Examining the Image of Italy, France, and Morocco as a Tourist Destination

Abdullah OKUMUŞ
Faculty of Business Administration
Istanbul University, Turkey
E-mail: okumus@istanbul.edu.tr

Bahar YASİN
Faculty of Business Administration
Istanbul University, Turkey
E-mail: bkarciga@istanbul.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

For a geographic area to become successful as a tourist destination, it is crucially important to recognize the tourists’ perceived images since it affects the individual’s subjective perception and consequent behavior and destination choice. This importance has led to a growing body of research on tourism destination image. In this research, image differences of the three Mediterranean destinations - Italy, France and Morocco - were examined as perceived by university students. Research data was analyzed by stepwise discriminant analysis. According to research results it is found that perceived images of the three destinations are significantly different and university students promoting these destinations have differentiated images of Italy, France and Morocco. Also, results showed that, potential customers for Italy, France and Morocco destinations could be predicted by using discriminant function.

Key words: Tourism marketing, destination image, cognitive image, affective image, discriminant analysis.

INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry is based on people having to leave their hometowns to become a customer. In order to be successful, the destinations have to attract customers from other places, regions, countries, and even from other continents, to visit their community (Prebensen 2007). Recently, tourism has been seen as the driving force for regional development. It is possible to increase destination’s tourist receipts, income, employment and government revenues by having a successful tourism industry. How to attract the tourists to visit and revisit the destination is crucial for the success of destination tourism development (Chen and Tsai 2007). The increasing competitive nature of the tourism industry and changes in tourists’ expectations and habits, require tourist desti-

ations to develop an effective marketing plan and strategy (Baloglu and Mangalgudi 2001; Beerli and Martin 2004). Destinations mainly compete based on their perceived images relative to competitors in the marketplace.

The tourists’ perceived images affect the individual’s subjective perception, consequent behavior and destination choice, so recognizing the perceived image of a destination is crucially important to become successful (Prebensen 2007; Gallarza, Saura and Garcia 2002; Hunt 1975; Chon 1990, 1992; Echtner and Ritchie 1991; Stabler 1988; Telisman-Kosuta 1989). This importance has led to a growing body of research on the tourism destination image. Tourism researchers stated that image is a crucial component among individuals in the process of selecting a destination (Prebensen 2007). The purpose of this study is to identify structured images of three destinations - Italy, France, and Morocco - as perceived by Turkish students. Examining the differentiating image variables of the three destinations held by students as potential tourists is also aimed in the study.

DESTINATION IMAGE

The evaluation and analysis of destination image has made a significant contribution to a greater understanding of tourist behavior (Beerli and Martin 2004). Many authors agree that Hunt (1975) was among the first to demonstrate the importance of destination image in increasing the number of tourists visiting destinations (Driscoll, Lawson and Niven 1994; Echtner and Ritchie 1991; Embacher and Buttle 1989; Fakeye and Crompton 1991; Gartner and Hunt 1987; Reilly 1990; Sternquist Witter 1985). Today, there is a general consensus about the significant role of image in the process of decision-making and choice (Baloglu and McCleary 1999a; Chen and Kerstetter 1999; Goodrich 1978a; Hunt 1975; Milman and Pizan 1995; Pearce 1982; Goodrich 1978a; Pearce 1982; Woodside and Lysonski 1989; Ross 1993).

Destination image is defined as a compilation of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that people have of a place, and this compilation is based on an information process derived from a variety of information sources over time, resulting in an internally accepted mental construct (Crompton 1979a,b; Kotler, Haider and Rein 1993). In the tourism marketing literature, many authors point out that tourist destination image is a widely used concept in the empirical context, but is loosely defined and lacking a solid conceptual structure (Beerli and Martin 2004; Mazanec and Schweiger 1981; Fakeye and Crompton 1991).
Recent studies on image (Baloglu and Brinberg 1997; Baloglu and McCleary 1999a, 1999b; Gartner 1993; Walmsley and Young 1998) tend to define it as a concept formed by the consumer’s reasoned and emotional interpretation as a result of two closely interrelated components called perceptive/cognitive evaluations and affective appraisals (Beerli and Martin 2004). Perceptive/cognitive evaluations refer to the individual’s own knowledge and beliefs about the object (an evaluation of the perceived attributes of the object) whereas affective appraisals are related to an individual’s feelings towards the object. From a cognitive point of view, tourist destination image is assessed on a set of attributes that correspond to the resources or attractions that a tourist destination has at its disposal (Beerli and Martin 2004; Stabler 1995). In the tourism context, those attractions are the elements of a destination that attract tourists, such as scenery to be seen, activities to take part in, and experiences to remember (Beerli and Martin 2004).

There is a general agreement that the cognitive component is an antecedent of the affective component and that the evaluative responses of consumers stem from their knowledge of the objects (Anand, Holbrook and Stephens 1988; Holbrook 1978; Russel and Pratt 1980; Stern and Krakover 1993). In addition, the combination of these two factors produces an overall or compound image relating to the positive, or negative, evaluation of the product or brand (Beerli and Martin 2004). Echtner and Ritchie (1991) argue that many studies on destination image only focus on the attributions, and neglect the important factor of attitudes that significantly shape the holistic image perceived by tourists. Gartner (1993) also shows that most image studies dealing with tourism have employed attribute lists to measure the cognitive component of destination image (Prebensen 2007). In this study, cognitive component (people’s perceptions) and an affective component (people’s favour or disfavour) of destination image was taken into account.

DESTINATION IMAGE MEASUREMENT

Tourism researchers and practitioners (Echtner and Ritchie 1993; Driscoll, Lawson and Niven 1994) have shown a great interest to destination image measurement. An accurate assessment of image is a key to designing an effective marketing and positioning strategy (Baloglu and Mangaloglu 2001; Reilly 1990). Baloglu and McCleary’s model (1999a) suggests that destination image comprises cognitive/perceived components, and affective components. Measurements of cognitive components mainly concentrate on destination attribute perception measurement. Perceptions represent tourist’s knowledge about destination’s attributes. This knowledge only emphasises the cognitive components of image and neglect the affective quality of these attributes (Chen 2004; Generus, Ward and Russell 1983). Affective components involve the individual’s evaluation about object or environment and generally reflect a person’s positive or negative, like or dislike, active or deactivate attitudes about a certain object or destination (Russell and Pratt 1980). Affective and cognitive images are distinct but also hierarchically related (Baloglu and McCleary 1999a; Russell and Pratt 1980; Yik, Russell and Feldman 1999). These two components complete the function of a destination image (Baloglu and McCleary 1999a).

There are number of scales proposed to measure destination image in the literature (Hunt 1975; Goodrich 1977, 1978a, b; Crompton 1979a, b; Phelps 1986; Gartner and Hunt 1987; Calantone, Benetton, Hakam, and Bojanic 1989; Gartner 1993; Ahmed 1991; Chon, Weaver, and Kim 1991; Fakaye and Crompton 1991; Gartner and Shen 1992; Echtner and Ritchie 1993; Hu and Ritchie 1993; Walmsley and Jenkins 1993; Baloglu and McCleary 1999a, b; Chaudhary 2000). Many of these scales are the result of exploratory qualitative studies that identified the important attributes and determinants of the tourist destination image perceived by individuals. These qualitative studies, based on unstructured interviews and focus group, have focused both on the general public and professionals from the tourism sector. Additionally, a review of a promotional material from the tourist destination being studied was, on many occasions, carried out before identifying the relevant attributes (Beerli and Martin 2004).

METHODOLOGY

The main purpose of this study is to examine the image, which Turkish students have of Italy, France and Morocco as a tourist destination. Examining the discriminatory image variables of the three destinations is also aimed in the study. In addition, age, gender and income profiles of respondents are examined in order to identify potential tourist profile. Therefore research hypothesis are set as below:

H1: The perceived images of the three mediterranean destinations (Italy, France and Morocco) are significantly different.

H2: Group memberships of the respondents are predicted correctly according to perceived destination images.
In this study, cognitive and affective images of Italy, France, and Morocco were measured. All respondents rated image attributes of Italy, France, and Morocco on a seven point likert scale. Each image attribute was evaluated simultaneously for the three destinations. Cognitive image scale included 36 items developed from the literature review on destination image (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Crompton and McKay 1997; Gallarza et al. 2002; Hui and Wan 2003; You, O’Leary and Morrison 2001; Beeri and Martin 2004; Echtner and Ritchie 1993; Walmsley and Young 1998). Affective image scale consists of four constructs and these attributes were extracted from previous studies (Feldman and Russell 1998; Russell and Pratt 1980; Russel 1980; Russel and Snodgrass 1987; Baloglu and Brinberg 1997; Hanyu 1993; Walmsley and Jenkins 1993). In order to measure cognitive and affective images of Italy, France, and Morocco, respondents were asked to rate each country on each 39 attributes on a 7-point Likert scale where “1” means “offers very little”, and “7” means “offers very much”. Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents were measured with five variables via categorical scale. These variables refer to gender, age, family income, class, and residence.

The student tourist segment has economic importance for tourism industry (Chen 2004). University students thought to have more opportunity and high potential to go abroad as a tourist. Thus, students from the Business Administration Faculty of Istanbul University were surveyed to measure perceived destination images of Italy, France, and Morocco. Undergraduate students who have never visited these countries were asked to complete a self-administered structured questionnaire. Data was collected during the first two weeks of June 2007. A total number of 500 questionnaires were delivered and 453 usable samples were obtained. The respondent profile is summarized in Table 1. The largest number of respondents was from the age group of “21-23 years” (68.9 %), of the sample, 226 (49.9 %) were male and 227 (50.1 %) were female. The great majority of the respondents had a monthly income less than 2,000 YTL (59.8 %) living with family (59.8 %).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Income*</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-20</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>500 YTL and below</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-23</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>68.9</td>
<td>501 YTL – 1000 YTL</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24-26</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>1001 YTL – 1500 YTL</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 and above</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>1501 YTL – 2000 YTL</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2001 YTL – 2500 YTL</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2501 YTL – 3000 YTL</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3001 YTL – 3500 YTL</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Residence:</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>49.9</td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>59.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>50.1</td>
<td>Private Dormitory</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>453</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>State Dormitory</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>With friends</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reliability of each construct scale was assessed by Computing Cronbach’s coefficient alpha. The cognitive image scale established good reliability (α=0.91). The affective image scale is also reliable with 0.76 Cronbach’s coefficient alpha. In order to determine the differentiating image variables among Italy, France and Morocco. Discriminant analysis with stepwise method was employed. Two canonical discriminant functions were found significant. The significance of the discriminant functions were tested by using Wilks’ lambda. A Wilks’ lambda for function 1 is significant with value of Λ= 0.345; p<0.001 and Wilks’ lambda for function 2 is significant with value of Λ= 0.811; p<0.001. as seen in Table 2, group variability explained by the model with two significant discriminant functions is 85.3% for function 1, and 14.7% for function 2.

*1.2YTL= $
Table 2: Summary of discriminant analysis results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test of Function(s)</th>
<th>Wilks’ Lambda</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>% of Variance</th>
<th>Canonical Correlation</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 through 2</td>
<td>.345</td>
<td>1.352(a)</td>
<td>85.3</td>
<td>.758</td>
<td>1435.091</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.811</td>
<td>.233(a)</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td>282.032</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a First 2 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.

Table 3 contains the standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients for the destination image variables. The magnitudes of the coefficients are indicators of the relative importance of each variable. The standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients in Table 3, show the 17 variables that contribute most in distinguishing among the three destinations. In Function 1, “luxury” variable (0.368) had the most strength in differentiating the three groups. “Modern” (0.260) and “Well-developed general infrastructures” (0.243) variables were the two most important image variables in discriminating among the three destinations. In Function 2 “Hospitable, friendly people” variable (0.635) had the greatest discriminating power among the three groups followed by “Many people speak English” (0.363) and “Good weather” (0.327).

To determine the differences among the three destinations on each function, the group centroids (see Table 4) on each discriminant function were noted. Centroids are mean discriminant scores for each group (Italy, France and Morocco) on a function and indicate the distance of the group in standard deviation units from the zero mean of the discriminant function (Ahmed 1991). If there is a great difference between the centroid of one group and the centroid of another along a discriminant function axis, then discriminant function separates the two groups.

Table 3. Mean comparison of variables and standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Image Attributes</th>
<th>Italy Mean</th>
<th>France Mean</th>
<th>Morocco Mean</th>
<th>Function 1</th>
<th>Function 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Luxury</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>.368</td>
<td>-.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modern</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.250</td>
<td>-.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-developed general infrastructures</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>.243</td>
<td>-.162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good night-life and entertainment</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>.222</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beauty cities and towns</td>
<td>5.73</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>.188</td>
<td>.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A good name and reputation</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>5.37</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td>.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities of sports activities</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>.148</td>
<td>.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good weather</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many people speak English</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>-.053</td>
<td>.363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Places of historical or cultural interest</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>-.109</td>
<td>.165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good value for money</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>-.136</td>
<td>-.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxing place</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>-.144</td>
<td>-.248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitable, friendly people</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>4.88</td>
<td>-.158</td>
<td>.635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exotic Atmosphere</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>-.172</td>
<td>-.246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>-.181</td>
<td>-.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Varied gastronomy</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>-.187</td>
<td>.168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place for adventurers</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>-.251</td>
<td>-.126</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p<0.01.
As indicated in Table 4, France’s centroid (0.969) was the strongest on discriminant function 1, followed by Italy (0.664) and Morocco (-1.633). On discriminant function 2, Italy’s centroid (0.623) was the strongest. France produced a centroid position that was closer to Italy for the discriminant function 1 and France’s centroid position was closer to Morocco for discriminant function 2. The discriminant function, also known as a classification criterion, was estimated by measuring generalized squared distance. Classification results showed that 72.8 percent of subjects were classified correctly by the discriminant function. When comparing the correct classification assignments of 72.8% with the expected classification correctness of 33%, over two-fold improvement in classification is observed. This means that the image variables used in the study successfully discriminate among the three destinations namely Italy, France and Morocco.

Table 4. Functions at group centroids

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td></td>
<td>.664</td>
<td>.623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td></td>
<td>.969</td>
<td>-.550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.633</td>
<td>-0.073</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Unstandardized canonical discriminant functions evaluated at group means

As seen in Table 5, the classification results had correct classification rates of 66.7% for Italy, 64.9% for France and 87% for Morocco. The high percentages of correct classifications were an indicator of how well the destinations could be separated using the image variables in the discriminant model. This result clearly indicated that the two discriminant functions were very effective in discriminating the images of Italy, France and Morocco.

CONCLUSION

Determining the potential tourists’ reactions to the images of specific destinations could assist in identifying the most appropriate target markets. With greater knowledge about the potential groups, tourism marketers could be better equipped to develop more persuasive promotional messages. This study focused on identifying the structured images of Italy, France, and Morocco as perceived by Turkish students. Examining the discriminatory image variables of the three destinations held by students as potential tourists is also aimed in the study. To this end, stepwise discriminant analysis was applied to research data. Stepwise discriminant analysis produced appropriate results with the 72.8% correct classification rate which is over the twice of the expected classification rate of 33%. Two canonical discriminant functions were significant. 17 of 39 image variables contributed mostly in distinguishing among the three destinations.

Results of the study showed that the 17 image variables successfully discriminate the three destinations namely Italy, France and Morocco. France is perceived as a destination for luxury-high standarts, unique history, heritage, and culture. It is also thought as very expensive and modern country with well-developed general infrastructures. Italy is perceived as a destination for luxury-high standarts, modernity, and relaxation. It is also evaluated to have good climate, good reputation, unique culture and history. According to respondents Italy is also an expensive country with hospitable-friendly people. Morocco is perceived as a destination for relaxation and unique culture. It is also evaluated as an exotic and economic country. It is also known with its hospitable-friendly people and it is thought to be a place for adventurers.

The results of this study confirm the relevance of image attributes in determining the differentiating characteristics of destinations. Identifying the discriminating image attributes of the destination and defining its difference from the other destinations should be a tool in the strategic kit of tourism managers. But there are several limitations that need to be pointed out. As with any study, the generalizability of our findings may be limited to the sample. In this study, 453 students from the Faculty of Business Administration of Istanbul University were surveyed and three Mediterranean countries were investi-
REFERENCES


Modern Tendencies of Professional Training of Specialists in the Sphere of Tourism in Kazakhstan

A.A. ZHOLDASBEKOV
Faculty of International Tourism and Service
SKSU, Kazakhstan
E-mail: abek@mail.ru

K. M. BERKINBAEV
Information Technologies
IKTU, Kazakhstan

B. TASHBOLAT
Geographical Sciences
SKSU, Kazakhstan

ABSTRACT
In the article the authors depict the mission of education and a professional training on tourism is maintenance of the industry of tourism with competent professional employees with special education. The content of theoretical training is understood as the certain system of special knowledge which should be acquired by students during vocational training.

Key words: Tourism and Hospitality Education, Kazakhstan.

INTRODUCTION
The mission of education and a professional training on tourism is maintenance of the industry of tourism with competent professional employees with special education. The content of theoretical training is understood as the certain system of special knowledge which should be acquired by students during vocational training. This system of knowledge represents the generalized reflection of scientific bases and practical experience of realization of tourist activity. Mastering by circle of theoretical knowledge by a trade, outlined in the curriculum, necessarily, but still is not enough for the successful and qualified realization by experts in their professional work. For this purpose students should have also system of skills, and also the certain know-how necessary for qualitative performance of various practical works which enter into a circle of their professional work.

In the Republic of Kazakhstan’s formation at students of the given system professional skill, skills and experience is achieved by means of practical training in a trade. The general task of practical training of students of tourism trades to generate at them skills, skills and the experience, necessary for performance of the production subjects to appropriate to a certain skill level. The contents and volume of these skills are defined by the qualifying characteristic of the given trade contained in the appropriate state standard of education on a speciality "Tourism". This qualifying characteristic underlies any program of practical training by the appropriate trade.

Problems of training and scientific substantiation of its contents remain rather actual. Before to put a question on, how to train, it is necessary to define, that is a subject of training. The contents of training in high school is understood as system of social - humanitarian, natural-science, professional and special knowledge, skills, mastering with which promotes development of intellectual and practical abilities of students. The contents of vocational training is not isolated from the general education, it makes a basis of mastering by industrial activity and formations of the creative relation to a trade.

The general concept of the given definition finds the reflection in more individual concept - the contents of vocational training. The contents of vocational training is understood as system practical, a professional knowledge, skills, mastering with which is based on an organic combination of studying and application of the theory that pawns an objective basis for successful development of ways.

Concrete industrial activity. This system of knowledge, skills and skills represents the general reflection of a trade. The basic driving force of development and perfection of the theory of vocational training are the contradictions arising between usual system of a professional training in the field of tourism and requirements which are showed by the tourist industry. To these contradictions concern:

- The specified remarks in " to the Concept of development of tourism in Kazakhstan " to address of the high schools engaged in preparation of the tourist staff, namely graduates of high schools which to the full are not capable to carry out tour operator’s functions and correspond to requirements of stability of the contents of vocational training; Contradictions of the project of the contents of vocational training introduced by us and logic of process of training;
• Contradictions of the contents of education and requirements to education in realization by experts “Concepts of development of tourism in Kazakhstan”

In itself “in Kazakhstan”, it is underlined to the Concept of development of tourism, that personnel maintenance of tourist branch till now remains unsatisfactory.

Hence, the state educational standards on a speciality such kind completely do not meet the requirements of a society and region on preparation of experts according to realization of the Concept of development of tourism. We were convinced of it, fulfilling experiment which has shown, that, from the point of view of experts in the field of tourism, common and special disciplines it is necessary to include in a number: some disciplines in quality "disciplines established by high school components", "Rates at a choice", "Special courses". And also it is offered to change the contents of requirements to independent works of students under the direction of teachers on some disciplines and to make offers on passage of practice by students. As a role of tourism in economic and culture it is continuous and quickly grows, accordingly, the requirement grows also in highly skilled experts. Therefore, vocational training of managers of tourism in high schools continuously is necessary for improving, according to a growing role of this trade. Tendencies of development of tourism and the tendency of vocational training of experts testify to it in sphere of tourism. The analysis of traditionally usual system of preparation of the tourist staff abroad, has shown, that it is constantly improved in a professional - pedagogical direction as these countries focus the experts on realization of concrete programs of development of tourism.

Each country builds the system of preparation of the tourist staff, proceeding from concrete requirements, a level of development and kinds of the tourist industry which in turn proceeds from presence of various tourist-recreational opportunities, resources of the country and from lines of other factors of development of tourism. Experts prepare in view of requirements of clients of the tourist enterprises or agencies. Projects of programs of training which pass approbation at a territorial and state level are developed.

Many advanced countries of the West have constructed a significant share of the well-being on incomes of tourism. Therefore last years the powerful research base and system of vocational training was created in the field of economy of tourism. First of all from such establishments it is necessary to name:

• Institute of economy of tourism and transport at the higher School on economy, the right and social sciences in. Saint- Gallene;
• Research institute on problems a free time and tourism at the Bern university (Switzerland);
• The European institute of tourism at university of Trier (Germany);
• Faculty of economy of the higher School of Munich (Germany);
• Institute on problems of tourism in. Shtarnberg (Germany).

Now process of formation of the tourist regional centres proceeds on the basis of the state high schools, including the Parisian university (Sorbonna, France), Surey'so university (England), George Washingtona’s (USA) university, university of Calgary and others. Thus, the European network of formation (education) is created in the field of tourism. The educational institutions cooperating with WTO as its centres or associated institutions, should become united members WTO. France is interesting to us not only the advanced tourist infrastructure, but also achievements in the field of education. Now in France exists about 400 higher educational institutions, in so-called big Paris - 13 universities, including well-known Sorbonna.

Article of charges on education is largest article account part of the budget. France is interesting not only the advanced tourist infrastructure, but also achievements in the field of education. In the country there are such educational institutions, as school of a hotel and restaurant facilities in. Fornication, Academy in Versailles, the International institute of a hotel facilities in Paris, the French institute of management in sphere of a hotel, restaurant facilities and tourism, Louvr school on preparation of guides and guides, ecological school of tourism near Paris etc.

It is known, that on statistics WTO France wins first place in the world on reception of foreign tourists. It is more than 50 million tourists per one year. Hence, these high schools in France have the features in a professional training for service of foreign tourists. The contents and a basis of vocational training is the system of a hotel and restaurant facilities, and only the small amount of programs concerns to

The tourist activity sold in hotel complexes as additional services. In branch of institute of Grenoble on preparation of heads of hotels - 360 of hours of the porter - 640 of hours, the director of hotels with 800 hour loading when the intensive curriculum of heads small tourist the enterprise is designed on 40-50. In France, in institute “carriages”, prepare for the administrative and commer-
cial personnel of tourism. A problem of training is reception of an opportunity to study activity of professionals of tourism, be capable to find the business in an extensive and constantly varying environment and in due time to advance economy of tourism in spirit of the European market, to accept experience of an environment in the field of tourist marketing, economy, financial and operational management. The program of training includes such disciplines as the tourist industry (129 hour), micro-economics of tourist firm (39hour), marketing strategy (94hour), designing (62 hour), financial and operational management (203 hour), management of power resources (78hour), new technologies (70hour), practice at the enterprise (312hour) etc. The contents and training are directed on that graduates were capable to offer and sell the tourist goods, adapted to the various markets, supported development of tourism in spirit of the European market, and also that graduates were able to be prepared for sale of tourist services, providing significant profit of the enterprise in conditions of a rigid competition.

Preparation of experts in the listed educational institutions has the following features:

- Basis of vocational training is the system of a hotel and restaurant facilities, and only the small part of programs concerns to the tourist activity sold in hotel complexes as additional services.
- The most part of hotels of France (15 from 20 thousand) are incorporated into large hotel complexes such as “Chord”, “Тулямай” (incorporating on 100 - 150 objects, and they, as a rule, organize the closed educational centres. Such centres, for example, “Infat”, train qualified personnel only for the enterprises which are included in an own network.
- Small individual hotels (with number of the attendant 6-8 person) for vocational training workers use licea and the colleges which are included in system of local territorial management. These educational institutions independently are going the project of programs of training which pass competitive approbation at a territorial level and affirm Ministerial national education. The ministry of work of France draws the conclusion about conformity of programs to the accepted qualifying requirements to experts of tourism and a hotel affair.
- The educational centres of hotel complexes are financed on 60-80% due to 2 - 6% of the incomes acting from deductions of the enterprises, included in complexes.

- Staff of tour operators, workers of a service bureau and tourist agencies prepare in colleges and the institutes, special schools and licea or are formed for the account of the most prepared experts of the hotel and restaurant facilities, called to connect the professional knowledge to opportunities of tourist business. The certificate or the diploma is necessary for this purpose.
- Compulsion of passage by the future expert of all levels Vocational training:
  a) purchases of skill of the trainee;
  b) professionality;
  c) receptions of the bachelor’s degree;
  d) training for reception of the diploma of the master;
  e) post-diploma training.
- Licensing, i.e. granting of the right on conducting hotel, restaurant and tourist business, certainly, it is connected to presence as at he personnel, and owners of the certificate confirming qualifying conformity of the personnel and the businessman to the purposes of an opened affair.

In the French system of continuous, consecutive training the feedback between noogenesis and their fastening at the factory level is realized. It is achieved not only a parity of number of theoretical and practical occupations (50 - 50), but also obligatory training of students at the base enterprises and performance by students of functions of the personnel in second half of day when the educational centres work in a mode of hotel, restaurant or the tourist enterprise.

If to look the curriculum of faculty "tourism, recreation and rest", the Netherlands institute of tourism and transport we shall notice, that the contents of preparation of experts in sphere of tourism same, as well as in France. In this educational institution the big attention is given such disciplines, as "Management in tourism, recreation and rest " (17 credit from 46), "Management of rest" (4 credit)," Introduction in the international tourism and recreation" (4 credit), "Work in groups" (1 credit), "Orientation in professional work" (1 credit)," Development of professional installations" (1 credit), "the Economic rate" (6 credit)," the Special rate" (6 credit), the exact Sciences and a computerization" (6 credit), languages: Dutch and English (7 credit).

According to Aktaş of Akdeniz University, Turkey, the majority of hours of loading and the contents of education is directed on a hotel facilities, on service of foreign tourists, on foreign languages (English, Russian, German). Stimula-
tion of investments in tourism, use of foreign capitals have enabled 1963-1994 to develop in the period tourism in Turkey which makes huge profit for this to the state. The problem of educational institutions and the contents of their education in Turkey should be focused on service of foreign tourists.

Practice and practical employment pass in hotels of various cities of Turkey. It helps to expand not only cultural knowledge of students, but also allows them to get acquainted with advertising work of the tourist enterprises. Teachers have the experience of work in hotel facilities not less than 5-10 years. Students SKSU named after M.Auezov since 2001 annually in the summer period pass practice in Antalya for for 3-4 months together with students of universities of Turkey. We have noticed, that a smiling kind of students of Turkey, their skill to serve at restaurant, hotel, knowledge of foreign languages, service, differ from skills, knowledge of students from Kazakhstan. And it speaks that as we have told, in Turkey the contents of preparation of experts has other character.

By the way, the same technique as in Turkey, plans and programs, the contents of vocational training of the tourist staff, is used on faculty of tourism at the International Kazakh-Turkish university by A.Yassavi Turkestan, republic of Kazakhstan. And really, Turkestan has similarity to Turkey: whom how to serve in sphere of clients of tourism. That is, as concrete tourists to place in hotels to solve problems of a public catering, the communications, excursion service, according to problems of preservation historical, national, a cultural heritage. In this direction the contents of preparation of the future professionals in sphere of tourism of Kazakhstan has other character, than in Turkey. According to Alex Shuten (Spain, Majorca), the contents of vocational training of students of a speciality tourism in Spain is most of all focused on service of foreign tourists, on service, insurance of tourists, culture of dialogue and preservation historical, a cultural value of region.

In the Russian Federation prepare for experts in tourism not only on federal, but also at a regional level as in various regions tourism is advanced differently.

Today in Russia one of tasks of the higher school consists in learning the future expert to adapt quickly in varying conditions of alternation of generations of engineering, technologies of work and manufacture to improve during the short period of time the professional knowledge in view of domestic and world practice, over value stereotypes developing for many years.

In republic Kirghizstan of Bishkek Academy of tourism (rector Chormonov) has the contents of the same vocational training of experts of sphere of tourism as well as in Russia as this high school was organized on the basis of programs PMAT. Students of academy is profound study foreign languages and pass practice on Cyprus, in Turkey, Italy, India in total in 27 countries of the world (according to the rector) and at coast of Issyk Kul.

The analysis, traditionally usual system of preparation of the tourist staff, the contents of education abroad testifies, that every country builds the contents and system of preparation of the tourist staff, proceeding from concrete requirements, a level of development of tourism which in turn proceeds from presence of various touristic-recreational opportunities and from the purposes of realization of the concept of development of tourism.

If to approach from the scientific point of view and from the point of view of realization of the concept of development of tourism in Kazakhstan it is necessary to take into account regional features of high school and the tendency of vocational training of experts.

In the high schools of republic preparing managers of tourism, drawing up of curricula, programs, the organization of all teaching and educational process were carried out basically by empirical way, without sufficient scientific maintenance. The facts when at drawing up of curricula and programs separate experts care of prestige of those disciplines which they represent, without taking into account requirements to system of preparation of the manager of tourism till now take place. Meanwhile, for training managing tour agency it is necessary to approach to selection of a teaching material not only from the point of view of profile sciences and their modern achievements but also to take into account attitudes and connections of system of the subjects investigated by students, a technique of training and other requirements of didactics of the higher school, and also regional features of tourism.

Absence of scientifically proved connections of its many components, theoretical and practical preparation is typical of modern tourist education, social - humanitarian, natural-science, general and special disciplines. Character of preparation of the manager of tourism does not promote to the full to formation at its system vision of global prospects of the world industry of tourism, and also optimum systems of its management. In a basis of process of formation of the manager the person of the future expert is not put. The student still acts as object of process of pedagogical reproduction, frequently does not come to light and its creative individuality is not formed. Problems of the further
effective development of tourist education consist in necessity of development of special, key and central projects. The conclusion that one of directions of preparation of experts in sphere of tourism is development of the professional tourist education which are taking into account concrete regional features allows to draw republics of Kazakhstan.

REFERENCES
Religious Needs in the Tourism Industry

Adi WEIDENFELD  
Geography  
University of Exeter, UK  
E-mail: iwe233@ex.ac.uk

ABSTRACT

This paper reveals a new concept, which assumes that satisfying the religious needs of the religious guest in the tourism and hospitality industry may increase his/her satisfaction level. This concept is introduced by reviewing the main literature addressing the religious needs of Christian, Muslim and Jewish tourists, and illustrated by examining the importance or necessity of catering for the religious needs of the Christian tourist in the hospitality industry. Based on this literature as well as on the theoretical framework concerning religious tourism, the paper explores the religious needs of the religious tourist in the hospitality industry and suggests the need for further classification and differentiation of the tourism product.

Key word: Religious tourism, tourism marketing, tourism segmentation.

INTRODUCTION

This paper explores the question of the relationship between tourism and religion, which can be competitive, influential, complementary and even co-habitable. Tourism and religion are competitive by nature given that both “compete” over the increase of people’s leisure time (Smith 1992). Alternatively, they can be complementary or co-habitable if the religious tourist manages to combine them within the time framework of his/her leisure time. The way these relationships are shaped is influenced by the way the tourism industry perceives and addresses the tourist’s religious needs.

Tourism and religion can be also influential on tourist behaviour; for instance, religion influences destination choice, tourist product preferences, and the offering of religion related opportunities and facilities to tourists. Similar to other tourism subgroups religious tourism should be seen more in the context of the current competitive environment in which the tourism and hospitality industries are constantly searching for new customer segments. In this context the tourism industry often inhibits a competitive relationship, where tourists feel they have no other alternative than compromising their spiritual beliefs in favour of a tourist experience. Instead it should pursue complementary if not co-habitable relationship. For this purpose, accommodating the religious needs of any faith and further studies addressing these needs are required.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Fundamentally, the religious tourist is problematic to define. Smith (1992) presents a schematic scale, describing the religious motivation of religious tourists. Figure 1 demonstrates the extremities: sacred and secular. Between these extremities there are innumerable possibilities for a tourist’s secular-sacred combinations.

![Figure 1. The Pilgrim-Tourist Path](image)


Smith(1992) chooses arbitrarily to term c as a religious tourist, referring to a moderate level of religiousness. This artificial attempt can only imply various transitional states, in which religious motivations may switch from a pilgrim state to a secular tourist state among the tourist population regardless of its piousness level. A pilgrim could be at a secular state, when he spends a day in a sea resort during a pilgrimage in a certain country. Thus, the pilgrim reveals many secular characteristics during such a day visit.

Motivations of a Religious Journey

Vukonic (1996) attempts to differentiate the relationship between both religious and secular motivations of a tourist’s journey as presented in Figure 2.
The third case 3 is similar to case 1, except that the interrelationship here is between traditional religious motives and specific kinds of varied tourist motives, derived from different forms of tourism. Number 2 designates the area, where all three categories of motives meet and intertwine: traditional tourism, specific tourist motives and religious motives. For example, a sunny holiday in Israel satisfies a traditional journey’s motive (motivation for a vacation) with some other specific motives such as culture, heritage and possible political motives. Moreover, religious motives, stemming from visiting some holy religious sites, can turn this journey into a religious experience (Vukonic, 1996). Given this theoretical framework, the following section will define the examined tourist in this research study.

The Tourist, who is Religious

Vukonic (1996) made an outstanding definition, encompassing all types of religious tourists into a single definition: “the tourist who is religious” (p. 75). The conventional terminology defines a religious tourist as “the tourist, making a religiously motivated journey”. The tourist, who is religious doubtlessly insists on being able to fulfill his or her religious duties without hindrance during a stay in the tourist receiving area. A focus on the first part (way) of area 1 (i.e. the tourist’s need to satisfy religious needs during leisure time) describes the religious aspects of the journey’s motivations of “the tourist, who is religious”. This focus examines how a religious tourist deals with his or her religious needs, provided or neglected by the local tourism industry (e.g., the hotel industry of a Mediterranean destination, a ski resort in the French Alps). Moreover, differing levels of religious piousness of tourists who are religious, affect the attributes of these needs. Thus, this paper puts an emphasize on “the tourist who is religious”. It throws light on the religious needs of tourists regardless of their journey motivations. Nevertheless, some possible impacts on the major secular tourist population, as a result of providing for religious needs in the hospitality industry should not be ignored.

Albeit religious needs are deemed less important in a dominantly post-modern secular if not atheist market, more people with religious affiliation (religious tourists) are expected to become tourists especially from developing countries, where tourism is still at an incipient stage (Rinschede 1992). Moreover, more religious tourists join multifunctional journeys especially in western industrialized countries like Israel, which involve religious dominant factors along with other tourists’ motivations. For instance, a pilgrim’s tour to a certain holy site may include a visit to an attractive tourist site that has no religious significance.

The first case 1 designates two interwoven motives and two kinds of journeys: the traditional tourist motive of taking a rest and the traditional religious motive of visiting certain religious sites. This interweaving is manifested in two ways:

- The tourist’s need to satisfy his or her religious needs during a vacation. For instance, accessibility to a house of prayer during a day trip or at a tourist destination.
- The need for a religious traveller to meet the traditional tourist needs, all traditional tourists have as well as religious needs, as part of their essentially religious motivated journey.
Similar to other tourism subgroups e.g. elderly tourists, gay tourists, disabled tourists, the special desires of religious tourists need not be marginalized. Furthermore, given that religion and tourism are competitive by nature, it is plausible to question whether tourists who practise their religion at home do so in a similar manner while away from home.

A small number of papers addressing religious tourists’ needs focuses on the pilgrim’s needs and ignores the ordinary tourist, who is neither very religious nor engaged in a religious journey; Fleischer and Nitzav (1995) provide some explicit conclusions and operational recommendations concerning the religious needs of Christian pilgrims in the tourism industry such as the conventional needs of a package customer. Hoffmann (1994) does the same concerning the Jewish ultra-orthodox tourism segment in the Israeli hospitality industry, and the research of Mansfeld et al. (2000) on the Moslem tourist is the first, which addresses the religious needs of the Moslem religious tourist in the hospitality industry in Israel. An additional paper focusing on the food service in the hospitality industry, discusses the ability of adhering to religious groups’ food service requirements including those of Jews, Moslems, Hindus, Buddhists and Christians as a marketing tool for hotel operators and suggests prohibitions, preparations, and service (Dugan 1994). The next three sections discuss the findings of the first three studies regarding the Holy Land:

Needs of Christian Tourists in the Holy Land

Fleischer and Nitzav’s (1995) recommendations include:

- Religious guided activities: “In order to add new [religious] sites to the existing ones there is a need to add guided activities in the sites” (p. 75);

- Souvenirs: A system of selling souvenirs in general, and religious souvenirs in particular should be developed around the different routes and within the religious or heritage sites;

- Training the rural operators: “The local operators should know the specific needs and characteristics of their targeted market segment” (p. 75), and they should take a course in order to obtain those skills. One may assume the authors also refer to the religious need of employing staff of similar religious affiliation i.e. Moslem workers. Similarly, it is plausible that Christian tourists would also prefer Christian workers upon others;

- Addressing a new religious travel path: “In the path of Jesus and his followers in the Galilee” (p. 74).

Fleischer (2000) is the first who analyzes and compares the characteristics as well as behaviour of Christian pilgrims in terms of tourism, relative to other forms of tourism in Israel. She distinguishes between Protestant and Catholic pilgrims in terms of their sectarian tourist needs following Smith’s theory (Smith 1992). Fleischer’s paper finds pilgrims to be older and of a lower economic status than other tourists. Their itinerary is usually characterized by a short stay, covering many sites and focusing on historical and holy sites. Thus, physical and infrastructure-related adjustments for relatively older people, including improved accessibility, safety, unique facilities and security are needed. Moreover, their short visits require focusing on unique itineraries, satisfying their particular demands, needs and expectations. Evidently, distinction between religious needs is found between Protestants and Catholics (e.g., religious sites’ preferences, length of stay). The Protestants, who usually stay for a longer period, are also interested in secular sites, as opposed to the Catholics. In addition, high satisfaction from a trip to the Holy Land is found among Christian pilgrims in general, and Catholics in particular in comparison with other tourists. The less satisfied segment, the Protestants, is considered closer to religious or heritage tourism than their Catholic counterparts, who engaged in pilgrimage. Presumably, Christian tourists’ needs in general and those of Catholics in particular, are fulfilled in terms of narrowing the gaps between expectation and experience. Nevertheless, there is no clear reason for the differences in satisfaction level between Catholics and Protestants (Fleischer 2000).

One may assume that Protestants and Catholic tourists differ in their attitude towards Christian ornaments within a hotel because of their differing theological concepts regarding religious symbols. In contradiction to Catholics, Protestants do not tend to appreciate materialist symbols as a part of their religious doctrine e.g. souvenirs. Evidently, Collins and Kilot (2000), who classify the Protestant pilgrim closer to the tourist edge on the pilgrimage-tourism continuum of Smith (1992), indicate that Protestant pilgrims are more interested in the spiritual aspect of the pilgrimage and not in the physical aspect (Collins and Kilot 2000).

Needs of Moslem Tourists in the Holy Land

Moslem tourists’ needs have already been studied in both the Tourism and the hospitality industry to a small extent. Some of their needs were modified and used as needs among Christian tourists in this research study. The needs of Moslem tourists have been treated with special attention even in Saudi-Arabia, which is not considered a tourism friendly state. The pilgrimage to Saudi Arabia, which is the most dominant form of Muslim religious tourism (also called:
The “Haj”), includes a visit to Jerusalem (Mansfeld et al. 2000). Evidently, the Saudi government takes care of visiting pilgrims in terms of tourist facilities, e.g., accommodation, health service, food and sanitation. It also assigns a tourism minister, responsible for providing facilities and religious needs, particularly in and near Jeddah and Medina. Regardless of the interests of the Saudi government in controlling the pilgrims’ “flood” to its boundaries, it is conducting a supportive policy towards religious tourists (Inskeep 1991; Mansfeld et al. 2000).

Mansfeld et al. (2000) have not only examined different forms of Moslem tourism and different forms of Moslem tourists in Israel, they also provide some recommendations regarding the Moslem tourist’s needs and preferences in both the tourism and hospitality industry, as a part of their research on Moslem tourism in Israel. Firstly, they present several findings concerning the religious preferences of Moslem tourists’ needs:

1. The city is considered religiously attractive for recreational activities, due to its proximity to mosques;

2. Many Moslem pilgrims are attracted to tourism sites, connected to their Muslim tradition and heritage (e.g., big cities, mosques and bathhouses). This phenomenon is mainly attributed to Moslem tourists from western countries, which are engaged in Muslim Heritage Tourism (a part of cultural tourism);

3. A Moslem tourist is interested in being provided with a religious diet according to the commandments of Islam (Dugan 1994). Presumably, the Jewish religious supervision fulfills that need, because it forbids serving pork;

4. Hoteliers perceive two relative advantages in accommodating Moslem tourists in the Eastern-Arab part of Jerusalem:
   - Proximity to praying at the Dome of the Rock (Al- Aqtsa mosque) at dawn and sunset;
   - A cultural advantage due to a large number of Arab-Moslem workers,
   - Living next door to the accommodation facilities, thus, providing a religious supportive atmosphere; Fulfilling Moslem religious needs: oriental diet, 8cm x 10 cm stickers with green arrows (the holiest colour of Islam) pointing towards Mecca, decorated by the Ka’aba (the most sacred religious site of Islam). These stickers are installed everywhere within a hotel room, contributing to creating a spiritual atmosphere. In order to avoid any inconvenience for a non-Moslem tourist, whenever a non-Moslem visitor stays at the room, these stickers are swiftly removed.

5. Most western Jerusalem hoteliers are ready to make the effort to provide Moslem tourists with their religious needs to increase their number.

6. The majority of Moslem tourists stay at hotels.

Secondly, Mansfeld et al (2000) give explicit recommendations for the Tourism and hospitality industry in Israel, stemming from the aforementioned needs: 1) Establishment of accommodation close to Moslem sites is needed, to absorb an increasing number of Moslem pilgrims and tourists, particularly in Jerusalem, the most popular destination in the holy land. 2) Satisfying several needs by providing:
   - A. “Mecca stickers”;
   - B. A copy of the Koran in every room;
   - C. Meals which satisfy Muslim’s diet needs.

Some of the aforementioned conclusions and recommendations support the hypotheses concerning the religious needs to the Christian tourists examined later in this paper, including location of hotels, proximity to a place of worship, the employment of Christian workers as well as providing hotel rooms with bibles. Nevertheless, Mansfeld et al’s (2000) conclusions were not found as a result of a direct survey among the tourists, but on a few interviews with tourist guides and hoteliers in Jerusalem. Thus, the religious needs of Moslem tourists require further investigation and empirical evidence.

**Needs of Jewish Tourists in the Holy Land**

Jewish religious needs are an important variable for the hospitality industry in terms of serving the ultra-orthodox segment. The Israeli Ministry of Tourism and Hoffmann (1994) conducted two annual surveys. Some of their findings (among others) has provided some background for studying Christian needs, which were examined among Christian tourists i.e. the presence of a place of worship (e.g. a synagogue or a church) within the hotel and organized religious activities by the hotel. These findings indicate the most important religious variables, which cater for the religious needs of this segment:
- Presence of a synagogue within the boundary of a hotel;
- Highest kosher supervision approved by the chief rabbinate in Israel;
- Tourist destination, which contains strictly, supervised kosher restaurants;
- Well-organized religious entertainment e.g., lecturers, excursions;

THE HOSPITALITY PRODUCT

The hospitality industry is a part of the service sector, which is aimed at satisfying the customer’s needs. The core hotel product is obviously fulfilling the customer’s needs for accommodation, food and social interaction, where “… the guest encounters several service providers including the reception, the food and beverage department and the hotel room with surrounding facilities (Heide et al. 1999:203). The augmented hospitality product is elaborated by differentiation and achieving advantages over increasing number of competitors. The industry must therefore continually search for innovative ways of reaching new customer segments. The customer is a key element to the successful provision of accommodation in the hospitality industry. Thus his/her needs are varied and consist of many components associated with being in a hotel. This section describes the guest’s preferences and catered needs in the hospitality and accommodation industry as a part of the comprehensive hotel product and particularly as a part of the hotel room product. Moreover, it examines how the religious needs of the religious customer are concerned with or may be combined by the industry as a part of the marketing process.

Accommodation in the hospitality industry is a complicated system, which takes into consideration physical aspects (i.e. hotel and its facilities) environmental aspects (i.e. geographical location, comfort conditions, aesthetics, etc.) and the actual nature of service contact (intangible characteristics). Thus, appealing for new customer segments such as religious customers should include the religious aspects of the hospitality product as an integral part of the customer’s orientation. The religious aspects are associated with all the above aspects as well as with the service contact. The physical aspect consists of religious facilities within the hotel such as a place of worship within the hotel (e.g. a synagogue, a church or a mosque in the hotel). The environmental aspect, such as the proximity to a house of prayer, will influence the guest’s preference for his/her hotel reservation. Moreover, building styles’ materials, furniture, fittings and furnishings, structures and operating systems may be constrained by religious characteristics, customs and traditions. (Buttle 1986; Jones and Paul 1993).

The services provided in a hotel may contain religious restrictions e.g. refraining from serving non-kosher food, religious services, organized religious activities e.g. ceremonies and even religious staffing e.g., employment of Christian workers (Buttle 1986, Johns et al 1994). Satisfying the religious needs of the religious customer in all aspect may be more beneficial for the hotelier than many tangible components of the hospitality product e.g. special room design, room’s up grading, swimming-pool etc. Consequently, one could raise the possibility that the front office desk may begin catering for tourists’ religious needs at the very beginning of the reservation process by addressing the religious needs as a part of the guest history.

The absence of studies concerning the religious elements of the hospitality product can well exemplify this lacuna. Its marketing and design are good examples of a tourism product that has not been paid due attention by scholars and hoteliers. Hoteliers for the most part sell the same product to all tourists regardless of their special desires. They rarely go one step further to tailor the hotel product in general and the hotel room in particular to the special requirements and preferences of any specific group of tourists (Heo et al. 2004). For instance it is quite rare to find hotels that accommodate the special needs of religious tourists of any faith.

CASE STUDY

A study highlighting the importance of satisfying religious needs to increase the satisfaction of the ‘average’ Christian customer (The tourist, who is religious, section 2.2) being hosted by the hospitality industry was conducted in Israel. It based its theoretical framework on the pilgrimage-tourism continuum of Smith (1992) in the context of religious tourism and the religious tourist (Vukonic 1996) to study the religious elements of the hospitality product. Specifically, the research explored the question of how important it is for Christian tourists to be hosted in an environment that offers religious features and services of a home away from home including religious restrictions and religious services such as organized religious activities and even religious staffing e.g. employment of Christian workers. Satisfying the religious needs of the customer in all respects may be more beneficial than many tangible components of the hospitality product such as special room design and room upgrading.

Data were collected given to 179 non-Israeli Christians at the departure terminals of two international airports in Israel between February and April 2002. The questionnaire included 26 questions, divided into four parts. In the first part, the tourists were asked personal details and characteristics such as age,
country of residence, denominational affiliation and degree of religiousness. In the second part, people were asked about religious habits in their hometowns, and in the third part were asked about their attitude towards the provision of religious needs in the hospitality industry.

The research used a quantitative statistical analysis to identify relationships between some of the key attribute, behavioural and attitudinal variables in the collected data. A Pearson Correlation Coefficient and T tests were employed to identify relationships between the following factors affecting the importance of catering to the religious needs of the Christian tourist: religious denomination; scale of religiousness; main visit purpose; extent of planning and ending in evaluating the trip as a religious journey and frequency of attending hometown church services. The questioned tourists graded the importance of religion to them on an ascending importance scale from 1 (not important) to 5 (very important). The most important need for Christian tourists was providing a Bible in a hotel room (Figure 3). Even though only 19% graded this need as ‘very important’, one should not ignore the fact that almost 42% of the questioned tourists refrained from grading it as ‘not important at all’ (Figure 4).

![Figure 3. Percentage of Christian tourists grading religious needs as ‘very important’.

![Figure 4. Percentage of Christian tourists grading religious needs as ‘Not important at all important’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religious Background</th>
<th>Religious Need</th>
<th>Table Size</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Spearman Correlation Significance</th>
<th>Spearman Correlation Value/ Direction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Church services</td>
<td>Church proximity to a hotel</td>
<td>3x3</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.365 (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Church services</td>
<td>Place of worship in hotel</td>
<td>3x3</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.289 (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization participation</td>
<td>Organized religious activities</td>
<td>2x3</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.387 (+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes/No</td>
<td>Christian ornament in hotel room</td>
<td>2x3</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.349 (+)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RESULTS

Although the results of this study may not be that surprising, they imply that appealing to new customer segments such as religious tourists should include religious needs as an integral part of the tourism product. For example, employing Christian workers at a hotel, the provision of a Bible in a hotel room reserved by religious Christians as well as information on religious activities and institutions (e.g., churches, cathedrals, masses, holy sites, and others) would satisfy important needs for the ‘average’ Christian tourist.

Many factors such as degree of religiousness and extent of planning and ending the trip as a religious journey increase the relevance of religious needs for Christian tourists. Other factors have the same effect on specific religious needs: frequency of attending church services in one’s hometown on the importance of a place of worship in a hotel ($X^2=0.289 \ p=0.000$) and on hotel proximity to a church ($X^2=0.365 \ p=0.000$); participation in Christian organizations in one’s hometown on the necessity of organized religious activities at a hotel; and one’s own home decor using the cross on the importance of having a cross and other Christian ornaments as part of hotel room décor (Table 1). It is argued that similar surveys should be conducted within hotels, where hospitality environments and their special tourist segments e.g. religious tourists of certain religions can be identified and separately examined in light of the need to personify the hotel product. Likewise to ensure more reliable statistical analysis and reduce ‘noise’, studying larger samples of tourists should be conducted in other tourism destinations.

The author suggests that the relationships between tourism and religion in general and tourism and religious needs in particular constitute a valid and important area of research and that satisfying religious needs in the tourism industry should be taken into consideration in the marketing process. Each religion and its denominations should be subject to further comparative research in terms of their religious tourists’ needs and tolerance towards satisfying other religion’s needs. For instance, the results of this research suggest the need for further investigation into the effects of theological differences between Catholics, Protestants and other Christian denominations and how those differences might affect Christian tourists’ preferences as customers. Additional research on the effect of catering to guests’ religious needs in a hotel on the satisfaction level of tourists affiliated with many religions could be useful for the hospitality industry e.g. exploring satisfying Jewish tourist’s needs and the tolerance level of the Christian tourists towards catering to Jewish needs in the hotel. Similarly, the satisfaction level of atheist tourists, who are exposed to religious elements in the hotel and the general impact on their tourism experience as a result of exposure to such elements need to be studied.

This study highlights the need for further classification and differentiation of the tourism product. This was demonstrated by the empirical research conducted in respect of the religious needs of Christian tourists in the hospitality industry. It is argued that this topic should be further pursued and studied for other religions, additional religious needs, and other tourist products and needs that affect the tourism industry.

REFERENCES

Multiple Levels of Consumer Goals in Vacation Decision Making

Alain DECROP
Faculty of Business and Economics
Louvain School of Management and University of Namur, Belgium
E-mail: alain.decrop@fundp.ac.be

Metin KOZAK
School of Tourism and Hospitality Management
Mugla University, Turkey
E-mail: M.Kozak@superonline.com

ABSTRACT
The primary purpose of this study is two-fold: (1) to explore which decision goals are used the most when making tourism choices, and (2) to investigate how such goals vary across both product (generic, modal, specific) and social (group, household, individual) levels in consumers’ decision-making processes. Results help validate Bettman, Luce and Payne’s (1998) decision goals’ typology. They further show that respondents are more likely to pursue self-confidence as a goal when making generic decisions while they will be more inclined to minimize their cognitive efforts and to maximize the accuracy of their choices for specific decisions. In a social perspective, singles are more likely to minimize their cognitive efforts, whereas households and groups are keener on maximizing the ease of justifying the decision to their members.

Key words: Multi-level decision making, decision goals, tourism marketing.

INTRODUCTION
As widely pointed out in the consumer behavior literature, choosing and buying products involves decisions and thereby a decision-making (DM) process. Pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives is a major step in such DM process, which involves consumers’ use of decision criteria, strategies/rules and goals. Despite the growing amount of published research in that field, few studies have explored the factors impacting consumers’ goal structure in evaluating products and making decisions. This study will try to fill this gap to some extent by offering an overview of decision goals that may be used in vacation DM and by comparing those goals from different perspectives. More specifically, the primary purpose of this study is two-fold: (1) to explore which decision goals are used the most when making vacation choices, and (2) to investigate how such goals vary across both product (generic, modal, specific) and social (group, household, individual) layers from a multi-level decision making (MLDM) perspective. Before going into the presentation of research hypotheses, ideas of decision goals and of MLDM are first discussed.

DECISION GOALS
Most of the time, a decision is made in order to solve a problem or to satisfy a need, i.e., to achieve some goal. Bettman (1979:46) defines a decision goal as “a specific state whose attainment is related to achieving the desired end state”. This desired end state is called the goal object. For other authors, goals are just ends or aspirations that direct decisions and actions. Bettman, Luce and Payne (1998) have identified four metagoals for choice processing, that is, maximizing the accuracy of the decision (e.g., choosing the destination that will offer the best ratio of sunny climate/distance), minimizing the cognitive effort required for a decision (e.g., spending as less time as possible to choose the destination), minimizing the experience of negative emotions during DM (e.g., avoiding to choose among destinations that remind of painful souvenirs), and maximizing the ease of justifying the decision to relevant others (e.g., choosing a destination that will make the children happy). Bettman and his colleagues argue that different subsets of these goals may be used in different situations according to a variety of problem characteristics, including “the importance and irreversibility of the decision and the timeliness and ambiguity of the feedback available on performance relative to each goal” (Bettman et al. 1998:193). For example, effort feedback and feedback on ease of justification are easier to obtain than accuracy feedback. However, they do not explicitly mention the possibility of having different goal structures according to the product and the social level which is considered.

According to Bettman (1979), consumers who make a decision have a goal hierarchy, often developed constructively on the spot. Of course, consumers often bring multiple goals in a given decision problem. Ariely and Levav (2000) make a distinction between individual-alone goals and individual-group goals. The former refer to goals individuals achieve by their own actions whereas the latter involve goals that may be attained through the cooperation of both the individual and the group. Of course, individual and group-related goals may be in conflict in group settings as consumers are not always able to achieve both individual-alone and individual-group goals at the same time. In a group, consumers face three types of individual-group goals: self-presentation, regret minimization and information collection. To some extent, Ariely and Levav’s
(2000) typology may be paralleled with that of Bettman et al. (1998). Self-presentation may be related to individuals’ ease of justification in a group context; regret minimization is in line with the idea of minimizing the experience of negative emotions; and information collection is a goal that will help individuals and groups to maximize the accuracy of their decisions. More specific aspects of consumers’ decision goals have been investigated by authors like Brehmer (1986) and Vermeir, Van Kenhove and Hendrickx (2002).

MULTI-LEVEL DECISION MAKING

Most of the time, DM models are presented horizontally in a sequence of steps consumers follow, from “need recognition” to “purchase” through “information search” and “evaluation of alternatives” (Engel and Blackwell 1982; Howard and Sheth 1969). A funnel-like procedure is proposed in which choices are narrowed down through cognitive, affective, and behavioral stages (Payne, Bettman and Johnson 1993; Shafir, Simonson and Tversky 1997). Recently, Decrop and Kozak (2006) have suggested to investigate consumers’ DM processes more thoroughly, adding a vertical and a transversal perspective to the horizontal dimension.

On the one hand, the vertical perspective consists in looking how plans and decisions are made at multiple product levels. Decrop and Kozak’s (2006) MLDM model includes three product levels: generic, modal, and specific. The generic decision level involves trade-offs between non-comparable alternatives (Johnson 1984, 1986), e.g., going on holiday or buying new furniture. In contrast, specific decisions entail comparable alternatives because these are represented by the same attributes. For example, the consumer may have to choose between three hotels described by attributes such as location, price, and comfort level. The level of modal decisions lies somewhere in between since some decision items are considered in any product alternative (e.g., destination, accommodation, and transportation need to be chosen in both a summer and a winter holiday) while other items are peculiar to only one alternative and then are non-comparable with the other ones (e.g., the ski material for a winter sport holiday). On the other hand, the transversal perspective is related to how plans and decisions are made socially. Indeed many buying and consumption decisions are not purely individual but involve multiple decision-makers, e.g., within a household. The household itself may participate to a DM process of a still larger group entity, e.g., a party of travelers.

Both vertical and transversal perspectives make DM much more complex than when only the horizontal level is considered. Moreover, Decrop and Kozak’s (2006) MLDM framework is useful to compare micro-aspects related to the different steps in consumers’ DM process (e.g., motives, decision goals and strategies, extensiveness of information search) and macro aspects which do pertain to the overall ongoing DM process (e.g., timing and sequencing of decisions, level of decision involvement/complexity, fantasy and daydreaming).

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The first objective of this paper is to explore which decision goals are used the most when making vacation choices, and more particularly, to see whether or not Bettman et al.’s (1998) typology may be applied in a tourism context. So the first hypothesis just involves the empirical validation of proposition 1.1. in Bettman et al.’s 1998 JCR article:

H1. Four of the most important goals in tourism DM are: (1) maximizing the accuracy of the choice, (2) minimizing the cognitive effort required to make the choice, (3) minimizing the experience of negative emotion when making the choice, and (4) maximizing the ease of justifying the decision.

When considering the typologies of decision goals presented above, differences in using such goals may appear between the different vertical and transversal levels that have just been described. As to verticality, decision goals are not likely to be the same at the generic, modal and specific levels of a product. Early stages of DM at the generic level will include complex problems involving non comparable alternatives, which will lead consumers to make wrenching trade-offs as to their time and money spendings. Variables such as prestige, social status, or values and lifestyles may be at stake as well. Because of such challenges, decision makers are more likely to aim at maximizing the ease of justification (because generic decisions involve high-involving choices that should federate group members’ preferences and should be justified in the social environment) or minimizing the experience of negative emotions (the non-comparability of product alternatives includes more risk that a poor decision is made leading to regret and other negative feelings). In contrast, at the specific level, decision makers are more likely to maximize the accuracy of their choices because specific decisions entail comparable product alternatives, which makes it possible (at least in principle) to reach the best solution (maximizing utility) based on a systematic evaluation of each alternative on each attribute. In contrast, at the generic level, ensuring the best choice as possible is not feasible and the idea of accuracy is even not relevant because alternatives are not described by the same attributes. Consumers may also be willing
to minimize their cognitive effort when making specific decisions when they feel weighted down by information and do not want to engage in a systematic comparison of alternatives on an attribute basis. Such arguments lead to the following hypothesis:

\( H2. \) At the generic level, decision makers are more likely to aim at maximizing the ease of justification or minimizing the experience of negative emotions. In contrast, at the specific level, they are more likely to maximize the accuracy of their decisions or to minimize their cognitive effort.

As to transversality, differences in pursuing decision goals may also appear among individuals, households and groups. Based on the ideas of Ariely and Levav (2000) and Bettman et al. (1998), we may assume that household/group structures (such as families and friendship groups) are more likely than individuals (singles) to pursue goals such as maximizing the ease of justification and avoiding negative emotions in their DM processes. For example, parents may have to justify the decision to their children or the leader of a group of friends may have to justify the final choice to the other members (Decrop, Pechoux and Bauvin 2004). Moreover, they have to make sure that the decision fits everyone’s preferences in the group; otherwise, the DM process may result in angry moods and frustration feelings as some members do not benefit from the choice in the same way than others do (see equity theory; Oliver and Swan 1989). In contrast, singles do not worry about such objectives. They are more likely to maximize the accuracy of their choices or to minimize their cognitive efforts in making decisions.

\( H3. \) Families/groups of friends are more likely to maximize the ease of justifying their decisions to others or to minimize the experience of negative emotions in making decisions whereas singles are more likely to maximize the accuracy of their decisions or to minimize their cognitive effort.

**METHODOLOGY**

In order to examine differences between decision goals in a vertical perspective, three versions of a similar questionnaire have been developed: the first one for the generic level, the second one for modal decisions and the third one for the specific level of the MLDM framework. Each version started with a scenario presenting a decision task asking respondents to choose among three product alternatives, each being described by three attributes. The list of alternatives varied according to the decision level. However, the same attributes (i.e., brand, price and quality) were chosen in order to make data comparable from one version to the other. In the generic-decision version, respondents had to choose one of three non-comparable alternatives, that is, home furniture, a personal computer or summer vacations. In the modal-level version, they were expected to choose among three vacation types, that is, one week summer holiday, one week winter skiing, or two city-trips of three and four days. In the specific-decision version, respondents had to make a choice among a set of three comparable hotel alternatives. In each version, respondents were asked to mention their preferred product at the end of the choice process.

After the decision task, respondents were asked to answer a list of 17 structured questions (see column 2 in Table 1) designed to measure the goals respondents pursued in their DM process. Those propositions were produced on the basis of brainstorming sessions and the specific literature on decision goals discussed earlier. Each item was measured on a five-point Likert scale, anchored from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree). Of course, as we wanted to measure differences in decision goals as to the transversal (social) level, we also included a question about the structure of household (i.e., with whom respondents usually make the choice of the decision task). Four types of DM units were distinguished: singles, couples, families, and groups of friends/relatives. The questionnaire included an additional part to obtain information about respondents’ socio-demographic profile (i.e., age, gender, education, number of people living in the household, and profession). Finally, questions about respondents’ involvement and previous experience with the product category were included as well. The three versions of the questionnaire were pre-tested on 20 respondents.

450 Belgian subjects were recruited to participate in the survey (150 for each version) in July 2006. Quota sampling was used in order to make the sample representative of the population as to three major criteria, i.e., age, education and household structure. In total, 408 respondents participated in the survey (136 for each product level). Subjects were predominantly single (38%), followed by families (26%), couples (24%) and friendship groups (12%). A range of statistical techniques were employed to analyse the data and test the research hypotheses with assistance of the SPSS program. A principal-axis component analysis was performed on the 17 items concerning decision goals in order to validate Bettman et al.’s (1998) typology (H). The resulting factor solution was then used as the dependent variable in ANOVA’s in order to test
whether or not there were significant differences in decision goals as to vertical levels (H₂) and to transversal levels (H₃) respectively.

RESULTS

Following Kaiser rule of eigenvalues ≥ 1, a four-factor solution was generated after VARIMAX rotation, accounting for 60.34% of the total explained variance (Table 1). The first factor includes six items related to respondents’ self-confidence with their decision. The second factor (four items) may be interpreted as a goal to make the final decision as easy as possible, which refers to the idea of cognitive effort’s minimization. The third factor (four items) is associated with the want to justify the final choice to others. Finally, the last factor (three items) is concerned with a decision that is the most likely to satisfy needs and expectations. In conclusion, the emerging solution is much in line with Bettman et al.’s typology as factor one may be paralleled with the idea of minimizing the experience of negative emotion (i.e., regret, disappointment) during the DM process, and factor four with maximizing the accuracy of the choice.

As to the comparative analysis of decision goals across product levels (Table 2), F tests show a significant difference between the three levels for three decision goals. Respondents required to make a generic decision are more likely to pursue self-confidence (minimizing the experience of negative emotions) as a goal than those asked to make modal and specific decisions. This supports H₂. In contrast, decision makers at the specific level are more likely to want to minimize their cognitive effort and to maximize the accuracy of their choices (in terms of need satisfaction), which again supports H₂. Finally, no significant difference appeared as to the last goal, i.e., social justification. One may not say that decision makers are more likely to aim at maximizing the ease of justifying their choices to relevant others at the generic level than at the other levels.

When considering comparisons in a social perspective, significant differences appear only for the two decision goals. On the one hand, families give more emphasis to maximizing the ease of justifying the decision to others in the party, followed by couples and group of friends, and by singles respectively. On the other hand, singles appear to be driven by minimizing their cognitive

| Table 1. Factor solution for decision goals (VARIMAX rotation; N=108) |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Label                      | Definition                  | Cronbach’s α                | Nb. Items | Eigenvalue       | Total variance explained % | Cum. %       |
| 1 Self-confidence          | I’m very confident in the choice I’ve made | 81.5 | 6 | 5.18 | 30.00 | 30.00 |
|                            | I made a choice which I was certain not to regret | | | | |
|                            | I made a choice for which I was self-assured | | | | |
|                            | I made a decision by which I would not be disappointed | | | | |
|                            | I tried to make a choice which was the most accurate | | | | |
|                            | I’m ready to recommend my choice to other persons | | | | |
| 2 Effort minimization      | I took the decision which required the least time | 81.1 | 4 | 2.84 | 16.73 | 46.73 |
|                            | I wanted to make a choice which was not complicated | | | | |
|                            | I wanted to make a decision which did not get me to think too much | | | | |
|                            | I made the choice which was the easiest to make | | | | |
| 3 Social justification     | I made the decision which was the easiest to justify to my relatives | 71.5 | 4 | 1.31 | 7.71 | 54.44 |
|                            | I wanted to make a choice which was to be accepted by my parents/friends | | | | |
|                            | I made the decision which was the easiest to explain to my partner/family | | | | |
|                            | I tried to make the same choice others would have made | | | | |
| 4 Need satisfaction        | I tried to make the choice which was the most likely to make me satisfied | 75.3 | 3 | 1.06 | 5.90 | 66.34 |
|                            | I tried to make the most appropriate decision according to my requirements | | | | |
|                            | I wanted to choose the product which precisely fulfilled my needs/expectations | | | | |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Comparison of decision goals across product levels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generic lev.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence (minimizing negative emotions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effort minimization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social justification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need satisfaction (maximizing accuracy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
efforts when making a choice to a larger extent than the other types of DM units (Table 3). These results support H3. In contrast, self-confidence and need satisfaction represent decision goals that are used quite similarly by singles, couples, families, and friendship groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Comparison of decision goals across social levels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effort minimization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social justification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need satisfaction (maximizing accuracy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION

This study had two objectives. First, to explore which decision goals are used the most when making vacation choices, and second, to investigate how such decision goals may vary across both product and social layers in consumers’ DM processes. As to the first objective, results have brought an empirical validation of Bettman et al.’s (1998) taxonomy of four decision goals. First of all, consumers tend to make choices they are confident about and they will not regret. Minimizing the cognitive efforts involved in a decision task is a major goal as well. To a lesser extent, consumers may also want to justify their decisions easily to relevant others and to maximize the accuracy of their choices in terms of need satisfaction. This paper has also shown that respondents are more likely to pursue self-confidence as a goal when making generic decisions while they will be more enclined to minimize their cognitive efforts and to maximize the accuracy of their choices for specific decisions. In a social perspective, singles are more likely to minimize their cognitive efforts, whereas households and groups are keener on maximizing the ease of justifying the decision to their members.

This study’s findings have both theoretical and managerial implications. From a theoretical perspective, validating Bettman’s et al. (1998) typology in a tourism context helps realize that consumers may share the same goal structure across product categories. Of course, the distribution of explained variance among the four decision goals is not likely to be the same. For many people, tourism choices are highly involving and include strong affects. We could expect that maximizing the experience of negative emotions (maximizing the accuracy of choices) would be a less (more) important goal for decisions involving FMCG’s or technological products. Moreover, significant differences between product and social levels respectively have been put into light as to consumers’ reference to decision goals. This indicates that referring to a MLDM framework may be useful in examining micro- and macro-aspects of consumers’ DM processes. From a managerial perspective, tourism managers should try to reduce the perceived risk and enhance the self-confidence of choices made by their target customers, especially at the level of generic decisions. Value propositions and communication campaigns should also be adapted according to the product domain and the type of decision-making unit as decision goals may differ according to both vertical and transversal dimensions. Marketers operating in each product level should explore the decision goals of their segments and develop appropriate strategies to better satisfy them.

REFERENCES


Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus Tourism Marketing Towards Turbulent Waters in Education

Arıl CANSEL
Faculty of Communication
Cyprus International University, Northern Cyprus
E-mail: arilcansel@gmail.com

Ali BAVIK
Faculty of Communication
Cyprus International University, Northern Cyprus
E-mail: abavik@ciu.edu.tr

Erdoğan H. EKİZ
Department of Hotel and Tourism Management
Hong Kong Polytechnic University, China
E-mail: abavik@ciu.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC), as an unrecognized country, in spite of the embargos and restrictions, generates a significant per-capita tourism income (2,625 USD) that is nine times higher than the Turkey’s (241 USD) and is very close (%64) to the neighboring tourism giant South Cyprus (2,625 USD). TRNC offers various services to five main tourism market segments; education, retirement, gambling, adult entertainment and sun-sea and sand. Within the last 10 years, the Northern part of the island became a university education haven that mainly serves Turkish, Middle Eastern and African students. This sector alone generates over 303,000,000 USD per year. TRNC has also become a gambling haven for the neighboring Mediterranean countries, Russia and even for South Cyprus. Turkey and Israel have many regulars who travel to TRNC through Turkey frequently. TRNC’s gambling has a percentage share in the world gambling market; however, the funds generated in this sector are not released into the economy. 3S and adult entertainment funds are growing in numbers with ongoing investments. Education tourism remains the dynamo of the economy in TRNC. However, recent developments brought the sector into turbulent waters. New regulations in Turkey limited the student potential for the island and growing competition in the neighboring countries threaten the growth potential. Also the Bologna process will be completed by 2010 and TRNC is not trying hard enough to stay in the system. Without a clear vision and strategies, education tourism may have a negative impact on the TRNC economy.

Keywords: Unknown tourism market, education tourism, Mediterranean, per-capita tourism income, Turkish Republic of North Cyprus.

INTRODUCTION

Cyprus is the third largest island in the Mediterranean after Sicily and Sardinia. The Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) covers an area of 3,355 square kilometers which is approximately one third of the whole island. The neighbors of Northern Cyprus are Turkey, Syria, Egypt, Israel, Lebanon, Greece, and South Cyprus. The island occupies an important political and geographical position due to its specific location. Over the years, Cyprus has experienced a good deal of political, social, and cultural turbulence. Its more recent history emphasizes the impact of Ottoman sovereignty (1571-1878) and after leasing by the Ottomans to England, British colonialism (1878-1959) had taken the lead in shaping powerful national identities on behalf of Christian-Cypriots (commonly associated with Greek culture) and Muslim Cypriots (commonly associated with Turkish culture), the two principal ethnic communities of Cyprus. Cyprus was declared an independent republic in 1960 and adopted a constitution which gave political rights both to Christian-Cypriots and Muslim Cypriots. However, the political tension between the two ethnic leaders over the new constitution caused serious conflicts between the two communities. On July the 15th 1974, the ruling military junta of Greece tried to overthrow the government of Cyprus (Symeonidou 2005). Turkey, using 1960 agreement rights, conducted military operation on July 20th 1974 to restore constitutional order. Since then, the two communities were forced to split geographically and Cyprus was divided in two parts. Since 1974 the island has been divided, with the Christian Cypriots living in the south and the Muslim Cypriots living in the north side of the island.

The country is under economic isolation due to multi faceted political issues. In the 80’s during the era of Turkish Prime Minister Turgut Ozal, an Economic approach that resembles the Turkey’s imports dependent and domestic service sector emphasized model was chosen. Since then, TRNC has lost its industrial production, agricultural production and export capability, and farming became oligopolistic. The State salaries are paid by Turkey in TRNC. As for the natural resources, TRNC has not much to offer except land and property with Turkish deed. However, foreign investment slowed down radically after a short increase in purchases by English, Israeli and German buyers due to bad business and political issues.

The tourism industry is the primary generator of income for North Cyprus but despite the rich geographical and natural resources of the country which can create an important advantage in the competitive tourism market, TRNC
has not been able to fully employ that potential to enhance its SSS tourism industry. Education still remains the most important item in TRNC’s economic portfolio along with income through passenger transportation. As an unrecog-
nized country, North Cyprus has no direct access to the international trade that leaves the country dependent solely on the import-export gate through Turkey which is more costly and time consuming. North Cyprus produces farming and agricultural products to support its own to some degree. Education Tourism is one of the key items in the top five foreign exchange earners for North Cyprus. The North Cyprus Tourism tourist profiles can be segmented as below:

University Education (Foreign students can be described as long-term tourists)

1. Transportation (Local air and sea passenger carriers),
2. Foreign retirees (Long term tourists),
3. Gambling,
4. Visiting family and relatives and-or sea sun sand (SSS),
5. Sex tourism.

Although the sixth issue is a sensitive one and difficult to investigate in terms of number of tourists, and the income provided, current study tries to enlighten its noteworthy contribution to economy by giving approximate values based on primary research. Tourists also visit North Cyprus for attaining to conferences, nature/adventure tourism, religion, and sport tourism purposes. However those kinds of tourism are still in developing stages and their contribution to economy is not significant. Existing infrastructure and continuous investments indicate that education, retirement, gambling, sex and (SSS) tourism will continue to be the sectors of popularity in the future. However, the embargos, restrictions in transportation, and competition with other countries will surely affect the development of the mentioned tourism sectors in North Cyprus.

**EVALUATION OF THE TRNC TOURISM MARKET**

North Cyprus hosted 805,583 tourists in 2004 (Ministry of Tourism 2005) and earned 288,300,000 USD from tourism (Cengiz 2006). On the other hand, according to the National Planning Office, North Cypriots spent 106,900,000 USD for their tourism activities in other countries (National planning Organization 2006). Tourist arrivals can be broken down as follows; 652,779 were foreign tourists (488,023 Turkish – 164,756 other nationalities) and remaining 152,804 were domestic tourists. Net tourism revenue in 2004 was 181,400,000 USD (288,300,000 tourism revenue – 106,900,000 tourism expenditure). According to the official numbers tourism revenue per person is 1,253 USD (288,300,000 tourism revenues / 230,000 population of North Cyprus). This official number is the sum of the numbers provided by the large scale accommodation establishments. Thus, with a simple calculation of below listed accounts, it can be found that actual tourism revenue was far more than the official numbers:

1. There are 40,687 registered students to 5 higher education institutions in North Cyprus by 2007. In addition to this, Middle East Technical University (METU), one of the Turkey’s oldest and most respected universities, has recently started accepting students to its campus in Güzelyurt region. METU joined to education tourism in spring 2006 semester. Out of 40,687 students, 10,338 are Turkish Cypriots where remaining 30,349 are foreign students (National planning Organization 2007). Each of these foreign students spend approximately 10,000 USD for tuition fee, accommodation, food and other expenses annually which accounts 303,490,000 USD contribution to the North Cypriot economy.

2. Revenues of the national airline and monopolistic sea Transportation Company significantly contributes to the total tourism revenues. Other airline companies also contribute to the tourism revenues by their taxes. Cyprus Turkish Airlines carried 946,000 passengers paying approximately 200 USD each which makes 189,200,000 USD in 2005. However that figure began to decline in 2006 and continued in 2007 due to direct competition by the Turkish private airline companies. Tourists recently fly to South Cyprus and pass the border to the North Side by land transportation also causes a decline in the revenues of the national airline, Cyprus Turkish Airlines. Although the new figures are not yet in hand, after the average price per ticket came down to 140 USD and the national carrier lost roughly a 30% market share, the estimation of the new figure for 2007 is close to the half of what it has been in 2005. Sea Transportation Company carried over 300,000 passengers paying 50 USD which makes 15,000,000 USD approximately. Conjecturally, half of these passengers are foreign tourists and contributing over 102,100,000 USD totally (94,600,000 USD from air and 7,500,000 USD from sea transportation.

3. By the year 2007 there are 400 prostitutes working with legal permit in 44 licensed night clubs and 9 pubs. These clubs and pubs contributed 4,714,285 USD annually to North Cyprus economy by paying outlay on permits, taxes, visa and passport fees, social security, reserve fund,
weekly health checks in hospitals and so on (Cansu 2006). One prostitute earns approximately 300 USD daily which accounts up to 92,400 USD annually (44 weeks of work). Multiplied by 400, the total figure would be 36,960,000 USD. Presumably, half of this money paid by the tourists visiting North Cyprus which makes 18,480,000 USD contribution to the tourism revenues. An interview with the general manager of “Angels”, one of the biggest night clubs on the island, confirms the above findings. According to Mr. Nihat Kerkuklu: “According to the local government rules and regulations, night clubs must be located outside of the cities and away from the military bases and schools. Furthermore, night clubs are categorized as 3 stars (9 sex workers can work), 4 stars (11 sex workers can work), and 5 stars (12 sex workers can work). In order to employ 12 workers in a night club, 12,000 Turkish Liras (USD 10,000) has to be paid annually to have a license and 8,000 TL monthly (USD 6,500) as operating tax. Sex worker visas are limited to 6 months like the other foreign workers. However sex workers cannot renew their visas immediately. There is a 2 months cooling period for them to stay abroad. During the six months of work, sex workers have no off days. They work every day except the times of their periods.”

4. According to the Forbes magazine, money transaction generated by gambling industry reached 900 billion USD worlds wide. Out of 900, 270 billion dollars goes to the governments budgets as contribution to their economy (http://www.ntv.com.tr/news). There are 21 active casinos generating 172,153,050 USD annually ‘n the TRNC (Özgeç 2006). 80,000,000 USD of this amount is generated by gamblers coming from the Greek side of the island, approximately 90,000,000 USD of the total casino revenue is created by the gamblers from Turkey and gamblers with other nationalities. Finally, remaining 2,153,050 USD is assumed to be generated by the students whom entrance to the casinos is forbidden. The figures about the students are obtained from a recent research by (Cansel and Bavık, 2006) and the calculations are as follows; results of the questionnaire revealed that 55% of the respondents reported that they gamble minimum 5 times a year, spending 170 USD approximately. 55 percent of the foreign students (12,665 students) are assumed to gamble and spend 2,153,050 USD (12,665 students x 170 USD). Unfortunately this money can not be taxed since it is an illegal operation. However, casinos paid 3,500,000 USD for opening and operat-

5. There is foreigner retirement community of 9,000 people in TRNC. Mostly from England, the retirees bought houses and property to live permanently on the island. The trend of moving to TRNC accelerated in 2005 and slowed down almost to a full stop in 2007. The problems with the Northern and Southern land ownership and documentation were the source of the problems. Otherwise, the country offers a welcoming environment, quality housing and good health facilities to the foreign buyers. The long term tourists leave an average of 24,000 Pounds per person annually. That is 48,000 USD in living expenditures. Multiplied by 9,000, the annual total goes up to 432,000,000 USD.

6. Although, there are no official stats for the tourists who visit the island for sea-sand-sun, yet it is still possible to estimate the number by considering the hotels’ annual occupancy levels. According to the information obtained from hoteliers, 30 to 35 percent of the tourists accommodating in their establishments are the casino guests, in other words their primary motive is gambling. Bed capacity of the North Cyprus hotels is 12,839. In 2006. In 2005, 335,235 overnighter tourists had stayed 1,566,580 nights in total (Ministry of Tourism, 2005). The annual occupancy rate for 2005 was 40.7 percent. Representing 30 percent casino guests for gambling reasons. This figure corresponds with 469,974 overnights by 100,570 tourists. If we think that the average price for one night accommodation is 80 USD that makes 37,597,920 USD.

ing in North Cyprus (http://www.kktcbul.com). The contribution of the gambling to North Cyprus economy is rather indirect, through; employment to the locals, purchase of goods and services like food and beverage stocks, furniture and cleaning material and transportation services. The total approximately accounts to 1,328,670 USD (Social Security Office 2006). Furthermore, Bed capacity of the North Cyprus hotels is 12,839. In 2006. In 2005, 335,235 overnighter tourists had stayed 1,566,580 nights in total (Ministry of Tourism, 2005). The annual occupancy rate for 2005 was 40.7 percent. Representing 30 percent casino guests for gambling reasons. This figure corresponds with 469,974 overnights by 100,570 tourists. If we think that the average price for one night accommodation is 80 USD that makes 37,597,920 USD.
The sum of above listed figures is 525,067,590 USD and we believe that this number reflects a more realistic view of the existing market and tourism in North Cyprus. In this case, the tourism revenue per capita reaches up to 2,283 USD that is nine times higher than the Turkey’s 241 USD and very close to (%)86 of the neighboring tourism giant South Cyprus’ 2,625 USD.

Turkey shares the Mediterranean tourism market with Albania, Bosnia, South Cyprus, Croatia, Macedonia, Greece, Israel, Italy, Malta, Portugal, Serbia and Spain. Mediterranean tourism market generated 133 billion USD in 2005 which is the 40.6 percent of the 327 billion USD worth European tourism market. Spain, Italy and Turkey are the three countries with the biggest shares in the European tourism market with 14 %, % 11 and % 5 respectively (http://www.wto.com, 2006). Turkey, with 70 million population, received 16.9 billion USD tourism revenues in 2006 (Turkish State Statistics Institute 2007) that equals to 241 USD per capita. Unlike the TRNC, where education, gambling and sex tourism dominate the market, Turkey’s tourism based mostly on mass SSS tourism, followed by culture and history based tourism activities. Tourism in Turkey experiences heavy competition in transportation sector. Moreover, tourism imports of the country caught up the tourism exports and at the end of the year 2006, there is a possibility that imports will surpass the exports. South Cyprus economy received 2.1 billion USD from tourism in 2004 with its 800,000 population; South Cyprus had 2.625 USD per capita in tourism revenues. South Cyprus’s tourism mostly based on mass and SSS tourism which is assisted by cultural factors (http://www.wto.com 2006).

SITUATION ANALYSIS

When the ever changing world wide trends analyzed, it can be clearly seen that preferences are shifting from the main SSS tourism stream to more specific sub-streams. Destination countries aim at using their strong sides and comparative advantages to increase their shares from these specific sub-streams. For instance the UK, built a reputation as being an important destination for education and culture tourism. UK receives considerable amount of tourism revenues from these two sources of sub-streams. The importance of; nature-adventure trips, eco-tourism, purchasing and leasing land from exotic countries, culture, education and health tourism are increasing in popularity constantly. Countries, using their unspoiled resources wisely, are more likely to be the popular destinations of future. North Cyprus, with its unspoiled natural and cultural resources, has this advantage.

Both Turkey and South Cyprus are the direct competitors of North Cyprus. However, this competition is concentrated on SSS tourism, where North Cyprus has no distinct strategic advantage. Although, with the new investments to Bafra region, the bed capacity is about to increase, but since these hotels target gamblers as their primary target population, probably their guests will be spending most of their times in the hotels and will not contribute largely to the region and to the country.

Nine new university constructions were finished in Turkey. Moreover, by the year 2006, the applications for the general university entrance exam (OSS) has declined 30 percent and university entrance exams became more challenging. Moreover, some of the Turkish students who prefer to study abroad seek for more economical options in Balkan and Turkic countries such as Romania and Azerbaijan. These developments negatively affected North Cyprus education tourism whose primary market is Turkey. On the other hand, South Cyprus is planning to act more actively in education tourism by developing campuses for five new universities. That began to create competition for foreign students planning to visit Cyprus Island for education purposes. Education tourism has a 58 percent share among the overall tourism revenues and has a vital importance for TRNC economy. If, for any reason, a decline occurs in education tour-
ism, this may create radical changes in per capita tourism revenues. Below is a list of student distribution by origin to the TRNC universities:

CONCLUSION

Remaining as the major tourism attraction, the stable growth of education has vital importance for the TRNC economy. All across Europe, countries and universities are engaged in a process of modernization. This is linked to and supported by other initiatives. The completion of the Bologna Process is near where TRNC’s neighboring countries Turkey and South Cyprus are in the process and TRNC herself is not. That can be interpreted as the TRNC universities will be much less attractive for the foreign students after 2010 since the Bologna process offers course and education standardization.

“The Bologna Process aims to create a European Higher Education Area by 2010, in which students can choose from a wide and transparent range of high quality courses and benefit from smooth recognition procedures. The Bologna Declaration of June 1999 has put in motion a series of reforms needed to make European Higher Education more compatible and comparable, more competitive and more attractive for Europeans and for students and scholars from other continents. Reform was needed then and reform is still needed today if Europe is to match the performance of the best performing systems in the world, notably the United States and Asia.” (European Commission, 2008).

As for the results, this study suggests that education tourism generates great economic benefits to both government and local service providers. With all the infrastructure and experience in hand, North Cyprus has no choice but to go forward in higher education and to promote itself as an education destination. The benefits of the education tourism are; the economic impact of the amount of money that foreign students collectively bring to North Cyprus for their education and accommodations. They also bring their families and relatives for several occasions throughout their stay. Then, in order to attract more students to the country, universities need to invest to procure equipment, parts and other technologies. Furthermore, convenient infrastructure and quality atmosphere must be provided. All those, increase the overall quality of life in the country. Education Tourism is not only concerned with the universities. In order to attract and bring more students to North Cyprus, the entire country should accept and practice the principles of tourism marketing.

The TRNC universities are having problems with coordinating their efforts toward larger goals. Instead, they rather operate in limited marketing commu-

lications efforts to “hunt” for more limited students. The efforts for improving the scientific standards are at a minimum. The current perception of the TRNC universities in the largest target market Turkey is a negative one. On top of that, adjustment to the Bologna Criteria seems like a farfetched utopia for most institutions. Without an emergency strategic plan that is supported by a good communication plan, the negative impact of staying outside the mainstream European education system may hit the country by 2010.

REFERENCES


TRNC Ministry of Education. (2008), Education Statistics.

TRNC Ministry of Tourism. (2002), Tourism Promotion and Marketing Strategic Planning.


INTRODUCTION

Tourism industry in Malaysia has been traditionally concentrated and promoted towards international markets since its infancy stage in the 1960s. Until today, the tourism sector has grown tremendously and has been ranked the second largest foreign income earners behind manufacturing. Malaysia played host to more than 17.5 million tourists in 2006, marking an increase of 6.8% from the previous year with only 16.4 million visitors. In terms of receipts, Malaysia received RM36.2 billion or USD 10.3 billion in 2006 (Tengku Adnan 2007). Despite the importance of alluring more and more international travelers to visit Malaysia, the domestic front cannot be overlooked for their vast benefits and numerous untapped potentials. After a string of crises that affect international arrivals on recent years, the domestic tourism industry in Malaysia started to be given priority by the Malaysian government. Continuous promotions and festivities have been carried out throughout the country all year round to spur domestic spending and holidaying. These promotional strategies seem to result in positive domestic tourism development as more unique products are introduced and developed. This paper discusses the behaviors and traveling characteristics of Malaysian domestic travelers. It is part of fundamental research funded by the Malaysian government to develop psychographic clusters of Malaysian domestic travelers based on the Plog’s psychographic theory and model.

An understanding of the domestic tourists is crucial in generating specific and right promotions of destinations. Weaver and Oppermann (2000) highlighted that the number of domestic tourists taking vacations is massive compared to international tourists in most countries and even on global scale. Domestic tourism in Malaysia continued to be an important component of the industry and domestic tourism trips increased by 30.1 per cent from 12.3 million in 2000 to 16.0 million in 2005. The number of domestic hotel guests more than doubled from 13.6 million in 2000 to 29.0 million in 2005 (EPU 2006) This was in tandem with rising household incomes, improved quality of life and regular travel becoming increasingly a part of the Malaysian lifestyle. Another trend contributing to domestic tourism was the rising number of corporate retreats, family recreation and youth camps held at various tourist destinations around the country.

There is no widely accepted definition of domestic tourist (Inskeep 1991). However, the commonly used definition was a guideline from WTO (Chadwick 1994), which defines a domestic tourist as any person or resident of a
country visiting his own country or traveling to a place within his country other than his usual residence for a period of not less than 24 hours or one night but less than one year for the purposes of recreation, leisure, holidays, sport, business, meetings, conventions, study, visiting friends or relatives, health, mission work or religion. A domestic excursionist, on the other hand, is a visitor traveling in his country of residence for any of the reasons given for tourists, but who stays less than 24 hours at the destination (Smith 1988).

A report by Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (1999) proposed a domestic tourist to be “any person residing in Malaysia regardless of his/her nationality who travels to a place at least 40 kilometers away (one way) from his/her usual place of residence for at least one night or less than one night for any reason other than following an activity remunerated at the place visited”. This definition was used for this study. This paper also considered domestic excursionist to be included in the study since the advance system of transportation and highway have given much opportunity for domestic travelers to travel to their preferred destinations within a day.

**THE EVOLUTION OF DOMESTIC TOURISM IN MALAYSIA**

In the early sixties and seventies, most of Malaysians traveled to Singapore and the most significant international travel among the Malay Muslims at this stage was pilgrimage to Mecca. The departures took place at Port Klang and Penang Port where relatives and friends bid the pilgrims goodbye on board their ships for the 3 months journey. Friends and relatives went on 3 or 4 buses and stayed at budget hotels or at friends or relatives’ houses nearby, or even at mosques. Mosques became the main stopovers during these trips. The remnant of past businesses such as heritage hotels and hostels can be traced at Lebuh Acheh in Penang, used to be the port of embarkation to Mecca for Malaysia’s northern pilgrims. Over the years, crowd started to be seen around the international airport in Subang, Kuala Lumpur when Malaysian Airlines System Berhad (MAS) began its inaugurated pilgrimage charter to Mecca in 1974 (Malaysia Airlines, 2000).

In the 70’s, tourism was perceived negatively by the society. The sector was blamed for the spread of drug and other social problems. Parents would not allow their children to join tourism industry or to study tourism simply fearing that their children would become social outcasts. There was also no proper infrastructure for tourist purposes. Traveling for leisure purpose was almost non-existence and many Malaysians mainly travel to visit friends and relatives. Until today, Malaysians enjoy recreational activities such as picnics at the beaches and waterfalls. The most popular spots then were Batu Feringghi in Penang, Port Dickson in Negeri Sembilan, Cherating in Pahang, and Pantai Cahaya Bulan in Kelantan. Top destinations among Malaysians have been the capital city of Kuala Lumpur, the heritage cities of Melaka and Penang, the hill resorts of Cameron Highlands and Genting Highlands, and the island beach resorts of Pangkor, Redang and Langkawi. Most travelers were excursionists whom traveled within their own state. They mainly used public transportation especially bus. Recently, trips by students and graduates are also gaining popularity. In the early years, must visit locations when visiting Kuala Lumpur were the National Mausoleum, the National Mosque, the National Museum, the National Zoo, the Lake Garden and the Parliament Building. Today, visitors to the Klang Valley (where Kuala Lumpur and the new government center of Putrajaya are located) have more diversified choices. While the busy Petaling Street and Tunanku Abdul Rahman Street are still popular among the lower and middle class travelers, there are many mega-shopping complexes; the formerly world’s tallest building of the Petronas Twin Towers, and well new Putrajaya center to be visited. On the international fronts, towards the end of the 80’s, many Malaysians stopped going to Singapore as a result of higher currency exchange and started to venture into the northern towns of Haaytai, Takbai, Padang Besar and Danok in Thailand. It was once reported that Malaysians spend over USD 700,000 a month in Thailand.

