of information, which in addition to tourist guide books (appearing irregularly) provides an overview of the status of the city in such a long period of time. So far, no scientific studies on tourism in Krakow have been made, based on the local press.

We analyzed the contents of the daily newspaper: “Czas” [The Time](daily; years 1848-1939), „Djabel” [The Devil] (1869, 1871- 1906 and from 1911) and “Chwila” [The Moment] (preserved only selected numbers from the years 1863 and 1864). In the search for sources of information we read about 30 500 copies of the starting material from which the selection of information and press ads
was made. Tested ads and print ads, appearing in local Krakow’s newspapers in the years 1848-1939 have a different shape and volume. For the geographer it is important that this message contains information about the location, which, in many cases, is read not by the address but colourful description of the location. Through the examination of announcements and advertisements for more than 90 years, we were able to reproduce not only the direct location of the object, but changes of location, the owners, the profile of provided services and the economic and spatial transformations of hospitality industry in Krakow.

RESULTS

The consulted empirical material demonstrated that since the mid-nineteenth century, there have been significant changes in Krakow hotel industry. How did the changes look like? First, by the mid-nineteenth century a network of taverns rapidly developed in the city. These were houses of relatively low quality, mostly wooden, offering only modest accommodation, food and shelter for horses, possessing limited capacity of reception area, allowing accommodation for up to ten people each. Interestingly, there are two zones of concentration of these objects - within the medieval city (the Market Square and the main roads, at the gates of the city), and outside the old city walls - especially in the area of Kleparz which was then a separate city and served as trade and economic area. Location of taverns on Kleparz also stemmed from the old tradition of closing the gates at night, which functioned at the beginning of the XIX century. Hence, those who came to Krakow after dusk could spend the night only on Kleparz. In the mid-nineteenth century, some of the taverns in the center began to transform to hotels, with a higher standard and greater capacity. The oldest hotels are: Hotel pod Białą Różą (1799), Pod Różą (1801), hotel Saski (1812), hotel Drezdeński (1814). All of these hotels have started their activities as taverns. In 1850, in Krakow there were 13 hotels and up 167 taverns. The entire city complex had a population more than 30 thousand residents.

However by the late XIX century there was a drastic decrease in the number of taverns, especially in area of the medieval city. They were replaced by the hotel facilities. In the early years of the XX century, in Krakow there was about 20 hotels and only a few taverns, especially in the area of Kleparz. At the turn of the XIX and early XX century there was a number of coffee houses and cafes, which reflected the influences of Habsburg monarchy, and mirrored the character of the city of Vienna. These facilities were located mainly in the old town, especially in the hotels. From the very beginning, these cafes were the meeting place of the local bohemian artists. Overall in the early XX century worked in
Kraków several catering facilities: cafes, many of which got high reputation and a rich artistic program. It is worth to mention that the development of Krakow’s hospitality industry was closely associated with Vienna - one of the leading hotels in Krakow was ruled by a member of the Sacher family from Vienna. After the end of WWI, Krakow’s hotel industry experienced a period of collapse, which was associated with the global economic crisis. In 1927 in Krakow were less than 10 accommodation facilities with a total capacity of 500 beds. After 1935, however, Krakow experienced a revival. What is interesting: new hotels were formed not so dynamically as the facilities for social tourism. In 1939 in Kraków were 16 hotels and B & Bs (700 beds) and a couple of large accommodation facilities for youth and tourism group (a total of over 1000 beds). The area where these facilities were located expanded a lot in the 30s of XX century.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Interpretation of newspaper ads provided a unique opportunity to gain extensive knowledge of the spatial structure of cities, their neighbourhoods and individual buildings, stages of districts development and economic restructuring. The content, which mainly provides historical facts, is a form of recording location in the geographic space in the past and provides factual information. The thorough investigation of many of these facts and their correct interpretation, combined with visualization (e.g. map), enables a broader view of social relations, business methods, and a greater knowledge of the problems of development of individual human activity in the city from the turn of the century.

REFERENCES


The Value Effects of Changes in Leverage on Stock Returns: Evidence from the Travel & Leisure Sector

Roberta Adami  
Westminster Business School  
University of Westminster, United Kingdom  
E-mail: R.Adami@westminster.ac.uk

&

Tugba Bas  
Westminster Business School  
University of Westminster, United Kingdom  
E-mail: T.Bas@westminster.ac.uk

&

Orla Gough  
Westminster Business School  
University of Westminster, United Kingdom  
E-mail: gougho@westminster.ac.uk

&

Gulnur Muradoglu  
School of Business and Management  
Queen Mary University of London, United Kingdom  
E-mail: y.g.muradoglu@qmul.ac.uk

&

Sheeja Sivaprasad  
Westminster Business School  
University of Westminster, United Kingdom  
E-mail: S.Sivaprasad@westminster.ac.uk

&

Stefan Van Dellen  
Westminster Business School  
University of Westminster, United Kingdom  
E-mail: S.Vandellen@westminster.ac.uk
INTRODUCTION

The primary aim of this paper is to examine whether changes in financial leverage are value relevant in the Travel and Leisure sector. This is particularly important as it is well documented that the Travel and Leisure sector is capital intensive when compared to other industries (Muradoglu and Sivaprasad, 2014). This is a result of the fact that companies in this sector require a relatively high level of capital for their fixed asset components. These components often include airplanes (for the airline companies), buildings, operating systems, furniture, and restaurant equipment where the acquisition of these assets ordinarily involves the securing of external finance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The degree of leverage plays a key role in determining a firm’s performance (Decloure and Dickens, 2005; Mandelker and Rhee, 1984). Proposition II in the seminal paper by Modigliani and Miller (1958) argues that the expected yield on a share is equal to the sum of the appropriate capitalisation ratio and a financial risk premium which is related to the debt-equity ratio. This would imply that share returns should increase as the level of leverage increases as compensation for the increased level of risk attached to debt. This proposition has been a source of academic debate in that while Hamada (1972), among others, support this proposition, in that they also find that returns increase with the level of leverage, a stream of academic literature, including Dimitrov and Jain (2008), finds that returns decrease with an increase in the level of leverage. This being said, one thing that the academics do agree upon is that the level of leverage can explain returns.

When examining this leverage-return relationship it is essential that one takes into account the nature of sector due to differences in the financing needs of different sectors. This is highlighted by Arditti (1967) and Muradoglu and Sivaprasad (2012) who argue that the true nature of this relation can only be determined by testing it within industries as financing needs differ between sectors. This sector-specific aspect of this relationship is particularly important when examining this in the Travel and Leisure sector given that this sector is particularly capital intensive (Muradoglu and Sivaprasad, 2014; Lee and Jang, 2007) and is highly reliant on external financing to fund activities (BHA Report, 2010). Indeed, previous studies find that leverage is an important risk factor that particularly affects the Travel and Leisure sector (Borde (1998; Gu and Kim, 2002; Kim, et al., 2007; Lee and Jang, 2007), among others). Examining the
impact of the degree of leverage on cumulative average abnormal returns (CAARs) for hospitality firms in the UK, Muradoglu and Sivaprasad (2014) find that CAARs are highest when investing in medium leverage companies.

This study extends the extant literature by examining whether changes in financial leverage are value relevant in the Travel and Leisure sector. While examining the leverage-return relationship, Dimitrov and Jain (2008), further argue that stock returns not only depended on the current level of leverage but also changes in leverage, hence as a firm changed its level of leverage, this would result in a change in the associated returns. This followed the theoretical work of Myers (1984) and Miller and Rock (1985) who hypothesised that changes in financial leverage contain economic performance and are therefore value-relevant. As discussed above, the fact that we are examining these value effects in a particular sector is crucial in that if the analysis of value relevance is conducted across a cross section of all firms, any findings may be misleading given the differences in capital structures between industries. As an example, the capital structure of financial companies, such as banks and insurance companies, are very different to those for non-financial firms. This is incredibly relevant in that Dimitrov and Jain (2008) utilised a sample comprised of all firms listed on the New York Stock Exchange (NYSE), American Stock Exchange (AMEX) and National Association of Securities Dealers Automated Quotations stock markets and therefore did not differentiate by sector.

METHODOLOGY

The source of our data is Bloomberg. All listed firms on the American Stock Exchange classified under the leisure sector and travel sector are selected for the period 2000–2013. This study begins with 325 firms. We exclude the firms if they do not have leverage and stock prices. Also the firms with over a hundred percent leverage ratio are excluded from the sample. Our final sample has a total of 158 firms and 11,355 observations. The stock returns for each company are estimated monthly, using the percentage change in consecutive closing prices adjusted for dividends, splits and rights issues (Fama, Fisher, Jensen and Roll, 1969).

The leverage of a company (expressed as a percentage) represents the total debt to total financing of the firm and is defined as:

\[
\text{Leverage} = \frac{\text{Long–term Debt} + \text{Short–term debt}}{\text{Total capital} + \text{Long–term debt} + \text{Short–term debt}}
\] (1)
This study uses book value rather than market value of leverage since the book value ratio of total debt to total financing is the relevant measure of cash flows to the firm over which management has discretion making decisions regarding capital structure (Schwartz, 1959). The measurement is also consistent with other authors (Rajan and Zingales, 1995). Change in leverage is measured as the difference between ending and beginning leverage for that month (Dimitrov and Jain, 2008). Firm size is calculated taking the logarithm of market capitalization. Market-to-book is the firm’s share price divided by its book value. We also include effective tax rate and risk. Effective tax rate is rate tax paid divided by earnings before tax. We follow the same argument with Lasfer (1995) and include effective tax rate since it includes all allowances and reliefs proposed by a tax system and will exclude all measurement errors and bias resulting from the use of proxies for tax.

We run the first set of regressions examining if changes in leverage have an impact on returns as follows:

$$R_{t,i} = \alpha + \beta_1 ChgLeverage_{i,t} + \varepsilon_t$$

(2)

We use OLS panel estimator with fixed effects.

Stock returns can be influenced by other variables. We add other firm characteristics such as size, price-to-book, tax and market risk.

$$R_{i,t} = \alpha + \beta_1 ChgLeverage_{i,t} + \beta_2 Size_{i,t} + \beta_3 MB_{i,t} + \beta_4 Tax_{i,t} + \beta_5 Risk_{i,t} + \varepsilon_t$$

(3)

It is well documented that the two factors of Fama and French, namely, SMB for size and HML for distress and Carhart’s (1997) momentum factors have an important influence on variation in stock returns. Thus as our second robustness test we examine these three additional factors when estimating the relation between leverage and stock returns of these firms in the travel and hospitality sector.

$$R_t = \alpha + \beta_1 ChgLeverage_t + \beta_2 SMB_t + \beta_3 HML_t + \beta_4 MOMENTS_t + \varepsilon_t$$

(4)

**RESULTS**

Table 1 presents our preliminary results. Column 1 shows the regression outcome for the impact of change in leverage on stock returns. Our preliminary
findings indicate that leverage has no explanatory power on returns. We find a negative but insignificant relationship between change in leverage and returns. When we add other firm characteristics shown in Column 2, we observe the same inverse and insignificant relation. When we apply Fama-French plus Carhart four factor model presented in Table 1 column 3, we confirm that level of leverage do not affect the stock returns.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>0.0154</td>
<td>0.0891</td>
<td>1.3160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(11.30)**</td>
<td>(11.04)**</td>
<td>(9.39)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leverage</td>
<td>-0.0217</td>
<td>-0.0207</td>
<td>-0.0260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-1.28)</td>
<td>(-1.23)</td>
<td>(-1.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>-0.0040</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-6.13)**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MB</td>
<td>0.0120</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(8.10)**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax</td>
<td>-0.0114</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-2.64)**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMB</td>
<td>0.1643</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2.68)**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HML</td>
<td>0.4509</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(6.58)**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moments</td>
<td>-15.8992</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(-4.02)**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*t-statistics for all coefficients estimates are in parenthesis. *p<0.1, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01

We divide our sample into 5 according to the firms’ leverage. Table 2 presents the results for low levered to high-levered firms. We confirm that level of leverage has no impact on stock returns for the firms in quintiles 1-4. However, for highly levered firms (quintile 5) we observe a negative relation between change in leverage and stock returns. Therefore, returns decrease with an increase in the level of leverage for the highly levered firms in the Travel and Leisure sector.

Table 2
**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

This paper investigates the effect of leverage on stock returns in the Travel and Leisure sector. Our preliminary findings indicate that leverage has explanatory power on returns only for highly levered firms. Since Travel and Leisure sector is capital intensive, firms can use these assets as collateral to find external financing. However, when their debt level reach at a certain level, the bankruptcy risk rises therefore, stock returns decreases. Hence, changes in leverage become value relevant for high leverage firms in Travel and Leisure sector.

**REFERENCES**


Muradoglu, Y. G., & Sivaprasad, S. (2014). The impact of leverage on stock returns in the hospitality sector: Evidence from the UK. *Tourism Analysis, (Forthcoming).*


Competitiveness of Tourist Destinations and Brazilian Strategy

Rosana Mazaro  
Tourism Postgraduate Program  
Rio Grande do Norte Federal University, Brazil  
E-mail: rosanamazaro@uol.com.br

Carlos Alberto Medeiros  
Tourism Postgraduate Program  
Rio Grande do Norte Federal University, Brazil  
E-mail: carlosalberto@digi.com.br

INTRODUCTION

Competitiveness seems to be the most frequently term in studies on the performance and conditions of tourism within the destination, is the level of a country, region or locality. More than a fashionism or euphemism, to understand the foundations and conditions of competitiveness in the current context is imperative for those with pretensions destinations for tourism development in accordance with international references (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003).

For Brazil, subject to the competitive imperatives highlighted by many insightful studies that explored issues such as the impact on the tourism industry and opportunities for increasing the sector's competitiveness, the long-term scenario is favourable. The history of tourism in Brazil is fairly recent. During the long military dictatorship, travel was treated as a national security issue and the focus was on controlling the movement of people. With the transition to democracy, accompanied by open markets and socioeconomic restructuring, travel and leisure became public policy, and individuals were able to use their free time as they saw fit.
Since the turn of this century the country has adopted a new economic development model that includes mechanisms to improve income distribution and job opportunities, favouring the inclusion of millions of Brazilians in the so-called consumer society. As a result, Brazil possesses a positive set of economic and social indicators conducive to accelerated growth. It has reduced its dependence on external financing and today the country is less vulnerable to international crises than before. In recent years, it has substantially increased its participation in international commerce, accumulating record balance-of-payment surpluses.

This favorable performance allowed for the accumulation of unprecedented levels of international reserves, transforming the country from a debtor to a creditor nation. Considering that growth in tourism is closely related to economic growth, and given the current stability and perspective for expanded economic activity, it can be inferred that this is a strategic moment for Brazil, filled with new tourism opportunities.

The National Tourism Plan - NTP 2003-2007 represents a mark of political modernity in the field of tourism. This plan arose from a maturing process in terms of the central government’s approach to the sector, initiated at the end of the last century and consisting of the first formal document that establishes guidelines for its development and a definitive strategy for tourism-related issues.

The NTP is being implemented in the different regions of the country, supported by a decentralized coordination structure and action management, given Brazil’s large land mass and in accordance with the perspective that decisions must be made by the destinations themselves, where tourist activities actually take place. The structure and organization of domestic tourism encourages cooperation and participation between different government sectors and the private sector as well as a host of institutions representing civil society, making the National Tourism Council (NTC) responsible for planning.

The Brazilian strategy for structuring competition in tourism by means of management training and for regional and local governance demonstrates the correct form of transferring technology and power to destinations and controlling the process of tourism development, thereby enhancing the resources and attractions of each place or region.
The current organizational flowchart of tourism in Brazil is depicted in Figure 1:

![Figure 1: Tourism's Decentralized Management](source: Mtur)

However, perhaps the most important and significant gap in the implementation of the program is between diagnosis of destination conditions and poor implementation on the part of local management of strategic objectives committed to high levels of competitiveness. The fragility and lack of management, in some cases, shows the chronic situation at Brazilian tourism destinations. The country exhibits a number of cases where the concept of efficiency and effectiveness predominates in the municipal management of regular population flows rather than in the management of tourism flows themselves. Tourism management often refers to the administration of cities and towns, tangible places where tourism actually materialises.

If we analyze the NTP under the criteria and principles of strategic planning (Tribe, 2010) and tourism sustainability, it is immediately apparent that this is essentially a political document and that, although it has the undeniable merit of being in printed format, representing a more formal and professional management approach to tourism in the country, it displays a number of inadequacies and inconsistencies that can compromise its effectiveness.

The National Tourism Plan – NTP 2007-2010 continues programs initiated in 2003 and expresses its priority direction in its title (A Voyage of Inclusion). It re-
inforces and widens its application as a planning and management instrument that characterizes tourism as an engine for development and a generator of employment and income in the country. This inclusion can be achieved in two ways: production through the creation of jobs and income and consumption, by attracting new tourists to the internal market.

The NTP is structured into macro programs directed to large tourism intervention areas. Each one is subdivided into programs dedicated to specific topics within each policy dimension. For purposes of this analysis, it is necessary to focus on macro program regionalisation, which considers strategies with a direct impact on the competitiveness of Destination Brazil, especially regarding the structuring of hundreds of destinations in all the regions of the country.

Its main objectives are to promote the development and decentralization of tourist activities, support planning and structuring of tourist regions, considering cultural plurality and natural diversity, encourage tourism-related production, adding value to tourist products and strengthening their competitiveness. Tourism regionalization implemented by the Tourism Regionalization Program – Brazilian Itineraries – proposes:

The structuring, organization and diversification of tourist products based on the National Tourism Plan. It consists on a decentralized, coordinated and integrated public policy management model based on principles of flexibility, implementation, mobilization, intersectional and interinstitutional cooperation and joint decision making, as the guiding strategy of other NTP macro programs and actions” (MTur, 2006:36).

Incorporated into this NTP version as a tourist program for macro regionalization, the proposal is distinguished by segmentation as a strategy to organize tourism for planning and management purposes, with the aim of conceiving products, itineraries and destinations that reflect the peculiarities and specificities of each region, emphasizing Brazilian characteristics.