**MALAYSIAN DOMESTIC INDUSTRY**

The tourism industry in Malaysia has suffered an eroding numbers of international tourist arrivals since the economic downturn that hits Asian countries in 1997/1998, and when killer epidemics such as SARS and bird flu spread. Due to stiff competition and uncertainty in the world economy particularly in major markets such as USA, Japan, Europe and Australia, it is important to promote the growth of domestic tourism. Domestic tourism has been perceived to be less important for most of national governments including Malaysia since it does not involve much-valued foreign exchange into the country (Weaver and Oppermann 2000). Improved economic conditions have led to increase leisure time for the population at large and Malaysian government is supporting and increasing allocation to build budget hotels and promotions to meet the needs of domestic tourists (The Economist Intelligence Unit 1994).

As in other developing destinations like Malaysia, the Federal Government plays the leading role in promoting and developing tourism. The newly formed Ministry of Tourism in March 2004 (formerly Ministry of Culture, Arts,
and Tourism) realizes that domestic travels and products for local tourists must be developed and diversified. Therefore, various promotions, festivals, and new products will be developed to meet the growing demand of domestic travelers. The declaration of holidays for the public service for the first and third Saturday of the month effective 1st January 1999 and 1st February 2000 respectively had a tremendous effect on domestic tourism. Ticket-less travel finds its way when Malaysian Airline System (MAS) introduced its application in 2000 on domestic routes to further enhance the domestic tourism. The introduction of the no-frills, privately owned air carrier called Air-Asia has given boost to the domestic tourism industry with its slogan “Now Everyone Can Fly”.

The traveling seasons for Malaysians mainly circle around the school holidays (Table 1). Other major holidays are religions or ethnic based festivals such as the Eids, Chinese New Year, and Deepavali. These festivals reflect the multiculturalism of Malaysians, which has been promoted worldwide in the commercial “Truly Asia” slogan. During peak season as shown below, majority of domestic travelers will visit popular destinations in Malaysia such as Kuala Lumpur, Penang, and Langkawi. Successive public holidays in May also give a long break for Malaysian. This is almost equivalent to the popular Japanese ‘Golden Holiday’ except unlike their Japanese counterparts, Malaysians travel domestically in general. Holidays in Malaysia often see massive exodus of travelers from big city centers, causing highway jam and long queues at the toll lines.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary Season</th>
<th>Secondary Season</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School Holidays (1 week in March, 2 weeks in June, 1 week in August, and 2 months in November &amp; December)</td>
<td>University Breaks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major Religion Festivals:</td>
<td>Other Festivals:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Hari Raya (Muslim Eids)</td>
<td>1. Christmas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Chinese New Year</td>
<td>2. Independent Day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Thaipusam and Deepavali</td>
<td>3. Labor Day, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May Holidays</td>
<td>1st and 3rd Saturday holiday of each month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Public Holidays</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the 80’s, various themes and campaigns have been used to promote domestic travelers. The most recent campaign “Cuti-Cuti Malaysia” (Malaysian Holidays) has been re-launched in February 17, 2004 until end of 2005 (Utusan Malaysia 2004). Numerous exciting activities and travel programs are offered to intensify domestic tourism in Malaysia. Cuti-Cuti Malaysia is a tagline for domestic campaign that was first launched in 11 September 1999. The objectives of the campaign are to inculcate the travel culture amongst Malaysians and to get Malaysians to change their mindset and to regard holidays as part of life. The campaign also aims towards creating a planned holiday culture amongst Malaysians using tour packages. The former themes for domestic tourism campaigns include Our Malaysia, Malaysiaku (My Malaysia), and Malaysia Destinasiku (Malaysia My Destination).

**METHODOLOGY**

This empirical research and relevant data and information are rather limited on Malaysian domestic travellers. Primary data collection was necessary in order to identify and analyse market segments on the basis of Malaysian domestic traveller’s characteristics and behaviours. A questionnaire was developed for data collection purposes and the nationwide survey has been running since March 2004. The questionnaire consists of four parts namely travel planning, travel choice, travel opinion and preference, and demographic. The process of questionnaire design involved a few testings, corrections and reductions. A pilot study was conducted to test the questionnaire and from there, several changes have been made. The preliminary test managed to secure 25 respondents and a more refined questionnaire was developed from the suggestions and comments from the respondents. The questionnaire was prepared in both Malay and English.

The sample used in this paper composes of domestic travelers mainly at major destinations in Malaysia ranging from adventure destinations such as Pahang National Park, to big cities such as Kuala Lumpur and Penang, and to theme parks like the Genting Highland. The first phase of the survey targeted 300 respondents, however only 118 respondents (or 39%) provided valid returns. The disproportionate stratified random sampling method was employed for this study. The survey employed self-administered questionnaire, which have been distributed and monitored by field surveyors. The field surveyors were instructed to approach every other traveler found at selected locations, chosen by the research leader. The locations include popular spots like beaches and waterfalls, embarkation spots like jetties and airports, and highway stopovers. Extensive data editing is undertaken before the final data can be analyzed using the SPSS program and evaluated.
RESULTS

As presented in Table 2, respondents consist of 60 male and 58 female, with an average age of 29 years old, ranging from 18 to 57 years old. Most of the respondents belong to the private sector (33%) and working as engineer, sales executive and manager, among others. Their average monthly income was RM2, 500 (equivalent to US$658), which vary from RM200 up to RM20, 000 monthly. Eighty-two percents of the respondents were Malays, followed by Chinese (10%) and Indian and others. This was perhaps due to the fact that almost all of the field assistants for this survey are Malays and they must have been more inclined to distribute the survey forms to the Malays. This bias should be corrected in the on-going survey. A great number of married travelers (36%) responded, even though single travelers were still be considered dominant (59%), resulted in the higher number of university’s students who were mostly singles. Majority of the domestic travelers in Malaysia have received tertiary education and even higher degrees (60%).

Table 2. Demographic profile of Malaysian domestic travelers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Profile</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupation Sector:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On their own</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethnic Group:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malay</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mix</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorcee/Widowed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education Level:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Degree – Master/PhD</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary Education – Diploma/Degree</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Certificate</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Education</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Formal Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 118, missing data is omitted

Travel Characteristic Profile

The main purpose of travel was mainly for leisure or holiday (63%), whereas business related matters such as seminar, convention, conference or business deal, and visit friends or relatives (VFR) constituted 27% and 25% respectively. Therefore, the activity of balik kampung (travel to hometown), which has been perceived as one of the major purposes, was not reflected in this study (only 6% of respondents did so). Even shopping (15%) has attracted more travelers to travel compared to balik kampung. Other purposes of travel include sporting events (2), job interview (2), relaxing (2), study tour (2), and send relative to perform umrah (1).

The survey discovered that majority of respondents (78%) planned their trip. Planning the trip is necessary especially for accommodation booking especially during school holidays and public holidays. Most of them obtained their information prior to travel from their friends or relatives (46%) through the words of mouth and also from their own past experience (42%). Advertisements or write-ups in the magazines and newspaper (29%) also played an important role in delivering the travel information needed by the domestic travelers. Half of the respondents (50%) were traveling with their friends while 38% of them were traveling with family or relatives. Only 13% of the respondents were traveling alone. The average number of persons traveling together was 6 people. Despite planning for their trips, 49% of the respondents did not make any real reservations.

Private vehicles continue to be the major mode of transportation for travels to destinations and within destinations. Fifty-nine percents of the respondents traveled on private vehicles to the destination. Other main transportations included bus or coach (33%), airline (22%), and by train (15%). While they were at the destinations, most of the respondents also used their personal vehicle (58%) and bus or coach (26%). As mentioned before, the majority of the respondents preferred to stay at their friends or relatives’ houses (42%), followed by 37% of respondents who chose to stay at the 3 to 4 star hotels (22%). Other types of accommodation included resort (15%), chalet or inn (10%), and apartment or villa (8%). Most of the respondents did not buy travel package (85%). Malaysians in general, the Malays especially, are avid shoppers and bargain hunters. Pertaining this, the majority of the respondents bought souvenirs at the tourist bazaars (46%) with items such as clothes, bags or shoes were popular among the respondents (41%). The respondents also enjoyed buying local foods, beverages or fruits (31%) and chocolates or sweets (20%). Only a few of
the respondents were looking for authentic local arts and crafts (19%) or handmade craft (10%). An average expenditure by the respondents was RM660 (approximately US$174) ranging from RM20 to RM3,000.

Table 3. Activities at the Destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Sightseeing in cities</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Dine at café or restaurants</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Swimming/Sunbathing</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Amusement/Theme Parks</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Water Sports (diving, rafting, kayaking, etc.)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Visiting National Parks</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Visiting heritage/historical sites</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Golfing/Tennis/Popular Sports</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Museum/Art Gallery</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Environmental/Ecological excursions</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Visiting small towns and villages</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Attend concert/theatre/musical</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Attend traditional cultural performance</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Rock climbing/caving</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Visiting Orang Asli settlement</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Disco/Night clubs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=118, Respondents were allow to report more than one activities

As mentioned before, the most popular activities undertaken by respondents are shopping (81%), followed by sightseeing in the cities (52%) and dining at the cafés or restaurants (50%).

MALAYSIANS AS TRAVELERS

Nowadays, a large number of Malaysian female either single or married travels. The change of mindset on traditional believe that female should stay at home has made ways for female to enjoy traveling as much as male counterpart. This also perhaps reflects the high level of safety, convenience, and affordability among Malaysian females to travel alone. The average age of domestic travelers is 29 years old reflects the normal age for traveling as Malaysian at this age would have steady job and disposable income. Most of Malaysians are having tertiary and higher education at this age, therefore provided them with necessary knowledge and life experience to indulge in traveling experience. With improved economic at macro and micro level has helped more Malaysians to secure job in private sectors or do their own business, apart from working in government sectors. The average monthly income of RM2,500 fairly show the average monthly income among Malaysians as a whole. This study supports the fact that improved economic conditions of Malaysians have helped promoting domestic tourism industry. More Malays are traveling domestically nowadays since more exciting destinations and tourism products have been introduced by government and private sectors alike, with special amenities and facilities such as prayer rooms and tailor-made toilets been built to assist Muslim travelers. Single travelers are domineering the Malaysian traveling pattern, which is quite similar to any travelers around the globe. Single people are more mobile, have more disproportionate income, and they are more receptive towards what the travel experiences can offer.

Malaysian domestic travelers are taking more holidays, recreation or leisure pursuits. The reasons lie in several factors which include working days have been reduced for government servants, more private companies adopt flexible working hours, and more holidays have been granted on the basis of improved working hours. Despite the belief that Malaysians prefer to engage in balik kampung travels, this study, however, observes that only a small number of Malaysians who considered balik kampung as traveling purpose. Malaysian domestic travelers did not regard balik kampung as their way of getting away from their usual environment. Most Malaysians planned their trip prior to the journey. This especially true when news break that many accommodation facilities at major destinations like Langkawi and Cameron Highlands experience 100% occupancy during holidays. Malaysians rely heavily on their friends or relatives’ word of mouth in recommending the destinations to go. They are also more prone to travel to previous destinations they have been visiting due to their past experiences. The placement of advertisements or write-up in the newspapers or magazines has helped to market and promote the destinations or tourism products as Malaysians obtain travel information in newspapers or magazines. Many enjoy company when traveling especially with their friends and family with average number of 6 persons in the group. This is perhaps related to the fact that many travel in private vehicle. Malaysians are practically having close-knit relationship with their family and friends; therefore they will feel comfortable to travel with people they have known for so long. Some do not make any reservations especially if they plan to stay at their friend or relative’s houses, where majority of Malaysians like to do. However, since
there are plenty budget hotels of 3 to 4 star rating are available throughout the country, more Malaysians choose to put a night at the hotels. There is also a growing trend, especially the urban yuppies and middle incomers, to prefer spending time in hotels despite the fact that there are friends and relatives staying nearby.

Malaysians prefer to drive their own personal vehicle from their place of travel origin to the destination, and also when going around at the destination. The next major transportation used is by bus or coach, especially the interstate buses, which has grown tremendously because better road system has been built for more travel convenient. Since they drive on their own, therefore majority of Malaysians do not buy any travel package. Ministry of Tourism has acknowledged this trend and has encouraged travel agency companies to do more promotions to target domestic travelers to buy value for money or cheap travel packages. In term of shopping, Malaysians like to buy common items found at tourist bazaars. The most popular activities are certainly shopping, sightseeing, and dining. It reflects that Malaysians are mostly the type of travelers who enjoy doing and experiencing low level of activities.

CONCLUSION

Continuous promotions on domestic tourism, coupled with development of more interesting tourism products have pushing domestic traveling in Malaysia towards potentially a boom. While Malaysians in the past traveled for other purposes than leisure, today’s Malaysians start to realize the value of getting away from their homes and seeing new faces and places. While there are still remnants of past trends such as putting up at friends’ and relatives’ houses, Malaysians are seen to be more practical in traveling nowadays, valuing the privacy of both themselves and the hosts and opting for hotels or resorts nearby. This also reflects a greater affordability among them. This research will continue to uncover many other aspects of Malaysians as travelers, including typical requirements and their psychographic backgrounds, in order to gain better understanding and to plan better products to suit their needs.

REFERENCES


Research Papers


The Economist Intelligence Unit. (1994). Malaysia (EIU International Tourism Reports No. 2). The Economic Intelligence Unit Limited.


ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The authors would like to extend appreciation to the Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education for granting the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme (FRGS) to us that makes this research and presentation possible.
Measuring Destination Competitiveness: An Application of Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index

Çağil Hale KAYAR  
School of Tourism and Hotel Management  
Anadolu University, Turkey  
E-mail: chkayar@anadolu.edu.tr

Nazmi KOZAK  
School of Tourism and Hotel Management  
Anadolu University, Turkey  
E-mail: nkozak@anadolu.edu.tr

ABSTRACT
This paper considers the evaluation of 13 factors that affect destination competitiveness and tries to compare the competitiveness levels of EU countries and Turkey. Also, the paper focuses on detecting the more or less effective determinants of destination competitiveness. Secondary data, comprised of the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index 2007, were included in data analysis. Using this index, 28 countries were clustered using their competitiveness scores. Cluster analysis and multidimensional scaling techniques were employed for the analysis of findings. Results highlight that three clusters can be formed from the selected countries and the factors which affect the competitiveness of these countries mostly are air transport infrastructure, natural and cultural resources, ground transport infrastructure, and health and hygiene, respectively. Results also indicate that Turkey receives the highest score only in price competitiveness and the image of Turkey as a low-priced country still exists among the international tourism market.

Key words: destination competitiveness, tourism competitiveness, Tourism Competitiveness Index

INTRODUCTION
The tourism industry is regarded as a powerful economic source for many countries all over the world since the economic impact of tourism has been recognized. With the improvement of international trade business between countries, tourism revenues and tourist numbers have also increased over the last years. The above changes have brought a high standard of living together and, as a result, individuals’ requirements of travel and tourism aroused. For this reason, the tendency of developing and developed countries is to see tourism as an economic and social phenomenon and a potentially profitable investment field (Berberoglu 1988). All these improvements in the tourism industry and a better quality of tourism infrastructure led individuals to spend more of their disposable income for the purpose of travel and tourism activities. With the effect of increasing competition, countries operating in the international tourism market are continuously forced to search for the best way of providing customer satisfaction (Turanli and Guneren 2003). In other words, competition between popular tourism countries increases the effort utilized to establish competitive advantage (Cimat and Bahar 2003).

In present time, the term “competitive advantage” has become a significant part of the tourism literature (Porter 1990). The potential for any country’s tourism industry to develop depends substantially on its ability to maintain competitive advantage in its delivery of goods and services to visitors (Dwyer, Forsyth and Rao 2000). Furthermore, the international tourism industry is becoming an increasingly competitive marketplace where only the best-managed tourism destinations are likely to prosper (Bahar and Kozak 2005; Buhalis 2000). Therefore, countries trying to be a popular tourist destination invest great efforts to achieve competitive advantage. As a consequence of this, measuring performance against competitors grows in importance as a strategic issue (Pearce 1997).

This paper presents an examination of the competitiveness of EU countries and Turkey based on 13 factors. More specifically, it examined how these countries were clustered according to their competitiveness scores of 13 factors and also tried to illustrate their competitive positions on a map. An additional objective of this study was to rank competitiveness factors according to the degree they were effective in determining the competitive advantage of these countries. The paper also aimed to provide an understanding of Turkey’s position in the international tourism market and provided suggestions in order to improve weaknesses of the country. To achieve these objectives, the study benefited from the secondary data on travel of tourism competitiveness index gathered by the World Economic Forum in 2007.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Competitiveness is generally defined as the ability of entrepreneurs to design, produce and market goods and services, the prices and non-price qualities of which form a more attractive package of benefits than those of competitors (IMD 1994). According to this definition, an entrepreneur who is superior in a dimension of quality in comparison with competitors has competitive advantage. From an industrial point of view, competitiveness is the effort and achievement of long term profitability of entrepreneurs, above the average of the particular industry within which they operate (Buhalis 2000). Following
D’Hauteserre’s (2000) definition, destination competitiveness is the ability of a destination to maintain its market position and improve upon it through time. The literature also includes definitions of destination competitiveness which take it from sustainability or social perspective. For instance, Hassan (2000) defines destination competitiveness as the ability of a destination to create and integrate value-added products that sustain its resources while maintaining market position relative to its major competitors. As for social benefits, the ability of destinations to provide a high standard of living for its residents is called destination competitiveness (Crouch and Ritchie 1999).

The concept of destination competitiveness is based largely on so many factors that take place in micro and macro environment. A review of the literature of destination competitiveness indicates that considerable research has been done to examine the factors that affect destination competitiveness and to measure it. Kozak’s (2007) study constitutes the most recent study on this subject. He evaluated the competitive position of Turkey in the international tourism market and gave a brief summary of the related empirical studies previously conducted. Finally, he provided a review report of past empirical studies based on several criteria such as research objectives, methodology, data assessment tools, and discussion of findings. In so doing, Kozak suggested a more interdisciplinary oriented approach while carrying out tourism competitiveness studies.

In the literature, there has been considerable research into the measurement of competitiveness using the tourism indices data. As an example of this, Sanlı and Baloğlu (2006) tried to identify the relative performance of selected Mediterranean destinations in order to provide a basis for destination benchmarking. The authors used secondary data gathered by WTCC in 2005 and revealed strengths, weaknesses and competitiveness sets of selected Mediterranean destinations according to the tourism indices. Based on the findings of a multidimensional scaling analysis, Sanlı and Baloğlu (2006) found that destinations formed two groups that have similar competitiveness profiles and also three destinations had unique properties.

Likewise, research by Hudson, Ritchie and Timur (2004), indicated that, using tourism indices may provide useful outcomes for the planning and development of tourism destinations. Their research provided a foundation for developing an index of destination competitiveness for 13 ski areas in Canada. Using this index, the authors evaluated the various strengths and weaknesses for each destination and provided valuable information to the ski resorts in finding an optimal match between the resources and capabilities available within the destination and the environmental changes. Similarly, Dwyer, Forsyth and Rao (2000) aimed to construct indices of price competitiveness taking account of both travel costs to and from 19 competing destinations. Also, they deeply looked into the use of the indices and made comparisons between Australia and its competitor set.

Mihalic (2000) took environmental quality as a basis factor to determine destination competitiveness. According to Mihalic (2000), the environmental quality refers to the quality of the natural features of the destination that can be deteriorated by human activities. Accordingly, she claimed that maintaining a high level of beautiful scenery, natural hydrologic structures, clean water, fresh air and species diversity is important for the competitiveness of differing destinations and thus a primary concern for destination authorities.

As well, Crouch and Ritchie (1999) explained the destination concept and attempted to define the factors that make a destination competitive by developing a conceptual model. According to Crouch and Ritchie (1999), a competitive destination should provide a high standard of living for the residents. In other words, competitiveness of a destination is directly dependent on the level of economic, social and environmental conditions offered to residents.

Kozak and Rimmington (1999) evaluated the quantitative and qualitative aspects of destination competitiveness. They classified quantitative factors as tourist numbers and tourism revenues while qualitative factors were considered as tourists’ likes and dislikes regarding the destination. According to this view, tourists make comparisons between quantitative and qualitative aspects of various destinations and make a choice between them. Kozak and Rimmington (1999) made a comparison between Mediterranean destinations and found that the friendliness of local people, value for money, safety and security, local transport, natural environment and food are some of the factors which were ranked as the most positive elements of the tourism industry in Turkey.

As far as understood from the existing literature, there are plenty of studies which were conducted using the tourism indices data gathered by international or national tourism institutions. Besides, some other studies followed the approach to set tourism indices using the primary data. On the other hand, research to date has not examined competitiveness factors from the point that how effective they are in determining the competitive position of a destination. In other words, the literature lacks quantitative studies which aim to rank competitiveness factors. In order to fill this gap, the present study concentrates
on determining the effectiveness of each factor and contributes to the literature by ranking them according to the degree they are effective in determining the competitiveness of destinations. The next objective is to evaluate the competitiveness of selected countries, and more specifically to illustrate Turkey’s competitive position in the international tourism market with regard to other countries.

**METHODOLOGY**

Tourism is now widely accepted as being of central importance to the success of economic development in many countries. For this reason, a cross-country analysis of the drivers of competitiveness in tourism provides useful comparative information to take business decisions and provides additional value to public authorities wishing to improve their tourism environments. Besides, knowing which competitiveness factors are more effective in determining a country’s competitive position is beneficial to identify their strengths and weaknesses, increasing tourist numbers and tourism revenues and also to enhance the tourism development of the country (Bahar and Kozak 2005).

This paper examines the secondary data published in the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report 2007 in order to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the selected countries in the international tourism market. A total of 28 countries were clustered on the basis of their competitiveness scores on 13 factors. Consequently, the competitive positions of countries were illustrated on a two-dimensional map. Furthermore, competitiveness factors were ranked according to the degree they are effective in determining the competitive positions of these countries.

The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report 2007 contained an index of travel and tourism competitiveness scores of 124 countries based on 13 factors. For the purposes of this study, index scores of EU countries and Turkey were taken into account for a further analysis. These factors can be listed as: policy rules and regulations, environmental regulation, safety and security, health and hygiene, prioritization of travel and tourism, air transport infrastructure, ground transport infrastructure, tourism infrastructure, ICT infrastructure, price competitiveness in the travel and tourism industry, human resources, national tourism perceptions, and natural and cultural resources.

Data analysis mainly consisted of two steps. In the first step, cluster analysis was employed in order to segment 28 countries in the sample based on their competitiveness scores in 13 factors. Cluster analysis technique sorts through the raw data and groups them into clusters. Briefly defined, a cluster is a group of relatively homogeneous cases or observations. Objects in a cluster are similar to each other and dissimilar to objects outside the cluster, particularly objects in other clusters (Nakip 2003). In the second step, multi-dimensional scaling was used to identify the most and least effective factors in determining competitiveness of the selected countries. Multi-dimensional scaling is widely used in tourism marketing research (Davison and Minessota 1983). It should also be noted that cluster analysis is similar to multi-dimensional scaling but the difference is that the latter identifies underlying dimensions, while the former identifies clusters.

**RESULTS**

Data were standardized using the SPSS 13.00 program since each competitiveness score in the index had a different measurement scale. Then, index scores were employed to cluster 28 countries based on competitiveness factors. According to the dendrogram from a hierarchical cluster analysis suggesting a three-cluster solution, the K-means cluster analysis divided the samples into three distinct clusters. The first contains eight countries (Bulgaria, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Turkey) and the second contains nine (Austria, Germany, UK, Denmark, France, Finland, Sweden, Netherlands, Belgium) while the third has 11 countries (Czech Republic, Estonia, Ireland, Malta, Slovenia, Luxembourg, Spain, Cyprus, Portugal, Greece, Italy). It should be noted that countries in the same cluster form competitor sets. To further determine the characteristics of each cluster, mean scores of the clusters were calculated. Table 1 displays the mean scores of each segment cluster.

As indicated in Table 1, in Cluster 2, the means of nine factors encompassing “policy rules and regulations”, “environmental regulation”, “safety and security”, “health and hygiene”, “air transport infrastructure”, “ground transport infrastructure”, “ICT infrastructure”, “human resources” and “natural and cultural resources” were the highest and therefore identified as successful competitiveness factors. However, in Cluster 3 the ranking of mean scores differed slightly. “Prioritization of travel and tourism”, “tourism infrastructure” and “national tourism perceptions” were rated as successful competitiveness factors. In contrast, Cluster 1 was more successful than the other clusters in price competitiveness in the travel and tourism industry.
Table 1. Mean Scores of Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competitiveness Factors</th>
<th>Cluster 1</th>
<th>Cluster 2</th>
<th>Cluster 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy rules and regulations</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>4.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental regulation</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>5.81</td>
<td>4.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and security</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>5.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and hygiene</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>5.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prioritization of travel and tourism</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>4.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air transport infrastructure</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground transport infrastructure</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>4.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism infrastructure</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>5.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT infrastructure</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>5.27</td>
<td>4.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price competitiveness in tourism</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>4.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resources</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>5.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National tourism perceptions</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>5.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural and cultural resources</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>5.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to evaluate the competitive positions of the selected countries, multi dimensional scaling analysis was employed. The stress measure was calculated first. Stress is the most common measure used to evaluate how well or poorly a particular configuration reproduces the observed distance matrix. Also, stress is minimized when the objects are placed in a configuration so that the distances between the objects best match the original distances (Ozdamar 2004). In this study, the stress measure was calculated as 0.12, which is tolerable since the stress measure under 0.10 is excellent and anything over 0.15 is unacceptable. For this reason, it can be said that findings of multi dimensional analysis represented the data used in this study. The Shepard Diagram illustrated in Graphic 1 gives the distribution of distances and disparities between the countries. As seen, the linear fit is available between the disparities and distances of selected countries.

In order to illustrate the competitiveness positions of 28 selected countries individually, which were previously clustered into 3 segments, multi dimensional scaling was further performed. Based on the results of cluster analysis, three clusters were shown in Graphic 2. Furthermore, stimulus coordinates were calculated in order to make a one-by-one comparison between results. Table 2 displays the coordinates of 28 countries for two dimensions. Findings of the multi dimensional scaling showed that in the first dimension, Germany and Romania are the farthest countries to each other. They had the coordinate values of 1.8981 and 2.4648, respectively. As for the second dimension, Cyprus (-1.4065) and Poland (1.0995) were determined as the farthest countries to each other.

Graphic 1. Shepard Diagram of Distances and Disparities between Countries

Graphic 2. Perceptual Map of Countries Based on Competitiveness Factors
Table 2. Coordinates of Countries for Two Dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Dimension 1</th>
<th>Dimension 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VAR1: Bulgaria</td>
<td>2.2349</td>
<td>-0.4234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR2: Czech Republic</td>
<td>0.1877</td>
<td>0.3075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR3: Estonia</td>
<td>0.5816</td>
<td>-0.5920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR4: Ireland</td>
<td>-0.2732</td>
<td>-0.6510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR5: Latvia</td>
<td>1.3660</td>
<td>0.6862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR6: Lithuania</td>
<td>1.1706</td>
<td>0.5959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR7: Hungary</td>
<td>0.4253</td>
<td>0.3081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR8: Malta</td>
<td>0.3099</td>
<td>-1.2531</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR9: Poland</td>
<td>1.6124</td>
<td>1.0995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR10: Romania</td>
<td>2.4648</td>
<td>0.7226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR11: Slovakia</td>
<td>0.4177</td>
<td>0.9559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR12: Slovenia</td>
<td>0.8484</td>
<td>0.0123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR13: Austria</td>
<td>-1.4238</td>
<td>-0.9402</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR14: Germany</td>
<td>-1.8981</td>
<td>0.2630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR15: Luxemburg</td>
<td>-0.9274</td>
<td>-0.7733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR16: UK</td>
<td>-1.5865</td>
<td>0.4078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR17: Danmark</td>
<td>-1.8739</td>
<td>0.6527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR18: France</td>
<td>-1.1409</td>
<td>-0.0106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR19: Spain</td>
<td>-0.2002</td>
<td>-1.1749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR20: Finland</td>
<td>-1.5220</td>
<td>0.6730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR21: Sweden</td>
<td>-1.3767</td>
<td>0.7465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR22: Netherlands</td>
<td>-1.0824</td>
<td>0.6889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR23: Cyprus</td>
<td>0.6114</td>
<td>-1.4065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR24: Belgium</td>
<td>-0.8032</td>
<td>0.5865</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR25: Portugal</td>
<td>-0.1918</td>
<td>-0.4186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR26: Greece</td>
<td>0.2691</td>
<td>-0.9077</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR27: Turkey</td>
<td>1.5259</td>
<td>0.2165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAR28: Italy</td>
<td>0.2747</td>
<td>-0.3715</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the second step, multi dimensional scaling analysis was employed to provide insights about the effectiveness of the competitiveness factors used in determining countries’ competitiveness. Before the analysis, the stress value was calculated as 0.14. In addition, Shepard Diagram shown in Graphic 3 demonstrates a linear fit is available between the disparities and distances of factors.

Graphic 4 corresponds to the distribution of competitiveness factors used in determining the competitive position of countries. In Graphic 4, the positions of 13 competitiveness factors in a two dimensional map is given. As understood from the positions of competitiveness factors, air transport infrastructure, natural and cultural resources, ground transport infrastructure, health and hygiene have similar effects. Moreover, it is obvious that price competitiveness in the travel and tourism industry has a lower impact over competitiveness than the rest of 12 factors. Additionally, national tourism perceptions, prioritization of travel and tourism and tourism infrastructure are effective to a similar degree, too.
Findings of the multi-dimensional scaling analysis rated air transport infrastructure, natural and cultural resources, ground transport infrastructure and health and hygiene as the factors of competitiveness, which have an effective distinction between the sample countries. In other words, these factors were detected as the most significant ones in determining destination competitiveness. According to Table 1, Austria, Germany, UK, Denmark, France, Finland, Sweden, Netherlands and Belgium, which constituted the second cluster, were found to be the leading countries in terms of these competitiveness factors. Findings also revealed that secondary (relatively less important) determinants of competitiveness between countries were environmental regulation, ICT infrastructure, safety and security, and policy rules and regulations. Particularly interesting about the data presented in Table 1 was the leadership of the above mentioned countries in these competitiveness factors and also human resources. Following these factors, tourism infrastructure, human resources, prioritization of travel and tourism, national tourism perceptions, price competitiveness also determined competitiveness even though they were not as effective as other factors.

CONCLUSION

This study, based on the competitiveness of Turkey and EU countries, suggests clustering the selected countries based on 13 competitiveness factors. Hence, competitive positions of these countries with respect to others were determined. Accordingly, it was aimed to detect the effectiveness level of competitiveness factors in determining countries’ competitiveness. Results of this study strongly emphasize that Austria, Germany, UK, Denmark, France, Finland, Sweden, Netherlands, and Belgium form a unique cluster and show superior performance in terms of the most effective factors of competitiveness, which are air transport infrastructure, natural and cultural resources, ground transport infrastructure, and health and hygiene. Likewise, as for the secondary determinants of the competitiveness (environmental regulation, ICT infrastructure, safety and security, and policy rules and regulations), countries within the same cluster ranked the top. More specifically, results of the study imply that these countries have a competitive advantage on the way to be a successful destination in the international tourism market.

The competitiveness rankings for tourism infrastructure, prioritization of travel and tourism, and national tourism perceptions suggest that Czech Republic, Estonia, Ireland, Malta, Slovenia, Luxemburg, Spain, Cyprus, Portugal, Greece and Italy rank the top, relative to other countries in the sample. These countries also form the third cluster according to competitiveness factors. Since these countries outperform in tourism infrastructure, it is likely that they continuously try to improve their physical and financial infrastructure for tourists in the country. It can also be concluded that these countries attract more private investment into the industry, attend at international tourism and travel exhibitions and promote attractive destination marketing campaigns. Further, ranking the top in national tourism perceptions has one important implication towards the extent to which the country and society are open to tourism and foreign visitors. It is clear that people in these countries welcome foreign and domestic travelers, which is a desirable situation in tourist destinations.

However, price competitiveness in the travel and tourism industry is determined as the competitiveness factor that affects competitiveness at a minimum level. Briefly, the price competitiveness in the travel and tourism industry takes into account lower costs increasing the attractiveness of countries for tourists. For this factor, Bulgaria, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovakia and Turkey gave the highest scores (Table 1). Such a finding cannot be considered as striking for Turkey since it has a reputation in terms of being a cheap destination. For this reason, the effects of being the leading country with respect to price competitiveness in the tourism industry may be two-dimensional. First, a relatively lower level of tourism income compared to the number of foreign visitors (Kozak and Rimmington, 1999) may prevent Turkey from promoting tourism revenues to an acceptable level. On the other hand, low prices of airfare tickets, fuel price levels compared with those of other countries and less expensive goods and services could promote Turkey as an attractive destination in terms of tourist expenditures. The study also highlights that Turkey falls into the same cluster with the lower-middle-income economy group of countries. As understood from the findings of this study, Turkey should improve its position by gaining competitive advantage in air and ground transport infrastructure, natural and cultural resources or health and hygiene. Consequently, there is a ground to suggest that quality of products and services be enhanced and tourism demand towards these products and services be made steady. Thus, prices of tourism products and services in Turkey may turn to an acceptable level.

Findings of this study also shed light on the competitiveness of countries operating in the international tourism market. As understood from the findings, there still exists a large gap between Turkey and especially the older member countries of the EU in terms of tourism competitiveness. In order to reduce the gap, the future determinants of competitiveness within EU should be taken
into account. For instance, Turkey may enhance its competitiveness through certain improvements in ICT and human resources. In addition, the cooperation between government and private sectors should also be sustained and both sectors should follow the improvements in the international tourism market and make necessary renovations. One more recommendation includes that Turkey needs to benchmark itself the leading competitive tourism countries such as Austria, France, and UK, rather than cheap-image countries.

Due to time and financial limitations, the focus of the study was limited to just 28 countries and 13 competitiveness factors. However, the related literature argues that market share of the member countries of EU declines gradually. Thus, future studies should focus on developing tourism countries located in the Southeast Asia or Pacific regions. Next, secondary data was used in the study. Therefore, the validity of results is directly dependent on the data. Also, another limitation lies in the fact that tourists’ opinions and the level of their satisfaction were not included. Future studies may therefore conduct tourist surveys. Nevertheless, it should be emphasized that this study is designed to illustrate the relative competitiveness of selected countries and determine the most effective determinants of competitiveness between these countries. Hence, the results should primarily be regarded as a picture of the international tourism market.

REFERENCES


A Review for Istanbul Considered as the European Capital of Culture 2010

Candan YILDIRIM
Faculty of Communication
Marmara University, Turkey
E-mail: candanolcer@yahoo.com

Y. Ece İNAN
Faculty of Communication
Marmara University, Turkey
E-mail: yececoklu@marmara.edu.tr

Metin TEBERLER
Vacational School
İstanbul Technical University, Turkey
E-mail: teberler@itu.edu.tr

ABSTRACT
The potential of urban tourism, centered around cities, must be acknowledged. Istanbul, considered to be at the crossroads of different civilizations, can be a very good location for urban tourism. In the first decade of the 21st Century, as arts and cultural activities flourish in urban environments, many previously unheralded cities are turning into prime locations for attracting tourists, including Istanbul. The success of promotional activities undertaken to attract tourists depends on the joint efforts of the government, local authorities, the private sector and the local population. Although Istanbul has been a popular destination for internal and incoming tourists for a long time, its selection as the European capital of Culture has given an additional boost to activities such as infrastructure renewal and architectural restoration. This study aims to assess the potential benefits of the selection of Istanbul as the European Capital of Culture in 2010 and the response of the tourism industry in this regard. Moreover, the issues of communication in tourism are defined, the concept of the European capital of culture is explained, the acceptance procedures, the communication and promotional activities undertaken during the acceptance period and further requirements are highlighted. The literature survey on the related topics is performed and 2010 İstanbul Office has been visited. Moreover, a survey about the perception of the 2010 of the hospitality sector is foreseen with the proposal of the expectations and the suggestions. However, throughout this study, only relevant background is considered and discussed in order to lead the following steps of the study in future.

Key words: Istanbul, culture, city tourism, European capital of culture.

INTRODUCTION
With its unique slogan “Istanbul: The City of Four Elements”, Istanbul seems well-dedicated city among two other cities selected as European Capitals of Culture in 2010, along with Essen (Germany) and Pécs (Hungary). In this study the major aim is to find answers to the following questions: a) Why was the project taken up? What are the goals?, and how is this event perceived by the tourism sector?

It is considered that these questions are essential in both assessing the motivations behind the Istanbul 2010 Project and the expectations from the event. The organization will be the first biggest event which will be lasting during the whole year. In this study, communication in tourism and perception management in tourism subjects are defined, the meaning of the European Capital of Culture is explained, the acceptance procedures, the communication and promotional activities realized during the acceptance period and necessary further activities are highlighted. The meaning of being selected as the European Capital of Culture for Istanbul and how the Turkish Tourism sector perceives this event are investigated. A literature survey on the related topics has been performed and the 2010 İstanbul Office has been visited. Moreover, a survey about the perception of the 2010 of the hospitality sector is foreseen with the proposal of the expectations and the suggestions. However, throughout this study, only relevant background is considered and discussed in order to lead the following steps of the study in future.

CITIES AND TOURISM
Due to its economic, social and cultural effects, tourism is an important industry for all countries. The World Trade and Tourism Council (WTTC) expect the worldwide tourism income for 2007 to reach 7,060.3 billion U.S. Dollars. According to the Turkish authorities, Turkey’s income from tourism in 2006 is 12.5 billion U.S. Dollars that have been collected from 19.819 million tourists. (www.tursab.org.tr) According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), the USA, Spain and France are the countries that have the highest income from tourism, and Turkey is the 12th in this ranking. In the most preferred destination list, Spain, France and the USA are at the top, and Turkey is the number 16th. It can be figured out that Turkey is not where it deserves to be. The most important reason for this situation can be defined as insufficient destination marketing activities (Kozak et al. 2001).
There is fierce competition between the countries that would like to take their share from the tourism industry which has brought alternative offerings in tourism. Countries are trying to offer creative products and to differentiate themselves. The changes in the tourists’ demands and expectations are playing an important role in the search of alternatives. It is also notable that the demand for mass tourism has reached its peak, and countries have changed their marketing strategies. Countries are no longer promoting the country as a whole. Marketing of cities or specific areas that have a potential for tourism has been prioritized (Tosun and Bilim 2004).

Big cities are considered to be important tourism destinations all around the world. With their urbanization, historical, cultural and social elements, cities have been attracting visitors for many years. With their very own and unique living areas, recreation and shopping facilities, cities have been chosen as travel destinations by tourists instead of holiday villages or places that are specially created (Laws 1992).

The discovery of cities as important destinations for tourism dates back to the early 1980’s. Industrialized cities started to adapt themselves to this new concept. They reconstructed themselves by means of physical development, and they started promotion activities for tourism. Baltimore, Cleveland, Detroit, and Pittsburg in the United States, Bradford, Birmingham and Manchester in England, Duisburg and Lyon in the Continental Europe have hosted a rapid development in urban tourism (Law 1993). City tourism offices, destination marketing organizations and national tourism bureaus are playing very important roles in destination marketing (Mazanec 1997; Middleton and Clarke 2002). Strategic plans are developed for the marketing of destinations (Buhalis 2000). In accordance with these plans, research is conducted to determine target markets. Then promotion activities are designed with respect to defined strategies. Budgets are allocated and finally the returns of these activities are controlled.

Cities are very attractive tourist destinations because of the various activities they offer to national and international visitors coming for holiday or business purposes. What attracts tourists to a city is the “product”. In tourism the “product” is far beyond than being a visible object and the term “product” is enlarged in context. According to the Research by Jansen-Verbreke (1988) tourism products are defined as “primary, secondary and additional” elements. Further developing Jansen-Verbreke’s study, Law (1993: 8) examined the products that cities are offering in three categories; Primary elements are activities that can be organized in a city or the city’s own characteristics. Activities in the city include cultural activities such as theatres, museums, concerts or shows, sports activities or entertaining activities such as casinos, night clubs or festivals. Historical roads and buildings, harbors, green areas, rivers, canals are venues that shape the city’s physical characteristics and the socio-cultural characteristics of the city are vivacity of the city, local traditions, folklore, languages, security and local people etc. All the above mentioned characteristics are primary activities in the city. Secondary activities are considered to be hotels, food and beverage facilities and bazaars or local shopping centers. Apart from these activities, easy access to the city, parking areas, information bureaus, signals or guides are defined as additional elements.

Visitors come to a city for different purposes: business, congress, short breaks, excursions, visiting friends or relatives or using the city as national entrance and exit doors (Law 1993: 30). A holiday is defined as a long holiday if it involves staying four or more days away from home. Such long holiday travelers are not major target markets for cities, except for big cities like London or Paris. However, changes in travel habits show us that travelers no longer prefer to travel to sunny places in the Mediterranean with packaged tours.

Short breaks are also important for cities. Short breaks are holidays that include one to three days stays and take place in short distances. This type of travel continues round the year and generally takes place on weekends. Daily travels are the ones which involves at least three hours traveling. These travels are usually done by car but nowadays they can be done by plane as well, e.g. daily travels from England to Vienna. Business travels are mostly done to the cities with business areas. Travels made with the purpose of congress or business meetings form a major share of the city tourism (Law 1993).

According to the study by international tourism consultancy group IPK International in Europe (2004), city tourism has huge momentum at the moment. Throughout the world, international tourism registers an increase of 9%. Especially, Asia shows an increase of 31%. In Europe, 360 million journeys abroad have been realized in 2004 and it is observed that 38% of these journeys, that is 135 million of them, have been made to cities. City tourism registers an increase of 108% between 2000 and 2004. 82% of tourists visiting cities accommodated in hotels. Only 18% of tourists preferred other types of accommodation such as condominiums or pensions. Most preferred destinations for city tourism have been France, Italy, Germany, Spain and England in 2004. Turkey has taken only 2% of share of this market. Between 2000 and 2004, the purpose of the visits are listed as follows; 37% is for short breaks in cities, 28% is for the visit of multiple
cities, 26% is for alternative and ecological tourism and 9% is for sea-sand-sun tourism. Europeans have spent 108 Million euros for city tourism in 2004. In the rank of the average amount they have spent per night, business travels take lead with 158 Euros per night and leisure travels follow with 105 Euros per night.

The survey and the definitions mentioned above show that tourism has a great potential for the cities. If the opportunities are well analyzed and combined with well planned marketing activities; one of them could be considered as the selection of European Capital of Culture, cities and countries can benefit from increased tourist numbers with increased income. In this respect, it is evident that if studied and implemented well, a marketing plan for Istanbul would have incredible returns for the city and the country.

EUROPEAN CAPITAL OF CULTURE CONCEPT

The idea of having a European Capital of Culture was first put forward in 1985 when Melina Mercouri was Greek Minister for Culture. From 1985 to 2000, one city from the countries which were members of the European Union was selected each year as the European Capital of Culture. From the year 2000, the title of European Capital of Culture has been given to more than one city each year and also to cities in countries that were candidates for EU membership.

According to the Palmer Report prepared for the EU, cities have multiple objectives in this activity such as; to run a program of cultural activities and art events, to attract visitors and to enhance pride and self-confidence. Other objectives for some cities included expanding the local audience for culture, making improvements to cultural infrastructure, developing relationships with other European cities and regions, promoting creativity and innovation and developing the careers/talents of local artists.


As mentioned on the previous chapters, city tourism is getting more and more important. To take a part from this tourism type, cities should promote themselves. As promotional activities there is a lot to do; but first of all cities should create an attractive atmosphere and be able to reflect what they have to travelers. In that sense, being selected as a capital of culture is an important opportunity. If the selected city is well prepared for this event and if it is marketed appropriately, there is no reason not to benefit from this event.

ISTANBUL AS AN EUROPEAN CAPITAL OF CULTURE

The decision taken in 2000 enabled the title of European Capital of Culture (ECOC) to be used for the cities which were not members of the European Union after the year 2005. This created the opportunity for Istanbul to apply for the title of European Capital of Culture 2010. In the same year the Initiative Group which includes 13 non-governmental organizations began to work. The Initiative Group has been expanded through the inclusion of members of the city’s cultural and artistic communities, academicians, administrators and representatives of NGOs, with the Prime Ministry, the Ministry for Foreign Affairs, the Ministry for Culture and Tourism, the Istanbul Governorate and the Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality Mayor’s Office. The group prepared a dossier for Istanbul to be chosen as European Capital of Culture that was titled as “Istanbul: City of the Four Elements” and presented to the Council of Europe General Directorate for Education and Culture on 13 December 2005. The dossier is titled as “city of four elements” because it’s inspired from the idea that the universe was created from the four basic elements; air, earth, water and fire.

In this presentation of Istanbul, the city’s multicultural and cosmopolitan history and especially the ancient combined with the modern were mentioned. “Istanbul will use participatory and grassroots approaches to artistic and cultural productions, thereby bringing especially disenfranchised voices and groups from across Europe to Istanbul to start a process of thinking and feeling together.” (Istanbul 2010 PowerPoint Presentation) The main targeted audience is people living in all parts of the city; especially people living in Istanbul who do not participate in the cultural and social activities of the city. Also young people and women were mentioned as important targets for the event. Furthermore, the improved cooperation between the state, the private and the third parties was mentioned. In April 2006, the Selection Panel for the European Capital of Culture 2010 selected Istanbul as one of the three Cultural Capitals for the year 2010, with Essen and Pécs. Istanbul’s bid was selected because of its innovative program building on the roots of the city. Its bottom-
up process and strong involvement of civil society were applauded and its sustainable character and intention to reach out to all parts of the local population were viewed as positive endeavors. (Report of the Selection Meeting for the European Capitals of Culture 2010, 2006).

**BENEFITS OF BECOMING EUROPEAN CAPITAL OF CULTURE**

“As part of the ECOC project we hope not only to renovate or restore historical relics but to turn them into instruments for understanding the past, shedding light on the modern day and developing them as learning tools for urban education.” (Official ECOC 2010 bidding document). The European Capital of Culture 2010 event is by far the biggest cultural event that will take place in Istanbul in the near future. Many different actors from various sectors are currently involved, trying to organize an attractive program that will enrich the city in many ways. The selection of ECOC is considered as an opportunity for Istanbul to promote itself. It is noted in Ucar (2008) that the city of Istanbul is being renewed throughout and a fund of EU for 500 million dollars would be utilized for urban transformation and restoration projects. In this respect, there will be a potential of 2 billion dollars for the sectors from tourism, catering, food and beverage to advertising agencies, transportation, construction and architectural designers.

The selection of Istanbul as ECOC is expected to have multiple effects. First of all with this big-scale event, Istanbul will be able to accommodate large numbers of domestic and foreign tourists. The Palmer Report states that the benefits of ECOC depend on the cities’ expectations. However, it is obvious that cultural visitors are large-spending tourists and they spend at least three times more than regular tourists. During the interview, Vice Governor Cumhur Güven Taşbaş argued that Turkey is expecting 10 million tourists to Istanbul in 2010. Besides direct economic effects, new job opportunities and new creative industries for the local people can also be stated.

The other aspect of ECOC is about the city and country image. Raising the international profile of a city is strongly related with the promotional activities. Cresting a positive image is a long and difficult process. However, when it is placed on the minds, it never goes out. For example nowadays some cities are characterized with certain concepts; Paris with romance, Rio de Janeiro with entertainment, Sydney with sport etc. These big-scale events are taking important places in the promotional activities. The success in the organizations brings positive image creation in the minds of foreigners.

In the last couple of years, successful events happened in Istanbul such as 49th Eurovision song contest (05/15/2004), UEFA Championship final of 2004-2005 (05/17/2005), XIIth Architecture Congress (07/03/2007-07/07/2007), Formula 1 (2005 and 2007), 9th International Istanbul Biannual (2005 and 2007). As a post research, when 6 city center 5 star hotels are interviewed in 2006, they gave the following numbers for their occupancy rates during the organizations.

| Table 1. Occupancy rates of six city center hotels |
|-----------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| **Dates** | **Swissotel** | **Hyatt Regency** | **The Plaza** | **Point** | **Ceylan** | **Taksim Square** |
| First days of 9th International Biannual | 100% | 70% | 87% | 90% | 100% | Between 92% - 97% |
| International Architecture Congress | 100% | 100% | 80% | 75% | 80% | |
| UEFA Championship 2004-2005 Final | 100% | 100% | 90% | 80% | 100% | |
| Eurovision | 100% | 80% | 65% | 70% | 85% | |
| Formula 1 | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | 100% | |

*Source: Yıldırım and Teberler (2006).*

As seen in Table 1, it is easily understood that the occupancy rates are reaching 90 or 100 percents in relation with the events taking place in the city. Besides the economic benefits, ECOC brings more important renovations in several areas to the cities. Due to ECOC new infrastructural facilities will be provided to Istanbul. New hotels, museums, roads and infrastructural facility projects have started to be implemented to be ready for 2010 and for further activities. Another major benefit of ECOC for the city would be the development of cultural life. New museums will be established, historical and cultural places will be renovated and Istanbul will become a center for the reunion of the artists and for the artistic debates.

Some of the planned activities can be listed as; International Istanbul Ulker Puppet Festival, 2010 District Festivals, 40 Hammams Story Exhibition, Youth IntegrArt (one of the cultural exchange programs), International Istanbul Jazz Festival, Mahya Contest, International Istanbul Biennial, Mediterranean Contemporary Music Days, Impressionist Dance Project, etc. The major aim of the projects is to give vividity to the cultural life of Istanbul. Some of the activities such as International Jazz Festival or International Istanbul Biennial are already continuing activities. However, some renovation projects, new museum buildings and some festivals will be seen only in 2010. That’s why the year 2010 will
be as interesting for international tourists as for the local community and domestic tourists.

Cultural activities will not only be organized for the “elites” or foreign tourists. One of the major aims of ECOC is to develop cultural habits of local people. In order to realize this, the organization committee gives importance to youth, children and women education about culture. Their major target is to make people proud of their cities and to improve their knowledge of Istanbul.

As the vice Governor Cumhur Güven Taşbaş states during the interview, Turkish government invests for the ECOC in 2010 but they are not only investing for the year 2010 and they believe that this is event has long-term effects. It’s not a one year project. Furthermore, the selection of Istanbul has brought enthusiasm for the ECOC. At the first years of the organization EU selected the biggest cities in Europe as ECOC, and for a long time small cities had been selected as ECOC. After the selection process, the preparation period for the year 2010 has started. The ad-hoc law is passed and the PR company is selected as “Grup 7”. The promotion period should start shortly.

CONCLUSION

Istanbul has made lots of improvements during the last years. Istanbul has transformed since 1980’s very rapidly and still changes every year. Nowadays, Istanbul is trying very hard to raise its standards and to show to the rest of the world that it is a modern city with modern facilities. ECOC in 2010 will be an opportunity to present unknown sides of Istanbul. This event by itself would not be useful in order to reach those purposes. It will be such a milestone for the city if everything goes right. As mentioned before marketing activities should be thought as long term activities. Successful events should be followed by continuous marketing plans and activities. This is not only important for the economic improvement it is also important for Turkey’s relations with the European Union as it demonstrates efforts to be a part of it.

The promotion of the city is not easy if it is left only to the government activities. In this case, non governmental organizations, public and private sectors and most importantly local people should work all together. As a result, the year 2010 will be an up trend for Istanbul. This study foresees a situational analysis and mainly aims to build a base for further studies. For this study, the limited literature sources are revised, Vice Governor Cumhur Güven Taşbaşi is interviewed, the 2010 office has been visited a couple of times. As a result of the lack of statistical data about Istanbul tourism, the need for a survey seemed obvious to get the exact results. Accordingly, a questionnaire prepared for the accommodation sector concerning questions about their expectations about the 2010 which will be distributed and evaluated during the year 2008. As a further study, after the year 2010, it is also planned to distribute a similar questionnaire to the same participants in order to find out what was expected from being the ECOC and what is realized in the reality, the positive and negative effects of the project are also planned to be analyzed.

REFERENCES


Cumhur Güven Taşbaş, Vice-governor at the Istanbul Government, 7 December 2007


INTERNET REFERENCES

http://goturkey.kulturturizm.gov.tr (Ministry of Culture and Tourism)
http://www.ibb.gov.tr (Istanbul Metropolitan Municipality)
http://www.mfa.gov.tr (Ministry of Foreign Affairs)
www.iksv.org (Istanbul Foundation for Culture and Arts)
www.Istanbul2010.org
www.labforculture.org
Changes in Patterns of Trip Planning Horizon: A Corhont Analysis Approach

Chang HUH
Parks, Recreation and Hospitality Administration
Arkansas Tech University, USA
E-mail: chuh@atu.edu

Sung Hee PARK
Community, Agriculture, Recreation and Resource Studies
Michigan State University, USA
E-mail: parksu26@msu.edu

ABSTRACT
Knowledge of changing age structure and its effect on the patterns of travel behavior would help tourism marketers and promoters identify growth areas, target age-related segments, or forecast future preferences for, and use of, their products and services. The purpose of this study was to investigate the causal relationship between changes in patterns of trip planning horizon over time and the effects of biological age, time of travel, and generational cohort. Household data of 1997 and 2002 were utilized for this study. Independent samples t-tests and One-way Analysis of Variance were carried out to test the relationship between trip planning horizon and the effects of age-related variables, and then stepwise multiple regression was employed to identify key determinants that explain variations in trip planning horizon. The results of the study provide evidence that travelers’ trip planning horizon became shorter during the five-year period. Those traveling in 2002 had 2.7% shorter trip-planning intervals than those traveling in 1997; and those born between 1970 and 1974 had 20.3% shorter trip-planning intervals than those born from 1980–1984. The timing of intensive tourism advertising and promotion should be considered before tourism season begins due to people’s short trip planning horizon. The implications of the study were discussed.

Keywords: Trip planning horizon, cohort analysis, trip plan, travel behavior, regression.

INTRODUCTION
One of the many challenges facing the American tourism industry in the 21st century is rapid changes in the demographic characteristics of the U.S. population. The latest 2000 Census indicates that the U.S. population has reached 281.4 million, a 13.2 percent increase over the 248.7 million people recorded in the 1990 Census, and that significant shifts in the population structure occurred over the decade between the censuses. Low birth rate, increased life expectancy, and the aging of the baby boomers are believed to be causal factors in the aging of America (Godbey 1997; Longino 1994) As the American population continues to age, people in the tourism industry are questioning whether the future older cohort will behave more like the current population of the same age cohort or more like when they were younger (Sakai, Brown and Mak 2000; You and O’Leary 2000).

Another challenge facing the U.S. tourism industry is accounting for unique events/incidents or environmental changes that occur while people are planning or taking a trip, which influence their travel behavior. An example of such a unique event is the fluctuation of gasoline prices. Another example of such unique events is the terrorist attacks in the United States on September 11, 2001, which changed many aspects of our lives and the operating environments of many industries, including the tourism industry. The threat of terrorism to major tourist attractions will be an ongoing problem in the United States. In addition, economic conditions of the nation, such as GDP, employment rate, and technology development, such as the high-speed Internet and Global Positioning Systems (GPS) are also believed to affect trip planning horizon.

The central question addressed in this research was: what effect will the aging of the U.S. population have on the tourism industry over time? And, do unique events, economic conditions, or technology developments, have an influence on people’s travel behavior while people are planning? Thus, the purpose of this study was to investigate the causal relationship between changes in patterns of “trip planning horizon” – the number of days travelers begin to plan a pleasure trip in advance – over time and the following three variables: biological age, time of travel, and generational cohort. More specifically, this study utilized a cohort analytical concept as a methodological framework to identify: (1) changes that can be attributed to the process of aging (i.e., life cycle status, reduced physical abilities), (2) changes that are associated with the unique events or environmental changes (e.g., economic conditions, gasoline prices, technology development and innovations) at the time trip is taken or trip is planned, and (3) changes that can be attributed to generational cohort (i.e., those who were born in the same year have had similar life experiences). The secondary purpose of this study was to further identify salient factors that influence travel behavior in relation to the effects of biological age, time of travel, and generational cohort, as well as sociodemographic factors and travel-related factors (e.g., travel party size, transportation used). Two research hypotheses were selected to guide this study:
Hypothesis 1: Significant differences exist in patterns of travel behavior with respect to trip planning horizon that is associated with differences in: (1) the age of the travelers, (2) current events at the time the trip is planned, and (3) the generational cohort of the traveler.

Hypothesis 2: The specified dominant effect(s) can be combined with other causal variables to more effectively explain variations in trip planning horizon.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It reviewed the most important research, time-related variables and modeling of trip planning horizon, that has been conducted in tourism research. Travel behavior over time seems to be influenced not only by people’s chronological/social age (i.e., life cycle status) but also by the era when they emerged from their youth and became young adults and/or from being young adults to becoming seniors (Meredith, Schewe and Karlovich 2002). Examples of early inquiries into this issue in the tourism literature include Oppermann (1995), who examined changes in German traveler patterns and destination choice with respect to biological age and generational cohort. His findings indicated that biological age causes travelers to reduce distances traveled. However, this finding is somewhat contradictory to the finding of Reece (2004), who investigated the travel behavior patterns of senior travelers (defined as 55 years of age and older) and non-senior travelers in South Carolina, and indicated that senior travelers travel farther than do their counterparts. Collins and Tisdell (2002) also investigated linkage between biological age and travel behavior in age-related Australian outbound tourism cycles by trip purposes. They found that the 15 to 24 years-old age group was more likely to travel for educational purposes, whereas the 65 and older age group was less likely to travel for such purposes.

Travel behavior is also affected by unique events/incidents or environmental changes that arise while people are planning or taking a trip. Corsi and Harvey (1979) investigated whether the patterns of long-distance vacation travel were impacted by higher gasoline prices under the conditions of an energy crisis. They found that people were affected by higher gasoline prices or restricted fuel availability when they planned a vacation trip. This finding is consistent with studies of Williams, Burke, and Dalton (1979) and Kamp, Crompton and Hensarling (1979), indicating that the impact of the increased prices of gasoline and the expected shortage of gasoline diminished vacation travel. Furthermore, higher gasoline prices compel people to take shorter trips, and, if gasoline prices reach an unacceptable level, people will stay home. Morgan (1986) also examined the impact of energy crises during 1973–1974 and 1979. His findings revealed that there was an energy crisis impact that was significant for all U.S. national park visits and that visits to the Grand Canyon dropped by 25% during the two crisis periods of 1973–1974 and 1979. Furthermore, since the evolution of the Internet in the 1990s, people have utilized the Internet for searching for information and purchasing products or services online. Such environmental changes have also been found to influence travel behavior over time (Beldona 2005).

Travel is an experience-based activity; thus, the travel experiences in college students who were born between 1984 to 1994 continue to affect their travel behavior throughout their life span. Their core values (e.g., attitudes, preferences, and behavior) are carried through life largely unchanged (Meredith, Schewe, and Karlovich 2002). In other words, generational cohort members are believed to exhibit similar behavior patterns throughout their life span due to similar travel experiences in their youth and perceived values within the cohort (Glenn 1977; Oppermann 1995; Zimmer, Brayley and Searle 1995) Several empirical studies support this assumption. Oppermann (1995) found that members of the younger generational cohort take more trips and travel farther than the previous generational cohort. You and O’Leary (2000) added to Oppermann’s finding by observing Japanese senior outbound travel propensity, activity participation at the travel destination, and travel philosophy in relation to biological age (i.e., age 55–64 year-old group in both 1986 and 1995) and generational cohort (i.e., those born between 1931 to 1940). Their findings showed that the generational cohort effect overruled the biological age effect. The senior Japanese travelers traveled as much as when they were young and participated in more activities than their counterparts did a decade ago.

To date, despite the important implications of the changes in travel behavior influenced by the individual effects of biological age, time of travel, and generational cohort, very few studies have examined the joint impact of such changes on aggregate travel behavior over time in the context of tourism.

MODELING STUDIES OF TRIP HORIZON IN TOURISM RESEARCH

To launch timely tourism advertisement programs and promotions, knowledge of the trip planning interval associated with travel behavior is essential both to tourism marketers and practitioners. Early examples of related research are studies by Schul and Crompton (1983) and Gitelson and Crompton (1983), who studied the search behavior of U.K international vacationers with respect to travel-specific psychographic variables and sociodemographic variables. They
found that cultural interest, comfort, activity, and opinion leadership explained observed differences in total trip planning intervals.

Gitelson and Crompton (1983) investigated the relationship between trip planning intervals and information sources used by pleasure vacationers. The length of stay, trip distance from home to the primary destination, and the purpose of trip (i.e., visiting friends or relatives) were found to be key factors in trip planning intervals. The longer and the farther from home, the longer in advance pleasure vacationers planned their trip. Those who traveled to visit friends and relatives were found to have shorter trip planning intervals.

Rao, Thomas, and Javalgi (1992) found, in a relationship study of activity preferences at destinations and trip planning behavior for the U.S. outbound pleasure travel market, that trip expenditures and distance of trip were significant factors in explaining trip planning intervals. Higher trip expenditures and farther distances were found to be associated with longer trip planning intervals. These findings are consistent with those of Fodness and Murray (1997) who found that biological age, the purpose of trip (e.g., vacation, visiting friends and relatives), transportation mode, length of stay, number of destinations visited, number of attractions visited, lodging type, and trip expenditures influence trip planning horizons. More specifically, the longer the stay, the more destinations, the more attractions, the higher the expenditures, were found to be tied to longer trip planning horizons. However, those who were young, single, visited friends and relatives, and traveled in their own vehicles had shorter trip planning horizons.

Yoon (2000) modeled and estimated trip planning intervals of pleasure travelers in Michigan. Season, party size, activities, length of trip, the purpose of trip, and expenditures were found to be statistically significant in explaining differences in trip planning intervals. More specifically, the longer the trip and the higher the travel expenditures, the longer were respondents’ trip planning horizons. However, those who visited friends and relatives had shorter trip planning intervals. In sum, key determinants of the length of trip planning horizons were found by Yoon to be: the duration of trip, travel expenditures, travel distance, the purpose of trip, party size, and activity participation.

**METHODOLOGY**

To accomplish the purpose of the study, data were needed for at least two time intervals. Data collected in Michigan Travel Market Survey (hereafter, MTMS) were utilized for this study because the survey met this criterion. The MTMS study population consisted of households in the states of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, and the Canadian province of Ontario. Survey respondents had to be 18 years old or older when interviewed. Random digital samples of household telephone numbers in the study region were purchased from Survey Sampling, Inc. for the study. On average, 400 telephone interviews were completed each month during the study with an associated ± 3 percent sampling error (Lohr 1999). From January 1996 onward, the MTMS yielded longitudinal information about travel behavior across the study region. During an eight-year survey period (1996–2003), a total of 38,417 interviews were completed. 5,735 (2,516 from 1997 plus 3,219 from 2002) samples were used for analysis.

The questionnaire used in the study was developed for and administered via a Computer-Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI) laboratory maintained by the Michigan Travel, Tourism, and Recreation Resource Center at Michigan State University. A core set of questions in the questionnaire remained unchanged during the eight-year period of the study; other questions relating to the research project were rotated in and out periodically.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out to test the relationship between the effects of biological age and generational cohort and trip planning horizon variable. The reason for applying one-way ANOVA is that it will determine if the means of trip planning horizon variable differ statistically with respect to 11 age groups and 12 generational cohort groups. If significant relationships between the biological age group variables and trip planning horizon variable are found based upon calculated F statistics, then follow-up analysis of Post hoc tests such as Tukey Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) were also applied to examine all possible combinations to identify significant mean differences among the independent groups. Finally, if any effects (i.e., biological age and generational cohort) were found to be statistically related to trip planning horizon variable, they were explored further using stepwise multiple regression analyses.

Independent samples t-tests were used to determine if each mean of the trip planning horizon differs significantly between 1997 and 2002 travelers at the .05 level of probability; if the t statistic showed significance between the effect of time of travel and travel propensity, it would indicate that a statistically significant relationship existed over time. In terms of the homogeneity of variance in the two groups, Levene’s test for equality of variances (computed by SPSS) was used to verify the assumption that the two samples have approximately
equal variance on the dependent variable (Cramer 1994). Significant effects that resulted from the independent samples t-tests were used for further analysis.

Stepwise multiple regression analysis using the stepwise method was carried out to test the research hypothesis that specified dominant effect(s) can be combined with other causal variables to more effectively explain variations in trip planning horizon.

Semilog model was employed:

\[ \log y = f(x_i), \]

where,

\[ \log y = \text{trip planning horizon} \]
\[ x_i = \text{predictors} \]

The regression coefficients were obtained mathematically using the ordinary least squares' (OLS) estimation method, which determines the prediction model for which the sum of squared errors is a minimum (Agresti and Finlay 1997). In addition, the stepwise selection technique was employed across the models to identify an underlying set of predictors that influence the dependent variable. This technique searches for statistically significant predictors in the model until there are no statistically significant predictors left (Cramer 1994; Meyers, Gamst, and Guarino 2006). The tolerance test was conducted to detect if multicollinearity, defined as a linear relationship among some or all predictors of a regression model (Gujarati 2004), exists in the model; if tolerance is less than .20, there is a problem with multicollinearity.

To assess the goodness-of-fit of a model, R squares were reported. To find which predictor in the multiple regression model would have the greatest impact on the dependent variable, standardized partial regression coefficients (β) were compared (Agresti and Finlay 1997). For predicting the dependent variable, unstandardized regression coefficients (b) were also compared. As these statistical techniques were performed, the proposed model would be expected to reveal the casual relationships between dominant effects (i.e., biological age, time of travel, and generational cohort) and trip planning horizon variable, as well as identify other determinants that explained variations in trip planning horizon variable. Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 12.0 for Windows, 2003.

**RESULTS**

In this study, it was hypothesized that a traveler’s biological age, time of travel, and generational cohort has a significant impact on trip planning horizon. The hypothesis was tested by using the One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) method and the independent samples t-tests.

As indicated in Table 1, younger travelers exhibit much different trip planning behavior than do older travelers. A strong relationship between biological age and trip planning horizon (number of days planning began in advance of the trip) was found at the .05 level, \( F = 3.890, p = .000 \). Scanning across the age variable categories, the tendency for the trip planning horizon to increase with age of respondents is apparent. Further analysis using the Tukey Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) post hoc test indicated significant mean differences in trip planning horizon between the 18–22 age segment and the 38–42 age segment, between the 18–22 age segment and the 48–52 age segment, between the 18–22 age segment and the 53–57 age segment, between the 18–22 age segment and the 58–62 age segment, between the 18–22 age segment and the 68 or older age segment, and between the 23–27 age segment and the 68 or older age segment. This finding is consistent with the findings of other studies (Schul and Crompton 1983; Rao, Thomas, and Javalgi 1992; Yoon 2000).

Specifically, the shortest planning behavior was seen in respondents aged 18–22, who planned their pleasure trips an average of 60 days in advance, whereas those aged 68 or older began to plan their pleasure trips an average of 94 days in advance. Younger travelers are most likely to be familiar with and use high-tech resources such as the Internet, mobile phones, and Global Positioning System (GPS) devices to search for general travel information (where to eat, what to see, and so on), make a reservation (airline, lodging, etc.), or find instant information while traveling (via GPS devices, information services from mobile phones). Perhaps because of their use of these high-tech resources, younger travelers do not appear to be as concerned about planning their trips ahead of time, compared to older travelers, who are more prone to rely on conventional methods to plan their pleasure trips, such as travel agents, printed media, and word-of-mouth referrals (Gitelson and Crompton 1983; Hansman and Schutjens 1993). It is also possible that younger travelers can be more flexible and spontaneous when traveling because they are less likely to be concerned with needs related to children, pets, balancing work schedules, home maintenance, health, etc.
Table 1. Relationship between biological age and trip planning horizon

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trip planning horizon*</td>
<td>89.3</td>
<td>86.4</td>
<td>82.8</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>81.1</td>
<td>85.9</td>
<td>83.1</td>
<td>85.9</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>94.2</td>
<td>3.080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>(7)</td>
<td>(8)</td>
<td>(9)</td>
<td>(10)</td>
<td>(11)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Each number is a mean.

a. Number of days planning began before the trip.
b. Number(s) in parentheses identifies age groups that are statistically significant with the age group of that column by the Tukey HSD Post hoc test.


In general, younger generational cohorts do not plan as many days in advance of their trips as do older generational cohorts. The youngest study respondents (the 1980–1984 generational cohort) had the shortest trip planning horizon (M = 57.8 days), whereas the oldest study respondents (those born in 1929 or earlier) had the longest trip planning horizon (M = 100.9 days). In between these extremes, the number of planning days prior to traveling increased more or less gradually from younger generational cohorts to older generational cohorts. The reason for this finding may be that younger generational cohorts (generation X cohort and N generation cohort) grew up with digital era and are more comfortable with information technology, making them more likely to use computers, the Internet, and other high-tech resources (e.g., mobile phones, GPS devices, and so on) unlike older generational cohorts. Those high-tech resources can make them not hurry to take a plan ahead of time. This finding is believed to be highly associated with the result of propensity to search for travel information online.

Table 2. Relationship between generational cohort and trip planning horizon

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trip planning horizon*</td>
<td>100.9</td>
<td>80.2</td>
<td>93.1</td>
<td>95.4</td>
<td>92.1</td>
<td>79.0</td>
<td>85.7</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>79.5</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>67.0</td>
<td>57.8</td>
<td>4.292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10–12)*</td>
<td>(12)*</td>
<td>(12)*</td>
<td>(12)*</td>
<td>(12)*</td>
<td>(12)*</td>
<td>(12)*</td>
<td>(12)*</td>
<td>(12)*</td>
<td>(12)*</td>
<td>(12)*</td>
<td>(12)*</td>
<td>(12)*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Each number is a mean.

a. Number of days planning began before the trip.
b. Number(s) in parentheses identifies age groups that are statistically significant with the age group of that column by the Tukey HSD Post hoc test.

The effect of time of travel on trip planning horizon was tested using the independent samples t-tests. Trip Planning horizon got shorter over time; the relationship between time of travel and trip planning horizon was statistically significant at the .05 level, t = 4.083, p = .000, two-tailed. Pleasure travelers in 1997 began their pleasure trip planning about 91 days prior to traveling, whereas 2002 pleasure travelers started their planning about 78 days in advance. This finding is believed to be highly correlated with the increasing popularity of the Internet and other high-tech devices, which make it easier for people to obtain travel information quickly as they are planning. They apparently feel less need to start early. This finding is believed to be highly correlated with the result of propensity to search for travel information online. The test results are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3. The relationship between time of travel and trip planning horizon

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time of Travel Variable</th>
<th>1997</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trip planning horizon*</td>
<td>90.5</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td>4.083</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Each number is a mean.
a. Number of days planning began before the trip.

*p < .01
TRIP PLANNING HORIZON MODEL

Stepwise multiple regression results from fitting selected independent variables (biological age, time of travel, generational cohort, and selected sociodemographic and trip-related variables) to the dependent variable (trip planning horizon) are presented in Table 4. The research hypothesis, that biological age, time of travel, and generational cohort can be combined with other independent variables to more effectively explain variations in the trip planning horizons of travelers, was tested by the model and all three of these variables were found to be significant factors in the model.

Examining the model, 18% of the variation in “trip planning horizon” was explained by these predictors: Out-of-state destination, Activity participation, Travel propensity, Travel-party size, Car or truck used for primary transportation, Lodging in friend’s or relative’s home, Travel expenditures, White, Biological age effect (18–22), Summer, Time of travel (year 2002), Generational cohort effect (1970–1974), Household size.


Table 4. Stepwise Multiple Regression Results from Fitting Independent Variables (Biological Age, Time of Travel, Generational Cohort, Selected Sociodemographic Variables, and Selected Trip-Related Variables) to the Dependent Variable (Trip Planning Horizon)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable/Predictor</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficient (b)</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficient ($\beta$)</th>
<th>t value</th>
<th>P value</th>
<th>Tolerance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>56.785</td>
<td>3.354</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.729</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-of-state destination(^a)</td>
<td>.594</td>
<td>.200</td>
<td>12.113</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity participation(^b)</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>8.650</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.865</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel propensity(^c)</td>
<td>-.032</td>
<td>-.127</td>
<td>-8.901</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.973</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel party size(^d)</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>6.586</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Car/truck used for primary transpor-</td>
<td>-265</td>
<td>-.081</td>
<td>-4.941</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tation(^e)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lodging in friend’s or relative’s</td>
<td>-.271</td>
<td>-.079</td>
<td>-5.426</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.939</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>home(^f)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel expenditures(^i)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>4.495</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White(^h)</td>
<td>.331</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>4.391</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological Age (18–22)</td>
<td>-.341</td>
<td>-.057</td>
<td>-3.977</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summer(^i)</td>
<td>.145</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>3.275</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time of Travel (2002)(^j)</td>
<td>-.027</td>
<td>-.046</td>
<td>-3.230</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household size(^*)</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>1.970</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R(^2)</td>
<td>.176</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R(^2)</td>
<td>.173</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F value</td>
<td>68.038</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. “Trip Planning Horizon” (number of days planning began in advance) was used as a dependent variable for the regression analysis with stepwise method. Stepwise regression adds the most statistically significant variable (the one with the highest F statistic or lowest P-value) until there are none left. Tolerance indicates that multicollinearity exists in the model if tolerance is less than .20. The estimates are in log.

a. 1=Out-of-state destination, 0=In-state destination.
b. Number of activities participated in while traveling.
c. Number of trips taken in the past 12 months.
d. Number of persons, including the respondent, in his/her immediate travel party.
e. 1=Car/truck used for transportation, 0=All other.
f. 1=Lodging in friend’s and relative’s home, 0=All other.
g. Dollars spent per person per trip.
h. 1=White, 2=All other.
With respect to specified dominant effects, biological age (age 18–22 group), time of travel (year 2002), and generation cohort (those who were born between 1970 to 1974) were identified as significant factors that affected “trip planning horizon” in the model; respondents who were in the 18–22 age category had shorter trip-planning intervals than those 68 or older. Pleasure travelers in 2002 also had planning intervals shorter than those of the 1997 pleasure travelers. In terms of generational cohort, those who were born between 1970–1974 also had trip-planning intervals shorter than those who were born from 1980–1984. The youngest age group (ages 18–22) and the middle generational cohort (those who were born between 1970 to 1974) were found to have shorter trip-planning intervals. The reasons for these findings are not clear. While adding both biological age and generational cohort improve the fit of the regression model, the improvement is small and of little use in a marketing context.

Comparing 1997 pleasure travelers with 2002 travelers, it is evident that trip-planning intervals grew shorter during the five-year period. A possible explanation for this finding is that the proliferation of technological innovations and services during this five-year period, such as the increasing number of opportunities to make flight and lodging reservations via the Internet, might have influenced people to start their trip planning later than they used to. According to a report of the Travel Industry Association of America (2003), those who use the Internet at home, or at work or school (or both), increased 121.6% from 1997 to 2002; in actual numbers, Internet users increased from 51 million in 1997 to more than 113 million in 2002. In terms of travel, the number of people who plan their trips online has multiplied more than four times, from 12 million people in 1997 to 63.9 million in 2002; the number of people who make travel reservations online has grown from 5.3 million in 1997 to 39 million in 2002. Because of the speed and convenience of the Internet, travelers today do not need to plan their trips far ahead of time.

Respondents who traveled to out-of-state destinations began to plan their pleasure trips earlier than those who traveled in-state. The out-of-state destination variable is also highly correlated with “activity participation” and “travel expenditures” travel behaviors. Study results indicate that respondents who participated in more activities at their travel destinations or who spent more money on their trips began to plan their trips earlier than other travelers. In other words, they had longer trip-planning intervals. A possible explanation for these findings is that if people travel farther away from home (i.e., to an out-of-state destination), they tend to spend more time obtaining travel information to help them plan activities at their travel destinations, and they are more likely to make an airplane or hotel reservation than those traveling in-state. In addition, those who take a long-distance (out-of-state) trip and participate in many activities when they reach their destination will spend more money on transportation (e.g., gasoline, or airplane tickets), lodging, and activities than those who stay closer to home and do not participate in many activities when they reach their destination. Gitelson and Crompton (1983) suggested that a pleasure trip is a high risk purchase due to the high investment of discretionary money and time; therefore, people spend more time in planning out of state trips in order to reduce the perceived risk. Finally, those who plan in-state trips are more likely to have previously visited their destination and need less time to gather information to plan an in-state trip.

Predictors associated with longer trip-planning intervals included travel-party size, race (“Caucasian”), traveling in summer, and household size. Respondents, who had more people in their travel party, were more likely to be Caucasian, travel in summer, have more persons in their household and have longer trip-planning intervals than their counterparts. Conversely, predictors associated with shorter trip-planning intervals included travel propensity, car/truck for primary transportation while traveling, and lodging in a friend or relative’s home. Those who took more pleasure trips in the past year were found to have shorter trip-planning intervals, probably due to the frequency of their trips. Respondents who used their car or truck for their primary transportation while traveling also had shorter trip-planning intervals. U.S. travelers have traditionally used automobiles as their primary mode of transportation. Since they do not need to make an airline reservation in advance, this allows them the luxury of shorter trip-planning intervals. Similarly, those who stayed at a friends’ or relative’s home at their travel destination were found to have shorter trip-planning intervals, probably because they do not have to make a reservation in advance for lodging.

In terms of forecasting trip planning horizon behavior, the model indicates that pleasure travelers traveling to out-of-state destinations had 59.4% longer trip-planning intervals than pleasure travelers traveling to in-state destinations;
those using a car or truck for their primary transportation had 26.5% shorter trip-planning intervals than those using other forms of transportation; those who stayed with a friend or relative had 27.1% shorter trip-planning intervals than those who did not; Caucasians had 33.1% longer trip-planning intervals than other ethnic groups; those in the 18–22 age segment had 34.1% shorter trip-planning intervals than those in the “68 or older” age segment; those traveling in the summer had 14.5% longer trip-planning intervals than those traveling in the other three seasons; those traveling in 2002 had 2.7% shorter trip-planning intervals than those traveling in 1997; and those born from 1970–1974 had 20.3% shorter trip-planning intervals than those born from 1980–1984.

Results also indicate that increasing the number of activities participated in at the travel destination by one results in a 7.4% increase in the length of the trip planning horizon. Increasing the number of trips taken in a year by one decreases the number of trip--planning days by about 3.2%. Likewise, if travel-party size increases by one person, the trip-planning interval will increase by 3.1%; if household size increases by one person, the trip-planning interval increases by 3.0%; and a one dollar increase in travel expenditures will result in a trip-planning interval increase of 0.01%.

In sum, examining biological age, time of travel, and generational cohort, a traveler’s time of travel seems to be an important factor in explaining trip planning horizon behavior. During the five-year period studied, the tremendous increase in technological innovations had a significant impact on people’s daily life, including their trip planning behavior. Comparing the variables examined in the model, the “out-of-state destination” variable was responsible for the largest portion of the variation in trip planning horizon. This means that those planning a long-distance trip will have longer trip-planning intervals.

CONCLUSION

This study investigated changes in patterns of travel behavior over time by testing the effects of biological age, time of travel, and generational cohort. It also examined determinants that explained variations in trip planning horizon via multivariate modeling. The research hypotheses, that a traveler’s biological age, time of travel, and generational cohort have a significant impact on trip planning horizon variable over time and that the specified dominant effects could be combined with other causal variables to explain variations in trip planning horizon, were fully supported.

Statistically significant relationships were found between trip planning horizon and the three primary study effects over time: biological age, time of travel, and generational cohort. Younger travelers were found to have shorter travel planning intervals than older travelers. Those who traveled in 2002 had much shorter travel planning intervals than those in 1997. Younger generational cohorts did not plan their trips as many days in advance as did the older generational cohorts. Younger travelers are more likely to use a variety of resources, such as searching for travel information and making reservations online, when planning a pleasure trip (Cetron, DeMicco, & Davies, 2006). However, older travelers tend to use conventional resources, such as travel agents, printed media, and word-of-mouth referrals (Gitelson & Crompton, 1983; Horneman et al., 2002). Likewise, younger generational cohorts are more comfortable with new technology devices (e.g., the Internet, GPS). It is also possible that younger travelers can be more flexible and spontaneous when traveling because they are less likely to be concerned with needs related to children, pets, work schedules, home maintenance, health, etc. In addition, the growing popularity of computers and the Internet between 1997 and 2002 has likely shortened travelers’ trip planning horizon.

One of the key determinants of trip planning horizon was travel distance. The farther people have to travel, the longer in advance they plan their trips. In addition, those who participated in many activities and spent a great deal of money at the trip destination were the most likely to plan their trips well ahead of departure. This could be because expensive and busy trips that are far from home increased people’s perception of risk, which they reduced through taking more time to plan (Gitelson & Crompton, 1983). Biological age, time of travel, and generational cohort in combination with trip distance and travel expenditures are especially important predictors of travelers’ trip planning horizons.

Travelers’ trip planning horizons have grown shorter over time, in part because the greater number of opportunities to make flight and lodging reservations via the Internet might have persuaded them to delay their trip planning. Intensive target times (approximately two months) of tourism advertising and promotion should be considered before the tourism season begins. The findings of this study indicate that early tourism advertisements and promotions may not draw target audiences’ attention because people have short trip planning horizons. This study has found that travelers start planning their trips approximately 60 days before they leave. In addition, prior to the beginning of a travel season, different times to launch tourism advertising programs and promotional messages are suggested for different geographical markets be-
cause pleasure travelers who come a long distance have longer trip-planning intervals than those who come from a short distance.

REFERENCES


The First Plymouth: Pictorial Element and Destination Image

Christina BOSDOU
Plymouth Business School
University of Plymouth, UK
E-mail: gbusby@plymouth.ac.uk

Graham BUSBY
Plymouth Business School
University of Plymouth, UK
E-mail: chrisbosdou@hotmail.com

ABSTRACT
The historic English city of Plymouth is not a primary tourist destination although it has much to offer. This study examines the construct of destination image in relation to the views of a sample of 209 visitors interviewed in May and June 2007. Respondents were shown one of the images from the current Visitors Guide and presented with bi-polar adjectives in order to ascertain their impressions. Whilst visitors had a low level of advertising awareness, in relation to Plymouth, they were conscious that the image shown was somewhat dated; nonetheless, the picture was considered to portray that part of the city as exciting, familiar and affordable but not peaceful.

Key words: Destination image, pictorial element, the first Plymouth; pictorial element and destination image.

INTRODUCTION
Although a large British city, Plymouth is not a primary tourist destination. The local authority has marketed the city under the slogan ‘Spirit of Discovery’ – indeed, this could be argued to be it’s brand (Tasci and Kozak 2006) – because of the rich historical background. The city has a tangible legacy today in the form of the Barbican and The Hoe, to name just two key locations. The title refers to the first Plymouth for it has given rise to a number of eponymous cities around the world. Whilst visitor reactions to two Visitors’ Guide 2007 pictures were assessed, this paper reports the findings of one in terms of destination image formation because of space limitations.

Destination image is defined as “an individual’s mental representation of knowledge (beliefs), feelings and overall perception of a particular destination” (Chen and Tsai 2007: 1116). Most tourism products are services rather than physical goods and can often only compete via images”. Furthermore, during the formation of destination image, perception is more important than reality and people act according to what they believe to be true (Ateljevic 2000). Consequently, there is much literature confirming the influence of destination image on tourist behaviour (MacKay and Fesenmaier 1997; Ryan and Cave 2005; Chen and Tsai 2007; Sirakaya, Sonmez and Choi 2001; Jacobsen and Dann 2003; Molina and Esteban 2006; Yüksel and Akgül 2007; Jenkins 2003; Bigne, Sanchez and Sanchez 2001; Pike 2004).

THE STUDY – RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
The study was carried out at The Hoe, an important and well-known attraction for people visiting Plymouth, particularly associated with Sir Francis Drake (Plymouth Visitor Guide 2007). A sample of 209 visitors to Plymouth was acquired over 21 days in May and June 2007. Part of the questionnaire dealt with the measurement of pictorial features and image projected, both with 4 attributes (4-item scale) taken from previous studies (Yüksel and Akgül 2007; MacKay and Fesenmaier 1997). The first scale (picture’s features) includes four bi-polar adjectives unpleasant-pleasant, boring-interesting, distressing-relaxing and uninviting-inviting. Similarly, the second scale (picture’s image) also includes four bi-polar adjectives boring-exciting, unfamiliar-familiar, expensive-affordable, not peaceful-peaceful. A five-point scale was used to mark the adjectives and the positive poles were given the higher numbers. After completion of the above two scales, visitors were asked to indicate if the image projected by picture A represents most people’s image of Plymouth. The image projected by picture A was defined by the greater number of visitors as exciting (56.9 %), familiar (65.1 %), affordable (57.9 %) but not quite peaceful (39.7 %). Therefore, picture A which represents a part of the Barbican with fishing boats and people sitting at tables enjoying food or drinks under a blue sky, achieved a relatively positive image of Plymouth except from the attribute of peacefulness.

Consequently, the target of destination marketers should be to further examine these aspects or also new ones, so as to explore the reasons for visitors not ranking them higher. In this way, they would be able in the future to use pictures of Plymouth with features more appreciated by visitors, aiming at modifying the induced image and offering a better representation of the destination. This inducing potential of advertising will have as an outcome the reinforcement of the image that already exists in the minds of potential visitors and the creation of a more favorable attitude towards Plymouth.
For verification of any associations, 72 cross tabulations and Chi-square tests were examined. As a result, 6 statistically significant associations occurred between the definition of image as boring/exciting and the rest of variables, 4 concerning the feeling of familiarity, 1 between the expensive/affordable image, the age of the respondent and the feeling of excitement that is presented through picture A and, finally, 6 significant associations relevant to the peacefulness of the image. As expected, there was a significant association (Pearson Chi-square = 71.550, df = 4) at the 99.9% level between the definition of image as boring/exciting and the characterization of picture as dull/interesting. Obviously, this suggests that people who found the features of picture A dull they also tend to consider the projected image as boring. In addition, the Chi-square value of 15.962 (df = 4) that was produced by cross tabulating the boring/exciting image with the distressing/relaxing attributes of picture A resulted in a significant association at the 99.7% level. Furthermore, the excitement of the image is also related to visitors’ feelings at 99.9% confidence level (Pearson Chi-square = 83.504, df = 4) of whether the picture looks inviting or not and thus could drive them to visit Plymouth. Consequently, based on the particular study and previous research, pictures’ attributes have an influence on the image that visitors form about a destination and they represent the pull factors which attract visitors to specific destinations (Pritchard and Morgan, 2003).

As far as familiarity is concerned, significant associations were also revealed between different variables. Hence, an association occurred at the 92.6% confidence level between familiarity and advertising awareness (Pearson Chi-square = 5.201, df = 2) and also between two media channels; TV at the 98% level (Pearson Chi-square = 7.992, df = 2) and magazines at the 94% level (Pearson Chi-square = 5.507, df = 2). Therefore, it can be assumed that with the level of advertising awareness the degree of familiarity changes and since magazines and TV were the most popular media channels for raising the awareness about Plymouth, it is expected that they would also play a basic role in influencing the level of familiarity. Moreover, since surprisingly there was no statistically significant association found between the number of visits and the familiarity, it can be argued that advertising makes people feel more familiar to destinations that are projected through media.

Kim, Hwang and Fesenmaier (2005) emphasize that a message which is sent by the same medium could possibly cause different responses in its recipients. Therefore, while television is “more effective in promoting a specific response” such as the top of mind awareness, it appears to be “less influential in promoting other responses (e.g., requesting travel information)” (Kim, Hwang and Fesenmaier, 2005: 44). Actually, there were 19.4% visitors who had seen travel advertising about Plymouth on TV and had requested information, while this reached 25.8% for travellers whose main medium for raising their advertising awareness were magazines. This finding is also confirmed by the research of the three aforementioned authors which links magazines with requests for travel information and, moreover, with higher likelihood of visiting a destination.

Apart from the analysis about the effects of advertising awareness and request of travel information, it should be reported that 141 from 209 visitors (79.2%) did not see or hear any travel related advertising, neither had they requested travel information from any tourism office, yet they visited Plymouth.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this research has been to examine the image of Plymouth that is projected through the pictorial element of advertisements. A picture was selected from Plymouth Visitor Guide 2007 since it comprises a great source of visuals and its importance for destination image formation and selection is recognized in the literature. Visitors to Plymouth were interviewed so as to measure their advertising awareness, assess the pictures, define the projected image and judge pictures’ representative ability. One of the main results was the low level of visitors’ advertising awareness, in contrast to the literature associated with the significance of advertising within the tourism sector. Thus, even though the majority of visitors had not seen or heard any travel related advertising about Plymouth, they visited the city.

Plymouth destination marketers should try to identify the reasons for the low level of advertising awareness of visitors and find ways to increase it. Additionally, the effect of media channels should be considered since they represent the means for spreading the right message to the right audience. Therefore, more attention should be directed to magazines given that it was found to be the most efficient medium for raising the awareness of Plymouth. Moreover, only a low percentage of visitors had requested travel information from any tourism office, fact that highlights the lack of formal sources of information within the destination image formation and selection. With regard to the visuals, picture A was characterized as pleasant, interesting, relaxing and inviting although visitors commented negatively about the fact that the picture was old and the place represented there (The Barbican) had changed. Thus, marketers responsible for Plymouth should try to update their picture files and show to tourists and future visitors the way that the city actually looks. The image projected by picture A was defined as exciting, familiar, affordable but not
peaceful. As a conclusion, tourism is an intangible good where images play a vital role for the destination image formation and selection. Since visuals comprise the means for creating images in people’s mind, their contribution within the tourism field is highly appreciated. The particular research showed that Plymouth’s tourism authorities should increase people’s awareness of the city and modify or reinforce the image that is projected through pictures so as to present a more favorable and positive image able to attract more tourists.

REFERENCES


LITERATURE REVIEW

Backpackers' motivations have been studied extensively in previous literature. Moscardo (2006) noted four recurring motivations reported in previous studies (Elsrud 1998; Newlands 2004; Richards and Wilson 2004a; Ross 1997) of backpacker travel: a desire for authentic or genuine experience, novelty and action, affiliation or social motives, and achievement or learning. Murphy (2001) found the main reasons respondents of the study traveled as backpackers, were in ranking order: economic, social, a more real experience, longer trip length, independence, flexibility, ease and convenience, previous backpacker experience, and being recommended by other people.

An online study was conducted by the ATLAS Backpacker Research Group (BRG) in collaboration with the International Student Travel Confederation (ISTC) (Richards and Wilson 2004). The study which consisted of more than 2,300 respondents, found that four main motivational factors existed and characterized them as experience seeking, relaxation seeking, sociability, and contributing to the destination. The four most important motivations of the respondents to the survey were in ranking order: to explore other cultures, to experience excitement, to increase my knowledge, and to relax mentally. Newlands (2004) repeated the BRG study in New Zealand, and extracted four similar motivational factors, which were summarized as physical-mental challenge, responsible sociability, fun times with friends, and relaxation. The four most important motivations of the respondents to the survey were, in ranking order: to explore other cultures, interact with local people, increase my knowledge, and relax mentally. Niggl and Benson (2008) also found that the top four push motivations for backpackers visiting South Africa were: to discover new places and things, to broaden knowledge about the world, to escape from everyday work, home and leisure scene monotony of the daily routine, and to have a good time with friends. The findings of these studies suggest the existence of a set of core backpacker motivations. The motivations, to explore other cultures, increase one's knowledge and relax mentally, were all in the top four most important considerations in both the BRG study (Richards and Wilson 2004) and the study in New Zealand (Newlands 2004). This is similar to the top four motivations found in the South Africa study (Niggl and Benson 2008).