The Tourism Regionalization Program mapped 200 tourist regions in the 27 Brazilian states through a project carried out in conjunction with State Tourism Organs and Forums. The policy of municipalizing tourism management was adopted before the implementation of the NTP in its current form, but it indicated the path that subsequent proposals would follow: the focus on destina-
tions. This can be considered one of the main challenges for tourism policy in Brazil, because of its dimension, diversity and large number of municipalities with more than 5000 inhabitants. Of these, more than 3000 identified themselves as tourist destinations in a survey taken in 1998. The first significant challenge was to find criteria to establish priorities in a universe of important questions and how to select priority destinations to implement policy.

To emphasized the importance of this strategy, the specific and priority goal of NTP 2003-2007 is the structuring of the 65 tourist destinations with international quality standards, the so-called Inducer Destinations. This action must be based on the principle of environmental, socio-cultural and economic sustainability working in a participative, decentralized and systemic way to stimulate the integration and consequent organization and expansion of tourist products. The Map 1 show the Inducer Destinations by region.
The strategic focus of the project consists of instituting a management system in the action plans of the 65 tourism-inducing destinations, qualifying local stakeholders to strengthen local management and expand knowledge of strategic planning. This will create a working network that maintains a constant and efficient exchange of information aimed at accelerating planning, execution and monitoring processes. This work will also determine the ability of local managers, who will receive technical support from a group of national administrators to structure and execute plans that guide competitiveness actions.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The first is inconsistency between stated objectives and the time horizon, since 4 years is not enough to change the tourism scenario in a country the size of Brazil. This was demonstrated when it did not reach the goal of expanding participation in international tourism in 2003-2007 NTP, a deficiency that was exacerbated in NTP 2007-2010. The social aspect of the plan indicates that Brazilians should be the main beneficiaries of tourist development in the country. To that end, domestic and rural tourism has increased to generate economies of scale and widen the participation of Brazilian families in tourism. It can be observed that NTP 2007-2010 expands and strengthens the internal market, with special emphasis on the social function of tourism. This is a central aspect of tourism policy in Brazil, since it is based on and justified by its mega geographic and demographic dimensions and focuses on the potential for both supply and demand.

However, the social character stated in their guidelines is not sufficient to generate actions actually committed to Brazilians or to promote the distribution of benefits through economies of scale. Brazil does not have defined incentive mechanisms or control over activities at destinations, to ensure compliance of social proposals and more inclusive tourism. The social aspect seems to have been wrongly interpreted, stimulating flow in the internal market mainly through funding programs for specific segments, such as seniors, students, among others.

In fact, in recent years, the number of Brazilians from economic Classes C and D travelling by plane for the first time has grown exponentially. This indicates that these changes drive the economy in many small towns. However, it is thought that, in addition to demand, this would require inclusion as the foundation of tourism plans for these localities and social inclusion programs
through the provision of tourist destinations. This distortion has increased the flow of travelers, allowing the establishment of monopoly operators and exposing the serious problems of general infrastructure in tourist locations.

Another important gap is between proposed sustainable development of biodiversity and effective measures that guarantee preservation, subsequently taking advantage of this distinctive heritage as a differentiated tourist attraction. The evaluation of T&TCI 2013 (WEF 2013) clearly demonstrates loss of tourism competitiveness in the country, due to poor urban infrastructure in terms of mobility, sanitation, waste treatment and disposal, security, town planning, leisure and appropriate conditions for the exercise of citizenship.

This means that our problems and gaps in competitive tourism are reflections of the appalling conditions found in tourist, such as is found in the Northeast region of the country, considered an important potential for tourism that attracts much of the Brazil’s national and international flow. The problems related to basic infrastructure at destinations are related to municipal management, a responsibility not adequately assumed by municipalities.

These competitive deficiencies, even though the NTP still bases its founding principles on the Regionalization Program, whose priority is to empower destinations for tourism management, have produced poor results in the preparation and transfer of management technologies to destinations.

REFERENCES


Biodiversity Conservation and Ecotourism in Semen Mountains National Park, Ethiopia

S.C. Rai* & Behalu Tadessi
Department of Geography
Delhi School of Economics
University of Delhi
Delhi-110007
E-mail: raisc1958@rediffmail.com

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is one of the most rapidly expanding sectors within the world’s largest and fastest growing industry and emerging as a growing sector of economic development. Yet tourism, by the nature of the activities involved, is constrained by the natural resource base and infrastructure, and by the pollution and other environmental and social impacts of tourist numbers (Brown et al., 1997). Large volume international tourism is primarily a phenomenon of the last fifty years, and global mass tourism to developing counties, has developed on a large scale in the last few decades. Tourism is now considered one of the world’s largest industries with in an annual outlay of over USD 3.5 trillion outputs, i.e., 6% of world GDP (McLaren, 1993). Over the last three decades, there has been growing debate on the effects of tourism in developing countries. Mass tourism has recently inflicted adverse impact on environment of mountain areas (Pawson et al., 1985; Zuric, 1992 and Rai and Sundriyal, 1997). There has been a growing interest over the past two decades on eco-tourism with emphasis in conservation of biodiversity and cultural heritage, which attract a majority of tourists. Tourism is one of the fastest growing industries in Ethiopia, and nature reserves are becoming visiting hotspots for tourists because of their intact ecosystems and beautiful landscape.
THE STUDY AREA

Ethiopia is located between approximately 3° 15' N and 33° 48' E. It has 1,104,300 km² total areas with 78,986,000 population as of 2005. It has several high mountains, the highest of which is Ras Dashen/Ras Dejen/ at 4620m. The Semen (also: Simien, Semien or Simen) Mountains are located in the North of Ethiopia, in the Gonder (also: Gondar) Administrative Region, 110 km NE of the town of Gondar. It extends in between 13° 11' N to 38° 04' E. The Semen Mountains National Park belongs to the world heritage sites and part of a high mountain massif in North-West Ethiopia. The Semen Mountains conservation area consists of about 400 km² proposed buffer zone and 190 km² National park and counts among the most biologically diverse areas in the world.

RESULTS

Biodiversity Status

The Semen Mountains National Park, a U.N. World Heritage Site in North Ethiopia (Gondar Administrative region), is rich mosaic pattern of different habitats, which promotes species richness and high biodiversity. The Semen lowlands, primarily harboring Afro Montana vegetation, are richest in species, whereas the Afro Alpine belt—although the most spectacular part of the mountains is the poorest. Erica forests of the escarpments and some of the plateau areas are also rather species poor. In general, species diversity decreases with increasing altitude. At present, approximately 550 taxa of angiosperms are recorded.

The forest cover of the park is about 11% of its total geographical area. Major portion of the area still covered with primary forests, though they are under threat of depletion due to various biotic and abiotic factors. The vegetation of Semen Mountains National Park is classified into four types. Distribution of these tree species is influenced by climate, topography and elevation (Table 1). To protect the habitats and the biodiversity of the country, the Ethiopian Government has already declared nine national parks and six wildlife sanctuaries as protected areas, accounting for 1.82% of its total geographical land area. The Semen Mountain National Park was established in 1969 by the Government of Ethiopia, and is considered to be one of the most important protected areas in Ethiopia. The park was declared ‘World Heritage Site” by UNESCO in 1978. The area is frequently visited by good number of tourists.
Tourism Growth

The beauty of the Semen Mountains massive, unique flora and fauna and spectacular landscapes makes the SMNP an attractive tourist destination. From 1974-1977 there were 100-200 visitors recorded per year (Hurni, 1986). From 1977 to 1980, visitors remained few due to another political problem and even from 1980-1985 visitors remained few and mostly made short visits by vehicle around Sanksber camp site located approximately 38km north-east of the district Debark. Trekking tourism through the park was confined to group travel and periods of 3-5 days. Since 1992 tourist arrivals have increased. This figure shows that the tourist arrivals in 1991 amounted to 54 individuals. In 1992, the number of tourist’s arrival dramatically increased by 237% compared to 1991. Though the 1993 and 1994 tourist arrivals moderately increased, but after 1995 tourist arrivals increased significantly because of (i) Government willingness to ease visa requirement, (ii) Peace and stability in the area, (iii) The government free market policy, and (iv) The improvement of the communication network.

As tourist arrivals increased since 1992, the estimated revenue for the year 1992 was 3,582 Ethiopian Birr (Ethiopian currency), and it is grew to 9,729 in the year 1993, and further to 226,435 Ethiopian Birr in 1997. In the year 2002 from the total of 2652 international tourists those visited the SMNP, collected 848,640 Ethiopian Birr, comparing that of 1997, there is an increment by 641 tourists and 622,205 Ethiopian Birrs. In year (2007), it was recorded that 658 domestic and 6333 foreign tourists, while in the year (2008), 950 domestic and 6500 international tourists visited the SMNP. The Semen Mountains National Park office distinguished three tourist types. i.e., Foreign, Resident and Ethiopians and recorded that, in 2006 from the total of 6019 tourists, 6.74%, Ethiopians, 1.67%, Residents and 91.57%, foreign visitors visited the SMNP.

Tourism Impacts

A survey of households in six villages of SMNP viz., Adebabay, Arginjona, Deber, Gich, Michibign and Miligebsa showed that every household uses 15kg of fuelwood per day for cooking and heating purpose. Hotels use 40kg of fuelwood per day for cooking purpose; while tourists in camp sites used about 12 kg fuelwoods per day for heating purpose. The annual estimated consumption of fuelwood may be about 5475 kg for the households, 1460 kg for hotels and 4380 kg for tourists. Tourist’s impacts on the vegetation cover of the SMNP through over grazing of pack animals that they use in different trekking routes.
For example in SMNP one horse or mule needs about 10-12kg of green fodder per day.

The SMNP trail routes are facing serious trail erosion problem during rainy season. Soil erosion rates were estimated by SMBS team to be around 85 t ha\(^{-1}\) yr\(^{-1}\) in highland villages and 65 t ha\(^{-1}\) yr\(^{-1}\) in lowland villages. That means the soil erosion rate in the study area is relatively higher than some other villages of the SMNP. The soil depth in highland villages was reduced over the past 10 years by almost 8cm and in the lowlands by 5cm (Hurni 1983). Littering of non-biodegradable on the landscape is a common problem in trekking route.

Because of the growth of tourists number in the SMNP, in the year 2006 the training program on protection of natural environment for secondary school students organized by Austrian Development Ecotourism Project. Since then due to the termination of this project similar program did not take place in the SMNP.

**ANALYZING STATED WILLINGNESS-TO-PAY (WTP)**

Results of this study for willingness-to-pay are presented in Table 2. The result shows that the average response rate was 46%, on the question regarding the motivation behind the respondents WTP for conservation. Only 35% visitors indicated a positive reaction to WTP for conservation and protection of the SMNP, while 11% agreed on condition that the amount would be utilized in constructive manner and 54% refused to pay.

For the entire samples, using means of variables the estimated willingness-to-pay for the management of SMNP was USD 8.83 by foreign visitors per trip.

The number of visitors is increasing at a very fast rate in Ethiopia. As well as in Semen Mountain National Park also. Compare to other parks in Ethiopia, the frequency of visitors was less in the SMNP because most of the visitors seldom return to trek for a second time in the same area. Therefore, the WTP stated by all the visitors was for that particular period. This study revealed that the visitors’ WTP did not depend upon the benefits they would get in preserving the park, but most of them stated that their WTP was just to keep the beautiful, unexploited landscape and rich biodiversity of this area intact.

**PROPOSED MANAGEMENT PLAN**

First management plan for Semen Mountains National Park was prepared in 1986 (Hurni, 1986), with five specific objectives, viz.(i) to preserve the scenic
beauty and habitat diversity of a representative sample of the Ethiopian Tropical Seasonal Highland Biome; (ii) to give particular emphasis to the preservation of Walia ibex and other endemic plant and animal populations; (iii) to restore and rehabilitate disturbed areas and to undertake measures to conserve watershed values within the park and protected by improvements around the park; (iv) to encourage and provide for educational, scientific and tourist uses of the park; and (v) to manage the park in recognition of its status as a World Heritage Site. However, it was not implemented at that time due to civil unrest (EWCO, 1991) and it is now out of date as it does not take into account increased human utilization of the park (Nievergelt, 1996).

Keeping the above mentioned views, the SMNP should be nominated by the national government as a Biosphere Reserve. According to the UNESCO’s Man and Biosphere (MAB) Program for proper management (Keiner, http://e-collection.ethbib.ethz.ch).

REFERENCES


Table 1. Life zone, dominant vegetation and animal distribution in Semen Mountain National Park, Ethiopia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Climatic Zone</th>
<th>Vegetation</th>
<th>Animals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mammals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 3600 m</td>
<td>Lobalia rhyncopetalum</td>
<td>Walia ibex, Gelada baboon, Ethiopian wolf, Africa wild cat, Klipspringer, Leopard, Meneliks bushbuck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2700-3600m</td>
<td>Erica arborea, Hypericum revolutum</td>
<td>Walia ibex, Gelada baboon, Klipspringer, Ethiopian Wolf, Narrow headed rat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2300-2700m</td>
<td>Evergreen broad leaved Montana forest; S. guineense; Juniper procera, Olea europaea</td>
<td>Colubus gureza, Anubis baboon, Bush pig, Menelik bush buck, Grass rat, Serval cat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 2000m</td>
<td>Accacia abyssinica; F. sur; F. Sycomorus; Phoenix reclinata</td>
<td>Grey duiker, Rock hyrax, Spotted hyena, Black facd monkeey, Caracal, Common jackal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Summary results from Contingent Valuation (CV) questions SMNP, Ethiopia, (2007-2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Willingness- to – Pay</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean value per visitor</td>
<td>8.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>**Aggregate value for all visitors</td>
<td>3612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Respondents with WTP (%)</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ Response rate (%)</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WTP: Willingness-to-pay, US$1= Birrs (Ethiopian currency 9.60) (as per the conversion rate 2007-2008)

** The non respondents were assumed to have WTP equal to that answered
* Based on the total; respondents who responded positively foe WTP
+ Based on total visitors
Few Words, Mass Effect. Travel Writings and Destination Image: The Case of Venice

Sabrina Meneghello
CISET – Ca’ Foscari University Venice
Email: sabrmene@unive.it

&

Federica Montaguti
CISET - Ca’ Foscari University Venice
Email: fedem@unive.it

INTRODUCTION

Many “images” contribute to identify a destination. Destinations are described both by promotional and organic sources. As demonstrated by different authors (Gunn, 1972; Mansfeld, 1992), the narrative structures built by this mix of sources, synchronically and diachronically animates the discourse about places, thus defining, and being influenced by, tourist gazes and behaviours (Urry, 1990; Urry&Sheller, 2004; MacCannell, 1989). Travel writings play an essential role in these narratives – they not only design the history of tourism at a destination, but also “tag” the main features of a destination image. Adopting a semiotic approach, this paper presents the results of an analysis of the perception of Venice by U.S. tourists. The general objective of the study, conducted by CISET in cooperation with Ca’ Foscari Department of Linguistics and Comparative Cultural Studies, was to understand if a well conducted semiotic analysis of a selected corpus of organic “texts” (films, travel books and blogs, novels, etc.) and promotional sources could be sufficient to define the main features of the image and positioning of a destination in a specific market. The paper shows how, even for a world famous destination like Venice, only a few texts designed the main features of the destination image, and are still influencing it centuries afterwards. Thus, they are still writing the history of tourism in Venice. Through a quantitative and qualitative research, it also shows how this specific image still affects today tourists’ perception.
LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of destination image was introduced in tourism studies in the late ’70s by Hunt (1975), Mayo (1973) and Gunn (1972). Studies on this issue increased over the last years, focusing also on the impact that different media, including social media, have on the perceived image of places, and therefore on the importance of creating appropriate destination brands (Morgan et al., 2002). Echtner & Ritchie (1991, 1993) point out that the destination image has multiple dimensions. The definition of an overall destination image is important to define how many categorizations and stereotypes weight on the final destination perception (Crang, 2003). Recently many authors seem to prefer qualitative methodologies and to investigate “cultural texts” defining the destination image in its whole, and semiotic approaches meet this need (Pike, 2002, Gartner, 2003, Ryan, & Cave, 2005, Prebensen 2007). In particular, a semiotic approach applied to “induced” texts such as guidebook and tourism catalogues, etc. have been adopted by Lew (1991) Bhattacharyya (1997), Travlou (2002), Quinlan (2005), Smyth (2008), Dioguardi, Giannitrapani & Parroco (2012). Furthermore, the same approaches have been used to “organic”, i.e. non-promotional texts, by Robinson & Andersen (2004) and Dann (2003). The methodological approach used in this study is based on this recent literature, and tries to demonstrate how organic and induced sources affect the tourists’ perception of a destination, comparing the semiotic analysis results with the ones obtained through a more traditional marketing survey.

METHODOLOGY

The results presented in this paper are part of a wider study on how cultural productions influence a destination image in a specific market. The study analysed how strong the impact of these productions is and their interrelation with tourist practice and tourist promotional materials. The specific case analysed was that of Venice, as perceived by the North American market.

The necessity to deal with very different materials and art forms, and the need to understand how the interaction between a series of productions creates and changes a discourse on a specific place in a specific cultural context, lead to choose a semiotic approach to analyse the “texts”.

The first step was to identify a corpus of promotional (guidebooks, tour operators brochures), and organic sources about Venice, ranging from the 1820s to the 2010s. The total corpus included about 200 films, 230 books, and 50 guidebooks. It was however apparent that not everyone of these sources could
pact on the nowadays perception of Venice as a tourist destination. Therefore, the second step was to select the significant “texts”. Two criteria were adopted. For the most recent productions their popularity (box office results, amazon.com best selling items list, etc.); for 19th century books, which these data are not available for, the criterion chosen was the number of times a specific author was referred to by the other sources.

On each of the 70 selected texts, a semiotic analysis was applied, in order to identify, first, denotative aspects, and then, recurring connotative meanings associated to Venice. The connotative meanings led to understand the discourse about Venice in the US cultural context, and how it interacts with specific cultural dimensions, and their evolution in time.

Finally, a more conventional “marketing approach” was used for a qualitative and quantitative survey on a sample of US tourists in Venice, in order to compare the results of the semiotic analysis to the perception of Venice as expressed directly by tourists.

RESULTS

One of the first results of the analysis was that tourists’ practice and the “organic” sources were so strictly linked that all the texts could de facto be considered as travel writings (Francescato, 2013; Antelmi, 2010; Crang&Travlou, 2009). As suggested by Von Martels (1994), every cultural product somehow related to a travel experience can be defined as “travel writing”.

Focussing on books, the analysis showed that only few had a strong influence, and not all by American authors. Among the contemporaries, Rick Steves accounts are surely influential – in the bestselling books about Venice (travel category) amazon.com lists 5 titles by Steves in the first 15. In his case, the boundary between guidebooks and travel books is almost non-existent.

Another enormous influence is the one retained by Shakespeare - still 6 titles in the first 24 bestsellers, and a vast amount of quotes in the best-selling guidebooks.

Other very popular authors are Thomas Mann, Donna Leon, J. Berendt and M. De Blasi. They all recurred one, or more times in the first 40 bestsellers on Venice at the time the research was conducted. When US tourists were asked which novels they read and remembered about Venice, they named mainly these titles (Figure 1). Among the guidebooks, Steves’ ones were the most quoted after Lonely Planets’.
Leon, de Blasi, Berendt, and other popular writers such as Sklepowich present a decadent, mysterious, gloomy, and “southern” Venice. In some cases, literatures topoi are used as tourist topoi. Lord Byron is one of the topoi these authors, but also the guidebooks, use to recur to. The analysis revealed that Byron travel writings still heavily influence the US perception of Venice, which is still a 19th century landscape (Francescato, 2013). This explains why the majority of books having Venice as a set are crime fiction novels. This image is also transferred by US edited guidebooks, which stress the most Gothic aspects of the city (Fodors’ description of Palazzo Ducale is one example).

It is hardly surprising that the US tourists found that the statements about Venice they most agreed upon were: the city is mysterious and gloomy, a maze, out of time, opposite to America (Figure 2).
It is interesting, though, that this kind of view is lasting longer in the American cultural context than in its original English one – UK publishers’ guidebooks (e.g. The Rough Guide) do not quote Byron so much, and are not so lingering on Gothic images. This could be related to the fact that, while Byron presented Venice as a metaphor for every nation decay (von Koppenfells, 1994) – and for the British Empire in the first place – the American mainstream culture seems not to perceive how this metaphor could be applied to the US (Venice is “the contrary of where they live in”). On the opposite, the city represents a sort of southern “otherness”, where everything is possible and allowed, haunted and chaotic, and so associated to American port cities such as Savannah, New Orleans, etc. This could explain why this metaphor is still meaningful in that culture, while the European view, although still influenced by this, has evolved to a slightly different kind of relationship with Venice.
CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The study presented shows, first, that a semiotic analysis on a selected corpus of popular “texts” provides reliable results on how the tourists from a specific market perceive a place, thus representing a fine alternative to the more traditional surveys. Secondly, it highlights how much the interaction between various kinds of travel writings - and in particular between promotional and organic sources - shapes the image of a destination, and how - thanks to this interaction - few writers have a long term massive effect on this image. Thirdly, it shows how a semiotic approach has the advantage to explore not only the features of a destination image but also how they have been created, hence providing the destination with more refined tools to manage this image, promote new marketing strategies, reduce bias and distortions. It also underlines the importance of the organic sources in the process of construction of a destination image, and how strongly they are interrelated with the “tourist” practice and discourse.

REFERENCES


Crang, M. , & Travlou P. (2009). The island that was not there: producing Corelli’s island, staging Kefalonia. In P. Obrador, M. Crang, P. Travlou P. (Eds.), Cultures of mass tourism. Taking the Mediterranean tourists seriously (pp. 75-90). Farnham: Ashgate


Travlou, P. (2002) “Go Athens: A Journey To the Centre of the City”. In Simone Coleman & Mike Crang (Eds.), *Tourism: Between Place and Performance* (pp. 108-127). New York: Berghahn Books.

Destination Branding: Internal Stakeholders’ Perceptions of Alexandria as a Tourist Destination

Sally Khalil
Faculty of Tourism& Hotels, Fayoum University, Egypt
E-mail: salsola_27@yahoo.co.uk

&

Osama Ibrahim
Faculty of Tourism& Hotels, Fayoum University, Egypt
E-mail: osa00@fayoum.edu.eg

INTRODUCTION

In the extremely competitive global tourism market environment, it is crucial to develop a clearly different identity of a tourism destination based on reality in order to convince the potential visitors. Alexandria, as a tourist destination, is not only the ancient mysterious capital of Egypt under Ptolemy I till the end of the Roman period, but also the present Egyptian cultural and intellectual capital. However, in terms of the city’s competitive position, the aim of this study is to place branding initiatives and to reveal internal stakeholders’ perceptions of the Alexandria as a tourist destination.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Branding, as a concept, has recently expanded into the tourism industry and apparently became a topic of inspection in the late 1990s (Pike, 2002; Anholt, 2003; Morgan et al., 2004; Tasci and Kozak, 2006). Among several definitions of the term, Kerr (2006: 277) defined destination branding as a ‘Name, symbol, logo, word or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates the destination; furthermore it conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; it also serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of destination experience’.

Thus, branding is considered the good name of a product, an organization or a place; a short-cut to an informed decision; and most importantly, a prom-
ise of value (Vallaster and de Chernatony, 2006). Destination branding also helps realize the vision for places, identifies target markets, describes the planned offer and experience, determines and organizes delivery of the offer, communicates the offer to consumers, and guides the future development of the offer.

**METHODOLOGY**

Tourism scholars observed the absence of qualitative research in the field of branding. In most cases, studies on destination branding are based on structured methods such as Likert scales or semantic differential scales. In this paper, qualitative approach was employed. Collage technique, an unstructured qualitative association tool; was used to reveal the effects of internal branding on Alexandria’s tourism destination stakeholders.

After introducing a general framework of brand and destination branding in the field of tourism research, the empirical study included two phases; the first one identified the main representatives of stakeholders in Alexandria tourism destination. In the second stage, the collage technique was used to obtain stakeholders’ perceptions of the tourism destination brand in Alexandria.

**RESULTS**

Findings expose that different internal stakeholders trace different perceptions of tourism places and show the importance of using the collage as a technique to measure stakeholders’ identities of selected tourism destinations. The paper also reveals the significance of employing different association methods (word or picture) in recognizing stakeholders’ knowledge and opinions of destinations as a primary step in analyzing stakeholders’ brand identity perception.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

The paper identified the best brand of Alexandria from the internal stakeholders' viewpoint. It is one of the first papers on building a brand of Alexandria as a tourist destination. It is also considered a model of how to use college technique in evaluating the perception and building the brand using picture and word associations.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We would like to thank the head of the Regional Authority for Tourism Promotion in Alexandria, the head of Ministry of Tourism Head Office in Alexandria, and the head of the Egyptian General Tourist Authority in Alexandria for their dedicated effort to help authors collect primary data. We do promise to send them copies of the paper as soon as it is published.

REFERENCES

Alternative Tourism in the South-East of Tunisia: Diagnosis and Marketing Actions

Samiha Chemli
Ecole Supérieure de Commerce Tunis
La Manouba University, Tunisia
E-mail: s.chemli@ucb.ac.uk

Hassen Mzali
University of Carthage, Tunisia
E-mail: hassmzali@yahoo.fr

Dorra Kefi
Ecole Supérieure de Commerce Tunis
La Manouba University, Tunisia
E-mail: dorakefi@yahoo.fr

INTRODUCTION

Diversifying tourism products within a tourism destination is quite delicate, as there is a need to look at the destination personality, positioning, branding and perception. According to previous research studies about Tunisian tourism, the country is perceived as a cheap mass beachfront tourism destination (Chemli & Mzali, 2010; Weigert, 2012; Zaiane, 2006; Poirier, 1995). However, these results are based mainly on coastal zones such as Hammamet – Nabeul, Sousse, Monastir – Skanes, Mahdia – Sfax and Djerba – Zarzis, as well as tourism seaside resorts development.

The region of the Southeast of Tunisia, composed of the three governorates of Gabes Medenine and Tataouine, is naturally, culturally and archeologically rich but neglected in terms of developed and structured tourism products. This research study aims to look at alternative tourism products to be launched in the Southeast of Tunisia (Gabes, Medenine & Tataouine) and the main positioning strategies to be implemented in order to make the difference and to attract new types of tourists to a unique zone.
LITERATURE REVIEW

There is a lack of research about tourism in Tunisia, and even more about the Southeast of the country. Therefore, the secondary research used in this study is mainly professional from the Ministry of Tourism such as annual figures and data of previous international studies (Tunisian Tourism annual figures, 2011; Zaiane, 2006).

METHODOLOGY

There are three main complementary parts in this work. The first is to identify the tourism resources and the potential of the Southeast of Tunisia (Tataouine, Medenine and Gabes), this first step consists on the establishment of a SWOT analysis. The objective of this part of the work is to identify the main features of the Southeast of Tunisia, as well as the potential alternatives to implement in order to consider the region as a tourism destination in its own rights.

The second part of the research is to conduct a benchmarking evaluation of a selection of competitors which aims to pinpoint the means and methods adopted by direct and indirect competitors, and use them as a support to operational and strategic choices for the Southeast of Tunisia.

Finally, the last part consists on the analysis of the latter methods. This leads to pinpoint the right strategies to implement in order to promote the zone, and to choose the adequate positioning.

RESULTS

The main determinants of the SWOT analysis applied are:
- The different forms of tourism practiced in the region/ geographical condition and location;
- Identify the pull factors which can be used to position the Southeast of Tunisia;
- Identify the push factors that stimulate tourists/ factors hindering the development of the destination (economic/ political/ socio-cultural/technological…);

Strengths:

Strength 1: Strong positioning of the region of Tataouine
The region of Tataouine is positioned according to pop-culture, implemented primarily by the images of the ‘Star Wars’ movie shot in the region as well as media. The personality of the zone is dominated by the image of ‘Ksar Hadada’ from the film and not by the historical identity and the potential unique experience of visitors.

Strength 2: the wide variety of places of interest and the potential of the 3 governorates:
Each governorate of the Southeast of Tunisia presents a broad variety of places of interest, a diversity of landscapes and a rich historical and cultural heritage:

- **Tataouine:**
  - The Ksours in the Arab and Berber old villages (Guermessa, Ksar ouled Soltane, Ksar Haddada, Douiret, Chenini...);
  - The Memorial Museum of the Earth;
  - The footprints of carnivorous and herbivorous dinosaurs dating back 110 million years.

- **Medenine:**
  - The Ksours and the Ghorfas;
  - The Old City.

- **Gabes:**
  - The duo of oasis and marine tourism;
  - One of the rarest coastal oases in the world;
  - Unique landscape.

**Weaknesses:**

Weakness 1: Absence of an identity and a regional brand;

Weakness 2: lack of marketing efforts to promote the 3 regions at a national level (institutional marketing) and international level (almost total absence of tour and travel operators), more precisely on operational approach and promotional mix:

- Absence of the region’s promotion: the official tourism portal does not promote the region;
- Undervalued natural, cultural, historical and archaeological heritage;
- The information existing on promotional materials is not of good quality and sometimes too complicated and requires huge efforts to understand since they include too many details.
Weakness 3: Implantation of the chemical industry in the region of Gabes: This factor has blocked tourism investment, although the region is known for specific and unique features such as the coastal oasis; Weakness 4: Lack of tourism infrastructure/ unevenly spread

**Opportunities:**

Opportunity 1: the geographical location of the Southeast of Tunisia / Accessibility
The Djerba-Zarzis International Airport facilitates the access to potential target markets in the studied area. This factor can be considered as one of the future 'keys of success'.

Opportunity 2: Unique cultural and historical tourism product compared to neighbouring countries: Algeria and Libya do not present an immediate threat to the region studied, but an opportunity in terms of tourism flows and arrivals (Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Markets/ Zones</th>
<th>Djerba-Zarzis</th>
<th>Gafsa-Tozeur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Europeans</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>432888</td>
<td>135037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russians</td>
<td></td>
<td>29.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>13.80%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germans</td>
<td>11.40%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>German</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russians</td>
<td>19.60%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maghreb</td>
<td>85711</td>
<td>4867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libyans</td>
<td>97.10%</td>
<td>Algerians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algerians</td>
<td>83.30%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Tunisian Tourism Figures 2011

**Threats:**

Threat 1: A highly competitive environment
Based on the option to promote cultural tourism, pop- culture, and oasis tourism in the studied areas, there is a need to consider the existing various competitors. Old and recent destinations (such as Urgup, Fethiye, Mardin in Turkey, Murcia Spain, Pella and Iraklion in Greece...) are compared to the Southeast of Tunisia, especially in terms of marketing efforts and promotion (devel-
oped promotional mix, positioning, targeting and segmentation). The adequate approach should be based on the development of sustainable tourism with planning efficient use of space and land.

**Assessment of competitive offers**

The table 2 presents a selection of tourism destinations with similarities to the Southeast of Tunisia in terms of culture heritage, archaeological and/or historical sites, natural resources..., and outlines the forms of tourism promoted as well as the positioning implemented in the latter regions.

**Table 2 : Competitive evaluation of the offer**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Types of Tourism</th>
<th>Principle target markets</th>
<th>Positioning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ürgüp</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Luxurious culture tourism</td>
<td>German/ Iranian/ Georgian/ Bulgarian/ Syrian/ Russian/ Azeraijan/ Greek/ British/ French</td>
<td>Pop-cultural positioning (TV series). The region identity is closely linked to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Luxury and rich heritage,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Mountains and cave houses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fethiye</td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Seaside Tourism/ Culture Tourism</td>
<td>British (manly from Brighton)/ German</td>
<td>The positioning of the tourism region of Fethiye is the N°1 positioning, especially for the British market (Luxury, wellness, mountains, landscape diversity and culture).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicosia</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>Seaside Tourism/ Culture Tourism/ Business Tourism</td>
<td>British/ German/ Greek/ Swedish/ Dutch</td>
<td>Duo product in short period of time positioning. It is a kind of BOGOF (buy one get one free) and sales promotion applied to a tourism destination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraklion</td>
<td>Greece/ Crete</td>
<td>Culture tourism/ Seaside tourism</td>
<td>German/ British/ French/ Russian/ Dutch</td>
<td>Positioning of service and products attributes/ activity positioning: ‘un paradis isolé’ (the isolated paradise).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murcia</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Seaside Tourism/ Culture Tourism / Religious tourism/ Green Tourism</td>
<td>Portuguese/ German/ British/ French/ Nordic Countries</td>
<td>Promoting different forms of tourism based mainly on : culture and nature richness, as well as the history of the region... Positioning of service and products attributes/ activity positioning (diversity of the tourism activities).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Salerno  Italy  Culture Tourism/ Green Tourism  German/ American/ French/ British/ Austrian/ Spanish/ Dutch/ Swiss/ Japanese/ Russian  Positioning based on original and sustainable destination: ‘...a world in one province’.

Pella  Greece  Alternative Tourism/ Culture Tourism/ Archaeological Tourism  Positioning based on alternative tourism of all sorts

Mardin  Turkey  Business & Culture Tourism/ Religious Tourism  Korean/ German/ Argentinean  Blurred Positioning

According to competitors’ evaluation, a multitude of target markets, with an interest to cultural tourism and ecotourism, have been identified. Therefore, in order to issue a relevant combination of the operational approach, an assessment of the target markets main characteristics, their search, booking and purchasing preferences is established.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

The results conclude that the three regions of Tataouine, Medenine and Gabes need to be promoted as complementary but unique tourism products. The positioning of the whole area has to be based on pop-culture, archaeology, ecotourism and natural products. Therefore, it is recommended to define a new tourism positioning to the region of the Southeast of Tunisia ‘Original and durable’. Each of the three governorates needs to be considered as a tourism destination in its own right, for this purpose it is necessary to:

- Create a unique image of each governorate: a clear and distinctive sustainable tourism personality.
- Show the advantage and the benefit for the potential tourists while visiting the regions of Tataouine, Medenine or Gabes: promote diverse routes and tours between the 3 governorates so that tourists feel the need to visit and be motivated to buy the 3in1 tourism product (follow the positioning of Cyprus: duo product in short period of time). In other words use the potential of each region to present an attractive complementary global product.
- Differentiate products from those of competitors: competitive advantages should appear in the promotional mix, with a focus on the elements identified on strength 1.
Promote the three studied regions through Internet. As part of the creation of a tourism portal for the Southeast, there is a need to implement major elements, such as the right quality and quantity of information (more visual than text, updated information, attractive, interactive and credible), an easy access through the main tourism portal of the Ministry of Tourism and different international tourism websites, and a professional visual that confirms the mediated image, the distinctive identity and the positioning implemented (selection of real images of the 3 governorates). Furthermore, the work concludes that media advertising with a large audience, public relations and usage of the online advertising seem to be the ideal promotional mix to attract tourists and to better promote and launch alternative tourism products in the region of the Southeast of Tunisia.

REFERENCES
INTRODUCTION

Tourism as a sector contributes significantly to the national and provincial economies of South Africa. However, the inclusion of tourism activities in other sectors raises the need for an independent analysis of the sector’s impact on the economy, especially at the local level. The objective of the study therefore, is to determine the sector’s contribution to the economy of the Limpopo Province through primary survey. This contribution is measured in terms of spending by tourists, job creation, skills development; tourists arrival and departure; capaci-
ty of establishments, etc. All these indicators show that there is a great potential for the tourism sector in Limpopo to develop and improve its current contribution to the local and the national economies.

Since the transition to democracy in 1994, the South African government has prioritized tourism as one of its key economic sectors. Government has developed various strategies and plans to support and drive the tourism sector at all levels. The Limpopo Provincial government developed its Tourism Growth Strategy (TGS 2009 – 2014) to align its tourism targets to the national strategic targets. The provincial vision of tourism is “making the Limpopo Province the preferred ecotourism destination in Southern Africa” (Limpopo, TGS 2009 - 2014).