It has been noted that backpacking has a social function as a rite-of-passage (Cohen 2004; Maoz 2004; Noy 2004; Shaffer 2004; Teas 1988), and the initial trip is often the first time the person has been away from home for an extended period of time. The trip can mark a transition between youth, university, and

INTRODUCTION

Travel motivation has been a central topic of tourism literature for decades. While many travel motivation theories have been developed, this study is concerned with conceptualizing backpacker motivation within the Travel Career Pattern (TCP) (Pearce and Calabiano 1983; Pearce 1988, 1993, 2005) framework. Using the TCP framework, this study will conceptualize backpacker travel motivation in relation to travel experience. Also, this study could provide further empirical corroboration for the TCP theory.

Understanding Backpacker Motivation: A Travel Career Approach

Cody PARIS
School of Community Resources and Development
Arizona State University, USA
E-mail: Cody.paris@asu.edu

Victor TYE
School of Community Resources and Development
Arizona State University, USA
E-mail: tye@asu.edu

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to conceptualize backpacker motivation within the framework of the Travel Career Pattern (TCP) theory of travel motivation. An online survey was administered to backpackers targeted in backpacker specific online communities in order to gain a diverse sample. First, underlying dimensions of backpacker motivation were identified. Second, backpackers were clustered into two groups based on travel experience and age: ‘high travel experience’ and ‘low travel experience’. Finally, the relationship between backpackers’ travel experience and motivations was examined. Six underlying dimensions of motivation were extracted. Four of the motivations, personal/social growth, experiential, budget travel, and independence, were found to be fluid in relation to backpackers travel experience. Notably, two motivations, cultural knowledge and relaxation, were found to be constant in relation to the two travel experience groups, which suggest that they are core motivations for all backpackers.

Keywords: Backpacker motivation, travel career pattern, travel experience, segmentation.
career life stages (Cohen 2004; O’Reilly 2006; Simpson 2005). Travel experience of backpackers increases with age, and as travel experience increases backpackers tend to visit more exotic and distant destinations (Richards and Wilson 2004), which gives some indirect support to the idea of a backpacker travel career (Pearce 1993). In an Australian study, Loker-Murphy (1996) conducted a motivational segmentation of the backpacker market using ten statements to measure backpackers’ motives to visit Australia within the context of the Travel Career Ladder theory of travel motivation. The study found that the most important backpacker motives to visit Australia were to seek exciting/active/adventurous things to do, to meet local people and characters, to enjoy and improve my knowledge of the country’s physical and environmental settings, and to enjoy and improve my knowledge of the country’s history and culture.

The Travel Career Ladder (TCL) theory of travel motivation (Pearce and Caltabiano 1983; Pearce 1988, 1993, 2005) created a hierarchy of travel motivations based on Maslow’s (1970) needs hierarchy theory of motivation. The TCL consisted of five different levels including from the lowest level to the highest level: relaxation needs, safety/security needs, relationship needs, self-esteem and development needs, and self-actualization/fulfillment needs. The hierarchy of travel needs was combined with the idea of travel career or that as a person’s travel experience increases their motivation to travel changes (Pearce 2005). The original TCL theory proposed that traveler’s progress up the ‘ladder’ of travel motives as their travel experience increases, which created some questions of validity of the theory (Ryan 1998; Pearce 2005), and led to development of Travel Career Pattern (TCP) theory. The TCP de-emphasized the hierarchical focus of the TCL and recognized that travel motivation is dynamic and multileveled. The concept of travel career is still central to the TCP, as is the idea that travelers will have changing motivational patterns during those travel careers (Pearce 2005).

Pearce’s (2005) study aimed at providing empirical support for the TCP. The study found 14 dimensions to travel motivation, of which the most important were: escape/relax novelty, relationship, and self-development. The study also supported the main concepts of the TCP theory, the existence of a travel career and the changing of travel motivations during the travel career. The findings also suggest that there is a core or ‘backbone’ of the travel career pattern motivations as the three most important travel motivations in the study did not have significant differences between the high and low travel experience level groups. Pearce (2005) suggests that more studies, particularly cross-cultural, are needed for verification and supplementation of the TCP. Loker-Murphy (1996)’s study differentiated the backpackers based on their motivations within the framework of the Travel Career Ladder theory. However, the findings were constrained by the limited number of motive statements as well as the hierarchical structure of the TCL theory. The understanding of backpacker motivation will be enhanced by examining backpacker motivations that have been empirically tested (Richards and Wilson 2004; Newlands 2004 within the framework of the TCP theory (Pearce 2005).

Research Objectives

Against this background review of some of the key literature on motivational studies on backpacker travelers, the main goals of this research were to examine underlying dimensions of backpacker motivation and to conceptualize the motivations in relation to the Travel Career Pattern (Pearce, 2005) concept. The following are the main focus of this study:

1. Examine the importance of backpacker motivations identified in previous backpacker motivation studies.
2. Identify underlying dimensions of backpacker motivation.
3. Measure backpacker travel experience.
4. Apply the Travel Career Pattern framework to backpacker motivation and travel experience.

METHODOLOGY

A self-administered online questionnaire was used to collect data. Backpackers were targeted through the backpacker specific groups on the social networking site Facebook.com and through Lonely Planet’s Thorn Tree Forum. A link to the survey was posted with a short message and a heading ‘Backpacker Survey’ on Facebook.com and Thorntree.lonelyplanet.com. On Facebook, the posts were to discussion boards within 15 backpacker specific groups which members had chosen to join, and on the Lonely Planet’s Thorn Tree forum a post was made under each of the 22 geographical regional threads. The online questionnaires were chosen because of their economic viability and to overcome some of the difficulties in reaching a large diverse backpacker sample (Huxley 2004; O’Reily 2006; Speed 2008). Further, the online communities are advantageous because they provide access to people who share common and specific interests, attitudes, beliefs, and values about an activity (Wright 2005).
The questionnaire was designed to gather information on respondents' general pleasure travel motivations, previous travel experience, and sociodemographic characteristics. Respondents' motivations to travel were examined using 26 general travel motivational items that were selected from previous studies of the motivations of backpackers (Richards and Wilson 2004b; Pearce 1990; Loker-Murphy 1996; Newlands 2004). A 5-point Likert-type scale was used (from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.) During the 4 week period in September 2007 a total of 359 valid respondents completed the online survey. Descriptive statistics were used to examine the overall sample profile. Principal component analysis was conducted to examine the underlying motivational dimensions. A K-means cluster analysis was used to classify the respondents according to their travel experience. Discriminant analysis was then used to determine which travel experience variables best discriminated between the travel-experience groups. The profiles of the travel-experience groups were then compared through cross-tabulation. Finally, independent t-tests were used to examine the differences in the motivational factors between the travel experience groups.

RESULTS

More of the respondents to the study were female (57.1%), than male (42.9%), and only 11.2% were currently married. Over 65% of the respondents were between ages 21 and 30, while 15.6% were between 18 and 20, and 13.8% were over 36 years old. In general the respondents were highly educated, with all but 9.2% having at least some college. Furthermore, 34.3% of the respondents possessed a 4 year degree, and 28.8% of the respondents had an advanced degree. At the time of the study nearly 35% of respondents were students, 64.6% were employed, and 11.8% were unemployed. As indicated in Table 1, the sample included individuals of 30 different nationalities. The four most represented nationalities were from the United States, Canada, UK, and Australia.

Travel motivation analysis. One of the main objectives of this study was to explore the travel motivations of backpackers. The most important travel motives in this study reflect the novelty, self-development and relationship aspects of motivation such as to explore other cultures (mean=4.63), increase my knowledge (4.54), to experience once in a lifetime activities (4.42), to experience excitement (4.31). Also reflected by the high scores of the two motives, to be free, independent, and open-minded (4.30) and to organize one's own journey (4.22) was the motivation for independence. The least important travel motives reflect the relaxation aspects of motivation such as to avoid the hustle and bustle (mean=2.83), to be in a calm atmosphere (3.02), and to relax physically (3.02), as well as the motive to gain a sense of belonging (2.83).

The overall sample size was found adequate to conduct a Principal Component Analysis on the 26 travel motives using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measurement. The KMO was meritorious (.865) as it was greater than the suggested .70 baseline (Ryan and Glendon, 1998). In order to examine the underlying dimensions of backpackers’ motivations for travel, principal component analysis with a varimax rotation was applied to the 26 motivational variables used in the questionnaire. Six factors (eigenvalues >1) were extracted, explaining 61.54% of the overall variance before rotation. The results from the principal component analysis are presented in Table 3. The highest loading for each variable (> .30) was used to assign the variable to a factor. The six motivational factors were named: Personal/Social Growth, Experiential, Relaxation, Cultural Knowledge, Budget Travel, and Independence. Cronbach’s coefficient alpha scores were determined for each of the factors in order to test the reliability and internal consistency of each factor. The results show alpha coefficients ranged from 0.672 to 0.841, all of which are greater than the minimum value for accepting reliability tests (Nunnally, 1967). The results can be found in Table 1.

The six resulted motivational factors were named, in order of importance: (1) cultural knowledge, (2) independence, (3) experiential, (4) budget travel, (5) personal/social growth, (6) relaxation. These findings indicate that there are six identifiable dimensions of backpacker motivations.

Table 1. Summary of principal component analysis results for backpacker motivation using principal components method

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Loading</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>% of Variance Explained</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1: Personal/Social Growth</td>
<td>3.635</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.98</td>
<td>841</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To use my physical abil-</td>
<td>.689</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ities/skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To contribute something</td>
<td>.641</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to the places I visit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To challenge my abilities</td>
<td>.638</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To use my imagination</td>
<td>.605</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To build friendships with</td>
<td>.577</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To gain a sense of belonging</td>
<td>.571</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To develop close friendships</td>
<td>.475</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To associate with other travelers  .473 3.64

Factor 2: Experiential 3.216 12.37 .700
To experience once in a lifetime activities .728 4.42
To gain experiences to share with friends and family .671 3.99
To have a good time with friends .636 3.99
To experience excitement .591 4.31
To attend special events .438 3.39

Factor 3: Relaxation 2.730 10.50 .796
To relax physically .870 3.02
To be in a calm atmosphere .743 2.94
To relax mentally .731 3.83
To avoid hustle .646 2.83

Factor 4: Cultural Knowledge .238 1.16 .672
To explore other cultures .769 4.63
To increase my knowledge .764 4.54
To interact with local people .618 4.17

Factor 5: Budget Travel 2.039 7.84 .742
To travel on a low budget .821 3.46
To travel for as long as possible .771 3.76

Factor 6: Independence 1.999 7.69 .698
To organize one’s own journey .726 4.22
To get off the beaten track .698 4.09
To be free, independent, and open-minded .516 4.30
To discover myself .408 3.86

Note: Total variance explained 61.54%. Varimax-rotation was used.

Travel experience levels analysis. In order to measure each respondents travel experience, four variables were used, age, number of countries visited, number of international trips taken, and number of global regions visited. The four variables were subjected to a cluster analysis in order to classify the sample into identifiable travel experiences groups. Each of the four travel experience vari-
ables were measured on different scales, and needed to be standardized prior to the application of cluster analysis. This was necessary so that variables with larger scores did not influence the calculations of the classification results. The variables were all standardized on the same scale, 0 to 1. A K-means cluster analysis was then applied to the four standardized travel experience variables and resulted in a 2 cluster solution presented in Table 2. The first cluster, named high-travel experience, consisted of 145 (40.4%) respondents and the second cluster, named low-travel experience, consisted of 214 (59.6%) respondents. The high-level travel experience group were older and had greater international travel experience in contrast to the low-level travel experience group who were generally younger with less international travel experience.

Table 2. Cluster Analysis results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>High Travel Experience (N=145 (40.4%))</th>
<th>Low Travel Experience (N=214 (59.6%))</th>
<th>ANOVA Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># of international trips taken</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of international countries visited</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of global regions visited</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discriminant analysis was used to determine which of the four predictor variables contributes most to the difference between the two travel experience groups. The results for the discriminant function are listed in Table 3. The function accounted for 100% of the variance with an eigen value of 2.86. The canonical correlation associated with the function, 0.86, shows that the function is strongly related to the difference between travel experience groups. Also, squaring of the canonical correlation, (.86)^2=.74, indicates that the 74% of the variance in the dependent variable, travel experience group, is explained. The groups are also separated very well, which is indicated by the very low Wilk’s Lambda value (.26), and the separation of the travel experience groups is highly significant (Wilk’s Lambda x^2=479.31, p<.001).

The standardized discriminant function coefficients were examined to determine which of the predictor variables contributed the most to the discrimi-

The 4th World Conference for Graduate Research in Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure
ized coefficients indicates that the number of international trips taken is the strongest predictor in separating the two travel experience groups, followed by number of countries visited, age, and number of international regions visited. Also identified were the two travel experience levels group centroids, which indicate the value of the discriminant function at the group means. High travel experience group has a positive value (2.05), and low travel experience group has a negative value (-1.39). Since the signs of all the coefficients related with the predictors are positive (Table 4), the group centroids suggest that higher levels of number of international trips taken, number of countries visited, age, and number of international regions visited are more likely to result in higher travel experience. Finally, the classification matrix was examined to determine whether the discriminant function is a valid predictor of travel experience group. The classification results indicated that 98.9% of cases were correctly classified into the appropriate travel experience group.

A profile for each of the travel experience group was identified using cross-tabulation, as presented in Table 5. Chi-squared statistics were calculated to determine the statistically significant differences between the two groups. The high travel experience group had an equal number of male and female respondents (50%) with a higher level of education attained (76% with at least 4 years of university). Seventy percent of the respondents in this group were older than 25, and the top three nationalities represented were United States (25%), United Kingdom (20%), and Australia (12%). Ninety percent of the respondents in this group have been to more than 17 countries, seventy-two percent have traveled to five or more global regions and eighty-two percent have taken eleven or more international trips (Table 6). The low travel experience group had more female (63%) respondents, and eighty percent had four years of university education or less. Seventy-two percent of the respondents in this group were younger than 25, and the top three nationalities represented were United States (32%), Canada (28%), and United Kingdom (13%) (Table 5). Eighty-five percent of the respondents in this group have traveled to 16 or less countries, Eighty-four percent have been to four or less global regions and ninety-one percent have been on ten or fewer international trips (Table 6).

Table 3. Tests of significance of the discriminant function

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Variance (%)</th>
<th>Canonical Correlation</th>
<th>Wilk's Lambda</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>Significance Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>479.31</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Canonical discriminant function coefficients and loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficient</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Discriminant Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># International Trips taken</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of international countries visited</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of global regions visited</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-3.94</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Cross-tabulation profiles of travel experience groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Travel Experience Levels</th>
<th>Profiles Categories</th>
<th>High (%)</th>
<th>Low (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender* Male</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>(50.0)</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>(50.0)</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Level** Jr. High (up to year 10)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>(.7)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School (up to year 12)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>(6.9)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some College</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>(14.5)</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College (4 Years)</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>(36.6)</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate School (advanced degree)</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>(41.4)</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality** USA</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>(25.2)</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>(19.6)</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>(9.8)</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>(11.9)</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>(33.5)</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age** 18-20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>(4.8)</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-24</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>(24.8)</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-30</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>(28.3)</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>(13.1)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;36</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>(29.0)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*% within travel experience group.
*p<0.05. **p<.001.
could suggest that they are at the core of backpacker motivation no matter what level of travel experience they have.

Table 7. Independent t-test: motivation factors by travel-experience groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Travel Experience Levels</th>
<th>High Travel Experience</th>
<th>Low Travel Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Factor Score</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Knowledge</td>
<td>-0.07</td>
<td>4.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential</td>
<td>-0.41</td>
<td>3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budget Travel</td>
<td>-0.25</td>
<td>3.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal/Social Growth</td>
<td>-0.31</td>
<td>3.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxation</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>3.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION

This study examined general backpacker travel motivations within the framework of the Travel Career Pattern. The results indicate identifiable patterns of backpacker travel motivation which was influenced by previous travel experience and age. Six motivational factors were identified, including four that were significantly different between backpackers with low travel experience and those with high travel experience. Similar to Pearce’s (2005) findings for general travel motivations, a core to backpacker travel motivation could be suggested by the two factors that showed no significant difference in relation to previous travel experience. The two motivational factors at the core of backpacker travel motivation in this study, cultural knowledge and relaxation. The cultural knowledge factor was the most important factor and included the three motivational items, to explore other cultures, to increase my knowledge, and to interact with the local people, which were nearly identical to the most important motivational items in Richards and Wilson’s (2004), Newland’s (2004) results. While the relaxation was the least important motivational factor in this study, it was still found to be at the core of backpacker travel motivation. Relaxation has been found to be central to backpacker motivation (Richards and Wilson 2004; Newland 2004) as well as general travel motivation (Pearce 2005).

Four motivational factors in this study were found to be influenced by backpackers’ level of previous travel experience and age: personal/social growth, experiential, budget travel, and independence. The two motivations budget travel and independence have been central to the development and explanation of the

Table 6. Cross-tabulation previous travel experience of travel experience groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Travel Experience Levels</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>High (%)*</th>
<th>Low (%)*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td># of International trips taken**</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0 (0.0)</td>
<td>1 (0.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>0 (0.0)</td>
<td>76 (35.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4-6</td>
<td>5 (3.4)</td>
<td>67 (31.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7-10</td>
<td>21 (14.5)</td>
<td>50 (23.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11-13</td>
<td>20 (13.8)</td>
<td>14 (6.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14-16</td>
<td>6 (4.1)</td>
<td>5 (2.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;16</td>
<td>93 (64.1)</td>
<td>1 (0.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of countries visited**</td>
<td>1-4</td>
<td>0 (0.0)</td>
<td>24 (11.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-8</td>
<td>1 (0.7)</td>
<td>38 (17.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9-12</td>
<td>10 (6.9)</td>
<td>69 (32.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13-16</td>
<td>11 (7.6)</td>
<td>51 (23.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17-20</td>
<td>32 (22.1)</td>
<td>21 (9.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21-24</td>
<td>26 (17.9)</td>
<td>9 (4.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25-30</td>
<td>21 (14.5)</td>
<td>2 (0.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt;30</td>
<td>44 (30.3)</td>
<td>0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of Global regions visited**</td>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>15 (10.4)</td>
<td>133 (62.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4-6</td>
<td>84 (57.8)</td>
<td>81 (37.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7-10</td>
<td>46 (31.8)</td>
<td>0 (0.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* % within travel experience group.
** p<.001.

Travel motivation and travel experience. Independent t-tests were used to determine which motivational factors were influenced by travel experience. The results are displayed in Table 7. According to the results, all of the motivational factors were more important to respondents in the higher travel experience group. There were significant differences between the two travel experience groups for four of the six motivational factors, personal/social growth, experiential, budget travel, and independence. Two factors, cultural knowledge and relaxation, had non-significant differences. Cultural knowledge was the most important motivation to the sample, and relaxation was the least important factor. The non-significant difference between these two motivation factors...
backpacking phenomenon (Pearce 1990; Loker-Murphy and Pearce 1995; Murphy 2001; Richards and Wilson 2004), and there were significant differences between the low travel experience group and the high travel experience for these two motivations, which suggests that over time they change. Backpackers often combine periods of independent travel with periods spent in backpacker enclaves, which provide comforts of home and a more comfortable travel infrastructure (Richards and Wilson 2004b), or ‘doing a Contiki’ (Wilson, Fisher, and Moore 2008) and ‘off-the-beaten-track’ destinations. Also, for more affluent backpackers, commonly referred to as flashpackers, traveling on a strict budget is not as important (Paris 2008). The two other dynamic motivational factors identified in this study, experiential and personal/social growth, were very similar to motivational factors identified in previous backpacker motivational studies (Richards and Wilson 2004; Newland 2004). Backpackers in the low travel experience group had higher scores for all of the travel motivational factors, which was similar to Pearce’s (2005) finding that 7 of the 9 motivational factors that were significantly different between low and high travel experience groups were emphasized more by the low travel experience group.

This study effectively applied the Travel Career Pattern of travel motivation to backpacker travel motivations. This study suggests that the motivations of cultural knowledge and relaxation formulate the core of backpacker motivations, and that the motivations of independence, budget travel, experiential, and personal/social growth are dynamic throughout a backpacker’s travel career.

REFERENCES


The Privatization of Turkish Airlines in a Deregulating Airline Industry in the Process of Membership Negotiations with the EU

Çağla Gizem GÜRELI
Tourism and Hospitality Management
Yeditepe University, Turkey
E-mail: cggureli@hotmail.com

Ebru TEKİN
Tourism and Hospitality Management
Yeditepe University, Turkey
E-mail: etekin@yeditepe.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

The aim of the paper is to provide an understanding of the transformation of the aviation industry in Turkey in the light of neo-liberal reform policies on the way of the EU membership negotiations. This concept of transformation includes deregulation, privatization and EU regulations on aviation. The paper is structured as follows. The first part analyzes the two waves of the transformation in the international airline industry in Turkey, after 1980 and after the 9/11. The second part of the paper involves the policy changes, which are basically deregulation in the domestic market and the initiation of the privatization of Turkish Airlines. The third part scrutinizes the contradictory concepts of competition and ownership rights and one of the contested topics as a reference to the ECAA project in the process of EU membership negotiations.

Key words: Turkish Airlines, deregulation, privatization, competition, European Union.

INTRODUCTION

The airline industry is one of the most globalized industries in the world. Especially since 1980s, the industry has made possible the rapid transnationalization of the domestic industries by facilitating interconnectedness between as well as within countries. Moreover, the industry has provided services all over the world by transporting people and goods quickly and linking cities and continents. The industry has also accelerated the number of both business and leisure travelers. Turkey, as an emerging market, is one of the rapid growing countries in the international airline industry as being the fifth country among top 20 countries with the average annual growth rate of 8.9 percent (IATA 2005).

It is the fact that although the industry is on the rise all over the world, the context of institutionalization and regulation is divergent in many countries. In the world, airlines operate within regulatory frameworks governed by an intertwined network of bilateral agreements between states that constrain their freedom to pursue commercial strategies. In Turkey, airlines are provided by state subsidies and operated in a less commercially orientated environment. However, since 2002, the general trend toward liberalization of the industry, combined with the emergence of private airlines, has focused on restrictions on airlines’ commercial freedom, including those relating to ownership and control. Today, the airline industry in Turkey has still been transforming, especially since 2002, with the deregulation of pricing policies in the market as well as the emergence of IPO (Initial Public Offering) in the way of liberalization in order to maintain its competitive position in the worldwide airline industry.

Nevertheless, there are various areas where liberalization may create concerns about the impact of different regulatory approaches applying to competitors operating in the same market. The project of European Common Aviation Area (ECAA) constitutes a political arena in which contested bargaining and negotiations have taken place in the process of Turkey’s accession to the EU (European Union). Regulatory differences like state aids, the protection of domestic airlines might be biased in favor of particular competitors and threaten the efficient operation of the market. The principal concerns relate to the operation of different regimes governing state aid and competition. However, they could also cover other areas such as foreign security and national defense regulation. These concerns are not easy to tackle mainly because differences in local law and practice may in fact make it nearly impossible fully to harmonize regulation of aviation across a number of countries.

Therefore, the aim of this paper is to provide an understanding of the transformation of aviation industry in Turkey in the light of neo-liberal reform policies on the way of the EU membership. This concept of transformation includes deregulation, privatization and EU regulations on aviation. The paper is structured as follows. The first part analyzes the two waves of the transformation in the international airline industry in Turkey, after 1980 and after the 9/11. The second part of the paper involves the policy changes, which are basically deregulation in the domestic market and the initiation of the privatization of Turkish Airlines. The third part scrutinizes the concepts of competition and
ownership rights and one of the challenging topics as a reference to the ECAA project in the process of EU membership negotiations.

AVIATION INDUSTRY IN THE WORLD: 1980s and 2002

The international airline industry has been subjected to different kinds of regulations in terms of state and market relations as well as the international aviation regulations. For example, prior to 1978, in the United States (US), the Civil Aeronautics Board was controlling many aspects of domestic aviation in the US market besides some international assignments. In particular, airlines that require permission to serve any given route and incumbents could raise many obstacles to the granting permission. The system was dismantled as a result of the Airline Deregulation Act; hence, the deregulation has begun after 1978 in the US. Accordingly, after the 1980s, deregulation and free competition have begun all around the world following the US attempt to create a free market environment. Similarly, IATA (International Air Transport Association) had fixed the flight fares as a reference to the Sherman Act until 1978. However, after 1978, the rule has been removed and provides a competitive environment; then, all the airlines began to set up their own flight fares without being connected to IATA.

In the US, government subsidies have never been permitted; all the airlines were private airlines and no government ownership was available. After the initiation of new regulations of free market and competition, the EU countries followed the US way of liberalization. Since 1982, beginning with British Airways, all the airlines became private airlines in the EU, and government subsidy (i.e. providing oil for half of its price) has been removed. In 1994, the European Commission adopted more specific guidelines with the ‘one time, last time’ principle, requiring that subsidies must be part of a restructuring program for airlines who have recorded loss on their income statement. Whereas Lufthansa and Air France have recovered with this principle; Greek Airline could not be successful (Commission Communication 2005).

Following the 9/11 attacks in 2001, Turkey is also affected from this deregulation process, and free competition began for international flights. Although the deregulation in international lines has started after 1980s with the law No: 2920 in Turkey, the year of 2002 became a turning point. In Turkey, airline industry has been flourished with government subsidies, and the Ministry of Transport was controlling and fixing the domestic prices until 2002. The deregulation of Turkish Airlines in domestic lines started in 2002 with the removal of pricing control of the Ministry of Transport on domestic lines (Hassu 2007). After 2002, many private airlines (i.e. Atlasjet, Onur Air) which were flying incoming and outgoing, have began to operate ingoing too under free competition. Besides external developments, the deregulation process has been very much related to internal developments as well. The 2001 economic crisis in Turkey has led to the rapid implementation of IMF and World Bank economic reform packages with structural adjustment and fiscal discipline. The neo-liberal agenda included the criteria of efficiency and competitiveness through privatization.

THE IMPACT OF DEREGULATION ON TURKISH AIRLINES

Turkish Airlines was established on May 20, 1933 as a State Airlines Administration. On 20 February 1956, the state company was replaced with a mixed corporation named as Turkish Airlines. The airline’s shares were passed to the Prime Ministry Public Participation Administration in 1990. In Turkey, The neo-liberal policies have been initiated with 24 January decisions in 1980 and become more consistent with the Washington Consensus in 1989. In December 1990, the Prime Ministry Public Participation Administration took the company public first selling 5 percent of the shares. According to the press release launched by the Turkish Republic Privatization Board in 1998, public enterprises have been open to IPO (Initial Public Offering) within the project of privatization. In this communication, the Privatization Board aimed to trigger both domestic and foreign co-operations as well as individual investors in order to keep the demand side of the stock exchange active (ÖİB, 2007). Accordingly, Turkish Airlines is aimed to be opened to IPO under the project of privatization. The development is very much related to the fact that, especially after the 1990s, Keynesian state has been replaced by Schumpeterian state in a way that the state has been transformed toward an enabling state to provide and secure market efficiency through private actors that involved in activities of the public sphere. On 11 August 2004, Turkish Airlines was opened to the public and from that time, the percentage of foreign shareholders in the company has constantly increased. The government sold about 23 percent of the shares to the public in December 2004 and a further 28.75 percent in May 2006. The airline is owned by the Privatization Administration (49.12 percent) and private shareholders (50.88 percent). Today, approximately 15 to 20 percent of the airline belongs to a foreign group, named Mobius (THY 2007).

GOVERNMENT – PRIVATE – MIXED OWNERSHIP

The methodology of varieties of capitalism (Hall and Soskice, 2001) is very much important to analyze the difference of Turkish airline industry in terms
of regulation and the role of the public sphere. This methodology provides a comparative understanding of different political economies in a way that it is beneficial to understand the diverse position of Turkish airline industry that is based on government subsidies.

The development of Turkish Airlines might be analyzed in three periods: government ownership; mixed ownership; and private ownership. Under government ownership, a firm is run by bureaucrats who maximize an objective function that is a weighted average of social welfare and his/her personal agenda. Under private ownership, by contrast, the firm is run for the maximization of profit. A commonsense view is that government-owned firms are less productively efficient than private firms operating in similar market environment (Oum et.al. 2006). However, De Fraja (1993) claims that government ownership creates more productively efficient in many circumstances. Similarly, Vickers and Yarrow (1991) suggest that although private ownership has efficiency advantages in competitive conditions, it is problematic in the presence of market power. However, regarding the private ownership, whereas De Alessi (1980) and Bennett and Johnson (1980) proved that private firms would perform better than government-owned firms; Millward and Parker (1983) showed that there is no systematic evidence that public enterprises are less cost effective than private firms. Until the deregulation, Turkish Airline has been subjected to full government ownership.

However, especially after the IPOs, Turkish Airline might be characterized as mixed ownership. Bos (1991) provides a discussion on the mixed ownership firms. On one hand, mixed ownership may facilitate the role of the government as a “steward” in private firms that are dominated by a strategic investor or where there is a lack of market discipline. On the other hand, mixed ownership arrangements may combine the worst qualities of government and private ownership. Hence, the resulting effects of mixed ownership on firm performance are not clear from a theoretical perspective. Boardman and Vining (1989) found that mixed ownership perform no better and often worse than government-owned firms, which may be caused by the conflict between public and private shareholders. On the other hand, Backx et al. (2002) argued that airlines with mixed ownership tend to perform better than government-owned airlines. However, in that case, it is obvious that the consensus on the ownership-performance issue is missing because public vs. private firms’ performance may depend on management and institutional arrangements as well as the market and competition conditions in which the firms operate. Similarly, under the broad umbrella of private ownership, some firms are controlled by dominant shareholders, whereas others have very diffused ownership and are controlled effectively by managers. The important question here would be who actually controls the firm and thus influences its performance (Gorriz and Fumus 1996).

Today, Turkish Airlines might be characterized as mixed ownership; but, it is not easy to reconcile the private and public ownership in a balanced situation in terms of domestic or foreign ownership because, in Turkey, there is no limit on shares of foreign ownership. Therefore, there is a possibility that a foreign company can own all the shares of Turkish Airlines. In comparison, although the US enforces a full deregulation on airline industry, it is impossible to sell more than 25 percent of its airlines’ shares to foreign shareholders. The reason is that during a war or civil turmoil, all the equipment related to civil defense belongs to military of the foreign country which owns more than 50 percent of the airline company. As a precaution, the US uses the right of ‘golden vote’, meaning that under this condition, although a foreigner owns the majority of the company, a forceful person will have the right to keep the civil force of the US under any condition. However, Turkey does not have that kind of limitation about its foreign ownership policy. Here, the problem arises from the national and security point of view as well. If a foreigner becomes the owner of Turkish Airlines, this creates a threat on the national air force during a possible military defense.

EU NEGOTIATION PROCESS AND OPENING AIRSPACE

Especially after the 9/11 and the big depression of airline industries in the world, airline companies, because of the strong competitive environment created by liberalization and deregulation policies, are heavily involved in benchmarking activities as competition strategy against losing market share and bankruptcy. However, even before 2001, the EU Commission had perceived the competition challenge and proposed the need to compete with third-country airlines which benefit from generous subsidies, while the Community industry is subject to strict rules on government aid (Commission Communication 1999). For this reason, the EU insists on Turkey’s entrance to the ECAA in order to benefit from Turkey’s domestic lines and increase the competitiveness and profit share of the EU. Therefore, there will be a possibility to weaken Turkey’s competitive advantages. Today, there are still on-going ASAs (Air Service Agreements), which are bilateral agreements between Turkey and EU member countries. It is the fact that, after the EU membership, these bilateral agreements will not be valid anymore and both European and Turkish air space will
welcome each other in a free environment. Both Turkey and Europe will obtain flight authorization across their boundaries without the need of any contract. As a result, Turkey resists against the ECAA project not to be involved in it.

**EUROPEAN COMMON AVIATION AREA**

The EU and ten neighboring countries have agreed to establish a European Common Aviation Area (ECAA) by 2010. The ECAA agreement was initiated in December 2005 and signed in June 2006. It commits all signatories to adopt the EU Acquis for the sector. The ECAA renders the notion of flag carriers obsolete for a number of reasons. First, national ownership restrictions for airlines will be abolished. In other words, nationals of all ECAA countries will be able to own airlines in any other ECAA country. Second, strict competition and state aid rules will prohibit governments from subsidizing airlines. Third, new private carriers will emerge, once a level playing field for competition has been established. Moreover, the ECAA project includes legislation to liberalize market access, traffic rights and fares; regulation on airport ground handling and slot allocation; safety and security regulations; rules on competition and state aid; the Acquis related to air traffic management and the Single European Sky; and environmental standards and consumer rights.

In international aviation, still governed by the Chicago Convention and the concept of national sovereignty over airspace, EU rules create a radical innovation. All regulatory distinctions between international and domestic services have been abolished. Bilateral air traffic agreements between countries do not exist anymore and airlines no longer have a nationality with the elimination of national ownership restrictions. The ECAA contains future members and/or participants in the Stabilization and Association Process, partners in pan-European aviation co-operation as well as Mediterranean Partners involved in the Barcelona Process and having signed with the Community a Euro-Mediterranean Association Agreement. The EU hosts large groups of immigrants originating from these countries, justifying more efficient and competitive aviation-networks in strict safety and security conditions.

Turkey is one of the countries as a potential partner for the external aviation policy. The Commission invites the Turkish authorities to start negotiations on the basis of its horizontal mandate which brings the bilateral agreements of the Member States with Turkey fully in line with Community law (Commission Communication 2004). Indeed, Turkey constitutes the highest passenger figures reflecting the importance of tourist flows with the growth of 6.6 percent as compared to the period of 2005-2006. (Eurostat 2007). In addition, close aviation relations between the EU and Turkey are justified by Turkey’s full membership of the European aviation family as well as all inter-governmental aviation cooperation structures in Europe (i.e. European Civil Aviation Conference, Joint Aviation Authorities, Eurocontrol). The EU Commission supports further EU-Turkey aviation co-operation in safety, security and Air Traffic Management. Also, Turkey’s eventual integration into a European Common Aviation Area remains an option. Therefore, the Commission intends to engage actively in exploratory contacts with Turkey in order to assess the possibilities for an EU-Turkey Aviation Agreement (Commission Communication 2004). Despite the fact that, in June 2006, the EU and the countries of South East Europe signed an agreement on the establishment of the ECAA, the Commission had to enter into preliminary discussions with Turkey through EU-Turkey Aviation Agreement due to the restriction of Turkey not to involve in the ECAA.

It is the fact that the EU negotiation process is constituted by contradictory cases including contested bargaining, compensations, restrictions and compromises. This process brings crucial implications for some specific sectors, especially for airline industry. For this reasons, it is vital to foresee the next step that will be taken at the forefront in order to cover the costs of the current legislation like ownership rights. After Turkey’s EU membership, Turkish Airlines will not be able to benefit from any subsidies of the government. As a result, not only Turkish Airlines but also Turkish balance of payments might suffer from the deficiency of financial resources and limited cash flow due to unavailable governmental aid and fund.

**CONCLUSION**

In light of the discussion on ownership rights and EU restriction on common aviation legislation, it is not surprise to say that the third step of the development, privatization of Turkish Airlines, seems to happen soon as a reference to both international conjunctures on the way of EU negotiations and ongoing IPOs. However, one might say that, the proportion of the foreign company ownership under the privatization of Turkish Airlines might a threat to the unplanned and unintended process of privatization in which unexpected results might be experienced through bargaining and contradictions in the process of privatization. As a last world, the privatization of Turkish Airlines might become very crucial unless it is implemented without a future plan. The best possible option, mixed ownership, might be realized by making public offerings more advantageous for national investors as well as public enterprises and even by offering some special stock prices to them for some period of time in
order to keep foreign ownership in certain level. As Dani Rodrik proposed as a solution to the deadlock of neo-liberalism, Privatization has to be reconciled with state enterprises in such a way that is sensitive to “the needs of the country” (Rodrik, 2007).

REFERENCES


ABSTRACT

Archaeological sites of Turkey have long been an important destination for tourism. Underwater archaeology is a new segment of archaeological researches with high social interest since 1968 signing the first underwater archaeological survey which took place at Yassı Ada, Bodrum, Turkey. Turkey has a vast number of underwater archaeological sites which need to be explored, excavated and recreated as visitable areas creating also new tourism itineraries. Opening those areas for the diving tourism is also a sustainable way of preservation of those areas for the future but diving is not the only way to visit some of those areas with the help of the methods which will be mentioned in this article. Also the term ‘underwater’ is not restricted only with the findings under the sea but also the lakes, rivers and dams. This article mentions about the underwater archaeological survey which has been conducted by the author since 2005 at Hazar Lake, Elazığ and the projects for the contribution to the economical statues of the local people through sustainable tourism.

Key words: sustainable tourism, eco tourism, underwater archaeology, archaeotourism, diving tourism. Management of heritage

INTRODUCTION

Lake Hazar is a volcanic lake at the foot of Mount Hazarbaba that is 30 km from Elazığ in Eastern Anatolia. The lake is 7 kilometers wide and 22 kilometers long and its deepest point is 230 meters (measured by sub-bottom profiler during 2006 survey). The altitude of Hazar Lake is 1234 m. The Eastern Anatolian fault line passes under the Hazar Lake and is still active. Its activity has caused many changes in the water level of the lake during the years. The Tigris river rises from Hazar Lake according to some resources. The rising water level was the main reason that the settlement on and around the Kilise (church) island was deserted (Figure 1). The raise of the water is related by the geologists to the closure of the natural drainage of the water because of the earthquakes. The evacuation of the area spreads to a time span from 1795 to 1830.

The underwater archaeological survey of ‘Hazar Lake Sunken City’ has begun in 2005 by the author and has continued with an interdisciplinary team of geophysicists, geologists and civil engineers from Istanbul Technical University. The geological survey aimed to find the reasons of sinking of the historical settlement and the changes of the shore line through the time, the geophysical survey aimed to follow the fault lines under the lake and the archaeological survey aimed to understand the spreading area and the plan of the architectural findings.

For the geophysical survey, a multibeam symical recorder (Innomar SES2000 Compact Subbottom Profiler) and global positioning system (SBAS-DGPS) has been utilized. Apart from the symical purposes, the system has been applied for the first time in order to explore the architectural findings which became invisible under the mud of the lake bottom. The trial was suc-
cessful and approved by the archaeological methods showing us the place of a wall with 4m. of height. (Figure 2).

Kilise Adası (or "Church Island") which the subject to this research is located on the southwestern section of the lake. The results of the underwater archaeological survey pointed to a sunken walled settlement which was probably built for both civil and military purposes. The area was mentioned in the reports travelers as a church/monastery (Saint-Martin 1819) with named Surp Nshau, Cowk, or Dzovk (meaning 'the sea' in Armenian) which became the religious center of its region (Inciciyan 1804) in eleventh and twelfth century. The area have continued to be inhabited by Armenian population till its gradual evacuation of the area beginning with the earthquake in 1784 and gradual raise of water related to the geological results of that earthquake.

The settlement was mentioned also as ‘Göl Şatosu (Castle of the Lake) in the records of the 19th century travelers which gives the clue of a civil purpose building complex (a monastery?) which was protected by city walls. The thickness of the protective walls and largeness of the bastions related with the wall show us the settlement had been also used for the military purposes. This area could probably have functioned as military garrison during the war time. This comment becomes reasonable if we consider the geopolitical position of the area being on the border between Byzantine power and its enemies coming from the east like Sasanes and Arabs.

During the underwater archaeological survey, the archaeological area of 2.5 km² is explored, all of the architectural findings are measured and drawn underwater and the plan of the sunken walled settlement is prepared by the help of total-station with the help of the placement of reference points (Figure 3) (Aygün 2006).

Most probably the island was originally a peninsula and was connected to the mainland on the southern side, the inhabitants built the defensive features on the southern side of the site and the lake protected the remainder of the settlement (Aygün 2007). The fortification walls had four gates. The main entrance was between the two watch towers or so called gate houses. The total length of the city wall is 520 m. The walls are 6m. at the highest point and the gate houses have a height of 10m. All the buildings are under approximately
1.5m. of mud because the settlement was on the alluvial basin of the river feeding the lake from south west direction.

The thickness of the circuit wall changes from 2.2m. to 1.1m which shows us that it was a highly protected area. The wall beginning from the eastern tower extends to the island, turns to the east and runs parallel to the southern shore of the island. It is interrupted by five vaulted rectangular rooms each of which have an embrasured loophole on their walls which look outside. Those were the store rooms which had protective purposes and been used for storing arms during the attacks. They had also functioned as buttresses. (Figure 4). They were two storied vaulted buildings with the dimension of 3.7m x 3.8m. from outside.

![Figure 4. Store rooms-butresses related with the city wall (drawing by Engin Aygun)](image)

There are 3 towers and 14 rooms/buttresses connected with the fortification wall (Figure 5). The brick towers, or gate-houses, are constructed of bricks 37cm x 35 cm. with 4 cm. thickness and are joined by mortar of 4 cm (Figure 6).

![Figure 5. Gate towers, and the store rooms related with the fortification (illustration by Engin Aygun)](image)

![Figure 6. The city walls are constructed out of brick (photo by Engin Aygun)](image)
The gate-houses seem to have been roofed with low vaults as there is evidence of pendentives. They, are three storied buildings, with the upper two levels containing arched windows. The lower level walls had embrasured loopholes instead of arched windows. The floor between the two upper stories must have been separated through a wooden flat where the joist holes for the floor are visible on the interior. Three medieval table amphora of different dimensions were found at the very bottom of the stairway. The circuit walls have a base of ashlar masonry with upper levels of brick and mortar. The all-brick construction of the circuit walls and towers are unique in the area. The only similarity can be between the brick-work of the 6th century Byzantine tower from fortress of Harput.

Pieces of medieval Byzantine green-glazed graffito plates were found on the shore of the island. Those findings help us to date the sunken settlement to medieval age. The brick technique shows 11th century and potteries sign to 13th and 14th centuries. As a result of our survey around the lake, we also discovered another fortification at on Hazar mountain at a point with a perfect view of the Kilise Island and sunken settlement. This fortification was built probably built as a check point for the reaching enemies. It is constructed out of crude field stones but totally destructed which makes difficult to understand its plan. Another important discovery of the survey was located at the eastern shore of the lake at town Gezin. It was a neolithic settlement which had six stratigraphic levels which was discovered by treasure hunters before us. Finally, a very important ethnographical value which should be considered for Lake Hazar and surrounding territory is Uslu village up on the Hazarababa mountain which was famous for its pottery production for ages (Figure 7).

This was a clue for us also to understand reason for the choice of terracotta bricks as the construction material of the sunken fortification in spite of all other examples made out of stone masonry for the other ancient buildings at the vicinity. The soil around the lake was suitable for pottery and brick production. The modern brick factories around the lake was another proof for this property of the lake area. Unfortunately the historical pottery production is nearly extinct at Uslu village because of the disadvantages of traditional production in front of the modern production techniques.

All of those above mentioned archaeological and ethnographical values of the Hazar Lake area are to be evaluated also from the aspect of sustainable tourism for the well-being of the local habitants. The author will present a number of proposals for the protection and evaluation of this national heritage. The first proposal is in spite of prohibiting diving in the sunken archeological area, diving tours must be organized under the guidance of a diving tourism agency. The application of Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism has been prohibiting diving to all the sunken archaeological findings. This action brings those areas under danger of illegal dives generally by the treasure hunters but giving the responsibility to a licenced diving agency, would protect those areas as well as creating lots of new tourism itineraries.

For the case of Hazar Lake there are a couple of possibilities to open the area also to the non-diver visitors. The walls and store rooms can be visible at a maximum depth of 10 m. This makes to create some projects to carry the non-divers to under water. First possibility is the construction of transparent tubes. The tubes full of air could create a kind of corridor or ascensore to carry the visitors underwater.

Another possibility is the ‘caisson system’. The water in Hazar Lake has a very low visibility around 50 cm. It is possible to create a kind of pool with the help of barrier walls which will be built around the architectural findings and clean the water in this pool through filters in order to create a good visibility. After that process it will be possible for the visitors to see the findings even from above without entering underwater. Glass bottom boats can be also utilized to make it more enjoyable and easier to go around the sunken historical buildings.

Another project to make some part of historical area visitable for non-divers is creating barrier walls around the visiting area out of steel curtains filled with concrete in between and absorb the water between the walls. This technique will create a dry area which will be confortable to visit. This technique is much

Figure 7. Examples of pottery which are being produced through ancient techniques in Uslu village (photo by Engin Aygun)
more costly than the other techniques and it brings the problem of conservation either. The water itself creates a conservation for the artifacts and taking those artifacts out of water will cause a damage on them if unless immediate conservation is applied.

In order to prevent possible adverse impacts of exposure of this cultural treasure to the general public it will be needed a sustainable tourism policy which will be planned from the beginning. The optimum visitor capacity and necessary substructure must be calculated. Both the local habitants and visitors must be educated about the history and preservation of the area in order to generate the proper behavior during their visit and activities. It is usual that the local people expect employment and income but it must be explained the necessities of sustainability for their own sake.

The reintroduction of ancient pottery production in the village of Uslu, is another important aspect of the project. The target group of visitors should include scientists like archaeologists, anthropologists and researchers for the reason that it is still possible to observe the ancient technique of production and cooking in this up-mountain village. The traditionally produced mulberry syrup is another specialty of that village. The mulberry trees have been continued to be planted in the area from the time of ancient Silk Road because the leaves of that tree is the main nutrition for the silk worms.

In this article it has been tried to explain the values that can be evaluated for the sustainable tourism in Hazar Lake region. Of course those are not all to do. The archaeological surveys must go on around the lake to find out and document the other sites like ancient ceramic kilns and tumuli. Those scientific researched take time and create a contradiction between the expectations of local habitants. According to the author the researches and a controlled tourism activity can go on simultaneously though the methods which have been explained above.

REFERENCES


Inciciyan, L. (1804). Cografsa. Viyana


Health and Services in the Băile Felix Spa - Romania

Dan MIRELA
Universitatea de Vest Vasile Goldis Arad
Romania
E-mail: Kineto2004@yahoo.com

Lozina ISABELA
Universitatea din Oradea
Romania
E-mail: Kineto2004@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
The aim of this paper is to present the service offer and the opportunities of medical rehabilitation in the Băile Felix Spa from Bihor County, Romania. We also show the geographic location and the environment factors where the medical rehabilitation takes place. We present the services offered by the President Hotel, at the highest European standard, and a rehabilitation facility where there is the capacity to offer treatment for rheumatic and musculoskeletal system affection. This facility can receive patients during the whole year, due to the climate and the condition offered.

Key words: Felix spa, health, services, physical therapy.

INTRODUCTION
Băile Felix Spa is located in the northwestern part of Romania, in Bihor County, at the contact zone with the hills in the vicinity of Pădurea Craiului Mountains, at 9 kilometers from Oradea and 22 kilometers from the Borș Douane. Being at an altitude of 140 meters, it has a continental moderate pain climate, with soft winters and temperate summers with Mediterranean influence, ideally suited for Balneary tourism. The annual medium temperature is 10.5° C, and in the summer period, it is 21.3° C. Atmospherial medium pressure is 770 mm Hg, the rains are moderate (650 mm a year). The spa is open the whole year for tourists, and it offers conditions for relaxation, vacation, rest and rehabilitation. There are a lot of treatment facilities, thermal baths, guesthouses, pools.

This “Joy Spa” is the largest of Romania and has the advantages of a “micro-climate” even during the winter. The virtues of its thermal waters, very rich in oligomineral elements are competed by the qualities of its mud. These two elements are use together for the treatment of the rheumatoid arthritis, lumbaro, gynecological and neurological affections.

The thermal waters were formed by the penetration of the surface waters in the areas of Triassic calcite rocks at a deepness of more than 1000 meters where from they return hot. There are old documents that attest the use of these baths for the treatment of different affections since A.D. 1000, when the monk Felix, the priest of the Sânmartin Church, has discovered them. The first facilities for treatment between the years 1711-1721 appeared, known as “the Bath of Felix”. After an earthquake that took place in 1834, the thermal waters of Băile Felix Spa reduced their natural debit. However, after 50 years there was a capitation of a new source, after a soil log. Having the name of the person that discovered it, the Balint Source stimulated the development process of the balneal spa, due to a large debit and a temperature of 49° C. In no time there appeared nice built pavilions with their own treatment facilities. Then the spa developed rapidly, its richness in thermal water made it the most known spa from Romania, open during the whole year.

Due to the temperature and their healing qualities, the thermal water form Băile Felix became known in the whole Europe. From different travel journals we find that in the 18-th Century, the balneal treatment starts to take a form of organized tourism. Brick pools and rooms for the winter are built for rich people, and ordinary persons could go to plank pools, which they can use only in the summer. In 1857, after only one year from the nomination of an official doctor, which offers assistance in the hot season, there starts a treatment fee for the persons that follow a cure for more than 4 days. This is practically the beginning moment of the specialists’ assisted balneal tourism, even if the most spectacular development of the spa has begun only after 1000 years.

The hottest thermal sources from Romania, with temperatures between 32-49° C and its fossil mud are the main therapeutic factors, and the geriatric clinic from here offers general rehabilitation treatments.

The balneal treatment facility is located in a park with a forest, having green houses and a small botanical garden rich in rare species of water lilies, among which there is the Nymphaea Lotus Thermalis (thermal water lily). This is the unique situation of a tropical plant that lives in a temperate climate, in the Natural Reservation.
Besides the water lilies, brought from the 1 Mai Spa, in the artificial lakes of Bâile Felix spa there are some other species of these plants. These species were brought from India and Pakistan - Nelurnuncifera, Africa - Nymphae Zanzibarena, Asia and Africa - Aeibornia Crasepis. In the artificial lakes, besides the plants presented above, there are numerous species of fish in different colors and sizes.

The climate with soft winters and moderate summers favors the broad leaves tree forests that give the spa an ideal atmosphere for every season, making it well suited for relaxation and treatment, so that the rain or the winter cold is not an impediment for taking a bath outdoors.

In Bâile Felix there is a source of mineral water used in the treatment of internal diseases, so that the patients can take advantage of it. On the Somleu hill, that dominates the spa, there is the paleontologic reservation of Bettia, which besides an interesting fossil fauna from Pleistocene (remains of vertebrates) gives shelter for a remarkable monument of nature, The Bettia Cave. This is a dislevelment of 86 meters, having a natural fountain from the surface, with a vertical of 54 meters. The spa is rich in sources of thermal mineral waters (20-48°C), oligothermal, radioactive, with sulphur, calcium, sodium, discovered at the beginning of the millennium and therapeutic mud (rich in colloidal iron hydrosulphure).

It is also well known for the soothing effect of its waters for the reducing joint pain and it is recommended in the treatment of inflammatory rheumatic diseases (polyarthritis, rheumatic spondylosis, joint rheumatism sequels), the treatment of degenerative diseases (spondylosis, arthrosis, polyarthrosis, lumbar sciatic), and tendonitis, tendomyositis, scapula-humeral periarthritis. It is also recommended in the treatment of nervous system diseases, (hemiparesis, paraparesis, etc) of gynecological diseases (chronic methrosalpingitis, minor pubertary problems, and menopause), in the treatment of posttraumatic states (consequences of surgical interventions on the joints, bones and muscles, consequences of fractures and sprains, etc), of endocrine problems, etc.

The Bâile Felix Spa has modern treatment facilities, well equipped for tube baths or baths in pools with mineral waters, physical therapy in pools with thermal mineral waters, hot mud bath, physiotherapy, aerosols, inhalations for electrotherapy and hydrotherapy, elongations under water, sauna, indoors and outdoors, that allow an efficient treatment even in the cold season. There are also a lot of physical therapy halls and swimming pools.

**REHABILITATION METHODS**

Felix balneal cure is based on three natural therapeutical factors: the thermal mineral waters, the therapeutic mud and the sedative climate. Different plungers, including the sources opened one century ago, captures the thermal waters. The temperature of those used in treatment is in a range between 34 and 39°C, and the mineral content less than one gr per liter, includes it in the category of the oligo-metalic ones. They are indicated for prophylactic or therapeutic and rehabilitation cures.

The balneal cure from Bâile Felix Spa has a profound prophylaxis effect on the persons that overuse their musculoskeletal system and on those that work in cold, wet of vibrations conditions.

It is also recommended for the sedentary persons or persons that are overweight. From a rehabilitation point of view, the thermal waters of Bâile Felix Spa are used in the treatment of patients with chronic illnesses and with work incapacity. They are also good for different categories of deficient and invalids. The physiotherapy procedures, the medical gymnastics ant the occupational therapy are the most common used.

The mud cure stimulates the peripheral receptors, the vasodilatation and the body’s reaction mechanisms. The thermotherapy is made by paraffin applications.

Thermotherapy, massage and postural therapy have a special place between the therapy methods. Applied by specialized staff, these methods are used in the two spas of Sânmartin in the treatment of different affections of the spine and limbs, like arthrosis, spondylosis and other similar conditions. Some other illnesses of central and peripherical nature, like paresis, hemiparesis and polineuritis.

The result of physical procedures applied in Bâile Felix is emphasized by the correlation of the treatment with the thermal mineral bath. This has as effect the reduction of pain intensity, reduces the chronic inflammations and relaxes the muscles. It actions on the skin receptors, determining the vasodilatation with remarkable therapeutic effects. If drank at a temperature of 39-40°C, diminishes the stomach movements, reduces the gastric secretions and calms the digestive pains.
Procedure types:
- Physical therapy
- Hot baths in tubes and pools with mineral waters
- Electrotherapy
- Hydrotherapy
- Aero-therapy in outdoor pools with thermal water
- Aerosols
- Medical gymnastics
- Baths of light
- Sauna
- Cosmetics

The benefic effects offered by the thermal waters for some affections can be dangerous and contraindicated in other affections: These are the following:
- Catching and infectious diseases
- Venereal diseases
- Malign tumors
- Hemorrhages
- Psychic illnesses

Healthy people, who are attracted by the sunbaths and water, visit Băile Felix Spa also. From this point of view, the offer is adequate for an immense request, because there is a lot of pools for different kind of tourists, no matter of their age. The thermal water and the balneal cure are very useful for the performance sportsmen. As consequence, the spa became a place of training and rehabilitation for the national teams of gymnastics, track and field and judo.

With the exception of the hotel pools, the better-known pools are “Apollo” and “Felix”. The pool "Felix" has a pool of 4000 square meters and another one of 1000, for persons that want to swim. It is the biggest pool of the spa.

In Băile Felix, there are hotels, guesthouses, villas, motels, camping, pizzerias, fast food restaurants, catering services, bars, clubs, discos, nightclubs and cafeterias.

CONCLUSION
President Complex has four stars and it is located at the margin of the forest, in a very special place. It offers very good conditions for relaxation, treatment and business meetings. The hotel has 68 available places: 6 single rooms, 13 rooms with double beds, 11 rooms with 2 beds and 2 apartments, fitted with air conditioning, minibar, phone with direct international access. Room service and secure parking are also available. The resort also features a 60 seats restaurant, a terrace, a 40 seats breakfast hall and two 40 seats conference halls with high-speed internet. The cuisine is a delightful blend of traditional Romanian and international recipes.

President resort features two thermal water swimming pools, both indoor and outdoor, sauna with a capacity of 16, fitness room, and the sport facility, two tennis courts with slag and one synthetic for soccer.

President resort has the highest standard services and a rehabilitation facility that through its well-trained staff can treat rheumatic diseases (degenerative articular rheumatism, chronic inflammatory rheumatism), affections of the musculoskeletal system (sprains, musculoskeletal sequel) and neurological conditions (paresis, paralysis, neuropathies, poly-neuropathies). These affections are treated by physical therapy, hydrotherapy, massage, reflexotherapy, electrotherapy (galvanizations, diadynamics, Trabert currents, STOCH currents, TENS, exponential currents, modulations, interferential currents, and subacval currents), thermotherapy, aromatherapy, masotherapy, elongations, inhalations- aerosols, sauna, fitness, jacuzzi.

For recreation, upon request trips can be organized to visit the town of Oradea /Baroc Palais (1762), “Țării Crisurilor” museum Canons line (built in 1773), a corridor of more than 100 meters, Church with Moon (1790), touristic attractions – Bear Cave, Live Fire Cave, Mezid Cave, Ponorului Fortress (natural reservation), Stâna de Vale spa on 1100 m altitude.

The balneal resort Băile Felix Spa is the paradise of the thermal waters. It is a fascinating place, where the primordial elements of nature, water, air, earth are present in the purest form, and everything one can desire coming here is a vacation where the relaxation is perfectly combined with the discovery of some blessed places, with a special charm.

REFERENCES
Marcu V. (1983) - Masaj și kinetoterapie, Editura Sport Turism, București
Mogoș V. (1990) - Apa, agent terapeutic – Editura Sport Turism, București

*** BTL - Ghid de electroterapie, București, 2000
*** Integration of Persons with a Handicap through Adapted Physical Activity, Oslo May 10/14, 2000 Norway
*** www.baile-felix.ro
*** www.bailefelix.net
*** www.bailefelix.ro
Using Participatory Rural Appraisal Approach to Conduct Tourism Skills Development Training among Women in Africa

Desmond O. BROWN
Hospitality and Tourism
University of Kentucky, USA
E-mail: Omotayo@uky.edu

ABSTRACT
This paper reports on the first phase of an ongoing program of applied research undertaken during the summer of 2007 and an analysis of the process of implementing a USAID sponsored tourism/hospitality project in skills development for women Small Scale Enterprises (SSE) entrepreneurs in Southern Sudan using the participatory rural appraisal methodology. The discussion also focuses on current involvement of multinational assistance agencies to regenerate tourism/hospitality skills training in a poor country after decades of devastation due civil political conflict.

Keywords: women, Africa, small scale enterprises, skills development training, multinational.

INTRODUCTION
Tourism’s potential as a means of achieving poverty reduction is related to the fact that only very few of the least developed countries in the world have significant levels of receipts (Blake, Arbache, Sinclaire and Teles 2008). This is especially the case in sub Saharan Africa where most of the businesses are classified as Small Scale Enterprises (SSEs) – the main generators of GNP. SSEs are officially defined as having less than fifty employees (Hansom 1992). Some qualitative characteristics that define this sector include: just-in-time production for direct sale of product to consumer, lack of specialization in the labor force, poor or non existent book keeping and heavy employment of family members (Hansom, 1992). It is estimated that the number of SSEs in many developing countries far exceed the number of medium or larger firms and accounts for between 40 and 90 percent of non-government employment (Gartner, 1999).

According to the World Bank, in the majority of these countries (which are mainly in sub-Saharan Africa), receipts are less than 5% of GDP (World Bank, 2007). As Rodenburg (1980) has stated, the economic objectives of increased earnings, foreign exchange, investment, job opportunities, production, entrepreneurship, infrastructure and minimization of negative social and cultural impacts during the development stages can sometimes be best enhanced through SSEs. An extensive study by McCormick, 1992 reveals a greater standing of SSEs in Africa’s economic future. Furthermore, Figure 1 below summarizes a model developed by Ashley et al regarding the linkages between tourism SSEs in the tourism value chain in developing countries.

Figure 1. Local Linkages between Tourism SSEs in the Value Chain System
Adapted from “Making Tourism Count for the Local Economy in the Caribbean”, (Ashley et al. 2006).

This paper reports on the first phase of an ongoing program of applied research undertaken during the summer of 2007 and an analysis of the process of
implementing a USAID sponsored tourism/hospitality project in skills development for women SSE entrepreneurs in Southern Sudan using the participatory rural appraisal methodology. The discussion also focuses on current involvement of multinational assistance agencies to regenerate tourism/hospitality skills training in a poor country after decades of devastation due civil political conflict.

**BARRIERS TO WOMEN IN SUDAN’S DEVELOPMENT**

Sudan had been at war with itself for over 40 of the past 50 years of its independence from Britain. Although there was a brief truce from 1972-1983 due to the Addis Ababa Peace Accord, the next civil war broke out in 1983 and lasted for over 21 years, after which another peace accord between the (SPLMA) Sudan People’s Liberation Movement Army and the (GOS) Government of Sudan was signed on January 9th, 2005 in Nairobi, Kenya. The impact and consequences of the civil war have been destructive and distressing to Sudan in General and Southern Sudan and other war-affected regions in particular. Due to the war, national resources had been diverted to war efforts and as a result, socio economic destitution and disrupted administrative and governance structures and systems in the region have emerged.

Given the fact that women constitute over 50% of the Southern Sudan population, their participation in leadership and decision-making process of the country is very meager. The low level of female education, lack of confidence and self-esteem as well as cultural norms and unwritten laws that discriminate against women and their reproductive roles overburdens their active productive capacity and participation. In addition, access to and control of resources are among the reasons that hinders women’s participation in decision making and their participation in the overall leadership procedures at all levels.

The existing media, both modern and traditional are under-developed and under-utilized as a means of educating the general public on the joint role of both men and women in leadership for inclusive development of the Sudanese society. Community organizations and civil society groups that advocate for women’s participation in leadership have their own leadership structures that are male dominated or managed by men. As a result, most do not have adequate capacity and skills to increase the participation of women in the decision making either. Table 1 below highlights some of the actual and potential constraints faced by women in many Sub-Saharan countries in general and in Southern Sudan in particular.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Barriers to participation of women in economic activities in Sudan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of human capital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of finance, credit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of organization. Exclusion by organized formal sector interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location – far from tourism sites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of market power. No ownership/ control over resources of market value. No bargaining power with investors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulations and red tape. Exclusion from registered and promoted categories of tourism facility/service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate access to tourist market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited capacity to meet requirements of tourism market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under-development of domestic/regional/independent tourism by comparison with international tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government support targeted to formal sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New tourism opportunities conflict with existing livelihood strategies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The importance of taking gender into account is supported by research. For example, a recent study by the organization **InterAction** found that “… gender mainstreaming confirmed that addressing the issues of both men and women can directly confront poverty and bring about profound cultural change in gender roles, labor distribution, and harmful practices. In its proven ability to dramatically improve the lives of both women and men, gender mainstreaming can lead to tangible, enhanced, and more sustainable outcomes for women – and men – in resource poor communities with conservative religious and cultural traditions that oppress women and girls.” (http://www.interaction.org)

The current constitution of the Southern Sudan has an Affirmative Action clause that allows for the full participation of women at all levels. Various institutions have been charged with the responsibility to oversee the implementation of policies that enhance Southern Sudan women’s participation at all stages of governance. However, these institutions do not have the necessary capacity, skill and resources to advance on the said cases. Strong institutions such as networks and lobby groups that should advocate and strengthen women’s leadership roles do not exist and if they do they have no capacity as well to manage the situation in Southern Sudan, and as a result there is a general lack of public awareness about women’s capability and productivity.
SKILLS DEVELOPMENT, TOURISM AND CAPACITY BUILDING OF SSES

Various researchers have extolled the value of entrepreneurial skills training as a precursor to successful tourism industry development and local economic regeneration. For example, Thomas and Long (2001) have argued that the supply and utilization of skills development for tourism is an issue of key importance. The crux of their argument centers around the fact that many small enterprises (particularly in developing countries) operate in ‘low skill/low quality’ equilibrium. The authors conclude that for regeneration to be fully realized, providers must provide appropriate skills as well as the infrastructure to deliver them. Since the percentage of tourism jobs filled by women in developing countries varies from over 60% in some countries to under 10%, it can be argued that the service nature of the industry and high proportion of low-skill domestic-type jobs help to increase accessibility to women. Often, women are most involved in informal sector activities, particularly hawking (Shah, 2000). Consequently, the sole purpose of the training delineated in this paper was to empower women and enable them to play a more active and effective role in leadership and decision-making process at all levels of the tourism/hospitality industry in Southern Sudan. The training primarily aimed at enhancing the effectiveness of those women leaders who are already in leadership positions and at the same time build the confidence of those aspiring for leadership positions. In addition, this training is also to groom young women to become leaders so as to be able to champion the women’s cause and eventually boost the overall percentage of women participation in leadership and decision making in most institutions in the region. Table 2 below highlights the potential positive impacts of tourism on aspects of livelihoods, especially for women.

Table 2. Potential Positive Impacts of Tourism on Aspects of Livelihoods among Women in Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourism Affects</th>
<th>Possible Positive Impacts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Livelihood goals</td>
<td><em>Tourism can</em> support livelihood goals such as economic security, cultural life, health, e.g. by increasing cash income of workers/entrepreneurs, contributing to cultural restoration, catalyzing improvements in hygiene.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livelihood activities</td>
<td>Expand economic options, e.g. by creating employment and small business options for the unskilled and semi skilled, or by complementing other activities, e.g. earnings in agricultural lean season; development of transferable skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital assets</td>
<td>Build up assets (natural, physical, financial, human, and social), e.g. enhanced physical assets, if earnings are invested in productive capital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy and institutional environment</td>
<td>Improve the context or residents’ ability to influence it, e.g. by expanding local markets, focusing policy-makers’ attention on marginal areas. Participation in tourism planning and enterprise can give residents new status, information and skills to deal with outsiders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term livelihood priorities</td>
<td>‘Fit’ with people’s underlying long-term priorities, e.g. to diversify against risk, or build buffers against drought, by developing an additional source of income which continues in drought years.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from Ashley and Roe, (1998)

MULTINATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AND TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN SUDAN

A host of multinational institutions exist today that support tourism development in one form or another. These include Australia’s Agency for Internal Development, Austria’s Federal Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Canada’s International Development Agency, Denmark’s International Development Agency, France’s Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Germany’s Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit, Ireland’s Irish Aid, Japan’s International Cooperation Agency and Bank for International Cooperation, the Netherlands’ Development Organization, Norway’s Agency for Development Cooperation, Switzerland’s Agency for Development Cooperation, the United Kingdoms’ Department for International Development, and the United States’ Agency for International Development (Hawkins and Mann (2006) Their objectives center around public investment for tourism SSEs in many countries particularly to peripheral areas which often have few development prospects except a few natural resources to capitalize on for tourism development (Wanhill, 2000). One of the most common sources of multinational assistance for SSEs is the USAID, which is focused mainly on productive investment, infrastructure and SSE development in less favored regions. USAID has undertaken approximately 123 projects in 72 countries since 2000—that support Agency objectives
of conserving natural resources, stimulating economic development, and alleviating poverty (www.usaid.gov). In addition, many of the sub-contracting agencies of the USAID do have some component of tourism development as part of their portfolio - example, International Relief and Development (IRD), International Business & Technical Consultants, Inc. (IBTCI), Winrock International and Volunteers for Economic Growth Alliance (VEGA). The latter is implementing Agriculture Market and Development Program in South Sudan. The aim of the program is to support private sector development in post-war Sudan as well as build the capacity of the infant government of South Sudan (GOSS) to create enabling environment that would facilitate private sector development and reintegration of persons affected by the 21 year conflict. To achieve its strategic objectives, the program draws expertise from its consortium members and past experience. The program has six implementing partners. These are: Citizens Network for Foreign Affairs (CNFA), Citizens Development Corps (CDC), Winrock International, International Executive Service Corps (IEC), and ACDI/VOCA. Each of the implementing agencies has a specific task to accomplish towards achieving the overall program objectives. The program relies on volunteer assignments from within the region and overseas, as well as Sudanese in Diaspora. Since its commencement, VEGA/AMED program has facilitated numerous volunteers from US, Australia, Canada and other nations of Africa who have provided valuable technical assistance to the government, as well as public and private institutions in South Sudan. Currently the program covers the geographical towns of Juba, Wau and Malakal which are considered returnee hot spots.

THE STUDY
The analysis of SSEs was conducted from the 6th -12th June, 2007. The broad purpose was to gather baseline information about SSEs in the geographical areas mentioned above. Specifically, the objective was to identify major constraints to development of SSEs, particularly in the tourism/hospitality sector. The intent of this effort was to determine if there were any quantitative measures of performance that could be utilized in the organization of training programs.

METHODOLOGY
The research method used in this study utilized a qualitative research technique - the Participatory Rural Appraisal approach (PRA). This method is a label given to a growing family of participatory approaches and methods that emphasize local knowledge and enable local people to make their own appraisal, analysis, and plans. PRA uses group animation and exercises to facilitate information sharing, analysis, and action among stakeholders. Although originally developed for use in rural areas, PRA has been employed successfully in a variety of settings. The purpose of PRA is to enable development practitioners, government officials, and local people to work together to plan context appropriate programs.

The research team, led by the program officer of the lead consortium partner of VEGA/AMED program - Winrock International (WI), visited the main towns and the surrounding villages. The team spoke with a variety of people including local government authorities, custom officials, business owners, consumers, and micro financial institutions. In some cases the team had to schedule appointments in advance for a meeting. As a standard procedure, each of the program team who participated in the diagnostic study wore a VEGA/AMED badge ID properly displayed by the neck for easy identification. For each interview opportunity the team introduced themselves, the purpose of the diagnostic study and then requested the consent and courtesy of the interviewee to participate in the study. In addition, to the PRA technique, a common checklist instrument used in developing economies was used to gather baseline information. The validity of this instrument has been verified in the literature by Bowditch (1996).

RESULTS
Table 3 below highlight a summary of the current status of cottage and small industries in the region studied. Other cross-cutting problems the study uncovered are lack of sustainable financing mechanism, product development constraints, lack of entrepreneurial and managerial skills, non-streamlined taxation policy and access to market and market information. However, lack of entrepreneurial and Managerial skills were cited by most respondents as the two main major factors contributing to business failures in the area.

After an analysis of the core problems identified by the research team, an integrated intervention approach that took into consideration the diversity and magnitude of the challenges faced by SSEs in the region culminated in technical and financial involvement of USAID through the implementing sub agency of VEGA whose task was to assist in the efforts to improve the management and administrative capacity of institutions’ SSEs development. Since this paper concerns the tourism/hospitality sector, the following discussion is based on
the implication of the above mentioned findings for needs analysis and training for women in this sector.

Table 3. Existing Cottage and small-scale industries in Southern Sudan

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of SMEs</th>
<th>Current type</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Handicraft</td>
<td>-hand craft work is limited. Lots of handicraft items from Ugandan and Kenya are being offered in the market</td>
<td>• Opportunities exist to develop the following handicraft products from within: Baskets, hats, mats, kitchen accessories, and novelty items. This is an industry with potential to benefit women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woodcraft (wood carving)</td>
<td>-A good number of furniture cottages exist in the town. Major products are house, office and school furniture. Few produce religious status</td>
<td>• Demand for wood products is huge due to surging demand for materials for construction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal craft/ Metalworking/Fabricating shops</td>
<td>-Traditional kitchen accessories. -Architectural products (gates, window frames, window rods, metal sign post) Generally metal preparation, welding and assembling works are on rise according to sources</td>
<td>• Demand for metal craft is high but supply is limited due to availability of scrap metals, high cost of production and limited technical know how are some of the problems identified. This industry has the potential to employ returnees and persons affected by war</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garments/Embroidery</td>
<td>-There are small group of women who are involved embroidery that the team visited. Their products include Sweaters, hats, Sacks, African wears</td>
<td>• This is another sector with potential to benefit women. Production is small often based on demand. Quality is an issue. Lack of product development and competition from products from Uganda impedes development domestically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism/Hospitality</td>
<td>Guest houses, restaurant and bars</td>
<td>• Management is a cross-cutting problem. Tourism/Hospitality sector employs many women compared to other enterprises</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION

This initial effort of the Participatory Rural Appraisal approach (PRA) and check list driven study identified large gaps and constraints in the effectiveness of women leaders and culminated in Training Needs Assessment (TNA) for women in Southern Sudan. This effort further led to another consultation that brought women leaders from the Women Self Help Development Organization (WSHDO) (a grassroots organization with multiple partners in several projects, including operation of three restaurants) together to deliberate on their felt need for training, with specific emphasis on skills development and training in the tourism/hospitality industry in the region. This organization requested VEGA to develop training program for their staff. Specifically, the consensus was to build capacity among women leaders by offering practical training in hospitality management skills to enable them to operate locally owned restaurants and hotels in a profitable manner. This training includes:

- Basics of hotel management.
- Catering and food handling.
- House keeping and cleanliness standards.
- Customer service.
- Expanding market opportunities.
- Business expansion.
- Public Relations and enterprise publicity.
- Any other relevant areas for tourism industry.

The training primarily aimed at enhancing the effectiveness of those women leaders who are already in leadership/management positions and at the same time build the confidence of those aspiring for leadership positions in the tourism/hospitality sector. In addition, this training was to groom young women to become leaders in order to be able to champion the women’s cause and eventually boost the overall percentage of women participation in SSEs decision making in the tourism sector in the country.

The initial implementation of the Tourism/hospitality segment of this project commenced in July, 2007 and is on-going. To date, this researcher has designed the training program to offer practical demonstrations on a rotational basis for the six Restaurants in the region and will be in Sudan in the summer of 2008 to continue with other phases of the training.

REFERENCES


Reflections on the Articulation of Tourism and Psychoanalysis

Dimitris AGOURIDAS
Faculty of Commerce
Yeditepe University, Turkey
E-mail: dimitris@yeditepe.edu.tr

Gül Bahar CÖMERT-AGOURIDAS
Faculty of Medicine
Marmara University, Turkey
E-mail: baharmitoso@yahoo.com

Aydın BEYHAN
Faculty of Commerce
Yeditepe University, Turkey
E-mail: abeyhan@yeditepe.edu.tr

ABSTRACT
The fact that tourism has remained virtually unexplored through a psychoanalytic prism, despite the very few interesting, yet sporadic relevant attempts, seems to be quite paradoxical. Space is almost never being related to the unconscious, and the external/internal relation remains most frequently unproblematic. The question then becomes related to the subject who ‘speaks of’ tourism, and to that subject’s own desire. Proceeding through such a problematic, we explore how tourism can be articulated with and through psychoanalysis and what a psychoanalytic conceptualization of tourism can offer to the articulation of psychoanalysis itself, that is, to investigate the boundaries between the two, and challenge those boundaries to the furthest possible extent. Desire is seen as a desire to travel, and the desire to travel as always incorporating the demand to return – this is also why the dichotomy between travel and tourism appears to be only rhetorical.

Key words: Lacan, displacement, desire, return, symptom.

INTRODUCTION
The fact that tourism has remained virtually unexplored through a psychoanalytic prism, despite the very few interesting, yet sporadic relevant attempts (eg. Haddad and Haddad 1995; MacCannell 2001, 2002; Kingsbury 2005; Elfarik 2005), seems, at first sight, to be quite paradoxical. After all, there are psychoanalytic schools of thought all over the social sciences, except for tourism stud-
However, our analytic of that subject cannot be confined to the ‘discovery’ of a latent content in tourism out of the reach of the tourist’s consciousness, to a speculation on the meaning of tourism, which would almost definitely regress from a potential meta-psychological study to the construction of yet another tourist-motivation model.

In his seminar of 1966-1967, titled “The Logic of Fantasy”, Lacan, drawing legitimacy from the psychoanalytic discovery of ‘a knowledge which doesn’t know itself’ (Lacan 1975), will perform a memorable manipulation of the cogito to demonstrate that ‘either I don’t think, or I am not’, later expanding it to conclude that ‘I am where I don’t think, I think where I am not’. A touristic subjectivity is the subjectivity of ‘Je suis là où je ne pense pas’, the Tourist being the subject of this enunciation. Material, corporeal displacement will result to a status of a temporary being-out-of-place, equally material to begin with, addressing, however, the question of the subject’s consistency of being-in-the-world, further displacing the latter onto the dialectics of space, in what could probably be an attempt to put a limit to it. One has to keep in mind, of course, that the dialectics of space in operation are not merely expressed by the opposition of here to there, but also by that of internal to external, and that, in the latter case, the external is not given as a projection of the subject’s internal, of the subject’s drives (Safouan 2001), but rather as the position or the place where the desire of the Other is positioned, there where the subject will meet it (Lacan 1988). The question that can be raised in relation to this is whether it could not be precisely the reassertion of the initial position that orients the desire of the tourist. I leave only to return to where I already was, to re-occupy the place that I already occupied, to affirm my identification to my proper place.

Parallels can also be drawn between this reading of touristic desire to the ‘fort-da’, a metaphor illustrating, if nothing else, how the spatial becomes a symbolic construction: I let go, objectify myself and throw it away, in order to re-appropriate it, to pull it back. I try to recover a unity, to de-alienate myself from my body by displacement. Something hides in order to be found, gets thrown away in order to be pulled back.

In a nutshell, I become a tourist, because I will, by necessity, also learn that I have to become a re-tourist. I may have claims about the reasons of my trip, which will most probably be accurate as regards the subject of the sentence in which they take place. After all, we can always find reasons for our behaviour. And, after all, it is all too proper to psychology to look for ‘the shadows of motives’, as Safouan (2001) accurately diagnoses. But, for psychoanalysis, it is the production of knowledge on the level of the desiring subject, the subject of the enunciation, which manifests itself as Reason, and which will reveal that mastery over the body – by the very act of returning – constitutes a renouncement (Kaufmann 1993). Had I not returned, had I gone on with the pleasure of being there, this pleasure would turn into a suffocating, painful thing of death, depriving me of any possibility to desire being there. It is practically the structural necessity of castration that the produced knowledge reveals.

I am condemned to be the representative of myself in my word, by means of the ‘me’ that I am obliged to use, which is an imaginary construction by which the subject objectifies itself through its own representatives (Dor 1985, 1992). Indeed, as Lacan has it, “The misfortune of the subject in word (the “drama”, he calls it) is that it proves there its lack-in-being” (Lacan 1966: 655), given the relation that the subject forms with itself through and by the signifying order, a word in which the ‘me’ mistakes itself for ‘I’.

A true Other is necessarily supposed, an Other like the subject itself. And, in the same manner that the subject’s symbolic registration suggests that the subject will be only represented in its word by a signifier of itself, and, therefore, the true subject will be forever eluding in word, the Other too, will be present there through a representative, a signifier. Furthermore, inasmuch as the subject is only represented in word, the signifier is nothing but the “symbol of an absence” (Lacan 1966: 24). Wherever the signifier is, the subject is not, with the substantial consequence of the subject and the Other becoming positioned on the two opposite sides of a wall called ‘Language’ (Lacan 1978), the order of which presupposes the absence of the true subject.

For the tourist, distance is experienced as traumatically as the alienation of narcissistic identification. And it is experienced as a difference, the ‘geographic’ difference between the here and the not-here, the here and the elsewhere, the place of the Other, metonymic of the ‘linguistic’ difference between the subject and its representation. Distance, the spatial distance to be covered, to bring the body of the tourist to the place of the Other, functions as nothing but the metonymy of difference, and, in being so manifestly metaphoric, this map of the tourist body is what characterises tourism. In trying to capture desire, the tourist will be constantly ending up being captured by it.

Organised around the central reference point of the psychoanalytic investigation of ‘What is it to be Tourist’ through Lacanian philosophical anthropology, our main aim to psychoanalytically re-conceptualise tourism and the tourist, in order to equate this question to the question ‘what is it to be Subject’, results to
a psychoanalytic theory of a touristic subjectivity, which rather than the subjectivity of an economically perceived consumer of a given tourism product, is the subjectivity of the modern subject. This, although it may seem arbitrary, refers, on the contrary, to what has the character of necessity, that if we are to see in the tourist a subject, and if this subject is the subject of an unconscious, then it will be impossible to confine this subject to the subject of an act of consumption without negating everything that psychoanalysis has had to say about anything for over a century. Therefore, it is the negation of the existence of the tourist that orients our gaze, as long as it claims to be psychoanalytic.

Through this procedure we can explore how tourism can be articulated through psychoanalysis and what a psychoanalytic conceptualisation of tourism can offer to the articulation of psychoanalysis itself, that is, to investigate the boundaries between the two, and challenge those boundaries to the furthest possible extent. We could, to state an example, discover moments in tourism that reveal something of the subject, in a fashion similar to the way in which slips of the tongue and nonsense, the subversion of logos, do so not only in the analytical process but also in everyday life. What meaning emerges from those moments? However, our objective cannot be to fit this meaning into a pre-established signification network, but to investigate whether and how this network can be affected, or what such a meaning would mean about it.

For example, is tourism the traversal of the fantasy aiming at identifying with one’s symptom, or at identifying with one’s symbolic identification? Within our epistemology and problematic this question cannot function alone, but has to be coupled by its inversed form: Does the traversal of the fantasy, within the analytic procedure, constitute tourism? And, behind it all, we can identify the desire to bring the central issues of both the question and its inversed form, that is fantasy and transference, to the fore, and through this to question, not the validity of either analysis or tourism, but rather whether it is not precisely analysis that much further than recognising the modern subject as touristic, constructs one. In this sense, far more than a possibility or consequence of modernity, analysis would become its condition.

Since, in Lacanian theory, which serves as our primary analytic, the subject exists as ex-sistant, the dialectics of being-out-of-place will define not only the horizon of its existence, but existence itself; these very dialectics will become the horizon of every definition. Hence, our insistence that any psychoanalytic examination of our subject will result in the negation of its ontological status.

Nevertheless, we have to incorporate in our investigation of the dialectics of being-out-of-place its relation to the dasein, taking into consideration that the significance and fundamental position of the ‘da’ has often tended to be underestimated and under-examined. What has to be analysed is the relation of being-in-the-world and being-out-of-place, whether they are the antithetical poles of a dialectic development, and whether being-out-of-place enters the scene as a third pole between Eros and Thanatos.

Although the positioning of being-out-of-place between Eros and Thanatos could easily lead to an analogy between these three poles and the three registers of the Real, the Symbolic, and the Imaginary, and, although such an analogy has to be investigated, there is also a necessity to treat such analogies, and this one more specifically, as a problem. Because if we could simply do away with tourism as a problem by positioning it in relation to Eros and Thanatos, in the manner that we position the Imaginary in relation to the Symbolic and the Real, then we would have at the same time, at once, negated its character as a problem and returned to a conceptualisation of tourism as an economic activity. Let alone that throughout the work of Lacan himself the relations between the three registers are constantly repositioned. Therefore, we should aim at a formulation of tourism as a concept capable of theoretically negotiating these relations.

If we can conceive the Cartesian subject as one thriving in a nostalgia for itself – and it remains to be seen if indeed we can – and if the same, modern, subject is the one that can enunciate ‘I feel a Tourist in my own Life’, we are faced with a dialectic development. We have only to wonder and examine whether it is not the tourist, in the act of tourism on the level of reality, that makes the positioning of the signifier ‘tourist’ in this enunciation possible, but rather the signifier emerging in that position that makes possible the act of tourism. In this way, touristic subjectivity becomes, more than a reference to the subject in the act or performance of tourism, a digressive or inversed possibility that the modern subject is per se touristic. The concept of distance needs to be investigated in this respect, since the specular relation distances the subject from itself, although a rapprochement of the Ego with the specular image by no means offers a solution to the problems emerging from this distance (Safouan 2001), and this because the subject itself emerges in distance.

This reflects the problematic of the mirror stage and the entrance to the symbolic, the structural moment of the emergence of the subject. A moment in front of the mirror, and a distance that goes far beyond the distance between the eyes
and the mirror’s surface. The eyes to be met on the other side of the mirror have an equal distance to it. A distance that is not really there, but is there in the Real. The other scene is already there. I become a subject by the establishment of this distance as such. Therefore, the quintessential Tourist is Alice when she crosses to the other side, and fulfills her fantasy, which turns out to be as nightmarish as any jouissance would be. Along these lines, we may be able to comprehend a series of syndromes, such as the Stendhal, the Jerusalem, the Paris syndrome. And along the same lines, we may be able to position the concept of the travel as it recurs within the analytical process in relation to it. After all, the concept of transference is common to both psychoanalysis and tourism.

Certainly, thus, in the orientation of our investigation towards that which is displaced onto the temporary spatial, corporeal displacement that tourism appears to be, one can, without much difficulty, recognise something more of the psychoanalytical discourse organising our gaze upon it. The displacement of the body takes here the place of the body itself; if something is displaced upon the body in the case of hysteria, for example, there is some sort of legitimacy in an attempt to look for something displaced upon the displacement of the body, in the case of tourism. Because, what proceeds through the opposition between Τόπος (the place of corporeality) and Λόγος (the word, sense, the symbolic), results in a topology, the practice of which is the treatment of representation with the body, signifying the inscription of this very practice within the totality of our fantasmatic productions (Nasio 1995). This, of course, in itself, negates the ontological status of a distinct phenomenon of tourism, while, in parallel, confirming the universality of a touristic subjectivity.

It is in, by and through the discourse of displacement that (touristic) desire will be structured, and the act of placing that desire at the centre of our analysis derives from the study of psychoanalysis, to the extent that the latter has established the discourse of displacement as its central tautology. Desire is, in this fashion, always a desire to travel, and the desire to travel always incorporates the demand to return – this is also why the dichotomy between travel and tourism is only rhetorical: a travel not aiming at return is no travel at all. Perhaps, the question ‘to return where?’ is not to be taken seriously after all, since the destination of return can only be non other than the returning destiny of subjectivity – an ever incomplete circle. And, perhaps, return is the structure itself of desire.

In a sense then, tourism is nothing more and nothing less than a reversed symptom, than a symptom turned inside out, not the opposite of hysteria, but rather some kind of hysteria starting from the end to make a circle all the way to the beginning, that is hysteria par excellence. The Hysteric is a tourist of her own life, in her own right; her body becomes a producible and consumable landscape of an unaccountable picturesque. The difference between the tourist and the hysteric is the difference between hospitality and the hospital, and we wouldn’t have to go too far to conceive of a ‘Hospital’.

But, still, within the Discourse of the Tourist, the tourist is a mere shadow of the Gaze. It is by the function of the gaze, the object gaze, that is separated from the emerging subject that the ‘I’ can finally be articulated. Thus, though, it is by definition a Touristic ‘I’. Indeed, despite the finest of intentions, and some considerable insight, that the concept ‘Tourist Gaze’ has so far carried (Urry 1990), it has remained within the discourse of the Tourist as the actor of touristic mobility, hesitating to cross a line that would constitute the Tourist another term for the Subject itself. By identifying the Tourist Gaze with the objet petit a, the plus-de-jouir, and seeing the metaphorical quality of Distance as Difference, we might be able to make this crossing, that would situate the Tourist within the Dialectics of Desire, and allow us to discern the Touristic of the Subject.

But the object gaze is not the single object cause of desire. We can recognize the object voice, for example, in the ezan, the call to prayer of the imam, in the way it structures a field of desire of its own – especially when this field becomes the fantasy of a thousand and one nights for the tourist.

The critical dimension is that of the relation of tourism to the fantasme. As fantasmatic, tourism seeks to ‘invade’ the Other, like performance would invade a scene, to fill out ‘a void in the Other’. The picture of the picturesque is the picture including the tourist himself, by means of the tourist’s absence. It functions as Other as long as it includes an offer-able void to be filled in by the touristic fantasme.

Whatever the tourist may be trying to retrieve, to re-cover, he will always be coming face to face with an already-covered object. Whatever the tourist gazes is the gaze of whatever gazes back at the tourist, the thing of which the tourist is the shadow. Therefore, the tourist will always re-turn; he will always be a re-tourist. However, the re-tourist will always re-turn as a symptom.

REFERENCES


The Importance of Foreign Language in Success of Business for Tourism Enterprises

Doğan KUTUKIZ
Fethiye A.S.M.K. Vocational School
Mugla University, Turkey
E-mail: d.kutukiz@yahoo.com

Cengiz GÖK
Fethiye A.S.M.K. Vocational School
Mugla University, Turkey
E-mail: gokcengiz@hotmail.com

Serdar BAŞ
Ecesaray Resort Marina
General Manager, Turkey
E-mail: serdarbas@usa.net

ABSTRACT
When we look at the success and the factors that affect the profitability which are included in success, it gained a different aspect in how it should be evaluated financially. It focuses on the factors that affect the success rather than the traditional financial values. These factors mostly reveal that assets which are called knowledge based increase the value and profitability of the enterprises. When the factors that affect the success are examined, it is found out that there is a positive proportion between the success and customer satisfaction, room rate, and education levels of the employees. In other words not only the price, cost datum determine the value of the enterprise and profitability of it but also reliability, customer satisfaction, popularity of the enterprise, investments made on research and innovation and the education provided to the employees. There is another factor which is as important as human resources. It is the structural process of the enterprise. Having a high level knowledge and experience is not enough. A structure that brings the performance of the employees together is needed. The structural process of the enterprise does not change when the employees change, because it belongs to enterprise itself.

Keywords: Foreign language, success indicators, tourism enterprises, management, organization structure.

INTRODUCTION
In today’s competitive world knowledge become an important power for the enterprises. The importance of the knowledge based assets can be easily seen in service and financial sector enterprises. The value of the enterprise is formed by knowledge based assets which are 30-40 times bigger than physical assets. Because of this companies raise their investment on knowledge to be able compete effectively and to keep their high positions in this competitive atmosphere. As a result of this, a necessity emerged to give importance on items which are not monetary. The necessity of making investment on no monetary items is connected with knowledge economy has been argued a lot recently. Human resources are the most important factor that raises the value of the company and affects the success of it. The structure of the employees’ and their education level plays a vital role in determining the company’s future and success. Administrators usually determine their future strategies according to main financial results, expected income, shareholders’ future income expectations, and guest satisfaction and by using similar evaluating tools. During the process of knowledge based decision taking, application of those decisions and performance evaluation, misapplication and lack of tools, can cause wrong calculations on company’s overall value. Besides, using the information in business’ value calculating system in different ways or lack of the information can affect the strategic plans.

IMPORTANCE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE FOR TOURISM ENTERPRISES
Education and language are as old as human history. People always communicate with each other and have interactions at every level of their lives. As societies grow bigger the level of this interaction grow bigger too. People began to spare more time for them selves as their prosperity got higher and their point of view towards life changed. They began to travel to other countries to have a rest or for their holidays. Among these countries Turkey has an important place. As the number of tourists visiting Turkey and the revenue from tourism increase, the need for qualified and foreign language speaking staff become higher. Foreign language knowledge and level becomes as important as occupational knowledge. The need for foreign language in different sectors can be seen in Table 1.

62% of the enterprises need four foreign languages. Employees need foreign language. The need of the rate for a foreign language among the employees is one out of three. Depending on the structure of the enterprises employees’ need for foreign language gains more importance. 50% of the employees who work in the following departments need foreign language; management, sales, customer relations, purchasing, marketing, data processing, logistics (planning, production, energy).
The languages are that are needed in such sectors are listed below according to their importance order:

- English: 36% always, 45% usually
- French: 31% always or often
- Spanish: 13.3%
- Italian: 8.3%
- Russian, Dutch, Portuguese, Japanese, Chinese, Polish: less used.

As it can be seen from those results enterprises give importance to make their present situations better and to the foreign language knowledge of their employees. (Brecht 2000).

Today the need for foreign language education in Turkey is being tried to be met at universities, private language courses and in other ways. If we have a look at foreign language teaching process in Turkey, we see it is done at different levels. During the begging of the republic period reading comprehension, translation form foreign language to Turkish had primarily importance. Speaking and making sentences had secondary importance at secondary level education (Özalp 1982; Ataünal 1977).

Moreover, at vocational school, developing language skills, teaching vocational words, making simple translations, were aimed (Songün 1977). During the 1983-1984 teaching terms vocational and technical schools began to teach foreign languages at prep. classes. And they added “Anatolian” to the names of those schools (Tebliğler Dergisi 1983: 2149, 421). Until 2005, those schools had prep classes. But after June 2005 they stopped teaching foreign language at prep classes. Now most schools have eight hours foreign language classes.

In the last two decades, Business Foreign Language has attracted increasing interest and awareness. A especially Business English leads among those foreign languages. Business English must be seen in the overall context of English for Specific Purposes, as it shares the important elements of needs analysis, syllabus design, course design, and material design (www.oup.com/elt).

**SUCCESS INDICATORS**

Success of an enterprise can be evaluated by using financial and nonfinancial performance indicators which belong to enterprises (Dobbins et al. 2000). However, the strategy reveals those values which are followed by the enterprises. The investment made on human resources affects the success in long term. It is
possible to classify the performance signs that are used to evaluate the success according to different criteria.

The success indicators which are determined by the enterprise must depend on directly the result not the factors that affect the result. The enterprise should choose indicators that can be directly affected by an employee or department. For example: For a sales manager sales capacity can be assign, but profit isn’t a good indicator. Because profit is directly affected from sales capacity, therefore it is not directly under the control of the sales manager.

Following items can be listed for indicators of success;

- **Profitability**: Comparison of active work programmes, net revenue, return on equity, gross profit, sales revenue, assets revenues, profit per department, rate of the profit against expenditure etc.
- **Quality**: Complaints, results of audit, active standard error ratio, complaint ratio, guarantee expenditure,
- **Production**: Unit production cost, comparison of accrued-standard cost, utilisation rate, discontinuity, labour cost,
- **Marketing**: Number of customers, number of new products, forecast realization rate, market share, and sales capacity.

Tourism around the world becomes high at certain times. Even the countries which recognized the importance of tourism early cannot have steady potential customer trough out the year (Jayawardena, Chandana and Ramajeesingh 2003). By using the results of one year will be wrong to judge a tourism enterprise whether it is successful or not. Because the facilities at a tourism enterprise are done at a certain time of the year and tourism is the sector which is affected by social events. Therefore, results of last three years are used in this study.

While using financial ratios, taking both enterprises’ and whole sectors’ data will lead to better results. Also the inside and outside factors that affect the sector shouldn’t be forgotten. Ratios used in analysis are the ones that tourism enterprises have and they evaluate the productivity of sales and investment as well as profitability. Profitability ratios are used as traditional performance indicator at many enterprises widely (Haris and Brown 1998). But most used profit values are criticized.

**METHODOLODY**

This study includes the results of questionnaires which reveal the employee and financial information of hotels for the years 2004, 2005 and 2006. These questionnaires were carried among 105 hotels which are run in Mugla district. Questionnaire had 10 questions and 40 variables. In the study an analysis is made to reveal the effect of the employees on the enterprise’s success. It has been tried out to reveal how the foreign language level of the employees reflects on the enterprise’s profit, financial indicators and organisational structure, whether it affects them or not. Also it has been tried to find out the relation between the foreign language level and the success of the enterprise. Validity and significance of the data gathered from the questionnaires are made on SPSS statistics programme. They are classified and assessed according to their percentages.

**RESULTS**

When the enterprises try to decide which employee is good for them they should take into account the following factors; education level and foreign language level and age groups of the employees. Also they will help to reveal the reality of the study. The employee structure of the enterprises is tried to be analysed by only using the foreign language, education level and turnover rates of the front office employees. According to this in both types of enterprises there is a similar structure of employee which consist young employees.

The 68% of the hotels which were included in this study has more 50 rooms and they have employees over 20. Most of the employees are women and over the age 30. The results of the questionnaire can be summarized as follows;

- At the enterprises where the foreign language level is excellent and very good, the problem solving ability of the employees is better; on the other hand where the foreign language education is not good ability of problem solving is insufficient.
- At enterprises whose employees are consist of high school or under graduate people, and where slight the education level is high, more importance is given to foreign language education.
- If the factors increasing the success are taken into consideration from the enterprise’s point to view, in the companies whose employees’ foreign language level is good, it is observed that customer’s satisfaction is high, too; whereas in the other companies whose employees’ foreign language level is not so good, man-
agement of qualified staff and physical structure increase the enterprise’s success.

**Table 2. Results of Questionnaires**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Excellent</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Poor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender: (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Female</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Primary</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- High School</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Under Graduate</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Graduate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability of Problem Solving</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%35</td>
<td>%62</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>%5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- very good</td>
<td>%38</td>
<td>%12</td>
<td>%25</td>
<td>%6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- good</td>
<td>%13</td>
<td>%13</td>
<td>%25</td>
<td>%19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- moderate</td>
<td>%14</td>
<td>%6</td>
<td>%39</td>
<td>%36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- poor</td>
<td>%7</td>
<td>%11</td>
<td>%5</td>
<td>%34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factors Increasing the Success (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Physical Structure – Qualified Employee - Management</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Customer Satisfaction – Qualified Employee - Management</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Productivity-Management</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Motivations that govern corporate financial policy are analyzed by focusing on significant external changes of capital structure. Several studies on debt-equity choice have appeared recently (Hovakimian 2004; Jung, Kim and Stulz 1996). These studies highlight the economic role played by three important pieces of the puzzle: Adjustment to a target leverage ratio, operating performance, and market performance. Tests of the adjustment to a target leverage ratio are crucial because adjustment is the cornerstone of dynamic trade-off models. An examination of the impact of operating and market performance should highlight whether these are significant determinants of the target leverage ratio and/or of deviations from this target. This analysis may also lead to the conclusion that the impact of performance on debt-equity choice stems from other factors than the adjustment to the target leverage ratio, as implied by pecking order and agency models.

**ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE**

English speaking employees have an important role at tourist resort enterprises to have a better communication with the foreign guests. It is observed that as English is nearly a global language, most foundations which serve international markets prefer English speaking employees to other foreign language speaking employees (Except French and German holiday villages). The enterprises which have English speaking employees with high levels at every department especially at front office and service departments, helps can have division according to its functions. On the other hand enterprises whish do not have English speaking employees with high levels have to form new department that support the operation. At guest centred enterprises good communication established between the guest and the employee will help to solve problems quickly and easily, and increase the sales. In addition to this as it will prevent time loss, it will cause an increase at number of the satisfied guests. If there are not enough employees both at holiday villages where many employees work and small enterprises, who haven’t got adequate level of English, one or more departments must be formed to do the functions of guest relations, operations and others.

**SUCCESS INDICATORS**

The profit used in these ratios must convey the long term profit. The quality of the service the enterprise and customer satisfaction that employees provide will show their effect in other periods. Therefore knowing the foreign language level of the employees worked in last 3 years will give the desired results in the study. According to the results of the questionnaires at the enterprises where foreign language education and foreign language level is high, the satisfied guest rate and repeated guest rates are high too. As a result of this profitability rate is high as well. Besides it is found out that the enterprises whose occupancy rates were high and there weren’t any changes at their room rates in last three years were the ones which give importance to employee education and foreign language education. Also foreign language and education level is high at this type of enterprises.
language, it is found out that the items such as occupancy rate, room rates and others increase both profitability of the enterprise and financial indicators.

CONCLUSION

Every employee must be aware of what is expected from him/her and must know what his/her contribution to the enterprise is. Performance evaluation system shows that the enterprise values the achievements of the employees and encourages success. It also meets the need for finding points that prevents the employees from showing better performance. By the help of performance evaluation employees can be informed what prevents them from having better performance. As a result employees will have chance to perform their duties better.

The advantage of performance evaluation system for employees, managers and enterprise in general can be listed as follows: If employees know their immediate managers’ thoughts about their performance, employees will take responsibility about their performance. It helps employees to get feedback about their performance and establish two-way communication with their immediate managers. When the employees know what is expected from them they will lead their strength in right ways. It strengthens the relations between the subordinates and immediate managers. It gives opportunity to find the employees with high performance who are going to rewarded and encouraged. It enables to find low-level performed employees who are going to be guided and dealt. In addition to this it helps the managers to evaluate their performance.

It enables to announce the institutional targets to the employees. It provides information to the management knowledge system. It also increases the organizational productivity of the enterprise. By the help of it level of it can be figured out how much the institutional targets are achieved at every department of the enterprise. Having adequate number of English speaking employees at good level every department especially at front office and service enables the enterprise to divide itself into departments according to their functions. But it is vice versa at enterprises which don’t adequate number of English speaking employees. Therefore such enterprises have to establish supporting departments. Investing on employees’ education, giving importance to foreign language education and guiding the employees within the enterprise’s targets to increase the sales will cause increase on expenditures. Even they cause an increase on expenditures, room rates, room occupancy rate, and number of

It is observed that at enterprises where the rate of customer satisfaction is high the rate of repeated customer rate is high as well. As the enterprises pay more attention to their repeated guests, who comes to same hotel every year to spend their holiday, it increases mutual confidence. As a result of this enterprises begin to have more repeated guests each year. This situation allows the enterprise not to cut down its room rate during stagnation. More over it can increase the rates slightly and make its profit higher during stagnation. Enterprises join fairs and they deliver CDs, brochures etc. to increase their room sales. Even these kinds of activities increase the expenditures and cost, they help to increase the room sale rates, number of customers. When the relation between the financial indicators and the customer satisfaction, occupancy rate, repeated guest rate examined at enterprises which gives importance to foreign

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Success at Enterprises Giving Importance for Foreign Languages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>customer satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4. Success at Enterprises not Giving Importance for Foreign Languages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>customer satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
guests increase in accordance with enterprises’ expectations. This increase revealed change in the favour of enterprise on financial ratios of the following items; net profit/capital, net profit/sales, sales/total assets, cost/sales.

REFERENCES


Özalp, R.. (1982). Milli Eğitim İle İlgili Mevzuat (1857-1923), İstanbul


Tebliğler Dergisi, 10 Ekim 1983.

www.oup.com/elt [Ziyaret tarihi:15/01/2008].
Analysis of the Landscape Design of Hotels and Resorts in Belek

Elif DIKMEN
Faculty of Agriculture
Ankara University, Turkey
E-mail: elifdikmen@yahoo.com

Dicle OĞUZ
Faculty of Agriculture
Ankara University, Turkey
E-mail: Dicle.Oguz@aegri.ankara.edu.tr

ABSTRACT
Tourism has been developing rapidly since 1980’s in Turkey and has become one of the most important industries for Turkish Economy. Tourism plays an important role for international, cultural and public communication. In addition, tourism plays an important role for introducing natural beauties, historic and cultural treasures. The Landscape of the regions where tourism is developing is also changing and transforming due to these new developments. Belek, is surrounded by antique cities and the natural beauty. Belek, also represents the architecture of modern life. Belek, is not only a tourism district, it is also an area providing protection to the natural life of the Mediterranean. For this reason, architecture and facilities in Belek Tourism Center are organized in a way that wouldn’t disturb natural life and vegetation. This research examines and discusses the landscape design of the selected resorts. In addition to examine the perception of the tourists, about the landscape designs of the resorts.

Key words: Landscape design, Belek, user satisfaction.

INTRODUCTION
The concept of tourism can be defined as travels, made by people to areas outside their permanent residence (saglik.gov.tr). And furthermore, these activities which create the need of temporary accommodations. The simplest definition of tourism; the travel which is done for seeing, understanding, leisure and for resting. There are various types of tourism which can be grouped as; nature tourism, adventure tourism, education tourism and culture tourism. Tourists who are interested in nature and culture tourism, seem to look for a wide range of different attractions and different kind of activities to satisfy their needs for learning, understanding, relaxing, recreation and others. These activities have to be planned carefully, and in harmony with nature. Different people are interested in different forms of tourism for different reasons (European Comission 2003).

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOURISM AND LANDSCAPE
Tourism has been developing rapidly since 1980’s in Turkey and has become one of the most important industries for Turkish Economy. Tourism plays an important role for international, cultural and public communication. Furthermore, cross-cultural communications and cultural exchanges between citizens of different countries, also occurs due to tourism. In addition, tourism plays an important role for introducing natural beauties, historic and cultural treasures. The Landscape of the regions where tourism is developing is also changing and transforming due to these new developments.

A tourist landscape may be created by making various changes of an original physical landscape in order to serve the tourists and the tourism industry. Landscape has played an important role for tourist in their decision making process for choosing holiday destinations. Trying to escape from their daily lives, people have for centuries looked to far-away destinations for a change in landscape (Wikipedia.org 2008). Landscapes are increasingly shaped by consumer demands, recreation, tourism and even nature conservation combine to model the ‘new aesthetics of nature’ (Wilson 1992).

On the other hand, however, one of the factors influencing the environmental impact of tourism is the density of tourism to a particular region. The number of annual visitors increases the density of tourist site use. This may result to the complete transformation of the region. Consequently, the rise in the number of tourist causes an increase in the land prices as new developments have to be built to accommodate the increasing number of visitors. This may, in turn, give rise to an intensive utilization of the land and giving rise to the sky-scraper hotels instead of structures and resorts that could have been more harmonious with the local environment. For a long time, the relationship between tourism and the environment has been complex, trying to make a balance in which the environment would be protected for tourism but also protected from tourism. On one hand the tourists come to visit a particular location for the sites and the surrounding environment. On the other hand, if the surrounding environment is not protected and becomes eroded, then the location will lose its attraction. Therefore, all tourism developers have to take the environment into consideration (Cohen 1978)
When making a design, a designer can either try to shape nature according to the design or shape the design according to nature. It is debatable which approach is better; but the result should be harmonious not only with the surrounding environment and ecology, but also with the historic and cultural environment (Cohen 1978). Finally, it is imperative to have sustainable growth of the tourism industry just like any other industry so that the environment that attracts so many visitors is preserved. If policies which are sustainable, competitive and which are harmonious with the environment can be followed, then it would be possible for Turkey to have greater revenue from international tourism.

**BELEK TOURISM CENTER**

Belek, which is located 20 km east of the Antalya City Center, is one of the best locations in the world surrounded by antique cities and the natural beauty. Belek Tourism Center had been declared firstly in 1984 and had been revised three times until it has its current boundaries, due to Tourism Encouragement Law numbered 2634. At its first declaration, the boundaries of tourism center had just included the sea-side and the forestry areas behind. But after six years in 1990 the boundaries had revised in order to include Belek and Kadiyie settlements. The reason behind was to provide the controlled and planned urban development. With the tourism development of Belek and Kadiyie, the area grew and developed. Subsequently, the lifestyles of local people changed and their occupations gained a seasonal character. During the summer season, most employment is related to tourism industry, although most of the regional economy still depends on agriculture. Belek, is one of the most popular resort areas of the Mediterranean. Belek, is not only a tourism district, it is also an area providing protection to the natural life of the Mediterranean. For this reason, architecture and facilities in Belek Tourism Center are organized in a way that wouldn’t disturb natural life and vegetation. Environmental Organizations aim is to improve the stream and the watery area and turn this area into a Bird Paradise. It is found out that, there are various kinds of birds in this area. Caretta caretta turtles from all over the world come to Belek beaches every year to lay their eggs. Coastal zone of Belek Tourism Center has been determined as the protection zone for reproducing of caretta caretta. The touristic facilities were being developed respectfully to the natural environment and biodiversity. (Ministry of Tourism 2008).

Especially, Antalya and its environment is known as a plant paradise. Out of 600 plant species, endemic of the Mediterranean area, 500 species grow in Antalya. According to the botanical studies, there are 118 valuable plant species exist in Belek. More than 40 of them which is peculiar to Belek only. There is an association of tourism investors named Betuyab that is particularly involved in the development of Belek. Betuyab was founded in 1989 under the guidance of the Ministry of Tourism. It activities mainly involve infrastructure investment and development, measures for controlling and reducing number of mosquitoes, activities for protecting the environment, and the marketing of the area’s hotels. Betuyab authorities try to be environmentally conscious in their works. With the 1/25.000 scale master plan, the “Regional Park” has been planned to protect the endemic flora by planting and displaying the current species (Ministry of Tourism 2008).

Between 1995-1996 with the support, provided by the world Bank and the governmental organizations “Belek Beach Management Plan” was prepared. This plan requires the protection and the development of the natural and cultural environment. Betuyab is working to protect hundreds of species of plants, to develop Belek and to preserve the nature and natural life. Under the sustainable development policies, in Belek Tourism Center there are economic dimension, the social dimension and the environmental dimension. The economic dimension: Settlements had transferred from rural into urban settlements. And also, settlements gained employment opportunities with tourism development at the sea-side. With the perspective of social dimension; there has been some sort of gender equity. With the development of the tourism sector in the region, there was improvement in different aspects of everyday life. There was also an improvement in the technical infrastructure such as better electricity, wastewater, purification systems road network etc. With the perspective of environmental dimension; there has been the biodiversity, there has been the protection zones for caretta-caretta. And also there has been the blue flag campaign through shores. (Ministry of Tourism 2008).

In Belek Tourism Center, 11 golf clubs and 44 five star hotels and holiday villages are being planned in the very near future. According to the statistics of 2006; of the total number of 19 million 819 thousand tourists who came to Turkey, 8 million came to Antalya Region and 1.5 million to Belek area. Touristic facilities and resorts located in and around the Belek region have put forward very new landscape designs for the region.

This research examines and discusses the landscape design of the selected resorts of; Club Alibey Resort Hotel, Spice Hotel & Resort, Limak Arcadia Golf & Sport Resort Hotel, and The Dome Golf & Spa Resort Hotel. Survey and inter-
views were conducted also in Susesi Hotel and Ela Quality Hotel on the Belek tourism region. The resorts examined are evaluated according to both the positive and the negative aspects. In addition a questionnaire survey is applied to examine the perception of the tourists, about the landscape designs of the resorts. And also, a questionnaire survey is applied to examine the design principles of the designers.

A feature observed in many hotels of the Belek region is that many of the landscape designers choose to preserve the existing trees in the resorts. Some landscape designers have been very careful by preserving the trees in that area. This effort of environmental conservation has helped to promote many other tourism developers to be more conscious about the environment. This would be increasingly important of an issue as many tourists have growing environmental awareness. Baysan (2001) suggested that some tourists (up to 28.2% of surveyed German Tourists) choose not to use rent-a car due to environmental considerations.

In Club Alibey Aqua park, we can observe the examples of environmental awareness. The resort Club Alibey was built with an emphasis on recreational activities. The natural texture of the resort, distinguishes it from many other hotels examined. The Landscape Architect put great importance on spatial perception, on the design. The concept of the project took into consideration the project field, the surrounding geography and the requests of the developer. The structure’s purpose, concept, need, aesthetic, and plan provided guidance to the project’s functionality and use of the space. The element of water is being used according to the formed concept. Two bridges that are particular to the space was built on the activity pool and water park pool to allow passage and to provide view of the site. The designer used plant materials to create space, provide curtaining effect and control privacy, as well as providing a sense of direction. And also, relatively tall plants and plants with a form have been preferred. Plant elements used with water elements, were the focal points of the design.

In Limak Arcadia Golf & Sport Resort Hotel, the designer has been particularly careful in enriching the landscape with transparencies in the structures, the circulation, and displaying the overall architectural silhouette. The view of the hotel has been taken into consideration. The landscape design’s concept was formed in accordance with the general architecture. Choice of the plants was particularly sensitive to not undermining the overall budget and the designer used the plants that exist in the surrounding natural environment.

In the Dome Resort and Spa Resort Hotel, the geometric forms in the landscape are immediately noticed. This suits the overall geometrical design of the architectural project. The pool with the geometric pattern bottom is a focal point in the overall landscape design. The water element takes the attention to the observers. Similar to Club Alibey Resort, the design’s purpose, concept, need, aesthetic, and plan provided guidance to the project’s functionality and use of the space. The lighting of particular spaces in the evening also plays an important role as a design element.

In the Spice Hotel, the designer used Indian style structural elements and elements on the landscape design, which are relevant to the overall architectural concept. When designing the landscape, the designer was careful to be harmonious with the concept of the architecture. The large and leveled swimming pools used on the landscape design, draws our attention. Other elements on the landscape design that draws our attention are; elephant statues, Indian style gazebos that conform to the Indian style concept of the hotel design. And also the designer has preferred the plants with a form. The Indian style lighting elements were used to conform the concept.

**CONCLUSION**

This research examines and evaluates the present situation, and indicates clues for the future landscape design of similar sites. Small, intimate areas can be created by the skillful placement of a plant display. The plants used in the resorts of the Belek area could be more of endemic types. The research suggested that there were not as many endemic types of plants used in the landscape projects of the Belek Region Resorts. According to James Hyatt; “more landscape designers in the United States, are working with native materials and celebrating what the region is. It’s recognizing regionalism and presenting that in a way [that is] appealing to guests” (Rusnak 2007).

Similarly, the regionalism in the United States may also be reflected for the case of new resorts in Belek using not only plants that are compatible with the region but are endemic to the region. Initial analysis of the conducted interviews and survey of tourists suggested that a considerable number of the tourists were unable to make a link between the surrounding environment and the landscape of the resort in which they were staying. The use of native and endemic materials in the landscape design would be an important step in the perception of the visitors about the local flora and local identity. Another important feature of the Belek Resorts was that many designers were careful in the preservation of the existing environment as much as possible.
For example, according to the survey conducted in Spice Hotel, surveyed tourists described the landscape and design differently from each other. When asked, most described the hotel as an Oriental style, while others described it as Tropical, Moroccan, and very few describing it as Mediterranean. This suggests a slight confusion on the image conveyed by the landscape design.

Most landscape designers in the Belek Resorts designed their project in accordance with the overall architectural design of the Hotel Building. And when choosing the plant materials, designers take into consideration the concept of the project, the areas climate and flora. And also, most designers try to find a balance between aesthetic, functionality, and being environmentally sensitive.

REFERENCES


Republic of Turkey, Ministry of Culture and Tourism. (2008). In-Print Information on the Belek Tourism Center Provided Upon Request by the Ministry.


energy, its temperature, as a result of the hot springs breaking out from the depth and the karst water, is around 33-35 degrees C in summer, while it is a bit lower in cooler seasons, but never falls below 23 degrees C (Vida 1992).

In Hungary, the average geothermal gradient is one and a half times higher than the world average, as in the Pannon Basin the earth’s crust is relatively thin, only about 24-26 kms, and the materials it consists of are stone and sand, both of which are excellent heat insulators. Thus the value of the average heat power in the Pannon Basin is 80-100 mW/m2, considerably higher than that of the surrounding mountains. Underground temperature conditions are determined jointly by the earthly heat power and the heat conductive capacity of the rocks. In Hungary this value is 50 degrees C/km on average (Vida 1992).

Today in Hungary there are 222 acknowledged mineral springs and 199 medicinal springs. Several organizations have been set up for the utilization of this natural wealth. At the moment there are 13 health resorts, 28 medicinal hotels and 65 thermal baths nationwide. Besides there, Hungary can also boast of 5 medicinal caves, 5 quarries of medicinal mud and 1 spring of medicinal gas (OGYFI 2006).

THE HISTORY OF HUNGARY’S BATHS

At the time of the Roman Empire, Aquincum was made the capital of the Province of Pannonia, and its hot springs were utilized immediately. So far the ruins of 19 public and private baths have been explored on the territory of Budapest (the capital of Hungary). During the time of the Turkish occupation (1541 – 1699 AD) of the country, Hungary’s bath culture became more colourful and exotic. Turkish baths in operation by today have only remained in Budapest and Eger. Of these the most important are as follows:

- “Mustafa” or “Jsil direkli ilidzsasi” (bath with green pillars), the contemporary predecessor of today’s Rudas bath, which was one of the most popular baths of the time.
- Today’s Király bath, the then “Horoszkapu ilidzsé”, the only bath that does not have its own water spring. Water is brought here from the vicinity of the Császár bath. The probable reason for building the bath was that the Turks did not want to be left without the pleasure of bath-

---

1 Medicinal waters are mineral waters breaking out from under the ground or brought to the surface artificially, whose therapeutic effects for certain diseases have been proven through strictly regulated medical testing.

2 The geothermal gradient is the thickness of the earth’s crust at which the temperature of water increases by 1 degree C. Across most of Europe this value is 30-33 metres, while in Hungary it is 20 metres.

3 The origin of the city’s name is likely to go back to the name of the Celtic settlement found in the place, whose meaning, by all probability, was water, river etc.
ing even in the event of a possible siege of Buda, therefore they built a bath to which water was brought through a wall surrounding the Lower city.

- The predecessor of the Császár bath was named “Kaplia” and was destroyed in the great fire of Buda in 1699. The Császár bath was built in its place. In our day this bath has the richest reserves of thermal water in Budapest, its 8 thermal springs extracting a maximum of 11,700,000 litres a day.

The outstanding medicinal bath culture of Budapest was acknowledged internationally in 1934, when it was awarded the title “the City of Baths”, for having the highest number of medicinal and thermal water wells among the world’s capitals. Upon this occasion, the International Association of Climatology and Balneology was founded in Budapest, in 1937.

Like several other countries of the European Union, Hungary also pays particular attention to the development of different areas of the tourist sector. The prospective dynamic development of tourism in the future is expected to improve the country’s employment rate, and thus contribute to closing the gap between the Hungarian rate of employment and the EU average, which has been one of the top priorities of the Hungarian convergence process. Recently in Hungary the direct contribution of tourism to GDP has been 4.6%, while the indirect contribution has been 7.8% (Central Statistics Authority 2006:47), which underlines the importance of paying special attention to it in the National Development Plan II.

SUBSIDIZATION POLICY

In the financing policy of the European Union special funds have been allocated for supporting sustainable tourism. This support creates an opportunity for those less developed countries, often favourite tourist destinations, to which only revenues from tourism can provide a chance to catch up. From this it follows that, at the time of the accession, Hungary had to make its domestic development plan for the planning cycle of 2000-2006. The development of tourism featured as an independent priority in the Regional Operative Program,

within the National Development Plan. Within the priority “Strengthening the Tourist Potential”, the development of the sector was directly supported as part of the program for the development of tourism-related services. In the second seven-year cycle, as laid down in the National Development Plan II, the tourist sector can expect state subsidies worth 235 billion Hungarian forints. This amount, that allows the utilization of an average of 31 bn forints annually, combined with domestic co-financing, might mobilize over 660 bn forints of private investment over the seven year planning period. In this way, in the tourist sector the strategic plan of a total of 1.100 bn forints, combined with other, domestic sources, may be achieved (Kovács and Soproni 2006:53-56).

It must not be forgotten that the support will only create the opportunity for development, and all the conditions of successful subsidization and the methods of selection must first be established. The harmony between planning and implementation necessitates the timely application of feedbacks. Special attention must be paid to exploring the effective mechanisms of the developments, it is also necessary to apply the different methods of performance measurement, that might help detect and eliminate the so-called bottlenecks. The aim must not be drawing the funds at any rate, they should be utilized effectively and spent on developments harmonized with goals of the economic policy. The recent years have seen the implementation of large-scale investments, whose efficiency can be proved only by the years to come. This study restricts its subject to discussing the experience of the impact study of the investments using government subsidies in the area of health tourism in the period between 2002 - 2004.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

In Hungary, the “Ten-year Development Program for Health Tourism” elaborated as part of the Széchenyi Plan was meant to facilitate the development of the tourist sector. The aim of the support was to encourage the establishment of high quality centers of health tourism providing competitive services. The concrete targets included that, based on the unique medicinal and thermal water treasure of the country, by the end of the decade, Hungary should take the lead

---

4 Currently it is headquartered in Switzerland, while in the meantime the name of the organization has also been changed to Federation Mondiale du Thermalisme et du Climatisme, or FEMTEC for short.

5 The National Development Plan II comprises the program period 2007-2013.

6 The Regional Operative Development Program and the Regional Operative Development Program Supplement of 2004-2006 include the details of the activities chosen for support related to the goals and targets to be financed by the Structural Funds.

---


8 The National Tourist Development Strategy (NTS) was approved by the government on 28 September, 2005. As for its goals and priorities, it entirely complies with the concepts of the development policy, therefore what was laid down in the NTS serves as the basis for the tourist developments of the period of 2007-2013. In terms of central budgetary funding, the implementation of NTS is primarily based on the subsidies arriving from the European Union’s Structural Funds.
on Europe’s health tourism market. On the tender announced within the Ten.
year Program for Developing Health Tourism, the total value of the subsidies won exceeded 30 bn forints. 52 out of the 90 applicants achieved non-
refundable subsidies, while 38 applicants received interest support. From the 52 applicants having won non-refundable subsidies, 44 referred to bath con-
struction or reconstruction, while in 8 cases the support was granted for build-
ing, enlarging or reconstructing hotels. From the 44 bath construction non-
refundable supports 17 were new bath constructions, these included 5 thermal baths, 1 medicinal bath, 4 wellness and health centres, 5 lidos, 1 medicinal gas
quarry and 1 spa-related infrastructural investment. The present paper is aim-
ing to release the experience of the impact study of the non-refundable subsi-
dies won for building new baths.

METHODOLOGY
Primary research began in the year 20059, and the goals to be achieved included
that it should contribute to measuring the efficiency of the currently running as
well as the future EU subsidies granted within the framework of the Széchenyi
Plan tenders, thus promoting the realistic assessment of tenders in tourism. The
assessment was rendered by the fact that in several cases our questionnaires
arrived back empty. It was a further difficulty that the tender announcements
“only” referred to the time of break-even, which should have been not later
than in 10 years time.

Due to the special nature of tourism, all three levels of economic effects, the
direct effect, the indirect effect, and the induced effect, must be taken into con-
sideration. Further on, it might lead to faulty conclusions to judge the invest-
ments exclusively from the figures of the surplus performance. It is especially
ture if we can work with estimated data concerning the indirect and the in-
duced effects. As for the baths examined, the impact study questionnaire10 sent
out comprised four areas:

- Economic data and indicators,
- Data referring to the investment,
- Data on health tourism services,
- Data on future prospects.

9 The research was completed on 30th July 2006. The research was conducted by the authors led by Elvira Böcskei.
10 The impact study questionnaire was made by the authors of the paper.

Besides the information obtained from the questionnaires sent back, the ma-
terial gained from the in-depth interviews was also utilized in analyzing the eco-

nic effects11. Works on the bath constructions were completed in 2002-
2004, so, for the sake of the comparability of data, the year of putting into op-
eration (the basic time data) and the data of the subsequent years were ana-
yzed. In the initial phase of the research, two hypotheses were set up:

1. The return on investments in tourism is a matter of decades, due to
the high investment cost requirements.

2. Subsidies play an indispensable part in developing health tourism.

The main requirements of the program also included that, besides the de-
velopment of the baths, provision should be made for the availability of accom-
modation in the neighbourhood, thus promoting the efficient operation of the
baths and hotels. In 3 of the newly built baths examined, the related hotel con-
struction and reconstruction was also financed within the Széchenyi Plan.

FINANCING OF INVESTMENTS
The investments had four main sources: non-refundable development subsi-
dies, bank loans, internal sources and other sources. The present study is re-
stricted by the fact that several baths did not return the questionnaire, so, un-
fortunately, we can only examine 9 out of the 17 newly built baths.

Table 1. Resources required by the investments (data in HUF 1000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of project</th>
<th>Projects</th>
<th>Support/ Subsidy</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Bank loan</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Internal sources</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Other sources</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Building new thermal</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2,171,077</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1,707,721</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3,342,991</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>910,560</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8,131,884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bath</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building new well-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1,264,614</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>748,640</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1,611,112</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>22,461</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3,646,827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ness/health center</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building new pool, lido</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>175,000</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>248,817</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>423,817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building new med gas</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>185,375</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>54,000</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>101,163</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>43,000</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>383,538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bath</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3,796,066</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2,509,836</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5,304,083</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>976,021</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12,586,066</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Impact study questionnaire (2006)

11 The present study only discusses the direct impacts. The research of the indirect and the induced effects is
underway.
The average amount of the subsidy accounts for 30% of the total investment costs. In 2001, the amount of the claimable support could be 50% of the total investment costs, maximum 1 bn forints. The total value of the subsidies exceeded 3.8 bn forints, which mobilized 12.6 bn forints invested capital. The planned amount of support was 5.1 bn forints, while the amount that was actually paid out was 3.8 bn forints. Out of the 9 competitors examined, 5 projects had to take bank loans in order to accomplish the investment. The value of the planned bank loans was near 1.5 bn forints, but in reality 2.5 bn forints worth of bank loans were made to the projects. With the exception of two applicants, all the others had to take bank loans a lot larger than they had planned. In the case showing the greatest difference, the applicant was only able to draw a lower-than-planned subsidy, therefore they were forced to take a larger bank loan. The loans accounted for 20% of the total investment costs, which can be considered a relatively high rate. It was due to this that the running time of the loans was between 80-191 months. The 10-year average maturity of the bank loans seems rather long, but it must not be forgotten that, with the loans being so large, it is rather difficult to assess the return on investments. The principal repayments are usually due every quarter, with annually increasing amounts, with the remaining balloon amount added at the end. The economic opportunity of these baths arises from their sales revenue, while it is limited by their costs.

**DISTRIBUTION OF THE REVENUES OF BATHS**

When examining the revenues of baths, the average monthly revenues of the baths must be examined in the year of starting operation, and in the subsequent one year. In the year following the start of operation, the revenue rose by almost 70% on average.

In the year of starting operation, as well as in the subsequent year, the highest average monthly sales revenue was achieved by the 02 K-D, 07 K-M and 08 NY-D baths, which is a growth of over 40% respectively. It is noteworthy that the revenues of two applicants from West Transdanubia and one applicant from the Middle Danube area were close to the average of Budapest, the capital. One of the two applicants from West Transdanubia, 08 NY-D, is located on the side of the Lake Balaton. As a summary, it can be stated that the sales revenues of the baths increased considerably. The case of 02 K-D deserves special attention as this applicant had previously claimed a lower subsidy, while significantly increasing its bank loans and internal sources for the accomplishment of the project. Despite all this, it seems that the investment turned out to be worthwhile, as the sales figures prove that the bath had earned great popularity and its guest turnover maintains a dynamic growth.

**DISTRIBUTION OF THE COSTS OF BATHS**

From all types of costs, the value of material costs increased by 50% on average in the year following the investment. The highest values were shown by 07

---

12 The baths are identified with code numbers, however, the analysis made it necessary to name the given region of Hungary (according to EU’s NUTS-2 nomenclature) as well. NY-D = West Transdanubia, K-D = Middle Danube area, D-D = South Transdanubia, K-M = Middle Hungary, É-M = North Hungary.
13 03 D-D and 06 K-M provided irrelevant data, so their data were not included in the figure.
14 Value of material costs without ELÁBÉ (Purchasing cost of goods sold) and Indirect Services Sold.
K-M and 02 K-D, both in the year of investment and the year after. The results are somewhat distorted by the fact that 06 K-M and 03 D-D provided insufficient data. The highest values were given by baths located in West Transdanubia and the Middle Danube region. It should be added, however, that these baths have the highest sales revenues and the largest capacities as well. The case of 08 NY-D is favourable as in the year after starting operation it managed to reduce the amount of material costs, while its revenues grew considerably.

The average monthly personnel cost increased in the first years after starting operation. The reasons for this increase included added expenses arising from the increased staff number, and wage increases given to offset inflation. The 9 new baths offered job opportunities for 607 people in the year of starting operation. In view of the planned head count numbers, in the year of starting the operation, the largest fluctuation was shown by 01 NY-D, 04 K-D and 03 D-D. It is remarkable that with 01 NY-D and 03 D-D the staff numbers showed a slight decrease, with a considerable simultaneous increase of costs. In the case of 01 NY-D the decrease was 9 staff, 11 % of their own staff number, while for 03 D-D the decrease accounted for 6 staff, 4 % of their own manpower. Among the applicants showing the three most outstanding values, staff increase could only be experienced with 04 K-D. From the employees’ point of view the case of 07 K-M is more unfavourable as here the headcount increased by 27 people (24%), maintaining practically unchanged cost levels.

Most of the newly built baths are faced with a negative profit and loss account, which means that the baths are in red. Among the reasons of the deficitous operation mention must be made of the high tax burden. Its reduction at the moment seems illusory as it would significantly cut the revenues of the state budget. The payroll taxes to be paid after the staff remuneration (employer’s national insurance contribution, social security contribution, pension contribution and other contributions) as well as the tax liabilities are considerable. Examining the tax liabilities (corporate tax liability, the dividend withholding tax liability, the VAT (the balance of VAT to be paid and VAT deductible) and the local tax liabilities (business tax, tourist tax, other municipal taxes), one can find that the payback period of the investment costs of newly built baths is over 24 years, provided that the current conditions do not change. At the same time, the subsidy that accounts for over 30 % of the investment is expected to show a return in 7 years, based on the above tax liabilities.

The forecasts are only based on data referring to direct impacts, they do not take into account either the favourable effects of additional employment, or the tax revenue resulting from the added income of suppliers and subcontracting enterprises, or any other influence facilitating the development of the given region.

**CONCLUSION**

Our hypothesis formulated at the beginning of our study was that subsidies play an indispensable part in the development of health tourism. The hypothesis must undoubtedly be declared justified. Beyond job creation, it mainly played an important part in increasing the tourist trade of the region and in the infrastructural development of the given settlement. Other, less quantifiable impacts of the development include the positive effects of the investments on the environment of the settlement. 440 million forints worth of infrastructural development was carried out related to the investments. Through building the baths and the services they offer, not only one particular town, but also the neighbouring settlements have reached general customer satisfaction, which also leads to the enlargement of their clientele. The development of the given region and the quality of the programs organized by the micro-region have become decisive factors. All this can only be achieved through joining forces, while easing, or eliminating, regional as well as micro-regional inequalities pose a great challenge for regional development specialists. Decreasing inequalities should be dealt with as national interest. It requires cautious and structured state intervention and subsidization policy, considering the opportunities and expectations inherent in the EU’s community policy. The 2007-2013 program period of the National Development Plan II offers an excellent opportunity for all that. The experience gained in the course of the research supports the view that sticking to the rules of cost-effective management is inevitable to
efficient and successful operation. It would be advisable for companies to employ controlling experts, as they could guarantee the observation of the principles of cost-efficiency and the high quality standards of operation.

REFERENCES


How influential is Social Capital in Alliance Performance?

Esra Onat CALVERT
Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, USA
E-mail: onat@vt.edu

Suzanne MURRMANN
Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, USA

ABSTRACT

Alliances have become common development tools in the tourism field. However, our understandings of alliance performance and how certain relational factors contribute to alliance success have lagged behind developments in the tourism field because tourism as a business is composed of “a two-part management culture” (Miller 1987: 66). While the public sector is interested in making decisions in regards to planning and development of a destination, the private organizations are interested in growth and deserted the comprehensive planning and long-term consequences. For this reason, the continuous tourism planning must be integrated with all other planning for social and economic development, and could be viewed as an interactive system in order to connect all stakeholders whether they are private and public organizations (Gunn 1988). With the aim of creating cooperation and collaboration in the two-part management culture of tourism, a relationship between social capital and alliance performance is proposed.

Keywords: Tourism alliances, social capital, collaboration, cooperation.

INTRODUCTION

Living in an age where resources are limited and competitiveness is a critical matter to product distinction, organizations strive for collaborative and innovative ways to improve their methods of doing business. In the context of tourism, the industry encompasses businesses engaged in transportation, lodging, food, beverages, special events, attractions, as well as marketing and management to deliver tourism services to tourists. Within this complex interaction, continuous tourism planning must be molded in all other planning for social & economic development, and is outlined as an interactive system (Gunn 1988). To integrate diverse stakeholders in the continuous tourism planning and development process, initiating alliances has become a common method in problem solving the challenges of a destination. These interorganizational forms through variety of names – strategic alliances, collaborative alliances, planned partnerships, public-private partnerships, task forces, working groups, cooperative agreements – participate in collaborative decision-making. These emerging alliances – which is the unit of analysis - can be defined as “cooperative agreement intended to pooling or sharing of appreciations or resources among two or more tourism stakeholders to solve a problem or create an opportunity that neither can address individually” (adapted from Krishnan Martin and Noorderhaven 2006: 895, Selin and Chavez 1995: 260). In practice and academic research, the challenge lies in identifying the relational factors that contribute to alliance performance. Alliances distort firm boundaries and generate firm dependence between previously independent firms (Zaheer McEvily and Perrone 2003). For the reason that dependence of partners on each other is a critical factor on the success of alliances, previous research has focused on the significance of relational factors for the smooth functioning of alliances (Powell 1990). Here, the research question is which relational factors contribute to alliance performance in the context of collaborative tourism planning and development? The dependent variable, alliance performance, is defined as “the generation of satisfaction defined by the parties involved in it as a result of the achievement of [outcome] expectations” (adapted from Medina-Munoz and Garcia-Falcon 2000: 739).

MODEL OF SOCIAL CAPITAL AND ALLIANCE PERFORMANCE

The term social capital – resources available to individuals in a social structure – (Bourdieu 1986; Burt 1992, 2000; Coleman 1988, 1990; Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998) has gained considerable attention in various disciplines. It has attracted awareness from various scholars because it is a concept that can bond individuals’ and collectivities’ actions (Coleman 1988; Portes 1998). It is described as an asset prescribed in relationships among individuals, community network, or societies (Coleman 1990; Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998; Leana and Van Buren 1999). It is instantiation of norms that allow individuals to cooperate in groups or what Alexis de Tocqueville called the “art of association.” The concept was first used by Karl Marx in the late 1800s. It gained its popularity with Bourdieu and James Coleman in the 1980s and Robert Putnam’s popular works in the United States and Italy in the 1990s.

According to World Bank’s Environmentally and Socially Sustainable Development Network Report, there has not been “an integrated and generally ac-
cepted conceptual and analytical framework” in studying social capital (World Bank 1998: 7). In the context of this paper, social capital “is the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships – that an individual or social unit has of creating, maintaining and using to achieve desirable goals - possessed by an individual or social unit”. (Adapted from Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998; Portes 1998). It refers to the relational factors of an organization and can be conceptualized in three dimensions- structural, cognitive and relational (Nahapiet and Ghoshal 1998). Structural characteristics is the overall pattern of connections between actors – that is who you reach and how you reach them (Burt 1992) and is a necessary condition for the development and utilization of social capital. Among the most significant features of this dimension are network ties that are the connections between actors that provide access to resources (Scott 1991; Wasserman and Faust 1994); network configuration that is the pattern of linkages in terms of density, connectivity, and hierarchy (Krackhard 1989; Tichy Tushman and Fombrun 1979); and appropriable social organization that is the ability of a network or organization formed for one purpose to be utilized for other purposes (Coleman 1998).

In contrast, relational dimension is the kind of personal relationships people have developed with each other through a history of interactions (Granovetter 1992). This dimension focuses on trust, which is the belief about the predictability of actions (Fukuyama 1995); norms, which are informal rules that allow individuals act in the interest of the group and are reinforced by social support, status, honor, and other rewards (Coleman 1988); expectation, which is the degree of probability that something will occur (Coleman 1988); obligation, which is a favor, service, or benefit for which gratitude is due; and identification, which is the extent to which actors view themselves as connected to other actors (Hakanson and Snehota 1995; Merton 1968).

The last dimension of social capital, cognitive dimension, is the resources providing shared representations, interpretations, and systems of meaning among parties (Cicourel 1973). It consists of shared language and codes that are the common signs and language among members (Arrow 1974; Cicourel 1973), and shared narratives that are common experiences among individuals (Orr 1990).

**SOCIAL CAPITAL AND ALLIANCE PERFORMANCE**

Social capital has been studied as a valuable concept in the creation and maintenance of economic prosperity (Fukuyama 1995), collective action (Burt 1992), democratic governance (Putnam 1995) and regional development (Grootaert and Bastelaer 2002). In the context of this paper the multidimensional construct, social capital, is a resource implicating the character of social relations within the alliance members. The theoretical approach is to examine social relations contributing to organizational outcomes. Likewise, previous research has focused on the significance of the relational factors in the organizational management literature because the individual actors’ dependence on each other is vital in alliances (Powell 1990). Various relational features, norms of solidarity and flexibility (Poppo and Zenger 2002), and trust (Gambetta 1988; Krishnan et al. 2006; Mayer Davis and Schoorman 1995; McEvily et al. 2003; Sako 1991, Zaheer McEvily and Perrone 1998; Zand 1972) have been studied in alliances and identified these relational attributes to alliance success. The common perspective is that relational factors have a positive effect on alliance performance. A number of scholars found a positive relationship between trust and alliance performance (Dyer and Chu 2003; Krishnan et al. 2006; Mohr and Spekman 1994; Zaheer et al. 1998).

Despite the fact that alliance performance has been a widely studied concept in the management literature (Aulakh Kotabe and Sahay 1996; Krishnan et al. 2006; Lane Salk and Lyles 2001; Mohr and Spekman 1994; Parkhe 1993), the study of alliances is limited in the tourism literature. The diverse nature of alliances - geographic scale, legal basis, locus of control, organizational diversity and size, and time frame (Selin 1999) – exhibit a distinctive handicap to measure alliance performance and obstruct the traditional measurement of organizational performance which is the bottom-line approach based on financial profitability and stability (Krishnan et al. 2006). Majority of alliances do not report financial performance that can be subjectively measured by the accounting practices of the partners. Survival also an invalid sign because most alliances are formed in need to solve a common problem and may be discontinued after the alliance has achieved its function (Krishnan et al. 2006). Alternatively, despite the fact that the alliance may be unsuccessful, stakeholders may still want to continue such relationship in the hopes of improvement of such relationship (Yan and Zeng 1999).

In the context of tourism, the deriving theme behind the formation of alliances is collaboration and cooperation. Collaboration is “a process of joint decision making among key stakeholders of a problem domain about the future of that domain” where as cooperation is “working together to some end” (Jamal and Getz 1995: 187). These two terms are communication tactics, which are used towards the process of voluntary cooperation and joint decision-
making. Likewise, Selin and Myers (1995) stated the significance of how the turbulent business and political environment has triggered “a groundswell of interest in collaborative or resource sharing arrangements among leisure service providers (37) and stated cooperation and collaboration as the fundamental reasons for alliance formation (Selin and Chavez 1993, 1994). Today’s business environment requires the local authorities to form alliances with the aim of connecting local government, voluntary groups, businesses and communities, and service providers. Because social capital encourages inter-relationships between individuals, a holistic approach to tourism development and planning can be sustained through cooperation among multiple actors (Rydin and Holman 2004). Fukuyama (1995) proposes that social capital encourages involvement and joint action as it alters the costs and benefits facing individuals to act together for a common goal. Furthermore, both cooperation and collaboration are the mediating constructs that influence the relationship between social capital and alliance performance.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, alliances and social capital in tourism are both under-studied areas. There are multitude of opportunities in exploring the topics and supporting relational factors – such as social capital - contributing to alliance performance. The needs to study tourism from a multidisciplinary perspective and understand the outcomes of alliances among diverse and interdependent stakeholders are appropriate to investigate the relationship between social capital and alliance performance. Relationships are natural components of everyday interactions; and the ability of an individual or social unit to possess such relationship as an asset may contribute to the well-being of an individual or social unit and society.

REFERENCES


An Assessment of the Positioning of Jamaica’s Tourism Product in this Dynamic Global Environment

Gaunette SINCLAIR – MARAGH  
School of Hospitality and Tourism Management  
University of Technology, Jamaica  
E-mail: gausms@gmail.com / gmaragh@utech.edu.jm

ABSTRACT

The phenomenon of globalization is not merely a static concept but a reality of having the world operating or doing business as a global community. This means that trade barriers are becoming extinct. There is also more access to travel, which opens the door for technological advancement and competition. The purpose of this research therefore, is to assess the positioning of Jamaica’s Tourism Product in this dynamic global environment. Desktop research using various secondary sources was used to ascertain the relevant information. The findings revealed that there is a growing trend in world-wide tourism arrivals. Jamaica is not to be left out, as there has been an increase in visitor arrivals in 2006 and this is expected to continue. Likewise, the tourism product is being managed collectively by the government, private sector and the Jamaican people and this is a real strategy for sustainable tourism development and competitiveness.

Key words: Globalization, global environment, positioning, special interest tourism.

INTRODUCTION

The history of globalization stems to approximately fifty years ago with many countries especially the underdeveloped and developing ones paying little attention to its advent, evolution and development. Globalization is being driven by several factors to include technology, competition and business expansion. This old practice of globalization suggests that the management of Tourism and Hospitality businesses regardless of the size and structure has to be very proactive. Tendencies such as complacency and reactivity have to be eroded. It means also that managers not only have to be properly trained but are to be cognizant of the various trends and factors that are impacting on the competitiveness of their organizations. It is against this background why the researcher aimed to determine the positioning of Jamaica’s Tourism Product in this dynamic global environment.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Statistics have shown that worldwide arrivals have moved from 613 million in 1997 to about 700 million in 2003 and is projected to be one (1) billion by the year 2010 and 1.6 billion by 2020 (Knowles et. al. 2004).

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) also reported that global tourism is expected to grow despite the risk of terrorism, health issues and high oil prices. They estimated an increase of 4.2% from 2005 to 842 million persons traveling globally for the purpose of tourism. It was also noted that these travelers would be motivated to travel by the attractive prices for flights due to the spread of low cost airlines. These visitors were in fact charac-
terized as frequent fliers who will visit new destinations and stay for shorter periods of times (Jamaica Tourist Board [JTB] 2006).

Halloway (2002) pointed out that the pace of change in the tourism world is speeding up and that generating countries need to learn how to adjust quickly. These patterns of demand could be as a result of two main reasons. Firstly, by non-predictable factors such as changes in economic, environmental and political circumstances and secondly by cultural, social and technological changes in society which unlike the first set of factors provide some time to adapt the tourism products to meet new demands and expectations, making them predictable (Halloway 2002).

Knowles et. al (2004) also alluded to global tourism trends such as demand for hospitality and tourism services, increased global travel, removal of trade barriers, competition and technology. They noted that, that the European Tourist Destination will continue to grow and the region will remain the strongest for tourism. The removal of trade restrictions within the European Union (EU) has also facilitated the growth of travel within Europe. Likewise, there has been an increase in travel in Russia among the wealthy classes and other former Eastern block countries have created a profitable tourism market for the West. This growth is expected to continue. Hotels such as the Marriot have been seeking to use strategic growth strategies to expand its business to locate in Korea, Thailand, Indonesia and Malaysia (Knowles et. al. 2004).

Likewise, the growing strengths of the United States (US) economy in 2003 will create a demand for hospitality and tourism services among American businesses and leisure travelers. Also, due to recent economic problems in Asia, persons will be traveling to the Far East or to the US and Europe. In fact, research has revealed that Asian owned hotels and other hospitality facilities in both the US and Europe have been doing well form visitor arrivals (Knowles et. al. 2004).

There is also growing prosperity in Europe and the USA in terms of fast food restaurants and other convenient forms of eateries. Evidently companies such as McDonald have been using this opportunity by expanding its business into the European and Pacific markets. (Knowles et. al. 2004).

A report released in Puerto Rico by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) stated that the Caribbean is expected to grow by 10% and generate more than US$40 billion in economic activity (Silvera, 2004). In its prediction, the Caribbean Tourism Organization (CTO) estimated a 0.4% growth of tourism in the Caribbean region to 22.3 million visitors in 2006 with an increase from the United States of America and Canada and a decrease from Europe. (JTB 2006).

Tourism in Jamaica is therefore expected to continue the path of growth in line with the various predictions. Seaga (2006) postulated that, “the full potential of the industry has not yet been exhausted as there are possibilities for health tourism, heritage and the environment”

The most current data shows that over three million persons visited the shores of Jamaica in 2006, of which 55% were stopover visitors and 44% cruise ship passengers. (JTB 2006).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Showing the number of visitors to Jamaica in the year 2006</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of Visitor</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stopover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign Visitors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non Resident Jamaicans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cruise Ship Passengers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There has also been an increase in the number of stopover visitors from its major markets. Table 2 illustrating the number of stopover visitors within the major market for 2006.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Number of stopover visitors within the major market for 2006</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Stopover Arrivals</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom/Europe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continental Europe (Germany &amp; Italy)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South America (Brazil, Argentina, Venezuela, Colombia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caribbean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This increase in arrivals was attributed to several factors including the absence of Cancun (Mexico) in the market due to hurricane damage, aggressive marketing by the JTB and the Jamaica Hotel and Tourist Association (JHTA) in the overseas market, new airlines having access to Jamaica, frequency in chartered flights, new hotel rooms and no hurricane disturbance for the year 2006. There has also been a change in the number of stopover visitors in the various resort areas within the destination (JTB 2006).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resort Areas</th>
<th>Average Hotel Room Occupancy Rate 2005</th>
<th>Average Hotel Room Occupancy Rate 2006</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kingston &amp; St. Andrew</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
<td>58.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mandeville &amp; the South</td>
<td>57.4%</td>
<td>55.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coast</td>
<td>65.3%</td>
<td>63.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negril</td>
<td>61.0%</td>
<td>65.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ocho Rios</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Antonio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Jamaica’s Preparedness for Global Tourism.

i) Jamaica’s Tourism Product.

There are currently six distinct resort areas within this tourism destination, each being characterized by its unique offerings and is therefore able to attract a different market. See Exhibit (i) for Map of Jamaica with Resort Areas. The Resort areas are as follows:

- Kingston, Port Royal and Spanish Town: The Heartbeat of Jamaica
- Mandeville and the South Coast: Off The Beaten Track
- Montego Bay: The Complete Resort
- Falmouth: Heritage
- Ocho Rios and Runaway Bay: Discover The Magic
- Port Antonio: Naturally

Apart from the mass market of Leisure/ Pleasure Tourism being catered to by the sun, sand and sea, there are other forms of Tourism. These Special Interests Tourism include Cultural and Heritage Tourism where visitors can participate in the everyday lives of Jamaicans and visit places of historical interests such as the famous Port Royal which was where the buccaneers operated from before it was destroyed by earthquake in 1692, resulting in a part of it sunken in the sea, see Exhibit (ii); Eco-Tourism where visitors can explore the endemic species of flora and fauna; Adventure Tourism for visitors to hike on the Blue Mountain, see Exhibit (iii); Sports Tourism as was evident from the recently held International Cricket Council World Cup and Health Tourism where the Bath Fountain or Milk River Bath can be savoured.

In terms of the accommodation, up to the year 2002, 90% of this sector was locally owned. These included the Sandals and SuperClub chains and many small to medium enterprises (SME’s). However, there has been a growth in the number of ‘foreign owned’ hotels. In the Jamaica Observer newspaper article entitled ‘Sandals still Jamaica’s largest hotel chain’, Edwards (2007) reported that there has been a dramatic boom in hotel construction in Jamaica over the past five years which will provide an additional ten thousand rooms. These hotels were mainly from Spanish companies such as RIU, Iberostar and the Pinero Group.

Jamaica remains accessible from many of the major gateways around the world to include the USA, Canada, England and the Caribbean. Air Jamaica is the national airline of Jamaica and since 1967 it has opened the gateways of Jamaica to many visitors through scheduled and chartered flights and also making many linkages with other airlines across the globe. Since the 1990’s however, the airline has been faced with many challenges, the major being competition from other airlines such as American Airlines, British Airways, Virgin Atlantic and the most recent Caribbean Star.

Ground transportation is readily available and this is further facilitated by the new ‘Highway 2000’ development, which is intended to make traveling around the island and to the resort areas easier and faster.

**COMPETITIVE STRATEGIES**

Tourism has been said to be a main contributor to Jamaica’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP). However, Seaga, (2006) in a newspaper article entitled ‘Is Tourism a Prime Mover of the Economy’ argued that this contribution is relatively small in value and that its real value is in the employment it generates. See Table 4 on page 11 for GDP contributions for the period 1996 to 2004. He noted that a study by Pacific Analytic in 1997 showed that tourism employment was 7.6% of total employment in Jamaica representing 72,800 persons. Recent statistics also revealed that of the total 1,129,500 labour force employed in 2006, 24% were employed in the category of wholesale and retail, hotels and restaurant ser-
vices. (STATIN 2006). It is therefore imperative that the Tourism Administrators strategize in order to improve competitiveness and sustain its position in the global marketplace. This can be achieved through proper management of the tourism industry and sustainable development of its resources.

Table 4. Tourism’s GDP contributions for the period 1996 to 2004.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GDP Contribution (%)</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Carlisle (1987) explained management to be a process, that is, it is a set of interrelated actions that are used to obtain the desired results and enhance total performance. Tourism

Management is no different and in fact should provide an in-depth coverage of sense making, planning, implementing, evaluating and administering of tourism marketing and management programmes (http://www.cabi.org/bk_Book Display.asp?).

There are several National Tourism Organizations (NTOs) and Non-Governmental organizations (NGOs) that are responsible for the development and implementation of tourism policies in Jamaica. The Ministry of Tourism is the main NTO that is responsible for tourism policies. It regulates the operation of four related government agencies and private sector organizations in the Industry. One of these agencies is the Jamaica Tourist Board (JTB) that is responsible for conducting research and marketing of the brand ‘JAMAICA’ both locally and overseas. This is in keeping with Halloway (2002) who noted that Tourism Planning calls for research in order to assess the level of demand and to determine how the resources can best be distributed. He also emphasized that it is necessary to segment the market to determine its most profitable and popular segments and to identify the best target markets. This systematic approach requires that managers employ appropriate strategies that will allow for competitiveness.

Another agency is the Tourism Product Development Company Limited (TPDCO) which has the mandate to develop and improve the tourism product such as training people within the various communities and developing sustainable tourism-related projects. The Jamaica Vacation (JAMVAC) is primarily responsible for arranging airlift to Jamaica especially from places that are not adequately served by scheduled air carriers and the Jamaica Reservation Ser-

vice (JRS) is responsible for tele-service and customer enquiry (Huntley, 2007). One of the main NGO’s is the JHTA, which is an industry private sector body that collaborates with the JTB in its marketing efforts to promote Jamaica as a tourist destination.

Education and training opportunities at all levels are also available locally for the human resources needed to work in this industry. Undergraduate training is provided by the regional university (University of the West Indies), the two local universities (University of Technology, Jamaica and Northern Caribbean University), community colleges and off-shore universities. Graduate level studies are also offered by the regional and some of the off-shore universities. There are several other skill-oriented or training programmes available in other institutions such as the National Training Agency, HEART (Human, Employment and Resource Training) and other private institutions.

**CONCLUSION**

Although tourism in Jamaica appears to be doing well, the impacts of the expected growth in global tourism need to be seriously considered. Factors relating to the physical and natural environments as well as social, cultural, economic, technological and political issues must be critically assessed to ensure a sustainable tourism product. Success therefore will depend on the preparedness of managers in both the NTOs and NGOs in dealing with global tourism growth.

**REFERENCES**


Port Royal : http://nautarch.tamu.edu/portroyal
Maps Online Resource : www.infoplease.com/map/Jamaica
Blue Mountain : www.bmtoursja.com
Murphy, X; Milk River Bath : www.jamaicans.com/tourist
The Influence of Recreational Natural Resources of the Eastern Highlands' Region on Tourism Development

Gitana VALUKONIENĖ
Faculty of Business and Technologies
Utena College, Lithuania
E-mail: nmv@utenos-kolegija.lt

Rasa JODIENĖ
Faculty of Business and Technologies
Utena College, Lithuania
E-mail: rasas@utenos-kolegija.lt

ABSTRACT
Natural resources are one of the most important tourism resources of the country, region, locality; they decide trends for recreation and tourism development, recreation activities, influence on attracting tourists to the locality. One of the recreation and tourism goals, planning and executing the recreation and tourism development, is to examine, evaluate the locality’s recreational natural resources and the use of opportunities for the tourism development. The Eastern Highlands’ region, located in the Eastern part of Lithuania is one of the most important and the most prospective Lithuanian tourism regions, famous for its rich recreational natural resources. The aim of the paper is to fulfill the recreation evaluation of the Eastern Highlands’ natural resources, to indicate their influence on the tourism development. The authors of the paper presents the conclusion that opportunities for the tourism development, offered by the recreational natural resources of the Eastern Highlands, are not fully exploited. The water bodies, i.e. large lakes or headwaters, the largest rivers as well as forests possess the supreme influence on the region holidaymakers and the representatives of the region tourism business. The small water bodies, i.e. rivers and lakes, surface and its forms, that would enable to distribute tourists’ flows in the region, have the greatest recreational natural resources potential of the Eastern Highlands’ Region, seeking to use the resources in a sustainable way and preserve them for the future generations.

Key words: Recreation, recreational natural resources, natural resources, Lithuanian Eastern Highlands.

INTRODUCTION
Lithuania, in comparison to other countries of the East and North Europe, is a populous country with a good network of roads and comparatively high level of urbanization, therefore, all the natural territories and natural resources suitable for recreation are exploited more or less intensively. The region of the Eastern Highlands is the second in Lithuania according to the potential of tourist resources (the seaside being the first one) (Končius, 1985; The General Plan of the Territory of Lithuania). Thus, this region is one of the most important tourist regions in Lithuania.

Recreational natural resources are very important for tourism in Lithuania and other countries. Natural resources include forests (parks), lakes and picturesque landscapes. According to Stauskas (1985), recreational natural resources are not the “background” for recreational and service buildings and establishments, but is the basis and the reason for the establishment of a recreational complex. The choice of the place for rest of the residents greatly depends on the specific natural, anthropogenic, social and economic resources of the region. For this reason, the identification of recreational territories should be based on the data of regional research (Riepšas 1994).

Tourism business planning in one or another region should take into account recreational natural resources and their evaluation as well as the need of the population for those natural resources. The representatives of tourism business of the Eastern Highlands host guests not only from the surrounding districts and towns, but also form distant Lithuania’s districts and regions, as well as foreign countries. The evaluation of the tourists’ needs for recreational natural resources should involve the needs of other than local residents-holidaymakers.

Recreational natural resources is the subject that has been and is being studied quite much (Kavaliauskas, Ignatons, Riepšas, Grecevičius, Končius and others), however their analysis and usage for the development of tourism in the Eastern Highlands have not been explored. In addition, the mentioned research was carried out two decades ago, therefore the information is not up-to-date. In the last decade, the recreational natural resources of the Eastern Highlands have been analyzed in the framework of the Eastern Highlands’ Water Tourism Development Programme (water resources) (2003), in the Feasibility Study of the tourism center “Palūšė” of Aukštaitija National Park (the analysis of recreational natural resources of the national park territory) (2003), Utena County Development Programme (2003) and other documents planning the development of the Eastern Highlands districts.

The concept of recreational natural resources and their impact on the development of tourism in the region. The Law on the Modification of the Tourism Law of the Republic of Lithuania (2003) describes recreational natural resources as the natural or cultural characteristics of environment suitable for the organization of full-rate physical and spiritual rest of people. Recreational resources refer to:
• Nature resources (forests, sprouts of residential settlements, water bodies and their strands, suitable or available to be adjusted for the rest and recreation of people, bodies of mineral water and therapeutic mud, the objects of natural heritage).

• The objects of cultural heritage.

• The buildings and objects of tourism services and recreation infrastructure located in resorts, recreational and preserved territories, as well as tourist routes, watchtowers and sites, other territories devoted for recreation (The Law on the Modification of the Tourism Law of the Republic of Lithuania, 2003).

In the process of rest organization natural factors act as a condition for recreational activity and as recreational resources. Every recreational activity asks for certain conditions of natural environment (natural factors). The organization of rest for a bigger number of holiday-makers demands for a bigger territory respectively (corresponding the number of holiday-makers) where better recreational conditions lasting for possibly longer period should be created. Natural factors turn into recreational resources only after they are reclaimed and used to meet the needs of holiday-makers. Recreational resources are characterized by the data on the quality of natural conditions, the area and period of time in which that quality is manifested. A certain part of natural resources takes no action in recreational process directly, but is urgent for the existence of a recreational establishment – the territories necessary for buildings and daily activities (Končius 1985).

The analysis of recreational resources is a very complicated process of scientific cognition embodying many areas and aspects of cognition. Kavaliauskas (1985) states that it is essential to form and develop such a complex of research trends of recreational resources which would meet the needs for the establishment of a territorial recreational system. One of such conditions is the distinction of all kinds of anthrop ecological recreational needs, their evaluation and combination into common complex of research. According to Kavaliauskas, the anthropologic attitude allows distinguishing the following research aspects of recreational resources – bionomic, psychonomic, ergonomic and economic.

Such a complex of research aspects reflects a modern anthrop ecological attitude. An optimal anthropoecosystem may be only that one which ensures biological vitality, psychological cosiness, physical comfort for activity and economy of reclamation (Kavaliauskas 1985).

Tourism region of the Eastern Highlands. The Eastern Highlands region is located in the eastern part of Lithuania and covers two counties in Lithuania – Utena (76% of the total region’s area) and Vilnius (24%). The total area of the region is 7128 km², which makes 11% of the whole territory of Lithuania. The population of the Eastern Highlands is more than 179 thousand people which makes 6% of the total population of Lithuania.

The greater part of the Eastern Highlands region territory is situated in the Baltic Ridge, the highlands of Aukščiai and Švenčionys as well as in the northern part of the East-south Lithuania’s plain. Therefore the region is characterized with great hills and hollows. Water bodies cover big territories of the region – 7.8% (about 2% in Lithuania, nearly 4 times more than Lithuania’s average). There are many swamps in the territory of the region – 4.5% of the total area of the region. 36.3% of the total area of the region is covered with forests, which is more than Lithuania’s average (31% of the total area of the country). Therefore, the region is distinguishing for its forests. The natural resources predominant in the region include the following – forests, water bodies, swamps that cover 53.4% of the region’s area, while 41% of the region’s area is covered with agricultural landed property.

The territory of the Eastern Highlands region is unique for its natural heritage which plays the most important role in the planning of tourist and recreational activities in the region. The Eastern Highlands is the region that is chosen for the weekend or holiday rest by the residents of the three biggest cities of Lithuania: Vilnius, Kaunas and Panevėžys (Kavaliauskas and Ignatonis 1985). In addition, the local residents choose recreational resources of their region for their weekend or holiday rest. Thus, zones of active influence of recreational systems of neighboring cities of the Eastern Highlands – Vilnius, Kaunas and Panevėžys - overlap or intersect in this particular zone.

The topic of the paper is the exploitation possibilities of the potential of recreational natural resources of the Eastern Highlands region for tourism development.

The object of the research is recreational natural resources of the Eastern Highlands.

The aim of the research is to carry out the evaluation of recreational natural resources of the Eastern Highlands, to identify their influence on the development of tourism, as well as to present recommendations concerning their exploitation optimization. The method of the research is a question-based inquiry.
which aims at revealing the usage of recreational natural resources of the Eastern Highlands and identifying their need for the development in the region. A question-based inquiry was employed to find out the needs of holiday-makers/visitors of the Eastern Highlands for recreational natural resources – the aims and motives for choosing the region, evaluation of recreational natural resources, most frequently chosen activities and enterprises, their sufficiency or lack, and evaluation. This method is used to identify the influence of the recreational natural resources of the Eastern Highlands on the region’s holiday makers.

The most important reason due to which the Eastern Highlands is selected for the recreation is the presence of a water body (-ies) (89%) (see Figure 1). By applying the statistics method the arithmetic mean (1,16), the mode (1), the standard deviation (0,5) and the variance (0,25) of the answers have been calculated and they indicate that the research data of the responders’ opinion is valid. Other reasons for the choice include the beauty of the location, good possibilities for swimming and the bank or forest present near being suitable for camping. In previous need surveys water bodies were also identified to be one of the most important criteria for the selection of a location for recreation.

It should be noted that the reasons for selection are more or less dependant on water bodies and their employment for various recreational or tourist activities. When analyzing the data of the survey the authors of the paper noticed that the choice of the location for rest or recreation is not determined by a single factor (e.g. a water body, the beauty of the location), but is determined by more than one factor (a water body and swimming possibilities, a suitable bank or the beauty of the location and natural or historical monuments, entertainment possibilities, etc.). That indicates that in addition to recreational natural resources it is very important for the responders in location selection to have a possibility to be involved in various activities, to visit places of interest and have some kind of entertainment.

After the criteria for the selection of a location have been identified, the responders were addressed with the question what had they aimed at in that location. In most cases the Eastern Highlands region was chosen for the rest by the responders – as it was indicated by 87% of the total number of responders. This region is chosen by the respondents mostly for holiday rest (47%) as well as for weekend or days-off (32%). Another 8% of the responders chose the region of the Eastern Highlands for the rest after a working day. The arithmetic mean of the responders’ answers is 2,83, the mode – 3, the standard deviation – 1,34 and the variance – 1,80 which indicate that despite varying answers of the responders the region is chosen for holiday rest. Taking into consideration the prevailing aims and reasons of the selection, it should be noted that the application of the region’s natural recreational resources for recreation should involve the establishment of resting-places close to water bodies.

The responders were inquired whether their selected accommodation had been close to a water body (see Figure 2). 87% of all the responders indicated that they had found their accommodation close or next to some water body (the arithmetic mean of the answers of the responders is 1,1, the mode – 1, the standard deviation – 0,34 and the variance – 0,11). The opinion of the responders concerning the mentioned question is reliable and steady – most often the accommodation places which are located close to some water bodies are selected for recreation. The next question was related to the form, type or size of a water body. The majority of the responders had their accommodation close to a lake (78% of all the responders), whereas only 10% of all the responders had their accommodation near to a river or a stream, and 12% of all the responders accommodated themselves close to water bodies (rivers or lakes) where the banks were suitable for swimming. In most of the cases the responders have chosen a water body that was a bigger one – a lake or a river. The bigger rivers were
more popular among the responders. 5% of all the responders and 48% of all the questioned responders who had spent their rest time near rivers chose them. Rather a big part of the responders who had accommodated themselves near rivers chose the river that was included into one or another water route.

The fact that accommodation located close to water bodies was chosen by a great number of responders (87%) indicates that they are very important when selecting a place for rest. Water bodies, especially big lakes and rivers, are an important factor for the development of tourism in region of the Eastern Highlands.

Swimming and sunbathing, trips by small means of water transport, walking, camping, observing the nature – these are the most favorably evaluated of all the recreational activities related to the application of natural resources.

The responders were asked what they thought of the rest conditions in the Eastern Highlands. The responders were presented with an ordinal 5 point measurement scale (ranking from very bad to very well). The majority of the responders ranked the rest conditions in the Eastern Highlands as being well (63% of all the responders). The rest of the conditions were ranked as being very well by 19% of all the responders, and the conditions being of average rate were ranked by 18% of all the responders. The statistical data of those answers (the arithmetic mean – 1, 99, the median – 2, the mode – 2, the standard deviation – 0, 61 and the variance – 0, 37) indicate that the data of the responders’ answers is valid.

The responders were asked to indicate the natural resources that had been taken into account first when selecting the region of the Eastern Highlands for the rest or holiday (see Figure 3). The most important recreational natural resources that were taken into account by holiday-makers when selecting the location were water bodies (were indicated as very important and important by 88% of the responders, the arithmetic mean – 1,65, the mode – 1, the standard deviation – 1,05, the variance – 1,11). Water bodies are also the most important for holiday-makers in comparison to other natural resources. The second very significant recreational natural resource for the residents were forests and their characteristics. 49% of all the responders indicated them as being important and very important. The third group of natural resources is the climate and the weather, indicated as being very important or important by 42% of all the responders. The least important was the surface, its hills. The resources of this group were very important or important to 20% of all the inquired people. 52% saw them as not important or not very important. As it has become clear from the earlier questions of the questionnaire, water resources are the most important when selecting the location for recreation and here the opinion of the responders is very united, whereas their opinions varied when indicating the importance of the climate and the places of interest.

The generalization of the impact of various natural recreational resources of the Eastern Highlands’ region on the location selection allows stating that various groups of resources have different significance – water bodies and forests are mostly preferable, whereas the surface, natural monuments and hills are the least preferable. According to the authors of the paper, this different evaluation of natural recreational resources is related to the activities and seasons selected for the rest and holiday (summer, autumn).

After the opinion of the responders regarding the impact of various natural recreational resources of the Eastern Highlands’ region on the location selection and the climate had been identified, it was inquired what water body and of what size would be the most preferred. Most of the responders indicated that the lakes of various size might be interesting, however, big lakes were preferred the most (indicated by 50% of the total number of the responders), then small lakes and the lakes available for riding with mounted water vehicles followed (indicated as important by 11% of the responders, being average impor-
tant to 19% of the responders), and finally rivers and streams offering planned water tourist routes. The analysis of the answers to the latter question brought to light the issue that big lakes were the most popular among the holiday-makers, whereas the rivers of various sizes were the least popular. In order to increase the tourist activeness of the rivers, water tourism routes should be planned and established. In this case, basing on the data of the survey, the importance of big rivers for the selection of the location for rest would increase 4 times (from 2% to 8% of the responders) and even more for small rivers. The authors of the paper think that the development of tourism in the Eastern Highlands Region does not fully exploit small lakes which create additional possibilities for the development (for example estates of rural tourism, small camping sites, etc.).

The identification of how the most important natural recreational resources were evaluated and what was the demand for them was followed by the question what landscapes were the most attractive (see Figure 4). The majority of the tourists of the Eastern Highlands region (56% of the responders) indicated that they mostly were attracted by the landscape where two components of the landscape were present or seen – a water body (a river, a lake) and forest. Another big group of the responders (28% of all the responders) chose a similar landscape composed of three components – a water body, forest and a village. The analysis of the statistical data (the mode – 3, the standard deviation – 1,93, the variance – 3,73) has indicated that the most valuable landscape among the responders includes a water body and forest, thus a certain variety of opinions was considerably noticeable. In general, a landscape with a combination of a water body or forest are the most popular and both of these components coming together are very attractive to 84% of the responders. Other kinds of landscapes are valued less among the tourists (from 2% to 6% of all the responders).

The generalization of the research was carried out by applying the analysis of the statistical data which included the calculation of a correlation coefficient that allows assessing statistically significant correlations and inter-influencing between the answer groups of the responders’ answers possessing different features. That method was applied in order to identify the influence of the recreational natural resources of the Eastern Highlands on the holiday-makers of the region.

In order to analyze the reasons determining the selection of a location by the responders a two-sided correlation analysis has been carried out. A direct interdependence has been identified between the importance of a water body for the selection and the importance to have good possibilities to swim (r =0,54,
p<0,01) and the importance of a water body and a beach suitable for camping and forest (r =0,34, p<0,01). In the first case the correlation is average whereas in the second case it is rather weak. This data analysis shows that in their selection the responders are influenced not only by a water body itself, but also other features of a water body closely related to recreation – possibilities to bathe, the kind of the beach, etc.

Water bodies and their characteristics are important not only for the selection of the region or location, but also for the selection of an accommodation type (site), and recreational activities. There has been other important relation identified between a water body as the reason for the location selection and the selection of accommodation situated close to a water body. The identified meaning of the correlation coefficient (r =0,53, p<0,01) indicates an average interdependence existing between those two features. Though the interdependence has been identified, it can be stated that holiday makers do not always choose to be accommodated near a water body.

The most important group of recreational natural resources for that group of responders is water (r =0,44, p<0,01). A strong interdependence between a bank suitable for camping and a small lake has been identified in the framework of the research (r = -0,43, p<0,01) and the distance between accommodation and a water body (in the case mentioned further than 2 km) (r =-0,60, p<0,01). The research has also brought to light the interdependence between separate groups of recreational natural resources. The responders who have selected the region of the Eastern Highlands for its landscape beauty value water bodies as the most important group of natural recreational resources (r =0,44, p<0,01). It might be stated that the holiday makers of the Eastern Highlands are differently influenced by various groups of natural recreational resources and if the choice is made with reference to one group of resources, then the others are not taken into account.

The responders who prefer to choose a big lake for their holiday pay little attention to the possibility to use mounted water vehicles (r =-0,60, p<0,01) and find a good bank suitable for swimming (r =-0,534, p<0,01) (the more a lake is important the less a possibility to use mounted water vehicles and find a good bank suitable for swimming is important). Those who are mostly interested in a big river are less interested in a small stream that offers a water route (r =-0,65, p<0,01). Those correlations of medium strength and different characters indicate that there exists an average interdependence between the size of a water body and the activity chosen during the rest – if a big water body is chosen (a lake, a river), a possibility to use mounted water vehicles or tourist routes are not taken into account. It may be stated that when choosing a big water body, holidaymakers choose a passive form of rest and activity.

CONCLUSION

The quality, abundance and variety of natural recreational resources as well as the area in which they occur create conditions for tourism development in the Eastern Highlands region by exploiting the resources in a complex way and allow meeting different needs of people. According to the data of the statistical analysis of a question-based inquiry data, rivers and lakes is the most important group of recreational natural resources of the Eastern Highlands region when selecting a location, various activities and their evaluation. Those resources influence the choice of an accommodation enterprise (the most preferable distance to the water is 200 m.). When the responders select a location for their rest they do not take into account several reasons related to the recreational natural resources of the region but their whole groups and combinations. Water bodies and forests are the most important groups of the region’s recreational natural resources. Big lakes and rivers are valued most among the water bodies. The most valued forests are pinewoods and mixed forests partially applied for the rest. Small lakes (sized up to 10 ha) prevail in the Eastern Highlands region which can be treated as nearly unused potential which creates new possibilities for the development of tourism in the region.

REFERENCES

Lietuvos Respublikos Turizmo Įstatymas pakėstino įstatymas. – 2003.
INTERNET REFERENCES


**Event Management and Destination Marketing: Universiade 2005 as a Case Study**

Gökçe ÖZDEMIR  
Faculty of Economics and Business Administration  
Yaşar University  
E-mail: gokce.ozdemir@yasar.edu.tr

Metin KOZAK  
School of Tourism and Hospitality Management  
Mugla University  
E-mail: M.Kozak@superonline.com

**ABSTRACT**

Given the importance of event organizations within a specific location or country which has the potential to be considered as a tourism destination within the international arena, the main objective of this paper is to introduce the 2005 Universiade Summer Games held in Izmir, Turkey as a case study which will be assessed from various perspectives in the context of destination marketing such as event and network management. The assessment is based on several criteria ranging from leadership to benefits and business results, all seem to be equally important in managing networks between public and private sectors, and local, national or international organizations while organizing internationally renowned sports events. The expected consequent benefit would lead to the promotion of destinations in a specific reference to the development of marketing techniques such as brand image, and the investigation of the impact on the society both at the local and national levels.

**Key words:** Event management, destination marketing, tourism marketing.

**INTRODUCTION**

Events often are seen as a tool to promote economic activities and are regarded in a positive light (Dwyer, Forysth and Spurr 2006). Events must be well organized, managed and effectively marketed to the audience in order to create a value at the end. Nevertheless, raising the public awareness and attract them to participate in the event is not an easy task and requires many promotional efforts. There is a very high level of investment in tourism marketing and the integration of key events into the national tourism organization’s domestic and international marketing strategy (Stokes 2008). A hallmark event has many effects on the countries or regions in which it occurs. It not only increases visitor receipts, income, employment, and government revenues, but it also raises awareness and knowledge of the country or region involved (Lee, Lee and Lee 2005); thereby, destination marketers utilize major events as tourism generators.

Given the importance of event organizations within a specific location or country which has the potential to be considered as a tourism destination within the international arena, the main objective of this paper is to introduce the 2005 Universiade Summer Games held in Izmir, Turkey as a case study which will be assessed from various perspectives in the context of destination marketing with a link to event and network management. The assessment is based on several criteria ranging from leadership to benefits and business results, all seem to be equally important in managing networks between public and private sectors, and local, national or international organizations while organizing internationally renowned sports events. The expected consequent benefit would lead to the promotion of destinations in a specific reference to the development of marketing techniques such as brand image, and the investigation of the impact on the society both at the local and national levels.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

A large event draws on a comprehensive range of available products such as accommodation, recreation, transportation, and food and drinks all of which need to be provided in a relatively short span of time. The definition of events is based on their size in terms of capacity, number of visitors, economic outputs, and financial investments. In this sense, Hall (1992: 5) regards mega-events as “those that segment themselves in the international tourism market and can be described as ‘mega’ by virtue of their size, level of public financial investment, target market, political effects, television coverage, construction of facilities, and economic and social impacts of the host community”. Getz (1997: 6) defines mega-events: “... by way of their size or significance, (they) are those that yield extraordinarily high levels of tourism, media coverage, prestige, or economic impact for the host community or destination ...”. The concepts tourism and sports as events have become as twins. Their importance has led to the development of a new subject category known as “event tourism”, defined by Getz (1997: 16) as follows:

1. “(1) the systematic planning, development and marketing of events as visitor attractions, as catalysts for other developments such as infrastructure and economic growth, as image builders,
and as animators of built attraction and destination areas; event-tourism strategies should also cover the management of news and negative events; 2) A market segment consisting of those individuals who travel to attend events or who can be motivated to attend events while away from home.”

There has been much debate published about the investigation of whether holding mega-events or sport events are beneficial to the image of the hosting cities as tourist destinations in economic terms (e.g. Gürsoy and Kendall 2006; De Groote 2005; Gürsoy, Kim and Uysal 2004; Saayman and Saayman 2006; Connell and Page 2005) as well as in social terms (e.g. Gürsoy, Kim and Uysal 2004; Gürsoy and Kendall 2006; Jones 2001). The literature has also drawn attention to the question of why people attend events (Nicholson and Pearce 2007). In addition to drawing visitors to a destination as the evidence of economic contribution, as suggested by Groves, Obenour and Lengfelder (2003), sport events utilize the global media to broadcast images of destinations along with images of transnational corporations that commercially advertise at the destination and through the global media. However, little attention has been paid to investigating the organization of such events in the context of the total quality management model initiated by the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM). With its major eight stages, this model has already been applied in the tourism and hospitality industry in the context of managing both individual businesses and tourist destinations.

Leadership refers to the behaviour of destination management team to accomplish its objectives. This fact points to the importance of the implementation of a destination-based event management and marketing program providing a strong collaboration and co-operation between the local units, units of other resorts and national institutions within a country and the related international institutions. Within the context of TQM, what management should consider includes planning, organisation, leading or motivating staff, and controlling standards and information. Specifically, the responsibility of management may refer to creating a vision in the eyes of suppliers, retailers and visitors, training its employees and local residents, encouraging the use of the appropriate quality control tools, dealing with promotion and advertising, and measuring the level of visitor satisfaction.

Policy and Strategy focuses on finding the most appropriate answers as to how the destination / event management team formulates, reviews and implements their policies and strategies. All public and private businesses and organisa-

tions take place among those who are responsible for maintaining a certain level of both physical and service quality within the visitor area. In order to achieve this broad objective, they are expected to consult with other related bodies and be collaborative. In this context, for example, it is really important to be visitor-friendly and disable-friendly and provide them with access to make use of facilities and services during the event to provide those visitors as both the event participants and observers a better quality of service in terms of connections, communication, accommodation facilities and leisure activities (Kozak 2004). The elements of destination management are also advised to ensure that developments in tourism do not bring any potential danger for other local or national institutions, e.g. agriculture, handicrafts, fishing and so on. This stage also consists of respecting the cultural and natural environment and maintaining their sustainability.

People Management focuses on finding the most appropriate answers as to how the employees and the local residents are managed to become productive and effective. This subject is quite important in tourism because this industry requires a great interaction between the contact personnel and the individual visitor. Thus, the extent to which employees and residents are satisfied with what they are doing may directly influence the level of visitor satisfaction with their services. As already pointed out above, due to the most common feature of the tourism and hospitality industry, visitors have a contact with a number of intermediaries from the beginning of their trips to the end. Some of their contacts appear in the host country, but particularly those in the destination / event hosting country will be the major elements to form their experience. This brings a number of relationships to exist between various elements, e.g. between visitors and service providers, between visitors and the local people, among visitors, among service providers, and so on.

Resources focuses on finding the most appropriate answers as to how the destination / event management team is able to manage their existing economic and human resources in an effective and efficient way. Co-operation and co-ordination are required at a community and government level including all public and private sector bodies to overcome the side effects of developments in tourism and focus upon its positive impacts (Inskeep 1991; Hall 1994). The public sector is in charge of both releasing and approving plans and projects to design an urban or rural setting in a suitable manner and the private sector has the responsibility of running tourism or tourism-related businesses. The benefits of such co-operation will be avoiding duplication and wasting financial resources, providing better communication channels to set plans, make deci-
sions and put them into practice. Internal co-operation and co-ordination among government bodies (public sector) is required to use time and financial resources in a much more effective and productive manner as the private sector receives more profits and the public sector more tax revenue and a well-balanced economy (Timothy 1998).

Processes, as a bridge between inputs and outputs, focuses on finding the most appropriate answers as to how the destination / event management team identifies, manages and improves its processes. Feedback to be gained through information collected from visitors, employees, tourism organisations and local residents can be useful to be successful in reaching positive outcomes and delivering the right mix of components to meet the needs of the tourism and travel industry. For example, asking visitors to list any problems they had or any improvement they could suggest might be a method of measuring visitor satisfaction and could also provide valuable information about what needs to be changed or improved (Kotler 1994). Event coordination is all about “the list”—what goes on the list and why. Event coordination is the visualization, organization, and synchronization of the event elements and the tasks required to implement them. To create that list, event coordinator should define the purpose of the event and analyze all the desires, demands, assumptions, and constraints involved in determining the products, materials, services, activities, and suppliers to be included in the event project (Silvers 2003). The importance of event management is related to managing available infrastructure and facilities to match with demand. Therefore, event management process requires government agencies, non-profit organizations, universities, municipality of the city, suppliers, event managers and marketers to be included.

Visitor Satisfaction focuses on discovering the most appropriate solutions as to what method is used to make visitors satisfied with their present vacations and loyal to the destination in the future (Kozak 2004). Thus, one should undertake regular surveys obtaining feedback from visitors about their perceptions of the quality of the destination or events and how they perform. The reason is that a dissatisfied visitor is a potential danger for the destination’s success in the future whereas a satisfied visitor is a marketing officer promoting the destination free of charge outside. One may also be expected to bear in mind that a destination attracts visitors from different segments of a market (e.g. young people, elderly, low-income level etc.) and ensure that the destination / event has the capacity to meet the needs and expectations of each group. Similarly, there are many different visitors to be served during an event. There are clients, users (guests and attendees), and numerous other stakeholders and influencers to consider (Silvers 2003).

Impact on Society focuses on investigating the direct or indirect impacts of what the destination / event management team tries to achieve in their tourism-based policies and strategies, e.g. impacts on society in terms of economic and social structure and natural environment. Social and cultural benefits of event tourism are greater participation in sports, arts, or other activities related to the event, adaptation of new social patterns or cultural forms through exposure to the event, strengthening traditions and values, and increased community pride and spirit (Bres and Davis 2001). Festivals and special events play a significant role in communities’ live because they provide important activities and spending outlets for locals and visitors, and enhance the image of local community (Getz 1997; Gursoy, Kim and Uysal 2004). If both festivals and special events organizers’ and residents’ views are similar, festival and special events can be a huge success (Gursoy, Kim and Uysal 2004). Festivals and special events reinforce social and cultural identity by building strong ties within a community (Gursoy, Kim and Uysal 2004). As a result, the practice of event management and destination marketing and its implementation in practice is important not only to visitors but also to the local community. However, the negative impacts include community resistance, loss of authenticity, inflated prices, and opportunity cost, in addition to population and media exposure to achieve legitimate issues. As an example, Jones (2001) refers to the Olympic Games as a mega-event in which accommodation for athletes, visitors, and sponsors causes a great pressure on the housing and real-estate market.

Benefits & Business Results refers to looking at what the local tourism industry has gained as a result of the practical application of policies and strategies through the use of a destination-based event management marketing (changes in the number of visitors, in the amount of tourism incomes, in the level of multiplier effect). When a country/destination organizes a mega-event, the main benefits are derived from the external material gains in the case of short-term tourism, and immaterial gains, when considering both the profile of a country and the different regions involved in the project. In both cases, a set of effects that range from the sociocultural, environmental, and physical effects to the political and economical effects are observed. According to Getz (1997), tourism is often associated with a positive economic impact that gradually takes place through the promotion of tourist destinations, thus promoting increased visits and generating more tax and new jobs. Moreover, Dickinson, Jones and Leask (2007) states that one challenge of events is the management of service
encounters within hospitality programs and the opportunities this presents for developing new tourism networks within the destination and beyond. As such, it is likely to see that hosting an event may potentially stimulate the additional one/s either in the same venue or others in the same country.

**CASE STUDY: THE UNIVERSIADE 2005**

The Universiade is an international multi-sport event, organized for university athletes by the International University Sports Federation (FISU). The name is a combination of the words "University" and "Olympiad". The Universiade is often referred to the World University Games or World Student Games with two categories: summer and winter. The first organisation of the summer games dates back to the late 1950s when Turin (Italy) was the host in 1959. Since then, both games have still been in a subsequent progress. This study is based upon an overview of the organization of the 23rd Summer Games held in Izmir (Turkey) in the summer of 2005 in terms of event management and destination marketing. Data were based on a face to face interview and a telephone conversation carried out among those people taking a direct responsibility in this organization. These include Deniz Dosdoğru (the coordinator of marketing and public relations and the promotion and media director of Sportsnet, the first and the single sports-oriented PR company of Turkey), and Gül Şener (the technical coordinator of the Universiade 2005, acting as the ex-deputy general secretary of the Metropolitan Municipality of Izmir). A face to face interview method lasting about two hours was used while contacting Ms. Şener. The data collection process with Ms. Dosdoğru took place through asking questions via e-mails and telephone conversations as she was based in Istanbul. The following information is produced as a summary output of these interviews and conversations.

**Leadership:** Thinking that it would contribute to Izmir and sports in general, the candidacy for the year 2003 was declared with a collaborative support of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Youth and Sports, and Izmir Municipality in 1999. However, Izmir was accepted for the 23rd Summer University Games to be held in 2005. Such a decision gave an additional time to get ready for the Summer Olympic Games and a chance to watch Beijing Summer Olympic Games in 2001, so as to make observations, and better planning during the preparation process. Therefore, the preparation process began with the guidance of the International University Sports Federation. The Summer Olympic Games was held with the co-operation of the Izmir Municipality, the Special Provincial Administration, and the Ministry of Youth and Sports. An estimated 9,000 people took place in the organization with the leadership of a general coordinator responsible for the organization and three assistant coordinators. For the operational levels of Universiade, a company from Istanbul was designated as the sports consultant.

**People Management:** In the scope of this organization, which was attended by almost 8,000 people, as emphasized above, different commissions were formed under main topics and the responsibility of these commissions was delegated to the mentioned three co-ordinators. Each commission worked in coordination with others. The role of these commissions was mainly administrative-based which was responsible for the planning and managing of the laborforce assigned –permanent employees, contact employees, and volunteers- before, during, and after the games. It was also responsible for obtaining necessary equipment and security. The subcommittee for security was led by the Assistant Manager of Izmir Security Department and administered a mixed group civilians and policemen where the latter were outnumbering the former. Subcommitees of health are formed of groups responsible for food and medicine. In this commission, university hospitals, state and private hospitals, Health Directorate, emergency aid associations, and free lance volunteering sports doctors all worked in co-operation. The commission in charge of health was responsible for check-ups of both the sports people and workers, supplying food and beverage in hygienic standards, and also drug controls of the sports people. It is also responsible for carrying out regular drug controls of sports people and evaluating the samples. The food commission is responsible for supplying food, beverage, and lunch box for sports people accommodating in the village, workers, security officers, and volunteers.