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

South Africa improved its ranking among global tourism destinations from 35th position to 34th position in 2011. Foreign tourist arrivals to South Africa grew by 10.2% in 2011, while overseas arrivals increased by 15.1% in the same period. This performance is far above the global average of 3.9% increase in tourist arrivals. Revenue generated by tourist arrivals in 2012 increased by 7.6% (R5.4 billion) compared to 2011 (SA Tourism, 2012). The key drivers of tourism growth are the increase in foreign arrivals and average spend per tourists, with the depreciation of the Rand against major currencies having a positive impact on tourism revenue.

The South African government support for the development of tourism has become prominent through the continuous stream of new and enabling strategies and policy frameworks. Government has also developed institutional mechanisms to support pro-poor initiatives (Rogerson and Visser, 2006).

In its 2013 World Tourism Barometer, the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) has shown that the contribution of tourism to the global economy is estimated at around 9% of GDP – in terms of direct and induced impact. The sector’s contribution to employment is estimated at an average of 1 in 11 jobs generated globally. International tourist arrivals grew by 4% in 2012 to a total of 1,035 million, crossing the one billion record for the first time in history. On average, international tourism arrivals expanded significantly between 1950 and 2012 at an annual rate of 6.2%. The fastest growth comes from emerging regions, which increased from 30% in 1980 to 47% in 2012. International export earnings from tourism increased by 6% in for 2012 and it ac-
counts for 30% of the world’s exports of commercial services and 6% of overall exports of goods and services (UNWTO, 2013a).

The number of tourist arrivals for Africa reached a new record of 53 million tourists in 2013 due to the rebound in North Africa and the continued growth of sub-Saharan destinations with a 5% growth in tourist arrivals (UNWTO, 2012a). Tourism revenue for Africa was US$ 34 billion created in 2012. Out of the different regions (like Europe, Asia, America, Middle East, etc.) that reported their tourism activities, the African continent grew by 6% (UNWTO, 2012a).

Asia and the Pacific recorded the fastest growth across all regions with a 7% increase followed by Africa with 6% (UNWTO, 2013). The UNWTO shows that as an internationally traded service, inbound tourism has become one of the world’s major trade categories, and a great source of income, which the Limpopo Province could benefit from through marketing the Province.

Over the past six decades, tourism has experienced continued expansion and diversification in the world. Many new destinations have emerged, challenging the traditional ones of Europe and North America (UNWTO, 2012b). Between 2010 and 2030, arrivals to emerging economies are expected to increase at double the pace (+4.4% a year) of those to advanced economies (+2.2% a year). As a result, the market share of emerging economies has increased from 30% in 1980 to 47% in 2010, and is expected to reach 57% by 2030, equivalent to over one billion international tourist arrivals (UNWTO, 2013b).

**METHODOLOGY**

The study is based on primary data from Limpopo Province¹. The study used structured questionnaires to conduct face-to-face interviews with managers and owners of tourism establishments, tourist attractions and key informants. The key informants were mainly experts from government departments dealing with tourism initiatives, district municipalities and the Limpopo Tourism Agencies (LTA) in the respective districts. A total of 232 out of 298 sampled questionnaires have been completed. The study also made use of secondary data sources to substantiate evidence from survey.

**RESULTS**

a) *Composition of the Tourism Sector in Limpopo*

¹ Primary data was collected in November 2013 and in February 2014
Over 50% of respondents from all three categories (i.e. accommodation establishments, attractions and key informants) had knowledge about the composition of the tourism industry in Limpopo. The largest component of the accommodation category is Bed and Breakfast (B&B) representing 28% of the sample, followed by guest houses at 25%, lodges at 18% and hotels at 14%, with the rest below 5%. In terms of attraction composition, the largest category is represented by nature reserve at 32%, followed by art galleries, wildlife and adventures both at 14% respectively, with the other categories accounting for less than 10% of tourism attractions in Limpopo.

b) Contribution of Tourism to Economic Growth

Empirical findings from the survey support the secondary data that the tourism sector contributes to the national as well as the provincial economies. Tourism contributed 6% and 5% to the national economy and to the Limpopo Provincial economies, between 2004 and 2012 respectively. This contribution is measured in terms of spending by tourists; job creation; skills development; tourists arrival and departure; capacity of establishments, etc. In terms of growth in tourism (measured in bed nights by origin), Limpopo Province experienced increases in growth of domestic tourism between 2007 and 2012, while growth in international tourism declined over the same period, and this can be attributed to the global economic meltdown. In 2010, the tourism sector’s contribution to GDP was higher for both the national as well as the provincial economy, resulting from the gains of the FIFA World cup games in South Africa. About 54% of the accommodation establishments employ between 0 and 3 people, while 23% of the establishments employs between 4 and 6 employees. The majority (54%) of employees is females and 56% of family members who work at establishments qualify as employees.

c) Impact of Provincial Tourism Policies and Strategies

Despite the provincial government’s effort to introduce policies and strategies on tourism, the majority of respondents felt that such policies, strategies and incentives are not effective.

The results reveal more knowledge about strategies among key informants, while tourism stakeholders have limited knowledge. This shows the level of concentration of such information among the policymakers. The lack of communication between policymakers and the industry stakeholders needs to be improved for policies and strategies to have an impact on the provincial economy.
d) **Skills**

The majority of respondents from accommodation (52%) and attractions (70%) indicated that there is a shortage of relevant skills to the tourism industry in their respective districts. A number of specific skills have been highlighted as scarce in the province as well as those skills that are required to drive the tourism industry.

e) **Compliance of Tourism Industry with Government Regulations**

An average of 89% of accommodation and 57% of attraction establishments are registered for tax purposes. About 55% of accommodations and 62% of attractions indicated that they don’t belong to any industry associations. In terms of grading, half of accommodation establishments (48%) are graded, while most of the attractions (67%) are not graded although they see grading as important to their business. The highest star grading for most accommodation establishments is the 3star grade (55%) followed by the 4star grade (30%). Some of the main challenges they face in getting graded are the excess requirements, especially for the small establishments; client’s expectations of certain Standards to be met by establishments; and the high costs associated with keeping the standard, which makes it unprofitable to operate the business.

Over 50% of both accommodation and attractions respondents indicated that they comply with the transformation policies of government, by showing certificate of compliance.

**CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS**

- Empirical findings from the study support the secondary data that the tourism sector contributes to the national as well as the provincial economies. It is therefore necessary for government and tourism stakeholders to promote domestic tourism.

- The study showed that despite the provincial government’s effort to introduce policies and strategies on tourism, the majority of tourism stakeholders indicated that they were not aware of tourism strategies’ and incentives, while such knowledge is concentrated among key informants (who are policymakers). The most important implication of the findings related to knowledge and effectiveness of policies and incentives is the need for government to improve information flow to the relevant stakeholders in the province.
In terms of the tourism sector composition in Limpopo, the largest component of the accommodation category is Bed and Breakfast (B&B), while nature reserve accounts for the largest component of tourist attractions in the Limpopo Province. Governments may consider special incentives to boost those categories and to promote others that are lacking behind.

The majority of respondents indicated that there is a shortage of relevant skills to the tourism industry in their respective districts. There is a need to develop the required skills base for the sector.

Respondents indicated challenges they face in getting graded, which needs to be addressed at all levels in order to drive the tourism sector in Limpopo.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The study is conducted by the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) through funding from the Limpopo Economic Development, Environment and Tourism Department. The research team is grateful to the owners and managers of the tourism establishments and tourist attractions, key tourism experts in the Limpopo province for participating in this study.

REFERENCES


Ecotourism and Iranian Nomadism: 
A Pure Lifeseeing Case of Bakhtiar Tribe

Seyedeh Khadijeh  
Department of Geography & Urban Planning, Islamic Azad University  
Tabriz Science and Technology Branch, Tabriz, IRAN  
E-mail: kh_rezatab@tabrizu.ac.ir

&

Rezatab Azgoumi  
Department of Geography & Urban Planning, Islamic Azad University  
Tabriz Science and Technology Branch, Tabriz, IRAN  
E-mail: kh_rezatab@tabrizu.ac.ir

&

Rahim Heydari Chianeh  
Department of Geography & Urban Planning  
University of Tabriz, Tabriz, IRAN  
E-mail: rheydari@tabrizu.ac.ir

&

Parviz Izadian  
Poly Acrylic Industries, Isfahan, IRAN  
E-mail: p.izad.2014@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Without a doubt today tourism has become a popular global leisure activity, is major source of income for many countries and affects the economy of both the guest and host, in some cases it is of vital importance. Today tourism more than industry as a global socio-economic phenomenon has had different impacts on the guests and hosts therefore, its development and marketing requires a different and dynamic approach, particularly in ecotourism sector. There is no doubt in current competitive markets and price wars, ecotourism marketing process should base on product development and diversification. Participation in and with host community life that named Lifeseeing Tourism type is one of the newest ecotourism products such nomads communities as a tourism attraction or destination. This research explains Iranian Bakhtiar nomadic migration from Khuzestan area to Zardkoohi Mountains to find forage and food for their livestock. Present paper in addition to desk data and scientific documents based on itinerary of one of paper authors, presents his pure experiences and lifesessing as a new eco-tourism type.

Key words: Eco-tourism, Iran, Bakhtiar Tribe Nomads, Life Seeing Tourism.
An Evaluation of City Attractions and Tourists Accessibility: Toward Pedestrian & Protection Case of Shiraz

Seyedeh Khadijeh Rezatab Azgoumi  
Department of Geography and Urban Planning  
Islamic Azad University, East Azerbaijan Research & Science Branch, Iran  
E-mail: kh_rezatab@tabrizu.ac.ir

Rahim Heydari Chianeh  
Dept. of Geography & Urban Planning  
University of Tabriz, Iran  
E-mail: rheydari@tabrizu.ac.ir

Maysam Safarpour  
Department of Geography and Urban Planning  
Yazd University, Iran  
E-mail: safarpour66@yahoo.com

Rahim Tavasolian  
Department of Geography and Urban Planning  
University of Tabriz, Iran  
Email: rtavasolian@gmail.com

INTRODUCTION

Tourism originates in movement, and movement is an inseparable part of human’s life. It can be told that the history of tourism industry is as old as human being’s activities and just its forms and goals have been different. In 2010 the passports of 940000000 people all over the world, were sealed and these people were known as international tourists. In the same year, the income of these journeys raised up to $ 919 billion. Since the end of 1960s, tourism industry has developed dramatically in its global aspects, as prediction of tourism world organization of united nations indicates that in 2020s it (tourism) will be considered as the first industry of the world (UNWTO, 2011 : 5).
Shiraz not only is one of the these cities, it also is considered as one of the most important urban tourism destinations in national and international level in tourism map of Iran and along with Isfahan absorbs tourist every year several times more than their population. In these case, the tendency of urban people to tourism industry and services increases such that the economy of city becomes dependent on it. The dependence of cities on tourism industry and appearance of urban new problems, intensify tourism studies about urban tourism and discuss different fields of urban tourism in a short period that state the necessity of establishing systematic multilateral management in this field.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Serious and practical attention to order pedestrians movement and sidewalks referred back to 1940. In European cities, this idea with the purpose to send out the historical areas of city from dominance of automobile and for protection of old textures and important the city centers had been introduced and performed (Habibi, 1999: 44). At the beginnings of 1960s tendency to coming back to city centers strengthen and sidewalks formed, that called "mall" which were for commercial aims and at the same time, their purpose was to provide desirable environments for shopping and walking in cities (Ghorban and, Jamkasra, 2010: 58). The main research purpose is to investigate & to recognize tourism pedestrian capable districts as a body bed of civil life, citizenry' and tourists' social interactions and the capability of cultural – historical pedestrian – oriented context in Shiraz.

METHODOLOGY

The methodology of this research is descriptive - analytic and survey which with helping of desk research, observation and next by using questions and interview from tourists. Required information has been gathered and then after statistical analysis, by using Geographic Information System (GIS) it is tried to determine the exit tourism of Shiraz. In the section we study the steps of research include library studies, in field research, collecting the questionnaire, distributing it and testing the hypothesis.

Step 1: desk research studies,
Step 2: adding up and collecting the information about tourism areas of Shiraz,
Step 3: collecting questionnaire; target group of the questionnaires include two groups one is tourist and another is tourism specialist. To collecting the questi-
onnaire is used from Likert scale and in some cases it is used than open questions and preferring the options;
Step 4: distribution and collection of questionnaire; to select the statistic sample and filling questionnaires simple random sampling method is used;
Step 5: Data extraction and transmission to Arc Map.

RESULTS

Based on the Case study results through/ by questionnaire, 10.7 percent of tourists were satisfied traffic status of Shiraz and the rest ones i.e. 79.2 percent were not satisfied. Of 30.4 percent of those that were not satisfied the traffic status, they have attributed their unsatisfaction to the routes leading to the attractions, 25.6 percent to the total city, 23.1 percent to the historical content of Shiraz.

According to the above chart, Hafez's Tomb has stood in/at the first rank/place, Saudi’s Tomb in the second a Quran gateway in the third one. The chart shows that the rate of tourists’ satisfaction of the attractions located in out of cultural-historical context range is much more than those stood so that one of its reasons may be related to the above motioned problems. As research findings show, most of tourists were not satisfied traffic status and tourist satisfaction of the attractions located in cultural – historical context range in Shiraz (district No.8) is less than the others, more over all of the attractions earned high degree of the amount of satisfaction are out of this range of city.
One of effective factors in increasing unsatisfaction of tourist and citizenry is the multiplicity of private transports in city environment, especially in compacted context. Although it cannot refer the whole unsatisfaction to traffic loud attained tourists and citizenry entrance, the traffic problems are the most important subject in this case. Regarding case study results and considering about 58.5 percent of tourists use the private transport for traffic in the city and nearly 46.8 percent of sum total of them use temporary dwelling camps and tents for relaxation, by using these strategies this paper can introduce the attractions located in few distance to each other’s in the formula a tourist trail based on pedestrianism and proper designing – Parking location nearby the required area, also to it can encountering tourists to walk in addition, to increase the period of tourists dwelling to reduce the traffic load based on their coming to establish a health urban space, which is the center of tourists a natives interaction. However, by being transformed the attraction points of tourist to trails and tourist level; it can attract people attention from a special tourist destination and erasing with limited traffic attraction. In the historical context toward a proper trail that contains a set of attractions. In the previous paper, this matter has been paid through location a pedestrianism tourist trail by using AHP.

Location criteria of walking center through stipulating and indices and offer the opinion poll of adepts and experts tourist trail and urban traffic have been selected. The available layers include: the value of historical limited – area, distance closeness to parking, placing the highest possible attractions in the required area with 800m length and distance from the communicative circuits of degree 1, 2 due to being active, the area in term of crowdedness of pedestrian center and also the distance from the bus stop owing to having easy access of men to the required trail has been stipulated. In this paper the attractions located in the distance of 800m to each other in calculations have been accepted. In weighing to any of the layers an inside hierarchy, from the adepts and colleagues of tourist area in Shiraz have been asked opinion poll. It’s necessary to say that the value of obtained CR is zero.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

Behavioral pattern in urban environment is relevant with economic, social cultural trails and generally it’s a function of urban space so that in term of social phenomena changes. The formed – space of tourists in term of their behavioral pattern can change. So, unchanged of urban phenomena in related to tourism can have been a relative stability of (the behavioral) this pattern. The first most
important factor in this model and finally in the tourist space is either traffic or routes of tourists travel for visiting the urban attractions – since the attractions of that city is the main factor in attracting tourist. We can refer to the tourists dwelling as the second factor which is the center of tourists' movement. The third factor is buying a preparing souvenir. In the city these factor and the other ones such as meeting kinfolk, social interactions from the tourist space of city. The first and attractive elements of tourism in city are Nodal points so that the other points of tourist according to those forms. The second focus of tourist is on the dwelling of tourist. Tourists go to hotels – restaurants for relaxing and serving food – sleeping, so these places are beginning – final point of their daily movement in city. According to the present findings and other studies done in the field of urban tourist, movement they're emphasized on the necessity of systematic management and on the urgency of attention to tourist and urban planning as inter – field subjects.

Selection a special performance to obtaining a special purpose, it doesn't seem so acceptable, because the category of tourist and urban planning and also their elements in the area of few various sciences is studied. However, multi – dimensional view and performance which considers all of the involved factors and conditions look very necessary for urban a tourist studies, furthermore the traditional tools – performances cannot be answerable. So in order to obtain a confirmed tourist – to protect hidden sources and values in the historical contexts of tourist cities, on one hand we must to book keeping of tourist spaces and to organization of a special city. On the other hand, we should have enough information from the arrival of tourists until can apply proper strategies for managing (tourist) them, so that finally the highest interest and the lowest limitation – disadvantages obtain.

In this method, we can obtain to the required rank – position. However in the field of tourist space organization in the historical cities is recommended, as if the strategies should be selected that in adulation to applying services to tourists, the historic the heritage could be revived and entered to this industry to tourists instead of having an active role in the cultural effective can attract them to the environment attractions more. The strategy proposed in the present paper contains the establishment of tourist pedestrian routes in which the historical context of cities regarding the original of in-urban developing and considering the reviviscence/revival of the old space, the nodal points could be transformed into the pedestrian – oriented trails.
Another strategy proposed to this case is that to direct tourists toward the strength points of urban spaces and also to remove the weakness some, gradually. One of the stages of administrative of tourists' behavior management is that to make animations if related to the proposal tourist routes to tourists who can obtain to this task, of the first stages by applying the function of Network Analyst – and then at the advanced stages by helping to Web GIS.

REFERENCES


Taban, Mohsen and Azadeh Pashtoonizadeh (2010) Axes of urban indicators and ecological rivers (Improving spatial identity, with Special References to Tourism Trails, Journal of City Identity, 6, 34-64.