**Resources:** The feasibility study and the financial portrait of summer Olympic Games were ready by the end of 2003. Since the Municipality of Izmir was not able to afford the whole budget of the games, state institutions, civil initiatives, and sports organizations acted together. With the law passed in 2004, a budget was assigned for the Games. All support was provided in order to complete the games without a breakdown, for many foreign sports people and press members attended the event, which could also be viewed by people on TV or on the Internet. Besides, in cases which were not under the responsibility of the municipality, they received a state support and special authorizations, regarding electricity and water systems for instance, were attributed during the games, so that potential problems could be resolved faster and more easily. Many companies sponsored the event in different ways. Tansas, as the main sponsor, supported the event in cash, while Adidas, for instance, provided the outsif of
workers. The number of companies that realized the significance of this event in terms of sponsorship recorded a rapid increase a few months prior to taking off the organization. Later on the construction went on non-stop. THY organized direct flights to Izmir and provided free tickets as a sponsor company. Foreign Affairs Department made it easier to obtain visas. Tickets were sold by Biletix and the opening and closing gala of the games were watched by thousands of city people. In sum, all types of infrastructure and facilities and the purchase of supplies and sports equipment were obtained with a limited budget, provided that they would all be of international standards and all the sports equipment and supplies were given to the sports federation for a later use.

Processes: Among the leaders of the commission that was responsible for the sports organizations held in co-operation with Ege University were groups of sports federation, as well as scholars and students from the academy of sports. All through the games, it was among its main tasks to schedule the contests to be held in different branches. The accreditation commission was responsible for providing the accreditation cards to access into the Games Village and other related sports facilities. The transportation commission was responsible for the transportation of the sports people and that of workers and volunteers to and from the Games Village. The foreign relations commission was responsible for booking hotel rooms or plane tickets for VIP guests. The Village administration commission was responsible for the social activities and accommodation part of the facility with 10,000 beds for 15 days. The Games Village was considered to be a hotel to serve for 15 days only and was designed a year ahead. The commission in charge of directing sports facilities was established to manage 60 sports facilities in different buildings. The commission responsible for housekeeping also replaced the monolingual managers of such facilities with bilingual managers at least. The media commission managed PR and promotional activities through press centers. The commission of IT was in charge of keeping the scores of contests, recording them, and sharing them with media and was therefore regarded as the brain of the organization.

Impact on Society: The management of mega-events consists of efforts in allocating, directing, and controlling limited resources to achieve the objectives in terms of economic development and image enhancement. Thereby, the event experience that offers an opportunity for leisure, social or cultural experiences is designed to support and stress the destination branding objectives. The Summer Universiade is considered to be the biggest Universiade ever held with regard to the number of participating delegates and sports branches. The sports venues were located in Izmir, Manisa and Aydin provinces. Together with the construction of the Village of Games, investments were made into completing the system of infrastructure, sewage, electricity, and water. Supplies that would not be needed after the games, such as beds, were given away to Society for the Protection of Children. General Directorate for Youth and Sports undertook the construction of sports facilities. Having new, well‐cared facilities and proper infrastructure with the Games, Izmir now encourages the local people to undertake various sports activities, and found a chance to host numerous sports activities and fairs. Even such self-confidence has given Izmir the opportunity to become a candidacy to host EXPO 2015.

Business Results & Feedback: Providing the right way of communication, it was observed that especially Izmir is sensible in terms of sports. A positive feedback can be seen if all activities are promoted in the right way and volunteering teenagers work in such projects with joy. It is true that the Universiade helped to promote Izmir and sports people from 123 countries carried this back to their countries wth word of mouth. The TV channels that broadcast the events most were EGE TV (local‐regional) and TRT (national‐international). In terms of the time allocated for broadcasting, TRT 3 was the first, TRT INT was the second, and EGE TV was the third. Following are the results of a study undertaken about the efficiency of promotional activities. In the local and national press, 255 journalists and writers mentioned the Universiade in their articles. Particularly, “Yeni Asır” had the highest frequency of writing about the event. On press, 42% of 1,383 news/articles were “Special News”. This can be an indicator of the media’s interest to the events. The events proved successful with great participation and interest. The Universiade has certainly provided a reference for other possible organizations. Such a success has led significant opportunities to strengthen Turkey’s candidacy for the upcoming Olympic Games. One may suggest that Izmir has indirectly contributed to 2011 winter games in Erzurum. Such self-confidence has also directly given Izmir the opportunity to become a candidacy to host the EXPO 2015. It would have been the first EXPO event in the Middle East, eastern Mediterranean, Aegean and Balkans if Izmir had been voted as the host city.

CONCLUSION

Over the past few years, Turkey, particularly Istanbul, has hosted numerous sports organizations. Attempts of the authorities in Izmir to host the sports organizations, however, have been limited with the Mediterranean Games and 23rd University Summer Games, which required a professional organization. Just as holding the Mediterranean Games successfully was a reference for the
Universiade, which meant numerous facilities, participants, and sports people from different countries, Universiade has become a reference to host other possible organizations. After the experience of the Mediterranean Games, a successful organization was held with the teamwork of professionals, scholars, and volunteers. The complete event, participated in by 131 countries, was broadcasted live on TRT (The National Broadcasting Company) and partly on Eurosport, thereby promoting Izmir and Turkey in terms of successful organizations. They were considered significant opportunities to strengthen Turkey’s candidacy for the upcoming Olympic Games. Besides, Izmir contributed a lot to 2011 winter games in Erzurum because FISU members knew the people in the organization, Izmir was extremely successful, the Universiade participation was a record, and SPORTSNET, who has a great familiarity with the Universiade, led the candidacy period. It is a success that Erzurum won the race, although the competitor city was ready by all means and Erzurum had to build 33 buildings.

Magnificent opening and closing ceremonies were prepared by artists of the State Opera and Ballet organizations of different cities, presenting historical, cultural, and artistic shows. In accordance with protocols signed with TRT, financial aid was obtained and by broadcasting the events live on TV many times during the games, it helped to promote Izmir and Turkey. Many young people from different countries learned about Turkey, knew more about this country, and went back home with positive ideas. The result was a success, basically because the co-ordination of institutions lead by Izmir Municipality was with the sense of a national duty. Successful communication strategy and practices helped to spread the excitement from volunteers to audiences, from media to sports people and the whole country. This excitement brought together many records. Besides the perfect organization, the excitement of the audience was an international reference that will certainly go on for years. Completing such a significant task successfully, Izmir earned confidence and experience.

While organizing a sports event, one may also consider risk management as an important part of the organization. Solution plans were prepared in case of all possible problems and necessary precautions were taken accordingly. The organization demanded more effort because although the Universiade was considered less important than Olympic Games by public, it necessitated more efforts as the number of participants was unknown until the beginning and there were mainly amateur sports people. The preparation process for the Summer Games could be evaluated in two categories: investment and organi-

zation. The first step of the preparation was to build the Village of Games. The Village of Games was a facility built by the municipality for the accommodation of sports people, trainers, sports consultants, and technical workers from different countries. The funding of the facility was raised by selling it to the local residents in installments, to be used after the games. This facility was built so as to meet all possible needs of the sports people – fitness centers, restaurants, sick bays, places of worship for people of different religions.

To sum up by going back to the literature, according to Saayman and Saayman (2006), using events to market the destinations generate income creates a favourable image and attract investment. Therefore, in promoting an event, the destination could achieve a wider benefit where a wide range of tourism-related and non-tourism-related businesses and services achieve significant economic and social gains, e.g. building civic pride (Connell and Page 2005). Quinn (2005) states that events are considered potential “quick fix” solutions to city image problems. ‘Event’, when used in this sense, essentially refers to a place-marketing tool that is deliberately created with clear city-branding / place positioning / tourism objectives in mind (Quinn 2006). With global media attention focused on the host city, even for a relatively short duration, the publicity value is enormous, and some destinations will use this fact alone to justify great expenditures on attracting events (Getz 1991). Keeping all this information in mind, there is evidence to suggest that hosting the Universiade as a mega-event have already brought some economic and social benefits onto the businesses operating and people residing in Izmir as well as in neighbourhood settlements. Multiplier effects of such benefits will be observed in the future.

REFERENCES


Evaluating the Contribution of Tourism on Economic Growth

Juan Gabriel BRIDA  
School of Economics and Management  
Free University of Bozen-Bolzano, Italy

Juan S. PEREYRA  
Facultad de Ciencias Económicas y de Administración  
Universidad de la República  
E-mail: jpereyra@ccee.edu.uy

Maria Jues Such DEVESA  
Faculty of Economics and Management  
University of Alcala, Spain  
E-mail: mjues.such@uah.es

ABSTRACT
In a recent work, Ivanov and Webster (2007) present a methodology for measuring the contribution of tourism to economic growth and apply this methodology to the cases of Cyprus, Greece and Spain. The method uses the growth of real GDP per capita as a measure of economic growth and disaggregates it into economic growth generated by tourism and economic growth generated by other industries. Our paper selects a group of Latin-Americans countries, including Argentina, Brazil, Uruguay and Mexico. This allows us to establish a first comparison based on geographical parameters (European countries vs. Latin American countries). Whilst Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay present a profile where tourism industry has a smaller weight on GDP (2.5%; 1.5%; 1.6%, respectively) in Mexico the tourism contribution to GDP is about 4.8%.

Key words: Tourism impacts, economic growth, GDP.

INTRODUCTION
Tourism is perceived as an industry that has a positive impact on economic growth and development. (See Ghali 1976) Economic benefits are probably the main reason why so many countries are interested in the development of tourism and its contribution to the world economy is obviously important. Tourism is nowadays the second largest industry in the world (WTTC 2003) estimating its contribution as 10% of Global GDP. For many countries tourism is one of the largest employers and exporters of services and despite that, economists have paid no much attention to the empirical examination of the possible contributions of the sector to a national economy (Papatheodorou 1999). Fortunately this situation is changing and the scarcity of empirical studies about tourism impacts is being corrected. Following Var (2002: 261), it can be affirmed that “the whole world has understood the magnitude of tourism”.

The main positive economic impacts of tourism relate to foreign exchange earnings, contributions to government revenues, and generation of employment and business opportunities. Tourist expenditure represents an injection of money into a local economy at a destination. That injection is regarded as having three types of impacts: direct, indirect and induced. The direct impacts are reflected in the increased sales revenues of firms catering to tourist needs for different goods and services. These firms and organizations may purchase goods and services from suppliers within and outside of the destination region, in the latter case generating the so called leakages that have to be accounted to evaluate the direct impact. Indirect effects, on the other hand, result from ‘flows’ when direct suppliers purchase inputs from other firms in the region which, in turn, purchase inputs from other firms and so on. Almost every industry in the economy may be affected to a greater or smaller extent by an indirect effect of the initial tourist expenditure, depending upon how tightly knotted is the economy’s network. Induced effects arise when the recipients of the direct and indirect expenditure – owners of firms and their employees – spend their increased incomes. This, in turn, sets off a process of successive rounds of purchases by intermediate firms, plus further consumption, adding to GDP and employment. Indirect and induced effects are sometimes collectively called secondary effects. These positive effects of tourism on economic growth and development of a region are recognized as fundamental, especially for developing countries.

There is a wealth of information collected on tourism for a large set of countries. There are details of who visits and how much they spend and do while they are in a destination. The headline figures concentrate on numbers of visitors, the number of nights they stay and how much they spend in total. This information is invaluable to those involved in tourism, but it is not useful to measure the size and make-up of tourism in a region and to evaluate how it contributes to the economy as a whole. The main difficulty in measuring the economic impact of tourism is that the total economic impact of tourism is the sum of direct, indirect, and induced effects within a region and there is no data that can reflect these aspects. Tourism is not an industry in the traditional sense, but rather an activity that takes place over a number of industry sectors (including accommodation, catering, transport, hospitality, entertainment and retail trade) and then measuring the economic impact of tourism is a very complex matter.
There is literature related to measure the impact of tourism on GDP. Two methodologies are usually applied to estimate the impact of tourism on GDP: Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) and Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) models. CGE models recognize that tourism is one (aggregate) sector among many in an economy competing against many other for scarce resources (Dwyer et al. 2003). These authors argue that CGE simulations of the effects of tourism growth on key macroeconomics variables indicate a trend to “crowd out” other sectors of economic activity, reducing output and employment in those sectors. For Blake et al. (2000) CGE models provide an important tool for policy makers and for business people wishing to plan for the future. Comparing with Input-Output models, CGE can show the inter-industry feedback effects and resource constraints (Dwyer et al. 2006) although Input-Output analysis is the technique most often used to quantify the impacts of tourism (Fletcher 1994). Input-Output methodology presents as main weakness that it assumes unrealistic bases that tend to exaggerate the effect of tourism growth on destination output, income and employment (Briassoulis 1991; Groenwald et al. 1993; Dwyer and Forstyh 1998; Dwyer et al. 2003, among others). In general, CGE models allow a greater understanding of the nature of the impact of external shocks and policy changes. Studies of the economic contribution of tourism in state economies using CGE model have been recently undertaken like the one for USA (Blake et al. 2000) or for Hawaii (Zhao et al. 1997) arguing that tourism can increase a destination’s welfare by turning the terms of trade in its favor. Nevertheless these studies show that the economic contribution of tourism is much more modest than estimates based on input-output analysis would suggest. Furthermore, as postulated by Copeland (1991), Dwyer and Forsyth (1993), Nowak et al. (2003), Nowak and Sahli (2007), among others, in the presence of some distortions in the host economy—real economies have distortions like trade taxes (Woodland 1982; Lahiri and Ono, 1989), foreign ownership of factors (Bhagwati and Tironi 1980; Micheal 1992) and others—an inbound tourism expansion can improve welfare but also could even reduce welfare (i.e. Gooroochurn and Blake 2005) applied to Mauritius a CGE model to show how tourism expansion can be immiserizing to an economy under certain conditions.

In a recent paper, Ivanov and Webster (2007) present a methodology for measuring the contribution of tourism to economic growth and apply this methodology to the cases of Cyprus, Greece and Spain. The method uses the growth of real GDP per capita as a measure of economic growth and disaggregates it into economic growth generated by tourism and economic growth generated by other industries. The method has the particularity that gives an “ex post estimate (what has really happened)” (p.383) related to tourism contribution on GDP being a “supplementary forecasts verification tool to CGE models” (p.383) while CGE models simulate what will happen in the economy as a consequence of external shocks, but do not state what has already happened. This growth decomposition methodology is tested with data for Cyprus, Greece and Spain and it is compared with other existing methodologies used to measure the contribution of tourism on economic growth. It is remarkable that this methodology only allows to measure direct effects of tourism activities on general GDP of the economy and this is a limitation in terms of results of impacts of tourism on economic growth.

In this paper we select a group of Latin-Americans countries, including Argentina, Brazil, Uruguay and Mexico. Main reason for this election is that we can find two groups among them in terms of tourism development and its contribution to each country GDP. Whilst Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay present a profile where tourism industry has a smaller weight on GDP (2.5%; 1.5%; 1.6%, respectively) in Mexico the tourism contribution to GDP is about 4.8%. Also we have the possibility to compare results between a Latin American group of countries and the European sample studied by Ivanov and Webster (2007). This allows us to establish a first comparison based on geographical parameters.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we discuss our data and methodology. In section 3 we present the empirical results. Concluding remarks are in section 4.

**METHODOLOGY**

The first problem we face with measuring the contribution of tourism to economic growth is that most countries lack the appropriate data and information. Being an activity defined by consumers at the point of consumption, tourism does not exist as a distinct sector in any system of national accounts. In effect any form of expenditure that tourists make is a contribution to the economy that is generated by tourism. Traditionally a large proportion of tourist expenditure goes into identifiable tourism characteristic sectors such as transport, hotels and recreation but tourists also spend money in other sectors which are not normally associated with tourism. For example, Meis (1999) shows that only 75% of all tourism GDP came from industries in the Canadian tourism sector. Given that the economic contribution of tourism is spread across a series of different sectors, it is consequently, very difficult to identify how tourism can contribute to an economy. This is the first restriction of our exercise be-
cause, using data from systems of national accounts, we will consider as “tourism” only what might be classed as tourism related sectors (i.e., hotels and restaurants).

Following the recent contribution of Ivanov and Webster (2007), in this paper we will use the growth rate of real GDP per capita \( g_r \) in constant prices as the measure of economic growth:

\[
g_r = \left( \frac{\sum Y^T_{r(p_0)} - \sum Y^{T-1}_{r(p_0)}}{N_r} \right) - \left( \frac{\sum Y^{T-1}_{r(p_0)}}{N_{r-1}} \right)
\]

where \( \sum Y^T_{r(p_0)} \) is the total GDP of the economy in the period \( r \) at prices \( p_0 \) (constant prices) and \( N_r \) is the population in period \( r \). Then, disaggregating the GDP of tourism from the GDP of the rest of the economy we obtain:

\[
g_r = \left( \frac{Y^T_{r(p_0)} - Y^{T-1}_{r(p_0)}}{N_r} \right) - \left( \frac{\sum_{r=t}^{r-1} Y^T_{r(p_0)}}{N_{r-1}} \right)
\]

and the first component in this expression:

\[
g^{r}_r = \left( \frac{Y^T_{r(p_0)} - Y^{T-1}_{r(p_0)}}{N_r} \right)
\]

represents the direct contribution of the tourism industry on economic growth in the period \( r \). Note that \( g^{r}_r \) measures the part of GDP produced by the tourism sector where this sector is formed.

**RESULTS**

The data to test the proposed methodology were obtained from the official websites of national statistics institutes of the selected countries\(^1\). The results are presented in Tables 1a and 1b and in Figure1.

In the case of Mexico, because of the availability of data from the Tourism Satellite Account and data of the hotels and restaurants sector from the system of national accounts, we can compare both indicators. Doing that, it is observed that using the tourism satellite account the weight of the tourism sector on GDP is about 7% in the year 2004, while using the hotels and restaurants sector that participation is 4%. Then, if we use the data of hotels and restaurants sector from the system of national accounts to measure the weight of the tourism sector, that methodology only represents around 60% of the total weight of the tourism sector in the total GDP of the economy. But, being that only in the case of Mexico we have a TSA, to compare the results of all selected countries, we must use the hotels and restaurants sectors as a measure of the tourism sector.

---

\(^1\) In particular, Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Censos (www.indec.mecon.ar) for Argentina, Banco Central do Brasil (www.bcb.gov.br) for Brazil, Instituto Nacional de Estadística Geográfica e Informática (www.inegi.gob.mx) for Mexico and Banco Central del Uruguay (www.bcu.gub.uy) for Uruguay.
Tourism industry is more important to Argentina and Mexico’s economies although it can be observed some oscillations. (See Figure 1) In terms of tourism contribution to economic growth the situation is different for Uruguay and Brazil.

In Uruguay the incidence of tourism industry is of less importance along the time but in 2004 the contribution of tourism industry increases and it is positive after years of negative results.

Figure 1 shows a similar trend of all the countries of the sample. In general terms it can be noted that periods of growth and decline of the contribution of tourism to economic growth are simultaneous but with different intensity. This fact can be interpreted as a regional tendency of the role of tourism in these economies.
It is considered that these selected countries represent almost all the potential that exists in Latin America for tourism industry in terms of its contribution to general wealth in the region. However it can be observed that in the case of Mexico, the most tourism oriented of all the studied, the percentage of the tourism GDP in total GDP is decreasing and the contribution of tourism to economic growth, even positive in 2004, has been negative during the former years. In constant prices the situation in Mexico is clearly positive but only in the last year of the exercise.

In the case of Brazil – a country in which the different governments are specially concerned by tourism development during last years- the analysis reflects the reality of a diversified economy showing the scarce contribution of tourism to economic growth. This is coherent considering the importance of the other economic activities and allow to take this country into consideration in terms of potentiality for tourism sector development in the future. Eugenio-Martín et al. (2004), after having studied the role of tourism in economic growth in Latin American countries, concluded that tourism development might contribute to the economic growth of the country provided it is below GDP per capita threshold, while such a role is not clear if the country is already developed (they consider a subdivision among countries according to income per capita and Argentina, Brazil, Mexico and Uruguay have a high income per capita).

There is a growing concern to be considered because sometimes tourism development, particularly when it is rapid and uncontrolled, is characterized by a process of relocation of land from traditional activities (agriculture, fishing, forestry) to dedicate it to build accommodation and other infrastructure with a great impact from both environmental and socio-economic perspective. This vulnerability may put at risk the long-term sustainability of tourism-based economic development of these countries if tourism is not properly planned and managed (Novak and Sahli 2007). In this sense special attention has to be paid to tourism development in some Mexican regions.

CONCLUSION

This paper examines the methodology proposed by Ivanov and Webster (2007) applying it to the cases of some Latin American economies declared as tourism oriented ones: Mexico, Argentina, Brazil and Uruguay. The analysis allows us to compare our results with the ones from Ivanov and Webster (2007). It can be observed a minor relative contribution of tourism to economic growth in all the studied countries against the results obtained for the European ones (Greece, Cyprus and Spain). In general terms we can affirm that the direct contribution of tourism to economic growth in the countries of the sample is not as relevant as it is general supposed. In any case, it is clear that the contribution must be measured in local terms but not in an economy as a whole.

Following Dwyer et al. (2003) it is more realistic now to recognize that the main effect of an increase in tourism is to alter the composition of economic activity so agents need to adopt a wider view to support tourism development for a destination as a whole. An analysis of the interactions between tourism and other economic activities is important in view of the public debate on the effects of tourism, evidencing the problem of competition for resources between different activities. It seems that this last problem affects specially to small island economies (i.e. Nowak and Sahli 2007) due to the scarcity of land and other resources like water but it could be a problem of sustainability for many other economies trying to impulse tourism industry intensively. We present this study as another contribution to better understand the impacts of tourism in different economies although this analysis is limited to tourism growth’s effects to a simple evaluation of its direct economic impacts as a first step of a wider study.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Our research was supported by the Free University of Bolzano, project: “Dynamic Methods in Tourism Economics”.

REFERENCES


WTTC (2003). *Travel and Tourism: A World of Opportunity*

INTRODUCTION

It is well known that tourism is one of the most important factors in the productivity of a national economy having significant multiplier effects on economic activity. In the last years, it has become an extremely important employment and revenue generator internationally, providing jobs directly through the tourism industry itself and indirectly through the supply of many goods and services that are inputs to the tourism industry. In this sense, it is possible to explain the tourism impact on economic growth, based on the export-led growth hypothesis (ELGH) which postulates that export growth is one of the key determinants of economic growth⁴. According to its advocates, exports can perform as an "engine of growth". On the tourist export notion, an important contribution on the tourism-led growth hypothesis (TLGH) is due to Balager and Cantavella-Jordà (2002) and Cortés and Paulina (2006), they show that international tourism can be considered firstly as a non-traditional export since it implies a source of receipts and, secondly, international tourism is considered as a potential strategic factor to economic growth.

Nowadays, Mexico can be a suitable country to assess the TLGH. In this paper, we will show how the tourism causes economic growth and this fact can support the TLGH theory. A first view of this causality explains that Mexico’s international tourism arrivals and revenues were up, at least, in the last five years. Moreover, there are no country rivals to Mexico in foreign tourism arrivals and earnings in Latin America. Tourism is one of the most important economic sectors in Mexico, making up 9.4 % of the gross national product. The country is a “tourism giant” even on an international scale. In 2000, Mexico was the 8th most popular travel destination, with 20.6 millions arrivals. The tourism sector is the largest “employer” in Mexico, offering around 3.2 million jobs, and 9.5 % of all employees work in this sector. In addition, the tourist sector will probably grow faster than any other industry in Mexico in the next few years. The World Travel and Tourism Council forecasts a 7.7 annual growth rate (in terms of constant prices) up to 2012 (World Travel and Tourism Council 2002). Today, more Mexicans work in the tourism sector than in any other. Considering the TLGH theory, just with a little view of data, it shows that tourism is the largest service export in Mexico and then ranks in the top exports, see details in

ABSTRACT

Tourism is one of the most important factors in the productivity of a national economy with significant multiplier effects on economic activity. This paper investigates possible causal relationships between tourism expenditure, real exchange rate and economic growth by using quarterly data. Johansen co-integration analysis shows the existence of one cointegrated vector among real GDP, tourism expenditure, and real exchange rate where the corresponding elasticities are positive. The tourism-led growth hypothesis is confirmed through cointegration and causality testing. Expenditure is weakly exogenous to real GDP producing a more than proportional effect in growth (It means real GDP increases 60% more when expenditure in tourism is increased). Short-run Granger Causality shows that causality goes from expenditure to GDP, and there is a bidirectional short-run causality between real exchange rate and real GDP. Impulse response analysis shows that a shock in expenditure produce a continuous positive effect on growth while a shock in real exchange rate produces first a negative effect and then a positive one.

Key words: Economic growth, tourism income, Johansen Cointegration test, Granger causality.

Juan Gabriel BRIDA
School of Economics and Management
Free University of Bolzano, Italy
E-mail: JuanGabriel.Brida@unibz.it

Edgar J. S. CARRERA
Department of Economics
University of Siena, Italy
E-mail: sanchezcarre@unisi.it

W. Adrin RISSO
Department of Economics
University of Siena, Italy
E-mail: risso@unisi.it

Stefan F. SCHUBERT
School of Economics and Management
Free University of Bolzano, Italy
E-mail: StefanFranz.Schubert@unibz.it

¹It holds that the overall growth of countries can be generated not only by increasing the amounts of labor and capital within the economy, but also by expanding exports.
Clancy (2000). Consequently, tourism is a key for the Mexican economic growth (see Figure 1).

![Graph of Mexican GDP and Number of Tourists]

*Figure 1: Evolution of Mexican GDP and Number of Tourists*

There are current empirical papers using time series techniques, which analyze the tourism industry’s contribution to a country’s economic growth. For instance, Balaguer and Cantavella-Jordà (2002) for Spain; Dritsakis (2004) for Greece; Gunduz and Hatemi-J (2005) for Turkey (they found a support to the TLGH theory); Noriko and Motosugu (2007), Gani (1998) who investigated the sources of economic growth for several small island states. Oh (2005) for Korea; Kim et al. (2006) for Taiwan and Louca (2006). Similarly, employing the convergence approach based on Barro and Sala-i-Martin (1992) type analysis, Proença and Soukiazis (2005) examine the impact of tourism on the per capita income growth of Portuguese regions, concluding that tourism can be considered as an alternative solution for enhancing regional growth in Portugal, if the supply characteristics of this sector are improved.

Considering the contribution of the above references, one goal of this paper is to investigate possible causal relationships between tourism expenditure ($TourExp$), real exchange rate ($RER$) and economic growth ($GDP$) in one tourism-oriented country such as Mexico, in order to provide a plausible answer to the following question:

*“Does the tourism sector cause economic growth and/or Can it be a key factor for the Mexican economy?”*

From the answer to this question we draw some conclusions concerning the potential economic development of Mexico by means of tourism economic activities.

The hypotheses are tested empirically by using the Johansen co-integration developed by Johansen (1988), Johansen and Joselius (1990) and Johansen (1995), and the Granger causality tests due to Granger (1988). In advance, we will show that the co-integration analysis suggests the existence of a cointegration relationship among the three mentioned variables, which indicates the presence of a common trend or long-run relationships among them. The results of the causality analysis indicate that tourism expenditure causes economic growth in the Granger sense such that the TLGH theory can be applied. While economic growth and real exchange rate present a bidirectional short-run causality.

The paper is organized as follows. Section two presents the specification of the model and the data set used to examine the causal relationships among gross domestic product, real effective exchange rate and tourism expenditure. Section three shows the econometric results of the study. Section four gives a comparative analyzes on the obtained results. Finally in the last section we draw our conclusions and present some future lines of studying.

**SPECIFICATION OF THE MODEL AND DATA SET**

We are going to study the causal relationship among three variables: tourism expenditure, real exchange rate and economic growth. To test the causality we specify the following Vector Auto Regressive (VAR) model:

---

1. In the case of the economic growth performance of Greece, Dritsakis shows that tourism has a long-run economic growth effect. Using Spain’s economic data, Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda confirm the validity of tourism-led growth hypothesis for long-run economic performance. Oh for Korea, Tosun (1999), and Gunduz and Hatemi (2005) for Turkey have also found empirical support for the tourism-led growth hypothesis.

2. A survey of the nature of causal relationships on tourism can be found in Shan and Wilson (2001).
The model is represented in a first-differenced error correction form as shown in equation (2):

\[
\Delta Y_t = \mu + \Pi Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \Gamma_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t
\]

where \( Y = (\text{real GDP}, \text{Tour.Exp}, \text{RER}) \) vector containing the variables, \( \mu \) is a vector of constant terms. Matrix \( \Pi \) conveys information about the long-run relationship between the \( Y \) variables, and the rank of \( \Pi \) is the number of linearly independent and stationary linear combinations of the variables studied. As usual in co-integration analysis, a unit root test is applied in order to study the stationarity of the series. In case of being non-stationary we applied the Johansen cointegration test in order to detect long-run relationships in the data. Besides, weakly exogeneity is tested in the model and the Granger causality test is applied in order to analyze causality between the variables.

In the present study quarterly data during the period 1980–2006 were considered for the Mexican economy, GDP was obtained from the Central Bank of Mexico. The tourism expenditure (TourExp) was taken from the entrance of foreign currency by concept of international tourist, INEGI. Real exchange rate (RER) is constructed by using data from the Index of Real Exchange Rate (Mexico-111 countries) and the Central Bank of Mexico. Note in Figure 2 that a first view of the tourist evolution in Mexico shows that in average the tourism/GDP participation is around 8 percent. The latter can be interpreted as an important contributor of the economy.

**METHODOLOGY**

Time series generally present trends (stochastic or deterministic) producing significant OLS parameter estimations and high coefficient of determination, \( R^2 \), when putting together in a linear regression, nonetheless residuals are not stationary violating the classical assumption. This problem is known as spurious regression, Phillips (1986) remarked that in this case co-integration techniques have to be applied. The first step in cointegration analysis is to study the integration order of the series by using unit root test. Among the latter we can find Augmented Dickey-Fuller test (ADF) and the KPSS test. The null hypothesis in the case of ADF-test is that the process is integrated \( I(1) \) and it is accepted unless there is strong evidence against it. On the other hand null hypothesis in the case of KPSS test is stationarity complementing ADF test which has low power against stationary near unit root processes. Therefore a stationary process rejects null hypothesis for ADF but it does not in the case of KPSS test. Table 1 and 2 show unit root test for the logarithm of the variables in levels and in differences.

**Table 1. Unit Root Test results: Levels**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>real GDP</th>
<th>tour.expend.</th>
<th>RER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit Root Test</td>
<td>ADF</td>
<td>KPSS</td>
<td>ADF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-3.31</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>-1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trend, Constant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>-2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without Trend, Const.</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>-1.48</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Null Hypothesis Rejection at 5%
The 4th World Conference for Graduate Research in Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure

Unit Root Test results: First Difference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>ADF</th>
<th>KPSS</th>
<th>ADF</th>
<th>KPSS</th>
<th>ADF</th>
<th>KPSS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trend, Constant</td>
<td>-4.56</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-4.07</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-3.24</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without Trend, Const.</td>
<td>-4.52</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>-2.72</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>-2.83</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Unit Root Test: First Difference

According to tests, time series are integrated processes of first order, I(1). Hence classical econometrics is not applied and we have to study the existence of a cointegrating relationship. One method is the two-step procedure proposed by Engle and Granger (1987). However this method assumes the existence of only one cointegrating vector. Most general procedure was proposed by Johansen (1988) and Johansen and Juselius (1990), this test has the advantage of testing all the possible cointegrating relationship.

Table 3: Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None*</td>
<td>0.262</td>
<td>48.013</td>
<td>35.193</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 1</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>19.158</td>
<td>20.262</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 2</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>6.889</td>
<td>9.164</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Maximum Eigenvalue

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None*</td>
<td>0.262</td>
<td>28.855</td>
<td>22.300</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 1</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>12.270</td>
<td>15.892</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 2</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>6.889</td>
<td>9.164</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

McCallum (1984) presents a clear example about the importance of studying exogeneity in a model, it can even affect the sign of the relationship. Therefore, in order to do inference we should at least check weakly exogeneity. Existence of weakly exogeneity permits to use the estimated equation without modeling the variable that we do not consider endogenous to the model. Note in Table V

Table 4: Cointegrating Vector

Table V: Weakly Exogeneity of Real Expenditure

Table: Weakly Exogeneity of Real Expenditure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None*</td>
<td>0.262</td>
<td>28.855</td>
<td>22.300</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 1</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>12.270</td>
<td>15.892</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 2</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>6.889</td>
<td>9.164</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: * Denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

Banerjee et al. (1993) highlight the important connection between a cointegration relationship and the corresponding long-run equilibrium equation. Searching for a cointegration relation is searching for a statistical equilibrium between variables tending to grow over time. The discrepancy of this equilibrium can be modeled by a Vector Error Correction (VEC) model (as in equation (2)) which shows how after a shock the variables come back to the equilibrium. A lag length of 4 was selecting according to minimum AIC-criteria.

To determine the number of cointegrating equations, the Johansen maximum likelihood method provides two different likelihood ratio tests; one is based on the trace statistic and the other is based on the maximum eigenvalue. Note in Table 3 that both of the tests detect the existence of one cointegrating vector.

Table 4. Cointegrating Vector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None*</td>
<td>0.262</td>
<td>48.013</td>
<td>35.193</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 1</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>19.158</td>
<td>20.262</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 2</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>6.889</td>
<td>9.164</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Trace and Max. Eigen. test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level

Note in Table 4 that in the long-run tourism expenditure is positively related with real GDP and Real Exchange Rate (RER).

Table 5: Weakly Exogeneity of Real Expenditure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None*</td>
<td>0.262</td>
<td>28.855</td>
<td>22.300</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 1</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>12.270</td>
<td>15.892</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 2</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>6.889</td>
<td>9.164</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level

Trace and Max. Eigen. test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level
that in the present case even if the jointed test rejects weakly exogeneity, Real 
Expenditure is weakly exogenous at 3% of significance.

Cointegration implies that correlation exists between the series but it does 
not indicate the direction of the causal relationship. The dynamic Granger cau-
sality can be captured from the VAR model. In a cointegrating model the 
Granger Causality in the long-run is equivalent to test the weakly exogeneity. 
Table 6 shows long-run Granger causality between the variables.

Table 6: Pairwise Granger Causality Tests 11

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null Hypothesis</th>
<th>F Statistic</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tour.Expend d. does not Granger Cause real GDP</td>
<td>2.7095</td>
<td>0.061 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>real GDP does not Granger Cause Tour.Expend d.</td>
<td>0.7317</td>
<td>0.704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RER does not Granger Cause real GDP</td>
<td>4.8871</td>
<td>0.000 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>real GDP does not Granger Cause RER</td>
<td>1.0177</td>
<td>0.4411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RER does not Granger Cause Tour.Expend d.</td>
<td>2.2049</td>
<td>0.0243 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour.Expend d. does not Granger Cause RER</td>
<td>0.4901</td>
<td>0.9029</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Equation (3) shows the long-run equilibrium or cointegrating equation after testing weakly exogeneity of Real Expenditure.

\[
(\text{real GDP}) = 9.09 + 1.46(\text{Tour.Expend.}) + 1.39(\text{RER}),
\]

Note that Real Expenditure is weakly exogenous and in the long run Granger causality test it causes GDP. Note that elasticity of real GDP respect to tourism expenditure is 1.46, then increasing the tourism expenditure will produce an increment more than proportional in product Since we found a cointegrating equation it is possible to estimate the VEC model allowing for short-run adjustment dynamics. Therefore we can study the dynamic Granger causality in the VEC model specification by running pair wise Granger causality tests. Table 7 suggests that tourism expenditure causes real GDP while short-run causality between real GDP and RER is bidirectional.

Furthermore, we study how real GDP responds over time to shocks in Tourism Expenditure and RER. Figure 3 shows that after a shock in Tourism Expenditure the real GDP presents a positive response all the time. A shock in

RER first produce a negative response but then a positive reaction on the real GDP.

Table 7. VEC Granger Causality/Block Exogeneity Wald Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable: Δ(real GDP)</th>
<th>Chi²</th>
<th>prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Δ(Tour.Expend.)</td>
<td>21.639</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ(RER)</td>
<td>40.767</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>77.619</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable: Δ(Tour.Expend.)</th>
<th>Chi²</th>
<th>prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Δ(real GDP)</td>
<td>2.026</td>
<td>0.731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ(RER)</td>
<td>6.539</td>
<td>0.162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>8.551</td>
<td>0.381</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable: Δ(RER)</th>
<th>Chi²</th>
<th>prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Δ(real GDP)</td>
<td>13.722</td>
<td>0.008*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Δ(Tour.Expend.)</td>
<td>2.721</td>
<td>0.605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>15.559</td>
<td>0.049*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Indicate 5% level of significance

Figure 3. Impulse Response of real GDP to Tourism Expenditure and RER

\[
T = \text{int}(2(T/100)^{1/4}), \quad \text{where} \quad T \quad \text{is the sample size and} \quad k \quad \text{is the lag length.}
\]
In summary, a positive shock in the earning of tourism positively affects the long-run real GDP. A positive shock in the Real Exchange rate, RER, (Real Devaluation) has first a negative effect for 6 quarters and then a high positive effect, this is the widely discussed J-curve.

Let us compare our results with those similar papers carried out by Dritsakis (2004) (case of Greece) and Balaguer and Cantavella (2002) (case of Spain). To sum up the results, first time series are non-stationary, since most of the economic time series seems to be integrated process. Second, it is obtained a unique co-integrating relationship among the three variables indicating a long-run relationship among them. In third place, international earning of tourism is weakly exogenous, thus it can be considered exogenous to the model and it is not relevant its modelling. Third, analyzing the final equation (3), all the signs are positive and significative. Hence, earning of tourism and real exchange rate have positive effects on the economic growth. Causality goes from earning of tourism and real exchange rate to real GDP. Finally, the impulse response shows: i) A positive shock in the Earning of tourism positively affects the long-run real GDP and, ii) An interesting result is that a positive shock in the Real Exchange rate (Real Devaluation) has first a negative effect for 6 quarters and then a high positive effect. This effect is the well known J-curve effect introduced by Magee (1973) and empirically modelled by Bahmani and Oskooee (1985).

The main difference with Dritsakis (2004) is found on the causal direction, we obtain just one direction (from tourist activity to GDP) whereas he find both directions (or bidirectional causality), going from tourist activity to GDP and from GDP to tourist activity. However, similar to him we obtained a "Granger causal" relationship between international tourism earnings and economic growth and also similar is the "strong Granger causal" on real exchange rate and economic grow, that is, bidirectional in both Mexican and Greek cases. On the part of the cointegration analysis Dritsakis obtained also the existence of a cointegration relationship among the three variables with similar signs and significance.

For the Spanish case Balaguer and Cantavella (2002) found a cointegration relationship indicated that tourism positively affects Spanish economic growth over time (same result in our Mexican case). As in most empirical research on the impact of exports in economic growth, the external competition has a key role when analyzing a possible long-run relationship. We like Balaguer and Cantavella (2002) found that either Spain and Mexico the corresponding elasticities of tourism and real exchange rate have significant effects on the economic growth of each country. Another similar result with Balaguer and Cantavel (2002) is that tourism affects unidirectionally to Spain’s economic growth like the Mexican tourism positively affects the long-run real GDP.

Finally, in this paper (like the case of Spain) our main result of causality testing confirms the existence of that relationship in unidirectional way going from tourism to GDP, this is in Granger sense, and moreover, it provides necessary arguments to support the tourism-led growth hypothesis (TLGH) for the Mexican economy.

**CONCLUSION**

The impact of tourism sector to Mexican economic growth is highly significant. The main goal of this study was to investigate the effect of international tourism on the economic growth of Mexico. The results basically show that the spending of international tourists positively impacts the Mexican economic growth. In this sense, Note that the elasticity of real GDP to earning of tourism (1.46), shows that an increment in tourism expenditure produces a more than proportional increment in growth. Real exchange rate produce a similar effect with elasticity 1.39. Of course both effects have statistical significance. The tourism-led growth hypothesis might be applied to the Mexican economy suggesting that tourism is an important determinant of overall long-run economic growth.

We showed that a positive shock on tourist activities positively affects the long-run real GDP. A positive shock on RER (real devaluation) has first a negative effect for 6 quarters and then a high positive effect. The latter confirm the well known J-curve proposition suggested by Magee (1973).

A policy implication which may be drawn from this study is that Mexico can improve its economic growth performance, not only by investing on the traditional sources of growth such as investment in physical and human capital, trade, and foreign direct investment, but also by strategically harnessing the contribution of the tourism industry and improving their governance perform-
ance. Since tourism is an important engine of local development, and earnings by foreign currency and tax revenues, it is necessary to increase the domestic tourism in order to have a more decentralization of the local development caused by such activity.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research was supported by the Free University of Bolzano, project: Market imperfections and tourism policy.

REFERENCES


The Contribution of Visitor Information Centres (VICs) in Promoting Natural and Cultural Recourses in Emerging Tourism Destinations

Karipis I. KONSTANTINOS  
Interdepartmental Program of Postgraduate Studies in Tourism Planning, Management and Policy  
University of the Aegean, Greece  
E-mail: kkarpis@aegean.gr

Tsimitakis N. EMMANOUIL  
Interdepartmental Program of Postgraduate Studies in Tourism Planning, Management and Policy  
University of the Aegean, Greece  
E-mail: e.tsimitakis@aegean.gr

Skoultos G. SOFOKLIS  
Interdepartmental Program of Postgraduate Studies in Tourism Planning, Management and Policy  
University of the Aegean, Greece  
E-mail: sskoultos@aegean.gr

ABSTRACT

This paper presents the contribution of VICs in promoting Natural and Cultural Recourses in Emerging Tourism Destinations in Greece. The Prefecture Drama is an example of a Greek emerging tourism destination, located in Northern Greece, isolated from the main trade and urban centers of the country. In addition, the main problems concerning the Prefecture’s tourism sector are the lack of a tourism identity, of a holistic tourism product and of significant tourism flows. This paper focuses on the role and contribution of VICs in the promotion of an emerging destination’s natural and cultural resources, in order to manage the existed tourism flows. Managing tourism flows in an area means not only to inform visitors about tourism products and services, but also to provide them with all the necessary information they might need in order to make their stay safe, memorable, qualitative, in other words an enhanced tourism experience.  

Key words: Visitor information centre (VIC), emerging tourism destinations, the prefecture of Drama, holistic tourism product, tourism development.

INTRODUCTION

The development of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and especially the Internet, has made it possible for potential visitors to have access to holistic tourism information for every destination around the world (Connell and Reynolds 1999). It is a fact that there are many places that have not yet developed their tourism potential. These places are also known as emerging tourism destinations and in order to attract this new generation of well-informed tourists, they have to respond to the new tourism trends (Mathieson and Wall 1982). This can be achieved with the development of holistic tourism products which are promoted using ICT. One of the most effective means of promoting holistic tourism products using ICT, is Visitors Information Centres (VICs) (Connell and Reynolds 1999).

In recent years there has been an increased recognition of the role of Visitors Information Centres and the importance of them in providing high-quality tourism information. Accreditation of VICs aims to raise the standards of this information provision, by developing guidelines and criteria that encourage more professional practices and a programme of continuous improvement (Hobbin 1999). They operate in local and regional level, as a mean of collecting, managing and promoting all the necessary information that tourists need before, during and after their visit. There are many visitors who are already well informed before visiting a destination, mostly through the internet, however by visiting a VIC they can collect more accurate and up-to-date information in order to better organize their trip.

Having access to high-quality tourism information is of most importance to visitors. This information is primarily provided using brochures and maps, and sometimes, depending on the budget, is provided through digital means (information kiosks, touch screens etc.) (Huffman and Williams 1983). While VICs have limited influence in the trip planning process, they provide an important and influential source of information once visitors are in the region.

Finally, emerging tourism destinations at local and regional level, invest heavily in VICs as a key component of the tourism services and product promotion strategies (Symonds Travers Morgan 1997; Fesenmaier and Vogt 1993). VICs are considered to be one of the key measures in increasing tourism yield. Increased yield is measured in extending the visitors’ length of stay and increasing their expenditure (Tierney 1993).

MANAGING AND PROMOTING EMERGING TOURISM DESTINATIONS

Greece is one of the most famous tourism destinations in global level. The Greek tourism product is mostly based on the model of mass tourism. In 2006, more than sixteen million tourists visited Greece, the vast majority of which spend their vacations in Greek islands that highly represent the model of mass
tourism in Greece (General Secretariat of National Statistical Service of Greece 2006). During the last two decades, however, an increased number of tourists are interested in having more tourism activities during their trips. New forms of tourism have been developed in order to enhance the tourism product and meet the differentiated needs and desires of tourists. In Greece, these new forms of tourism can be either supplementary activities in coastal areas or autonomous activities in peripheral and rural areas. Most rural areas in Greece have not yet developed tourism activities, although they have significant cultural and natural resources.

These areas are also known as emerging tourism destinations, characterized by the lack of central tourism policy and tourism facilities and as a result they have very low tourism flows. Most of the Greek emerging destinations are located in central and northern Prefectures, far away from the major economic and commercial centers of Greece (Athens, Thessaloniki, Patras and Larissa).

The Prefecture Drama is a characteristic example of a Greek emerging tourism destination, located in Northern Greece, with very low economic development due to the deindustrialization during the ‘50s and the ‘60s as well as during the ‘90s. In addition, the main problems concerning the tourism sector are the lack of a tourism identity, of a holistic tourism product and of significant tourism flows. However, the Prefecture of Drama has significant natural and cultural resources, traditions and the potential to develop a series of activities which could offer a differentiated and enhanced tourism product.

There could be a series of possible solutions and measures for solving the problems arising in the tourism sector in the Prefecture of Drama. For example, the use of ICT (e.g. Internet Promotion) in order to attract tourism flows, regional and local tourism policy, quality products and services, marketing tools (e.g. commercial promotion, pricing policy etc.), as well as action in local level such as tourism cluster formations, info kiosks, VICs etc. This paper’s key study focuses on the contribution of a VIC in promoting the cultural and natural resources of the Prefecture of Drama, as well as its role in informing visitors about where and how to go, what to do etc.

WHAT IS A VISITOR INFORMATION CENTRE (VIC)?

A Visitor Information Centre is considered to be a complete tourist guide, which connects people and potential tourists with an area’s tourism circuit. VICs aim to enrich the visitor’s experience and encourage visitors to stay longer in an area. They inform the visitor of what to do and see and where to stay, they increase the amount of money visitors spend in a region and contribute to regional dispersal of visitors.

Not all communities require a VIC. One regional VIC may well service several towns. In fact, given the cost of running them this is a preferred option. A town requires significant depth and diversity of tourism product to support a VIC. Unaccredited centres are perfectly adequate and appropriate for some communities where there is a lack of tourism product, staffing and resources to support the service and where tourism is not the dominant industry but adds value to the key economic drivers.

A Visitor Information Centre could also be considered as a tourism attraction, but this is not always true as depends on the type of Centre it is. It is not an attraction if it primarily provides a visitor information service to visitors. It may be a cultural or heritage tourism attraction if it incorporates an interpretive display or is collocated with a cultural or heritage attraction. Cultural and heritage assets are recognised as important tourism attractions. Some attractions are powerful in that they are known to shape the image of a destination and draw visitors to the region (e.g. the Acropolis in Athens, the Eifel Tower in Paris and Agia Sofia in Constantinople etc.). Mostly, VICs are secondary or tertiary attractions which complete the visitor experience by providing a range of activities for visitors while at the destination but are not known to create an image of an area or to pull visitors to it.

A VIC is targeted at local, regional, national and international visitors seeking information and/or advice on a tourism region, tourism destination or touring route. Establishing an integrated visitor servicing program is in fact preferable in local and regional communities. (Kyöstilä et al. 2001). This means ensuring that visitors can access basic information through key points within a community, including the area’s holistic tourism product (tourism products, services, resources and infrastructures). It also means that the locals understand the benefits in knowing more about their area and sharing that information with visitors. Organising training and familiarisation tours for small business operators and distribution of visitor information through identified businesses within a town is an equally valid way of offering visitor services, particularly in small peripheral Prefectures of Greece, like Drama.

According to Russo “the more the visitor searches, the less he consumes” (Russo and Van der Borg 2005). Analyzing Russo’s statement, a major problem in many tourism destinations is the lack of proper tourism information and as a result, visitors are either unable to find the main tourism attractions or they
 loose most of their time searching them. A VIC’s main purpose is to fill this gap by collecting, managing and providing all the necessary information about an area’s tourism products, services and activities. By visiting a VIC, tourists are able to find all the necessary tourism information and introduce their opinion and experiences, which is a vital factor in the procedure of continuous improvement in the area’s holistic tourist product. Therefore, the local productive forces that are involved in the tourism sector can turn the operation of a VIC to an advantage, through a two-way communication with existed and potential consumers. In other words, local stakeholders are able to collect potential consumers’ wishes and create proper products and services that meet tourists’ needs.

PROFILE OF THE PREFECTURE OF DRAMA

The Prefecture of Drama is located in North-eastern Greece, neighbouring to Bulgaria. It forms a part of the Region Eastern Macedonia-Thrace, consisting of eight municipalities and one community. Excellent water resources may have given the town, that stood in the very same site in antiquity, its name, deriving from Hydrama (hydro: Greek, related to water). In the Roman era, Drama, known as Drevescus, was a trade and military camp on the Roman Via Egnatia. In Drama, the capital of the Prefecture, are located all administration services, educational, medical care services and sports as well.

The capital provides a modern hospital, a complete network with sports facilities and the Department of Forestry, part of the Technological Educational Institution of Kavala. Drama also provides a distinct cultural network with numerous exhibition halls and cinemas, libraries, Odeon, etc. In cooperation with diverse formal and informal cultural institutions, it offers a great variety of events, ranging from preserving folklore and local spirits to the promotion of modern art and expression.

VISITOR INFORMATION CENTRE OF DRAMA

A primary goal of the planning process was to inspire visitors and introduce them into the spirit and the sense of place, choosing the appropriate building to host the VIC of the Prefecture of Drama. The building chosen used to be a tobacco warehouse, built during the ‘50s, an industrial era for the Prefecture. The building is located in the centre of the city of Drama (the capital of the Prefecture), easily accessed, as it is close to all main road networks, the railway/bus station, and most of the city’s tourism services, facilities and activities. Therefore, this industrial building is believed to be one of the best choices for this purpose.

The planning process of the VIC in the Prefecture of Drama was based on the Dionysian worship and its phases. Therefore the VIC is divided into three parts, each one representing a phase of the Dionysian worship. As already mentioned, the main operation of a VIC is to collect, manage and provide tourism related information (MacLennan 2000). In the case of Drama’s VIC, the authors who responsible to collect all the necessary information through bibliographic research and documentation, and in situ research during May and June 2007, in cooperation with the “Drama Development Agency S.A”. The Significant Assessment Process (S.A.P.) of the Prefecture’s natural and cultural resources based on the following criteria: unique features, accessibility, participation, the present condition and visitors’ safety. (Papathanassiou-Zuhrt et al. 2007). In addition, officials representing local authorities were interviewed in order to record their opinion and suggestions. The Prefecture’s natural and cultural resources were categorized according to their uniqueness in local, regional, national and global level. The three parts of the VIC of the Prefecture of Drama are extensively described below:

Part 1: Ecstasy

During the first part (Ecstasy), visitors habituate with the most significant natural and cultural resources of the Prefecture of Drama. The main purpose of this part is to develop an emotional charge and plurality of senses to visitors, in order to inspire and provoke them to visit the most significant natural and cultural resources of the Prefecture. The planning process of the Ecstasy part removed all unnecessary information and gave priority to the excitement of visitors’ senses (vision, hearing, smell, feel, and taste). By exciting these senses, the visitor enters the procedure of fermenting them and search for further information.
Figure 1. Ecstasy”, the most significant tourism attractions of the prefecture of Drama.

**Ecstasy**
The Most Significant Tourism Attractions of The Prefecture of Drama

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification of Resources</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Distinctive features and values</th>
<th>Specialists &amp; Managing Authorities</th>
<th>Legal Framework for Protection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Natural features with important physical and biological formations</td>
<td>Forest of Elatia</td>
<td>The southernmost habitat of Norway spruce (Picea abies) in Europe</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Natura 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Forest of Frakto</td>
<td>One of the few remaining virgin forests in Europe, Ecosystem Values, Indigenous Species</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Natura 2000 Designated as natural monument by the Ministry of Agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geological and physiographical formations</td>
<td>Mountain Falakro</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Natura 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetic resources: landscapes, forests, lakes etc</td>
<td>Aggitis River, Cave of Aggitis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subterranean River of Maarà</td>
<td>Cavity of Megalo Livadi Peat-bog</td>
<td>Observation of the Natural Evolution Since Prehistoric Sites</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems of scientific importance</td>
<td>diversity of quality Marble Stones</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecosystems</td>
<td>Frakto's Forest</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Natura 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Underwater Cultural Heritage</td>
<td>The Subterranean River of Maarà</td>
<td>Subterranean River, Palaeontological Exhibits</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ancient Monuments</td>
<td>Dionysus Sanctuary in Kali Vrisi</td>
<td>Related to Ancient Greek God Dionysus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archaeological Sites</td>
<td>Dionysus Sanctuary in Kali Vrisi</td>
<td>Related to Ancient Greek God Dionysus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battlefields</td>
<td>Lisse Fortress</td>
<td>WW II, 6-7 April 1941. Greek Forces Battle Against German and Bulgarian Divisions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Heritage</td>
<td>City of Drama</td>
<td>Tobacco Warehouses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customs</td>
<td>All over the Prefecture of Drama</td>
<td>12 Unique Annual Traditional Customs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Part 2: Methexis**
The second part of the VIC (Methexis) allows visitors to know about the forms of tourism and outdoor activities (canoe-kayak, trekking, winter sports, mountain biking, horse riding, cultural events etc.) they can participate. The planning process aimed to make it possible for visitors to find further information related to the Prefectures’ most significant natural and cultural resources.

Figure 2. “Methexis”, the Main Tourism Activities That Visitors Can Participate in the Prefecture of Drama.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Typology</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Tourism Uses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Natural Heritage</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>Forestry</td>
<td>Forests of Frakto, Simida and Elatia</td>
<td>Environmental Education, Ecotourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nature Trails</td>
<td>4 Trails Across the European Long Distance Path E6</td>
<td>Environmental Education, Ecotourism, Trekking Through The European Long Distance Path E6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Environmentally sensitive sites</td>
<td>Forest of Frakto</td>
<td>Environmental Education, Ecotourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Systems of scientific importance</td>
<td>Cavity of Megalo Livadi – Peat Bog</td>
<td>Ecotourism, Special Interest Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Geological Diversity</td>
<td>Diversity of Quality Marble Stones</td>
<td>Special Interest Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raptor’s Park in Agora Kirgion</td>
<td>Environmental Education, Ecotourism, Wild Life Observation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material and Spiritual Culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Archaeology</td>
<td>Ancient Monuments</td>
<td>Dionysus Sanctuary in Kali Vrisi</td>
<td>Archaeology, History, Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Archaeological Sites</td>
<td>Dionysus Sanctuary in Kali Vrisi</td>
<td>Archaeology, History, Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>City Walls</td>
<td>City of Drama</td>
<td>Archaeology, History, Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ancient Fortifications</td>
<td>City of Drama</td>
<td>Archaeology, History, Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ethnography</td>
<td>12 Unique Annual Traditional Customs</td>
<td>Active Visitor Participation, Local Heritage Consumption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rites and Beliefs</td>
<td>Ceremonies Related to God Dionysus</td>
<td>Active Visitor Participation, Cultural Consumption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Traditional craftsmanship</td>
<td>Traditional Musical Instruments</td>
<td>Ethnand Heritage Tourism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONCLUSION

As already mentioned, the Prefecture of Drama is a Greek emerging tourism destination that lacks of significant tourism flows. A first step to solve this problem, from the supply side perspective, is to create the Prefecture’s non-exchangeable tourism image. This could be achieved by managing, utilizing and promoting the area’s unique features, natural and cultural resources, as well as customs and traditions. In addition, an effective way to manage the existed tourism flows and to attract more, is the provision of with high quality and holistic in situ tourism information. This holistic provision of tourism information will not only give to visitors the opportunity to know more about a destination’s tourism identity, but it will also help them stimulate the sense of place.

Unlike other traditional promotion tools (publications, the Internet, advertisements etc.), a Visitor Information Center could be considered as the most effective. The planning and development process of the VIC in the Prefecture of Drama, took into consideration a series of economical, social, cultural and environmental parameters and figures. Furthermore, it counted in the development goals of the local and regional stakeholders and authorities, as well as, the needs and desires of the local community.

Therefore, there is a need to develop a VIC which will act as a measure of a general tourism development plan. The VIC of the Prefecture of Drama will ensure the effective promotion of the area and sustainable management of cultural and natural resources. Furthermore, it will act as a mean of informing and educating people in an in-situ visitor environment, connecting potential visitors with tourism services, resources and infrastructures. Finally, the VIC will enrich the visitors’ experience and encourage visitors to stay longer in the Prefecture.

REFERENCES


The Importance of Foreign Language in Success of Business for Tourism Enterprises

Doğan KUTUKIZ
Fethiye A.S.M.K. Vocational School
Mugla University, Turkey
E-mail: d.kutukiz@yahoo.com

Cengiz GÖK
Fethiye A.S.M.K. Vocational School
Mugla University, Turkey
E-mail: gokcengiz@hotmail.com

Serdar BAŞ
Ecesaray Resort Marina
General Manager, Turkey
E-mail: serdarbas@usa.net

ABSTRACT
When we look at the success and the factors that affect the profitability which are included in success, it gained a different aspect in how it should be evaluated financially. It focuses on the factors that affect the success rather than the traditional financial values. These factors mostly reveal that assets which are called knowledge based increase the value and profitability of the enterprises. When the factors that affect the success are examined, it is found out that there is a positive proportion between the success and customer satisfaction, room rate, and education levels of the employees. In other words not only the price, cost datum determine the value of the enterprise and profitability of it but also reliability, customer satisfaction, popularity of the enterprise, investments made on research and innovation and the education provided to the employees. There is another factor which is as important as human resources. It is the structural process of the enterprise. Having a high level knowledge and experience is not enough. A structure that brings the performance of the employees together is needed. The structural process of the enterprise does not change when the employees change, because it belongs to enterprise itself.

Keywords: Foreign language, success indicators, tourism enterprises, management, organization structure.

INTRODUCTION
In today’s competitive world knowledge become an important power for the enterprises. The importance of the knowledge based assets can be easily seen in service and financial sector enterprises. The value of the enterprise is formed by knowledge based assets which are 30-40 times bigger than physical assets. Because of this companies raise their investment on knowledge to be able compete effectively and to keep their high positions in this competitive atmosphere. As a result of this, a necessity emerged to give importance on items which are not monetary. The necessity of making investment on no monetary items is connected with knowledge economy has been argued a lot recently. Human recourses are the most important factor that raises the value of the company and affects the success of it. The structure of the employees’ and their education level plays a vital role in determining the company’s future and success. Administrators usually determine their future strategies according to main financial results, expected income, shareholders’ future income expectations, and guest satisfaction and by using similar evaluating tools. During the process of knowledge based decision taking, application of those decisions and performance evaluation, misapplication and lack of tools, can cause wrong calculations on company’s overall value. Besides, using the information in business’ value calculating system in different ways or lack of the information can affect the strategic plans.

IMPORTANCE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE FOR TOURISM ENTERPRISES
Education and language are as old as human history. People always communicate with each other and have interactions at every level of their lives. As societies grow bigger the level of this interaction grow bigger too. People began to spare more time for them selves as their prosperity got higher and their point of view towards life changed. They began to travel to other countries to have a rest or for their holidays. Among these countries Turkey has an important place. As the number of tourists visiting Turkey and the revenue from tourism increase, the need for qualified and foreign language speaking staff become higher. Foreign language knowledge and level becomes as important as occupational knowledge. The need for foreign language in different sectors can be seen in Table 1.

62% of the enterprises need four foreign languages. Employees need foreign language. The need of the rate for a foreign language among the employees is one out of three. Depending on the structure of the enterprises employees’ need for foreign language gains more importance. 50 % of the employees who work in the following departments need foreign language; management, sales, customer relations, purchasing, marketing, data processing, logistics (planning, production, energy).
The languages are that are needed in such sectors are listed below according to their importance order:

- English: 36% always, 45% usually
- French: 31% always or often
- Spanish: 13.3%
- Italian: 8.3%
- Russian, Dutch, Portuguese, Japanese, Chinese, Polish: less used

As it can be seen from those results enterprises give importance to make their present situations better and to the foreign language knowledge of their employees. (Brecht 2000).

Today the need for foreign language education in Turkey is being tried to be met at universities, private language courses and in other ways. If we have a look at foreign language teaching process in Turkey, we see it is done at different levels. During the begging of the republic period reading comprehension, translation form foreign language to Turkish had primarily importance. Speaking and making sentences had secondary importance at secondary level education (Özalp 1982; Ataünl 1977).

Moreover, at vocational school, developing language skills, teaching vocational words, making simple translations, were aimed (Songün 1977). During the 1983-1984 teaching terms vocational and technical schools began to teach foreign languages at prep. classes. And they added “Anatolian” to the names of those schools (Teğtüler Dergisi 1983: 2149, 421). Until 2005, those schools had prep classes. But after June 2005 they stopped teaching foreign language at prep classes. Now most schools have eight hours foreign language classes.

In the last two decades, Business Foreign Language has attracted increasing interest and awareness. A especially Business English leads among those foreign languages. Business English must be seen in the overall context of English for Specific Purposes, as it shares the important elements of needs analysis, syllabus design, course design, and material design (www.oup.com/elt).

### SUCCESS INDICATORS

Success of an enterprise can be evaluated by using financial and nonfinancial performance indicators which belong to enterprises (Dobbins et al. 2000). However, the strategy reveals those values which are followed by the enterprises. The investment made on human resources affects the success in long term. It is
possible to classify the performance signs that are used to evaluate the success according to different criteria.

The success indicators which are determined by the enterprise must depend on directly the result not the factors that affect the result. The enterprise should choose indicators that can be directly affected by an employee or department. For example: For a sales manager sales capacity can be assign, but profit isn’t a good indictor. Because profit is directly affected from sales capacity, therefore it is not directly under the control of the sales manager.

Following items can be listed for indicators of success:

- **Profitability**: Comparison of active work programmes, net revenue, return on equity, gross profit, sales revenue, assets revenues, profit per department, rate of the profit against expenditure etc.
- **Quality**: Complaints, results of audit, active standard error ratio, complaint ratio, guarantee expenditure,
- **Production**: Unit production cost, comparison of accrued-standard cost, utilisation rate, discontinuity, labour cost,
- **Marketing**: Number of customers, number of new products, forecast realization rate, market share, and sales capacity.

Tourism around the world becomes high at certain times. Even the countries which recognized the importance of tourism early cannot have steady potential customer trough out the year (Jayawardena, Chandana and Ramajeesingh 2003). By using the results of one year will be wrong to judge a tourism enterprise whether it is successful or not. Because the facilities at a tourism enterprise are done at a certain time of the year and tourism is the sector which is affected by social events. Therefore, results of last three years are used in this study.

While using financial ratios, taking both enterprises’ and whole sectors’ data will lead to better results. Also the inside and outside factors that affect the sector shouldn’t be forgotten. Ratios used in analysis are the ones that tourism enterprises have and they evaluate the productivity of sales and investment as well as profitability. Profitability ratios are used as traditional performance indicator at many enterprises widely (Haris and Brown 1998). But most used profit values are criticized.

**METHODOLOGY**

This study includes the results of questionnaires which reveal the employee and financial information of hotels for the years 2004, 2005 and 2006. These questionnaires were carried among 105 hotels which are run in Mugla district. Questionnaire had 10 questions and 40 variables. In the study an analysis is made to reveal the effect of the employees on the enterprise’s success. It has been tried out to reveal how the foreign language level of the employees’ reflects on the enterprise’s profit, financial indicators and organisational structure, whether it affects them or not. Also it has been tried to find out the relation between the foreign language level and the success of the enterprise. Validity and significance of the data gathered from the questionnaires are made on SPSS statistics programme. They are classified and assessed according to their percentages.

**RESULTS**

When the enterprises try to decide which employee is good for them they should take into account the following factors; education level and foreign language level and age groups of the employees. Also they will help to reveal the reality of the study. The employee structure of the enterprises is tried to be analysed by only using the foreign language, education level and turnover rates of the front office employees. According to this in both types of enterprises there is a similar structure of employee which consist young employees.

The 68% of the hotels which were included in this study has more 50 rooms and they have employees over 20. Most of the employees are women and over the age 30. The results of the questionnaire can be summarized as follows;

- At the enterprises where the foreign language level is excellent and very good, the problem solving ability of the employees is better; on the other hand where the foreign language education is not good ability of problem solving is insufficient.
- At enterprises whose employees are consist of high school or under graduate people, and where slight the education level is high, more importance is given to foreign language education.
- If the factors increasing the success are taken into consideration from the enterprise’s point to view, in the companies whose employees’ foreign language level is good, it is observed that customer’s satisfaction is high, too; whereas in the other companies whose employees’ foreign language level is not so good, man-
agement of qualified staff and physical structure increase the enterprise’s success.

Table 2. Results of Questionnaires

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Excellent</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Poor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender: (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Female</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Primary</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- High School</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Under Graduate</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Graduate</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability of Problem Solving</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- very good</td>
<td>%35</td>
<td>%62</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>%5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- good</td>
<td>%38</td>
<td>%12</td>
<td>%25</td>
<td>%6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- moderate</td>
<td>%13</td>
<td>%13</td>
<td>%25</td>
<td>%19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- poor</td>
<td>%14</td>
<td>%6</td>
<td>%39</td>
<td>%36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factors Increasing the Success (%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Physical Structure - Qualified Employee - Management</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Customer Satisfaction - Qualified Employee - Management</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Productivity - Management</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Motivations that govern corporate financial policy are analyzed by focusing on significant external changes of capital structure. Several studies on debt-equity choice have appeared recently (Hovakimian 2004; Jung, Kim and Stulz 1996). These studies highlight the economic role played by three important pieces of the puzzle: Adjustment to a target leverage ratio, operating performance, and market performance. Tests of the adjustment to a target leverage ratio are crucial because adjustment is the cornerstone of dynamic trade-off models. An examination of the impact of operating and market performance should highlight whether these are significant determinants of the target leverage ratio and/or of deviations from this target. This analysis may also lead to the conclusion that the impact of performance on debt-equity choice stems from other factors than the adjustment to the target leverage ratio, as implied by pecking order and agency models.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

English speaking employees have an important role at tourist resort enterprises to have a better communication with the foreign guests. It is observed that as English is nearly a global language, most foundations which serve international markets prefer English speaking employees to other foreign language speaking employees (Except French and German holiday villages). The enterprises which have English speaking employees with high levels at every department especially at front office and service departments, helps can have division according to its functions. On the other hand enterprises which do not have English speaking employees with high levels have to form new department that support the operation. At guest centred enterprises good communication established between the guest and the employee will help to solve problems quickly and easily, and increase the sales. In addition to this if it will prevent time loss, it will cause an increase at number of the satisfied guests. If there are not enough employees both at holiday villages where many employees work and small enterprises, who haven’t got adequate level of English, one or more departments must be formed to do the functions of guest relations, operations and others.

SUCCESS INDICATORS

The profit used in these ratios must convey the long term profit. The quality of the service the enterprise and customer satisfaction that employees provide will show their effect in other periods. Therefore knowing the foreign language level of the employees worked in last 3 years will give the desired results in the study. According to the results of the questionnaires at the enterprises where foreign language education and foreign language level is high, the satisfied guest rate and repeated guest rates are high too. As a result of this profitability rate is high as well. Besides it is found out that the enterprises whose occupancy rates were high and there weren’t any changes at their room rates in last three years were the ones which give importance to employee education and foreign language education. Also foreign language and education level is high at this type of enterprises.
It is observed that at enterprises where the rate of customer satisfaction is high the rate of repeated customer rate is high as well. As the enterprises pay more attention to their repeated guests, who comes to same hotel every year to spend their holiday, it increases mutual confidence. As a result of this enterprises begin to have more repeated guests each year. This situation allows the enterprise not to cut down its room rate during stagnation. More over it can increase the rates slightly and make its profit higher during stagnation. Enterprises join fairs and they deliver CDs, brochures etc. to increase their room sales. Even these kinds of activities increase the expenditures and cost, they help to increase the room sale rates, number of customers. When the relation between the financial indicators and the customer satisfaction, occupancy rate, repeated guest rate examined at enterprises which gives importance to foreign language, it is found out that the items such as occupancy rate, room rates and others increase both profitability of the enterprise and financial indicators.

**CONCLUSION**

Every employee must be aware of what is expected from him/her and must know what his/her contribution to the enterprise is. Performance evaluation system shows that the enterprise values the achievements of the employees and encourages success. It also meets the need for finding points that prevents the employees from showing better performance. By the help of performance evaluation employees can be informed what prevents them from having better performance. As a result employees will have chance to perform their duties better.

The advantage of performance evaluation system for employees, managers and enterprise in general can be listed as follows: If employees know their immediate managers’ thoughts about their performance, employees will take responsibility about their performance. It helps employees to get feedback about their performance and establish two-way communication with their immediate managers. When the employees know what is expected from them they will lead their strength in right ways. It strengthens the relations between the subordinates and immediate managers. It gives opportunity to find the employees with high performance who are going to rewarded and encouraged. It enables to find low-level performed employees who are going to be guided and dealt. In addition to this it helps the mangers to evaluate their performance.

It enables to announce the institutional targets to the employees. It provides information to the management knowledge system. It also increases the organizational productivity of the enterprise. By the help of it level of it can be figured out how much the institutional targets are achieved at every department of the enterprise. Having adequate number of English speaking employees at good level every department especially at front office and service enables the enterprise to divide itself into departments according to their functions. But it is vice versa at enterprises which don’t adequate number of English speaking employees. Therefore such enterprises have to establish supporting departments. Investing on employees’ education, giving importance to foreign language education and guiding the employees within the enterprise’s targets to increase the sales will cause increase on expenditures. Even they cause an increase on expenditures, room rates, room occupancy rate, and number of
guests increase in accordance with enterprises’ expectations. This increase revealed change in the favour of enterprise on financial ratios of the following items; net profit/capital, net profit/sales, sales/total assets, cost/sales.

REFERENCES


Tebligler Dergisi, 10 Ekim 1983.

www.oup.com/elt [Ziyaret tarihi:15/01/2008].
Long Haul Tourism and Climate Change Policies

Larry Dwyer  
School of Marketing  
University of New South Wales, Australia  
E-mail: l.dwyer@unsw.edu.au

Peter Forsyth  
Department of Economics  
Monash University, Australia  
E-mail: peter.forsyth@buseco.monash.edu.au

ABSTRACT
Air travel is being seen as environmentally damaging, leading some to be hesitant to use it, and others to call for reduced reliance on air travel, induced by government policies such as taxes and restrictions. These will impact negatively on long haul air travel with particular consequences for Australian tourism. In addition, governments are moving towards implementing climate change policies to reduce Greenhouse Gas Emissions (GGEs) which will make long haul travel more expensive, thus rendering distant destinations less attractive to tourists. Long haul destinations face several challenges. One challenge is to estimate the costs that the different policy options will add to a trip, and what impact this will have on tourism visits and expenditure. Another challenge is to determine how these costs can be minimised — what policies to reduce GGEs best suit the long haul travel sector? The paper concludes with a discussion as to whether there a case for excluding long haul aviation from the ETS. The implications for Australian tourism are substantial.

Key words: Long-haul tourism, climate change, travel costs.

INTRODUCTION
The impacts of climate change, and of the policies designed to mitigate it, is being recognised as a major issue for tourism destinations which are distant from their markets including Australia. The fact that long haul travel contributes a considerable amount of Greenhouse Gas Emissions (GGEs) in both the flight and ground components of the trip has made aviation something of a target for action. It is generally agreed that a solution to the climate change problem will involve ensuring that decision makers such as tourists are faced with the externality costs of their decisions to travel. If GGE mitigation policies result in a price for carbon, there will be an impact on air fares and the overall cost of a trip. This will result in some reduction in long haul travel. This poses some challenges for long haul destinations including what policies are most effective in reducing GGE while having the least adverse effect on the economic contribution of the tourism industry. A number of questions arise which will be addressed in this paper. These include:

- How effective are short term measures specifically applied to aviation, such as taxes and limits on long haul trips, in reducing greenhouse gas emissions (GGEs) and in addressing public concerns;
- What issues need to be resolved if long haul aviation is to be incorporated in comprehensive climate change policies, such as the emissions trading schemes (ETSs) being implemented in Europe and planned for Australia;
- Is incorporation of aviation within an ETS sufficient to address its environmental effects, or are special additional measures required to help reduce GGEs;
- How large will be the impact on the cost of long haul air travel as a result of incorporating aviation within an ETS.

THE PROBLEM

Policies which seek to mitigate climate change are likely to have a disproportionate effect on long haul air travel and tourism. This will be a particular issue for countries, such as Australia, New Zealand and South Africa and some South American destinations which rely heavily on long haul air travel to bring tourists to their shores. Inevitably, any visitors from Europe or North America will require a long air trip to make a visit, and this trip will require considerable use of fuel. This in turn means that its emissions of greenhouse gases will be considerable. If these emissions are priced in some way, the air fares will rise, perhaps significantly. This will lead to a fall in visits, and a loss of economic benefits from tourism.

Of the different spending decisions a consumer might make, a decision to make a long haul trip will be one of the most carbon intensive. Apart from the flight, the purchases of goods and services within the destination country by the tourist also gives rise to GGEs. Travellers to long haul destinations usually stay longer than short haul travellers. Apart from this, a flight also contributes to GGEs through its purchases of other goods and services (30-40% of airline costs). While proportionately not as significant as the flight in creating GGEs,
the ground component cost of a long haul trip, which for Australia at least, will last, around 26 days on average, will be considerable.

Long haul travel faces two distinct types of problem. Climate change policies will make it more expensive. However, well before this happens, the attitude of travellers and the public to air travel is changing. Air travel is seen as a polluting activity, and long haul travel in particular is seen as a damaging source of GGEs. This makes some potential travellers less willing to travel themselves, and it makes others antipathetic to travel by others.

SHORT RUN AND TARGETED MITIGATION POLICIES

Mitigation policies to address climate change can be classified as short run, targeted policies and as longer run strategic policies. Short run policies include voluntary compliance schemes, carbon offsets, taxes and controls on air travel.

VOLUNTARY SCHEMES

Some airlines have introduced carbon offset schemes which are available to their customers. In the main, these schemes are voluntary- passengers choose to pay extra to have a carbon neutral flight. By paying extra, passengers contribute to a carbon offset scheme which enables their flight to be carbon neutral. While the principle of this is good, the execution of some schemes has been challenged. Some have claimed that money raised from such schemes is not effectively spent, and that the carbon reductions are far less than claimed. It may also be that the estimates of the carbon content, and its damage, of flights are serious underestimates, and that proper accounting for all the damage would result in much higher fare add-ons. Nevertheless, the idea is in its infancy, and better information combined with more rigorous monitoring of the effectiveness of the offsets in reducing emissions should lead to a more reliable carbon offset system. Voluntary offset schemes solve one of the problems for long haul destinations- they are able to offer the responsible traveller a carbon neutral flight or trip. A real difficulty is that such passengers are likely to be only a minority- most will not be willing to pay more for an already expensive item. After all, global externalities are the perfect example of the free rider problem. Voluntary offsets can only make a small contribution to the wider problem created by the GGEs associated with air travel. Thus there is a call for much more forceful measures. There are several policies which a government might choose to implement in the relatively short term to reduce GGEs from aviation. These include compulsory carbon offsets, taxes, and mandatory restrictions.

COMPULSORY CARBON OFFSETS

Compulsory carbon offsets involve all air travellers paying a levy which is used for approved offset programs. This policy would reduce GGEs through reducing the use of aviation, and it would also reduce them though the offset programs. Airlines themselves could make carbon offsets compulsory for their passengers- they could sell only flights for which they have made offsetting provisions. The problem with this is that they will add to their costs, and they will lose out to their competitors. It may be feasible for some niche operators, like some specialised “green” travel agents, to carve out a market on the basis of being carbon neutral, but for most airlines, operating in competitive environments, doing so will not be viable. This is why government action is needed.

TAXES

Taxes may be levied on passengers or passenger kilometres, or on fuel use or estimated GGEs. Taxes would reduce the use of air travel and thus the GGEs associated with it. Since they involve no necessary offsets, the reduction in GGEs would be less than under the offset option for a given rise in air fares. Taxes raised could be used to reduce GGEs, by being applied to offsets, or to fund GGE reducing technologies (not necessarily in aviation), though there is no guarantee that this would happen- governments would have to commit to earmark the tax revenues.

CONTROLS

Mandatory restrictions may take the form of limits on the number of long haul trips that travellers may take in a year. Such restrictions would reduce air travel and thereby GGEs from aviation. However, restrictions on travel could prove administratively difficult, and would generally be an inefficient means of reducing travel and emissions.

EFFECTS ON VISITOR FLOWS

Each of the options would reduce long haul travel, While the mandatory restrictions will have an obvious and immediate effect on long haul travel, as might some of the voluntary schemes, the effects on tourism flows of carbon offsets and taxes will depend on the levels set and the impact on the price of flying as well as the price elasticity of demand for air travel. Generally, airfare elasticities tended to be lower on shorter distance routes. In a meta-analysis of airfare elasticities (Crouch 1992, 1994; Brons et al 2002) found that travellers are
less price sensitive, as flight distance increases. Another finding was that long-run price elasticities are higher in absolute value. This implies that basing long-run policy instruments on short-run elasticities will lead to distortions. The fact that passengers become more price sensitive over time (Crouch 1995) also needs to be acknowledged in the design of long-run policy instruments. While inbound tourism is likely to be reduced as the price of flying rises, so also will outbound tourism. Depending on the extent to which outbound travellers divert to a domestic tourism experience as a result of higher air fares, this will offset losses to the host tourism industry. There are several unknowns here. One uncertainty involves the perception of travellers as to the ‘substitutability’ of domestic tourism for international tourism. The more highly regarded is a domestic tourism experience the more will holiday travellers be inclined to substitute one for the other. Another uncertainty involves the mode of travel taken for the domestic tourism experience. Flying domestic short haul will increase GGE’s as well increased use of road transport.

**LONG RUN AND COMPREHENSIVE CLIMATE CHANGE POLICIES**

Several countries, and even entire regions (e.g. Europe – see Commission of the European Communities, 2006), are now moving towards implementing long run comprehensive climate change mitigation policies. These schemes take some time to set up and get working. They are intended to be long run policies in force for many decades at least. Significantly, they are intended to be comprehensive, and cover most if not all sectors of the economy. The two main options are carbon taxes and Emissions Trading Schemes (ETS). Thus Australia is planning to implement an ETS which will incorporate aviation and other forms of transport (Prime Ministerial Task Group, 2007) and Europe is moving to incorporate aviation in its existing ETS, which is undergoing further development.

Carbon taxes would impose a tax on (ideally all) sources of GGEs. In practice some sectors such as agriculture might be left out, at least in the beginning. Most sources of GGEs come from the use of fuels, such as coal and aviation fuel, and taxes are likely to be related to the purchase or use of these fuels and the carbon emissions they generate. An ETS would set a cap on the total amount of GGEs allowed to be generated in an economy, and permits to generate these emissions would be allocated in some way, to firms which generate them, or which produce the fuels that other firms use. Permits might be given free to firms, sold at a concessional rate or auctioned.

Of the two options, many countries prefer the ETS. Australia and Europe both plan to make an ETS their primary climate change mitigation policy. While ETSs are similar to taxes in that they raise the price of goods and services which directly or indirectly produce GGEs, they also differ in some important aspects- some of these will be noted later. The discussion here will focus on how the ETS will affect long haul travel, since this is the policy option which is actually being adopted.

Ideally, all countries or regions would adopt climate change mitigation policies, such as carbon taxes and ETSs, and all would take action to reduce their GGEs. In reality, many countries will not do so, at least for some years. When their ETSs are in full operation, Australia and Europe will be leaders in taking action against climate change. Other countries may have policies in place though they may not be as comprehensive or as effective as those in Australia and Europe. This will have implications for how long haul aviation is handled.

While details are not yet determined, it is probable that aviation generally and possibly long haul aviation, will be included in the ETSs. Europe plans to incorporate intra Europe short haul aviation into its ETS from 2011, and to incorporate all international flights from Europe from 2012 (Commission of the European Communities, 2006). Australia has not announced specific plans for aviation, though the expectation is that it will be included. Permits could be allocated to airlines directly, or to the suppliers of aviation fuel, and airlines or suppliers would need to have permits to use or supply fuel respectively. The European discussion implies that airlines will gain and use the permits directly. In Australia, it may only be the larger airlines which gain permits, since the current proposals only include large emitters directly. GGEs produced by smaller airlines may be constrained by requiring that upstream suppliers of fuel to these airlines use permits when selling fuel.

Plans for the allocation of permits are still being developed in both Australia and Europe. It is possible that airlines may be granted some or all of their permits free of charge. Alternatively, they may have to buy them at a price which is set low and is likely to be below the price which gets established in the market. Under both of these options, there is a possibility that the airlines could gain, at least in the first few years, from obtaining valuable permits at less than their market price. It is also possible that permits will be sold at auction to the highest bidder- under this option, the airlines would not gain.

An issue which is attracting attention is that of ‘pass through’ (see Frontier Economics, 2006; Ernst and Young and York Aviation, 2007). If airlines are
subjected to a tax, will they be able to pass all of the tax on to their customers? In some cases, they may not be able to do this, especially if they are operating in constrained markets (such as slot constrained markets at airports) and in less competitive markets. In the longer term it is likely that the extent of pass through will be greater than in the shorter term. If they are granted permits, which command a price, on a free basis, will airfares reflect the value of these permits? (see Morrell, 2006; Scheelhaase and Grimme, 2007) If airlines are seeking to maximise their shareholder value, they will do so. However if they are pursuing other objectives, such as gaining market share, they may not pass on the full value of the permit to the customer. Clearly, if airlines do not pass on the value of permits through higher air fares, the impact on travel will be less, and the reduction in GGEs will be smaller.

Since aviation is a rapidly growing industry and options for reducing GGEs through improved technologies are limited, over time, airlines will need to purchase more permits. Depending on the extent of pass through, and the extent to which permits are allocated on a free or concessionary basis, and on the rules by which permits re-allocated, airlines could gain from being part of the ETS. Airlines will need to be directly involved in the ETS to gain, however, smaller airlines which are indirectly incorporated, through paying higher fuel prices, will not gain.

Applying the ETS to international and long haul aviation will pose a range of implementation problems. If permits are to be allocated free of charge, will foreign airlines serving a country share in the free permits? If Qantas, Singapore Airlines and Emirates are all flying between Australia and Singapore, problems of competitive imbalance could occur if only the Australian airline, Qantas, were given permits for Australia to Singapore flights. Current bilateral air services agreements prohibit taxation of international air services. If permits are required to be bought by airlines (home or foreign), this might be considered a form of taxation. Agreements can be changed, though only if both parties agree. Difficulties arise with multi stage journeys, such as flights from Sydney to London via Singapore and Dubai (as operated by Emirates). Would permits be needed for the whole journey, or only for the first stage? (i.e. not for the Singapore to Dubai stage).

Most of these problems can be sorted out, especially if both countries are willing to impose climate change mitigation policies on international aviation. Difficulties will arise if one country does not wish to include aviation. Thus the US opposes current European proposals to include Europe to US flights in its ETS, and to require US airlines to obtain permits for flights to Europe (of course, if permits are free and add to airline profits, US airlines may seek to change government opposition to this policy). Less severe difficulties will also arise when the ETSs of the two partners differ, for example, on the cost of permits or in the permits required for a particular flight. The International Civil Aviation Organization is attempting to formulate guidelines on how countries can incorporate aviation in their climate change policies. These guidelines, if and when they are developed, may help countries to resolve differences in the ways their policies are applied to international aviation, though they are not likely to resolve the impasse when one country wishes to include aviation in its climate change policy and the other does not.

If aviation is included fully in the partner countries ETSs, and the emissions permits required reflect the full climate change costs of aviation emissions (i.e. they factor in higher damage from aviation carbon emissions, and take account of non carbon emissions), then flights become effectively carbon neutral. If a person chooses to fly from London to Sydney, they will not add to global GGEs. To enable the flight, the airline will have to use permits, which will be in fixed supply. The more permits airlines use, the less other industries can use. While increased air travel leads to more GGEs from aviation, it is accompanied by an equal reduction in emissions from other industries. This should appeal to the responsible traveller, who can make a carbon neutral flight. Since aviation will be included along with other industries in the ETS, this should allay the public concern that aviation is creating emissions- additional air travel does not add to GGEs. It may not be that all of the public see it this way, but the reality will be that greater use of aviation and long haul air travel in particular will not contribute to climate change, and reducing aviation will not achieve any reductions in GGEs.

**IMPACTS ON TRIP COSTS**

We have argued that climate change policies will have the effect of making long haul air trips more expensive. Under an ETS, airlines will need to use valuable permits when offering flights, and depending on the extent of pass through, this will raise air fares. Airlines based in the home country will also be paying more for goods and services they purchase at home, since these indirectly increase GGEs (foreign airlines operating from countries without climate change policies will not face an increase in the costs of goods and services they purchase at home). In addition to the higher air fares, visitors will also have to pay more for the goods and services they buy in the destination country, re-
flecting the GGEs which they directly create, such as through the use of domestic air travel and car, and indirectly create, such as through their use of electricity.

Some estimates of the impacts on air fares, costs incurred within Australia, and total trip costs to Australia from various origin countries, for particular types of travellers are presented in Tables 1, 2 and 3. These estimates assume full pass through of the cost of permits for international flights, and allow for the direct and indirect costs of permits for the within Australia expenditure. They do not include any estimate of the additional cost to the airlines of higher goods and services prices due to the ETS.

The ‘within Australia’ GGEs associated with tourist expenditure are based on a study undertaken by Lundie, Dwyer and Forsyth (2007) which developed environmental yield estimates (energy use, water use, greenhouse gas emissions and ecological footprint) for several different market segments of Australian inbound tourism. A hybrid approach was employed, combining input–output analysis with an on-site audit for tourist accommodation.

Table 1 reproduces the estimated GGE per trip associated with New Zealand over 55’s, first time visitors from Hong Kong, repeat visitors from the United Kingdom and Canadian over 55s. The bottom row indicates the average amount of expenditure within Australian associated with each of the Table 1 contains two rows indicating the total cost of the GGE when priced at $20 and $50 per tonne, respectively. These prices cover the range of probable carbon prices. The bottom row of Table 1 indicates the total tourism expenditure per trip for each of the selected markets based on data from the International Visitor Survey (IVS), undertaken by the Australian Bureau of Statistics. This enables us to estimate the percentage of total tourism expenditure represented by these costings. Thus at $20 per tonne the GGE represent 4.1 per cent of the total ‘within Australia’ expenditure of New Zealand matures, with 3.0 per cent for Hong Kong first timers and 4.8 per cent for UK repeat visitors and Canadian mature tourists. At $50 per tonne the percentages are, respectively 10.4 per cent, 7.6 per cent, 9.1 per cent and 10.7 per cent of total ‘ground content’ expenditure.

In this way we estimate the GGE associated with the ‘ground content’ of tourism to Australia from different source markets. Of the selected markets, UK repeaters are the greatest spenders per trip and are also the greatest emitters of Greenhouse gases (with costs representing 9.1 per cent of their total expenditure). The second greatest spender per trip and the second greatest emitter of greenhouse gases is the mature Canadian tourist. Given that the expenditure data indicates purchasing patterns, destination managers have the opportunity to determine which are preferred inbound markets from an environmental perspective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tonnes of GGE</th>
<th>NZ Matures</th>
<th>% of Total expenditure</th>
<th>HK Matures</th>
<th>% of Total expenditure</th>
<th>UK Repeaters</th>
<th>% of Total expenditure</th>
<th>Canadian Mature</th>
<th>% of Total expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost at $20 per tonne ($)</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost at $50 per tonne ($)</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Expenditure ($)</td>
<td>1205</td>
<td>2381</td>
<td>2626</td>
<td>2246</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GGE estimated are from Lundie, Dwyer and Forsyth (2007). Visitor expenditure data are from Tourism Australia (2004) and based on Australia’s International Visitor Survey.

Table 2 provides estimates of the impact of GGE on airfares, assuming that their cost is passed on fully to airline passengers. The increased costs depend upon the amount of GGE and its costs per tonne. These estimates are made for low and high carbon prices, and they are made for different assumptions about the damage caused by aviation emissions. The high damage scenario assumes that once non carbon emissions and the higher damage done by aviation as compared to ground carbon emissions are taken into account, the damage is 2.5 times more than the simple carbon emissions would indicate. If the damages are high and the cost per tonne is high, GGE associated with flying from the long haul markets of UK and Canada comprise over 20 per cent of tourist expenditure.
Table 2. Impacts on Air Fares of Climate Change Policies, Visitors from Selected Countries, 2002-2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>% of Total Fares</th>
<th>% of Total Fares</th>
<th>% of Total Fares</th>
<th>% of Total Fares</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Time</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeat</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mature</td>
<td>1706</td>
<td>3579</td>
<td>4285</td>
<td>4304</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Expenditure data supplied by Tourism Australia (2004); British Airways Carbon Calculator (Tol, 2007)

Table 3. Impacts on Total Trip Costs of Carbon Pricing, Visitors from Selected Countries, 2002-2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>% of Total Trip Expenditure</th>
<th>% of Total Trip Expenditure</th>
<th>% of Total Trip Expenditure</th>
<th>% of Total Trip Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mature</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>389</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Time</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>718</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeat</td>
<td>699</td>
<td>431</td>
<td>718</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mature</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High damage</td>
<td>459</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>478</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low damage</td>
<td>4885</td>
<td>699</td>
<td>718</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High damage</td>
<td>4300</td>
<td>699</td>
<td>718</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ estimates, Calculated from Tables 1 and 2

ARE FURTHER MEASURES NECESSARY?

The impact that climate change mitigation policies will have on reducing GGEs from aviation will come mainly through their effect in reducing air travel. Even in the medium term, there is only limited scope for airlines to adopt more fuel efficient technologies. With low to moderate reductions in air travel, and long haul air travel in particular, some may argue that the reduction in aviation GGEs is insufficient, and may call for further measures to reduce aviation’s contribution to climate change (e.g. Macintosh and Downie, 2007, argue for special aviation taxes).

There are two responses to such calls. Firstly, they fail to appreciate the rationale of the ETS. The purpose of the ETS is to impose the same carbon price on all industries, and induce them to reduce their GGEs. The costs of these reductions will differ from industry to industry- in some cases, substantial reductions in GGEs might be achieved at relatively little cost. It makes good sense to rely more heavily on reducing emissions where it is cheapest to do so. The most cost effective means of say, reducing GGEs by 20% in total might involve the electricity industry reducing its emissions by 40% and aviation by only 10%. As long as the system as a whole is achieving the target set for it, it does not matter if one industry, such as aviation, is reducing emissions by less than the average.
Secondly, if special measures are imposed on the aviation industry to reduce GGEs, and the ETS is effective, they will be totally ineffective in terms of reducing overall GGEs. If aviation is subjected to a special tax, or restrictions are placed on the number of long haul flights people may take, the demand for air travel will fall, and the GGEs from aviation will also fall. However this will achieve nothing, since other industries will increase their emissions to take up the slack. Since airlines need fewer permits, they will sell them to other industries. Since the number of permits is fixed, the reduction in GGEs from aviation will be exactly matched by the increase from other industries. Imposing special measures on aviation, granted that it is covered by the ETS, will simply increase its costs and discourage air travel and tourism, with no benefit in the form of reduced GGEs.

Overall, long haul air travel does create significant GGEs, and the climate change costs of these GGEs are mostly not factored into decisions by travellers. Confronting travellers with the GGE cost consequences of their travel decisions will raise the cost of air travel, and will discourage this travel somewhat. These costs are minimised if aviation is included within a comprehensive climate change policy, such as the proposed ETS for Australia. Once aviation is included, there is no case for further action- additional measures directed at aviation in general, or long haul air travel, will simply reduce the benefits from aviation and tourism to the economy, with no benefit in terms of lower GGEs.

**IS THERE A CASE FOR EXCLUDING LONG HAUL AVIATION FROM ‘ETS’?**

When climate change policies, such as the Australian ETS, are proposed, it is often recognised that they can pose particular problems for footloose export industries. Increasing the costs of the home export industry will render it less competitive on world markets, and customers will shift elsewhere. Production may actually shift offshore. While the home economy will reduce its production of GGEs, the global total GGEs may increase. Thus the economy imposes a cost on itself and achieves no reduction in global GGEs (these could actually increase).

Long haul tourism is very much a footloose industry. If one country raises the costs of visits to its shores, many travellers will switch to other countries. Thus, if Australia imposes climate change policies which raise the cost of inbound tourism, but its destination competitors do not, then visitors will, to some extent, shift to competitor destinations. While Australia will lose out, global GGEs may not fall. While the Australian ETS is likely to have provisions to ease the adjustment of footloose export industries, they are not very applicable to the tourism and long haul aviation industries. This raises the question of whether it would be in Australia’s interest to exclude international aviation from the ETS.

The footloose industry problem will not arise if other countries also impose climate change policies. While many of Australia’s sources of visitors and destination competitors are not likely to implement such policies in the near future, some will. We have indicated that Europe has an ETS and is intending to apply it to international aviation. To this extent, the footloose industry problem will not arise if Australia and Europe incorporate aviation into their ETSs. Australia’s competitors for European visitors, which do not implement their own climate change policies, will be affected by the European policy. All flights from Europe will factor in a carbon price, not just flights to Australia. By choosing to include aviation within the ETS, Australia will not lose out.

The situation could be different if other countries with which Australia has air links do not apply climate change policies to aviation. Suppose the US does not include aviation in any policy. If Australia includes aviation in the ETS, flights from the US will become more expensive, while the prices of flights to other destinations, say Thailand, which do not apply climate change policies will be unchanged. US tourists will, to some extent, switch to Thailand. If Australia keeps to its GGE target, global GGEs will actually increase to the extent that additional tourism to Thailand increases GGEs.

Australia could exempt from its own ETS flights to countries which do not apply climate change policies to international aviation. It might do this while maintaining the same cap on GGEs. There would be a number of changes which would need to be taken into account:

- Achieving the target would mean that there would be higher costs of adaptation imposed on other industries;
- There would be greater benefits from inbound tourism to Australia;
- There would be a larger flow of outbound tourism from Australia, at some cost to the economy;
- GGEs produced in competitor destinations would be lower;
- GGEs produced in the destinations of Australian outbound travellers would be higher;
- Profits to Australian airlines would be lower to the extent that they would have profited from free or cheap permits; and
• Australian government revenues would be lower to the extent that the permits would have been sold to the airlines.

The balance of benefits costs and GGEs would be changed if a country excluded aviation from its ETS, but adjusted its emissions cap accordingly, so as to impose no burden on other industries. A looser GGE target would mean that the costs imposed on other industries by the ETS would be lower, but it would mean that Australian GGEs would increase, and most likely, global GGEs would increase.

Thus excluding international aviation from the ETS would involve costs and benefits to Australia, the balance of which could go either way. It would also have an uncertain impact on global GGEs, though probably it would reduce them. Thus the merits of doing this are unclear, though modelling simulations should be able to give some guidance on the likely balance.

CONCLUSION

Long haul air travel is a source of GGEs, and thus policies to mitigate climate change will impact upon it. Higher costs will feed into higher fares, and thus air travel will be reduced, with consequent loss of benefits to a country’s travelers, and loss of benefits due to reduced inbound tourism. Countries such as Australia which are intending to introduce climate change policies will need to determine how to fit long haul aviation into them. The issue is made more complex by consumer attitudes and public perceptions. The desires of some travellers to be responsible travellers, and be carbon neutral can be accommodated relatively easily, however the perception by many that aviation, and in particular long haul aviation is inherently damaging to the environment is more difficult to address.

REFERENCES


Environmental Resources as a Source of Sustained Competitive Advantage in Tourism

Maria RAZUMOVA
Applied Economics
University of the Balearic Islands, Spain
E-mail: maria.razumova@gmail.com

Javier REY-MAQUIERA
Applied Economics
University of the Balearic Islands, Spain
E-mail: javier.rey@uib.es

Javier LOZANO
Applied Economics
University of the Balearic Islands
E-mail: javier.lozano@uib.es

ABSTRACT
In recent years the resource-based view on the firm competitiveness has received a major attention from the researchers. According to this theory the environmental resources have the basic characteristics (heterogeneity and immobility) to generate the competitive advantage for a firm. However, no direct test of the resource based theory applied to environmental resources has been done so far. In the tourism sector the theory has been mostly used as the framework for the works focused on the importance of the environmental management and marketing and on the issues of environmental valuation. In this paper we propose the model for the analysis of the environmental resources as a source of competitive advantage in the accommodation sector. The model is tested on the sample of Balearic hotels, where we examine the relation between environmental resources and performance measures of the hotels. Our findings suggest that the hotels located in low congested areas, hotels which active pro-environmental behaviour and hotels which have artificial environmental resources such as swimming pools show better organizational performance than others.

Key words: Environmental resources, competitive advantage, hotels.

INTRODUCTION
In recent years the resource-based paradigm of the firm competitiveness has received a major attention from the researchers. Although the terminology has varied the resource-based theory researchers agree about the characteristics a resource must have to hold the potential to generate a sustainable competitive advantage for a firm: the resource must be heterogeneously distributed and immobile, valuable, rare, non-imitable, and nonsubstitutable (Barney 1991, 2001; Grant 1991; Peteraf 1993). Basing the logic we can note that many environmental resources have significant potential to generate a competitive advantage. Indeed, many types of environmental resources are heterogeneously distributed (natural resources as forests, lakes, beaches, etc.) Additionally, many of them are characterized by limited mobility due to the fact they are attributed to a geographical location. Moreover, the growing importance of the environmental problems lead to the creation of the natural-resource-based view, which claims that important future sources of competitive advantage cannot be identified without taking into account the firm’s relationship to the natural environment (Hart 1995).

The literature regarding the relationship between the environment and competitive advantage in tourism sector can be divided into two broad categories. First of all, there is significant number of studies investigating this relationship within the framework of the effect of environmental management on competitiveness of tourism sector, where the accommodation sector has received significant attention from the researchers. There can be cited numerous studies investigating the effect of the environmental management on environmental and financial performance of hotels and competitiveness (García Rodríguez and Armas Cruz 2006; Carmona-Moreno et al. 2004; Alvares Gil et al. 2001; Huybers and Bennett 2000; Parra López et al. 2004). Secondly, and apart from the studies focusing on the link between environment management and competitiveness, there is a bulk of studies on the valuation of the environmental resources, including valuation of natural areas (Lee 1997; Taylor and Smith 2000; Riera Font 2000; Shrestha et al. 2007), aesthetic environmental improvements and aesthetic quality (Randal et al. 1974, Baddeley 2004), forest resources for recreational purposes (Brey et al. 2007; Sattout et al. 2007), water quality and health of the coral reefs (Park et al. 2002) and many other environmental resources.

However, in can be seen that these works are not really direct tests of the resource based theory applied to the environmental resources. In these works the resource based theory is used to establish the context of the research, rather than to test the assertions of the theory. The aim of this work is to make a direct test of the resource based theory applied to the environmental resources. The logic of the paper is as follows. First, we develop the model of the sources of environmental competitive advantage. Secondly, on the sample of Balearic hotels we reveal the groups of hotels which have the same environmental re-
sources. Then we test whether these resources create a competitive advantage for the hotels by comparing the organizational performance between the groups. Finally, we conclude on the potential of different environmental resources to create a sustainable competitive advantage in the form of superior hotel performance.

The data source for this work is the database on the 101 hotel situated on four islands of the Balearic archipelago. The database was worked out by the Economic Faculty of the University of the Balearic Islands in 2006. The sample of hotels is represented by the accommodation facilities situated at four islands of the Balearic archipelago – Mallorca, Menorca, Ibiza and Formentera. The database provides the information on the number of the hotels characteristics related to the environment, including characteristics of the area where the hotel is situated, and measures of hotel’s performance. The data analysis was realized using STATA software version 9.0.

ENVIRONMENTAL RESOURCES AND COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE

To identify the resources which may become the source of competitive advantage of a hotel we used the model of destination competitiveness developed by Crouch and Ritchie (Crouch and Ritchie 1999). In this model the environmental factors appear in the dimensions of destination’s Core resources and Attractors and in the dimension of Destination management which includes activities which enhance the appeal of the core resources, such as environmental management and environmental marketing. The abovementioned considerations resulted in four dimensional concepts of the sources of environmental competitive advantage in hotels. They are the dimensions of physical environmental resources of shared and exclusive use of the hotel, dimension of environmental management of hotel and the dimension of environmental marketing.

Environmental resources for shared use (outside hotel’s territory). In this category we include the environmental resources which may be considered as environmental tourist attractors (Crouch and Ritchie 1999). The database provides the following variables describing the outside environment of a hotel and its quality: whether the hotels is located in first line, percentage of nice scenic views from hotel rooms, distance to the nearest beach and presence of natural and non-natural attractions nearby, level of congestion and edification and environmental quality of the area. By the nature all these resources are heterogeneous and perfectly immobile. These resources are valuable because they increase the attractiveness of the hotel, which may lead to higher efficiency and effectiveness. As for rarity characteristics the following logic may be applied. As far as the physical environmental resources are concerned (first line location of the hotel, distance to the nearest beach and natural and non-natural attractions nearby, picturesque views from hotel rooms) the majority of them are public goods (for example, in Spain, very few hotels have private beaches or private coastal territories). However, some hotels are situated closer to these resources than others, and, thus, these resources can be attributed to the hotels is different. Thus, these resources can be considered rare in the sense that that number of hotels with such superior location close to these resources “is less that the number needed to generate perfect competition dynamics” (Barney 1991: 107). As for the environmental characteristic of the area such as low congestion, low edification, high environmental quality and share of rooms with picturesque views, they are rare, because they may only exist if the number of hotels in the area is small. The imperfect imitatibility of many of such resource is due to their space- and time dependent nature. Indeed, the most valuable locations, i.e. first line, proximity to beaches and natural and non-natural environmental resources, have been occupied first. The substitutability of such resources is subject to empirical research, however it is difficult to imagine many similar or different resources to those mentioned before used to conceive and implement the same strategy to generate a sustained competitive advantage (Hirshleifer 1980).

Environmental resources for exclusive use (inside hotel’s territory). The few substitutes of outside environmental resources that may be thought of are resources that a hotel may develop on its territory. For example, if a hotel is situated far from the sea and the beaches the big swimming facilities and green superficies can become a substitute to these resources to some extend. Additionally, as both resources improve visual amenities, they can also increase the share of rooms with nice views. However, a resource can be a substitute of another resource if it is itself not rare or imitable (Barney 1991). Although most of the hotels have swimming pools and green zones, the big superficies per guest room are rare. Such resources are imperfectly imitable because these characteristics of a hotel are determined on the construction stage, so only new hotels may develop such resources on their territory. It can be concluded that both resources possess necessary characteristics to be a substitute of the natural environmental resource. On the other hand, swimming pool has its own value as an environmental resource due to the fresh water, safety for kids, controllable temperature and may independently generate environmental competitive advantage for hotel.
Environmental management. Environmental management is an important firm resource, as it enables the firm to conceive and implement strategies that improve its efficiency and effectiveness. However, the environmental management is not likely to be rare as many companies apply it nowadays and it is imitable as there are many public resources describing it. However, it may be that the environmental management in a firm enables a firm to recognize and exploit some sources of competitive advantage. The database used in this study provides two tools of environmental management. First one is the presence of environmental certificates (EMAS (Eco-Management and Audit Schemes), Q Verde and ISO 14000 (Environmental management standards)). Second one is whether hotel made any expenditure to improve the quality, including environmental quality, of the area, in last three years.

Environmental image (marketing). To address the non-use values of the environmentally concerned clients the hotel needs not only to realize the environmentally sound practices, but also to make tourists aware of them. However, according to the resource view the image of environmentally friendly performance is not likely to generate sustained competitive advantage, because it is not rare and easy imitable, although may require a certain period of time. Nevertheless, the resource based view suggest that valuable but common firm resources are also important, because can help to ensure a firms survival under conditions of competitive parity in an industry (Barney 1989a). Indeed, in the situation that more and more firms go “green”, it is possible that in the nearest future the environmental image will become a condition of economic survival of tourism businesses. The database provides us with the data on the importance the hotels give to environmental marketing tools in the promotion strategy, grading by 1 to 7 scale from “not important” to “very important”. For the aims of this study we assume that the higher importance given to environmental marketing results in a stronger environmental image and use this variable as a proxy measure of the strength of environmental image. Table 1 provides the description of the variables selected for the analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n=21</td>
<td>n=26</td>
<td>n=8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n=4</td>
<td>n=18</td>
<td>n=24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Financial performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GOP valuation compared to the sector average (1 to 7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0,67*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Valuation of performance in the crisis years compared to the sector average (1 to 7)

| Valuation of performance in the crisis years | 0,69* | 0,636 | 4,21 | 4,38 | 4,57 | 4,5 | 4,44 | 4,14 |

Hotel activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valuation of capacity to generate extra revenues compared to the sector average (1 to 7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2,76*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Average occupancy rate, %

| Average occupancy rate, % | 0,91* | 0,477 | 77,21 | 74,08 | 71,5 | 72,75 | 75,47 | 79,21 |

Relationship with tour operators

| Price paid by the major tour operator in May, Euros | 2,77* | 0,023 | 48,46 | 69,41 | 41,14 | 105,5 | 52,57 | 36,2 |
| Price paid by the major tour operator in August, Euros | 1,14* | 0,347 | 80,29 | 95,82 | 69 | 113,55 | 81,86 | 68,31 |

Occupancy rate due to the tour operators, %

| Occupancy rate due to the tour operators, % | 2,30* | 0,051 | 67,39 | 56,39 | 59,70 | 38,19 | 66,41 | 64,65 |

Organizational quality

| Satisfaction of clients | 1,61* | 0,166 | 5,62 | 5,65 | 5,75 | 5,75 | 5,44 | 5,17 |

Table 1. Differences in Organizational performance across strategic groups of hotels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Cluster</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean values in the groups
MEASURING COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE: HOTEL PERFORMANCE

The measurement of the competitive advantage is one of the ambiguous aspects of the resource-based theory and different approaches to measure it have been proposed. However, Barney notes that if the resource based theory is seen as a way to explain the sources of competitive advantage, all the definitions may make sense if the researches clearly specify what they are trying to explain (Barney 2001). Thus, the aim of this paper is to try to explain the performance of hotels by the competitive advantages generated by environmental resources. It is widely assumed in the literature that the organizational performance is a complex construct which is based not only on financial results but also on operational indicators (Venkatraman and Ramanujam 1986). Our construct of hotel organizational performance is derived from the four dimensional scale proposed by Espino-Rodriguez et al. (2005). The authors specify one financial dimension (Financial performance) and three non-financial (Organizational quality, Employee welfare and Hotel activity index).

In this study the following measures are used. Financial performance dimension is represented by the measures of hotels gross operational profit and performance in crisis years. The respondents were asked to rate their firm performance to that of sector average on the scale between 1 (much below the sector average) and 7 (much above the sector average). Hotel activity dimension contains two measures. The occupancy rate is the average occupancy of the hotel during the year. The capacity to generate extra revenues refers to all the revenues apart from the room rate and measured in relative terms comparing to the sector average on the scale between 1 (much below the sector average) and 7 (much above the sector average). Organizational quality dimension is represented by the client’s satisfaction rate and the repeating visits rate. The satisfaction of the clients was measured from by 1 (low) to 7 (high) scale. The repeat visits rate was measured as the share of the tourists for whom the staying in the hotel in 2005 was not for the first time. Employee welfare dimension is represented by the manager’s perception of the degree of employees satisfaction with the job measured by 1 (low) to 7 (high) scale.

In attempt to improve the construct we added the new dimension “Relationship with tour operators”. Some authors propose to use the existing control over prices as the measures of hotel competitiveness level (Yagüe Guillén et al. 1999; Iglesias Arguelles 1999; Parra López et al. 2004). According to this approach the hotel is more competitive, if it has the control over pricing and not the tour operator. To measure this variable we propose to use the following available measures which may give insight on the degree of hotel’s control over pricing. Prices paid by tour operators in May and in August are the actual price rates paid by the hotel’s principal tour operator in May and August for a B&B double room. Here we assume that the higher prices indicate higher market power of hotels (Taylor and Smith 2000), although when comparing the hotels performance the category of the hotels and occupancy rate will be taken into account. To get the better insight into the hotels bargaining power we include a measure reflecting the importance of the tour operators in selling hotel rooms. Occupancy due to tour operators shows the actual share of hotel’s rooms realized through this distribution channel.

METHODOLOGY

Once the environmental variables of the hotels are identified we use the factor analysis technique to establish dimensions of the data. This technique is widely applied in management studies, where the derived factors or dimensions are interpreted as “strategies” used by the firms (Carmona-Moreno 2004; Claver-Cortéz 2006, 2007) and then used for the classification of firms. In this study we apply the factor analysis to find out what dimensions underlie our set of environmental variables of the hotels. The dimensions are then interpreted as environmental strategies used by hotels to create environmental competitive advantage. Then the hotels are classified into the groups with the similar set of environmental strategies by the means of the 2-stage cluster analysis (Pung and Steward 1983). Finally, to identify what environmental resources produce the competitive advantage, we analyse the differences in the performance measures between the groups of the hotels with similar sets of environmental strategies. To do so ANOVA, ANCOVA, Kruskal-Wallis and Pearson’s chi-square tests were carried out depending on the types of related variables.
RESULTS

The factor analysis was applied to twelve environmentally related characteristics of the hotels and the areas where they are situated described in 2.2. It revealed six principal factors or six environmental strategies applied by the hotels to create environmental competitive advantage. First factor receives the name of “Low developed area strategy” since it has high scores for the low congestion and low edification characteristics of the area. This factor also has an important score on the size of green zones per guest room which is also can be a characteristic of underdeveloped areas as low concentration of the buildings permits the hotels to develop big superficies of green zones. Second factor corresponds to the “Sun and beach location strategy” because it has high loads on the variables measuring the distance to the nearest beach and whether the hotel is situated in the first line or not. These two variables have opposite signs which mean they are negatively related. Third factor receives the name of “Green strategy”, since in has high factor scores in the variables that measure the importance of using pro-environmental actions in promotion strategy, expenditures to improve the area and current environmental quality of the area. Fourth factor can be called “Environmental resources for hotel clients exclusive use strategy”. It loads to the size of swimming pools and number of environmental certificates. All variables have the same sign which means they are positively related. Fifth factor may be called “Picturesque views strategy”. This factor has significant score only on the variable of the percentage of the rooms with nice views. Sixth factor is “Natural and non-natural resources strategy”, as it loads on the variable whether the hotel has any natural or non-natural resource nearby that makes it more attractive for the tourists.

The cluster analysis applied to six strategies discovered, revealed six clusters of hotels with similar sets of strategies.

Cluster 1. Sun and beach hotels

This group is represented by the hotels with traditional sun and beach orientation (21 hotels). The environmental competitive advantage of these hotels is based on the first line location (all of them in the group), a beach nearby (average distance is 50 meters), and on the significant share of the rooms with nice views (82%). At the same time another important characteristic of these hotels is that they have the lowest score in using Green strategy to create the environmental competitive advantage. Few of them did any expenditure to improve the area and they do not seem to be focused on green tourists as the importance they give to the pro-environmental actions in the promotion strategy is low.

Cluster 2. Sun and beach “green” hotels

The hotels in this group have also a strong competitive advantage for sun and beach type of vacation. They are mostly situated in the first line and the distance to the beach is small (128 meters in average). However, differently from the Cluster 1 the hotels in this group make expenditures to maintain or improve the environmental quality of the area and consider very important the mentioning of the pro-environmental actions in their promotion strategy (4,73 comparing to the average value of 3,39). The environmental quality of the area where these hotels are situated are higher that the average (5,04 comparing the average value of 4,32).

Cluster 3. Sun and beach “green” hotels with environmental resources for hotel clients exclusive use

This is the third cluster of hotels with high score in Sun and Beach factor (63% of the hotels are situated in the first line and have a beach in 145 meters in average), but differently from the two previous groups it is characterized by both active behaviour to create the “green” image and also by the significant environmental resources for hotel clients exclusive use. The swimming pools per guest room in these hotels are approximately 2.4 times bigger than the average. Interesting to note that the swimming pool is not a substitute of the sea, as the distance to the sea is small and the environmental quality of the area is high, but it is rather a resource having its own value for the tourists.

Cluster 4. Hotels in underdeveloped areas

It appears that the hotels in this cluster see their competitive advantage in being situated in the undeveloped areas. The main characteristic of this cluster of four hotels is that the areas, where they are situated, are considered by the tourists as the least congested and the least urbanized comparing to the hotels in other clusters. Additionally, these hotels have the biggest superficies of green zones per guest room which can be due to the low urbanization of the areas. At the same time these hotels are situated very far from the sea and beaches. In this respect it is interesting to note that the size of swimming pools per guest room is quite close to the average. This gives another reason to suggest that the internal resources are not considered by the managers of the hotels as a substitute of the sea and the beaches.
Cluster 5. Hotels with outside views disadvantage

The most prominent feature of this group of hotels is that they have the lowest score in the share of the rooms with views (21% in average). As for other factors the hotels in this group have the scores very close to the average value. Thus, differently from previous four groups this group seems to have no competitive advantage, but has a characteristic that makes it clearly inferior comparing to other groups.

Cluster 6. Hotels in congested and urbanized areas

This group includes the hotels situated in the areas most congested and urbanized among the groups. The average score given to corresponding indicators is 2.38 which means the tourists consider these areas as quite congested and urbanized. The green zones per guest room index is the smallest among the groups. As for the other environmental characteristics it can be seen that, like in the previous group, the average scores achieved by the hotels in this group are close to the average values.

PERFORMANCE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STRATEGIC GROUPS

This part of the analysis was performed to compare the differences between the groups corresponding to the variables measuring the hotel performance. Table 5 reports the mean for each performance variable and significance of the corresponding tests (ANOVA, ANCOVA, Kruskal-Wallis, Pearson chi-square).

The results show that significant differences among the groups are found in three dimensions out of five. In the dimension of Hotel activity the statistically significant differences exist in the valuation of hotels capacity to generate extra revenues. The hotels in undeveloped areas (Cluster 4) report the highest self-valuation on this indicator. The possible explanation is that although the areas where these hotels are situated are unfavourable for sun and beach activities, the low congestion and low edification provide better conditions for additional services such as excursions, rent of bicycles, etc. Such activities are now experiencing a growing interest from the tourist, as the nowadays traveller increasingly seeks for the experiences that go beyond the passive visitation practices (Crouch and Ritchie 1999). As for the hotel occupancy rate indicator, the differences are not found statistically significant.

In Organizational quality dimension the statistically significant differences are found in repeat visits indicator. The group of hotels in underdeveloped areas (Cluster 4) have the highest score (38%), which is significantly higher that in other groups (approximately 22-24%). The differences in the clients’ satisfaction indicator are not significant at the 10% significance level, but there is some evidence that hotels in underdeveloped areas (Cluster 4) and sun and beach green hotels with environmental resources for exclusive use (Cluster 3) have better results on this indicator than the hotels in other groups.

In the dimension of Relationship with tour operators the statistically significant differences are found in all variables except Price paid by the major tour operator in August. Thus, in May the highest prices are paid to the hotels in the underdeveloped areas (Cluster 4), meanwhile the lowest prices are paid to the hotels in congested areas (Cluster 6). This may suggest that there is demand for such zones from the tourists and the tour operators are willing to pay premium prices to the hotels situated in such locations. However, the differences in prices paid by the tour operators in August are not statistically significant, which may suggest that the tourists coming in high season are less environmentally concerned. The significant differences are also found in the share of hotels rooms sold through the tour operators. It can be seen that the hotels in undeveloped areas are least dependent on the tour operators. The share of rooms sold by tour operators in these hotels is 38%, while in other groups it is between 56% and 67%.

CONCLUSION

In this paper we developed the model to analyze the potential of environmental resources as a source of competitive advantage on the case of the accommodation sector of the Balearics archipelago. The model proposed combines in one framework the physical environmental resources, which attract the tourists, environmental management tools to guarantee the sustainable use of the resources and the environmental marketing tools to create environmental image and, thus, to influence visiting decisions of potential tourists.

The factor analysis revealed six strategies implemented by the hotels to address the environmental values of the tourists. There are four strategies related to location of the hotels, a strategy aimed at the development of the artificial environmental resources and a strategy of active involvement into environmental management and marketing.

Cluster analysis revealed six groups of hotels according to the degree of implementation of each of six strategies to address the environmental values of tourists. There are three clusters of hotels situated in the areas very convenient for sun and beach vacations. The difference between them is that two of these
groups also follow the strategy of active environmental management and marketing, and one of them adds to the “green” orientation the strategy of development of environmental resources for the exclusive use by hotel clients. There is also one cluster of hotels situated in areas with low grade of congestion and edification. Finally, there were revealed two groups of hotels which do not actively address either of the environmental values of tourists and even have significant disadvantages, such as very small share of rooms with nice views and location in highly congested and urbanized areas.

The analysis of the difference in performance between the groups of hotels with different types of environmental resources shows that some of the resources can be a source of competitive advantage. Thus, it results that the hotels is underdeveloped areas show the highest results comparing to other groups in ability to generate extra revenues, repeat visits rate, highest prices paid by the tour operators in May and smaller dependence on the tour operator measured as the share of sales realized through this distribution channel. Further, it was found that the hotels located near the sea and the beaches show poorer performance than the hotels in underdeveloped areas far from the sea, unless they apply additional differentiation strategy. Thus, only the environmentally proactive sun and beach hotels and environmentally proactive sun and beach hotels with environmental resources for clients exclusive use (swimming pools) report the results comparable to that of the hotels located in underdeveloped areas. Another finding is that the high congestion and edification of the area show to be an important disadvantage for the hotels competitiveness. The hotels situated in such areas report smallest capacity to generate extra revenues, lowest repeat visit rates and the lowest prices paid by the tour operators.

REFERENCES


Perceiving Romania as a Sustainable Tourism Destination

Mazilu MIRELA
Faculty of Economics and Business Administration
University of Craiova, Romania
E-mail: mirelamazilu2004@yahoo.com

Marinescu ROXANA
Faculty of Economics and Business Administration
University of Craiova, Romania
E-mail: roxanaezeverineanus@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
The lasting administration of destinations is essential for the tourism development, especially by planning the efficient use of space and land and also by controlling the development and deciding to invest in infrastructure and services. Vouching for the fact that the new tourism development is by scale and type adequate to the needs of the local community and environment, the sustainable administration may, on long term, consolidate the economic performances and competitive position of one destination. This implies a supporting frame to involve all the local and regional interested parts and also an efficient structure to facilitate the partnership and effective management. A basic requirement for the existence and qualitative perenniality of the tourism destination from Romania is to remain competitive. The actions made in this direction should be considered as part of the creating process of a sustainable feature which represents one of the most important competitive advantages. In consequence, in order to assure their competitiveness, viability and prosperity on long term, the touristic destinations should focus more on the complete integration of the preoccupations regarding the durability within the decision process and within their administration practices and tools.

Key words: Destination management, tourism development, sustainable development.

INTRODUCTION
At the beginning of this century and millennium, the tourism and travel industry represents the most dynamic sector of activity in the world and, in the same time, the most important creator of free jobs. From the economic point of view, the tourism represents also the main source to rectify the national economies of those countries which are endowed with important tourism resources and take good advantages out of them.

In this context, the main arguments which determine the necessity to develop the tourism spring from the following aspects (Cristureanu 2006):

- the tourism resources being practically inexhaustible, the tourism represents one of the economic sectors with real perspectives concerning the long term development;
- the complete exploitation and turning into good account of the tourism resources together with an efficient promotion on the foreign markets may represent a source to increase the currency incomes of the state, leading so to the equilibrium of the balance of foreign payment;
- the tourism represents a secure market for the labour force and one which redistributes the unemployment from other economic sectors which were deeply reorganised;
- the tourism represents a way to promote the image of a country and so to take part directly or indirectly to the promotion of export trade on the world market;
- the tourism, due to its multiplying effect, acts like a stimulating element of the global economic system generating a specific demand for goods and services which draws an increase in the production of these goods and services and so it contributes to the diversification of the structure of the national economy;
- the harmonious development of the tourism on the entire territory leads to the economic and social growth and decreases the lacks of balance between different regions, representing in the same time an important source of increasing the incomes of the population;
- the tourism represents a way of developing the rural regions by enlarging the area of the specific offer and creating jobs, other than the traditional ones, in this rural environment improving the living conditions and increasing the incomes of the local population;
- in the context of respecting and promoting the principles of lasting development, the tourism represents a way to protect, preserve and turn into good account the cultural, historical, folk and architectural potential of the counties;
- by adopting a strategy of lasting development and imposing some measures to protect the environment and basic values of the human ex-
istence (water, air, flora, fauna, ecosystems etc.), the tourism has in the
same time an ecological vocation;

- socially, the tourism acts like an active way of educating and raising
  the training and civilisation level of the people playing a special role in
  spending the spare time of the population.

The main results of the studies which were made are that perceiving Romania as tourism destination is unclear; it does not have a good reputation as destination for the occasional tourists. This is partly caused by:

- Deficiencies in the destination marketing
- Lack of the governmental support in tourism
- Unprofessional practices in the field of the business tourism
- Low standards of the services for visitors
- Inadequate tourism infrastructure, facilities and ways of spending the
  spare time.

The most positive perceptions upon Romania belong to the Israel people who more than a quarter noticed the “beauty of the scenery” as an optimal impression and only 2% noticed the “poverty”.

There is a considerable difference between the attitudes of the ones who lived directly the tourism experience of Romania after visiting the country and the ones who did not live this thing.

The first ones have a stronger perception upon Romania than the second group. For example, the Hungarians who visited Romania remarked the fact that the tourism infrastructure and beauty of the country landscapes and the hospitality over-met their expectations; in contrast, the ones who did not visit Romania have a negative perception upon the roads, accommodation places, public safety, and hygiene and quality level of services. The studies made in Austria revealed the fact that the visitors were “pleasantly surprised” in their trip in Romania. Even among the Frenchmen agree that Romania “makes progresses concerning its image”. Though, the visitors noticed while visiting Romania the low level of the environment protection and great amount of wastes etc.

The prices are perceived as being low in Romania. This aspect may be considered both an advantage and a problem for the tourism development. Although the low prices may be a stimulus to the development of this sector, the destination that comes to be known everywhere as a “cheep” destination will encounter difficulties in drawing the attention of the market in the case it tries
to diversify itself into higher categories of attractions and facilities. The low prices should not represent an important element of the marketing strategy regarding the Romanian destinations.

The consequences of the poor informing and acknowledgement of the Romanian tourism attractions and product offer are that that traveling motivations are relatively low in comparison with the competing destinations. From the ones who do not have the experience of visiting Romania, less than a half are clearly interested in visiting Romania during the next holiday, naming:

- Britshers 27% (with 27% more who „may be interested” given the
  45% for Bulgaria, 40% for Croatia, 38% for the Czech Republic, 36% for
  Russia, 32% for Hungary and 28% for Poland).
- Frenchmen 39% (given the 60% for Hungary, 59% for Croatia, 53% for
  Russia, 52% for Poland, 50% for Bulgaria and 49% for the Czech
  Republic).
- Italians 16% (with 16% more who replied „maybe“)
- Germans 3% in the next three years (plus 16% „maybe“)
- Hungarians 32% for every purposes (“definitely” or „probably“)
- Austrians 20% (with 38% more who replied with „possibly“)
- Israel people 35%
- Danish 37% out of the ones who had visited before Romania (50% who
  visited before Romania)

Analysing the reasons of the intentions of the ones who have not visited yet Romania, we get answers related to:

- lack of information / knowledge;
- lack of destination marketing and
- fears about the tourism infrastructure, facilities and services.

In the first place, the tourism circuits which include the visit of the cultural / patrimonial objectives from Transylvania present the greatest interest on all markets; for example 41% out of the Italians who expressed their interest in visiting Romania wished to take a trip of this kind. For the tourists coming from Germany, Scandinavian Countries and France, the Black Sea remains a great attraction point.

Secondly, in contrast with the first point – many Europeans who are interested in visiting Romania are part of the groups of young ages; from the Frenchmen who were interviewed during the study and expressed their inter-
in spending their holiday in Romania 23% were between 25-34 years old (given the 19% out of the Total of the group of age which was interviewed). In Great Britain, the “possible visitors” in Romania – referring to the ones towards who the marketing activities should direct to in order to transform their interest into demand – are strongly in favour of the active tourism than the ones who say that they would like to visit Romania. Analysing the British market there springs the opportunity to have as target public:

- the explorers (independent travellers in search for unique destinations).
- travellers in search for adventure, and
- students.

Thirdly, the active holidays are of a low interest; for example 20% of the Italians wish to go into trips, 14% wish to travel by canoe on Danube and 9% to practice nautical, winter or other sports such as riding.

In order to emphasize better these aspects, the SWOT analyse of Romania as tourism destination points out as:

**Strong and Weak aspects of Romania as tourism destination**

1. **Strong aspects of Romania as tourism destination**

   **Geography and environment**
   - the bio-diversity of the Danube Delta (Reservation of the Biosphere, belonging to the World Patrimony of UNESCO)
   - the diversity of the national parks and protected areas – 7% of the surface of the country – with non polluted forests, lakes and rivers
   - the seaside and beaches of the Black Sea
   - the Carpathians
   - the Danube
   - the great number of caves
   - the diversity of the flora and fauna out of which many species are unique or with the higher density in Europe, especially big carnivores
   - 35% of the mineral and mofette springs from Europe which offer a large range of balneary treatments
   - continental temperate climate

   ✓ good natural conditions for tourism activities – ski, trips on mountains, horse racing, cycling, nautical sports etc.
   ✓ Culture and cultural patrimony
   ✓ the diversity of the patrimony objectives – monasteries, archaeological sites, fortifications etc., including 7 objectives/areas included into the world patrimony of UNESCO
   ✓ medieval fortresses
   ✓ rural settlements where the traditional way of life may be lived
   ✓ museums – of different kinds
   ✓ musical-artistic shows – both classic and modern
   ✓ a wide range of festivals celebrating the traditions and folklore
   ✓ legends – Dracula etc.
   ✓ Sibiu – declared as the Cultural Capital of Europe in 2007
   ✓ Infrastructure, transport and communications
   ✓ a good network of airports
   ✓ a large railway network – the fourth in size in Europe
   ✓ an ample road network with many border crossing points
   ✓ many air transport companies with a complex network of the destinations
   ✓ motor coaches of high quality serving for the interurban transport and other means of transport offered by tour-operators
   ✓ the system of the fluvial transport is well set up
   ✓ telecommunication networks well developed – telephone, radio, GSM, satellite
   ✓ supply the electric energy for 95% of the country
   ✓ Human resources
   ✓ a country with hospitable people by tradition
   ✓ young population with linguistic abilities which offers a potential to the human resources from tourism
   ✓ there was founded the National Centre for Tourism Training which monitor the professional training from the hotel industry
   ✓ tourism lectures given by many auxiliary training institutions
   ✓ numerous tour-operators which are qualified and with experience
The law frame and its organisation
the authorizing system of the tourism activity and tourism services suppliers is functional but under pressures of different kinds
strong juridical frame to administrate the protected areas (national parks, reservations of the bio-sphere) and protect the environment
specialists of the National Authority for Tourism with a rich experience playing the role of coordinating the tourism development
Marketing and promotion
dynamic sector of the tourism operators
the National Institute for Research-Development in Tourism (INCDT)
the network from abroad of offices for tourism promotion and informing belonging to the National Authority for Tourism
complex programme for tourism promotion abroad – publicity, fairs, mass-media and visits of the tourism operators
the existing tourism brands – Dracula and Transylvania
Others
the considerable interest of the foreign investors in the tourism development

2. Weak aspects of Romania as tourism destination

Geography and environment

- industrial pollution
- unrigged and polluting industrial units with a visual negative impact
- insufficiently spread or inefficient collecting and recycling points of the wastes
- the pollution of the Danube, Black Sea and rivers
- the erosion and pollution of the beaches
- the climate change represents a threat for the mountain ski resorts
- a lame implementation of the environment legislation due to the lack in the human and material resources

excessive density of the tourism units in certain region
abusive use of the forests

Culture and cultural patrimony

- the state of degradation of many buildings and historical monuments
- the implementation of the legislation regarding the preservation of the buildings and architectural characteristics is lacking
- the guiding and translation services in museums are often of a poor quality
- the lack of the investments from the state in developing and promoting the cultural objectives – museums, monuments etc.
- the lack of a data base of the festivals and cultural events which to permit an efficient promotion towards the tourists (home and foreign visitors)
- the lack in supporting the local traditions and folklore

Infrastructure, transport and communications

- the poor endowment of the local airports and railway stations
- in some cases, there is necessary the extension of the flight strips from airports in order to transform them into regional centres of the air transport and facilitate the tourism development
- the poor quality of the trains and buses
- the poor quality of the roads
- the lack of highways and unfinished trans-European roads
- lack of the belt roads around the historical cities
- lack of the indicators for tourism objectives and attractions – brown international conventional tourism indicators
- the insufficient electrification of the railway system
- hard access for the persons with disabilities to many hotels and places of tourism attraction
- the lack of the sewerage and water supplying systems especially in the rural parts of the country
✓ the poor use of the sources of alternative energy
✓ many accommodation units require modernisation works
✓ the camping facilities are often of poor quality
✓ superannuated endowments in many balneary resorts
✓ the lack of the parking places and sanitary groups of many tourism objectives
✓ the undeveloped and badly spread network of the tourism info centres
✓ uncontrolled national routes of air transport and flight timetables
✓ poor facilities of terrestrial transport within the regional airport
✓ the lack of an international conference centre specially designated for this purpose

**Human resources**

✓ the poor awareness of the importance of tourism for the economy
✓ the lack of the training for the hotel personnel
✓ small salaries and hard working conditions facts that stimulate the migration of the labour force from the hotel industry
✓ the professional training from the hotel sector does not exactly meet the needs of the employees
✓ the lack of the lectures for professional training on sites
✓ the migration of the labour force from the hotel industry
✓ the insufficient education in schools regarding the environment and tourism protection
✓ the poor awareness upon the opportunities and potential to develop a tourism career

**The law frame and its organisation**

✓ the standards according to which the authorizations are given in the tourism business require a revision in order to be brought to the present demands on the market
✓ the lack of the institutional structures for the regional development of the tourism
✓ the lack of the plans regarding the integrated tourism development of the cities / resorts
✓ the lack of stimulus and supporting mechanisms for investors
✓ the juridical problems which remain unsolved regarding the ownership of the land and real estates fact which limits the development
✓ the poor intergovernmental consultation before issuing new laws
✓ the implementation of the necessary legislation is often inadequate –some priorities being necessary to be settled
✓ the priority regarding the circulation on certain types of roads must be settled

**Marketing and promotion**

✓ the lack of a powerful and positive image abroad regarding Romania as tourism destination
✓ the lack of an national official marketing plan of the tourism destinations
✓ the insufficient study of the market
✓ insufficient employees abroad in the offices of the National Authority for Tourism fact which limits the market penetration
✓ uncoordinated network of the info centres in Romania which are supposed to offer services of different levels
✓ the insufficient use of the informatic means and internet in order to get informed, marketing and booking
✓ reduced collaboration between the public and private sector on marketing issues

**Others**

✓ short season of the seaside and mountain resorts

Weighing and analysing the component parts of the four view points of the SWOT analysis, we may find with lucidity and realism as well that we are far from obtaining what the governmental policy of Romania have settled: that the Tourism is a national priority concerning the period between 2007-2013....
It is obvious even from the Moon that the tourism remained a Cinderella that needs to be taken out … promoted - if possible in the best ways with little money and maximum results…

REFERENCES


Construction Forms in Coastal Tourism Developments with Regard to “Environment” Some Reflections from South Antalya Region, Turkey

Meryem ATIK
Landscape Architecture
Akdeniz University, Turkey
E-mail: meryematik@akdeniz.edu.tr

Hacer MUTLU DANACI
Landscape Architecture
Akdeniz University, Turkey
E-mail: hacermutlu@akdeniz.edu.tr

ABSTRACT
Tourism developments have usually take place on coastal areas in different construction forms. There is a clear fact that tourism depends heavily on natural environment and resources for its services and products. Spatial changes exaggerated by tourism demands alter construction forms as resort, urban, rural, village and remote. However environmental impacts on coastal areas, coastal background and remote areas are invariable. Construction forms in tourism developments, with their impact periphery on coastal environments was discussed in this study. Some examples of resort, urban and resort construction forms were evaluated with some examples from South Antalya Region. General tendency was conversion from resort and village into more urban and recently rural and remote construction form.

Key words: Tourism development, environment, South Antalya Region.

INTRODUCTION
Humans have been travelling for purpose of pleasure, curiosity, cultural exchange and particularly exploring new geographies. Terms of tourism covers long or short time movement of people for such destinations that they either normally don not work or live. Besides benefits of creating jobs and income, improving local infrastructure, exchanging cultures, environmental impacts of tourism developments including land degradation, loss of ecologically important habitats must be critically considered.

From the beginning tourism activities and developments have been taking place in such pristine natural environments. As the environment stands on the total interaction of all living and non-living elements humans have great impacts on physical and natural environment. However these effects are more evident in tourism developments which highly depend on natural environment and resources for its services and products. Relationship between tourism and environment depends on the ecological characteristics of the area that the tourism developments take place, type, scale and extend of activities. However coastal areas have always been focal point for tourism due to natural amenities. Construction forms in tourism developments have strong influence on the scale and extend of tourism impacts which can summarize such resort, urban, rural or remote.

In recent years fragmentation in tourism development particularly on coastal lands is highly apparent whereas Atik (2003) indicated that 847 ha of coastal forests in South Antalya Region was transformed into tourism developments since 1970s, almost 70% of sand dunes in Sicily Gibrallar has been disappeared since 1980s (Stanners and Bourdeu 1995). Turkey has an exceptional wealth of tourism assets which compare favourably with those of competing countries in the Mediterranean region (Alipour 1996). Its natural attractions mostly stand on unspoiled landscape along its 8333 km of coastline. Tourism developments in Turkey had a rapid increase after the 1970’s, consequently first planning example with environmental concern for Prior Areas for Tourism Developments along Aegean and Mediterranean Coasts. However such tourism developments have been recently enlarged from coastal towards remote natural areas. Construction forms in tourism developments, with their impact periphery on coastal environments was discussed in this study. Some examples of resort, urban and resort construction forms were evaluated with some examples from south Antalya Region.

METHOD AND MATERIAL
Method of the study based on the examination of construction forms in tourism developments on coastal areas and their impact periphery in different zones. Hereby construction forms was adapted from Micallef et al. (2004) and Johnson (2006) as resort, urban, village, rural and remote areas, where impact periphery was derived from Gormsen (1997) as coastal areas, coastal background and remote areas.
South Antalya Region was selected as example area that situating on the western part of Antalya which was subjected to first integrated tourism project in Turkey with Beldibi, Göynük, Kemer and Tekirova sub-quarters (Figure 1).

**CONSTRUCTION FORMS**

Simply known as a summer place, resort is a tourist settlement having tourist arrival at least half of its population, easy access and infrastructure facilities with natural features. Given in Figure 2, a resort includes hotels, holiday villages, recreation and parking areas, supportive settlements and commercial areas. Hotels in a resort are high capacity, multi-story buildings or number of distributed small scale buildings of holiday villages. A resort can be a self-contained entity that fulfils the recreational needs of people of whom reside at the resort hotel.

**URBAN**

Urban areas serve large populations with well-established public services e.g. banks, post office, a well marked central business district or commercial activities such as fishing/boating harbours and marinas (Micallef et al., 2004). Urban tourism usually takes place in historical settings. But concrete buildings for meeting tourism demands often contradict with historical environment in term of form, line and texture. Urban tourism realized on short weekends, for meeting, congress and cultural visits. Land manipulation in urban areas is powerful exaggerating multi storey building density towards adjacent settlements. There is tendency in urban construction form in coastal tourism to grow either both sides or towards seaside (Figure 3).

**VILLAGE**

Located outside the main urban settlement village is associated with a small but permanent population reflecting small-scale community services. First idea of village construction form in tourism appeared in Spain with tent village in 1950 (Micallef et al. 2004). A village situates in natural settings with historical and archaeological elements, offers sportive activities and includes independent/individual buildings, service areas often one storey structures completed with landscaping and wooded surroundings Due to dispersed planning there

---

*Figure 1. Location of the study area*

*Figure 2. An example of coastal resort conceptual plan (Gee, 1988)*

*Figure 3. An example of urban coastal area conceptual plan*
are distant walking paths between service buildings. Expected features in village form coastal tourism are the protection of local heritage, using traditional architectural models (Figure 4).

Figure 4. An example of village coastal area conceptual plan

**RURAL**

A rural area is located outside the urban or village environment. Housing in rural areas is limited for a temporary summer or permanent nature (Figure 5). With regard to natural environment and ecology rural form is the most preferred construction type in coastal tourism developments. Limited and even simple buildings can be traditional houses made by local materials. Recently on demand rural form is likely to transfer potential tourism areas, loose its local identity if construction is not controlled.

Figure 5. An example of rural coastal area conceptual plan

**REMOTE**

Remote areas are largely defined by difficulty of access, largely by boat or on foot. They are not supported by public transport and have very limited housing (Micallef et al. 2004). Remote form is usually distant, not explored and not suitable for mass tourism. Due to limited access number of buildings made by local material is in harmony with natural landscape. Remote form is best for ecotourism to protect nature and local environment (Figure 6).

Figure 6. An example of remote coastal area conceptual plan
IMPACT PERIPHERY OF CONSTRUCTION FORMS

Coastal natural areas have been under the thread of tourism demands where Ceballos-Lascurain (1996) reported that wetlands have been drained for hotel developments or even used for construction. Although Gormsen (1997) analyzed four peripheries on geographical scale under the spatio-temporal development of seaside tourism, impact periphery of specified construction forms was indicated with three impact zones as in Figure 7 in case of South Antalya Region. It is most likely that almost all construction types occur on coastal areas. Extending from coast to coastal backgrounds construction form becomes urban with the impact periphery of rural settlements, natural wetlands and agricultural areas, while remote natural areas face rural and remote construction forms.

![Figure 7. Construction forms and impact periphery in case of South Antalya Region](image)

South Antalya Region was dedicated to first integrated tourism development in 1970’s with the legal standpoint aiming at the protection of forests and preserving agricultural lands. Beldibi, Göynük, Kemer and Tekirova sub-quarters was dedicated to dense hotel developments with the provision of environmental control in adjacent natural areas. Kemer was a resort providing services and social facilities to other sub-quarters, while Beldibi, Göynük and Tekirova were in village form. However, excessive demands for tourism led to a series of revision after 1980’s led greater impact on coastal natural areas as well as agricultural lands. Excessive exploitation of coastal areas as well as natural wet-

lands, agricultural areas and rural settlements on coastal backgrounds was witnessed. Recently, there is tendency in the region from coastal background into remote natural areas with the conversion of natural forests into remote and rural construction forms.

CONCLUSION

Tourism development in South Antalya Region basically started with resort construction form on coastal and adjacent areas and transferred from resort, village into urban form with increasing tourism demands. The loss of natural coastal areas, forests and agricultural areas due to construction forms in tourism was the most severe environmental impacts.

While tourism is greatly depends on natural environment and natural resources tourism developments and investments need huge areas can be a threat for natural areas. Atik et al (2006) indicated that great changes occurred in South Antalya Region from agriculture and forest areas into organised tourism areas and settlements within 865 hectare in Beldibi, 1.030 hectare in Göynük, 4.035 hectare in Kemer and 1.115 hectare in Tekirova.

Changes in forest areas led the loss of ecologically important areas particularly in coastline while changes in agricultural areas end up with the abundance of the traditional land use patterns and opening agricultural areas for tourism developments.

Tourist resorts are constructed in the urban areas, in the countryside or in the remote coastal areas. Structural components of tourism plans are important because construction forms effects the environment as stated by Garcia et al. (2004), Mutlu Danaci and Sayan (2006), that new buildings be designed and sited in such a way that they respect their surroundings. In general, building design should have flexibility, be in accordance with the climate, and in harmony with existed structures and environment. It should be appropriate in terms of visual quality, met general planning and construction regulations, and aesthetic design principles.

However, environmental control in tourism areas in Turkey has become quite difficult as the tourism policy stands on the establishment new areas for the purpose of extending tourism season for a whole year and creating diversity in tourism product. And if related legal instruments on the selection, establishment and planning of these tourism areas not sufficiently put in practice and controlled as in previous experiences, then environmental impacts of tour-
ism developments and activities such land loss, exploitation of natural habitats, disappearing of flora and fauna species, visual pollution will be inevitable.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This study is an interdisciplinary paper prepared by landscape architect and architect working on tourism development and environmental impact of tourism.

REFERENCES


Predicting the Intention to Purchase Leisure Travel over the Internet: A Regression Analysis

Miguel MOITAL
School of Services Management
Bournemouth University, UK
E-mail: mmoital@bournemouth.ac.uk

Roger VAUGHAN
School of Services Management
Bournemouth University, UK
E-mail: rvaughan@bournemouth.ac.uk

Jonathan EDWARDS
School of Services Management
Bournemouth University, UK
E-mail: jonathandedwards@bournemouth.ac.uk

Rita PERES
Estoril Higher Institute for Hotel and Tourism Studies
Portugal
E-mail: rita.peres@eshte.pt

ABSTRACT

Since the early stages of the development of the Internet there were claims that travel had the potential to become one of the most sold e-commerce products. The reality, however, is that in the first years of the twenty first century only a minority of travel purchasing is conducted over the Internet. This paper aims to contribute to a greater understanding of consumer adoption of e-commerce by evaluating the factors influencing consumers’ intention to adopt e-commerce in the purchasing of leisure travel. A number of variables are used to assess which factors influence the intention to adopt e-commerce, including (1) the attributes of purchasing over the Internet, (2) involvement, (3) travel consumption patterns, (4) the stage in the e-commerce adoption path and (5) demographic variables. Using a self-administered questionnaire, a representative sample of residents in the Borough of Cascais (Lisbon, Portugal) was asked to participate in the study, irrespective of their level of previous experience with technology and e-commerce. The results indicated that relative advantage, involvement, number of journeys abroad and stage in the e-commerce adoption path are significant predictors of the intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet.

Key words: Adoption, consumer, e-commerce, travel, attitudes.

INTRODUCTION

Since the early stages of the development of the Internet there were claims that travel had the potential to become one of the most sold e-commerce products. Several reasons were advanced to support the assumption that travel would become one of the leading products purchased over the Internet. These include the high levels of adoption of Information and Communication Technologies by the tourism industry and the high degree of suitability of the tourism product to e-commerce. Given these factors, one should expect a high level of adoption of e-commerce in the purchasing of travel products. The reality, however, is that in the first years of the twenty first century only a minority of travel purchasing is conducted over the Internet. In Portugal, the rate of adoption had been slow and by 2004 only a very small proportion of the travel purchases were undertaken over the Internet. Thus, a greater understanding of the reasons for the lower than anticipated rate of adoption of e-commerce in the purchasing of leisure travel is required. This paper advocates that greater levels of acceptance of the Internet as a means of purchasing leisure travel over the Internet is dependent on the willingness of consumers to use this novel means. Therefore, this paper aims to contribute to a better understanding of the influences on the adoption of e-commerce by evaluating the factors influencing the consumers’ intention to adopt e-commerce in the purchasing of leisure travel.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research on the adoption of technology-based innovations has been informed by two main theories: Davis’ (1989) Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and Rogers’ (1995) Diffusion of Innovations theory. The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) was first introduced by Davis and colleagues (Davis 1989) for predicting user acceptance of information systems. Theoretically developed upon Fishbein and Ajzen’s (1975) Theory of Reasoned Action, the model posits that two variables fundamentally determine user acceptance of the technology: perceived usefulness and ease of use. Perceived usefulness is the individual’s perception that using the information system will improve his/her performance, whereas ease of use refers to the extent to which the individual expects the information system use to be free of effort (Davis 1989; Keen et al. 2004). The TAM has been the most widely used model to study consumer adoption of e-commerce. According to Pavlou (2003) this stems from the fact that e-commerce is heavily technologically-driven and thus researchers have hypothesised that the principles of the model can be applied to e-commerce.
The diffusion and adoption of innovations model concentrates on a specific type of behaviour – innovative behaviour. The decision process associated to the adoption of innovations has been characterised as a special type of hierarchy of effects. Rogers' adoption of innovations process comprises five stages (Rogers 1995): knowledge, persuasion, decision, implementation and confirmation. This process suggests that the adoption of innovation is a complex process, with many variables influencing the adoption decision. During the persuasion stage, the individual evaluates the characteristics of the innovation with a view to forming an attitude about its use. The more the innovation is evaluated as the best course of action, the more positive the attitude will be. In the study of the adoption of innovations, attitude has been assessed in terms of perceived innovation attributes, such as relative advantage, compatibility and complexity.

Given that purchasing over the Internet can be regarded as a new purchasing practice when compared to other modes of shopping (Vijayasarathy 2004), and bearing in mind that using e-commerce requires the use of other innovative technologies, it can be argued that the diffusion and adoption of innovations is an appropriate theory for studying the adoption of e-commerce. The effect of perceived innovation attributes on intention to use and actual usage of e-commerce is one important area of research using the DAI theory. Overall, the results suggest that the perceived characteristics of e-commerce do affect its adoption (Eastlick and Lotz 1999; Verhoef and Langerak 2001; Eastin 2002).

**RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES**

General human behaviour models (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Rogers 1995) and consumer behaviour models (Howard and Sheth 1969; Engel et al. 1995) regard intention as a critical variable influencing behaviour. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) define intention as the subjective probability that beliefs and attitudes will be acted upon. In other words, intention refers to a predisposition to behave in accordance to the individual's beliefs and attitudes. While intention cannot be equated with behaviour, a person's behaviour is determined by his intention to perform the behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). According to Rogers (1995), the verdict about adopting, rejecting or postponing adoption is translated into an intention to use the innovation.

When attempting to understand the determinants of intention to perform a behaviour, one of most important tasks is the identification of those variables that can potentially explain the acceptance of e-commerce. The literature is fertile in highlighting the aspects related to the use of e-commerce as a purchasing channel as a key determinant of the adoption of e-commerce. Virtually all studies attempting to understand the factors influencing the adoption of e-commerce contend that the factors pertaining to the act of purchasing over the Internet are a key determinant. These include attributes of e-commerce, as well as personal characteristics of the individual in relation to the adoption of e-commerce (e.g. level of involvement). However, the number of researchers have pinpointed other important factors beyond those related to the act of purchasing over the Internet is growing. Two of such factors are the product-related behaviours and the factors related to the adoption of technology. The theoretical model tested in this paper is graphically presented in Figure 1. The rationale for the inclusion of the variables in the present study is the focus of the remainder of this section.

![Figure 1. Research model of intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet](image)

**Attributes of e-commerce**

Rogers (1995), following a thorough review of studies on the attributes of innovations, concluded that there would be a set of perceived characteristics of innovations, not a single one, which would have impact on the rate of adoption. While the number of attributes that have been show to influence the adoption of innovations is high, three of the most frequently used attributes were selected for inclusion in this paper: relative advantage (Childers et al. 2001; Eastin 2002; Worthy et al. 2004; Chang et al. 2005), complexity (Childers et al. 2001; Chen et al. 2002; Vijayasarathy 2004) and perceived risk (Eastlick and Lotz 1999; Eastin 2002; Pavlou 2003; Chang et al. 2005). Overall, the higher the per-
ceived relative advantage and the lower the complexity and the perceived risk, the greater the intention to purchase over the Internet.

H4: High levels of relative advantage are related to high levels of intention to use e-commerce

H5: Complexity is negatively related to the intention to use e-commerce

H6: The lower the perceived risk, the higher the level of intention to adopt e-commerce

Involvement

Involvement is usually viewed as the degree to which the characteristics of the behaviour are associated to the needs, values and interests of the individual (Laaksonen 1994). In the case of innovations, a motivational state of involvement toward an innovation could markedly affect the outcomes of its diffusion (Kappelman 1995). Past research in the field of adoption of technology-based innovations suggests that involvement is an important determinant of adoption (Kappelman 1995; Salam et al. 2000). Therefore, the following hypothesis was investigated:

H7: The more involved an individual is, the higher the level of intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet

Product-related behaviour

Several authors have pointed out that the adoption of e-commerce is product specific, stressing the importance of considering the product-related behaviours when studying the influences on the adoption of e-commerce (e.g. Peterson et al. 1997; Liang and Huang 1998; Vijayasarathy 2002; Chang et al. 2005; Moital 2006). The literature suggests several aspects related to the individual's shopping habits and preferences that can influence the adoption of e-commerce. One such aspect is the frequency of consumption of the product. Past studies have shown that the likelihood of using the Internet for purchasing a product category is associated with frequency of purchase of that product category (Goldsmith and Goldsmith 2002). The more frequent the purchase, the more likely the person is to purchase over the Internet. Based on the above argument, the following hypotheses were examined in relation to the travel consumption behaviour of the respondents:

H8: Greater frequency of travelling abroad will positively influence the intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet

Stage in the e-commerce adoption path

The adoption of e-commerce is supported upon the use of technology, notably computers and the Internet. While these can be used for e-commerce purposes, their usage is not restricted to this task. Computers can be used for many purposes, one of which is using the Internet. Similarly, the Internet can be used for several purposes, with e-commerce being one of them. Some users of the Internet go on and use this means to purchase. However, individuals may purchase other products than travel. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that there is an e-commerce adoption path containing five stages: (1) never used computers, (2) used computers but never the Internet, (3) used the Internet but never purchased, (4) purchased over the Internet other products than travel and (5) purchased travel over the Internet. Given that past research has shown that the experience with computers and the Internet and past e-commerce experience are an important determinant of adoption (Pavlou 2003; Efendioglu and Yip 2004; Chang et al. 2005), the following hypothesis is investigated:

H9: The further along in the e-commerce adoption path, the higher the level of intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet

Demographics

The literature on consumer behaviour has also suggested that demographics have an important role in explaining consumer behaviour (Loudon and Della Bitta 1993; Engel et al. 1995). In a similar vein, the adoption of innovations model posits that the demographic characteristics of the individual have an influence on the adoption process (Rogers 1995), while Kardes (1999) argues that many buying habits and spending patterns are related with many different demographic variables. Several researchers have examined demographics in the context of the adoption of e-commerce. Examples of demographic variables include education (e.g. Verhoef and Langerak 2001; Vrechopoulos et al. 2001) and age (e.g. Bellman et al. 1999; Verhoef and Langerak 2001; Goldsmith and Goldsmith 2002). While results have been inconsistent, there appears to be a positive relationship between education and age and the adoption of e-commerce: the higher the age/educational level, the greater the likelihood of accepting e-commerce. Therefore, two additional hypotheses were formulated:
H1: The higher the age, the lower the intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet

H2: The higher the level of formal education, the greater the intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet

METHODOLOGY

A representative sample of residents in the Borough of Cascais (Lisbon, Portugal) were asked to answer a questionnaire covering a number of issues related to the adoption of e-commerce in the purchasing of leisure travel. The sample comprised individuals aged between 18 and 69, irrespective of their previous level of experience with computers, the Internet and e-commerce. Thus, the sample contains individuals who had never used computers, as well as individuals who had purchased travel over the Internet before. Randomly selected dwellings were visited and in each household, the individual whose birthday was nearest was selected to participate in the study. A self-addressed stamped envelop was left together with the questionnaire. A total of 745 residents accepted to participate in the study (i.e. at least provided personal details), from which 693 accepted the questionnaire. From the 303 questionnaires returned, 279 usable questionnaires were coded for data analysis. However, several respondents did not answer to the question focusing on their intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet and were also removed from further analysis. A total of 244 usable questionnaires were used for testing the hypotheses formulated in this paper.

As explained earlier, three perceived innovation characteristics were selected for inclusion in the model. Three statements assessed the relative advantage associated with using e-commerce in the purchasing leisure travel over the Internet: the extent to which using the innovation would reduce the use of resources (time), would improve support (quality) and would result in personal enhancement (quality of life). Complexity was measured by the means of two items: how complex/simple purchasing leisure travel over the Internet is and how hard/difficult is to learn how to do it. Perceived risk associated with using computers was covered by two statements: overall risk (‘the probability of not doing the best deal is high’) and financial risk (‘can loose money’). Involvement was measured using a shorter version of the Personal Involvement Inventory (Zaichkowsky 1985). Eight pairs of words were selected based on their suitability for studying the adoption of e-commerce and on their similar meaning both in English and in Portuguese. Finally, intention was measured by one statement: ‘intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet in the near future (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980). A summary of the variables used, their operationalisation and sources is provided in Table 1.

Factor Analysis and regression analysis were performed on the 244 usable questionnaires. The attributes of e-commerce (relative advantage, perceived risk and complexity) as well involvement were factor analysed to gauge their convergence. However, since two types of scale were used, separate factor analyses had to be undertaken, one containing the Likert-scale items (relative advantage and perceived risk) and one containing the semantic differential items (complexity). The factor matrix, resulting from a varimax rotated principal axis extraction, indicated good convergent validity of each attribute. Items comprising each attribute loaded on the expected factor and all factors loading were greater than 0.5. The results of both the KMO and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity met the acceptability criteria (Tabacknick and Fidell 1996). Cronbach Alpha was used to test the reliability of the factors. With no exception, all values exceeded 0.6, suggesting acceptable reliability levels (Malhotra 2004).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Operationalisation</th>
<th>No of Items</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>19-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60-69</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>1st education level completed: six years, nine years, A-levels, university degree</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel frequency</td>
<td>Number of journeys: total number of journeys and total number of journeys abroad</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage in the e-commerce adoption path</td>
<td>Four stages: never used the Internet, used the Internet but never purchased using e-commerce, purchased at least one product/service over the Internet but not travel-related and purchased travel over the Internet</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Author</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative advantage</td>
<td>Buy faster, buy with more quality, enhance quality of life.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Eason (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complexity</td>
<td>Complex/simple to use, Easy/difficult to learn how to use</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Strutton et al. (1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>Involvement with purchasing leisure travel over the Internet.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Zaichkowsky (1985)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention</td>
<td>Intention to use in the short term</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Fishbein and Ajzen (1975)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
RESULTS

The proposed hypotheses were tested using regression analysis, where intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet was the dependent variable and nine determinant factors were the independent variables. The results (Table 3) show that, among the three attributes of e-commerce, only relative advantage impacted on intention ($\beta = 0.288$; $p<0.001$). Complexity ($\beta = -0.55$; $p>0.05$) and perceived risk ($\beta = 0.25$; $p>0.05$) were not significant. Thus, while H1 is supported, H2 and H3 are not. The standardized coefficients indicated that the level of involvement had the most powerful influence on the intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet ($\beta = 0.369$; $p<0.001$). Therefore, H4 is supported. From the two variables related to travel frequency, total of journeys abroad was found to be an important determinant of intention ($\beta = 0.153$; $p<0.05$), while total of journeys was not ($\beta = -0.171$; $p>0.05$). Thus, H5 is accepted but H6 is not. The stage in the e-commerce adoption path was also significant in affecting the adoption of e-commerce in the purchasing of leisure travel ($\beta = 0.138$; $p<0.05$) and thus H7 is accepted. Finally, the impact of the two demographic variables on the intention purchase leisure travel by the means of e-commerce was not substantial (age: $\beta = 0.0.17$; $p>0.05$; education: $\beta = -0.66$; $p>0.05$). Therefore, both H8 and H9 are not accepted. The Adjusted $R^2$ was 0.404, indicating that the four variables explained about 40 percent of the variance in the intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet ($F=18.235$; $p<0.001$).

### Table 2. Profile of the sample (N=244)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Mean (SD)</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total of journeys abroad</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-29</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>one journey</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>two to four</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td></td>
<td>five or more</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>Total of journeys</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>none</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 years</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>one journey</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 years</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td></td>
<td>two to four</td>
<td>28.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A-Levels</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td></td>
<td>five or more</td>
<td>56.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University degree</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage in the e-commerce adoption path</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Never used the Internet</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used the Internet but never purchased using e-commerce</td>
<td>51.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchased over the Internet but not travel</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchased travel over the Internet</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3. Factors influencing the intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet (regression)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Std. Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relative advantage</td>
<td>.288</td>
<td>4.081</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complexity</td>
<td>-.055</td>
<td>-.902</td>
<td>.368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived risk</td>
<td>-.025</td>
<td>-.417</td>
<td>.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Involvement</td>
<td>.369</td>
<td>4.821</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total of journeys</td>
<td>-.071</td>
<td>-1.150</td>
<td>.251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total of journeys abroad</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>2.192</td>
<td>.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage in the e-commerce adoption path</td>
<td>.138</td>
<td>1.998</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.310</td>
<td>.757</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-.066</td>
<td>-1.092</td>
<td>.276</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Adjusted $R^2 = 0.404$**

$F=18.235$ ($p<0.001$)
CONCLUSION

E-commerce is in its early stages of development and knowledge about the adoption of e-commerce by consumers is still scarce. Greater levels of adoption of e-commerce require a detailed understanding of the factors leading consumers to adopt e-commerce. While travel is one of the most purchased products over the Internet, only a small proportion of the worldwide travel purchases are undertaken over the Internet. The importance of understanding those factors associated to adoption is even more relevant in countries like Portugal, where the levels of adoption of e-commerce in the purchasing of travel are very low. At present, only less than one percent of the population uses the Internet to do it. Using regression analysis, this paper examined the determinants of intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet. Findings from this study suggest that the intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet is determined by multiple factors, including the attributes of e-commerce, the consumption of the product category and the developmental stage in the adoption of e-commerce.

Consistent with previous research on the adoption of e-commerce (Eastin 2002; Efendioglu and Yip 2004; Chang et al. 2005), the extent to which consumers perceive e-commerce as encompassing benefits influences their intention to use it. However, the other two perceived innovation attributes, complexity and perceived risk, were not found to explain the residents’ intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet. This is in contrast to the results of past studies, who have found an inverse relationship between complexity (Childers et al. 2001; Verhoef and Langerak 2001; Chen et al. 2002; Vijayasrathy 2004) and perceived risk (Liao and Cheung 2001), and intention to purchase by the means of e-commerce. Therefore, the travel industry needs to emphasise the benefits e-commerce before considering the reducing the risk and making the process simple. The absence of an association between these two attributes and intention is surprising given the characteristics of the travel product. Purchasing travel can be regarded as a high cost purchase (both financially and emotionally) and hence an association between risk and intention was expected. Second, purchasing travel can be a complex process, since there are many products and suppliers available.

Among the four determinants of intention, involvement with purchasing leisure travel over the Internet was the most important predictor. Therefore, raising the level of involvement is an important pre-requisite for increasing the levels of adoption of e-commerce. This finding provides further evidence of the critical influence on involvement on consumer behaviour. Another influence on the residents’ intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet was the travelling experience of the respondents. This provides additional evidence of the relationship between frequency of consumption and intention to use e-commerce in the purchase of the product (Goldsmith and Goldsmith 2002; Girard et al. 2003) However, it was the number of journeys abroad, not the total of journeys, that impacted on the intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet. Therefore, it appears that further developing the market for international holidays will lead to greater levels of adoption of e-commerce in the purchasing of leisure travel.

The results of this paper further suggest that travel managers need to monitor the experience of residents in relation to their stage in the e-commerce adoption path. It is clear that as more individuals reach stages further along in the path, the levels of intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet are likely to increase. While travel providers can do little to earlier in the path, the industry should support national policies promoting greater levels of experience with computers and the Internet. The industry’s has, however, a key role in moving consumers from the middle to the last stage of the path, through stimulating consumers to try the medium (those who have never used) and by maintaining those that reach the final stage satisfied with their experience.

The results of this paper indicated that age and education are not determinants of the intention to adopt e-commerce. One plausible explanation is related to the specific characteristics of the sample (representative sample of an affluent borough of a southern European country) as there have been suggestions that demographic differences could also be related to the sample being used (Yang and Lester 2005).

It is evident that the number of studies focusing on the adoption of e-commerce in travel is growing. However, most of these have studied intention to make purchases of specific travel products (Wong and Law 2005; Kim et al. 2006). Moreover, these studies have used consumers of a specific component of the tourism product (Kim et al. 2006) or travellers (Wong and Law 2005). Studies attempting to assess the potential of the Internet to be used as a means of purchasing leisure travel based on samples closer to the characteristics of the general population are virtually non-existent. This study is one of the first conducted in this area and provides an additional contribution to our understanding of the factors that determine a person’s intention to purchase leisure travel over the Internet.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This paper is based on a research sponsored by the Scholarship Program of the Turismo de Portugal, IP.

REFERENCES

Impact of Lake’s Ecotourism Potential for Hospitality and Leisure

Mir Mehrdad MIRSANJARI
Department of Environmental Sciences
Malayer University, Iran
E-mail: mmmirsanjari@unipune.ernet.in

ABSTRACT
Tourism or ecotourism is inherent desire of human beings, which developed with the progress of human civilization. Every man on this planet earth is very fond of tourism, hence always attracted towards nature. The mountains, hills, valleys, oceans, rivers, lakes, islands, waterfalls, forests, wild animals, birds, butterflies etc. have become important attractions for the ecotourists. The improved standard of life and economic status of middle class society has brought ecotourism within their reach. At present there is pressing demand for planned, well-developed and perfectly managed ecotourism. The IT-BT intellectuals, industrial talents as well as students from abroad in Pune will be highly promising ecotourists in future. Hence there is an urgent need to investigate the hidden potential of ecotourism management and sustainable development. Collection of revenue from ecotourism will become the lion’s share of Pune Municipal Corporation. Not only this, but it also become the potential area of employment to rural people and youth. Ecotourism development may become pivotal for socioeconomic transformation of villages with natural ecotourism. This research incorporates the different parameters of Environmental Impact Assessment of human development and mainly deals with relationship between environmental parameters like frequency and attendance alterations, location and distance parameters. In this research seven impacts and seventeen present potential for six sites were analyzed.

Key words: Ecotourism, ecoparks, ecotourists.

INTRODUCTION
In 1980s, alternative forms of tourism have attracted the interest of governments, communities and scholars. These were given different names like nature tourism, soft tourism, responsible tourism, green tourism, ecotourism (Schaller 1999). Among these, the term ecotourism has become prominent, although a consistent definition is by no means found. Most definitions do, however, incorporate concepts associated with sustainable development.

Sustainable development attempts were made to integrate economic development with ecological sustainability (Redclift 1987). The researchers like Zurick (1992), Dearden (1991) and Hunter and Green (1995) accepted the definition of ecotourism given by World Commission on Environment and Development. According to them development that meets the needs of the present, without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (WCED 1987) is known as ecotourism.

Many research workers now agreed that ecotourism is a two-way link between tourism and environmental conservation (Valentine 1993; Cater 1994). As the understanding of the close relationships between tourism and environmental conservation increased, the researchers are now calling on ecotourism industry to incorporate economic development as a fundamental element of conservation (West and Brechin 1991).

Ecotourism involves travel for the discovery of and learning about wild natural environments. Wilderness travel is the personal re-creation through the traveling in natural environments that are devoid of human disturbances. While the adventure travel is personal accomplishment through the thrills of dominating dangerous environments. Among the various subdivisions of nature based tourism ecotourism is the fastest growing tourism submarket.

The growth of ecotourism primarily involved the travel by Europeans and North Americans to all parts of the world. Eagles and Wind (1994) reported that Canadian ecotour companies visited fifty different countries in 1992. Recently, with rapidly developing economies in Asia, ecotourists from these countries are entering the market as consumers. The experience is expanding with the increase in number of parks. There is now a worldwide increase in nature travel market, (Zurick 1992). Ecotourism has an idealistic agenda, defined by Drumm (1991) as progressive, educational travel, which conserves the environment and benefits local communities. The synonyms of eco-tourism are given below: environment friendly tourism, nature tourism, green tourism, scientific tourism, cottage tourism, wildlife tourism, wilderness tourism, safari tourism, designer tourism, hard tourism, risk tourism, adventure tourism etc.

In 1987, Ceballos-Lascurain defined the ecotourism as ecological tourism or ecotourism involving traveling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas, with the specific aims of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural aspects found in these areas. In fact, train journeys to the first North American national parks in the late nineteenth century were called as ecotourism (National Audubon Society, 1991). Johnson(1967) reported heavy over-use of the North
American national parks, with traffic congestion and the resulting impacts was erosion and the loss of wilderness.

In recent years several authors (e.g. Blamey 1997; Fennell 1998; Fennell and Eagles 1989; Oram 1995; Swarbrooke and Horner 1999; Valentine 1993) have modified, extended and developed many new definitions of ecotourism. The definitions of ecotourism are broad in scope. Ecotourism includes conservation, education, local ownership, and economic benefit for local communities, the relevance of cultural resources, minimum impacts and sustainability. The ecotourism must determine a visitor’s status as an ecotourist and encompass the social motive.

Considering the above mentioned aspects of ecotourism, the present investigation was undertaken with following objectives.

- To study natural attractions at different lakes as ecotourism sites in Pune district.
- To investigate positive and negative impacts of ecotourists on ecotourism sites.
- Long term planning and models for sustainable development and management of ecotourism potential at Bhugaon Lake.

**ASSESSMENT OF ECOTOURISM POTENTIAL IN PUNE DISTRICT**

The environmental assessment for ecotourism potential its sustainable development, management and strategies for future planning are the crucial factors in ecotourism development. There are many parameters for assaying the environmental impact of ecotourism development e.g. frequency and attendance, location, distance etc. The assessment of ecotourism potential in Pune district was done with seven different parameters of ecotourism potential. The formal and informal assessment and standard tests were used for knowing the ecotourism potential of Pune district.

Environmental assessment, in any form, is a necessary component of effective ecotourism development. This assessment should be manageable and used as a guide for instructions, planning and development of ecotourism sites. The assessments should also provide data to measure environmental performance and the effectiveness of planning. Both daily formal and informal assessment and standardized tests must correlate with the standards of development and ecotourism potential.

Hence in this research, six ecotourism sites and surveyed in detail. These sites were located different directions e.g. west and south of Pune city. Most of the ecotourism potential in Pune district is in west and south of Pune which have the best attractions as the green area, hills and rivers are located to these sites. Mulshi lake, Bhugaon lake, Bhushi lake and Valvan lake are in west direction of Pune and Katraj lake and Khadakwasala lake are in south direction of Pune district. The six different ecotourism sites (lakes) were assessed and compared on the basis of different parameters for finding their potential for ecotourism. The best ecotourism potential of these six lakes was investigated through sample based survey and by using questionnaire and different statistical tests and methods for their development were also suggested.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

Basic information about present situation was collected by surveying the six ecotourism potential lakes of Pune district located in west and south of Pune city. The Mulshi lake, Bhugaon lake, Bhushi lake and Valvan lake are located to the west side of Pune while the lakes like katraj and Khadakwasala are situated toward southern site of Pune city.

Following questionnaire was used to analyze the ecotourism potential of six different lakes. The answers given by the visitors to this questionnaire were statistically analyzed and used to determine the ecotourism potential.

1) Sex, age, income group
2) When you visit the lake? (Sunday, Tuesday, Holiday)
3) What is your frequency of visit? (Weekly, Fortnightly, Monthly, Yearly)
4) Along with whom you visit the lake? (Family, friends, guests, colleagues)
5) What you feel when you visit this place?
6) How much distance you have to travel to come to this site?
7) What activities you prefer when you come here?
8) Do you know what the Eco-Tourism is?
9) Whether you need some facilities for dumping junk?
10) How the Eco-Tourism development will help to local people?
11) Whether you want jogging/walking facility around the lake?
12) Whether you like yoga and meditation facility to be here?
13) What kind of facilities you require here for children?
14) What type of garden/plantation you suggest for this area?
15) Whether you will pay any entry ticket fees, after developing good Eco-Tourism facility?

16) What kind of food you prefer? (traditional, village food, self host group (SHG))

17) Any new suggestions for maintenance and development of the lake?

For using the Ecotourism EIA of six lakes/sites present potential of ecotourism activities have been used for assessment of impacts on the ecotourism sites. Approximately seventeen criteria were used to analyze the ecotourism potential of all the six different lakes which are given below. Tourist camping area, Walking way on hill, Children park, Yoga centre, Wild life, Green area planning, Water park, Dump junk and disposal waste, Boating, Swimming, Fishing, Spiritual and meditation centre, Traditional activities, Traveling and parking, Weather, temperature, humidity, Season and rainfall etc. Each of these factors in each of lakes has one number, 1: strongly positive, 2: slightly positive, 3: ambivalent, 4: slightly negative, and 5: strongly negative.

The ecotourism impact criteria represent seven important factors that may be affected by the tourism in all ecotourism sites. Each of the seven criteria used in the present study was objectively scored after revision of the entire study sites. These seven criteria were subsequently numerically coded for the analysis. This table lists the properties of each criterion with its coding scheme and number of studies, which fall into each category. Detailed information on each criterion and relevant references are given below.

- **ECOTOURISM ATTRACTIONS, (CRITERIA A)**
- **ENVIRONMENTAL QUALITY, (CRITERION B)**
- **AMAZING AREA AND VIEWS, (CRITERION C)**
- **FREQUENCY AND ATTENDANCE ALTERNATION, (CRITERION D)**
- **COMPRESSION ON PLACES, (CRITERION E)**
- **NATIVE ECONOMIC, (CRITERION F)**
- **FLORA AND FAUNA, (CRITERION G)**

This criterion analyzes the effects that have arisen specifically because of ecotourism. For example, an area disturbed by traveling frequency or parking region would still be considered pristine by this rating scale, unless the effect was because of tourism (directly or indirectly). Criterion G contains five categories like perfect protection, slight or infrequent intrusion, frequent intrusion, blatant abuse, no protection. To carry out Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) these were reduced into three category, consisting of: Positive, Am-

bivalent and negative. The characters of six selected lake and third column gave 95% confidence internal for each proportion.

**RESULTS**

During the surveying in ecotourism potential in Pune district. The different plants have been investigated. The list of common trees and green area in pune city is given in able 3.2 The various lakes of Pune district have a great potential of ecotourism. If this potential is developed and managed efficiently these lakes will become very soon the best ecotourism sites in Pune district. This development will bring socioeconomic transformation in people of the nearby villages. With this view about six different lakes were surveyed and assessed with different analysis to find out their ecotourism potential. During the survey of six different lakes around Pune city, it was noted that Bhugaon lake was the best ecotourism site for development of ecotourism because of its two highly positive factors.

1) Distance to travel for the visitors to visit Bhugaon lake, (68% of tourists come there from less than 10 kilometers around)

2) Frequency and attendance alternations of visitors. More than 61% of the visitors are visiting Bhugaon lake weekly.

The data collected indicate that about 200 ecotourists visit Bhugaon lake regularly per day. The number of visitors and their frequency was depending on the holidays, particular auspicious days, temperature, season, rain fall and many other factors. The nine km road to Bhugaon lake is a narrow road with uneven surface and has at least five sharp turns at a steep gradient. These locations are potentially accident-prone and require adequate warnings, signage, and retaining walls for erosion control, protective walls and ideally manned check posts. The approach road faces unsafe conditions from its both sides. On the mountain side there is cracking rock and fast eroding soil, and on the valley side there are no protective walls. The road width is too narrow, occasionally quickly causing traffic jams at the peak holiday times.

At present mainly private cars, two wheelers and hired tourist vehicles are the only modes of transport for the tourists to visit Bhugaon lake. The charges per person from Pune to Bhugaon lake are approximately Rs.50/- for a round trip. These vehicles do not operate unless they run full and therefore the travel time is uncertain. There are no buses or mini –buses following an organized schedule. There is no suitable public transport at present for visiting this lake.

In addition to the road, there exist alternative hilly routes for visiting the
Bhugaon lake. But these are popular only among the hikers and fitness enthusiasts; these roads also lack adequate signage.

The present parking facility is not enough to accommodate sufficient number of vehicles on a holiday or in the peak season of visitors. As a result, parking and pulling out of vehicles becomes a clumsy function, causing delays, noise and air pollution. On holidays due to inadequate parking space, vehicles are parked far away from entrance on the approach road. This blocks the road and causes bottlenecks. The entrance and exit to the parking area are informal. There is also no any type of controlling for parking of vehicles. The main entrance to Bhugaon lake is known as Pune darwaja. But, this entrance lacks a proper gate and hence the new visitors get puzzled. For monitoring the entries of sites, this entrance gate needs to be well designed with entry. Ticketing windows and information guide windows will help the visitors.

There is a lack of directional, informative and instructional signage at Bhugaon lake, there is no guiding map to guide the visitors, about the places of interest and places of visits to Bhugaon lake. As a result of this visitors are not able to enjoy all the sites of Bhugaon lake. The internal paths are not of good quality, they are very narrow and do not necessarily lead to all the important locations. The road surfaces are worn out and uneven, thereby presenting risks of falls and slippages of pedestrians. This condition becomes very serious in monsoon, when the visitor number actually tends to be high, for experiencing the beautiful fogs torrential rains and greenery on hills. The road linkages to each other and to different points need to be identified by a distinctly visible location map. Certain important areas such as the south of lake have no access presently. If it is made accessible visitors can enjoy this beautiful site of the lake.

Several viewpoints are existing at Bhugaon lake for ecotourism. But they need further development and improvement. These view points require prominent directional and informative signs. Some of the viewpoints exist at the tip of cliff and are potentially adventurous thrilling as well as risky spots. They need large warning signs, manned check posts as well as very sturdy and safety railings. The view points need facility to sit and walk around them. The visitors should enjoy the beauty of nature from these view points. The viewpoints should have same specific features e.g. facility to watch sunrise or sunset, birds, lake view, clear sky etc.

Because of the specific altitude and the geographic location of Bhugaon lake, fog prevails during rainy and winter months of the year. The visitors come to enjoy the fog during night time. But at present there are no adequate street-lights and path lights. Lighting at the viewing spots during night-time is not made available. As a result of this the place is virtually impossible to visit and use for night walk. The visitors are therefore limited to daytime only.

In fact the nature is more enjoyable during night e.g. movement of wild animals, night hunting, fighting of animals for food etc. could be seen during night time. But presently it is completely impossible for the visitors.

The existing vegetation as well as plant biodiversity is very rich around the lake and on the surrounding the hills. Tree species are highly dominant, which will attract the ecotourists because of their beautiful flowers, green foliage shade hugeness fruits, etc. Deforestation has caused soil erosion, and hence there is heavy silting in lake every year during rainy season. These hills require thick plantation to protect soil erosion. The catchments area, the bunds and surrounding sides of the lake require systematic tree plantation. In future the dark green thick forest will attract the visitors, nature walking persons, as well as many birds, wild animals, reptiles and deer’s. Existing tree and shrubs species include Jambhool, Hirda, Fig, Rameta, Gela, Karanj, Silver oak, Palas, Mango, Gulmohar, Suru, Nirgudi and Karwand. All the trees are in healthy condition.

Some private owners offer lodging facilities, but these are of very low standard. Lack of other basic amenities including safety, security, night time movement ease and lack of recreation facilities are main constraints in the development of this ecotourism center. The catering available.

There are 33 small food stalls at present, run by the villagers around the lake. About 100 casual vendors of food items such as pot curd, buttermilk etc. are in business. Most of the stalls are semi-permanent nature and hence, the vendors operate in open. The stall operation does not follow any laws or code, hence these cannot be counted as a standard food service for visitors. No proper drinking water facility. These food stalls and vendors create plastic pollution, the dump the garbage and food wastes on the roads.

Lots of wastes and garbage is generally collected, which is not properly disposed. Proper drainage and garbage disposal systems are totally absent. The visitors throw the empty drinking water bottles, plastic bags and generate plastic of pollution. The waste products created by visitors are up to 50 g, per day per person. Presently this lake is under major threat of noise air and plastic pollution. The environmental degradation rate at Bhugaon lake is very high. The village women are washing the clothes and utensils directly in the lake as
well as the milkmen were their daily animals like buffalos and cows in the lake water directly.

This lake is managed by forest department, government of Maharashtra. At present the maintenance is totally dependent on the financial support of forest department which is very inadequate. Due to lack of financial support there is no maintance of the lake. The present staff to look after the activities of lake is also very insufficient. The staff includes one forest officer ranger, one forest guard and sixteen labors. It is beyond their reach to maintainance the lake at satisfactory level. Hence many unlawful activities are going at the lake site. Encroachment on government-land by the local people is most important threat to this ecotourism site. Many illegal constructions are coming up at the lake site.

At present approximately 57 persons are making their living through self-employment at the lake site. Additionally, there are approximately 150 indirect employments supported by the Bhugaon lake ecotourism activities. The majority of these are in the food vending area. Almost all the above persons live in the villages. The present average earning is approximately Rs.4, 000/- per month.

**CONCLUSION**

Bhugaon lake has the best ecotourism potential for development and management amongst the six sites investigated. The three approaches that will enhance the restoring of Bhugaon lake will be planning for Eco-tourism, orienting the site to receive out of state and international tourists, and launching a new well planned strategy for the management and revenue collection. The Long term environmental strategic management in this research consists of increasing recreational places for ecotourists, increasing the environmental viewpoints and amazing areas, planning of environmental long term strategies with attention towards occupation of local people, and increasing their life standards. For development of ecotourism in Pune district following main recommendations are given: protection and conservation of native flora preparation of jogging tracks, children parks, yoga and meditation centre, cultural and traditional centers, amusement parks. To develop ecotourism potential of Bhugaon lakes following ecotourism activities are recommended:

- Children and young promenade,
- Management of ecotourism area, proper disposal and reduction of wastes,
- Hosting –serving –cultural and coastal establishment,
- Green space and natural exhibition,
- Concentrated promenade-ecotourism projects,
- Estimation of expenditure promenade projects and ecotourism developments,

Similarly following main plans and models are suggested to develop ecotourism activities at Bhugaon lake.

- Creation of forest parks and zoos,
- Protection of native plant species,
- Conservation of natural sites,
- Management of environmental activities,
- Water park and boating,
- Jogging track and walking roads on hills at south east of Bhugaon lake,
- Yoga and meditation centre,
- Children parks,
- Amusement and children ecopark,
- Water park,
- Ecotourists camp, service centers and ecotourism facilities,
- Establishment of restaurants and residences for ecotourists.

All these developments will be undertaken by involving local people. In almost all the projects proposed for development of Bhugaon lake high priority will be given for the jobs and employment of local people. The suggested proposals and plannings will not disturb the nature and interfere the life of villagers in the vicinity of lake. Highest priority will be given to improve the economics and social standard of villagers. Where ever possible women self-help groups will be involved to empower the village women.

**REFFERENCES**


Jackie Clarke(1999). A Framework of Approaches to Sustainable Tourism/ School of Business, Oxford Brooks University, Wheatley Campus, Wheatley, Oxford OX33 1HX


Pamela A. Wight (2002). Supporting the Principles of Sustainable Development in Tourism and Ecotourism: Government’s Potential Role/ Pam Wight & Associates, Tourism Consultants, 14715-82 Avenue, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada T5R 3R7


USAID/Uganda. (1990). Natural Resources and Tourism Management, Project


Tourism, International Migration and Nation-State in Globalized World

Muammar TUNA
Faculty of Letters and Science
Mugla University, Turkey
Email: muammer@hotmail.com

Çağlar ÖZBEK
Faculty of Letters and Science
Mugla University, Turkey
E-mail: caglar@mu.edu.tr

Yasin GÜNDEM
Institute of Social Sciences
Mugla University, Turkey
E-mail: yasimgundem@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Demand of human being to go to behind of time and space with fast mobilization changed perceptual meaning of time and space. Depending on limited living places, societies identified living places as "country", identified people who live in the country as "citizen" and identified the citizens of the country as "nation". Accordingly, the "nation-state" has appeared as the most complicated social institution of a nation and "nationalism" has appeared as common values or "collective consciousness" of the citizens of a nation state. On the other hand, with globalization and international migration, individuals and societies have swiftly mobilized and started to live in many places simultaneously. Therefore; the people permanently living in more than one nation-state, have believed that they are more than one country's citizen and finally they have more than one citizenship perception and citizenship construction. Accordingly, the meanings of nation-state, nationalism and citizenship have been changing.

Key words: International migration, globalization, multi-culturalism, sociology of tourism.

INTRODUCTION

Globalization can be accepted as the most expressive and common concept defining the 21st century by starting from the last quarter of the 20th century. The most tangible appearances of globalization are tourism and international migrations which appear as a result of extraordinary progressions in communication and transportation. The extraordinary progressions in communication and transportation are also accepted as one of the reasons of acceleration and widespread of globalization. The formidable speed in transportation and communication has made the world smaller; in other words, technological progressions have eliminated the concepts of time and space and people have been as if they lived in hyper times and spaces. So, people have found the possibility of experiencing one season in twelve months. It is the progressions in transportation and communication that enable people to pass over time and space. The acceleration, easiness and widespread of communication and transportation have mobilized the people and societies as much as it was never in any period of history. The most tangible appearance of this mobilization comes as tourism and international migrations.

When it is looked at the political sciences and political sociology, it is seen that depending on limited living places, societies have identified living places as "country", identified people who live in the country as "citizen" and identified the citizens of the country as "nation". Accordingly, the "nation-state" has appeared as the most complicated social institution of a nation and "nationalism" has appeared as common values or "collective consciousness" of the citizens of a nation state. With globalization and international migration, individuals and societies have swiftly mobilized and started to live in many places simultaneously. Therefore; the people permanently living in more than one nation-state, have believed that they are more than one country's citizen and finally they have more than one citizenship perception and citizenship construction. Accordingly, the meanings of nation-state, nationalism and citizenship have been changing.