Assessment of Geotourism Capabilities, Case Study: Western slopes of Mount Sabalan (Meshkinshahr), Iran

Sh. roostaei
University of Tabriz Professor of Geomorphology.
E-mail: roostaei@tabrizu.ac.ir

INTRODUCTION

Geo-morphosites are natural phenomena and problems associated with scientific value, Economical, cultural and ecological communities and humans are associated with (Panizza, M., 2001, 4, Reynard, E., 2004,123, Reynard, E., 2005, 181). Thus, they represent the entire history of a holder of a geographic area, along with other related elements of the environment and manufactured structures are available (Marthaler, M., 2003, 95, Pralong, JP, 2004, 302). Therefore, these areas can be tailored to your level of attraction to attract tourists (Ilieş, D., Josan, N., 2009, 79). Geotourism is tourism attractions and provides a new method that completely follows the principles of tourism. Combination of geology, geomorphology, landscape, tourism, natural resources, Landform, the rocks and minerals with emphasis on the processes leading to this problem. This study will be to identify the forms and geomorphologic characteristics of the area to assess the capabilities of geotourism related Landform of Meshkinshahr looking Geomorphotuorism pay.

METHODOLOGY

Landform available for geotourism potential of inductive and field methods and criteria used. Primarily through library research, reviewing relevant documents, information and data needed to be collected. The topographic survey, field visits, Landform were identified and the position of each of them. Also, because the data obtained can be generalized answers. A questionnaire was used for the specific purposes set out tourists. After completing the forms for each Landform to determine potential land and tourism potentials of geomorphological spatial resolution of Prolong model (2005 ) is used, which Landform
geomorphologic four criteria (aesthetic, scientific, cultural - historical and socio - economic) considered are specific criteria for determining each Landform geomorphologic aspects of tourism, including aesthetic, scientific, cultural - historical and socio - economic specified. In such a situation, the potential of tourism as a means of Landform include four criteria above and is expressed in the following equation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The values obtained from the calculation of tourism value Landform geomorphologic tourist Meshkinshar and compare Landform, mountains sabalan with a score of 0/68 rated in terms of the tourism accounted for, and it can be as attractive most geomorphological Landform said. Importance and value of this mountain, and it has some advantages over other Landform. peaks over 4800 meters, there is a beautiful lake and several large and small refrigerator and hot springs Sarein, Mavil, Qtur suy, Shabil the breathtaking scenery and several ponds and lakes are. There are other reasons that make this Landform so as to account for the highest score. After Landform sabalan mountain valleys, Shirvan, earn points with 0/54, the next level is. However, in terms of value and efficiency, has a considerably different sabalan. These differences, lack of proper access roads, lack of amenities and the rest - sometimes good and not for promoting the beautiful and pristine nature of the action taken so far to develop tourism in the area and do not have Evaluation results show that the value tourism Landform geomorphologic area of tourism were mainly due to the high scientific value, aesthetic value, historical and cultural values and the social and economic value is to be associated with this Landform the value of currently considering.

CONCLUSION

Based on the results of this research and polling officials and tourists exploring the field of study comes to the conclusion That present area have a beautiful and unique attractions and unparalleled potential and capabilities needed to develop tourism and geotourism in the region is capable of. Sabalan Landform in the mountain area with a score of 0/68 grade points and Tourism 0/66 potential to attract tourism to the most efficient allocation and Shirvan Valley in second place. For Tourism development should create awareness on the protection of geo-tourism attraction that causes pollution and to minimize erosion and damage to the area, the environment, are preserved. Use of public and pri-
vate sector investment in infrastructure in order to expand Geotourism in the region by providing suitable infrastructure facilities to be established by the government, so it can be planned and appropriate management of these geomorphic phenomena as one of the major tourist centers of Ardebil, Iran, and even in the world can be made.

REFERENCES


An Evaluation of Geotourism Capabilities: Western Slopes of Mount Sabalan (Meshkinshahr), Iran

Shahram Roostaei
Department of Geomorphology
University of Tabriz, Iran
E-mail: roostaei@tabrizu.ac.ir

INTRODUCTION

Geo-morphosites are natural phenomena and problems associated with scientific value, Economical, cultural and ecological communities and humans are associated with (Panizza, 2001; Reynard, 2004; Reynard, 2005). Thus, they represent the entire history of a holder of a geographic area, along with other related elements of the environment and manufactured structures are available (Marthaler, 2003, 95, Pralong, 2004, 302). Therefore, these areas can be tailored to your level of attraction to attract tourists (Ilies & Josan, 2009, 79). Geotourism is tourism attractions and provides a new method that completely follows the principles of tourism. Combination of geology, geomorphology, landscape, tourism, natural resources, Landform, the rocks and minerals with emphasis on the processes leading to this problem. This study will be to identify the forms and geomorphologic characteristics of the area to assess the capabilities of geotourism related Landform of Meshkinshahr looking Geomorphotourism pay.

METHODOLOGY

Landform available for geotourism potential of inductive and field methods and criteria used. Primarily through library research, reviewing relevant documents, information and data needed to be collected. The topographic survey, field visits, Landform were identified and the position of each of them. Also, because the data obtained can be generalized answers. A questionnaire was used for the specific purposes set out tourists. After completing the forms for each Landform to determine potential land and tourism potentials of geomor-
phological spatial resolution of Prolong model (2005) is used, which Landform geomorphologic four criteria (aesthetic, scientific, cultural - historical and socio - economic) considered are specific criteria for determining each Landform geomorphologic aspects of tourism, including aesthetic, scientific, cultural - historical and socio - economic specified. In such a situation, the potential of tourism as a means of Landform include four criteria above and is expressed in the following equation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The values obtained from the calculation of tourism value Landform geomorphologic tourist Meshkinshar and compare Landform, mountains sabalan with a score of 0/68 rated in terms of the tourism accounted for, and it can be as attractive most geomorphological Landform said. Importance and value of this mountain, and it has some advantages over other Landform. peaks over 4800 meters, there is a beautiful lake and several large and small refrigerator and hot springs Sarein, Mavil, Qtur suy, Shabil the breathtaking scenery and several ponds and lakes are. there are other reasons that make this Landform so as to account for the highest score. After Landform sabalan mountain valleys, Shirvan, earn points with 0/54, the next level is. However, in terms of value and efficiency, has a considerably different sabalan. These differences, lack of proper access roads, lack of amenities and the rest - sometimes good and not for promoting the beautiful and pristine nature of the action taken so far to develop tourism in the area and do not have Evaluation results show that the value tourism Landform geomorphologic area of tourism were mainly due to the high scientific value, aesthetic value, historical and cultural values and the social and economic value is to be associated with this Landform the value of currently considering.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on the results of this research and polling officials and tourists exploring the field of study comes to the conclusion That present area have a beautiful and unique attractions and unparalleled potential and capabilities needed to develop tourism and geotourism in the region is capable of. Sabalan Landform in the mountain area with a score of 0/68 grade points and Tourism 0/66 potential to attract tourism to the most efficient allocation and Shirvan Valley in second place. For Tourism development should create awareness on the protection of geo-tourism attraction that causes pollution and to minimize erosion
and damage to the area, the environment, are preserved. Use of public and private sector investment in infrastructure in order to expand Geotourism in the region by providing suitable infrastructure facilities to be established by the government, so it can be planned and appropriate management of these geomorphic phenomena as one of the major tourist centers of Ardebil, Iran, and even in the world can be made.

REFERENCES


Marthaler, M., (2003), Le memoire de la Terre cache derriere les panoramas, Geomorphologie et tourisme, Lausanne, Géomorphologie et Tourisme, Actes de la Réunion annuelle de la Société Suisse de Géomorphologie (SSGm),pp,93-104.


The Transformation of the System of Tourism Organizations in the Context of Social Changes

Snježana Boranić Živoder
Institute for Tourism
Zagreb, Croatia
E-mail: snjezana.boranic@iztzh.hr

&

Sanda Ćorak
Institute for Tourism
Zagreb, Croatia
E-mail: sanda.corak@iztzh.hr

&

Jasenka Kranjčević
Institute for Tourism
Zagreb, Croatia
E-mail: jasenka.kranjcevic@iztzh.hr

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is the world’s fastest growing industry today, as corroborated by growing tourism revenues in numerous world destinations (UNWTO Barometer, 2014). Although many researchers took interest in tourism only in the mid-20th century, which correlates with the development of tourism as a mass social phenomenon, in many countries of the world tourism has a much longer history.

Tourism in Croatia began developing more than 150 years ago and therefore a research of such a long period and from several differing aspects might result in interesting and useful conclusions. Firstly, numerous political, economic and social changes contributed to the growth or decline of tourism activities in tourist areas, changed the appearance of these areas and initiated various developmental projects. Secondly, every society, in its own time, attempted to estab-
lish well-designed and planned development, which was in most cases carried out by tourism organizations, from local to the national level. First tourism organizations in the world were founded as early as the beginning of the 20th century (Pike, 2004). Based on historical data on the activities and development of the system of tourism organizations in Croatia, whose establishment accompanied the beginning of tourism development, this paper aims to determine the influence of the social, political and economic development and the prevalent social values on the characteristics of tourism and tourism organizations, and, based on the established similarities and differences during specific periods, to predict possible future characteristics of tourism development. This is particularly important at this moment when the transformation of tourism organizations in Croatia has just begun, including the revision of their tasks in the context of achieving greater efficiency. This is necessary in order to meet a large number of demands and needs of the current turbulent tourism market and ensure competitiveness of destinations on the one hand, and ensure sustainable development on the other. Historical analysis establishes specific relations between the past and the present and leads to insights capable of properly directing the future development of tourism and the system of tourism organizations, as one of the important agents of that development.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The history of tourism in the world has been a slightly neglected research area, although the last decade saw a growth in interest, particularly by historians, while researchers in tourism remained somewhat less interested in it. The Journal of Tourism History, an international journal devoted to this issue, published by the International Committee of Historical Sciences (ICHS), is a relatively new journal (now in its sixth volume), whereas scientific conferences devoted to tourism rarely include the history of tourism as a topic. Tourism in its more contemporary manifestations was subject to more or less serious, though largely partial, historical analyses (Hitrec, 1997). In Croatia, there has likewise been no systematic research on the history of tourism (Vukonić, 2005) or on the mutual impact of different social trends on tourism development and operation of tourism organizations. Nevertheless, there are quite a few papers which deal with specific historical aspects of tourism (Kobašić, 1987; Franić, 2000; Čorak 2006; Ateljević & Čorak, 2006; Kranjčević, 2013) or with the history of towns and areas in general that includes tourism (Hitrec, 1997).
METHODOLOGY
Past research on tourism mainly consists of written production, but oral production could also be used for a more recent history (Hitrec, 1997). A variety of sources are useful for studying the history of tourism, from statistical data, personal documents and mass media to other sources (Towner, 1988). For the needs of this paper, a qualitative research was conducted using the historical method (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). All available historical sources were checked (texts, publications and other sources) in order to substantiate the hypothesis that one phenomenon impacts the other (argument from analogy, McCullagh, 1984).

RESULTS
This paper examines the link between the socio-political and economic development and the prevailing social values on the one side and the characteristics of tourism and tasks of tourism organizations on the other. In order to understand this relationship more clearly, the period from the late 19th century to the present was examined, divided into four periods: 1) the beginnings of tourism development up to World War I, 2) the period between the two world wars, 3) the period between the end of World War II and the 1990s, and 4) the period from the 1990s to the present day.

These are the periods which are typically observed in the context of the life cycle of destinations, and in the case of the Adriatic they are specific from several aspects. The area encompassed by the analysis has lived under several different social systems which, owing to numerous political and economic developments, either slowed down or encouraged the development of tourism in destinations. In addition, social values changed as well as political and economic conditions. Under their influence, popular types of holidaymaking changed too, from predominantly winter vacations to 'sun and sea' holidays to the current hyper segmented tourism market.

In the beginnings of tourism development (second half of the 19th century), tourism organizations undoubtedly contributed to tourism development by endeavouring to preserve and promote cultural heritage, revitalize settlements and public spaces, and organize social life. They took care of the overall revitalization and enhancement of public and private spaces, which was even then recognized as one of the factors of attractiveness of an area. Between the two world wars, the role of tourism organizations became more complex as they aimed towards systematic organization, i.e. towards connecting with other
stakeholders to create different forms of tourism (e.g. cultural, mountaineering). After World War II mass tourism development took place, but was not accompanied by appreciation for traditional values of space. As a consequence, relationships between tourism and space were marred, as reflected in inefficient spatial planning which led to the creation of inappropriate tourism zones. That was the time of the so-called tourism associations, whose functions were mainly related to promotional activities. The period from the 1990s to the present time has been the period of the recovery of tourism in Croatia (after the war) followed by continuous growth in tourist arrivals. Based on previous organizations, a new system of tourist boards was established at national, county, city and municipal levels, which was again predominantly focused on promotional and informational activities rather than on product development and caring for the destination. However, under the influence of trends, there is a growing understanding of the need for establishing a system of destination management organizations which will be strong enough actors in their destinations to develop supply based on ‘new/old values’. The system of tourist boards is currently undergoing transformation which is why it is worth to put its activities in the wider social context. Croatian tourist destinations, together with many other destinations in our competitive environment, are faced with the challenge of how to manage destinations effectively in order to position them in the global tourism market (Boranić Živoder & Bartoluci, 2010). Tourism organizations play a key role in that.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Tourism, and tourism organizations, should be viewed in a broader context, which is where studying history helps. Croatia has a long tradition of tourism organizations, some of which are more than 150 years old. The study of historical sources reveals specific relationships between social trends and values on the one side and tourism on the other, which had direct impact on the tasks of tourism organizations. Several characteristic historical periods have been identified, showing that tasks of tourism organizations have been changing according to the change in social values and political and economic developments.

The research conducted for the needs of this paper has shown that a large number of tasks of tourism organizations are practically as relevant today as they were at the very beginning of tourism development. However, in previous periods, due to a smaller number of tasks, the primary function of tourism organizations was clearer and more thoroughly performed, as evident from their very names (societies for landscaping, beautification, reforestation etc.). By de-
veloping a large number of tasks, often without assigning clear priorities, these organizations cease to perform activities related to preserving the identity of destinations and the pleasure of staying in them, essential to future generations of residents and visitors alike.

REFERENCES


Destination Social Carrying Capacity: A Mass Communication Approach

Steve Pan
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
E-mail: steve.pan@polyu.edu.hk

&

Barry Mak
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
E-mail: barry.mak@polyu.edu.hk

INTRODUCTION

Other than the year 2003 when SARS broke out, Hong Kong had witnessed a steady, if not steep, increase of visitor arrivals from 2002 to 2012. The largest increase took place in the period of 2010-2012, when the average growth of inbound visitors was 6.34 million per year. This increase is only 0.8 million shy of the average Hong Kong population during the same period. The growth from 16.57 millions of visitors in 2002 to 48.62 millions in 2012 is more than three times with a total increase of nearly 32 millions of visitors, almost four and half times that of the Hong Kong population of seven millions. It took Hong Kong 11 years to increase 20 millions of visitors from 1998 to 2009. However, Hong Kong witnessed almost the same volume of increase in just three years from 2010 to 2012. Average daily visitors increased from 122,104 in 2002 to 295,986 in 2012, while average resident per day per visitor decreased from 55 to 24 in the same period. That is, a visitor in 2002 would theoretically encountered 55 local residents, but in 2012 this number decreased to 24 (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2013). Not only would visitors be more likely to bump into other visitors, the same was true for local residents to come across visitors.

Of the inbound tourists to Hong Kong, visitors from Mainland China took a lion’s share of this phenomenal increase. As of 2012, seven out of ten visitors to Hong Kong were from Mainland China. Even though tourism expenditures from Mainland Chinese visitors has contributed to nearly 9% (8.8% to be exact) of Hong Kong’s GDP, the inundation of visitors has also intensified intra-
cultural conflicts, make the fragile relationship between the two regions even shaky, and create an ever more densely populated space. Hence Hong Kong government is under tremendous pressure to review the region’s visitor carrying capacity. Responding to this popular pressure and discontent, the Government released an assessment report in December 2013 on the region’s capacity to receive tourists (Commerce and Economic Development Bureau, 2013). The report concluded that Hong Kong still has the capacity to receive more tourists in terms of general and tourism infrastructure. However, the report failed to consider social carrying capacity from the perspective of local communities and inbound visitors.

This paper aims to develop a conceptual framework incorporating mainly the algorithm of “willingness to pay” (WTP) in tourism and recreation studies and agenda setting and framing theory in mass communication to estimate the social carrying capacity of Hong Kong.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Carrying capacity can be categorized into three types: social, environmental (or resource) and facility carrying capacity (Shelby & Heberlein, 1986). Social carrying capacity refers to the level of use beyond which social impacts such as crowding and conflict will arise or the quality of visitor experience will diminish to an unacceptable degree (Lawson, Manning, Valliere, & Wang, 2003). Therefore, to estimate social carrying capacity is to quantitatively ascertain the acceptable number of user encounters with other people, or qualitatively decide a set of norms of acceptable behavior or conditions (Needham, Ceuvorst, & Tynon, 2013). Commonly used approaches to estimate carrying capacity include visual evaluation (Chen & Lin, 2010; Manning, Freimund, Lime, & Pitt, 1996), simulation (Manning, et al., 1996; Manning, Wang, Valliere, Lawson, & Newman, 2002; Wang & Manning, 1999), and fuzzy approach (linear programming) (Canestrelli & Costa, 1991). Most of the carrying capacity studies focus on an attraction, a wilderness area, or a park. Few researches focus on a larger area such as an urban setting, except for the study by Canestrelli and Costa (1991) on the carrying capacity of Venice. Moreover, most studies seek to identify the carrying capacity from visitors’ perspective, rather than from that of the host communities.

It is generally agreed that media more often seemed to reinforce existing trends and strengthen the status quo (Baran & Davis, 2012), the so-called limited-effects theory. Since mass media is a composite of content and channel that
can be perused to influence and persuade the audiences, neo-Marxists (Hall, 1982) contended that mass media can be viewed as an arena where competitions for certain frames to become salient and dominant are constantly fought among elites (Baran & Davis, 2012). The transfer of salience from the mass media to the public is called agenda setting (Shaw & McCombs, 1977). There are two levels of agenda setting. The first-level can be measured by the quantity of reports, page placement and story format, while the second one focuses on the attributes of the issues. (McCombs & Ghanem, 2001)

In sum, if mass media is to a large extent independent, it will mainly reflect the dominant frames from the mainstream of society, which in turn are adopted by the audiences to interpret information received, thus creating a cycle of re-presentation (or reinforcement). Hence, the quantity and quality of news reports related to a certain issue help us discern general perception and thoughts of the mainstream of society. This is similar to the results of public opinion derived from administering systematic surveys.