In this study, the relation among the concepts of globalization, tourism, international migrations and nation-state will be debated. This argument, being not only a theoretical speculation, will be supported by data of a still continuing research. In other words, the changed meaning of nation state will be debated in terms of tourism and international migrations in this study. So, it is argued that citizens feel belonging to more than one country and nation or they do not feel belonging to any country and nation.

GLOBALIZATION AND INTERNATIONAL MIGRATIONS

Migration, one of the most important concepts expressing the sociological character of 21st century, has been argued since the second half of 20th century. The 20th century has given rise to big changes by progressions in technology, transportation and communication. Today, there are more than 120 million people who live in other place than the hometown (Abadan-Unat 2006: 344).
According to United Nations, there are nearly 100 million migrants in the world and 20 million of them are refugees (Somersan 2004: 152). Definitely, this number will be increasing day by day. Most of these people are the subjects of situations expressed as refugee, exile and casual laborer.

So, it is possible to mention that people can easily locate in other countries with globalization and capitalism. Today, international migrations are towards the developing countries whose geographical regions have some characteristics (Tsimbos 2006: 231). This moving gives rise to a lot of changes. The most important ones of them are new organization forms in business sector, new business technologies and new communication networks. But this process changes the cultures, the life conditions of people and unbalances the earth and people.

It is seen that the basic structure of nation-state is affected in this period where the border between space and time is unclear. The fact of nation-state, accepted unanimously by everybody in the last century, has lost its importance and validity in the century we live. So, nation-state has become a subject which must be debated again and its extent has changed because of social alterations. Due to all of them, the “transnational movements”, which are the results of economic order; social, sexual, religious, ethnic differences and identity struggles that multinational companies determine, are gaining speed day by day (Abadan-Unat 2006: 303-04). So, all these movements defined as transnational necessitate the concept of nation-state to be interpreted again. Especially, the concept of nation-state and its changes have an important place in transnational movements and international migrations. As a result of this classification which has been conceptualized as “new migration movements”, nation-state gives a lot of clues as a political expression.

NATION-STATE: AS A MODERN ORGANIZATION

The concept of nation-state is, in fact, a new relative concept. The long term religion wars, ending with the Westfalen Peace Agreement in Europe in 1648, put forward the main elements of “modern state” at the same time in that period. According to this, “modern state”;

- Is an institution that has “sovereignty right” by international agreements on a particular geography.
- Controls economic, cultural and social life on a particular territory by the “autonomy” it has.
- Has “an absolute controlling” right over its borders. This controlling is on the goods, capital and cultural products (Abadan-Unat 2006: 306).

At this point, it will be true to perceive the modern state as the modern nation-state. This process, going from modern state to nation-state, is completely different from today’s statism concept. Although the modern state tries to control the sovereignty right by agreements, it has some problems in inspecting economic, cultural and social life.

The researches about transnational societies are accepted as a new field in social sciences. This concept is generally about migration, ethnicity, culture and nationalism. The national territory, one of the most important elements of nation-state while entering the 21st century, has lost its importance. The increasing geographical movements, migrations, cheap travels and continuous communication lessen the idea that individual belongs to one country and one nation. The individuals belonging to these groups form their identities by not depending one geography. So, globalization brings about glocalisation (Abadan-Unat 2006:316).

In such new societies, the individuals are not homogeneous and they do not belong to one territory as the modern state fancies. So, the groups in the organized societies are different and decomposed. In the places where homogeneous populations are, the relation between “nation and citizen” is dissolved. That citizenship is a form of socio-politic identity results from it (Heater 2007: 9). The individual has participated in the different affiliation and loyalty relations (Abadan-Unat 2006: 308). This differentiation has necessitated re-defining the relations, social structure, economic systems and cultural developments. Nation-state has left its place to the transnational movements and this period has been causing a destructive effect on all social institutions with society.

NEW MIGRATION MOVEMENTS

Analyzing the transnational movements which have been mentioned before, under the title of migration concept, in two different parts being as national or international is possible. National migration defined as “domestic migration” in the literature is defined as a place change which happens due to various reasons (economic, social, cultural, etc) in a country’s own borders. In almost every region of the world, human activity which has increased at an unexpected rate in the last twenty years in fact means a necessary following of the increasing capital and technology (Kümbetoğlu, 2003: 275). This is a result of transnational movements. Increase in capital and technological developments, rise in market shares of multinational companies, developments in communication and transportation sectors increase present human activity more. So, ignoring the economic, political and social reasons of both domestic and exterior migrations will be a mistake. Although migration is as old as human history,
both the reasons of migration and the specialties of nomadic people have differentiated.

With not being different from the stories mentioned above, migration stories which were lived and written in 21st century has enriched with the social changes. For example, the fact named as international “pensioner migrations” which takes place in the base of this study can be shown as an example for it. Thinking that all the migrations are always full of problems and perceiving the migration fact always with poverty are widespread attitudes (Kümbeoğlu 2003: 276). But in the international pensioner migrations, it is known at least that nomadic people are not in bad conditions. 1980s and 1990s were the periods when the capital, technology, ideas, properties and humans could exceed the limits and were the periods when activities and trends gained importance in a much more characteristic form according to earlier years. International migrations both increased as intensity and differentiated in many respects like the qualities of nomadic people (Kümbeoğlu 2003: 294-295). This differentiation, as it has been mentioned, can be evaluated over the international pensioner migrations. The reason of present change in migration categories can be qualified as a reflection of changing social system and institutions.

The variation in ethnic identities and the position of most European countries to be a multicultural society; the relation of transfrontier migration movements with illegal actions, the density of woman migration at an increasing rate towards developed countries; human migrations which are explained as brain drain; refugees, especially fugitive workers who have been spread in the last years are rather illustrative to explain migrations of today’s world. Adding new migration models to this classification is possible.

The economic, social, political and cultural crises caused by capitalism in all over the world trigger income differences among countries and domestic regions. If it is thought that capitalism is a “social system” which has been coming from historical times to today, it can be said that capitalism has affected social life in many means deeply and increased migration activities (Wallenstein 2006: 11). Although economies which are forced to be reconstituted globally do not create present income differences, they harden. That income difference is accepted as one of the most important reasons of migration and especially the international migration.

There has been a significant change in the world economy with dense industrialism and the appearance of multinational companies. This change has required new organization forms and in that new organization form, the individual comes across with unemployment and so with poverty. The individuals whose qualities of life decrease have to migrate for a better work and life. But this is a known fact that international migrations which are based on economy have not become as expected.

Especially three matters of the international migration categories (investor migrants, pensioner migration, migration depending on season) are much more interesting with their qualities. Although it is possible to analyze investor migrants in a different category, it is possible to evaluate pensioner migration and migration depending on season in the same category. When pensioner migration is thought for Turkey, it is a quite new argument field. Especially the pensioner migrations which are from European countries to Turkey with “legal ways” have increased in the coastlines of the country. In comparison with other European countries, the low rate of the real estate prices in Turkey is one of the most important reasons of that density. As it has been mentioned above, it will not be wrong to evaluate pensioner migration with the migration depending on season. The pensioner migrants prefer to buy real estates especially in the coastlines chosen because of their temperate climates.

Individuals and groups who change their places by migration are thought as a problem in new social order that they enter. In this situation where ethnicity concept gains importance, the individuals and groups who migrate are called as ethnic groups. Or the individuals and groups who migrate are “become ethnic” in the country they go. The “othering” has an important place in the fact of international migration. As Abadan-Unat mentions, the ethnic groups which settle in nation-states cause big problems permanently as a result of international migration. But the international networks that communication tools have formed in recent years and the simplicities in transportation systems have enabled the ethnic groups who are living in the boundaries of nation-states to continue an independent life (Abadan-Unat 2006: 309). It is certain that examining the subject with that status will give rise to a different “othering”. Seeing the ethnic groups in nation-state as “a problem” not only improves a different prejudice; but also supports the present “othering”. And also the idea of char-
acterizing the migrants only as a source of “problem” cannot be explained with mere ethnicity.

**MULTICULTURALISM**

All the models such as assimilation, differential exclusion and multiculturalism have been put into practice by the countries accepting migrants. Besides these models, “integration” concept is also used for migration politics. When its relation with assimilation is taken into account, the integration brings about a different form of harmony. “Integration is defined as migrants and local people’s willingly being in harmony with the major culture and society and their assimilating the norms and values of the major society.” Assimilation is perceived as unlikable and domineering policy; whereas sociologists see the integration as one of the ways which provide peace for different cultures living in the same society” (Somersan 2004: 92). But there are a lot of different approaches which are about integration whether it has been put into practice or not in social sciences and especially in researches about migration. It is very hard to draw a certain line about where the assimilation finishes and integration starts. Moreover, how much is it possible for the groups of minority and inferior to choose freely? Does the minority have any more alternative than obeying the major group? How can they have the difference accepted? Is the difference between the “equals” accepted so easily?” (Somersan 2004: 92). These kinds of questions are important for the matter of what kinds of problems appear about integration and assimilation.

The fear of foreigners is whether the integration which is tried to be implemented in European countries will turn to the assimilation which is insisted. There are a lot of reasons for its failure. But the most important reason is that the public servants are getting inner and inner of the new “transnational social fields” as a result of globalization. So, individuals keep in touch not only with their new countries but also with their origin countries. The one-way loyalty expected from the status of citizenship-being only a German, Dutch or French has expired today. Legally or actually, individuals live in both countries by the help of dual nationality and multicultural citizenship. And also ethnic and national relation shaped by religion is highly important (Abadan-Unat 2006: 406-07).

Multicultural citizenship is gaining importance day by day. The “assimilation”, probably the most important immigrant politics categorized by sociologists, is centered on the law which gives immigrants the right of citizenship. Each government controls the spread of political community defined with citizenship rights by this law. The question which must be asked at this point is from which point can a democratic country, for protecting the wholeness of citizens’ way of life, want immigrants to assimilate:

- Assimilation to institutionalization style of citizens’ autonomy in the country migrated;
- An assimilation which is more effective than political socialization on the origin culture of migrants (Habermas 2005: 136).

The approach which defends that individual will never belong to the migrated country does not help solving the migration problems. But the reality of individual’s keeping in touch with his origin country besides his new country shows that he feels belonging to both countries. As Unat mentions, the racial indicators such as being Turkish, German, English; the religious indicators such as being Muslim, Christian; or the occupational indicators such as being doctor, worker, engineer have lost their validities. The individual cannot maintain his relation to one identity with changing social perceptions and effects of transnational movements. By taking these approaches into consideration, an approach basing the “difference” in social sciences and in researches about migration is more advantageous to debate the subject in detail.

Making the difference understandable does not mean to eliminate it completely. To McClintock, it is possible to improve a natural comprehension based on difference. It is not true to say that “exceptions are for proving the rule”; the exceptions have their own meanings. With that meaning, the difference constitutes a principle organizing the world. While these contrasts are tending to a cosmic agreement which excludes one member of couple or gets rid of it and to a law which includes everything; the diversification is seen as an aim on its own (Fox Keller 2007: 196-97).

A conservative point of view does not accept the difference in social life; on the contrary, it accepts protecting the present cultural unity. But it is too hard for present societies to accept this comprehension. Under the light of social progressions mentioned above, ignoring the difference is impossible. Instead, assimilating a comprehension which accepts the difference culturally, which aims to organize the life without language and religion distinctions, which considers the people by ignoring the racial, linguistic, religious and ethnic differentiations can be useful to prevent social conflicts.

It is historically known that the adventure of international migration of Turkey has a long story. If the Ottoman Empire is excluded from this historical process, migrations from Turkey to Europe starting from 1960s and ending in the end of 1970s have been spoken quite frequently. Lately, Turkey has become a stopping place - a bridge- between Middle East and Europe for the ones who want to migrate illegally. On the other hand, there were a great deal of migrations especially from Russia, the Balkans and all the countries under commu-
nist regime between 1923 and 1997. It is declared that 1.6 million people changed their localities as a result of these migrations (Kirişiçi 2003). For Turkey, it can be said that one of the points which is not approved by Europe is migration problem.

CONTRIBUTION OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION TO TOURISM AND NATIONAL ECONOMY

The “pensioner migrations”, which has a quite new argument field in Turkey and in all the world, is being studied very often in different dimensions by different disciplines. This period which can be seen towards the tourism areas bring about different transformations in the regions which are migrated. In recent years, especially Antalya, Muğla and Aydın, the cities in West Mediterranean and South Aegean, have taken the attractions as their positions are the places where the people coming from West Europe settle by migration. Accordingly, the research which forms the reference of this study has been actualized in the shore towns of Muğla- Marmaris, Bodrum and Fethiye- which are the places that the foreign migrants mostly prefer. The people who settle in the region consist of the ones mostly from Germany and England; it is also possible to encounter people from Europe’s other countries and even from the far points of the world such as South Africa and USA.

An important element taking the attraction in international pensioner migration is that the pensioner migrants have visited the region for vacation before they migrate. The tourist who has come to Turkey for vacation, later turns to a new international citizen who passes his/her retirement in Turkey. The foreigners who settle around Muğla consist of the ones who have come to Turkey for vacation before. For this reason, it is possible to imply that there is a close relationship between tourism and international pensioner migrations. Karen O’Reilly takes this relationship into consideration while categorizing “tourism migrations”:

1. Expatriates: The groups who are continuously moving.
2. Residents: They spend 2 or 5 months in the country they enter with legal ways (for visiting relatives or their own second houses).
3. Seasonal Visitors: They live in the specific region of the country but they travel shortly in 2-6 months on condition that they return.
4. Returners: They visit their second homes with their responsibilities.
5. Tourists: They accommodate in a short time period in the localities such as apartments, hotels in the country they come for vacation (Williams, et al. 2000: 36-37).

It is also possible that this period can turn to a collective action. For example, the pensioner migrants who migrate to tourism areas of Turkey become the direct members of a public in the area they migrate. This situation brings about “secret” or quite “open” organization in the area. That kind of organization is seen as one of the ways making a new country and a new life more lucid for the migrants. The migration from the country which is gotten used to or which is born in to another country can be accepted as an important risk for the pensioner migrants (and others in the international migration). To reduce this risk, that kind of organization is more functional for the migrants.

In the tourism-based studies related to the topic (Williams, et al. 2000), it is resulted that the pensioners contribute to the tourism potentials of the country traveled (or the long-term migrated). Available technological developments, the easily reaching to information, the wish to see and discover “new” places increase the number of travels aimed for relaxation and sightseeing from the point of pensioners. The retired migrants contribute to the tourism of countries traveled by short and long term movements. But it is good to ask this fixation in a question made for Turkey. Besides the fact that all the moving potentials of retired migrants have contributed to Turkish tourism; it is required to think the effect of their possessing properties. Because most European retired migrants having properties in Turkey hire their houses illegally to their friends, relatives in their countries; but they do not pay any taxes in return for the revenue they get. This period frequently observed in the migrations especially to Aegean Region encourages many Europeans to travel Turkey; but this situation affects the local tourism negatively by unfair competition rather than contributing to tourism positively. The negative effects of this situation are experienced mostly by tourism managers, travel agencies, tour operators and such institutions. The newness of the concept of pensioner migration for Turkey results in low-awareness of the problem.

CHANGE IN NATIONAL BELONGING SENSES OF THOSE HAVING MIGRATED TO TURKEY

The data of a still-continuing research for searching public integration problems of the foreigners who settle in the counties of Muğla in South Aegean-Marmaris, Fethiye, Bodrum- has been taken advantage of supporting the argument in this study where the change in the meaning of nation-state with the effect of new life style resulting from globalization and international migrations is argued. The distribution of the ones taking part in this research has been given according to national origin and citizenship defining in Table 1. ¾ of the
ones taking part in this research consist of English, others are distributed among other countries. But, the important thing here is the difference between how they define national (ethnic) origin and citizenship. While the national (ethnic) origin is the situation which has familial and cultural relations and which is brought by birth, the citizenship is the legal definition of belonging to a nation-state.

Accordingly, as a result of the difference between the definitions of national (ethnic) origin and citizenship, the acceleration and expansion of international migrations, people's living in more than one country and their feeling a belonging towards more than one country and nation-state are thought to be closely related with each other. This assumption is tried to be proved by the data gathered from the research made in the counties of Muğla-Marmaris, Fethiye and Bodrum-

The results of the data gathered from the research made in Marmaris, Fethiye and Bodrum have been given in Table 1 and Table 2. Accordingly, of the participants taking part in the interview made with foreign settlers, 73.1% are English in origin, 5.7% are German in origin, 28% are American in origin, 5% are French in origin, 3.2% are Irish in origin, 1.4% are Dutch in origin, 1% is Scottish in origin, 0.4% is Finnish in origin, 11.1% identify themselves as either other or double citizen and 1.1% do not answer the national / ethnic origin question.

On the other hand, 70% of the ones who identify themselves as English in origin are English citizens; 80% of the ones who identify themselves as German in origin are German citizens; 40% of the ones who identify themselves as American in origin are American citizens; all of the ones who identify themselves as French in origin are French citizens; half of the ones who identify themselves as Irish in origin are Irish citizens; 85% of the ones who identify themselves as Dutch in origin are Dutch citizens. Moreover, the number of the ones who identify themselves as Scottish citizen is 8 while the number of the ones who identify themselves as Scottish in origin is 5; one of the every two people who identify themselves as Finnish in origin identifies himself / herself as Finnish citizen.

![Table 1. The change from the definition of national (ethnic) origin to citizenship definition](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National (Ethnic) Origin</th>
<th>Citizenship</th>
<th>Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>73,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>5,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3,2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scottish</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finnish</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other / Double Citizen</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>11,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-replier</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>100,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Table 2. The legal status in which the foreigners are in Turkey](image)

| Visitor | 125 | 25,0 |
| Temporary (short term) residence permit | 166 | 33,3 |
| Continuous (long term) residence permit | 131 | 26,4 |
| Dual nationality | 55 | 11,0 |
| Turkish citizenship | 7 | 1,3 |
| Non-repliers | 16 | 3,0 |
| Total | 500 | 100,0 |
After all, while only 6 people do not answer the question of national (ethnic) origin, 127 people do not answer the question about citizenship. When these data are compared with answers to the question of in which legal status the replyers are in Turkey, such outlook appears. To the question of in which legal status the participants are in Turkey, the 26.4% -that is 131 people- reply that they are in Turkey with the long term or continuous residence permits. These replies are parallel to the replies of the questions asked the participants about which country citizen they define themselves. To the question mentioned, 127 of the participants do not answer. These people consist of the ones who have been living in Turkey for a long time, most of who apply for Turkish citizenship and who feel themselves as Turkish citizen-besides their being English, for example-. But; as their appliances for citizenship have not been accepted for a long time, they are the ones who cannot identify themselves as Turkish citizens or who hesitate to do that. In short, neither they feel themselves as the origin country’s citizens and feel belonging to that country nor they feel themselves as Turkish Republic citizens and feel full belonging to Turkey. So, they have not replied the question about citizenship as there has been an uncertainty in their belongings to any country. This situation has been clearly defined by the participants in the interview besides the questionnaire. Moreover, a participant who is American in origin has pointed out that she expatriated from the American citizenship, but she has not been accepted to Turkish citizenship for a long time. Along with she feels herself Turkish and Turkish citizen, she accepts herself as homeless or citizen of the world because of the situation she is in.

CONCLUSION

The evaluation of the data gathered after the research has been given above. According to that, more than 25% of the participants show that they see difference between their belongings to a nation-state and definitions of national (ethnic) origin with citizenship definitions. While 99% of the participants identify themselves as members of a country / society from the point of national (ethnic) origin, only 75% of them identify themselves as the citizens of the same country; but 25% of them do not answer the question about citizenship. The ones who do not answer to this question, in accordance with the argument in previous parts, feel themselves as citizens of more than one country or do not feel as citizens of any country; feel belonging to more than one country or nation-state or do not feel belonging to any nation-state. According to data of this research, it is possible to signify that the meaning of nation-state has changed and the nation-states do not have as strong and effective belonging senses as before for the citizens. This situation has appeared also in Muğla, like in most of the world, as a result of globalization, international migrations and pensioner migrations.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This study is supported by TÜBİTAK project whose title is “The Social Integrations of Foreigners Who Have Properties in South Aegean”. (Project number: 106K167)

REFERENCES


Aybay, R. (2007). Yahancıl Hakuk. İstanbul: İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Yayınları.


INTERNET REFERENCE

An Interpretation of Local and Regional Architecture in Global Contexts: A Case Study of Residential Tourism Architecture

Murat DÜNDAR
Department of Architecture
Bahçeşehir University, Turkey
E-mail: murat.dundar@bahcesehir.edu.tr

ABSTRACT
This paper aims to discuss the most preferred practices in the process of designing residential tourism architecture which attempts to reflect the architectural style of a region, whether traditional, regional, local, or vernacular and is organized as follows. After the introduction, part II discusses the basic motivations that led designers to take local or traditional values as the leading design criteria in the process of the aesthetic formation of tourism buildings. Part III briefly explains the architectural styles and other factors which are effective in the process of forming styles in tourism architecture, and distinguishes and defines different types of styles. Finally, chapter IV addresses the major conceptual problems and makes some suggestions as to how these requirements may be met.

Key words: Tourism architecture, regional architecture, vernacular, modern-regionalism.

INTRODUCTION
The successful development of hotels and tourist facilities has global rules, which, according to Lawson, generally depend on five key factors. These are marketing, economics, location, enterprise, and planning and design. One of the fundamental aims of the planning and design phase is to create an attractive building or group of buildings to satisfy the marketing, functional, and financial criteria (Lawson 1998).

Among different kinds of approaches for creating attractive designs, this paper aims to discuss the most preferred practices in the process of designing residential tourism architecture which attempts to reflect the architectural style of a region, whether traditional, regional, local, or vernacular. This paper also intends to consider how local and traditional values can be used more efficiently in the process of designing residential tourism architecture. It will discuss the different practices, advantages, and disadvantages of this approach and make some proposals.

This paper is organized into four chapters. After this introduction, part II discusses the basic motivations that led designers to take local or traditional values as the leading design criteria in the process of the aesthetic formation of tourism buildings. Part III briefly explains the architectural styles and other factors which are effective in the process of forming styles in tourism architecture, and distinguishes and defines different types of styles. It also provides a brief overview of the formation process of architectural styles for residential tourism buildings and briefly discusses their theoretical and contextual background, illustrating how the major stimuli in the design process for residential tourism buildings are often difficult to identify because they may vary even for similar problems. After discussing the meaning of some terms related to these two chapters, chapter IV addresses the major conceptual problems and makes some suggestions as to how these requirements may be met.

MOTIVATIONS BEHIND INTERPRETATIONS of REGIONAL STYLE
Making visual or abstract references is a critical decision of the design process which affects the formation of a building’s final appearance. In order to understand the conditions that may lead designers to refer to the characteristics of an architectural heritage, we first need to discuss the major factors that aesthetically affect the design process of a residential tourism structure. With this we hope to answer the question of what the appropriate motivations are in the design process for tourist-oriented buildings. Architects have three basic motivations for referring to the characteristics of an architectural heritage. The first is a feeling of architectural responsibility to create harmony with an existing urban texture; next is the necessity for buildings to be adapted to local conditions; the last is the desire to attract users or visitors with symbolic reinterpretations.

DESIGNER’S SELF-SATISFACTION
The designers’ self-satisfaction plays an important role in their basic motivations to give visible or abstract references to the architectural characteristics of a region. It is certain that providing visual references is more common than attempting to create an abstract interpretation of a particular region’s architectural style. This approach emerges from the necessity of providing harmony with existing buildings to maintain regional authenticity. Additionally, producing nuances of individualism to create an identity of a design, or a difference, is
also among the important factors that motivate designers to reference characteristics of a particular architectural style.

**ADAPTATION TO LOCAL CONDITIONS**

In addition to virtual adaptations, residential tourism buildings especially have to be adapted to local conditions. It is noteworthy that modern interpretations of regional architecture, which utilizes local materials, experience, and skills, leads to decreased energy consumption for acclimatization. Also, by seeking the motivations behind the forms, colors, and scales of existing buildings, designer may come to base their own design concepts on true basics.

**SATISFYING VISITORS’ INTEREST**

As mentioned earlier, designers’ other motivation is to satisfy visitors’ interest and enjoyment. In particular, the aesthetic characteristics of a building or a group of buildings plays as important a role as the other attractions promised to guests in a resort area. Swarbrooke categorized the typology of attractions as (a) natural environment attractions, (b) human-made structures not designed specifically to attract visitors, (c) human-made structures specifically designed to attract visitors, and (d) special events. (Swarbrooke 1995)

Reflecting regional characteristics is especially important for the tourism industry. Satisfying visitors’ sense of aesthetics and making them want to come back again should be considered to be part of the typology of attractions. It should be kept in mind, however, that satisfying visitors’ aesthetic expectations should never degenerate into pandering to popular demands. Treating non-Western and vernacular architecture as the repository for tourists’ desires should be avoided.

**III Architectural Styles in Tourist-Oriented Buildings**

An architectural style is a specific type of architecture that is distinguished by special characteristics of structure and ornament (Oxford English Dictionary). This traditional definition treats style as a generator of visual characteristics with no relationship to buildings’ functions. Buildings with different functions, such as office buildings, shopping centers, residences, and tourism buildings, can show the same style characteristics.

The evolutionary process of styles in residential tourism architecture has always been in line with current trends and inclinations in world architecture. The architectural styles of residential tourism buildings have generally been categorized as either international, postmodern, or regional architecture, with regional architecture divided into the sub-categories of vernacular architecture (conservative-interpretive) and modern regionalism, which is also called concrete regionalism or abstract regionalism.

![Table 1: The Relation between Architectural Styles and Basic Motivations](image)

Because each of these architectural styles proposes a particular design ethic and should be considered with its inner currents, discussing the aesthetic value of these approaches separately is beyond the scope of this paper. Instead, the table above lists the main characteristics of some of these styles. The shaded rectangles in this chart represent the most important characteristics of these architectural styles.

Since the aesthetic concept of International Architecture pays no heed to any region’s local or cultural differences, discussing the aesthetic value of this style is beyond the scope of this paper. The major negative effects of residential tourism buildings’ aesthetic problems may be summarized as inappropriate development that causes the deterioration of the cultural and natural environment, or of regional identity.
The postmodernist revolt rejects this modernist attitude of neglecting cultural and regional characteristics. Özkan asserted that “Postmodernism attempted to reinstate many of the missed or ignored elements of identity into both the theory and practice of architecture.” (Özkan 1995) However, incorporating authentic styles is insufficient to reflect the architectural style of any region.

Major efforts to highlight local and regional concerns began in the 1960s with Alvar Aalto, who was the first to attempt to create regionalism within modernism. The regional approach was clearly born as a revolt against the International Architecture school, which tended to universalize human needs and aesthetics. According to Colquhoun, “Regionalism has always been implicated in the metaphysics of difference, rejecting all attempts to generalize cultural values based on the concept of natural law or other such universalizing theories” (Colquhoun 1995:50-55). Rudolph described regionalism by noting that it “is one way toward that richness in architecture which other movements have enjoyed and which is so lacking today.” (Rudolph 1957:12-19) According to Özkan, regionalism covers wide array of attitudes, from vernacular modes of building to abstract regionalism. This means that regionalism can be broadly categorized as being either vernacular or modern regional (Özkan 1985).

Generally, low-rise vernacular buildings use local materials and craft skills to express their vernacular character, are carefully integrated with the landscape, and tend to be recreational facilities (Lawson 1998). The idea of the vernacular has been widely considered to be just the intuitive strength of simple building technologies (Macinnes 1996), but the new tendency in regionalism claimed that “all forms of vernacular architecture are built to meet specific needs, accommodating the values, economies and ways of life of the cultures that produce them” (Oliver 1998). This means that without doing interdisciplinary studies which aim to understand the ideas behind the forms, all attempts to create styles imitating local buildings in form and materials lead to regional degeneration.

Good, already-realized examples of this approach can be seen in the works of such architects with world-wide fame for their efforts to use the vernacular as Charles Correa, Balkrishna Doshi, and Aldo van Eyck. According to Özkan, modern regionalism can be broadly classified into the two approaches of concrete regionalism and abstract regionalism, which includes the works of the architects mentioned above (Özkan 1985). Roth defined the architectural style of abstract regionalism as an architecture of substance. (Roth 1993)

### MAJOR PROBLEMS OF MODERN REGIONALISM

Several conditions cause limitations in architectural attitudes seeking modern regional expression.

#### The Problem of Heritage

The first problem designers need to solve is which sources should be treated as part of an architectural or cultural heritage, as no predefined aspects of architectural or cultural heritage can be identified as beneficial design sources. Ashworth and Larkham defined heritage as a “‘commodified’ product using a selection of the resources of the past for the construction of products to satisfy modern demands” (Ashworth and Larkham 1994: 278). Buildings having official or monumental character should be evaluated apart from folk architecture. Any attempt to create a combination of these architectural styles will certainly lead to the creation of a theatrical atmosphere which may devalue the original architectural heritage. A determination should be made as to the characteristics of both the monumental architectural past and folk architecture and building materials used in an area. Jamieson pointed out that the issue of “maintaining authenticity and cultural integrity when faced with market forces that may identify questionable heritage resource design and interpretive strategies” should be resolved as part of the planning and development process (Jamieson 1998: 65-67). This should urge designers to set their design concepts on true basics which seek integrity with the local and regional architectural contexts.

#### The Problem of Imitation and Authenticity

Having mentioned the sources which could be referenced in the design process, this paper will now deal with the problem of how designers should benefit from architectural heritage. Making humble references to a regional or national architectural heritage in tourist-oriented buildings without making an effort to understand the core of shapes and forms is highly likely to devalue the originality of that culture. With insufficient knowledge, any attempt to reflect local identity can be more dangerous than a design which completely neglects local references, as such attempts may create false character. Reinterpreting tradition carries the clear danger of transforming the culture which is referenced into something it never was, or kitsch. Authenticity has always been an attractive jargon word for the tourism industry, which has generally tried to achieve it by imitating traditional buildings in form, space, materials, or structure. We should be aware that an eclectic synthesis of several sources from a national or regional architectural heritage is highly unlikely ever to be satisfying for either
designers or visitors. This problem mainly emerges from a tourism tendency called *all-included*, which aims to keep visitors inside a resort area during their entire vacation. The innocent desire to have visitors experience something unique during their vacations by creating an authentic atmosphere reminiscent of the place or region mostly results in pandering to visitors’ preconceived images about the locality. The critical question we have to face is whether we should try to create a questionably authentic atmosphere by making visual references to architectural heritage, or try to motivate tourists to visit the real sites and spaces.

**The Degree of Standardization**

Another important question that should be considered is that of the degree of standardization. Lawson noted that while luxury and high-class hotels with an emphasis on quality and sophistication come into prominence with individual designs, budget hotels with cost-efficient accommodation tend to reflect highly standardized designs and repetitive construction techniques, often using prefabrication and system building (Lawson 1998). Standardization should therefore only be applied to satisfy functional necessities and the quality of service requirements. Aesthetic standardization in design should be strictly avoided.

**The Problem of Scale**

The most critical factor directly influencing the aesthetic character of a building or group of buildings is the maximum allowed density of development. What we need for the design process of tourism-oriented buildings is a change in the perception of tourists’ profiles. In Turkey, we should aim to attract a small number of high-income, middle-class tourists rather than a large number average-income visitors. To achieve this, the scale of buildings may need to be limited, and new tourism areas should be designated as low-density in the development plan.

**CONCLUSION**

Successful, visually attractive designs for residential tourism buildings can be achieved through the use of an interdisciplinary planning approach, in which a team of professionals coordinate an effort to clarify the architectural substance and the driving forces behind existing regional forms. The unique characteristics of each region should be studied as the basic criteria for aesthetic design.

An attractive design within the concept of modern regional architecture can only be achieved by limiting the maximum allowed density of development. This approach obviously requires changes in perceptions of tourist profiles, as noted above.

The issue remains whether an already-defined and generally accepted Turkish style exists, or if we need to define certain characteristics of traditional Turkish architecture in an effort to form a definite Turkish style for particular regions. Each region has unique environmental, social, and cultural characteristics which should become the criteria for visual design. All attempts to generalize Turkish architecture in order to create a metaphoric Turkish style should immediately be abandoned.

The natural features of an area combine with human-built structures to give that area its character. One of the most important factors that should be carefully considered at the beginning of a design process is to imagine the final effect a building is likely to produce when the project is completed. Materials, methods of construction, and space organization are often among the most significant features which create the identity of a region and give it a unique character. Therefore, the architectural character of a region should be reflected in the design of forms and spaces and in the choice of materials.

The design process of residential tourism architecture should not consider merely creating a commodity for satisfying visitors’ enjoyment and interest, but should also aim to seek harmony with an existing urban context in order to enhance the region’s authenticity.

It is worth noting from the outset that aesthetic concepts for residential tourism architecture should be based on abstract-interpretive ideas that develop from the interdisciplinary analysis of existing architectural heritage, functional needs, and the constraints imposed by the site.

**REFERENCES**


Responsibility Accounting: A Useful Management Tool for the Hotel Industry

N. Nalan ALTINTAŞ
Faculty of Business Administration, Department of Accounting
Istanbul University, Turkey
E-mail: nyal@istanbul.edu.tr

ABSTRACT
Responsibility accounting system, which is implemented especially in decentralized organizations, is an important managerial control tool used in delegating authority of decision making and controlling so that the individual performance of managers can be measured. Implementation of responsibility accounting system also provides a basis for detecting weaknesses in the organization and taking necessary corrective actions. Thus, it enables the efficiency and effectiveness of the company to be increased. Companies from various industries employ the system; however responsibility accounting system will be useful for the companies especially in the hotel industry, in which expense control is strictly emphasized. In this study the details of the responsibility accounting system is explained. The prerequisites and benefits of implementing responsibility accounting are pointed out. Its implementation in the hotel industry is discussed and suggestions for the implementation in the hotel industry are made.

Key words: Responsibility accounting, responsibility center, performance reports, controllable costs.

INTRODUCTION
One of the important tools of management control is responsibility accounting, which is designed to measure the performance of each responsibility center within a business. Responsibility accounting system holds individual managers accountable for the performance of the business segments under their control. In addition, such systems provide top management with information useful in identifying the strong and the weak segments throughout the business organization. Controlling and performance evaluation are essential elements for successful management of hotels like other businesses. Therefore, this study aims to provide brief information about responsibility accounting and to demonstrate its application in the hotel industry. The remainder of this study is organised as follows; firstly, brief information related to responsibility accounting system and its elements is provided, then details of the application of responsibility accounting system in the hotel industry are explained. In the last section conclusions are presented and suggestions are made.

RESPONSIBILITY ACCOUNTING SYSTEM
Hotels have evolved from simple businesses to complex organizations which include various services and departments (Batman 2003:107). Additionally, services are not inventoriable and unsold bed and food cause loosing of revenue. This means that strict control on the costs of services and general expenses is a vital issue in the hotel industry. That is why responsibility accounting will be beneficial for hotels. In this part of the study, responsibility accounting is tried to be explained with the help of a Sample Hotel (Hilton 1991).

In order to adapt a responsibility accounting system, an organization chart should be established. In hotel industry organization charts vary according to the types, goals, size, ownership structure, services rendered etc. and it is not feasible to offer single type of organization chart (Batman 2003:107). Each hotel should have its own organization chart according to its needs.

The second step in implementing responsibility accounting system is to determine responsibility centers by considering the company’s organization chart. The term “responsibility center” is used to designate an organizational unit which is directed by an individual. Presumably, the objectives of an individual responsibility center are intended to help achieve the overall goals of the whole organization (Anthony and Dearden 1980:171). The system should encourage the goal congruence; that is, it should be structured so that the goals of the managers of the responsibility centers are consistent with the goals of the organization as a whole. Departmental goals and organizational goals should be in harmony, otherwise individual motivations of managers may harm the overall success of the company (Shillinglaw 1977:640-653). Four major types of responsibility centers are common. These are expense centers, revenue centers, profit centers and investment centers (Anthony and Reece, 1989:757). Types of responsibility centers in an organization does not have to be the same with other organizations and they depend on the characteristics defined by the top management. There may be various types of responsibility centers in a hotel determined according to the authorities and responsibilities of their managers.

An expense center can be suitably employed to measure performance if the responsibility of the departmental manager is to produce a stated quantity of outputs at the lowest feasible cost (Kyhan and Jain, 1991:481). For example, measuring financial value of the output of the accounting department is very
difficult (Anthony and Reece 1989:833). The Food and Beverage Department of the Sample Hotel is divided into subunits responsible for Banquet, Restaurants, and Kitchen. The Head Chef that manages the Kitchen is accountable for the costs incurred there and chef hires the kitchen staff, orders food supplies, and oversees all food preparation. The Head Chef is responsible for providing high-quality food at the lowest possible cost, so the Kitchen is an expense center.

A responsibility center whose manager is accountable primarily for revenue and whose success is based on its ability to generate revenue is called a revenue center. A revenue center’s performance is usually evaluated by comparing its actual revenue with its budgeted revenue and analyzing the resulting variances (Needles et al. 2002:1118).

A profit center is a segment of the organization that has been assigned control over both revenues and costs (Cashin and Polimeni 1981). The manager of the Food and Beverage Department of the Sample Hotel is accountable for the profit earned on all food and beverage operations. This department is a profit center. The manager has the authority to approve the menu, set food and beverage prices, hire the wait staff, schedule entertainers, and generally oversee all food and beverage operations.

A responsibility center whose manager is accountable for profit generation and can also make significant decisions about the resources the center uses is called an investment center (Needles et al. 2002:1118). The President of the parent company of the Sample Hotel is accountable for corporate profit in relation to the capital invested in the company. The President has the autonomy to make significant decisions that affect the company’s profit and invested capital. Therefore, the entire company is an investment center. The responsibility accounting system in the Sample Hotel is briefly demonstrated in Figure 1.

Allocation of Costs to the Responsibility Centers in the Hotels and the Classification of Controllable and Uncontrollable Costs. Costs which are directly traceable to a segment and which were incurred specifically for that segment are called direct costs (Seiler et al. 1980:358). For instance, the salary of the manager of a responsibility center is a direct cost for that center. In the allocation of costs to the responsibility centers, firstly the direct costs are assigned to the related centers (Garrison and Noreen 2000:565). Those costs that cannot be directly traced to a center but are indirectly related to the center are indirect costs. The indirect costs are allocated to the centers with the help of allocation bases (Garrison and Noreen 2000:565). For instance, the depreciation expense of the hotel building can be allocated to the centers by using a base like squareme-

ter. In this way, total costs for each center are computed (Rayburn 1996:96). An illustration of cost allocation bases is given in Table 1 (Hilton 1991:459).

![Figure 1. Responsibility accounting system: an illustration](image)

Determining controllability is the key to a successful responsibility accounting system. A controllable cost is one that can be influenced to a considerable extent by an individual at a particular level of management within a specified period of time (Cherrington et al. 1988:204). Controllability does not depend on the type of the cost but is related to the responsibility center the cost belongs. Considering the company as a whole, all costs of the company can be regarded as controllable (Anthony and Reece 1989:661). The Head Chef of a restaurant is not authorized for the insurance of his/her department. So, he/she has to accept the insurance expense assigned to the department by the management. This is an example of uncontrollable cost and it should not be included in the performance evaluation of the Head Chef (Tüntüncü 2001:21-22).
Performance Evaluation of Responsibility Centers and Performance Reports in the Hotel. In responsibility accounting system, the performance of an expense center is measured by comparisons between budgeted and actual amounts. Flexible budgets which enable to predict expenses and revenues for different activity levels are used in measuring the performance of expense centers. These budgets are more advantageous to use in tourism sector, because of seasonal changes (Hilton 1991:160). An example of a revenue center in a hotel can be a shop that is leased to another party. In this case only the revenues of this center can be measured. The performance will be measured by comparing the actual revenue with the budgeted revenue (Kaymaz 2000: 64). Performance of profit centers is often measured by comparing the actual income statement of the center to the budgeted income statement. Variable costing is an important tool for evaluating the success of profit centers. Since there is high competition and fixed costs are high in the hotel industry, focusing on contribution instead of profit provides more feasible and up-to-date information (Kurun 1994:136). The methods used for profit centers are also applied in performance measurement of the investment centers, however there are some other methods like Return on Investment (ROI), Residual Income (RI) and Economic Value Added (EVA) that can be used for investment centers.

Performance reports are the main elements of the responsibility accounting system. Without appropriate performance reports, desired benefit from the responsibility accounting system cannot be obtained. The main goal of the performance reports is to evaluate the performance of the managers of the responsibility centers. The hierarchy of performance reports starts at the bottom and builds toward the top.

In the Sample Hotel there is a hierarchy of performance reports, since the performance of each subunit constitutes part of the performance of the next higher level subunit. For example, the cost performance in the Kitchen of the hotel constitutes part of the profit performance of the hotel’s Food and Beverage Department. Figure 2 shows the relationships between the performance reports for several subunits of the hotel. With these reports, the hotel’s general manager can evaluate his/her subordinates as well as his/her own performance. This will help the general manager in improving the hotel’s performance, motivating employees, and planning future operations.

### Table 1. Cost allocation bases-sample hotel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cost Pool</th>
<th>Cost Allocation Base</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>Budgeted number of employees in responsibility center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary of General Manager</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Office Staff</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounting</td>
<td>Budgeted sales dollars generated in responsibility center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Billing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounts Payable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Accounting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
<td>Square feet of space occupied by responsibility center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building depreciation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Property taxes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>Budgeted sales dollars generated in responsibility center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media advertising</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel agency commissions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotional programs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilities</td>
<td>Cubic feet of space in responsibility center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electricity, water, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Performance measurement of the investment centers, however there are some other methods like Return on Investment (ROI), Residual Income (RI) and Economic Value Added (EVA) that can be used for investment centers.

Performance reports are the main elements of the responsibility accounting system. Without appropriate performance reports, desired benefit from the responsibility accounting system cannot be obtained. The main goal of the performance reports is to evaluate the performance of the managers of the responsibility centers. The hierarchy of performance reports starts at the bottom and builds toward the top.

In the Sample Hotel there is a hierarchy of performance reports, since the performance of each subunit constitutes part of the performance of the next higher level subunit. For example, the cost performance in the Kitchen of the hotel constitutes part of the profit performance of the hotel’s Food and Beverage Department. Figure 2 shows the relationships between the performance reports for several subunits of the hotel. With these reports, the hotel’s general manager can evaluate his/her subordinates as well as his/her own performance. This will help the general manager in improving the hotel’s performance, motivating employees, and planning future operations.

---

**Figure 2. Reporting Within a Responsibility Center**
CONCLUSION

Managers need accurate, reliable and up-to-date information for making decisions. Responsibility accounting system plays an important role in the management control process because it enables to compare budgeted amounts to the actual amounts, based on the responsibility centers. Because it uses responsibility centers to evaluate the performances of the managers at each level, it provides a feasible basis for performance evaluation and detecting weaknesses in the organization quickly. Responsibility accounting system can be successfully implemented in hotels since they are complex organization consisted of several subunits.

Applying responsibility accounting system in a hotel requires empowerment of middle and low level managers which provides significant benefits to the business; decision making at operation level and tactical level is shared by middle and low level managers so that top management may focus on strategic decisions including strategic planning. Another benefit is the increased motivation level of managers. This system also indicates the managers with higher ability to take further responsibilities and provides a basis for promotions. The prerequisites for successful implementation in a hotel are:

- A decentralized management philosophy should be accepted.
- Responsibility centers should be determined and the responsible managers and their authorities should be clearly set.
- Budgets for each center should be prepared and standards should be set; the managers of the centers should be involved in this process.
- Each manager should be held accountable for the controllable costs only.

In order to implement responsibility accounting successfully these prerequisites should be fulfilled. Otherwise, responsibility accounting system will not provide with the expected benefits.

REFERENCES

Sustainability Analysis: Visitors Impact on Taman Negara Pahang, Malaysia

Norain OTHMAN
Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Malaysia
E-mail: drnorain@gmail.com

Nor Asmalina Mohd ANNUAR
Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Malaysia
E-mail: asmalinia.uitm@yahoo.com

Lim Lay KIAN
Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA (UiTM), Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The aim of this research paper is to measure the sustainability of the Taman Negara (National Park) from the Visitors Impact Management (VIM) approach from the visitors’ perspectives on environmental impacts and the management of the Park. VIM aims to reduce or control the impacts that threaten the quality of outdoor recreation and tourism areas and experiences. The objectives of the study were to identify unacceptable visitors’ impacts, identify potential indicators based on the impacts and recommend potential management actions and strategies for Taman Negara. A total of 113 international tourists were surveyed and asked to indicate their perception and experiences during their visit and the types of activities they participated in Taman Negara. The analysis reveals that the visitors enjoyed their experiences on canopy walkway, jungle trekking and hiking, night jungle walk, cave exploration, visit to aborigine settlement and rapid shooting. Their main concerns were the natural environmental conditions especially on the damage of the park through too many people, soil erosion, littering, provocation of wildlife and vegetation damage along walk trails. Visitors supported park management to limit number of visitors, number of people in the group, educate visitors more about conservation, provide more information and staff to assist visitors in the park.

Key words: Sustainable tourism, ecotourism, visitors’ impact, Taman Negara.

INTRODUCTION

Malaysia is one of the most rapidly developing countries in Southeast Asia with the growing population of more than 25 million people comprising of the multi racial society (e.g. Malays, Chinese and Indians). The country enjoys a significant growth in its tourism industry, contributing to foreign exchange earnings, employment and income to the country. In 2006, tourist arrivals reached 17.55 million with revenues totaling RM 36,271.1 million the tourism industry was the country’s second largest foreign exchange earner after the manufacturing sector in that year (http://www.tourismmalaysia.gov.my). Malaysia offers visitors a wide range of tourist attractions that include shopping, culture and heritage, theme parks, adventure, beaches and highlands, sports, health and eco tourism. In formulating national development policy, the government has categorized tourism products into four basic components, namely, environment (broad-based and attractive), people (multi-ethnic, friendly and hospitable), heritage and culture (varied and interesting), and facilities and activities (significant opportunities-relatively undeveloped) (Othman 2007). The policy and strategies evolve around each component so as to make Malaysia’s tourism products attractive to domestic and international tourists.

Over 90 per cent of Malaysia remains covered with the oldest and largely unexplored rainforests in the world. Among the main national parks which are protected areas includes Bako National Park, Crocker Range Park, Endau Rompin, Gunung Mulu National Park, Kenong Rimba Park, Kinabalu National Park, Kuala Gula Bird Sanctuary, Niah National Park, Rantau Abang Turtle Hatchery, Sepilok Orang Utan Sanctuary, Taman Negara and Tunku Abdul Rahman National Park. The Kinabalu National Park recently joint rank with other 630 sites worldwide as Unesco’s Worlds Heritage Site.

Taman Negara, which literally means National Park in Malay, has a significant geographical feature in Peninsular in Malaysia. The highest point in Peninsular Malaysia, Gunung Tahan (2187 m) lies within the park boundary that is located in the central part of Peninsular Malaysia. Taman Negara covers an area of 4,343 square kilometers where the state of Pahang contributes 57% (2,477km2) of the total land area, state of Kelantan about 23% (1,101km2) and the balance about 20% (853km2) is contributed by the state of Trengganu (Department of Wildlife and National Park, 2000). The Department of Wildlife and National Parks (DWNP) of Peninsular Malaysia (also known as Perhilitan) is under the Ministry of Natural Resources and the Environment (formerly under
the Ministry of Science, Technology and Environment), is appointed by the trustees to manage the park.

In order to sustain the natural environment of Taman Negara, Perhilitan recognized the importance of the environmental conditions of natural areas and the quality of the ecotourist experiences that influenced by the number of visitors and also the impacts those users have on the ecological and social conditions. Perhilitan requested the research to be carried out on Taman Negara and the study was carried using the Visitors Impact Management (VIM) approach adopted from some studies carried out on recreational parks such (Chin et al. 2000; Morin et al. 1997; Graefe et al. 1990). The VIM process involves various stages such as database review to identify unacceptable visitor impacts; review management objectives; identify measurable indicators; select standards for indicators; access current conditions of impact indicators; identify probable causes of impacts; identify a range of alternative management strategies and implement selected strategies (Chin et al. 2000; Graefe et al. 1990). This paper reports on a study of visitor impacts in Taman Negara Pahang with the following objectives:

1. Identify unacceptable visitor impacts from the perspective of visitors.
2. Identify potential indicators based on the impacts identified; and
3. Recommend potential management actions and strategies for Taman Negara

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism has long been recognized to fit well with the ideals of sustainable development as it is an activity and industry which relies on the maintenance of a strong and healthy environment for its long-term well being in many areas. It is not surprising that sustainable development has gained the attention of tourism researchers (France 1997; Wahab and Pigram 1997; Hall and Lew 1998; Middleton and Hawkins 1998; Mowforth and Munt 1998) because as a concept it addresses concerns over the abuse and over-use of resources, embraces principles of sensible and common sense environmental management and recognizes the need for change, that are the key elements of tourism planning, development and management (Nelson et al. 1993; Butler and Pearce 1996; Wall 1997; Butler 1999).

In the 1960s, research on visitor impact had become more important with the growing management concerns over increased visitation. A recent stage of concern in visitor impact research is related to the rapid growth of ecotourism and concomitant concerns about impacts at previous ecotourism destinations, which often fall within heritage site and national parks (Newsome et al. 2001: Buckley 2004; Knight and Gutzwiller 1995). Some studies focused on developing impact assessment and monitoring procedures (Liddle 1997; Hammit and Cole 1998). The Visitor impact management (VIM) approach will assess the impacts of visitors on a resource and recreation experience. It involves the systematic collection of data to predict the impacts of differing management strategies, and the collection of management information on the desirability of identified alternatives. VIM uses a sequential process, which aims to reduce or control the impacts that threaten the quality of outdoor recreation and tourism areas and experiences (Hall and Lew 1998). The two elements required are description of the relationships between specific conditions of use and the impacts associated with these conditions, and evaluation of the acceptability of various impacts. VIM can be integrated with other planning frameworks, or used as a management tool for a specific local impact problem. It may also be adapted for use in situations of mass tourism and in urban areas. Graefe et al. (1990) suggested that visitor management may be direct (regulate or restrict visitor activities) or indirect (influence visitor behavior).

Visitor impacts are an important parameter in the ecotourism equation as they tend to compromise the conservation guidelines or principles of ecotourism (Wood 2002). If unchecked, these impacts could degrade the resource quality of ecotourism destinations and have concomitant social and economic consequences. For many protected areas in developing countries, unfortunately, visitor impacts are not a high priority as compared to other management concerns (Leung and Farrell 2002). Visitor impact knowledge must be grounded in science. The field of recreation ecology has been generating a body of scientific literature that has enhanced our understanding of visitor impacts and their management (Liddle 1997; Marion and Farrell 1998; Cole 2000; Leung and Marion 2000). It is widely recognized that both the environmental conditions of natural areas and quality of the ecotourist experience are influenced not only by the number of visitor per se, but by the impacts those users have on the ecological and social conditions (Prosser 1986). In this way, visitors are at the centre of ecotourism management: they impact the natural environment and the tourism experience, while the quality of the experience is affected by the management actions necessary to improve those impacts. Hence, users represent a valuable resource for gaining information about the presence and extent of impacts, the acceptability of environmental change, and the consequences of management actions for their experience.
The centrality of visitors is embodied in the approach taken by the Visitor Impact Management (VIM) planning framework, which explicitly recognizes the value of both judgmental and scientific considerations for effective management of natural areas (Graefe et al. 1990). This recognition means that identifying the significance of biophysical and social impacts is necessarily value-laden, and as such, natural area planning and management must be recognized as a sociopolitical process (Morin et al. 1997). Therefore, rather than relying on technical assessment to determine carrying capacity and use-limits- an approach that has proved unworkable in addressing resource management problems (McCool 1989; Lindberg et al. 1997) – the VIM approach is based on the principle that both environment and the quality of the recreation experience are complex, and are influenced by a number of successive stages: review database (identify unacceptable visitor impacts); review management objectives; identify measurable indicators; select standards for indicators; assess current conditions of impact indicators; identify probable causes of impact; identify a range of alternative management strategies; and implement selected strategies (Graefe et al. 1990).

**METHODOLOGY**

This study undertakes two phases, firstly preliminary meeting and discussion with the Perhilitan official on the management strategies and sustainability of Taman Negara. Open-ended questions was developed for personal interviews by researchers to obtain in-depth information on management strategies, traveling packages, nature guiding and various services offered at the Park. The second phases, was a field survey using questionnaires to gather sufficient data from visitors to Taman Negara Pahang. The questionnaire comprised of three sections, namely visitors characteristics; activities undertaken and visitor perceptions of the park. The sampling frame was limited to the park visitors’ especially international visitors. A personal interview was conducted by 5 interviewees at various location of the park such as accommodation areas, restaurants and park activity areas, for 7 days in April and October 2007. A total of 113 respondents were obtained during the survey. The assumption underlying all aspects of this study is that information from visitors is essential to successful planning and management of natural areas that aim to sustain ecotourism.

**RESULTS**

The answers obtained from personal interviews with some of the top management of Perhilitan agreed strongly that the management of the park requires a rethinking of their strategies and regulating on certain important areas such as limiting the number of people visiting the park, provide information and educating the visitors for better understanding of the natural environment areas and limiting access to areas to avoid erosion and vegetation damages. The monitoring and controlling of the recreational activities such as the canopy walk, cave exploration and aborigine settlement is essential for the safety of visitors, privacy and to ensure quality visitors’ experiences.

The field survey shows a total number of 113 respondents comprising of international visitors mainly from the Netherlands (45.7%), followed by Germany (7.08%) and South Africa (7.08%). The lowest percentage is 0.88% from Britain, Japan and Switzerland. Males and females were equally represented within the sample surveyed. Majority of the visitor are between 30-39 years old (41%) and 20-29 years old (40%) and not many are from age 60 and above (1%). This result supported by other studies conducted in Bako National Park (Chin et. al. 2000) and America (Lucas 1990) that indicated a large proportion of the younger generation dominate the visitors to the wilderness and adventures of the park. They were aged between 16-40 years old. As most visitors are from abroad, 70% of the respondent stays longer in the Taman Negara; 3 days and 2 nights and only 1% came for a day trip. Similarly to the Bako National Park study (Chin et. al. 2000), the number of visitors of distant origin tend to stay longer while local visitors are day tripper. Most respondents travel with their friends (36.04%) and 24.32% visit the park with their spouse and others respectively. Only 6.31% of the respondents travel with their family/relatives. The professional make-up the most visitors with 37.5%, followed by students with 18.75%, and clerical or supervisory and retired people have the same percentage which is 3.57% and the lowest is housewife (0.89%). A total of 94.7% are the first time visitors and 5% are repeat visitor to the park.

Many recreational activities are available in Taman Negara and the most popular activities participated by most visitors during their stay are canopy walk (91.1%), jungle trekking (49.1%) followed by night jungle walks (47.3%), climbing Bukit Teresek (23.2%), visit to aborigine settlement (20.5%) and cave exploration (20.5%). Table 1 shows the various activities participated by the visitors.

The visitors felt that the activities that are close to nature, encounter with wildlife, learned about nature, view the scenery and breaking from routine is fairly important since all the measure of central tendency is towards the scale of 4 (important). However, activities that are privacy and solitude are neutral.
Study by Chin et al. (2000) also indicated that close to nature, encountering wildlife, learning about nature and viewing the scenery were very/extreme important in the activities undertaken at Bako National Park, similarly viewing wildlife was also important activity of Tangkoko DuaSadara Nature Reserve (Kinnaird and O’Brien 1996). Most researchers agreed that these activities are highly dependent on the quality of the natural environment of the Park (Chin et al. 2000; Kinnaird and O’Brien 1996).

Many respondents got to know about Taman Negara Pahang through travel agent or tour operator. However, none of the respondents received the information through direct mail. Only 1.8% of the respondents are aware about Taman Negara Pahang from previous visits (see Table 2).

| Table 1. Activities participated by visitors to Taman Negara |
|-------------|----------|----------|
|             | Yes      | No       |
| Canopy Walkway | 91.1     | 8.9      |
| Night Jungle Walks | 47.3     | 52.7     |
| Wildlife observation hides | 8.9      | 91.1     |
| Cave exploration | 20.5     | 79.5     |
| White water rafting | 5.4      | 94.6     |
| Bukit Teresek | 23.2     | 76.8     |
| Lata Berkoh | 15.2     | 84.8     |
| Nature Trails | 17.0     | 83.0     |
| Jungle trekking & hiking | 49.1     | 50.9     |
| Mountain climbing | 4.5      | 95.5     |
| Visit to Aborigine Settlement | 20.5     | 79.5     |
| Fishing | 2.7      | 97.3     |
| Rapid shooting | 19.6     | 80.4     |
| Four steps wall | 2.7      | 97.3     |
| Jet Boat Cruise | 8.9      | 91.1     |

Visitor Perception

Visitor perceptions on the impacts most frequently observed by visitors in Taman Negara are; too many people, soil erosion at walk trails, litter at walk-trails/shore or forest floor, littering around accommodation area and soil erosion around accommodation area. Table 3 shows the visitors perceptions of environmental impacts in Taman Negara. For the first time visitors, impacts that they observed in Taman Negara was analyzed using Kruskal Wallis non-parametric test. It can be seen that these observation are significant for provocation of wildlife. They felt that this impact is significant towards the park whilst other impacts are tested not significant.

Visitor’s concern on the level of environmental conditions/concern of Taman Negara was tested using factor analysis. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure showed 0.791 which means the variance is equal for all the items. Bartlett’s test of sphericity also showed significant. There are three main factors that have 58.92% of variance explained after the principle axis factoring extraction. Factor 1 that has 21.492% explanation consist of loadings from items like damage to natural park, litter around the park, erosion along walk-trails, health / condition of wildlife, number of people encountered overall and number of human – made structures. Factor 2 that has 19% of explanation consist of items such as size of groups encountered, number of people encountered overall, number of human – made structures and comfortable transportation used. Factor 3 has lesser items that are safety of visitors, maintenance of recreational facilities and comfortable transportation used with 18% variance explained.

| Table 2. How visitors’ know about Taman Negara |
|-------------|----------|----------|
|             | Yes      | No       |
| Local newspaper / magazine | 4.4      | 95.6     |
| Brochure | 15.2     | 84.8     |
| Travel agent / Tour operator | 32.1     | 67.9     |
| Internet | 25.9     | 74.1     |
| Friends / Relatives | 20.5     | 79.5     |
| Direct Mail | 0        | 100      |
| Previous Visits | 1.8      | 98.2     |
Table 3. Visitors perceptions of environmental impacts in Taman Negara

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Impact</th>
<th>Yes (%)</th>
<th>No (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soil erosion at walk trails</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>61.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soil erosion around accommodation area</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>80.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Litter at walk-trails/shore or forest floor</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Litter around accommodation area</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>69.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Litter at aborigine settlement</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>92.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wildlife attracted to rubbish bins</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>95.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provocation of wildlife</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>91.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smelly / discolored water</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>90.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vegetation damage along walk – trails</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>88.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hiking away from walk – trails</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>97.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water logging along some trails and accommodation area</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>91.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too many people</td>
<td><strong>57.7</strong></td>
<td>42.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>93.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Total variance explained

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.802</td>
<td>46.698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.354</td>
<td>22.560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.687</td>
<td>11.456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.528</td>
<td>8.804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>.387</td>
<td>6.443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>.242</td>
<td>4.038</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**Potential Management Strategies**

Visitor attitudes to potential management action can assist in predicting the consequences of specific actions on the ecotourism experiences, and thus result in management actions that take into account both visitor satisfaction and ecological well-being (McCool et al., 1990). Factor analysis for the issues on relative support on the management actions in Taman Negara was conducted. The Kaiser-Meyes-Olkin test shows 0.671 and Barlett’s Test of sphericity is 0.000 which shows that this test is significant. When extracting using Principal Axis Factoring, there are two factors that has the most variance explained which has a cumulative percent of 53.497% after rotation. The first factor has 32% of variance explained and the 21% are from factor 2.

After rotating using varimax with Kaiser Normalization, for factor 1, the items are limitations for number of visitors, number of people per group and forest area. The visitors also feel that management should educate visitors more about conservation. Factor two is explained by items like providing more staff and maps for directions, a strategy which was also supported by Bako users (Chin et al. 2000) and Western Australia (Morin et al. 1997) and US (Lucas 1990) visitors. Research reported by Chin et al (2000) indicated that all management strategies by Bako National Park are fully supported such as limiting forest use,
limiting the number of people and education. Morin et al. (1997) also found that Park visitors in Western Australia supported limiting strategies.

The results shows that the visitors are between likely and unsure on coming back to Taman Negara Pahang since the central tendency shows that the mean is 2.83 and median is 3.00 which corresponds between likely and unsure. However, most of the respondents choose likely since the highest frequency is 2 (likely). From the results, only 5 respondents would not recommend to their friends to come to Taman Negara Pahang (4.7%) while 95.3% will recommend their friends to come and visit.

CONCLUSION

The views and preferences of visitors to Taman Negara enable the identification of impacts perceived as significant by ecotourists. Majority of the respondents are international visitors mainly European countries namely Netherland, Germany, Italy, France, and others include United Kingdom, Japan, Thailand and Singapore. The visitors are between the age of 20 to 40 years with length of stay 3 days and 2 nights, comprising of professionals and students. Most of the visitors are first times, visiting the Taman Negara and knew about the park through the travel agencies. The visitors were concerned the impact on the park especially too many people, soil erosion at work trails and accommodation area, and littering at walk-trails and around accommodation area will likely worsen the condition of the natural environment and the habitat of the park. Respondents indicated strong support for management actions in general such as controlling visitor numbers and limiting forest use. It is essential to minimize the environmental impacts of the park through a combination of effective planning and regulations, educational training for staffs/rangers to assist in the park and provide more maps and signage within the park. This study provides the foundation for a comprehensive framework for managing visitors and recreational activities while sustaining the natural environment of the park. The understanding of the visitors’ experiences and opinion will assist the park management to develop effective planning and regulation in the natural environment in Malaysia.

REFERENCES


INTRODUCTION

Malaysia is well-known for its primary rainforest that formed one of the strong foundations of its ecotourism market. Ecotourism has shown tremendous potentials for the country’s economy and generation. The national parks in Malaysia serve as the main attractions of ecotourism areas. Among the protected areas found in Malaysia, the Taman Negara is considered as one of the premier attractions to both domestic and foreign tourists. Taman Negara, (meaning National Park in Malay language) is located in the central part of Peninsular Malaysia, that covers an area of 4,343 square kilometers in which the state of Pahang contribute 57% (2,477 km²), Kelantan 23% (1,101 km²) and Terengganu 20% (853 km²). Taman Negara was gazetted in the late 1930’s when the states of Kelantan, Pahang and Terengganu passed the Taman Negara Enactments separately in 1938 and 1939 to create the first national park in Peninsular Malaysia (DWNP and DANCED 1996). The park is under the management of the Department of Wildlife and National Parks (DWNP) also known as ‘Jabatan Perhilitan’, with a mission to become a capable and effective institution in the conservation of diverse habitat and wildlife species in the country and regulate park utilization in a sustainable way.

The function of Taman Negara is to protect the biological resources for scientific, education, economic and other purposes for the present and future generation (DWNP 2000b). Their goals are to achieve sustainable ecotourism development and biodiversity conservation in Taman Negara. Many endangered species found in Taman Negara are the Indo-Chinese tiger (Panthera tigris corbetti), Asian elephant (Elephas maximus), Sumatran rhinoceros (Dicerorhinus sumatrensis), great argus pheasant (Argusianus argus) and various species of hornbills. It houses the tallest rainforest tree, tuulang (Koompassia excelsa), which can reach up to 83 meters or as tall as a 20-storey building. As such the park offers forest-wilderness based recreational experiences and various scientific and educational programs through nature exploration.

Meanwhile, Kuala Tahan which is located at the Taman Negara Pahang becomes the main entry point and the centre of ecotourism activities at the park. The increasing numbers of tourist on the other hand can lead to conflicting of experience sought by different type of tourists who are present in the park. Various types of recreational activities are available in the park such as canopy walk, cave exploration, jungle trekking, visiting aborigine settlement, mountain climbing and rapid shooting along the river. Different tour packages are offered by travel agencies for domestic and international tourist to experience
these activities. Accommodation and restaurant outlets are also available for the comfort of the tourists. In their effort to ensure quality services are offered to visitors, the management requires this study to be conducted, to investigate tourist satisfaction and expectation during their stay in the park so as to ensure repeat visit, brand loyalty, word-of-mouth communication and decreasing complain behavior of ecotourism.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism services involved the constant interaction between guests and service providers, and it is the nature of the service a guest receives that determines his/her satisfaction of that particular encounter. The success of the tourism industry is based on the quality of the service offered to the customers (Calantone and Maznanec 1991). However, service characteristics are hard to define and even harder to measure (Carmen 1990; Parasuraman et al. 1985; Rathmell 1974). Most services are intangible and, difficult to measure however it is essential to understand the needs of customers and provide services to fulfill those needs. The importance of delivering high-quality service to the profitability of a firm has been demonstrated in both marketing and management literature (Anderson and Zeithaml 1984; Gronroos 1983; Lovelock 1981). A firm providing a higher level of service quality can have an advantage over other firms. It can position itself as being distinctively superior compared with its competitor. Consequently, providing consistent high-quality service will result in a loyal customer and cost-effectiveness (Zeithaml et al. 1990).

Customer Satisfaction

Social psychologists, marketing researchers, and students of consumer behavior, have extensively studied the concepts of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The increasing importance of quality in both service and manufacturing industries has also created a proliferation of research, with more than 15,000 academic and trade articles having been published on the topic of customer satisfaction in the past two decades (Peterson and Wilson 1992). Recently, numerous researches have attempted to apply Customer Service theories developed by consumer behaviorists in the areas of lodging (Barsky 1992; Barsky and Labagh 1992) restaurant (Dube et al. 1994; Bojanic and Rosen 1994); food-service (Almanza et al. 1994) and tourism (Pizam and Milman 1993; Danaher and Arweiler 1996; Ryan and Cliff 1997) in order to investigate customer service applicability to the hospitality and tourism industries.

Customer satisfaction is a psychological concept that involves the feeling of well-being and pleasure that results from obtaining what one hopes for and expects from an appealing product and / or service (WTO 1985). While there are a variety of approaches to the explanation of customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction, the most widely used is the one proposed by Richard Oliver who has developed the expectancy disconfirmation theory (Oliver 1980). According to this theory, this has been tested and confirmed in several studies (Oliver and DeSarbo 1988; Tse and Wilton 1988), customer purchase goods and services with pre-purchase expectations about anticipated performance. Once the product or service has been purchased and used, outcomes are compared against expectations. When outcome matches expectations, confirmation occurs. Disconfirmation occurs when there are differences between expectations and outcomes. Negative disconfirmation occurs when product/service performance is less than expected. Positive disconfirmation occurs when product/service performance is better than expected. Satisfaction is caused by confirmation or positive disconfirmation of consumer expectations, and dissatisfaction is caused by negative disconfirmation of consumer expectations.

Components of Satisfaction

Unlike material products or pure services, most hospitality experiences are an amalgam of products and services. Therefore, it is possible to say that satisfaction with a hospitality experience such as a hotel stay or restaurant meal is a sum total of satisfactions with the individual elements or attributes of all the products and services that make up the experience. There is no uniformity of opinion among marketing experts as to the classification of the elements in service encounters. Reuland et al. (1985: 142) suggest that hospitality services consist of a harmonious mixture of three elements: the material product in a narrow sense which in the case of a restaurant is the food and beverages; the behavior and attitude of the employees who are responsible for hosting the guest, serving the meal and beverages and who come in direct contact with the guests, and the environment, such as the building, the layout, the furnishing the lighting in the restaurant, etc.

The “good time’ experience of some customers could be a mediocre or bad for others, The component of the tourism and leisure experience that has caused the overall feeling of a bad time may be external to the organizations, such as transportation, other customers or members of the customer’s own group, or even themselves. The interaction of all or some other of these factors can create the perception of a bad experience. Swarbrooke and Horner (1999)
noted that gamblers were dissatisfied with the resort of Las Vegas when they did not win.

**Service Quality**

Service quality has been defined in different ways by researchers. Kasper et al. (1999) define service quality as “the extent to which the service, the service process and the service or organization can satisfy the expectations of the user”. Parasuraman et al. (1988) define service quality as a “a function of the difference between service expected and customers’ perceptions of the actual service delivered”. Gronroos (1978) suggests that service quality is made of two components – technical quality and functional quality. Technical refers to what the service provider delivers during the service provision while functional quality is how the service employee provided the service. In the services marketing literature, the quality construct can be summarized as providing customer value (Feigenbaum 1951), conformance to requirements (Crosby 1979), fitness for use (Juran et al. 1974) and meeting customers’ expectations (Parasuraman et al. 1985). Service quality is therefore an enduring construct that encompasses quality performance in all activities undertaken by management and employees. Customers are the sole judges of service quality. If they perceive it to be bad service, then it is. They assess service quality by comparing what they want or expect with what they perceive they are getting.

**Service Quality and SERVQUAL model**

Backman and Veldkamp (1995) stated that quality of service is an essential factor involved in a service provider’s ability to attract more customers. Unlike the quality of goods, which may be measured objectively by such indicators as durability and number defects, service quality is an elusive construct that is difficult to measure (Crosby 1979). Mackay and Crompton (1990) defined service quality as ‘the relationship between what customer’s desires from a service and what they perceive that they receive’ (p. 47). Additionally, service quality is also the way of thinking about how to satisfy customers so that they hold positive attitudes toward the service they have received (Ostrowski, O’Brien and Gordon 1993).

To help service providers identify the strengths and weaknesses, Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) developed the SERVQUAL model, a diagnostic tool including 22 items to appraise five key service factors:

- **Tangibles**: Physical facilities, equipment, and appearance of personnel
- **Reliability**: Ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately
- **Responsiveness**: Willingness to help customers and provide prompt service
- **Assurance**: Knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to convey trust and confidence
- **Empathy**: Caring, individualized attention the firm provides its customers.

Parasuraman et al. (1988, 1991) found that the five dimensional format of SERVQUAL allows researches to assess the level of quality along each dimension, as well as overall. The purpose of this model is to serve as a diagnostic method for uncovering broad areas of weaknesses and strengths in the quality of service a company delivers. A lot service-related research was evaluated by SERVQUAL, and they might have results consistent with Parasuraman et. al’s (1988, 1991) suggestions. SERVQUAL has offered a model for measuring service quality for over 10 years. However, some researchers have suggested that a revised measurement scale is needed specifically for providers of tourism services. The new service instrument might be needed for research in tourism fields.

According to World Tourism Organization (WTO 2003) quality in tourism could be defined as ‘the result of a process which implies the satisfaction of all the legitimate product and special needs, requirements and expectations of the consumer, at an acceptable price, in conformity with the underlying quality determinants such as safety and security, hygiene, accessibility, transparency, authenticity and harmony of the tourism activity concerned with its human and natural environment. The study undertakes this quality tourism standard in evaluating the accommodation, restaurant outlet and travel packages and facilities offered in Taman Negara.

**METHODOLOGY**

The study investigate the level of satisfaction and expectation of the visitors towards the services offered in Taman Negara using a structured questionnaire which was designed to ask visitors pertaining to the services offered at accommodation, restaurants outlet, and tour packages and activities in Taman Negara. A field survey was carried out during the peak season that is May and November 2007. A total of 175 respondents were interviewed and majority of the respondents are international visitors as compared to the locals. Interviews
were carried out at various location of the park especially at accommodation areas, restaurants, recreational activity site such as at the canopy walk, caves, jungle trekking site and aborigine settlement. The data collected were tested using factor analysis, a number of underlying statistical assumptions, which include normality; homoscedasticity and linearity have to be met to ensure the appropriateness of using factor analysis. Failure to meet these assumptions may result in a decline in the correlation value between variables. Several measures are used to test the assumption, namely Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy, and Barlett’s test of sphericity (Hair et al. 1998).

RESULTS
The field survey shows a total number of 175 respondents comprising of international visitors mainly from the Netherlands (39.34%), followed by United Kingdom (13%), France (7.08%), Germany (7.3%) and the lowest percentage is from Finland, Switzerland and United States (0.82%). Males and females were equally represented within the sample surveyed that is 52.5% male and 47.5% female. The majority of visitors are between 20-39 years old (72%) and 22% are aged between 40-49 years old and not many are from age 60 and above (2%). This result is supported by other studies conducted in Bako National Park (Chin et.al 2000) and America (Lucas, 1990) that indicated a large proportion are the young and adventurers group. The visitors stays over 3 days to 2 nights (70%) and only 1% prefer staying 5 days, and almost half of the respondents travel with their friends (41.32%) and spouse (20.66%). The respondents were mostly professional (38.84%) followed by students (14.88%).

Accommodation
There were about 15 accommodations mostly resort hotels (3-5 star hotel) in Taman Negara and from the data gathered we can conclude that most visitors from this samples stayed in Mutiara Taman Negara (43.4%), Tembeling River-view (12.9%) and Ekoton Chalet (11.5%). The correlation test showed that range of age and lengths of stay were negatively correlated. However, this result is insignificant where sig (2-tailed) showed 0.310 which is less than significance level, α = 0.05. We use non-parametric Spearman’s rho test since the data is an interval data.

Factor analysis on the accommodations indicated that KMO value showed 0.767. This is a measure of equal variance among the factors (see Table 3). Since the value is 0.767, we can consider the degree of common variance is middle. Barlett’s Test of Sphericity also showed significant (p-value < 0.05), therefore we can conclude that the variance is equal among factors. We can illustrate that the variance is shaped like a sphere.

Table 3 shows total variance that explained at three different levels. At the initial stage, it can be seen that the there are 2 factors to be considered, factor 1 and factor 2. We consider two factors since the Eigen values are more than 1 which is 3.159 and 1.245 respectively. However, after extracting using Principle Axis Factoring, we can see that the loading that these two factors carry are 1.935 and 1.550 for Factor 1 and Factor 2 respectively. The total variation for factor 1 is 27.644% whereas for factor 2 are 22.137% totaling to 49.781% for both factors. We can conclude that these two factors explain more than half of all factors.

Table 2. Correlation Test between age and length of stay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spearman's rho</th>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
<th>1.000</th>
<th>-0.93</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.310</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>122</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Variance Explained

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Initial Eigenvalues</th>
<th>Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>% of Variance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.159</td>
<td>45.132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.245</td>
<td>17.780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.808</td>
<td>11.543</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.608</td>
<td>8.691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>.490</td>
<td>6.999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>.389</td>
<td>5.553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>.301</td>
<td>4.302</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring,
The output shows the rotated factor matrix. We use varimax rotation method since it has the positive values which mean that each factor is on the right axis to each other. We choose the rotated factor method since it reduces the complex variables and we can easily interpret the results. It can be seen that visitors are concern about their accommodation and the public areas are clean, safe and secure. Signage is also important since they are visitors and safety is also one of their main concerned of the visitors’. Cleanliness and maintenance of the room is also one of the main factors. The second factor is related to mainly the receptionists, price and staff. We can conclude that price is the second factor after safety and cleanliness.

Restaurant Outlet

The respondents were asked on the restaurant outlet that visited during their stay in Taman Negara. There were more than 9 restaurant outlets in Taman Negara and most of the respondents visited the Family Restaurant (32.8%), LBK Restaurant (17.2%) Mawar Restaurant (13.1%) and Wan Floating Restaurant (12.3%) When conducting a factor analysis on Restaurants, KMO value showed 0.880, it is relatively high and it is meritorious since the value is almost 1. Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity also showed significant (p-value < 0.05), therefore we can conclude that the variance is equal among factors. We can illustrate that the variance is shaped like a sphere.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Total Variance Explained</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

After rotating using the Principle Axis Factoring, it can be seen that the total variance explained by factor 1 is 21.875%, 42.173% is explained by factor 2 and 58.316% is explained by factor 3. Factor 1 comprises 10 items with factor loadings ranging from 0.32 and 0.76. The item that has the highest loading for factor 1 is the restaurant staff is well represented. Ambiance of the restaurant has the lowest loadings for factor which is more than half from the factor loading for restaurant staff is well represented which is 0.32. The second factor ranges from 0.882 and 0.310. The second factor has 9 items and the item that has the highest loading is satisfaction of the food of the restaurant. The item with the lowest loading for this factor is also the ambiance of the restaurant. Factor 3 has less items and the highest loading is satisfaction of the manner of the restaurant and the lowest loading is if the seats are easy to move around.

Tour Packages and Activities

This test on tour packages and activities shows that the measure of equal variance is middle which is 0.786. Bartlett’s test of sphericity also shows significant value and we can conclude that the variance explain by factors are shaped like a sphere. From the Principle Axis Factoring rotation, it can be seen that 6 factors can be explained with the total of 67.292% of the total variance explained. The factor 1 carries 16.747% of the total variance explained that is quarter from the total variance explained for the 6 factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4. Rotated Factor Matrix(a)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES: Sufficient advice to engage with the activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES: Suitability of activities in the area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOUR PACKAGE: The variety of packages available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOUR PACKAGE: The delivery of the tour services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOUR PACKAGE: Overall quality of the tour packages to Taman Negara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES: Availability of interesting activities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
INFORMATION : The availability of information on the attractions .556 .444 .325

RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES : Maintenance of the area surrounding the activities .541 .321 .46 .2

SIGNAGE : The signage is clear & easy to understand .829

SIGNAGE : The signage gives correct direction & information/s .822

SIGNAGE : The availability of proper signage .333 .653

INFORMATION : The sufficiency of information provided .437 .489 .354

TOUR GUIDE : Tour guides are knowledgeable & experience .884

TOUR GUIDE : Tour guides are efficient & professional .843

TOUR GUIDE : The availability of tour guides in Taman Negara .370 .611

BOAT RIDES SERVICES : Maintenance of the boats .707

BOAT RIDES SERVICES : The efficiency of boat ride services to the locations in TM .329 .629

BOAT RIDES SERVICES : The cost of the boat ride to recreational locations is reasonable .322 .605

BOAT RIDES SERVICES : Safety of the boat ride to recreational locations in Taman Negara .493 .32 .6

MAINTENANCE & CLEANLINESS : Cleanliness at the recreational location .77 .3

MAINTENANCE & CLEANLINESS : The safety & security of the recreational facilities .301 .68 .8

MAINTENANCE & CLEANLINESS : Overall maintenance of recreational facilities at TM .64 .9

INFORMATION : Efficiency of d’ information counter service .776

ACCESSIBILITY : Availability of transportation to Taman Negara .381 .720

ACCESSIBILITY : The accessibility from your destination to Taman Negara .618


For factor 1 that has the highest loading is if the visitor has sufficient advice for recreational activities. Proper signage has the lowest loading for factor 1. For factor 2, the visitors are concern about the signage is easy to understand which carries the highest loading. Factor 3 has the highest loading which is 0.884 is for the item the tour guides are knowledgeable and experienced. Maintenance of the boats and cleanliness of the recreational location has the highest loadings for factor 4 and 5 respectively. And efficiency of the information counter service has the highest loadings for factor 6.

CONCLUSION

This study indicated that the visitors are mainly from Netherland followed by United Kingdom, France, Germany, Finland, Switzerland and United States, mostly professionals and students aged between 20 – 40 years old. They prefer traveling with their friends and usually stayed at the park for 3 days and 2 nights. The result from the study has been divided into three main parts which are accommodation, restaurant outlets, and tour packages and activities.

For accommodation, we can conclude that there are two main factors that the visitors consider. Factor 1 consists of the safety of the accommodation and factor 2 is related to the staff working that the place they accommodate. The management of hotels and resorts in Taman Negara is to ensure that the safety of the park visitors is important especially in areas that are assessable to the wild animals. The staff working at the hotels should be well aware of the needs of visitors such as providing information about the facilities and activities in the park, the do’s and don’t within the park area etc.

Restaurant outlets have three factors that the visitors consider and the items that they are most particular are cleanliness of the outlet, satisfaction of the food and the friendliness of the staff. The cleanliness and food hygiene at restaurant outlets are the main concern of the visitors and therefore the manage-
ment of the park should provide guidelines in the preparation of food for visitors, proper waste disposal and sewage system. On the area of tour packages and activities, the main items that the concerned are with are the activities should have sufficient advice and guideline, proper signage, knowledgeable tour guides, good maintenance of the boat rides, cleanliness of the location activities and sufficient information at the counter. Nature tour guides should be given proper training by the management park as they are the most reliable source that visitors look for. They should provide correct information about the flora and fauna found the park. We can conclude that the visitors who come to Taman Negara are very interested in the activities. Although the food price is not a main factor but the cleanliness of the restaurant is important in choosing a place to dine. Safety and friendliness of staff is also the main factors that visitors consider in choosing a place to stay.

REFERENCES


WTO Guide for local Authorities on Developing Sustainable Tourism. (2003.)


Establishing Importance of Country Attractiveness in Second Homes

Norliza AMINUDIN
Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management
E-mail: norlizaaminudin@yahoo.co.uk

Sofiah Abdul RAHMAN
Faculty of Business Management
E-mail: norlizaaminudin@yahoo.co.uk

ABSTRACT
Based on the set of seventeen criteria of "touristic attractiveness" identified by Gearing, Swart and Var (1974) for short-term tourism, this study explored a similar set of attractiveness but applicable for long-term tourism, specifically in having an international second home. A process of interviewing and contribution of "experts" are being sought in exploring and exhausting the dimension and elements of attractiveness. The dimension through their respective elements are then being tested for their ranking in importance among the working expatriates in the host country. The working expatriates are being chosen instead of normal tourist because of their longer experience staying in a country, thus their level of familiarity is higher. Furthermore previous studies have discovered that people who have international second home had actually lived in the host country before taking up their second home there. It is expected that the more experience a person has on a country, the higher the level of knowledge on that particular destination.

Key words: Long-term tourism, short-term tourism, second homes, country attractiveness, working expatriates.

INTRODUCTION
Malaysia’s tourism industry remains strong albeit its fragility resulted from sources that may not be locally derived. Due to her close proximity to sources of natural calamities, terrorism, and various diseases endemic, Malaysia is sometimes affected but is thus far never reaching the alert level. The country’s vast potential for tourism has been utilised, making the industry continues to be a key foreign exchange earner, contributing to growth, investment and employment as well as strengthening the services account of the balance of payments (Ninth Malaysia Plan: 2006-2010, 2006).

In the era of globalisation, the country’s tourism sector is trailing the evolution process of tourism, which saw people travelling not only for short-term but for a longer-term which Haug, Dann, and Mehmetoglu (2007) termed as tourism international migration. In the current research, the long-term migration is referring to one of the recent government programme of inviting non-Malaysian to have a second home in the country, an extension of a lifestyle option of which tourism is the foundation. Jaaxon (1986) and Quinn (2004) pointed out that literature on second home has proven the phenomenon of second home ownership has long been a part of modern tourism practices in advanced Western societies. Nevertheless, historically it used to be for the aristocrat (Nash 1979). In this part of the world where Malaysia belongs to, international second home is quite a recent phenomenon.

Foreigners from the West were in Malaysia, then known as the Malay Archipelago some 500 years ago as conquerors. From then till about fifty years ago their existence was nothing new to the locals; however the development of the independence spirit saw the resentment of the locals towards foreigners. Perhaps even the word tourist was of non-existent to the majority of the population back then. Now, fifty years after independent, with the enhancement contribution of the tourism industry, the nation welcomes the foreigners not only to visit the country but to adopt Malaysia as their second home.

Deducing from a research done earlier, a second homer couple, who are not under working permit, remitted approximately RM10,000 (US$2,632) per month (RM120,000 / US$31,580 per year), thus 388,000 couple would generate RM46.7 billion (US$12.3 billion), which is equivalent to the total receipts from all the tourism programmes in 2007! (“The Expat Conducts Research on the Economic Contribution of Malaysia My Second Homers” 2006). Although 388,000 couple is too far from the current target of the programme, the fact that an extra couple staying here would contribute to the domestic economy, it would be a fallback in terms of income for this industry, especially during the challenging period. The second homers are unique in terms of their contribution to the country since their status lies in between traveller and immigrant (Nash 1970).

There has been a great body of studies focusing on destination attractiveness for short-term tourism (Gearing, Swart, and Var 1974; Var, Beck, and Loftus 1977; Hu and Ritchie 1993; Formica and Uysal 2006), however the current research depart from the mentioned studies by acquiring dimensions of destination attractiveness for long-term tourism, involving international second
homes. The main objective of this research is to investigate what potential second homers consider as country attractiveness in having a second home.

The number of second homers in Malaysia has amounted to 8,723 households (Malaysian Immigration Department 2007) and the number is growing. Realising the potentials of the second homers, there is a need to understand what of this country that could pull foreigners to have a second home here. Attractiveness of a country has always been cited as the main pull factor of a country (Gearing et al. 1974; Lew 1987; Mason 2003), either for short or long-term tourism. Some regions or destinations appear to be more successful than others in offering tourism activities and in attracting travellers (Formica 2000). Established host countries may find themselves already in the comfort zone, while newer players in the game like Malaysia will find that promoting the country as a second home will be a challenge. Malaysia is not only competing with the established market but with other ASEAN countries such as Thailand, the Philippines and Indonesia (“Malaysia My Second Home Programme under Threat” 2007).

Neighbouring countries would have similar climate which is one of the most important determining factors for a second home (King, Warnes, and Williams 2000). Despite being a small sector in the Malaysian tourism industry at the moment, it is expected that second home will have more demand due to both the push factor of society of origin and the pull factor of destination attractiveness. Understanding the factors will not only lend a hand to the government as a marketer who promote Malaysia as a destination, but it also provide useful information to individual suppliers that are providing general and specific needs to the second homers, such as in the area of property, automotive, banking, health, insurance, and various other hospitality sectors.

Detail information is needed to serve customers who are more discriminating now since they are more educated, more sophisticated, more experienced from both their leisure and business travelling (Mayo and Jarvis 1981). Other then getting sophisticated and demanding, most theorists and practitioners have acknowledged that ‘mass’ markets are fragmenting into niche markets (Swarbrooke and Horner 2001). Therefore in the context of this study, the researcher is looking at a niche group who have been found to be a potential market for this programme, the current working expatriate. Previous researchers found that people who have a cross border second home usually have been in the host country before, either as tourist (Haug et al. 2007) or as working expatriate (King et al. 2000). Comparing between the two groups, usually the working expatriates would have more knowledge and experience of the host country due to their longer existence there.

The working expatriates would fall into the perspective of cognitive in the three major approaches identified by Lew (1987) in determining the attractiveness of a destination. The three approaches are ideographic, organizational, and cognitive. Cognitive perspective involves the experiencing of the attraction, during which the working expatriates are actually exposed to during their stay in the host country. They are exposed to various stimuli which would be processed cognitively and affectively.

Having a cross border second home is a trade off between familiarity derived from home and the strangeness associated with living in a foreign country (Simmel 1950), thus making decision is not easy and requires a long-term decision (Haug et al., 2007). It is a decision privilege only to certain group of people who have the freedom in making decision since owning a second home under this category of long-term tourism is obviously different other types of international travellers, such as nomads, refugees, political exiles and economic migrants (Walter-Pocock 2008) who sometimes do not have choice at all!

**METHODOLOGY**

The questions in the questionnaire are based on the review of the literature on destination attractiveness in having a second home in another country, which is a mixture from the view of marginal tourists (Cohen 1974; Aronsson 2004) that is between normal tourists and local residents. The present study is extending destination attractiveness variables or dimensions identified in short-term tourism to a long-term tourism. It adapts criteria from previous prominent research (Gearing et al. 1974) and added in newly identified dimension and elements found in second homes literature. In ensuring that the dimensions and their elements are adequate and representatives of destination attractiveness, a content validity was attest by a panel of tourism experts. As a result, a list of six dimensions and 20 elements were compiled as shown in Table 1. Tourism experts involved in this research were from the Malaysian Ministry of Tourism, Tourism Malaysia, consultants for Malaysia My Second Home (MM2H) programme, tour operators and travel agents, and academician, totalling a team of 13-tourism experts.
Table 1. Dimensions and elements of country’s attractiveness as a second home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Climate and Nature</td>
<td>Able to get sunshine through out the year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Plenty of beautiful scenery within reach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Availability of beaches and islands.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value for Money</td>
<td>Availability of everyday goods at reasonable price.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Able to go for local holidays at affordable prices.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People and Culture</td>
<td>Easy to forge friendship with locals and hospitality of locals towards foreigners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English is widely understood.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Many local festivals to experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure and Amenities</td>
<td>Availability of artistic and architectural features, including historical attractions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Availability of health service providers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accessible to the latest communication technology.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Availability of sports facilities, cinemas, museums, fairs and exhibitions, and other leisure and recreation activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Availability of night time recreation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Availability of good places to shop.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politics and Government</td>
<td>A stable government.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A country with clear rules and regulations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Friendly and helpful government officers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and Security</td>
<td>Free from terrorism and war.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Free from snatch theft, house robbery, car theft, and other similar negative activities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Free from natural calamities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The questionnaire used a buying scenario of a second home since this is a markedly task specific phenomenon (Han, 2005; Mitchell, 1994). The self-administered questionnaire consisted of two parts, combining both open and close-ended questions. The first part is a survey on opinion of what respondents felt important in determining country attractiveness as a second home, and the final part gathers the sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents.

Close-ended questions using five-point Likert scales. Opinion in terms of importance of the attractiveness of the destination used the following choices: not important (1) to most important (5) for importance. Ranking or relative importance has received remarkable attention in previous study (Hu & Ritchie, 1993).

Sample Design and Data Collection

The empirical study was carried out among the working expatriates and with the assistance of the The Expat magazine, the self-administered questionnaire was inserted in the magazine. Respondent can reply either by facsimile or by mail. A total number of 5000 questionnaires were sent and 100 usable samples were obtained. The respondent profile is summarised as Table 2. The great majority of the respondents were from Europe (62%), followed by Australian and New Zealand group (20%). Age group 51-60 (35%) years was the highest respondent, while most of the respondents have been in the host country between 1-5 years, and 79% are married.

RESULTS

In ensuring the reliability of the dimensions and elements collected from previous study and new dimensions and elements developed for this study, SPSS 13.0 serves test the reliability and validity of the scales according to factor analysis. The scales are reliable; the Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of the constructs for importance of elements reach 0.86, and for the existence of the elements is 0.73.