**METHODOLOGY**

A brief chronological analysis and the construction of a timeline regarding the relationships between visa policy, visitor arrivals and major negative news reports highlight the rationale behind the current approach. From Figure 1, it appears that two critical points emerged from the timeline. The first one is in the middle of 2003 (July 28), when Individual Visit Scheme (IVS) was first introduced for the residents of 10 cities in Mainland China. Visitor arrivals surpassed 20 millions in 2004, average visitor per day increased from 123,728 to 161,821, an increase of 31% from the previous year. Each day a visitor was surrounded by 42 residents in 2004, a decrease of 12 residents from 54 in 2003. In this first dramatic change of visitor arrivals, not many news reports were found to be related to this change. It might be that Hong Kong was recuperating from the SARS outbreak and was expecting the influx of tourist expenditure and capital to help it weather the storm.
The second critical juncture in 2009 (April 1) witnessed some socio-cultural conflicts that attracted much media coverage. This time it was related to another relaxation of visa requirement for Shenzhen registered residents who were eligible now to visit Hong Kong multiple times with a single entry visa on a yearly basis. This relaxation help boost visitor arrivals to 36 million from 29 million. Visitors now on average encountered less than 30 local residents per day. In certain tourist business district such as Canton Road, Tsim Sha Tsui, this number might be even lower. The latent local intolerance toward ever-increasing visitors started to instigate socio-cultural conflicts between the two regions.

Since the quantity of news reports can reflect to a certain extent people’s opinions and thoughts about a particular issue (Pan & Ryan, 2013). This research adapts the algorithm of calculating the mean of WTP (Kim, Wong, & Cho, 2007) to estimate social carrying capacity of Hong Kong, or intention to avert (ITA). In general, the mean of estimated WTP distribution is chosen to be a measure of the central tendency of the distribution. This measure is given by the following operation:
\[
\int_{0}^{\text{Max } A} \text{Prob}(A)d(A) \cdots (1),
\]
where \( A \) is the admission fee visitors are willing to pay; \( \text{Max } A \) is the maximum fee visitors are willing to pay; and \( \text{Prob} (A) \) is the percentage in a group of respondents that are willing to pay the corresponding fee.

By the same token, the mean of ITA can now be rewritten as the following:

\[
\int_{\text{Min } N}^{\text{Max } N} \text{Ratio}(N)d(N) \cdots (2),
\]
where \( N \) is the number of annual Mainland Chinese visitors; \( \text{Max } N \) and \( \text{Min } N \) are the maximum and minimum annual visitors; and \( \text{Ratio}(N) \) is the percentage of negative reports out of the total number of articles in the main newspaper sections such as headlines, political, social and economic.

Since we do not know the probability function, this integral can be approximated by perusing formula (3) to find the area of a series of partitioned trapezoid. We then find the sum of areas of trapezoids with the difference between two inbound visitor numbers in two consecutive periods as height and their corresponding percentages of ITA as the lengths of two sides.

\[
A = \frac{L_1 + L_2}{2} \times h \cdots (3),
\]
where \( A \) is the area of trapezoid, \( L \) is the length of two sides, and \( h \) is the height.

The period in the current study spans across ten years from the year 2004 immediately after the launch of IVS to the end of 2013 to fully analyze the impacts. Three most credible local newspapers \textit{South China Morning Post} (SCMP), \textit{Ming Pao} and \textit{Hong Kong Economic Times} (Center for Communication Research, 2011). Since the majority of Hong Kong residents are of Chinese origin, only Chinese version will be analyzed. Two coders will independently analyze the news reports to maintain inter-coder reliability.

**EXPECTED FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS**

This paper presents a conceptual framework and methodology to estimate social carrying capacity of an urban setting from the perspective of mass communication. The model has not been tested and still needs refinement. It is particularly elusive in determining the total numbers of news reports. It will be imp-
ractical to calculate all the news reports in all mass media since people do not use all mass media to form an opinion toward a certain issue. Additionally, what will be the weights of importance which people attach in forming an opinion for print and electronic media, for reports published in different pages (newspapers) and for different time slots (television news)?

All in all, it may not be difficult to identify a number to be the carrying capacity, but the implementation is. After all, Hong Kong is a free port city that relies heavily on trades and cannot afford to turn business away. In the end, how much is too much. This is especially true when it comes to social carrying capacity since "..., decisions about social carrying capacity are normative or political ones (Seidl & Tisdell, 1999, p. 407). It needs to be ascertained first whether the carrying capacity is more closely associated with psychological, social, intra-cultural, historical, and/or economic intolerance. Otherwise, any measures to sustain the social carrying capacity in Hong Kong will be futile, if not explosive. Having said that, the results from the current study can at least provide some reference point to monitor social discontent and deal with it accordingly.

**REFERENCE**


Hong Kong Tourism Board. (2013). *A statistical review of Hong Kong tourism 2012*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Tourism Board.


INTRODUCTION

In many holiday destinations, local inhabitants have to compete with the tourism sector over the access, allocation and use of water for their personal and domestic daily needs as the tourism industry exerts an enormous strain on the water supplies. This paper brings together these three disparate bodies of literature: tourism and water, tourism and gender, and gender and water and develops a gendered political economy of water and tourism development and presents case-study research from Tamarindo, Costa Rica.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Despite access to water being a key indicator of progress towards achieving the MDGs and the increasing importance of tourism in developing countries, there has been very little academic research on the link between tourism and the impact of water scarcity on destination populations (exceptions include the work on Stonich 1998, and Gossling, 2001, Cole 2012,and 2014). In addition, in spite of the wealth of literature on gender and tourism development (see, for example, Ferguson 2011 for an overview), such research has tended to focus on employment relations and tourism policy and planning, neglecting ecological issues such as water. While there is a significant body of literature examining gender and water (O’Reilly 2006, Sultana 2009, Laurie 2010), none of these examine the relationship with tourism development. This paper makes a preliminary attempt to address this gap in the literature by developing a gendered political economy approach to water in tourism development.
METHODOLOGY

Research was conducted in Tamarindo, a tourism resort on Costa Rica’s Pacific coast, in June 2013. Despite Costa Rica only using 2.5% of available water resources, being the most developed country in Latin America and having a high gender equality index there were reports about women protesting over tourism’s overuse of water resources. A total of 41 individual and group interviews were held. 7 with Government departments, 7 with hotels and guest houses, 6 with activists and the others were a mixture of men and women working and not in the tourism industry.

RESULTS

The research highlighted how while no women in and around Tamarindo were constantly affected by a lack of water many complained of poor pressure and interruptions. Water was perceived as a “women’s issue” both by male and female respondents. The consequences of water scarcity were different for men and women; and for different groups of women and were intersected with nationality, ethnicity and class; furthermore, women’s participation in activism is increasing.

Three key themes are identified from this research: the salience of intersectional inequalities of gender, class and nationality, in particular the difference experiences of Nicaraguan, Costa Rican and “first world” women; how the role of social reproduction is vital to understanding gender and water in Tamarindo, due to enduring assumptions about women’s perceived responsibility for water and its links to the gendered dimensions of conflicts over water. Conflicts which are highly gendered and contribute to reshaping of power relations in this international tourism destination. The consequences of rapid unplanned tourism development with 90% foreign ownership means that tourism enterprises do not have roots in the community, they have no allegiance to and have little concern for the future of the destination. As in other destinations, e.g. Bali, there are a large number of stakeholders, a lack of enforcement, overlapping mandates, and deliberate misuse of terms to get round water laws. The consequences are a supply system that is unable to cope with peak demand, illegal wells, saline intrusion into the aquifer, poor sanitation, overflowing septic tanks, polluted rivers, and a beach that has lost its Blue Flag. While competition between the community based water supplier and an autonomous government agency continues local women are left to deal with the consequences.
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

It is women who usually bear the brunt, as they are responsible for providing their families with water for domestic purposes. It is women who were most affected when supplies were interrupted. The impact of water shortages and quality issues is highly dependent on the social location of respondents. Those worst affected by water scarcity are the marginal communities at the fringes of social power, with little bargaining strength at the market, and little force in the political process; but Costa Rican women are protesting and making changes in the balance of power. The changes being brought about are context specific reinforcing the need for understanding context as well as gender relations in order to have a full understanding of the political economy of water and tourism.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Maria Diaz Madrigal for her research assistance.

UWE for funding the field research.

REFERENCES


Higher Education in Tourism in Brazil - In Which Scenario it was Created?

Teresa Catramby
Federal Rural University of Rio de Janeiro
Rio de Janeiro, Brasil
E-mail: teresacatramby@gmail.com

&

Priscilla Dutra
Federal Rural University of Rio de Janeiro
Rio de Janeiro, Brasil
E-mail: priscilladutra@ymail.com

INTRODUCTION

The sixties were distinguished by great political and educational changes. It was a period marked by urban guerillas with their roots in student movements, governmental repression and control of political activities in the Universities. Under this context, the military government then was urged to formulate a policy and so Law 5.540/68 was enacted in 1968 proposing a deep reorganization in the higher education system.

Prior to the 1968 reform, private higher education was organized just as much as public education. They had a semi-stated character where the Catholic Universities depended on funding of the public sector to support their activities (MARTINS, 2008). The structure which emerged from this demand tended to be qualitatively distinct from the former one. “Considering this other system in terms of nature and objectives, structured like educational enterprises” (op cit, 2008, p. 3), it subverted the conception based on the search for the articulation between teaching and research in the academic autonomy of the faculty. It is worth pointing out that education in Catholic Universities did not aim at their expanding to meet the demand but rather maintained their position of a university directed to the need of local elites.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Based on the subject of national socioeconomic development, moved by the possibilities of a sector in expansion and seen as a field of professionalization, the first higher education course in Tourism was created in Brazil in 1971. Barreto (2004) claims that, at that time, there was a resistance as to “thinking courses” which could oppose the government’s proposal. Therefore, other courses were encouraged such as the ones which somehow promoted technology and superficial understanding of society.

So there was a government incentive to create a course in which three favorable conditions were needed: the creation of EMBRATUR – Brazilian Tourism Enterprise¹, investment to improve touristic infrastructure with the creation of the Investment Fund in order to form qualified labor force and the expansion of private higher education and leisure valuation. It was “[…] a new course for a promising country […], the country of the future met the profession of the future”, as pointed out by Trigo (2000, p.245). However, different from this logic, courses were created in subsequent years and also at USP – University of São Paulo - in 1973 through a request of the National Confederation of Commerce with the support of then Minister of Education, Jarbas Passarinho. It is not the aim of this work to discuss the role of graduation in Tourism but we cannot help showing the difficulty of understanding both on the part of the academy and the job market regarding the abilities and competence of the professionals with such qualification.

Apparently, the need for qualification of labor force gives room for the creation of a higher education course in Tourism in the State of Rio de Janeiro, the second one in chronological order in Brazil. It was implemented at UCP- Catholic University of Petrópolis, Brazil, in 1972 in partnership with the Universidad Autonoma de Guadalajara, Mexico. The institution hired a professor, Rosa Maria de La Fuente, who delivered the subjects of Hotel Management and Food and Beverage and who would also help with the structuring of the course. In the following year, the first Center of Tourist Research (CEPETUR) was created in the same institution with the aim of gathering data, publications and information to give support to the students and the academic community. In 1978, such information was published and made available in a bulletin with over 3000 issues² and distributed to educational institutions, enterprises and

¹ Embratur was created by Decree-Law nº 55 on 18th November 1966.
² Data provided by the coordination of the course. There us a copy of each issue in the Laboratory of Tourism Course Planning at UFRRJ.
public bodies, including events, interviews and relevant information about the sector.

In 1982, the course was no longer being offered by UCP reaffirming a situation of course stagnation (Matias 2002) and stressed by the economic situation in the country. However, with a new scenario envisaged in the late nineties, the course was offered again in 2000 and had a demand until 2007, when it was definitely cancelled by the institution.

Nowadays, higher education in Tourism is offered in 21 institutions (MEC, 2014), three public ones and the other private ones. The current distribution of graduation courses in Tourism in the State is not uniform as it is concentrated in the metropolitan area. In the city of Rio de Janeiro, the course is offered by twelve institutions, one of them public. It is worth noticing that some institutions offer the course in more than one campus.

The courses mentioned above offer bachelor’s degrees and from 2009 the course of licentiate’s degree in Tourism, teacher’s qualification, was offered in the semi-presential modality through CEDERJ Consortium- Consortium of Long-Distance Education in the State of Rio de Janeiro.

As to post-graduation, the State does not offer a specific post-graduation program of master’s or doctorate’s degree in Tourism. However, some current programs approach the theme in research lines in their research groups, scientific works, subjects and their programs or have researchers who approach the theme based on their research areas.

**METHODOLOGY**

The methodology used for collecting data referred to the background of higher education in Tourism is content analysis as way to interpret the collected data during the hermeneutic process. The aim is to observe all the facts by means of gathering informative contents to enable us to understand the structure of Tourism courses not only by the quantitative perspective, identifying and enumerating their objective factors, but also by the qualitative perspective, identifying their diversities and continuities and consequently the relations in their surroundings. The qualitative method enables us to uncover the essence of facts formulating a subjective, critical and contextual analysis of the gathered contents gathered.
RESULTS

The results of this analysis evidenced the changes undergone with the evolution of Tourism in the educational level since the sixties, when higher education in Tourism emerged, until today. It was also noticed that though universities, with government incentive, gave priority to the labor market insertion of the student of tourism and his/her qualification in the area, current research shows that they now have a scientific view of Tourism, turned to its intellectual character and concerned about the production of knowledge. By analyzing the bulletins of the Research Center of the Catholic University of Petrópolis, one can see that there was an attempt not only to provide much information about the activities of the sector but also, in many moments, it enabled the participation of students in the elaboration of conceptual texts which were published in monthly bulletins in the seventies. It is important to point out that currently academic qualification of Tourism course, even with the several changes occurred during these years, still does not acknowledge a priority the intellectual knowledge of the profession of the area. Few Brazilian universities offer postgraduation courses in their timetable and only public institutions try to encourage and make available the insertion of undergraduate students in the area in scientific research projects.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In order to understand how the production of knowledge happens in any area of study, we have to understand how universities were created and how knowledge is produced within their structures. Since their origins until the now, the new university institution and the new intellectual social actors have gone through deep reforms and changes. We searched to present the university structure since the beginning, the role played by their actors and, in particular, the faculty in a context of dialogue for the production of knowledge.

Some educational policies were described in order to situate the context wherein higher education course in Tourism was created in Brazil. It is worth noticing that Tourism course has undergone changes throughout the years in relation to its curricular structure and timetable to meet legal demands as most of the institutions have chosen to transform their bachelor’s degree courses in technological courses.
REFERENCES


The Ançã Stone in the Building of a Tourist Destination

Vivina Carreira  
Coimbra Higher School of Agriculture, Portugal  
E-mail: vivina@esac.pt

&

Rita Gomes  
Coimbra Higher School of Agriculture, Portugal  
E-mail: rita-gomes-cvp@hotmail.com

INTRODUCTION

The theoretical framework that permeates the present study draws on two fundamental ideas. One is that the transversal nature of Tourism promotes contiguity between localities and municipalities, that urban central places, urban peripheries and rural areas function more as a system together than independently (Fernandes, 2008: 73) and that breaking geographical barriers and imaginary boundaries and stigmas of concentration of goods and services promotes territorial sustainability. The other concerns the concept of geotourism considered in its broadest sense, that is, comprehending cultural heritage (tangible and intangible) of the areas concerned and as a knowledge-based concept it integrates the tourism industry with conservation and education through interpretation of geological natural resources.

This work aims at demonstrating the ways in which a geological resource, Pedra de Ançã (Ançã Stone), a convergent element of the counties of Coimbra and Cantanhede, in central Portugal, can as a key element in the implementation of a tourist route both enhance the role of Coimbra as an anchor-city for the development of ecotourism in the peripheral, more rural region while boosting tourism in Coimbra itself by offering tourists one more reason to stay in the city for a longer period of time.

The Ançã Stone was once a very important regional resource and one of the reasons for the establishment of the first peoples in the lands around these regions. There is evidence of its extensive use over the centuries, from the Middle Paleolithic to the Roman period, with a particularly strong usage in sculpture
in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and in the nineteenth century architecture throughout the country and abroad.

The activity still goes on in the region, represented by some small businesses that extract the stone mechanically and manually for various usages as in door and window lintels, stonemasonry, street sidewalks, staircases, columns, handrails, sinks, sculptures, altars, cloisters, portals, altars, pulpits, tombs, etc. Quarries and quarrying activity associated with them are not free of negative impacts on the various phases of its operation, including the "state of abandonment" (Martins, 2005: 20). One of the most visible environmental impacts of extractive activity is landscape change.

The project here presented consists in creating a geotouristic route using the Ançã Stone as a tourism resource with four objectives in mind: 1) Call attention to the stone itself and all the customs and traditions associated with it; 2) Attract more tourists to the peripheral region and make them stay longer in Coimbra; 3) Provide tourists with knowledge about geology and the use of the stone over the centuries; and 4) Call their attention to issues related to environmental impacts of stone extraction such as landscape change and how to avoid or remedy them.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND METHODOLOGY

This study started out as a research into several studies related to the issues of urban tourism in Coimbra and the need for diversification of supply. Literature review was followed by a survey which consisted of direct contact with both the population and tourists visiting Coimbra and Cantanhede through semi-structured interviews intended to find out about the interest raised by such a tourist product. Contact with key regional public and private tourism entities and municipalities was established and museums and local accommodation representatives were also approached and interviewed in order to ascertain their willingness to be involved in the implementation and the promotion of the tourist route.

RESULTS

Having the aforementioned contacts proven successful, “The Ançã Stone geotouristic route: from the city to the periphery” began to be designed according to the regulations issued by the Portuguese entity responsible for the approval and registration of walking trails. A partnership was created with the Museum of the Stone that stood as the official promoter entity.
The route is based on a geological resource, however, it is intended to comprehend a number of other attractions, ranging from the local architecture, lifestyles and traditions, classified monuments, characteristic and observable flora and fauna.

Regarding the built heritage, it includes classified monuments, typical houses as well as other geological elements. This is still a region extremely rich in archaeological remains from the Middle Paleolithic to the Romanization. Along the way some of these legacies which are evidence of the Roman presence in the region can be seen.

As to modes of life, a distinctly rural character can be perceived in costumes, traditions, gastronomy and agricultural activity.

The walking trail was traced in a military map and all its characteristic features (typology, point of departure, point of arrival, distance, maximum and minimum altitude, duration, difficulty, etc.) were identified. All the elements of natural and cultural heritage (material and immaterial) that could be associated in some way and integrated into the route were identified. All sections of the paths that require intervention were also pinpointed as well as the places where signposts and information boards could be installed. A logo and a promotional brochure were also created. The promoting entity, the Museum of the Stone, shall disclose the Route from its website, as well as with its partners. Schools, universities, tourist offices, shops and restaurants, local, regional and national media will also be privileged places to perform promotional actions. The complete file is ready to be submitted to the official entity for registration and approval.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

“The Ançã Stone geotouristic route: from the city to the periphery” seeks to call attention to and dignify a geological feature – the Ançã Stone – and all the other cultural, historical, artistic and ethnographic aspects associated with. It also intends to alert to the importance of restoration of areas that have been degraded due to extractive activities. This route may serve as a catalyst element for all the activities and businesses involving the Ançã Stone. As it is recognized by the people and organizations involved, it is a starting point for the development of ecotourism and other synergies that bring social, environmental and economic gains as it can trigger other ideas and projects that may lead to the creation of new products and related settings, for example, gastronomy, wines, crafts, accommodation, and other regional links will be generated. This route will also
contribute to the reputation and diversification of tourist offer of both counties and the Central region, and encourage the preservation of cultural and natural local heritage.

The involvement of the population in this project is fundamental. It was intended that this involvement was done from the earliest stages, in order to inform inhabitants about its benefits, avoid future constraints and facilitate the development of the idea of the common good and collaboration at different stages.

We chose to associate this route with the emerging concept of geotourism, in its broadest sense as, in addition to the scientific and educational motivations, it also includes heritage resources. Geotourism is a growing tourism segment, which encompasses the concepts of sustainable tourism and ecotourism and articulates geological values with biodiversity, culture and landscape that are associated with them. Geological heritage as a tourist resource should be fostered in its educational, scientific and tourist aspects, highlighting their cultural and social links and functions.

REFERENCES


A Study of Tourism Led-Growth Hypothesis in Iran

Ahmad Assadzadeh  
Faculty of Economics  
University of Tabriz, Iran  
E-mail: Assadzadeh@gmail.com  

MirHojjat NajafiNassab  
Faculty of Economics  
Tabriz Business Training Centre, Iran  
E-mail: najafi1387@gmail.com

INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry is a relatively new phenomenon in international economic trades. Nowadays, it contributes to the foreign income sources of many nations. It also plays a significant role in the economic, cultural and social development of many countries. If managed properly, it could lead to increased production, higher standard of living, increased public welfare and a high level employment. With many historical, religious and natural attractions, Iran has the potential to become one of the main tourists’ destinations in the world. With a strong tourism industry, Iran will play an effective economic role in the region. It will also enable the country to introduce Persian cultural heritage to the world. From the income earning point, tourism is the largest service industry in the world. Therefore, its growth leads to many social and economic changes.

A large attention to tourism is partly due to its economic importance and partly due to its cultural and social effects. However, the main stimulus behind the growth of the tourism industry in many countries has been its economic benefits. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization, earnings of all countries from international tourism in 1950 were 2.1 billion US dollars. This figure reached $856 billion in 2007 and it was 919 billion dollar in 2011(UNWTO, 2011). This paper is trying to examine the relationship between tourism industry and
gross domestic products in Iran. Based on a theoretical background and previous research, our hypotheses are as follows: There is a bidirectional causal relationship between the income obtained from visiting tourists to Iran and the gross domestic product. There is a positive long run cointegrated relationship between income obtained from the tourism industry and the gross domestic product.

THEORITIAL BASIS

According to the export-led growth hypothesis, tourism can be seen as a kind of export, differing from the export of other goods and services in the fact that consumers consume it in the host country. Another hypothesis is known as the tourism-led growth hypothesis. This is a specific variant of the export-led growth hypothesis that many researches in different countries have been based upon, and it is proved to be true in most studies. The theory argues that economic growth of a country, not only is a function of labor, capital, export and other factors in the country, but also can be affected by the number of tourists entering that country. In fact tourism affects economic growth through different ways (Cortes and Paulina 2006). United Nations World Tourism Organization has suggested five main aspects in measuring economic effects of tourism industry; 1) Increase in gross domestic product: income obtained from tourism helps increase the gross domestic product. 2) Increase in foreign exchange: this is calculated as the gross foreign exchange earnings from tourism incomes minus the foreign exchange spent on the import of goods and services used by tourists.3) Employment: Local employment created by tourism. It includes several types: a) Direct employment: People who are working in the tourism related institutions such as hotels, restaurants, touristic stores and etc. b) Indirect employment: Jobs created in the supply section such as agriculture, fishing and related industries. c) Induced employment: People who are supported by spending income obtained from direct and indirect participants. Construction sector employment: Jobs created in constructing facilities and touristic infrastructures. 4) Multiplier: This refers to the effect of a foreign income source on the economy. It measures the impact of touristic incomes on the economy through creating economic activities. 5) Increase in government income: This includes government income tax earned from hotels and other kinds of touristic taxes, airport exit duties, and tourism industry import duties, income tax levied on tourism institutions and practitioners, and capital gain tax on assets of touristic institutions.

Travel and tourism shows up in all components of the GDP. First, a tourist spending is regarded as consumption (C), provided that this spending is done domestically. Second, the costs of constructing hotels, restaurants, establishments,
etc., which is essential in providing tourism services is regarded as investment expenditures (I). Third, a tourist who spends money in other countries and uses travel and other services is in fact importing services to his/her country. This marks a leakage from the national income. In contrast, a country that sells travel and tourism services to other nationals, actually exports services to those countries (Bull, 1991).

In addition to many economic benefits, it is argued that the development of tourism sector, particularly in the less developed regions of a country would reduce migration to the large cities which often happens due to economic motives. This prevents many complications arising from the large influx of population to the large cities. In short, the development of tourism sector would stimulate economic growth in all sectors of the economy including, international trade, transport, communications, banking and agriculture (Dristakis, 2004).

Traditional hypothesis explains that tourists can bring money to the host country and using this money income makes it possible to import capital goods to produce products and provide services. Thus, the expansion of tourism industry results in economic development in the country (Balaguer & Cantavella, 2002).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Balaguer and Cantavella (2002) examined the tourism-led growth hypothesis for the first time. They used the Johansen-Juselius cointegration analysis in order to investigate the relationship between tourism industry and the long run economic development in Spain during 1975-1997. They reviewed the tourism led-growth hypothesis and concluded that during the study period, economic growth in Spain was strongly influenced by income obtained from tourism. They also advocated that growth in the tourism industry had a positive long run impact on economic development through multiplier effects.

Eugenio, Morales and Scarpa (2004) used the dynamic panel data approach to study the relationship between economic growth and the tourism industry in South American countries during 1985-1998. They studied the relationship between the above mentioned variables using a macroeconomic model. The results suggested that while tourism development was essential for the economic growth of low and average income countries of South America, it was not necessary for the economic growth of high income countries in the region. Bahmani-oskooee, Economidou and Gobinda (2005) examined export-led growth hypothesis for 61 developing countries over 1960-1999 period. They used panel cointegration technique in order to investigate the relationship between exports and long-run economic de-
velopment. Their findings suggest that when export becomes a dependent variable, there will be a cointegration between GDP growth and export. Sequeira and Campos (2005) studied the relationship between economic growth and international tourism using the panel data approach during 1980-1999 in selected countries. Their results suggested that growth in tourism industry alone cannot bring high economic growth. Also in their study the tourism industry did not have a significant relationship with economic growth of the selected countries.


Olayinka (2008) studied the causal relationship between tourism spending and gross domestic product using the Granger causality test and panel data in selected African countries during 1995-2004. Their results suggested that there is a unidirectional causal relationship from real GDP to tourism spending. In other words, income obtained from tourism industry did not have a significant effect on economic growth of the selected African countries. Brida, Carrera and Risso (2008) used the Johansen-Juselius econometrics method, the Granger causality test and impulse response analysis of shocks in order to investigate the long-run effect of tourism industry on economic growth in Mexico. The Johansen-Juselius test revealed a cointegrated vector between real GDP, tourism spending and real exchange rate. Granger causality test showed that causality goes unidirectional from tourism spending and RER to the real GDP. They found out that a shock in tourism spending have produced a short run as well as a long-run positive effect on economic growth.

Lashkarizadeh, Keshmiri and Parhizi (2011) examined the relationship between tourism industry and economic growth in Iran during 1980-2009 using standard Granger causality test as well as error correction model. Their findings indicate that there is a mutual causality relationship between tourism industry and economic growth in Iran and such relationship between these two variables is supported in the long run. Jafari Samimi and Sadeghi (2011) used P-VAR approach to investigate the causality and long-run relationship between economic growth and tourism development in the developing countries over the 1995-2009 periods. The findings reveal that there is a bilateral causality and positive long-run relationship between economic growth and tourism development. In other words, the tourism-led growth hypothesis is confirmed.
Safdari, Abouie and Elahi (2012), studied the long-run relationship between tourism spending and economic growth and also their influence on each other applying a VAR model in Iran for 1975-2008 periods. The results show that the variables of tourism spending, fixed capital formation, index of economic freedom, trade and household expenditure have a positive effect on the real GDP. Assadzadeh, and NajafiNasab (2012) used the Johansen-Juselius econometrics method, the Granger and Hsiao causality test and impulse response analysis of shocks in order to investigate the long-run effect of tourism industry on economic growth in Iran over the 1968-2007 period. The Johansen-Juselius cointegration test suggests a long-run positive relationship between mentioned variables and the income obtained from tourism. Also causality test showed that there was bidirectional causality between incomes obtained from tourism and the GDP. They concluded that the tourism industry can increase GDP and vice versa.

**METHODOLOGY**

The main objective of this study is to investigate the causal relationship between tourism revenues and GDP growth in Iran using Markov-Switching non-linear causality method during 1968–2009. The GDP data, was obtained from Iran’s Central Bank, the data on tourism revenue, was acquired from Iran’s Tourism and Cultural Organization that was then deflated using consumers price index (1997 base year) also obtained from the Central Bank time series data.

**Choosing Optimal Model**

In order to select the optimal model from the data set, it is first necessary to make sure about the nonlinear pattern of the data. To do so, typically the likelihood ratio test (LR) of \( \chi^2 \) distribution is used. An important issue in estimating regime switching models is specifying the number of regimes. This is often difficult to determine from data and as far as possible the choice should be based on economic arguments. Such decisions can be difficult since the regimes themselves are often thought of as approximations to underlying conditions that are unobserved. Also, testing the number of regimes is typically difficult to implement because it does not follow standard distributions. To see this, consider the simple two-regime model in equation (1). Under the null of a single regime, the parameters of the other regime are not identified and so there are unidentified nuisance parameters. This means that conventional likelihood ratio tests are not asymptotically \( \chi^2 \) distributed (Ang and Timmermann 2011).

Ang and Bekaert (1998) showed that it is possible to estimate an asymptotic distribution for LR statistics in two regimes using \( \chi^2 \) approximation, such that the
degree of freedom for the latter is equal to the sum of the number of nuisance parameters and the number of linear constraints. The empirical studies, as well as the results of Monte Carlo simulation technique indicated that an Akaike information criterion (AIC) is very effective in identifying the number of regimes. Thus, in this study, we applied the AIC to identify the number of regimes. Then, it is required to determine the optimum number of lags for the vector auto regressive (p); again the AIC was applied to determine the number of optimum lags. Eventually, after choosing the number of lags and the number of regimes for both MSIA and MSIAH models, based on the value of the likelihood function and AIC statistics, the best model was chosen.

RESULTS

Variables in the MS-VAR model should be stationary in the level; otherwise differencing technique is used to render them stationary. Table 1 shows Elliott-Rothenberg unit root test results for LGDP and LTOUR variables. The results indicate that both variables were not stationary in the level. However, after first differencing they became stationary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Critical value 95%</th>
<th>Test statistic</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>10.02</td>
<td>LGDP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>14.13</td>
<td>LTOUR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>DLGDP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>DLTOUR</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since both variables of the study are cointegrated of order one I(1), it was then necessary to test their cointegrated relationship using Johnson-Juselius technique. The results of the test are reported in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Trace Matrix Test $\lambda_{Trace}$ and Maximum $\lambda_{max}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\lambda_{Max}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\lambda_{Trace}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As it can be seen in table 3, the variables in the model are not cointegrated in the level, and both of trace matrix and maximum eigenvalue tests rejects a cointegrated vector between variables of the model. In other words, based on trace matrix and maximum eigenvalue tests, the null hypothesis that there is no cointegrated vector or long run relationship between variables of the model at 5% significance level is not rejected. Therefore, instead of using LGDP and LTOUR, it was suggested to use their first difference, namely, DLGDP and DLTOUR. In the final step, it is necessary investigate the appropriateness of a non-linear model to fit the data set. To do so, as mentioned earlier, we used the LR test. The results of LR are presented in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prob</th>
<th>Statistic</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>$\chi^2(17)$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>$\chi^2(19)$</td>
<td>101.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>DAVIES</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 3, at 1% level of significance, the null hypothesis, i.e., the existence of a linear pattern in the data is rejected. Therefore, the linear vector autoregressive method is not appropriate for the data. Therefore, in order to investigate the relationship between tourism industry and economic growth it is suggested to use MS-VAR model. As a first step in the Markov-switching method, it is imperative to determine the number of optimal lags and regimes for both MSIA and MSIAH. To do so, the likelihood ratio and Akaike information criteria was utilized. The results indicate that the MSIAH (2)-VAR (3) turned out to have the best fit to the data set. Hence, it was used as the optimal model in the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regime 1</th>
<th>DLGDP</th>
<th>DLTOUR</th>
<th>Regime 2</th>
<th>DLGDP</th>
<th>DLTOUR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Table 4 presents the results of estimation for MSIAH (2)-VAR (3) model. It is evident that in regime 1, the first and the third lags in the tourism equation is statistically significant and in regime 2, the first and the second lags in the economic growth equation become significant. Also in the equation relating to tourism revenue (LTOUR) in regime 1, the first and second lags of the economic growth is significant. And in regime 2, the first and the third lags of the same variable in LTOUR become significant. Therefore, according to the results obtained, in both regimes, a bidirectional causal relationship between tourism revenue and economic growth is detected. The probability of a shift from regime 1 to regime 1 is 0.7 and the probability of shifting from regime 2 to regime 2 is 0.65. According to Figure 1, regime 1 includes 1976-1983, 1985-1988, 1996-1997, 2000-2001, 2003-2004, and 2007-2008, the remaining years lies in regime 2.
CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Using time series data, attempts have been made to study the causal relationship between Iran’s revenues from foreign tourism and the GDP growth rate during the period 1968-2009. Since most economic variables exhibited non-linear behavior, the application of linear methods could lead to incorrect conclusions. Thus, in this research Granger causality relationship between economic growth and tourism industry is investigated applying Markov-Switching vector autoregressive (MS-VAR) models which allow for the possibility of regime changes. The finding of a nonlinear granger-causality test revealed that there was a bidirectional causal relationship between tourism industry and economic growth. Therefore tourism revenues always had a positive impact on the economic development of Iran, in the same way; GDP growth influenced tourism revenues, too. The hefty dependence of Iran on petrodollars income caused serious problems for the country. In light of the increasing importance of tourism industry, it is expected that the expansion of tourism sector in Iran will bring economic growth and reduce the country’s dependence on the export of crude oil.
REFERENCES


The Perspective of Eco-tourism in Northern Iran Based on Regional Tourism Attractions

Omid Ali Kharazmi
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran
E-mail: kharazmi@um.ac.ir

Alireza Bidkhori
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad (FUM), Iran
E-mail: alirezabidkhori@yahoo.com

Amirali Kharazmi,
Ferdowsi University of Mashhad (FUM), Iran
E-mail: aa_kharazmi@yahoo.com

INTRODUCTION

Eco-tourism in comparison with tourism is a relatively new phenomenon. In fact, the realization of sustainable development concept has led to the creation of eco-tourism. It is being considered as one of the appropriate measures regarding sustainable development (Jehad Research Group, 2003). Boo believes that eco-tourism not only encompasses conservation issue but also it is associated with educational and economic aspects (Boo, 1990, p.4). According to him, eco-tourists are nature proponents with the aim of income generation, creation of job opportunities, and provision of environmental training.

Eco-tourism constitutes between 40-60% of the total international tourists. Iran in general, received 1400000 international tourists in 2000. This figure corresponds with 19% of the world total tourist receipts (Akbari, 2004, 9). Even-though, the exact number of eco-tourists has not been determined but over 1 million have visited the eco-tourism attractions of the province between 2011-2012 out of which 19,375 were international tourists. World’s average annual income out of each tourist including eco-tourists has been estimated up to US $ 685. The corresponding figure
for Iran has been amounted to US $ 443 (Ibid). Eco-tourism contribution in term of annual revenue is amounted up to US $ 250 millions (Jehad Research Group, 2003).

It has been estimated that on average each foreign eco-tourist spends over Rls 2,500,000 in order to cover its expenditure with regard to accommodation, food, fees and souvenirs in the province.

Eco-tourism provides direct, indirect and induced job opportunities as well. The total number of Iran’s direct job opportunities out of this sector is 54,000 and total number of indirect and induced job opportunities has been reached to 326,000 (Ibid). It is been argued that the province is capable of creating 4-6 direct job opportunities per eco-tourist as well as 1.5 times indirect and induced opportunities.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Eco-tourism can be a sustainable form of tourism if properly managed. The aim should be to manage eco-tourism so that it is an enlightening nature travel experience that contributes to the conservation of the ecosystem with respecting the integrity of the host community. Figgis is the first who introduced sustainability issue in tourism area (Figgis, 1994, p.13). According to Richardson environmental conservation, natural bases, sustainability with regard to social and cultural aspects are the fundamental bases of eco-tourism (Richardson, 1993).

Blarney believes in some principle foundations including natural, educational, and sustainable concepts (Blarney, 1997). The first concept is basically associated with natural reserves. Its aims head towards maintaining natural species and other physical heritages related to natural reserves and parks. The education-training base of eco-tourism distinguishes this type of tourism from other natural-oriented tourism. This orientation stresses on promotion of tourists' knowledge and awareness with regard to fragile ecological settings. Therefore, the enhancement of tourists' behaviours and attitudes and local host communities' trainings with regard to conservation issues are highly recommended.

There exists a continuum with regard to holding an attitude towards viewing both wild life and indigenous people. Swarbrooke implies three distinctive attitudes toward viewing wildlife and indigenous people.

According to this continuum, first group is predominately concern free people with little or no sympathy towards both wildlife and people. Second group are anti environmental damage generation.
Groups that try to make positive contributions and accomplish sustainability fall into third category.

**Eco-tourism attractions of Northern IRAN (Golestan Province)**

Iran in general and northern of the country (known as Golestan province) in particular offers great eco-tourism potentialities and attractions virtually in all seasons. Golestan province is located in northeast of the country. It possesses an outstanding national park and forest reservations with many precious habitats and fascinating trials, waterfalls, caves, springs, and marshes.

**National and forest parks**

Among one of the most amazing natural attractions, Golestan national park, as the first Iran's national park located in Minoodasht attracts the most. This park was named Almeh reservation, Mohamad Reza shah, Wild Park and finally National park in 1961, 63, 65, and 67 respectively. Its total area has been amounted up to 91,895 hectares. This park due to its peculiar topographic, climatic and hydrologic specifications possesses over 5,200 plant varieties that constitute 19% of Iran’s total plant communities (Niknejad, 2004, p. 104).

**Forest Reservations and Parks**

Forest reservations due to their possession of natural peculiarities namely rivers, waterfalls, springs and habitats are being considered as natural heritage and may attract eco-tourists as well. However, some of them including chelchelee, Azizabad and to some extent jahannama have been recognized as forbidden hunting grounds. Jahannama forest reservation is located in Gorgan southern ranges in kordroy. The name derived from a village with the very same name. Its total area is 30,650 hectares. It accommodates some precious habitats among which Tarakat is the most distinct one. Tajha Orientals as well as pardus panthera, bear, forest wildcat, golden eagles, chukar and falcon are the most appreciated varieties. It encompasses not only some spectacular physical landscapes but also couple cultural points more specifically ancient cemeteries and Radekan tower (Ghaemi, 2000).

**Marshes**

There exists some international marshes which are all located in Torkamansahara (Inche-Boroon district) adjacent to Iran- Turkmenistan border. They accommodate some scarce plant varieties and migrant birds.
Gomishan, Inche boroon and Alagol all have been known as international plant genetic reservations. Gomishan marsh, which is located beside Gomishan plain, itself possesses 20 scarce fish species as well as 100 scarce birds' species (Niknejad, 2004, p. 104. Its total area has been amounted up to 1500 hectares thanks to raising Caspian Sea water level. It has been surrounded by very rich grasslands in which provide a very hospitable milieu for wild migrant birds during winter.

Caves

This province houses couple amazing caves which might attract ecotourists as well. Shirabad cave known as white giant cave is the most spectacular one. It accommodates few waterfalls and springs. Its stalactite and stalagmite formations attract the most.

Springs

Last but not least are springs among which Ziyarat and Ramian are the most attractive ones. Mud spring geysers namely Gharniarough is another point of interest for eco-tourists.

Rural settlements

Cottage villages including Jahannama, Afratakhteh, and more specifically Derazno could attract eco-tourists if properly planned. Rural folk culture With regard to different services and ceremonies (Georban bayram, Araz bayram, special ceremony for rain, and Aghghoeen, ceremony which held by men at the age of 63) and native music as vernacular culture manifestations might attract eco-tourism as well (Zendedel, 2000).

According to personal local interview, most of the internal Golestan eco-tourists will fall into the first continuum. However, international eco-tourists would fall into the third category.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Positive economic, environmental and socio-cultural consequences of eco-tourism from one hand, and Golestan's high eco-tourism potentialities including forest reserves, waterfalls, springs, marshes, and cultural point of interests, on the other hand demand moving towards sustainable eco-tourism with particular emphasis
upon institutionalizing environmental culture among different Golestan tourism stakeholders.

In fact, the minimization of the negative environmental, socio-cultural, and economic impacts, the provision of ecological training and educational opportunities more specifically in reserved area, as well as local communities participation in tourism planning activities could constitute major eco-tourism’s objective framework.

However, based on fragility and vulnerability issue, a model stressing on social, economic and environmental goals is highly recommended. The main priorities of such a sustainable model are geared towards community’s benefits, participation and education. Moreover, economic benefits as far as job creation and earning foreign exchanges are concerned should be highlighted as well. Prevention of resource degradation and move toward supply-oriented management are being considered as major environmental goals of the model.

Based on Wight’s points of view, and taking into consideration Golestan eco-tourism problems the followings are being considered as important recommendation regarding eco-tourism in general and Golestan province in particular. (Wight, 1993)

- It should develop in an environmentally sound manner.
- It should prevent any degradation
- It should involve education among all involved parties
- It should gear to supply-oriented management rather on demand-oriented approach
- It should promote moral and ethical responsibilities and behaviours towards natural and cultural environments
- It should provide long-term conservation, scientifically, and sound, cultural, and
- economic benefits to host community Special Golestan’s environmental and sustainable recommendations:

As already mentioned the province itself offers great deal of eco-tourism attractions. However, four of them including Golestan National park, forest reservations, natural habitats, and natural historical points are recognized sites by Envi-
ronment organization and are being affected by explicit powerful administrative policies and regulations. It is suggested that all of international marshes more specifically Gomishan, Alagole, Agigole, Almagole be included among those recognized sites by Environment organization and benefited from relevant administrative and executive regulations enacted by the organization.

In addition, National park was highly damaged through consecutive floods. Special rehabilitation care should be imposed by relevant organizations including Tourism organizations. The coordination among involved parties including Environment organization, Tourism organization, and Budget and planning organization is highly recommended. Another problem is lack of fund in which planning and Budget organization should be responsible for. Lastly, there is a management gap in the province that needed to be taken care of.

REFERENCES

Figgis, P.J. (1993). Eco-tourism: special interest or major direction, Habitat Australia.
### Name Index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Page(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abdullah, M.</td>
<td>361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abrantes, J.L.</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adami, M.</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adami, R.</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afsari, R.</td>
<td>406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al,Gahuri, H.A.</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alavi, M.T.</td>
<td>289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ariffin, A.A.M.</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assadzadeh, A.</td>
<td>9, 295, 509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azgouni, S.K.R.</td>
<td>400, 470, 471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baghbani, B.</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bas, T.</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basu, R.</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bednarska, M.A.</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berber, S.</td>
<td>412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bidkhor, A.</td>
<td>520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birkan, İ.</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blichfeldt, B.S.</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boxill, I.</td>
<td>201, 268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breda, Z.</td>
<td>164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buckley, R.</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Camacho, M.</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpenter, K.</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carreira, V.</td>
<td>505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casasnovas, A.A.</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Castley, J.G.</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catramby, T.</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cernaianu, S.</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemli, S.</td>
<td>457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chen, A.</td>
<td>201</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi, C.</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chianeh, R.H.</td>
<td>383, 392, 400, 470, 471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chon, K.</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cole, S.</td>
<td>497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corak, S.</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correia, A.</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dellen, S.V.</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dermetopoulos, A.S.</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divsalar, Y.</td>
<td>9, 295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dorra, K.</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutra, P.</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elgammel, I.</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erkuş Öztürk, H.</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eyvazloo, D.</td>
<td>383, 392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferguson, L.</td>
<td>497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fung, D.S.F.</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghanbari, S.</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghasemi, A.</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghasemi, M.</td>
<td>354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gomes, R.</td>
<td>505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gough, O.</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gursoy, D.</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hassan, H.R.</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hassen, M.</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heravi, A.J.</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ho, G.K.S.</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hodjati, H.</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hosani, N.A.</td>
<td>326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hsu, C.H.C.</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>İbrahim, O.</td>
<td>367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ibrahim, O.</td>
<td>454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imara, M.</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ivankovic, G.</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Izadian, P.</td>
<td>470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamal, S.A.</td>
<td>361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janta, H.</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeong, C.</td>
<td>332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jonas, S.</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karuaihe, S.</td>
<td>100, 464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kasim, A.</td>
<td>57, 194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kastenholz, E.</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kaymaz, M.</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazemsadeh, M.</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kefi, D.</td>
<td>457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kesgin, M.</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keyim, P.</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khadijeh, S.</td>
<td>470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khalil, S.</td>
<td>367, 454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kharazmi, A.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kharazmi, O. A.</td>
<td>520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kian, B.</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kilipiriris, F.</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koç, B.</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kranjcevic, J.</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Krüger, M.</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kubal, M.</td>
<td>418</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Latkoca, P.  214
Lee, N.  332
Lele, A.C.  48
Mak, B.  490
Manafi, M.H.  9, 295
Manners, B.  77
Markelj, M.  275
Marzano, G.  93
Mashile, L.  464
Mazaro, R.  431
Mazhari, M.  289
Mazurek, M.  255
McGinnis, L.P.  182
Mckercher, B.  121, 169, 376
McLeod, M.T.  268
McNaughton, M.L.  268
Medeiros, C.A.  431
Memili, E.  144
Mendieta, G.  93
Meneghello, S.  447
Mikkelsen, M.  83
Milan, B.G.  392
Mokhtari, D.  121
Molokomme, M.  464
Montaguti, F.  447
Mossaz, A.  28
Mulaj, I.  207
Muradoglu, G.  424
Mzali, H.  457
NajafiNassab, M.  509
Nardi, C.L.  93
Nhemachena, C.  100, 464
Olszewski, M.  261
Omar, N.B.  15
Omran, W.A.H.  175
Oren, G.  157
Oskooee, M.M.B.  282
Othman, N.  361
Otjen, A.T.  3
Pan, S.  490
Paris, C.M.  113
Parvizpoor, S.  282
Pawluninski, R.  418
Pinar, M.  320
Poon, P.C.M.  376
Poria, Y.  157
Pourreza, S.  347
Puronaho, K.  412
Rai, S.C.  439
RamjeeSingh, D.  201
Rasku, R.  412
Reichel, A.  157
Reis, H.  182
Rettie, K.  240
Rezaye, N.  354
Roostaei, S.  477, 481
Ryan, C.  221
Saayman, M.  77
Sadlounia, H.  406
Safarpour, M.  471
Sanoubar, N.  347
Santinha, G.  164
Saremi, M.  9, 295
Selim, M.A.M.  175
Silva, C.  89
Sivaprasad, S.  424
Skin, J.O.  332
Sobry, C.  107
Sonmez, S.  144
Sreenivasan, J.  57
Sumarjan, N.  361
Tabar, H.I.  383, 392
Tadessi, B.  439
Tavasolian, R.  471
Tinaz, C.  412
Tsoanamatsie, N.  464
Tuna, M.  305
Turco, D.M.  412
Upadya, A.  35
Uysal, M.  320
Wells, J.  225
White, L.  250
Wilson, J.  214
Wong, A.  21
Yalghouzaghaj, A.G.  295
Yan, N.  340
Yang, J.  221
Yildirim Ökten, Ö.  144
Zadeh, H.H.  71
Zaharia, N.  412
Zaidan, E.  137
Zenizi, S.A.  383, 392
Zhang, L.  221
Zhang, Y.  340
Zivoder, S.B.  485
Zolfi, A.  383, 392
## Affiliation index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affiliation</th>
<th>Page Numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aalborg University</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Akdeniz University</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alexander Technological Educational Institute of Thessaloniki</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anadolu University</td>
<td>412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atılım University</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beijing Union University</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ben-Gurion University of the Negev</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ca’ Foscari University</td>
<td>447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California State University</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coimbra Higher School of Agriculture</td>
<td>505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egyptian Tourist Authority</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fayoum University</td>
<td>175, 367, 454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal Rural University of Rio de Janeiro</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ferdowsi University of Mashhad</td>
<td>354, 520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Griffith University</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gugan University</td>
<td>9, 295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haaga-Helia University of Applied Sciences</td>
<td>412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hanyang University</td>
<td>332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher School of Business Tunis</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Sciences Research Council</td>
<td>100, 464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IHEC</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institute for Tourism</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institute for Civilization and Culture</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institute for Economic Policy Research and Analyses</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islamic Azad University</td>
<td>65, 400, 471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jagiellonian University</td>
<td>418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JAMK University of Applied Sciences</td>
<td>412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karlstad University</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>La Manouba University</td>
<td>457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matej Bel University</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montana State University</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neumann University</td>
<td>412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North West University</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okan University</td>
<td>412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poly Acrylic Industries</td>
<td>470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnic Institute of Viseu</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poznan University of Economics</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quinn Mary University of London</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhodes University</td>
<td>225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ria Grande do Norte Federal University</td>
<td>431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rochester Institute of Technology</td>
<td>310, 340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San Francisco State University</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School of Malaysia Multimedia University</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shahid Beheshti University</td>
<td>383, 392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stonehill College</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suez Canal University</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tabriz Business Training Centre</td>
<td>509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tabriz Science and Technology Branch</td>
<td>470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tabriz University of Medical Sciences</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The College of Management Academic Studies</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Hong Kong Polytechnic University</td>
<td>21, 48, 121, 169, 376, 490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The University of the West Indies</td>
<td>201, 268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad Complutense de Madrid</td>
<td>497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universidad de Las Americas</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universite Lille Nord de France</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universiti Kebangsaan</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universiti Teknologi Mara</td>
<td>361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>Page Numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universiti Utara</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universiti Utara Malaysia</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University City of Sharjah</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Algarve</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Aveiro</td>
<td>89, 164</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Calgary</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Carthage</td>
<td>457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Craiova</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Delhi</td>
<td>439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Eastern Finland</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of North Carolina</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Northern Colorado</td>
<td>412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Primorska</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Surrey</td>
<td>221, 261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Tabriz</td>
<td>9, 71, 131, 282, 289, 295, 347, 383, 392, 400, 406, 471, 477, 481, 509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Tehran</td>
<td>406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of the Balearic Island</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of the West of England</td>
<td>497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of United Arab Emirates</td>
<td>137, 326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Waikato</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Waterloo</td>
<td>340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Westminster</td>
<td>424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University of Zanjan</td>
<td>392</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valparaiso University</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victoria University</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington State University</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xinjiang University of Finance and Economics</td>
<td>370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yazd University</td>
<td>471</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Country index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Pages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>28, 250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>431, 500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>240, 340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>221, 370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>175, 367, 454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>221, 261, 424, 497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>370, 412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>21, 48, 121, 169, 376, 490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iran</td>
<td>9, 65, 71, 131, 282, 289, 295, 347,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>354, 383, 392, 400, 406, 470, 471,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>477, 481, 519, 520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>201, 268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kosovo</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>15, 57, 194, 361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>261, 418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>89, 164, 182, 505</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>77, 100, 225, 464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>332</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>41, 497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweedan</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>246, 457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>144, 188, 305, 320, 412,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Arab Emirates</td>
<td>35, 113, 137, 326</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>3, 57, 144, 157,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>182, 214, 234, 301, 305, 320, 340, 412</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Introduced first in 2008, this conference aims to attract a selected list of participants in two categories. First, it is open for those faculty members and/or graduate students who have a background in a different discipline, but have the willingness to expand their research interests into tourism and related disciplines. This category welcomes the submission of papers with single or multiple authors. Second, for those contributors with a background in tourism, hospitality, or leisure, the paper should be written by at least two multiple authors and each author should represent a different discipline, e.g., tourism + geography. All submissions should directly focus upon any aspect of tourism, hospitality and leisure research, e.g., sociology of tourism; management and marketing of tourism, geography of tourism; planning of tourism; psychology of tourism and leisure; economics of tourism, leisure and recreation etc.

**Submission Guidelines:**
The conference aims to attract a selected list of participants in two categories.

- **First**, it is open for those faculty members and/or graduate students who have a background in a different discipline, but have the willingness to expand their research interests into tourism and related disciplines. This category welcomes the submission of papers with single or multiple authors.

- **Second**, for those contributors with a background in tourism, hospitality or leisure, the paper should be written by at least two multiple authors and each author should represent a different discipline, e.g., tourism + geography. All submissions should directly focus upon any aspect of tourism, hospitality and leisure research, e.g., sociology of tourism; management and marketing of tourism, geography of tourism; planning of tourism; psychology of tourism and leisure; economics of tourism, leisure and recreation etc.

**Special Themes:** The conference organizing committee also strongly encourages the participants to submit their papers in relation to the following special subjects:
- a) History of Tourism:
- b) Travel Writing:
- c) Oral History as a Methodology in Tourism Studies
- d) Political Economy and Tourism
- e) Changing Nature of Tourism in 2050s

**Publication Opportunities:**
All accepted papers will be published in a form of conference proceedings that will be distributed at the registration desk during the conference. There is also a possibility of considering some of the selected papers for publication in special issues of various tourism and hospitality journals and as chapters in edited books (subject to a regular review).

**Conference Fee:**
Regular registration fee: 325 Euro
Full registration fee: 425 Euro (plus daily tours)

**Deadlines:**
Extended abstract submission (no more than 2,000 words): 01 February 2014

**Contact:**
Nazmi KOZAK, PhD
*Co-editor, Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*
E-mail: nazmi.kozak@gmail.com