Employing the principal components factor analysis, seven factors with an eigenvalue greater than one explained 64.9 % of the variance of destination attractiveness scale. The varimax-rotated factor pattern implies that the first dimension concerns “technology and arts” (4 items, $\alpha = 0.699$). The second dimension relates to “reliable government” (3 items, $\alpha = 0.815$). The third dimension consists of elements of the “natural beauty” (3 items, $\alpha = 0.691$). The fourth dimension relates to “convenient of living” (4 items, $\alpha = 0.649$). The fifth dimension relates to “safety” (3 items, $\alpha = 0.667$). The final dimension consists of elements of living and friendship “affordable and healthiness” (2 items, $\alpha = 0.567$). The result of the factor analysis for country’s attractiveness as a second home is shown in Table 3. Reliability for each of the factors was obtained using the calculation of a Cronbach $\alpha$ coefficient. The Cronbach $\alpha$ coefficient ranged from 0.57 to 0.82.
Table 2. Respondent profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic characteristics</th>
<th>Country of origin</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Length of residence in Malaysia</th>
<th>Have been posted to any other country before?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>30-40</td>
<td>Single</td>
<td>6-12months</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>USA &amp; Canada</td>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>Married</td>
<td>1-5yrs</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australia &amp; New Zealand</td>
<td>51-60</td>
<td></td>
<td>6-10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>61-70</td>
<td></td>
<td>11-15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>71 and over</td>
<td></td>
<td>16-20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20 and over</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic characteristics</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Country of origin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA &amp; Canada</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia &amp; New Zealand</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30-40</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-70</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71 and over</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of residence in Malaysia</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6-12months</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5yrs</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 and over</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have been posted to any other country before?</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>79</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result of the overall analysis on dimension means of country attractiveness, in order of importance are “safety” (4.53), “affordable and healthiness” (4.44), “reliable government” (4.42), “convenient living” (4.02), “natural beauty” (3.79), and finally “technology and arts” (3.70). When comparing across group of nationalities, it is observed that all groups of nationalities emphasized on the same ranking of the dimension as mentioned.

Table 3. Factor analysis of country attractiveness as a second home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension/element</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>Variance explained</th>
<th>Cumulative variance explained</th>
<th>Cronbach α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technology and arts</td>
<td>0.772</td>
<td>13.48</td>
<td>13.48</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of sports facilities, cinemas, museums, fairs and exhibitions and other leisure and recreation activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many local festivals to experience</td>
<td>0.707</td>
<td>6.77</td>
<td>13.48</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of artistic and architectural features, including historical attractions</td>
<td>0.506</td>
<td>12.70</td>
<td>26.17</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessible to the latest communication technology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliable government</td>
<td>0.840</td>
<td>12.70</td>
<td>26.17</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A country with clear rules and regulations</td>
<td>0.816</td>
<td>10.80</td>
<td>36.98</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendly and helpful government officers</td>
<td>0.619</td>
<td>10.80</td>
<td>36.98</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural beauty</td>
<td>0.789</td>
<td>10.80</td>
<td>36.98</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of beaches and islands</td>
<td>0.760</td>
<td>10.80</td>
<td>36.98</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plenty of beautiful scenery within reach</td>
<td>0.711</td>
<td>10.80</td>
<td>36.98</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Able to get sunshine through out the year</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient living</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>10.08</td>
<td>47.06</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English is widely understood</td>
<td>0.652</td>
<td>10.08</td>
<td>47.06</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Able to go for local holiday at affordable price</td>
<td>0.605</td>
<td>10.08</td>
<td>47.06</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of good places to shop</td>
<td>0.556</td>
<td>10.08</td>
<td>47.06</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy to forge friendship with locals and hospitality of locals towards foreigners</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>0.744</td>
<td>8.21</td>
<td>64.88</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free from natural calamities</td>
<td>0.696</td>
<td>6.71</td>
<td>71.59</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free from snatch theft, house robbery, car theft and other similar negative activities</td>
<td>0.576</td>
<td>6.71</td>
<td>71.59</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free from terrorism and war</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affordable and healthiness</td>
<td>0.760</td>
<td>9.61</td>
<td>56.67</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of health service providers</td>
<td>0.760</td>
<td>9.61</td>
<td>56.67</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of everyday goods at reasonable price</td>
<td>0.700</td>
<td>9.61</td>
<td>56.67</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION

The present study shed some new lights on elements that are considered important in determining country attractiveness from the perspective of poten-
tial second homers, the working expatriates. As the literature review suggested, attractiveness in short-term tourism involved touristic elements, while long-term tourism involving second home combines both touristic and home elements. One of the dimensions that can be seen as decreasing in importance when comparing short and long-term tourism is the “natural factors” dimension. It was given the highest weightage in Gearing et al. (1974), and Turgut et al. (1977) studies, but was found to be less important compared to “safety” and “reliable government” in long-term tourism. Other than natural factors, other touristic elements that exist in both short and long-term tourism are the sports, leisure and shopping facilities.

Inevitably, further research is needed in this area particularly to gain the insights of the existence of attractiveness elements in the host country. For instance it would be most useful to gauge the satisfaction level of the particular elements of country’s attractiveness, thereby providing tourism policy makers and marketers with information allowing them to position themselves more clearly on some specific elements.

Secondly it is recognised that the methodology and the component factor analysis technique in the present research have their own limits. For instance if six dimension have been identified, this might hide sub-dimensions and niche markets that only a more detailed approach could allow to identify. Similarly a more detailed analysis on the sociodemographic of the working expatriates may reveal different sets of dimension and elements.

REFERENCES

INTERNET REFERENCES

Research Papers
Safranbolu - Tourism Versus Conservation

Nuray TÜRKER
Tourism Management
Karabük University, Turkey
E-mail: tnturap@hotmail.com

Ibrahim CANBULAT
Consultant
Canbulat&Canbulat Tourism and Trading Co., Turkey
E-mail: ibrahim@canbulat.com.tr

ABSTRACT
Safranbolu can be described as a Gem City which developed her crystallized beauty in long lasted negligence. With her more than 1200 registered historic monuments, she ranks in 3rd position after Istanbul and Bursa. Starting with the extensive academical surveys and researches in 60s as well as early 70s, Safranbolu became a model for historic city conservation in Turkey. Having been included in UNESCO World Cultural Heritage, in 1995 highlighted its name in intellectual spheres. Being acquainted with tourism started in 90s by the initiations of TTOK and opening of very first touristic hotel after the restoration of one of the largest mansions in Safranbolu. Although towns like Beyazanı, Mudurnu, Taraklı, etc. this time. In this paper we will discuss the passed 15 years of Safranbolu in cultural tourism parallel to the developments of conservation practice. There are about 40 historic mansions which were restored as hotels, almost all historic market turned to souvenir shops, and cityscape has been face lifted to satisfy the expectations of tourists. The development of cultural tourism and interaction with conservation will be discussed within the framework of ICOMOS – International Cultural Tourism Charter.

Key words: Cultural tourism, historic city, conservation.

INTRODUCTION
Due to the positive economic impact on economics, the governments have supported tourism that has created a boom in the sector especially after the Second World War, and eventually affected all social, natural, cultural and physical systems, negatively and positively in all extends. In short, while tourism affects economics of a region positively, affects all other systems negatively or positively and time to time on both opposite directions. Of course, tourism increases the income of the population in region, creates a good atmosphere for social and cultural interaction of the different societies and all these create better understanding in different nations and support friendship and peace. Whereby, all these affect historical, natural and cultural values as well as traditions and beliefs of the society, negatively according to some actors. This multidirectional effect of tourism on human and natural values attracts the interest of multidisciplinary researchers as well as politicians and executives. For example, local executives are interested in criminal site of the interaction of locals and guests; politicians are interested in cost and benefit of tourism and finally, academic corps surveys the behavior of locals by placing those relations into interdisciplinary canvas. (Hernandez et al. 1996:755)

CULTURAL TOURISM
Development of cultural tourism is the fastest of all. It is stated that has been grooving in number by as much as 15% per annum in the last decade and very likely that will keep the same pace. European Commission discovered that 20% of tourists visits Europe were made for cultural purposes. Furthermore, culture was a main component of travel for 60% of the visitors. (WTO 2001: 4-5) Cultural tourism and heritage are closely interdependent. While speaking about the tourism versus values of the host community, we should underline the similarity between cultural tourism versus heritage sites and monuments. In this paper, we will discuss the effects of cultural tourism on Safranbolu, which is World Cultural heritage mainly on tangible values but we should show it affected intangible values, as well, knowing that getting in touch with the host community is an integral part of cultural tourism.

Whereby, we should mention about an important NGO, which is ICOMOS to highlight its very valuable charters on the use of tangible cultural heritages within the context of different parameters. Cultural tourism is one those which is in strong interaction with the heritage sites and monuments. Please refer to ICOMOS “Charter of Cultural Tourism” which is made in 1994 and “8th Draft, for Adoption by ICOMOS at the 12th General Assembly, Mexico, October 1999”. We like to quote the following from the 8th Draft as follows:

- Principle 1 - Since domestic and international tourism is among the foremost vehicles for cultural exchange, conservation should provide responsible and well managed opportunities for members of the host community and visitors to experience and understand that community’s heritage and culture at first hand.
• Principle 2 - The relationship between Heritage Places and Tourism is dynamic and may involve conflicting values. It should be managed in a sustainable way for present and future generations.

• Principle 3 - Conservation and Tourism Planning for Heritage Places should ensure that the Visitor Experience will be worthwhile, satisfying and enjoyable.

• Principle 4 - Host communities and indigenous peoples should be involved in planning for conservation and tourism.

• Principle 5 - Tourism and conservation activities should benefit the host community.

• Principle 6 - Tourism promotion programmes should protect and enhance Natural and Cultural Heritage characteristics.

SAFRANBOLU AS A GEM CITY

By her around 1200 registered historic monuments, Safranbolu ranks third after Istanbul and Bursa while second percentage-wise (2%) after Istanbul, only. Losing all of her economic functions like transportation services, industry and agriculture, Safranbolu turned to an abandoned settlement from 1920s until 1970s. Due to many reasons, it was almost fossilized until its being rediscovered by some academic corps. By the effective influence of the academicians, the people of Safranbolu recognized the value of their inheritance but did not know how to exploit. In 1990s, two important things altered the future of Safranbolu, effectively. First are the initiatives of TTO (Turkey’s Touring and Automobile Club) by purchasing one of the most impressive mansions of Safranbolu and restoring it as a hotel. Second is being listed as World Heritage by UNESCO. From then on the tourism developed rapidly and Safranbolu became a model for similar historic towns in Turkey. In Exhibit 1 & 2, we like to show the development of tourism in Safranbolu.

Between 1999 and 2007, while the number of hotel beds is increased 3.15 times, the number of tourist lodging is increased only 2.56 times. This of course puts the hotels under the pressure of tougher competition. From the same figures, we find the occupancy rate of hotel beds in Safranbolu in 2007 as 19%, which is very low in all respects.

If we look at the distribution of beds into various categories, we see that 4 city hotels with 2-3 stars have total 371 beds, either Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Municipality licensed renovated historic 55 mansions have total 1280 beds which we will refer later on and 26 family operated guest houses have total 335 beds, presently (Source: District Government of Safranbolu). In Exhibit 3, we show the distribution of lodgings along the months as average of recent four years. The irregularities in the distribution of the lodgings of local tourists are caused by the opening and closing of schools as well as religious holidays.
CONSERVATION OF SAFRANBOLU

Safranbolu has a unique difference than almost all of the UNESCO World Heritage Sites in Turkey. Except Istanbul, all others are mostly natural or cultural sites and monuments where there is no social life exists. This is the advantage of Safranbolu where you can experience the daily life, the traditions as well as the intangible heritage of the host community. On the other hand, this creates a real burden into the restoration process. Any restoration project has to consider human values like its social life and culture. On the other hand, Safranbolu is unique with her completely preserved physical values like, streets with walls and pavements, shops, tanneries, baths, houses with gardens, etc. In short, not only individual but also complete cityscape has been inherited. All these had been the reasons for the selection as World Heritage by UNESCO. Not only the governing body and executives of Safranbolu but also the tourism actors should care these delicate characteristics. The main aim of this paper is to highlight the interaction of tourism and cultural heritage by discussing the development of tourism in Safranbolu.

The inventory of the historic buildings was published in Official Gazette in 1987 and the legislative frame has been put into force after the decree of the Municipality of Safranbolu was made in 1975. The very first project was realized as the façade and roof restoration in two streets and Yemeniciler Arastasi of Safranbolu by the finance of the Ministry of Culture in 1994. As we stated above, TTOK had put Havuzlu Asmazlar Mansion in service as a hotel with a restaurant in same years. In the last 10 years, the restoration of almost all public and religious building have been completed and presented to the service. Parallel to the activities of the governmental organizations, many private investors bought important amount of historic mansions and renovated them for touristic use. The number of mansions, which are in service, is 55 with a lodging capacity of 1280 beds as of 2008.

Unfortunately, the development of tourism has brought some bad effects on restoration when only the market parameters were uncontrollably effective. Only with a simple calculation, we can find out that the average number of beds in restored mansions is around 23. We know from the district registrations that the average number of family was 5 - 6 until 20th Century. This indicates mass tourism and its severe effects on historic monuments. We can not only blame on the hosts but also on the travel agents or tourism related commercial corps. Presently, most of the historic mansions turned into dormitories and no more are authentic Ottoman mansions in which you can find the Genus Loci, anymore. More important than this is the installation of many bathrooms into the timber construction, which is not resistant to humidity. One may think that it is absurd to support city hotels in a tourist-historic city but they are actually life-jackets to decrease the pressure of mass tourism on mansions. Within this perspective, we support a reasonable number of city hotels where groups and businesspersons can stay. Unfortunately, solution to this problem is not easy. It can only be achieved by the responsible involvement of all actors.

According to the survey of Türker (2006: 26) a great majority of tourists stated that the infrastructure and municipality services were not adequate. Afterwards, it is understood that the main reason of complains are related to the clumsy pavement of Safranbolu streets which are valuable parts of the pattern, indeed. Nowadays, we have a very clever solution to those complains. An investor started operating club-cars within the historic district of Safranbolu, by the support of head-sets, which provide information in 3 languages.

Although being the best of all similar historic towns like Mudurnu, Beyazari, Tarakli, etc. Safranbolu is also vulnerable to the actions of inexperienced and uneducated local decision makers. For many of those, restoration is synonym of face-lifting. Even, in Safranbolu we have experienced some decorative repair works like varnishing the wooden parts or using modern paints and chemicals, which turn a 150 years old mansion into modern villas. For a better
understanding, you should refer to the photos of Beypazari where the lost wooden parts of old mansions have been imitated by brown paints on white plasters.

Commercialization of tourism had also affected the central business district of historic Safranbolu, once it was all related to the processing of leather goods made by the famous tanneries of Safranbolu. There are only one or two samples left after all turned to souvenir shops where simple products which are made either in China or India. All the characteristics of the business district have been lost and unfortunately, no valuable solution has been put into.

Türker’s another survey was on host communities perceptions related to tourism and tourists (Türker, 2006). From this survey, we know that the host community is disturbed of higher living expenses and real estate prices. This is a serious trouble for the historic district of Safranbolu. Presently, about 5 – 6 000 people live in the historic houses of Safranbolu. This create a very genuine social life in the historic district. Unfortunately, tourism brings not only positive impacts but also negative effects on the host community. If these problems will not be solved, the host community will most probably leave its place either to higher income groups or to commercial function in which hotels and other tourism related services will be majority. Eventually, the historic district will lose its authentic social characteristics and may turn to a theater’s stage.

CONCLUSION

Presently, UNESCO Turkey National Committee is working on the Management of Heritage Sites, which need to have been composed of multidisciplinary and unbound members to optimize the objectives of various actors seeking the values of human being. Any piecemeal approach to the solution of problems will only harm the historic sites. Even accepting that tourism injects valuable sources for the conservation and restoration, the tourism activities should be orchestrated by a special managerial committee in historic sites.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPACTS OF TOURISM</th>
<th>I totally agree</th>
<th>I almost agree</th>
<th>I disagree</th>
<th>No answer</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increase in noise and in the population of the city</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corruption in family relations</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in employment opportunities</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in good manners</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corruption in morality</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corruption in tradition and customs</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in infrastructure standards</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercialism in handicrafts</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural conflicts between the local people and visitors due to the disrespectful behaviors of visitors</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spillage of cultural heritage related to touristic activities</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pollution in natural resources</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequacy of public utility services</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in crime in the city</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in social activities</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in investment</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in traffic jam</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in cost of living</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in the cost of land and real estates</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People became more materialist</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exhibit 5. Residents’ perceptions related to the impacts of tourism

REFERENCES


Financial Analysis of Travel Agencies under Crisis Environment

Oktay TAŞ
Faculty of Management
Istanbul Technical University, Turkey
E-mail: oktay.tas@itu.edu.tr

Metin TEBERLER
Faculty of Management
Istanbul Technical University, Turkey
E-mail: teberler@itu.edu.tr

ABSTRACT
This research examines how Turkish travel agencies have been affected by the economic crisis and their financial situation under the crisis. In particular, Turkish tourism has been affected by the earthquake in 1999 and, by the economic crisis in Turkey in April 2001 and then “September 11, 2001” terrorism attacks in the US. After a general overview during the crises years, Turkish travel agencies are considered in terms of their sales figures and, they are compared in terms of their net working capital and net income under crises environment. Next, overall financial ratio analysis of travel agencies is carried out. The number of Turkish travel agencies included in the analysis is 281. The findings of the research underline the typical characteristics of Turkish travel agencies and, indicate that they are being vulnerable during the problematic periods of time in general and in terms of their financial situations.

Key words: Travel agencies, financial analysis, crisis environment.

INTRODUCTION
Turkey faced two financial crises in 1999 and 2001. Like all sectors, tourism was also affected by the crises environment. Turkish tourism constitutes 3.3% of Turkish GNP. The sector narrowed by 13% in 1999 because of earthquake followed by the economical crises and enlarged by 17% in 2000. As stated by Glaessner (2003), crises are characterized by extremelly badly structured decisions that can be traced back to information deficit or even too much information, restrictions on information processing, complexity, and so on. It makes the financial situation rather difficult for businesses. In fact, under crises environment, national currencies devaluate, interest rates increase and financial mar-
Table 1. Effect of financial crises on net working capital, equity and net income

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1998</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equity</td>
<td>327.154.9</td>
<td>430.749.7</td>
<td>737.097.5</td>
<td>779.041.2</td>
<td>1.015.969.9</td>
<td>1.427.243.1</td>
<td>3.982.171.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Working Capital</td>
<td>(59.329.5)</td>
<td>(110.804.0)</td>
<td>(121.112.1)</td>
<td>(232.207.0)</td>
<td>(171.778.0)</td>
<td>(192.688.7)</td>
<td>(174.432.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Income / loss</td>
<td>(453.3)</td>
<td>(44.469.3)</td>
<td>(50.138.3)</td>
<td>(257.958.0)</td>
<td>(26.402.4)</td>
<td>(80.795.7)</td>
<td>(62.860.8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Due to financial crises, travel agencies reported the highest amount of loss in 2001. The crises environment continued in 2002 with a decreasing trend and in year 2003 and 2004 agencies could generate a feasible profit. Negative net working capital signifies that tourism sector needs working capital investment. After the crises period in 2001, net working capital seems to be improved in 2003 and 2004.

Liquidity ratios of the 281 travel agencies have a low liquidity ratio. Both the current and acid–test ratios are low. In emerging countries, the expected current ratio should be approximately 1.5 but in Turkish tourism sector the average seems too low for all years included in the research. Similarly, acid test ratio of approximately 0.75 is the accepted criteria. However, in tourism sector only year 1998 seems to have a good standing. By the advantage of the exchange rates, the year of the crises got a better view compared to the previous year but after the crises, the liquidity image became worse again.

**Table 2. Financial Ratio Analysis of Travel Agencies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1998</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A- Liquid Ratios</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a-Current Ratio</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b-Acid-Test Ratio</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B- Financial Structure Ratios</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a-Total Liabilities / Total Assets</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b-Equity/ Total assets</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-Short term Liabilities / Total Assets</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d-Long-term Liabilities / Total Assets</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C- Turnover Rates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a-Inventory Turnover Rate</td>
<td>25.1</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b-Day Sales Outstanding</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c-Equity Turnover Rate</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d-Asset Turnover Rate</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D- Profitability Ratios</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-Profitability – Equity Ratios</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Net Income / Total Equity</td>
<td>0.076</td>
<td>(0.046)</td>
<td>0.064</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) EBIT / Total Equity</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>(0.034)</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>0.015</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) EBIT / Total Assets</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.0125</td>
<td>0.0113</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>0.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Net Income / Total Assets</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>(0.054)</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>(0.06)</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Operational Profit / Assets Used in Operations</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-Profitability – Sales Ratios</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) Operational Profit / Net Sales</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>(0.020)</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.0122</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>(0.08)</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Interest Expense / Net Sales</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.095</td>
<td>0.018</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.038</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-Profitability – Liability Ratios</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-Times Interest Earned</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a) EBIT / Interest Earned</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>6.59</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Net Income and Interest Expense / Interest Expense</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CONCLUSION**

All sectors including tourism sector were affected by the crises in 1999 and 2001 in Turkey. The tourism sector narrowed by 13% in 1999 because of earthquake and then, by the economical crises and enlarged by 17% in 2000. In fact, under crises environment, national currency devalue, interest rates increase and financial markets become volatile. Due to high level of interest rates in 1999,
most of the travel agencies faced financial difficulty which is also reflected in financial statements of the firms.

With the financial crises in late 2000 and early 2001, the central bank agreed on the possible advantageous effects of devaluation. The devaluation increased the number of tourists from 10.4 millions to 11.6 millions and tourism revenues increased from $7.8 billion to $8.1 billion. In year 2002, total tourism revenue was $8.5 billion and the number of tourists visited Turkey reached to 13.2 million. If the tourism revenues are analysed in overall, it shows an increasing pattern even in crises environment.

If the variations of the net sales in the tourism sector are analysed, the tourism companies have an increasing income pattern including the crises period. From 1998 to 1999, net sales increased by 22% and, from 1999 to 2000 the increase was 77%. During the 2001 crisis, the net sales could only increase by 48%. The years after the crises period, the increase in net sales slow down.

On the other hand, due to financial crises, travel agencies reported the highest amount of loss in 2001. The crises environment continued in 2002 with a decreasing trend and in year 2003 and 2004 agencies could generate a feasible profit. Negative net working capital signifies that tourism sector needs working capital investment. After the crises period in 2001, net working capital seems to be improved in 2003 and 2004.

As noted in Teberler and Çöklü (2004), Turkish travel agencies are lacking to diagnose problems and the actual effects of problematic periods in general terms as well as in financial situations as considered in this study. In fact, Turkish travel agencies are characteristically family-owned small-size companies. Many of the agencies are becoming aware of the general situation under crises and, wish to adapt themselves into the problematic period. However, through the crisis environment and its effects, many of the Turkish travel and tourism agencies only try to save the day by considering remedies for the short-run mainly. One of the remedies considered is to go into financial cuts and, keep their situation as it is, if not considered, to downsize (or getting smaller) in order to overcome to the problematic time. Many of them are aware of the necessity of creating both national and corporate brands which can better survive during and after crisis periods. They should build a strong communication bridge within the entire tourism industry, and require becoming conscious and sensitive to their environment for the sake of surviving and sustaining as noted in Teberler and Baysan (2004). Thus, possible serious and side effects of crisis environments could be minimized.

This research has been carried out by Turkish Travel Agencies and probably, could be developed into a more in-depth qualitative research which will be allowing a better overview. It should also be emphasized that such research requires to be carried out on a continuous base for better implications.

REFERENCES

http://tursab.org.tr
http://www.tcmb.gov.tr
Internal Branding in Tourism Destinations: The Need for Future Research

Olivia WAGNER
Department of Strategic Management, Marketing and Tourism
University of Innsbruck, Austria
E-mail: Olivia.wagner@student.uibk.ac.at

Mike PETERS
Department of Strategic Management, Marketing and Tourism
University of Innsbruck, Austria
E-mail: Mike.peters@uibk.ac.at

Markus SCHUCKERT
Institute for Tourism and Leisure Research
Hochschule für Technik und Wirtschaft Chur, Austria
E-mail: markus.schuckert@fh-htwchur.ch

ABSTRACT
The question as to how destination-branding strategies influence destination stakeholders has not been answered yet. The paper examines the role of internal branding in destinations, its mechanisms and its influence on destination stakeholders. After presenting a literature review of recent contributions in the field of branding in tourism destinations the authors discuss the concept of internal branding and derive a research structure that helps to design future research efforts to collect empirical data about internal branding effects in tourism destinations. The paper highlights the need for further research and proposes to model the impacts and process flows of internal branding within destinations and to evaluate impacts not only on customers but on destination stakeholders.

Key words: Tourism destinations, internal branding, stakeholders, brand effects.

INTRODUCTION
The travel and tourism industry is one of the most dynamic industries in the world (Weiermair et al. 2007; Bieger 2008) and began to become a key driver for globalization. For over a decade, branding has become a representative tool in marketing strategy. In the beginning 1980s with the shift from a sellers’ market to a buyers’ market, cooperation became aware of the value as well as power of branding and since then brands have attracted interest among professionals and researchers as well (de Chernatony 1999). At the beginning of the new millennium branding possessed its “fifteen minutes of fame” (Bergstrom et al. 2002: 133) and brand research emerged tremendously. Branding and brands have been key areas of academic interest in marketing (Aaker 1995; Kapferer 1999; de Chernatony/Segal-Horn 2003a/2003b) and much of the branding focus, however, has been directly forwarded to external customers and stakeholders. Within the tourism sector, also tourism destinations started to use this powerful tool in today’s business environment with increasing regularity (Rooney 1995). While external branding grew fast into a standard tool of daily business in successful destinations, these destinations realise that external branding in not the only key to success (Buhalis 2000). With the rising problem of diminishing acceptance of tourism activity among the local population, internal branding seems to become an important tool for destination managers to communicate and trigger the domestics’ opinion. Here, internal branding is about implementing the business strategy and corporate identity in the destination. The increased interest in internal branding brings with it the challenge of coordinating all activities in order to deliver integrated brands (de Chernatony 1999).

This conceptual paper attempts to derive options to assess effects of tourism destination strategies on destination stakeholders. The concept of internal branding describes these effects which have been interpreted as a more secondary outcome of branding. In a first step the authors undergo a literature review on recent literature in the field of internal branding and destination marketing to

- introduce into the terminology and understanding of the terms “brand and branding” within the context of the tourism industry and destination management;
- focus on the contribution and the role of internal branding;
- review related literature within the context of internal branding;
- develop a first step of a research design to assess internal brand effects on destinations stakeholders within destinations systems or destination networks.

Although the increased focus on internal effects of a corporate brand has forced a growing number of academic outputs, there is still an element of ambiguity regarding to the role of internal branding in destinations, especially regarding to its mechanisms and its influence on destination stakeholders. The
paper is structured as follows: the first part is a literature review of recent contributions in the field of branding in tourism destinations. Subsequently, the second part discusses the concept of internal branding. Thereafter, theories regarding the phenomenon of internal branding are presented and the notion of internal branding within the tourism destination industry will be clarified. The third section highlights similarities and dissimilarities as well as advantages and disadvantages of internal branding effects and destination stakeholders relevant for the purpose of this paper are discussed and analysed. Moreover, a first model will be proposed as an initial step to develop a more detailed research design that helps to design future research efforts and sets to collect empirical data about internal branding effects in tourism destinations. Finally, the fourth and last section of this contribution recommends future directions for brand research in the context of internal branding in tourism destinations.

ROLE AND RELEVANCE OF BRANDING

According to the American Marketing Association a brand is “a name, term, sign, symbol, or design, or combination of them which is intended to identify the goods and services to one seller or group of sellers and to differentiate them from those of competitors” (Backhaus and Tikoo 2004). This particular aspect of brand definition is often a common starting point for academic papers associated with brands, banding and brand management (Kerr 2006; Aurand et al. 2005; Rooney (1995). Seetharaman et al. (2001) define the term brand as a bundle of assets that does not have physical existence on the one hand. On the other hand, the value of a brand or brand system cannot be determined clearly unless it becomes subject of a specific business transaction (Seetharaman et al. 2001). Milligan (1995:39) points out that a brand is “what differentiates you and makes you special”. Originally, branding was used physically to distinguish tangible products (like cattle), but since the nature of brands and branding became more and more virtual and more complex than marking products with signs and logos, it has been applied to differentiate goods, services, companies, and - of course – locations and places (Backhaus and Tikoo 2004).

According to King (1973) a great extent of market success is delivered by the brand rather than by a product. A competitor can copy a product; a brand is unique. A product can be quickly outdated; a successful brand is timeless (Aaker 1995). This statement emphasizes that a product, either tangible or intangible is simply the generic term whereas a brand represents more the names, logos or symbols (Okoroafo 1989). Thus, a brand can represent deeper values and meanings to consumers (de Cherantony and McDonald 1992). Furthermore a brand delivers a transcend personal and its characteristics trigger certain associations (Seetharaman et al. 2001). Moreover, according to a more holistic approach, a brand does encompass both tangible and intangible elements (Aaker 1995; Keller 1993).

The term ‘brand identity’ represents what an organisation and what the brand stand for (Aaker 2000). Brand identity needs to reverberate with customers, signify what the company will and can do over time as well as differentiate the brand from its competitors, to be effective (Aaker 2000). Besides brand identity, Aaker (1995) put brand equity into the focus of marketing research. According to Aaker (1995:15) “brand equity is a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/or to that firm’s customers”. However, brand equity can be grouped in five dimensions: brand loyalty, name awareness, perceived quality, brand associations as well as other proprietary brand assets. These five categories are interpreted as being the basis of brand equity.

What does need strong clarification and profile is the existing confusion between the concept of brand and image. Some researchers argue that image is very different from branding (Morgan et al. 2004) while others argue that branding is overwhelmingly associated with image (Pritchard and Morgan 2001). In the context to tourism destinations, there are several different definitions of image (Mayo 1973; Hunt 1975; Gartner 1989; Echtner and Ritchie 1991, 1993). The majority of authors argue that in case of tourism destination and in case of consumer products (commodities), image plays an important part of brand (Fakeye and Crompton 1991; Coshall 2000; Hankinson 2004). The success in the market depends on both since the image contributes to forming a brand. However, as long as the image is positive, a destination brand would have a strong position in the market and therefore a brand strengthens its image.

BRANDING IN TOURISM DESTINATION MANAGEMENT

Academics and practitioners agree that destinations can be branded such as products and services (Tasci and Kozak 2006; Morgen et al. 2004; Anholt 2003; Kotler 2003; Cai 2002). According to Buhalis (2000: 97) destinations “are amalgams of tourism products, offering an integrated experience to consumers” and “are regarded as well-defined geographical area” s.

On the other hand, destination brand names such as St. Moritz, Las Vegas and/or Miami Beach have been around for more than a few years (Esch 2001;
Morgan et al. 2004). Destination branding, on the other hand, is the development and active management of destination brands and has to be considered as a relatively new concept. It can definitively be argued that destinations are under-using their most valuables assets, one of them their brand. Thus, destinations should market themselves as brands, using conventional, product or service, brand management techniques. The development of brand names, logos or symbols can offer the destination a competitive edge, although the destination management needs to plan carefully and effectively perform branding decisions to ensure these benefits (Okoroafo 1989).

Tourism products are a specific subset of service products and can be interpreted to refer to an intangible good, a person and an idea as well as a physical good (Kotler 2003). It is, however, important to note that tourism products are highly customized. Furthermore, destination branding has been considered synonymous with image building (Curtis 2001), image reconstruction (Hall 2002), (re)inventing (Kapferer 2002) and (re)positioning (Gilmore 2002) of a geographic location (Park and Pettrick 2006). A geographic location, in the tourism context, includes (or is) a destination brand. Cai (2002:722) claims destination branding as “selecting a consistent element mix to identify and distinguish it through positive image building”, however, he also argues that “unlike typical goods and services, the name of a destination brand is relatively fixed by the actual geographic name of the place”. Moreover, tourism destinations are credence goods, contrary to tangible products. Due to the unique characteristics of tourism industry, destination branding can be considered as a complex task; hence it mixes up a huge range of tangible and intangible attributes of a geographic place while withholding the values of diverse stakeholders involved (Tasci and Kozak 2006).

Over the years, further definitions of destination branding have been developed by a number of authors (Gnoth 1998; Morgan et al. 2004; Blain et al. 2005), leading to greater complexity of destination branding literature. Yet, destination branding has long been overshadowed by terms like ‘destination promotion’ as well as ‘destination marketing’ but it offers more benefits to destination manager: On one hand it may encourage brand loyalty which is a measure of the (emotional) tie or bond that a customer has towards a brand (Seaton 1997) and depends on customer’s satisfaction with product performance (Okoroafo 1989). On the other hand branding can increase destination attractiveness and supports qualitative growth in various phases of the tourism destination life cycle. The destination life cycle concept analyzes and describes the changing process in which a chosen destination is involved. According to Butler (1980) it involves several stages, such as exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation as well as rejuvenation/decline. Unfortunately, there are a lot of debates about the use and benefit of this model: e.g. in numerous cases it is intuitive to suggest that branding of a destination has the potential to slowly transfer a destination from on stage to another and finally rescue it from the stagnation or decline stages or initiates a destination’s rejuvenation (Agarwal 1994; Cooper 1990; Faulkner and Russel 2001). The majority of destination brand or branding definitions only reflects the external point of view and are directed towards external customers or stakeholders. Thus, the following part investigates relevant insights from the internal branding literature.

INTERNAL BRANDING: STATUS QUO OF RESEARCH

The term “internal branding” as well as the expression of “employee branding” are mainly used to emphasize forms of firm’s internal marketing strategies (Mitchell 2002). In fact, internal branding is a natural consequence of rising interest in and/or need of internal marketing (Ahmed and Rafiq 2002). Especially since internal branding constitute a sub-area of the field of internal marketing it is suitable to start with a definition of internal marketing: According to Greene et al. (1994:8) internal marketing means “applying the philosophy and practices of marketing to the people who serve the external customers so that the best possible people can be employed and retained and they will do the best possible work”. Bergstrom et al. (2002:135) on the other hand refer to three main activities of internal branding: communicating the brand effectively to the employees and convincing them of its relevance and worth as well as successfully linking every job in the organization to deliver of the brand essence. In their opinion, this is a subset of ‘operationalizing’ the brand and if used correctly it can help to recognize the company’s position like they say ‘in the big picture’. Arruda (2001) characterizes internal branding as a whole communication plan that supports the brand all through the company. He has the point of view that everyone in the organisation has a complete understanding of the company’s brand elements and situations. Moreover, he also pointed out that internal branding exists when stakeholders support brand identity because that will maximise the asset of the brand. Ind (2003) discusses the importance of internal branding and argues that it is more essential than ever. After studying articles and literature in the field of internal branding, it was found that communication; culture and employment as well as the motivation of stakeholders play a crucial role.

Communication seems to be a main aspect in the active and existing theories regarding internal branding (Aldisert 2002; Farell 2002; Webster 2002; Ind
2003). Ind (2001), for instance, suggests that the concept of internal branding begins with structuring the brand idea. According to him, the brand idea consists of a core idea, an emotional idea and a functional idea as well a comparative idea and after all values. Moreover, the author believes that internal branding can connect the individuals to their job and in order to achieve this, brand idea needs to be: imaginative, authentic, courageous and empowering (Ind 2001). Just as the role of communication, culture is a point to be taken seriously (de Chernatony and Cottam 2006). Gapp and Merilee (2006:164) argue that internal branding is all about cultural change and for that reason “is reliant on an effective integration and alignment of marketing and HR principles and practice within the organisation for acceptance by the organisation to occur”. However, changing a culture can be very problematic as internal branding impacts organisation culture and organisation identity that in turn contributes to staff brand loyalty (Backhaus and Tikoo 2004). In overall terms, communication as well as culture is one of the six elements of Balmer and Greyers’s (2006) corporate marketing mix.

Another dimension that has to be taken seriously by destination managers is employment and training. Usually the human resource department handles this task since it plays an important role in the internal branding process (Ind 2003; Aurand et al. 2005; Graeme et al. 2005). However, Ind (2001) argues that these investments will lead to higher sales, if made correctly. Therefore, motivation can be identified as an important aspect of the concept of internal branding. As mentioned before, the success of internal branding is closely linked with the behaviour of employees or stakeholders. On the way they deliver the brand message to the customers and for that reason they are seen as crucial elements in the brand management since employees represent the brand in the interaction with the customers (Ahmed and Rafiq 2003). Stakeholders must bring the brand experience and brand promise to life (Lamons 2005), thus they have to know the brand value and should act in consistence with it. In many ways, employees are the external face of the organization, they the brand and so they should be treated as apriority audience. Wherefore, stakeholders need to hear the same message that is sent out to the marketplace (Mitchell 2002) and they have to be enabled to deliver the brand image. In other words mobilising, managing as well as motivating stakeholders in order to constantly expand the way they operate external customers and distribute the cooperate brand to them (de Chernatony 1999). Since internal branding concept originates from the corporate brand, the central elements of this process need to be outlined. Gregory (1999:66) refers corporate branding as “a planned, inclusive strategy that sets communications standards and policies for all divisions and departments for the cumulative benefit of the corporation”. It allows a organisation to align its internal processes and corporate culture with those of the brand (de Chernatony and Segall-Horn 2003a).

Nowadays internal branding is a hot topic in the tourism industry too, probably because destination-branding managers have discovered that if stakeholders do not support and understand the brand message, it’s doubtful that a customer will either (Lamons 2005).

The concept of internal marketing is particularly applicable to the tourism and service industry and therefore, to tourism destinations. Destination stakeholders are often overlooked when DMO initialize new branding strategies. Mitchell (2002) addresses to the synchronization of internal and external branding and indicates that the entire branding process should reach out to customers (product branding) as well as stakeholders (corporate branding). Destination stakeholders’ performance will affect the customer’s interpretation of the brand (Parasuraman et al. 1985; Vallaster and de Chernatony 2006). Furthermore, the employee is a key determinant of brand performance in the service encounter or the so-called “moment of truth” (Lovelock and Gummesson 2004; Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons 2006). Thus, the behaviour of locals in a tourism destination’s during the “moment of truth” is fundamental because it provides on one hand a lasting impression of the destination brand and on the other hand an impact on customers destination brand loyalty.

Many destinations managers are not able to transfer the brand promise to the destination stakeholders. A starting point for destination brand managers is to incorporate the brand message into every aspect of tourism business. Having a powerful brand is essential to have a successful and powerful destination. The term internal branding within the tourism sector suggests as well the differentiation of destination characteristics as an employer from those of the destinations competitors. The internal brand highlights the unique aspects of the destination’s culture, employment, environment or offerings (Backhaus/Tikoo 2004). Many of the above mentioned authors such as Ind (2001) have recognized the importance of internal brand management as a process to improve stakeholders’ behaviour, and agree that, as Sasser (1976) pointed out that a successful service business must first of all sell the job to employees before it can sell its service to the client.

The following part investigates the need for analysing destination-branding effects on tourism destination stakeholders.
INTERNAL BRAND EFFECTS AND DESTINATION STAKEHOLDERS

Tourism destinations can be defined as geographic competitive regions, which attempt to create value for tourists. In doing so, it displays a bundle of service and products created by a variety of different businesses and locals. Tourism but more so hospitality, traditionally has depended on a variety of stakeholders along the tourism value chain (Bieger 2008) (see Figure 1).

![Figure 1: The Tourism value chain (Source: Bieger 2008)](image)

The conceptual difference of the tourism value chain is the fact that while ‘manufacturing’ or ‘staging’ a tourism product which is holistically perceived and consumed by the tourist, it helps to analyse in detail the various steps of a tourism product including all suppliers and service providers. Beside typical suppliers and tourism service providers the tourism ‘product’ in general and the destination product in particular involves numerous passive stakeholders, such as destinations’ inhabitants or domestics who play an important role in the provision of an authentic tourism destination experience (Weiermair et al. 2007). While destination organisations often represent the large number of actively involved stakeholders and suppliers within this region, the locals are not necessarily represented by destination organisation or involved in destination management.

Bieger (2008) notes that the main management functions of a destination management organisation are the development of a destination strategy, marketing and communication, the co-ordination of supply side activities (product development) and the representation of all destination stakeholders. Thus, one major role of tourist organisation is to brand the location as a tourism destination and to apply brand strategy, accompanying marketing techniques and disciplines to economic, social, political and cultural development of destinations (Kerr 2006). In addition, internal branding has to be seen as an instrument that enables destination managers to positively influence tourism destination stakeholders’ attitudes towards tourism. However, the important question remains how tourism researcher can assess, measure and display the effects of destination branding strategies on destination stakeholders. In a first step the authors concretizes subject of possible studies as well as relevant variables as defined in the above discussed literature.

Stakeholders can be classified into a group of primary stakeholders and a group of secondary stakeholders. Primary stakeholders show a high level of interactivity and are vital for the survival of a company or a destination. The group of secondary stakeholders is not involved directly into the development of a company or destination but have to be claimed as important hidden assets of a destination which are affected by the destination but may affect the destination occasionally (Merrilees et al. 2005, Clarkson1995). Destination stakeholders have been analysed in the field of tourism research when investigating the success of tourism planning processes (Jamal and Getz 1995). The number of stakeholders in destinations is manifold and the stakeholder net is very complex as individuals can be found in various stakeholder groups (Sautter and Leisen 1999). Destinations stakeholders are e.g. suppliers such as tour operators, hotel owners/entrepreneurs, and cableway operators. Internal and external destination shareholders, land owners, banks, secondary support services (such as banks, insurance companies), permanent residents, employees (permanent and seasonal), and environment (and other) interest groups (Flagestad 2002). Also, the destination management organisation (DMO), which in many cases established branding strategies, is one of the destination stakeholders.

Figure 2 attempts to summarize the research needs and its subjects: it can be shown that destination management organisations (DMO) play diverse roles in the tourism system. On the one hand DMOs manage tourism destination resources and stakeholders, on the other hand they are actively initiating and developing brand strategies. The latter has two addressees, tourism destination stakeholders and (potential) tourists. However, the development of a local brand strategy can positively influence (in terms of increasing motivation and positive attitudes towards tourism development) DMO employees (Woodland and Accott 2007). In a later stage of brand development we often find the inclusion of other stakeholders who (when persuaded) actively support the destinations branding strategy.
Referring to the literature review on internal branding we can identify a number of variables that are able to influence destination stakeholders (see also Figure 2), which can be clustered as follows:

One group of indicators and variables are to be described with ‘General Tourism Attitude of Non-Tourism Stakeholder’: This cluster covers items which show the relation between non-tourism stakeholders and tourism destination development in a more general context, such as the attitude of locals towards guests and tourism in general, the migration of locals because of negative external effects of tourism growth, and the resulting shift in the demographic structure of a destination which may result in antagonism and a perceived decrease of local culture or authenticity.

The other group of indicators and variables can be named ‘Specific Tourism Attitude of Non-Tourism Stakeholders’: this cluster incorporates variables, which describes relations between non-tourism stakeholders and tourism destination development in a specific and tourism-oriented meaning. The following variables fall into this category: the level of acceptance of and commitment towards local tourism business, the share of local employees in tourism, local tourism start-up activities (or the entrepreneurial spirit) and the sustainable use of destinations’ resources.

To analyse the current perceived brand elements among destination stakeholders the authors propose the following research process that follows a triangulation of results between different types of data. Thus, a mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods seems to be appropriate:

- Identification of stakeholders within the destination (e.g. by carrying out interviews with locals to identify ties between stakeholders and using the stakeholder matrix, see Polonsky 1996).
- Assessment of current brand awareness, evaluation and reflection of own identity (e.g. by using qualitative methods such as content analysis after using a storytelling approach) in combination with stakeholders empowerment and motivation to be a part of the tourism destination (e.g. in a first step focus groups are recommended to identify interactions between destination stakeholders; in a second step quantitative data could be collected through questionnaires).
- Measurement of stakeholder activities along the destination brand life cycle (e.g. ex-post analysis of stakeholder actions/commitment and behaviour, using secondary data).
- Assessment of the relation and interactions between internal branding, hospitality, quality and customer satisfaction (in-depth interviews with locals, qualitative and quantitative survey of customer satisfaction over several seasons in destinations with internal branding and in destination without internal brand system).
- Effects of internal branding of the rate of new business ventures and investments, on innovation and product development as well as on the level of co-operation and competition (survey of secondary data like entry/exit of enterprises, analysing number of co-operations, density and activity between entrepreneurs on a qualitative level).
- Differentiation of internal branding tools and type of stakeholder.

CONCLUSION

The present contribution highlighted internal branding as an underestimated and still underdeveloped research area in the field of tourism destination re-
search. But this derivation of brand is getting more and more important since the instruments of external branding seem to be highly developed and in Western countries we find many tourism destinations in the saturation phase of the tourism life-cycle. Thus, new instruments and new research agendas for tourism development have to be exploited and here the involvement and support of the local stakeholders seems to be a key success factor for tourism development or tourism destination rejuvenation (Butler 1980). The following chart shows the ideal flows and effects of internal branding in tourism destinations.

Figure 3: Hypothesised effects of internal branding (Source: own illustration)

Beside the question of modelling, the question as to which methodical approach might be appropriate, a number of additional questions have to be raised and demands for further research initiatives. Among others, possible research fields could be, for instance, the modelling of impacts and process flows of internal branding, the applicability of methods as well as the appropriateness of methodical instruments used and the valuation and control of the impact of internal branding. More detailed, researchers interest could focus on

- the operationalization and measurement of internal branding effectiveness,
- the identification of marketing and controlling instruments and their applicability on internal branding, the effectiveness and/or efficiency of destination branding strategies and its impact on the local industry structure, entrepreneurial spirit and locals commitment and attitude towards tourism
- the comparison of those destinations who deliberately implement internal and external destination branding strategies in cooperation with the main stakeholders and those destinations whose DMOs follow are strong undemocratic process to develop their external destination brand strategy.

Of course the presented list of research tasks is not exhaustive but it points out that until today, there is no empirical validation of destination brand effects on the destination system itself. With this paper, the authors attempted to initialize a stronger debate on the important issue of internal branding and its relevance for tourism destinations.

REFERENCES

Bergstrom, A., Blumenthal, D. and Crothers, S. (2002). Why Internal Branding Matters, Corporate...
Reputation Review, 50 (2/3): 133-142.


ABSTRACT

The classical marketing emphasises on presale and sales activities rather than on postsales activities thus, in a changing and a challenging world, it creates new generation, new marketing efforts, and new consumer behaviours, also new risks and bring new opportunities. The fact that tourism seems vulnerable to all kinds of risks and also crises because of its sensitivity. This proceeding is based on the idea that word of mouth marketing (WOMM) is of fundamental importance as an opportunity as well as a risk in tourism and travel industry. It describes interpersonal influences mean for word of mouth (WOM) which reflect cost effective for tourism and travel industry but as well as the real risk lead by the customer and discusses the new technological interpersonal considerations facing tourism and travel industry.

Key words: WOM, WOMMA, user generated content.

INTRODUCTION

Today, competition is increasing and the cost of attracting new customers are rising. For the markets such as tourism and travel, it might cost five times as much to attract new customers as to keep the actual ones happy (Kotler et al. 2001). Tourism and travel industry is intangible so as it is more than a product and it depends on images reflected by the mass communication channels as well as the interpersonal relations. Tourism images are built through many channels; governmental authorities, local municipalities, operators, tourism agents, travel consultants, news media, entertainment media, but it is the customer who has the strongest impact – rather than a huge marketing campaign. In his book “Crisis Manager: Facing risk and responsibility” Lerbinger describes the tourism is living in the “era of crisis” (Lerbinger 1997). Faulkner (2000: 135) notes an increasing number of disasters and crises which affect the tourism industry, ranging from natural to human influenced incidents.

In this proceeding is related within neither to political crises nor to natural disasters, but reflected technological improvement and interpersonal marketing efforts introduced as word of mouth marketing. Research has shown that interpersonal influence is arising from exchanging opinions between customers which is an important factor in influencing consumers’ purchasing decisions (Pan, et al. 2007: 35).

With the rapid rise in internet usage for travel booking or planning, it becomes imperative for travel executives to understand how important new marketing efforts are. Word of mouth marketing is an increasingly popular tool that responds primarily to the consumer’s perceptions, likes, dislikes and to have more control over the products and services they’ve purchased. Word of mouth (WOM) from friends and relatives are often the most influential source of pre-purchasing information (Crots 1999: 149).

NEWDIGITALAGE SHAPING TOURISM MARKETING

With the improvements of internet technologies and the social networks, the number of travelers who seek travel and tourism information on the internet has increased. Advancements of the online transactions between the tourism operators and customers enable new forms of marketing and gather the whole communication elements by empowering customers. Studies in USA show that while the number of Americans using the internet have increased and the number of people who plan and book trips or vacations online continues to rise rapidly. According to the “2005 Travelers’ Use of the Internet” annual report” of Travel Industry Association of America (TIA), shows that the internet continues to grow as a dominant channel for both reaching and transacting today’s travel consumers. In this report, survey results indicate a distinct majority of online travelers (78% or 79 million Americans) turned to the internet for travel or destination information in 2005, much higher than the 65% of online travelers in 2004. The survey also found that 82% of travelers who plan their trips online now also book reservations online (http://www.tia.org/express/dmail_Dec05.html). The majority of travelers said that they consulted the internet for travel and destination information (U.S Travel Industry in the Eye of the Storm 2006: 1).

The internet has become an utmost marketing channel for tourism and travel companies. They can not only buy and sell, but also communicate worldwide via internet. With the help of internet, electronic marketing is rapidly transforming the way tourism and travel organizations while conducting their busi-
ness (Kotler et al. 2006: 685). Today “3 out of 10” travel sales are booked online and they generate around $65 billion (Katz 2004: 479).

Digital technology particularly internet, has been described as an enabler of a global marketplace, characterised by “equal access to information about products, prices and distribution” (Pires et al. 2006: 937). The world wide web has reduced the time related to communication, making transaction, working, learning, getting information and shopping. Today’s technological evolutions enabled consumers to download, vote, upload, poll, and forward. The web also has changed the consumer behavior which is essential to marketing: They can share their information, emotion, ideas, comments, likes and dislikes on the internet. This is called word of mouth (WOM).

**Word of Mouth Marketing (WOMM)**

“Six in 10 consumers give and receive advice” said Lisa Bradner, analyst at Forrester. “The rest are actively involved in generating and sharing comments” (Forrester 2007:1). Forrester analysis also showed that six in 10 US consumers surveyed said they shared product advice with family and friends (http://www.emarketer.com/Article.aspx?id=1005671&src=article5_newsletter). This information has shown important progress due to the effects of word of mouth.

It has been claimed that WOM had been around the ages. It has been believed that Eve told Adam “Try the Apple” (Kiviat 2007:1). Word of Mouth Marketing Association defines WOM as an act of consumers providing information to other consumers. The Association also defines word of mouth marketing (WOMM): “Giving people a reason to talk about your products and services, and making it easier for that conversation to take place (http://www.womma.org/wom101). Sernovitz defines WOMM as “giving people a reason to talk about a stuff and making it easier for that conversation to take place (Sernovitz 2007: 66). WOM is a natural conversation between real people. Another definition of WOMM is called a process which allows consumers to share information and their opinions which direct buyers towards and away from specific products, services and brands (Litvin et al. 2007: 2-3). In past decades, WOM was defined as face – to – face communication concerning their products or companies between those people who were not commercial entities (Carl 2006: 601-602).

For marketing purposes WOM requires a social interaction network where a person voluntarily communicates the information to another person (Van Der Graaf 2004: 174). With the introduction of new digital age and technologies, the spread of information has become faster. WOM is the most powerful way to dominate the market and accelerate the decisions (Silverman 2001: 12). WOM is the best way to make the decision easier is for a trusted advisor to encourage the customer to use the product (Ibid: 21). Customers and prospects are engaging in WOM. They are talking over that information and helping each other decide what to do (Ibid: 24). According to Nielson Company, “Online Global Consumer Study on “consumer perceptions of trustworthiness of different advertising and media types” shows that personal recommandations are the most trusted source of media (http://gesterling.wordpress.com/2007/10/04/consumer-trust-wom-and-online-ads/, 09.10.2007). Another report by the GFK Roper Consulting announced the results of its Global WOM Study (conducted on 2006), found that, 70% of consumers across the globe trust friends, family, or other people when searching for information or ideas on products to buy (http://www.gfkamerica.com/news/WOMSpreadsAcrossTheGlobe.htm. 09.10.2007).

**Word of Mouth Tourism Marketing**

Most travelers have stories about the time that they had spent at hotels or restaurants or on their way to airports, airline agencies and travel agencies. Sometimes travelers complain about the poor services, they say that they will never return to that facility again and also will tell about their disappointing experiences to thousands of potential customers, family members, friends, e.t.c. On the other hand, stories are not always negative. There are so many travellers telling about their satisfactions to other people around them. A customer, who posted his comments to www.otelsikayet.com expressing his feelings as follows “It was completely Perfect!” This customer, tells of the time when he or she went to the travel agency. He was shocked when he had found that an excellent service. Behaviors towards him were excellent and his family felt satisfied due to the treatment of a highly qualified employee. He also thanked the hotel management and hotel personnel for turning his stay to a paradise (http://www.otelsikayet.com/otel-tavsiye-sikayet/642/majesty-palm-beach.html, 26.08.2007). Another customer went to Antalya, one of the most popular chains of a five star hotel to spend her holiday in July 2007. She was complaining about the bad service and also described the hotel service as a “torture” with a message in sikayetvar.com. She wrote that terrible food, dirty dishes, long queues for having food, barbeque smokes everywhere, dirty towels, unhappy and depressed employees, cheap beverages, rude sales personnel at travel
agency who ignored the customers complaints and did not help them to move to a better hotel. She is also warning all the people around her that they should not choose the hotel and should not buy the service from the travel agency that she got the service. (http://www.sikayetvar.com/index.php?loc=user&userno=154119, 23.07.2007). These two examples show how tourism & travel companies can retain or lose their customers.

The ideas of WOMM in tourism & travel industries must be held by all employees, it should not be left to the sales and public relations departments and this function should be carried out by all line employees (Kotler et al. 2006: 356). The tourism and travel industries should know well that the bad service encounters receive more attention than the good ones. When customers have been treated badly, they respond by talking about these incidents (Ibid: 356). WOMM gives credibility which means much of power (Silverman 2001: 26). Studies show that when people have a good experience, they tell it about to five people. If they have a bad experience, they tell to ten (Tschohl 1991: 3). Therefore, it can be assumed that, spreading positive WOM is much more difficult. A few negative words may offset many good stories (Kotler et al.: 356).

There are different kinds of WOM channels and each has its different functions. These channels are blogs, guestbooks, online forums, social networks and virtual communities such as facebook, myspace, and online complaint sites. In these channels, the content has been created by customers who are both expressing their experiences and comments about hotels and other tourism and travel companies and spending an effort to spread those comments to let more people know. Latest research of Tamar reveals in United Kingdom that negative comments in natural search results, online forums, virtual communities, and social networks have a deep impact (Tamar 2007; Search Attitudes Report 2007:3). It’s possible that this research can be adopted in any country. Although the cultural behaviors and attitudes may vary in each country, improvements on internet and new media revealed similar point of interests and attitudes.

WORD OF MOUTH TOURISM MARKETING: OPPORTUNITY OR RISK?

According to Tamar’s “The 2007 Social Media for Brands Report” reveals that travel brands, products and services are identified as the sector most at risk from negative word of mouth (negative comments) on social networks. The report also shows that with 58% saying that negative comments would lead to them to stop purchasing. The report indicates that negative comments posted on online forums and social networks put off customers, with more than half (52%) admitting to this (http://www.tamar.com/servlet.cgi?page_id=263; ). According to another search report of Tamar, 7 out of 10 British consumers leave purchasing if their searching results include negative comments about the brand or the company (http://www.tamar.com/servlet.cgi?page_id=227 ). However, brands contain increasing risk factors due to negative comments appearing in natural search results.

Using search optimization, 13,000 search results in Turkish language had been displayed on November 20, 2007. The first search page showed three negative comments which means, the natural search may reveal negative comments at the first page of search results. The first page of Google results includes negative comments about WOW Kremlin Palace Hotel (http://www.google.com.tr/search?hl=tr&q=wow+kremlin+palace&meta=). One of the negative WOM search result; was a social network portal “turkeyforum.com” which was linked with headings concerning customer complaints. When any customer clicks the link, he/she can see the complete complaints that have been posted to the forum since 2006. The customer was complaining about the bad service, employees, hotel management and other details. His comments were creating bad reputation for the hotel. However, while he was complaining about the bad service with his negative comments; he was also recommending and naming other two hotels that he had heard of having good reputation (http://www.turkeyforum.com/satforum/showthread.php?t=209256 20.11.2007).

Companies should learn pushing positive content by preventing negative comments. In search engines such as Google, Yahoo and others, companies are displayed due to search results. Customers search where to go, where to eat, where to spend their holidays, which hotel to stay, etc. Search engine’s results pages shows positive and negative results all in same pages. Companies should learn to monitor comments which were created by customers from search engines, blogs, message boards, forums and social networks (http://www.marketingpilgrim.com/online-reputation-management). These tools make the company available to monitor it’s reputation. Tourism and travel companies should learn how to respond to the negative comments. Understanding the nature of customer complaints may reduce complaints.

The arrival of digital age and the internet, has created WOM as a both destructive tool and also credible tool. There are some challenges and also new opportunities for the travel industry which can damage or empower their reputations in the marketplace. Travel companies may become vulnerable because of the volume of the WOM and user generated contents, complaint websites
and customer transactions. Some common areas of concern in this area can be listed as below:

- WOM is out of the firms’ control (Silverman 2001: 23). Some problems may arise given the anonymity of communicators (Litvin, et al. 2007: 6).
- Intentionally misleading out-of-context and distorted truth from individuals (Silverman 2001: 26; Smith and Vogt 1995: 133)
- Online feedback mechanisms: Easy damaging or destroying brand performance and reputation systems (Dellarocas 2003).
- Rapid conveying malicious messages lead to bad corporate reputation
- Search engine manipulation (people may take company’s trademark and logo and use them discreetly in the “behind the scenes” of their websites to stimulate more traffic to their sites) (U.S Travel Industry in the Eye of the Storm 2006: 11)
- Inappropriate use of brand by the partner which does not reflect the company’s brand’s image or implies product or service.
- Not all word of mouth is equally created. Some individuals communicate with more people about a product or service than others do (Van der Graaf 2004: 173)

New opportunities could be listed as follows:

- Low cost of access and information exchange.
- It is able to reach more people and faster (Silverman 2001: 24).
- Word of mouth is much more credible than the firms’ salespersons (Ibid: 24)
- Transformation of one-way relationship to a two-way interaction where consumers interact with each other (Dréze and Zuyfryden 1999).
- Potentially creating new dynamics in the tourism and travel market.
- Through broader in scope, the internet technology allows for greater control over format and communication format (Litvin et al. 2007: 6)
- Large numbers of increasing customers
- Credibility of user generated content

- Contribute to online space which can be accessed, linked and searched easily
- Reducing time consumption for tourism and travel information

People may discuss many important travel information, positive issues about company: it can be about the brand, or about the company’s executives, or services, or employees. Discussions may help the company to enhance it’s reputation, image and brand name. On the other hand, when they criticize the company’s service, complain to others about new products, it may destroy or decrease the impact of the reputation and lead any company into a severe problem. Reputation may be destroyed in an hour by any customer who’s upset with the company. It can also spread with the praise of just one customer, at one message board on the internet. This can be the most important WOM risk factor facing the industry. Businesses should prevent risks and create opportunities as well as have an understanding of how powerful word of mouth marketing is.

CONCLUSION

Customers start to feel more involved in any interested topics, hence they have found a big tool to have mobility and community in a new digital age (Dickey and Sullivan 2007: 10). Customers feel free themselves to generate word of mouth for other individuals. They can post comments, post about their likes and dislikes, share their opinions with millions via social networks on the internet, direct others, change other’s opinions in the discussion forums, posts photographs and videos, send their positive or negative comments to complaint sites. Tourism and travel companies should measure, understand and chase this changed horizon. Unless they do, they may take big risk of losing control of their brand reputation and also lose their actual customers as well as they may face the danger of failing to capture potential customers. Companies should develop WOM strategies in order to challenge with negative contents generated by the users.

There is an increasing number of user generated comments such as online complaint sites waiting for dissatisfied consumers to lodge a complaint (Zaugg 2007: 5). Travel companies should emphasise and give utmost importance to how travel content developed by the customers. When user generated content combined with negative word of mouth on the internet, companies may face a challenging threat (Hong and Lee 2005: 98) and this may lead to a loss of corporate reputation. If the company ignores the e-channel for complaints, disassatisfied customers can spread their comments to other users.
fied customers intend to express their dissatisfaction online; such as other online complaint intermediaries or spread negative WOM, not only verbal but also online forums with hundred thousands of user capacities (Broadbridge and Marshall 1995: 16). Therefore companies should consider not only the costs of recovering their service, but also the cost of lost customer. Companies should pay close attention to their customer defection rate and undertake steps to reduce it. Companies can estimate how much profit they lose when customers defect and how much it would cost to reduce the defection rate. If the cost is less than the lost profits, the company should spend that amount to reduce customer defections (Kotler et al. 2006: 401).

Although competition is increasing and the costs of attracting new customers are rising, retaining current customers are much more effective and cheaper. The complaint solving may turn a lot of negative WOM comments into positive word of mouth. Negative word of mouth concerns lot of negative comments which are conveyed by the customers. Managers and the employees at this industry should seek complaints and resolve their problems quickly. Customers hold ultimate power generating word of mouth. Best services and best quality build loyal customers and create positive comments about the company which returns repeating purchasing effort and positive word of mouth. Tourism and travel industry should be aware of the fact that if a satisfied customer will spread a recommendation by WOM (Ibid: 409 – 410).

REFERENCES


Litvin, S.W., Goldsmith R. E., Pan B. (2007). Electronic Word of Mouth in Hospitality and Tourism Management, 2 (3): 6


http://www.tia.org/express/dmail_dec05.html (Retrieved December 05, 2007 from the World Wide Web)

The Role of Women in Tourism Employment

Peter CAVE
Tourism and Hospitality Management
University of Central Lancashire, UK
E-mail: pjcave@uclan.ac.uk

Serpi̇l KILIC
Strategic Management and International Business
Nottingham Trent University, UK
E-mail: Melor15@hotmail.com

ABSTRACT

Although the contribution of women in the business world has increased in recent years, women have still been underrepresented in management and leadership. In the tourism industry the percentage of women who work in the industry is high, but their function is dominated by unskilled low paid jobs. The aim of the paper is to examine the extent to which gender segregates men and women both horizontally, in terms of types of work, and vertically, by promotion prospects and will draw upon studies conducted in a number of countries to examine why these differences occur. It will compare these findings with a study of women working in the hotel sector in the Antalya region of Turkey. This paper will demonstrate that such differences cannot be attributed to differences in levels of educational attainment or work experience alone and indicate other possible explanations for the variations between men and women in tourism employment.

Key words: Gender stereotyping, earnings, tourism employment.

INTRODUCTION

There has been a broad increase in the participation of women in the tourism industry and the majority of this increase in female participation of women in tourism may be driven by developing countries. The type of opportunities that tourism provides for women also creates self employment in small and medium sized income generating activities (Aronsson 2000).

There have been numerous studies on the influence of gender in the workplace, but relatively little work has been undertaken on the hospitality and tourism sector. Authors who have studied the role and employment of women in the tourism and hospitality sectors convey a number of common themes which are applicable to developed and developing counties. These include earnings differentials between men and women in countries as diverse as Norway, Hong Kong, the USA and Mexico (Skalpe 2007; Thrane 2006; Ng and Pine 2003; Anderson and Dimon 1995). There is also both horizontal segregation in terms of the different types of work men and women undertake in the tourism sector and vertical segregation leading to limited promotion prospects for women. (Jordan 1997; Ng and Pine 2003) Even where women reach senior management positions these tend to be limited to certain types of managerial posts such as human resources. This paper intends to review recent literature for explanations of these differences and to see how these correspond with a pilot study carried out in the Antalya region of Turkey in the summer of 2005.

WOMEN IN TOURISM EMPLOYMENT

Women have a place in the tourism industry that can be explained by the fact that women are hard working, have good interpersonal skills, talented in marketing and determined, ambitious and loyal to places that they work. (Elmas 2002). There is ‘glass ceiling’ which limits the progression of women (Ng and Pine 2003). There are a number of occupations such as retail, secretarial, teaching and nursing where women tend to predominate in the workforce. This type of occupational stereotyping which has been referred to as horizontal and vertical segregation (Witz and Savage 1992) also extends to the tourism and hospitality sector. These are seen as essentially female occupations, where rates of pay are lower than in industry sectors dominated by male employees (Thrane 2007). In the hospitality sector women tend to be employed as waitresses, housekeeping and in part-time roles. Most General Managers in the hospitality sector in the UK, Europe and the USA are male and women dominate in front office as receptionists and housekeeping. Where women do aspire to management positions in Hong Kong these tend to be in human resources and confer ence and banqueting. In areas such as marketing, food and beverage and finance men hold the senior management posts. This is supported by evidence from other countries such as the USA, Norway and Mexico.

In Norway, male tourism employees receive 20% higher wages than females. On the other hand more than 20% of CEO’s in Norwegian tourism are women compared with less than 6% in the manufacturing sector (Skalpe 2007). However large firms pay more but employ fewer women executives. This gender wage gap is larger in tourism as female CEO’s are employed in smaller firms than in the manufacturing sector. Women’s wages in tourism are also affected by the general demand for labour. Male and female wage differentials are evi-
dent in Tijuana and Torreon in Mexico. In Tijuana near the border with the USA many women were employed in export processing which increased the demand for female labour. In Torreon where there was little demand for export processing there was a significant difference in earnings between men and women across a range of occupations, but especially in tourism. (Anderson and Dimon 1995).

Female labour provides an ‘essential prop’ for the tourism industry (Purcell 1997). Tourism is an industry which works on small profit margins and this suits employers who want cheap labour. Management wishes to maximise profits for its shareholders (Skalpe 2007). Female workers, particularly married women seeking part-time work, have historically been available for employment for lower average rates of pay than men (Jordan 1997). This type of labour attracts female applicants and discourages males. Women’s concentration in these “supplementary-earner” jobs reinforces “male breadwinner/female dependency” relations in the home. Women are also more likely to accept lower level tourism jobs than men to supply supplementary work to enhance family income.

EDUCATION AND EXPERIENCE

Differences in educational attainment might account for differences in male and female earnings and occupation in tourism. However females had more years of schooling in both Tijuana and Torreon. Since the early 1990’s the proportion of female students enrolled in the Department of Hotel and Tourism Management in Hong Kong has exceeded 60% (Ng and Pine 2007), a fact also demonstrated by enrolments on hospitality and tourism courses throughout the UK where typically some 70-80% of students are female. In many western countries educational attainment of males and females is very similar. (Thrane 2007) However it is true that where women see very little opportunity for career progression the incentive to invest in education is more limited. (Anderson and Dimon 1995).

Another factor accounting for the smaller proportion of women in management positions in the tourism sector might be more limited work experience. Due to family, maternity leave and the division of labour within the family it is possible that women have lower levels of work experience than men. The study on Hong Kong shows that a higher proportion of male managers tend to be married with children than their female counterparts. Women managers with family however indicate that they are able to balance work and family life, be on call and are prepared to work overtime at busy times. They also tend to be better at time management. In Norway educational investment tends to favour female employees in terms of earnings more than males. For accumulated work experience wages tend to rise rapidly after career entry and then level off. This tends to be more marked in the case of women who take time out of work. Marriage also tends to work against women’s remuneration whereas for men it tends to work in their favour. However it seems unlikely that lower levels of work experience can account for all the differentials between male and female pay and the numbers of women in management positions (Thrane 2007).

Although most countries have legislation covering equal opportunities many companies had raised expectations by embedding such a philosophy into their policy documents (Jordan 1997). Where such companies lacked transparency in their promotion procedures this served merely to exacerbate disappointment among female employees. It is men who assess potential and this explains why women do not get as far as they could. Where promotion systems exist vague criteria such as ‘proven track record’ tended to perpetuate gender stereotyping (Purcell 1997).

GENDER STEREOTYPING

Tourism landscapes are seen as perpetuating male and female imagery. Males are depicted as being adventurous and active whereas females are show as being more family oriented and domestic. This is reinforced by the imagery in tourism brochures. The study of subjects such as sex tourism and gender relationships tends to highlight this relationship. The male female ‘host’ relationship with women being seen primarily as the host and objects of sexual attraction is carried into the workplace. Women are seen as ‘servicing the sexual and emotional needs of tourists’. (Pritchard and Morgan 2000: 888)

Many women in Mexico were employed in the informal sector including making goods for household use. Where women worked in the formal sector especially in more responsible positions men tended to find this threatening (Anderson and Dimon 1995). However men viewed employment in the informal sector and in the hotel and catering industry as an extension of women’s domestic roles (Wilson 2003). Very often the physical separation between the household and market has not taken place, particularly in the case of women’s work.

Traditional gender, especially in many developing and Asian countries assign to women the main responsibilities for raising children, caring for the elderly, and doing household work. Thus, women are suited to take on certain
jobs, for example involving caring and household-related work and service positions (Purcell 1996). Women whilst being seen as being suitable for certain occupations also see themselves suitable for the job as well. Employers believe that the exploitation of perceived feminine characteristics and domestic skills is justified by commercial needs. The industry, therefore, may be viewed as offering the amenities of private or household sphere for sale in the public market, a situation that immediately presents boundary problems about what counts as work.

This serves to perpetuate gender stereotyping and positioning of women. Most gender stereotypical occupations are lower paid and do not include key managerial positions. On the other hand, the situation allows women to enter the tourism workforce based on their traditional roles and their own confidence to fulfill them. The power of tourism to capture imagination and shape sense of identity has significant influences over the extent to which the labour market remains horizontally and vertically segregated for female employment (Wilson 2003).

**WOMEN’S ROLE IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES**

In most developing countries the segregation of women into different roles in the workplace is exacerbated by women being seen primarily as a wife and a mother and those women who are employed in the hospitality sector need to forgo many of the benefits family life (Anderson and Dimon 1995, Ng and Pine 2003). This is reinforced by the acceptance of women into tourism activities such as agri-tourism which are viewed as an extension of domestic duties and a useful supplement to the family income. In agri-tourism women’s employment is kept within the family and helps to negate the relatively unpredictable fluctuations in agricultural income (McGehee et. al. 2007). The employment of women in part-time roles such as housekeeping and cleaning in the hospitality sector adds further support to this type of work being seen as acceptable in developing societies as it is an extension of domestic duty.

**RESPONSE OF FEMALE EMPLOYEES**

In Hong Kong it is estimated that direct jobs in tourism will increase by 22,000 in a ten year period to 2010. This study points to lack of support systems, inequity in promotions, inadequate job knowledge and lack of mentoring as major obstacles to career progression by women. Being married, family childcare responsibilities and sexual harassment interestingly ranked the lowest on the list. Men actually ranked conflicts with family as being more of an obstacle for them than it was for women. Some of the problems to career development among the Chinese women were rather self depreciating. Their confidence in the role of women as managers was not helped by the fact that most women in this study indicated that they would prefer to work for a male rather than a female manager, a position also taken by male workers. Obstacles to career development in the United States (Brownell 1994) were seen to include the ‘old boy network’, balancing family and work, the job characteristics and sexual harassment. Women managers in Hong Kong see the solution as needing to work twice as hard to prove their worth (Ng and Pine 2003).

**TOURISM IN ANTALYA**

A pilot study conducted in the tourism and hospitality sector in the Antalya region of Turkey supported the findings from other countries. Fifteen managers and employees (nine female and six male) were interviewed including one General Manager. The research was undertaken in the Hotel Lara Miracle and Papillon Hotel groups (Belvil, Muna, Zeugma, and Ayscha) where women employees accounted for up to 25% of the labour force, a relatively low figure for female employment in hospitality in the region.

The study in Antalya revealed that it was expected that the natural duty of women was to look after the children and take care of their home and therefore they were not the main income earner. The number of the women who worked in the housekeeping departments was quite high compared to the other departments. According to the managers those employees were usually local and they did not have enough skills to work in other departments. By working in the housekeeping department, women would bring the domestic skills they have learnt at home. The nation of the “the family” consisting of a husband, wife and children, where the wife and children financially depend on the husband has taken on an almost mythical status. Most men have wives, mothers or daughters who cook, clean and look after their clothing for them. Men might have an interest in keeping women at home, but if the wife will work and keep up the domestic commitment, then this provides a welcome addition to the family income.

The other explanation given for the low number of females in tourism was that the industry was not well respected by families and they would not like to see their daughters and wives working within a style of life which would include drinking alcohol and an inappropriate way of dressing. Women usually work in low skilled jobs in tourism in Antalya. There were a few female managers in the industry, but they were not managers in senior positions. The gen-
eral response as to whether there was any difference between female managers or male managers was no. Being a good manager was not about gender, but commitment, teamwork, achievement, desire and risk taking which is tough, decisive and demanding.

The highest position of a female manager in the survey was the front office manager. However she found it very difficult to go any further in her career. One female general assistant manager in the hotel had a university degree, spoke more than one language and had knowledge of the front office, human resources and marketing. However she felt she was treated like a secretary. One of the male human resource managers explained that female managers were not taken seriously because it was felt that females could not be that talented. Another response was that women were more determined, but Turkish men were still feudal and they would like the barriers to remain as long as they could.

In tourism the managers are married to their jobs, they work at least 12 hours a day and one general manager said he actually stayed in the hotel sometimes without seeing his family. There was a feeling that being a good manager meant a big sacrifice in terms of family life. For women to work that hard would not be easy as they have other responsibilities, culturally the responsibilities that naturally belong to women, such as looking after children, doing the housework and this did not allow the women to pay attention to their position in the business.

The appearance of women was important in the industry. One example was an employee who used to be a hostess wearing a mini skirt and white top. One day when a new colleague arrived she started as a waitress. However after a few hours she was asked to go back to her hostess position as the new employee was shorter and older as well. According to some managers it was the industry itself which attracted the young females and a married female after a certain age would not have the same position because of the cultural issues. Although appearance was not important in all departments appearance and age is important in reception, bars and restaurants. The oldest females in these departments were 25 years of age.

One manager referred to his wife who was a manager but struggles to find a promotion opportunity. A five star hotel needed a manager in the housekeeping department and his wife applied for it unsuccessfully a few times, but was refused despite her more than 20 years experience. He photocopied a younger lady’s picture with an attractive dress and included it on his wife’s CV and sent it to the hotel. His wife got an immediate call from the hotel to start work as soon as possible.

**CONCLUSION**

Despite the increasing need for labour in an expanding tourism and hospitality industry there are still significant barriers to the progression of women employees. In most of the countries surveyed women earned less than men and also filled positions lower down the occupational hierarchy. This tended to be more marked in the hospitality sector than in other industries. In the hospitality sector gender stereotyping encourages women to fill particular roles. Those jobs which required customer interface often attracted younger and more ‘attractive’ women. This is supported by the culture of management in the tourism and hospitality sector. In many developing countries female employment in the hotel sector is seen as an extension to domestic work which, although low paid, supplemented the family income.

The issues concerning the employment of women in the labour force are complex. However the Antalya region of Turkey is a fast growing tourism destination. Its future success may depend on the ability to attract a highly trained workforce. The experience of Hong Kong shows that as tourism develops further skill shortages will appear in the industry which the high percentage of women with skills in the hospitality industry could be trained to fill. Women’s roles are still seen as being primarily in the home although as in Hong Kong women are prepared to give equal commitment to their career.

**REFERENCES**


Purcell, K. (1996). The Relationship between Career and Job Opportunities: Women’s Employment 


Thrane, C. (2007). Earnings Differentiation in the Tourism Industry: Gender, Human Capital and 


*Gender and Bureaucracy*, Oxford: Blackwell.
Assessing Tourist Total Experience that Influence Satisfaction at Motor Sport Event

Rezian-na Muhammed KASSIM
Faculty of Business Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA, Malaysia
E-mail: rezian@salam.edu.my.com

Rosidah MUSA
Faculty of Business Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA, Malaysia
E-mail: rosidahmusa@hotmail.com

Norain OTHMAN
Faculty of Hotel and Tourism Management
Universiti Teknologi MARA, Malaysia
E-mail: drnorain@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Sport tourists’ experience and satisfaction have been the key research issues in recent years. Among such experiences, research focusing on satisfaction has been based on an ‘instrumental’ perspective. In this perspective the product is considered to be an objective entity, consisting of separate attributes that can be identified and qualified as satisfaction Experience phenomena enter into almost every aspect of daily life. Researches with difference disciplinary background and research interest have recognized that the primary importance of experience in major social, psychological, physiological and consumer behavior processes. This paper assessing the significant contribution toward the total customer experience as the researchers set the determine elements that influenced spectator (or visitor) satisfaction to the Malaysia motor sport event. This Grand Prix motor sport event becomes the country’s biggest tool to promote Malaysia as a tourist destination, catalyst for motor sports growth and development of the local automotive sector. The predictive validity of the scale is tested by analyzing the relationship between tourist experience dimensions and satisfaction and its proposed theoretical outcome. This paper will also discuss implication of the findings and possible application.

Key words: Experience, satisfaction, mega event, sports tourism.

INTRODUCTION

Standeven and DeKnop (1999) conceptualization the concept the definition of sport tourism as the temporary movement of people beyond their own home and work locality involving experiences unlike those of everyday life. Sport tourism broadly defined as leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to venerate attractions associated with physical or recreation activities (Gibson 1998).

One form of tourism that has become an integral component of sport and leisure in many regions throughout the developed world is event tourism (Crompton and Mc Kay 1994). Tourism event promotes external awareness and interest in the host community. The interest has implication in creating image of unique form of tourist attraction ranging from small firs and community festival to mega event such as Olympic Games or Formula One Motor Sport (Getz 1991). Events have been previously defined as a cultural, artistic, sporting, or other special or unique activity that is organized to attract and be attended by the general public, free of charge or for fees (Metelka 1981). Getz (1991) defines event as affair, effect and noticeable happening. While both definitions have their support in the literature, sporting events can be seen as falling under an even more refined segment of event management, which is special events.

The inclusion of effect into the conceptualizations of consumer satisfaction is particularly important with services such sport tourism industry due to their experiential nature (Wirtz 1997). Ryan (1997) access the satisfaction that participants derive from a sport tourism experience will be influences by the outcome of the activity and participants’ recall of affective feelings during the experience. Lee, Shafer, and Kang (2005) proposed that overall satisfaction is established by a collection of episode-specific evaluations (quality of food, service at destination, parking, traffic, and setting attributes). Results showed that individuals used cumulative evaluations in determining their overall satisfaction. These previous studies support Falk and Dierking’s (1992) research indicating extraneous elements play a significant role in determining overall satisfaction.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Transaction-specific satisfaction is a customer’s evaluation of their experience with a particular product transaction, episode or service encounter. Before the late 1990s, transaction-specific research explored the cognitive-psychological antecedents of satisfaction, while more recent research has focused on the effects of positive and negative emotions on satisfaction and post-choice evaluative judgments (Oliver 1997; Oliver 1980). The cumulative approach defines satisfaction as a customer’s overall experience with a product or service over occasions or time (Johnson, Anderson and Fornell 1995; Johnson and Fornell
1991) and measurement of satisfaction essentially focused on particular product or service transactions. More recently, another conception emerged that is concerned with all of a consumer’s previous experiences with an event, product, or service cumulatively (Anderson et al. 1994). An advantage of transaction-specific models is that they provide a rich understanding of the dynamics of product and service encounters or episodes (Oliver 1997).

This study seeks to find out the importance of satisfaction with individual elements of the experience on global satisfaction for individuals visiting motor sport event.

- RQ1: How do spectators rate overall sport tourism event satisfaction?
- RQ2: How do spectators rate experience of satisfaction with the event and elements surrounding it?

**METHODOLOGY**

Subjects for this study were customer or spectators attending a large and mega event of sport tourism taking place in Malaysia. In this context spectators or tourist are defined as people visiting the destination specifically attending the sporting event and traveling from residence more than 30km from the sport stadium or arena. The sampling method proposed for this current study is mall intercept method (Greenwell et al. 2002). These methods entail face-to face interviewing and questionnaire was directly administered to target population. The method provides researches access to a large number of spectator from a wide geographic region (Gates and Solomon 1982). This method provides access to people on the street engaged in a wide variety of activities such as walking, sitting or running and so forth (Miller 1997). Twelve researches systematically intercept the respondent within the event over three days.

**Measures**

Transaction-specific satisfaction is a customer’s evaluation of his or her experience and reactions to a particular service encounter (Cronin and Taylor 1992; Boshoff and Gray 2004), and cumulative satisfaction refers to the customer’s overall evaluation of the consumption experience to date (Johnson, Anderson and Fornell 1995). Johnson (2001) found that the transaction-specific satisfaction mainly by focusing on consumers’ emotional reactions to specific service attributes or service encounters and suggests that organizer have to link the performance of precise in their experiential marketing strategy.

Satisfaction was measured using a five-point “excellent – poor” scale taken from available sources (Westbrook and Oliver 1981; Westbrook 1987). Customers were asked to evaluate their satisfaction, taking the experience in the event into account. Lee, Shafer, and Kang (2005) proposed that overall satisfaction is established by a collection of episode-specific evaluations (i.e., quality of food, service at destination, parking, access, and setting attributes. Then a total of 400 respondent test-retest tests were conducted. All items’ test-retest reliability (correlation coefficients) was significant and larger than .5. Reliability coefficients are 0.89 and 0.90, respectively, indicating acceptable reliability (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994).

**RESULTS**

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, Windows Version 15.0 (SPSS 15.0) was used to analyze the data collected. A total of 500 questionnaires were distributed, of which 400 were returned completed and met the screening requirements, representing a net response rate of 80% out of which. All items’ test-retest reliability (correlation coefficients) was significant and larger than .5. Reliability coefficients are 0.89 and 0.90, respectively, indicating acceptable reliability (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994). Among the 400 respondents 70.4% were males and 36.6% were between the aged of 26 to 35. As expected, a majority of them were Malay 45% and from Europe 22% which represented the tourist market. The satisfaction scales found that transaction-specific satisfaction explained 60.9% of the variance and overall satisfaction 82.28% of it, and the consistency indicators were satisfactory. The satisfied with their decision to come and experiences the event seems to be the most important variable in determine the transaction of specific satisfaction.

Bartlett’s test of sphericity and the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy were used to assess the appropriateness of factor analysis. Table 1 shows the correlations are significant at the .001 level, and Table 2 shows the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy falls in adequacy is greater then .6 therefore, it is appropriate to proceed with factor analysis. At the initial stage, it is shows the factors and their eigenvalue, the percentage of variance explained and the cumulative percentages. The factor loadings of the three factors that emerged with eigenvalues have being greater than 1.0.
Table 1. The transaction-specific satisfaction loading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transaction-specific satisfaction (TS)</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am satisfied with my decision to come and experienced the event today</td>
<td>0.828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I think that I did the right thing by deciding to come today</td>
<td>0.721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. My choice to come to the event today was a wise one</td>
<td>0.609</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Correlation matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Price</th>
<th>festival environment</th>
<th>event was run efficiently</th>
<th>Players</th>
<th>staff</th>
<th>Parking</th>
<th>Food beverages</th>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Access</th>
<th>Cleanliness</th>
<th>Noise level</th>
<th>Restrooms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.658</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>.823</td>
<td>.787</td>
<td>.705</td>
<td>.676</td>
<td>.676</td>
<td>.654</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>.866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aesthetics environment</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>event was run</td>
<td>.593</td>
<td>.722</td>
<td>.745</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>.823</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td>.803</td>
<td>.787</td>
<td>.705</td>
<td>.676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Players</td>
<td>.611</td>
<td>.680</td>
<td>.678</td>
<td>.724</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td>.803</td>
<td>.787</td>
<td>.705</td>
<td>.676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>staff</td>
<td>.600</td>
<td>.698</td>
<td>.626</td>
<td>.629</td>
<td>.674</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td>.803</td>
<td>.787</td>
<td>.705</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parking</td>
<td>.430</td>
<td>.397</td>
<td>.509</td>
<td>.457</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td>.640</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td>.803</td>
<td>.787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff</td>
<td>.506</td>
<td>.545</td>
<td>.555</td>
<td>.556</td>
<td>.626</td>
<td>.697</td>
<td>.606</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>.815</td>
<td>.803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food beverages</td>
<td>.470</td>
<td>.540</td>
<td>.490</td>
<td>.531</td>
<td>.512</td>
<td>.511</td>
<td>.512</td>
<td>.512</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.825</td>
<td>.815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information</td>
<td>.324</td>
<td>.278</td>
<td>.233</td>
<td>.314</td>
<td>.354</td>
<td>.338</td>
<td>.310</td>
<td>.298</td>
<td>.277</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.828</td>
<td>.825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>.352</td>
<td>.284</td>
<td>.251</td>
<td>.276</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>.295</td>
<td>.261</td>
<td>.246</td>
<td>.271</td>
<td>.489</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness</td>
<td>.268</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>.199</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.243</td>
<td>.239</td>
<td>.174</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>.126</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise level</td>
<td>.378</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.112</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.220</td>
<td>.199</td>
<td>.161</td>
<td>.166</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restrooms</td>
<td>.140</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>.138</td>
<td>.167</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>.115</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>.330</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*po.05; **po.01; ***po.001.

The scree plot also suggests that one factor is predominant with an eigenvalue of 2.37. Multiple items to measure environment, event was run efficiently, staff, F&B, price, information, parking, cleanliness and restroom randomly split into two groups (separately for each variable) to represent two indicators of each construct (Bagozzi and Heatherton 1994). Factor 1 comprises items: festival environment (.828), event was run efficiently (.825), players (.823), Aesthetic environment (.815), staff, (.803) F&B (.787) price, (.721), information (.705) and parking (.676) Factor 2 can be explained by cleanliness (.825) noise (.825) and restroom (.654).
CONCLUSION

Sport tourism tourist is generally characterized by an important number of interactions between experience and satisfaction with the event itself and the organizers. It can therefore be argued that event organizers should focus on experience and overall satisfaction in their service consumption included numerous interactions, such as festival environment experience and efficiency of managing the event to avoid unusual and extraordinary transaction-specific dissatisfaction. However, they should keep in mind that transaction-specific satisfaction is only considering an important antecedent to overall satisfaction and loyalty.

A number of marketing implications can be drawn from this study. The event organizers should take into consideration that the trend of staging festivals or major events is very important from the perspective of destination or sport marketing (Mules and Faulkner 1996). The memorable experience of the event is more accurately and more vividly remembered when it is emotionally arousing (Bremner et al. 1996; Rolls 1990) Local festivals are increasingly being used as instruments for promoting sport tourism and boosting the regional economy (Felsenstein and Fleischer 2002). Getz (1993) and Formica and Uysal (1996) showed that the economic gains from festivals can be substantial because festivals provide interesting activities and spending venues for both local people and tourists. Further research as a follow-up market positioning, (Scott 1996), could be done through further analyses of visitors’ motives in attending sport.

Sport events can prove beneficial for the event organizers but the dissatisfaction customer have the negative impact for example traffic jam, location and parking can create negative episode. Such circumstances represent a risk for market failures, which in turn call for government intervention, possibly even funding in improving the access and parking facilities.

Hosting mega-event such the Formula One Motor Sport means a host city may benefit by promoting civic and national pride, generating revenue from a large number of participating or visitor, bringing people together (Kang and Perdue 1994) Even though mega event are fairly brief in duration, visitors or tourists will have long term memories of hosting community’s image and pride provided the experience satisfaction are positive.

To conclude, the finding suggests future research may consider possible issues such as sport tourism motivation and loyalty as the consequences variable.

With this the government and event organizers will determine the best strategies to promote sport tourism event internationally.

REFERENCES


The Role of Mobile Electronic Tourist Guide on the Learning Process

Rita PERES  
Tourism and Hotel Management 
Estoril Higher Institute for Hotel and Tourism Studies  
E-mail: rita.peres@eshte.pt

Antónia CORREIA  
Faculty of Economics  
University of Algarve  
E-mail: acorreia@ualg.pt

Miguel MOITAL  
School of Services Management  
Bournemouth University  
E-mail: mnmoital@bournemouth.ac.uk

ABSTRACT

Recognising the importance of information as a key factor influencing the competitiveness of tourist destinations, and in particular the exchange of information that is accessible in real-time, this study examines tourists’ acceptance of Mobile Electronic Tourist Guides (METG). However, research in the area of tourists’ acceptance of METG is still scarce, despite some noteworthy recent contributions. This research was developed upon the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Technology Acceptance Model. Using a descriptive and quantitative analysis, this study evaluated the level of knowledge about, and usage of, mobile information technologies. The importance and performance of one such technology, the METG, was examined, and the factors influencing its adoption by tourists estimated using a structural equation model. The findings revealed that tourists’ behavioural intentions could be raised through attitude by ensuring greater levels of perceived usefulness. Usefulness, in turn, is highly influenced by the tourists’ level of knowledge regarding the METG. In addition, there was also a direct significant path between knowledge and behavioural intention, suggesting that good levels of knowledge of the service are a pre-condition for greater usage of the METG.

Keywords: Information systems, mobile electronic tourist guide, consumer behaviour, tourism marketing.

INTRODUCTION

While tourist destinations try to differentiate themselves from competitors in many ways, such as through good accessibility and high quality accommodation, more emphasis in now placed on the range of services provided to ever more demanding consumers. According to Goeldner and Ritchie (2003) services and attractions should be presented in a creative and intelligent way. The fast evolution of information and communication technologies has led to the development of new ways of gathering, using and transmitting information in real time. Therefore, destinations should capitalise on this trend and make the most of the opportunities provided by the development of mobile and interactive technologies.

From the multiple mobile technologies available in the market, the Mobile Electronic Tourist Guide (METG), while still an emerging service, has been regarded as one of the most promising ones. Using the Personal Digital Assistant (PDA) as technological platform, the METG provides important potential benefits for tourists that differentiate the system from traditional tourist information systems. The high levels of mobility and access to interactive information in real time are perhaps the greatest benefits of the METG. Consequently, the tourist is better equipped to maximise the time spent in the destination. This is achieved by avoiding travelling to the tourist office everytime new information is required, not having to wait for the information and, above all, access to information anywhere and anytime. By saving time on looking around for information, tourists could engage in more activities while at the destination, potentially increasing their spending. Perhaps more importantly, using the METG could provide more quantity and variety of information, making tourists better informed about what is on offer, potentially resulting in better consumption decisions and consequently more satisfied consumers. This, in turn, will result in greater loyalty to the destination (Yoon and Uysal 2005; Yuksel and Yuksel 2002). In addition, greater usage of METG by tourists would facilitate monitoring the tourist experience as it would be relatively easy to set up the technology to monitor the what, when, where and how consumers search for information. This, in turn, could inform strategic planning at the destination level. Nishimura et al. (2007) that destinations authorities had little direct control over several of the most sought after sources of travel information. The METG could also help destinations to have a more directly influence on the information made available to tourists.

Past research has shown that many tourists, including those who have never used it, view the use of mobile services in a tourism context, including the METG, positively (Cheverst et al. 2000; Schmidt-Belz et al. 2003; Lee and Mills 2007). However, the service is still in its infancy and only a small proportion of tourists use it. While there are many reasons for the low level of usage by consumers, including supply ones, consumer acceptance will be the ultimate influ-
encing factor. Research in the area of tourists’ acceptance of METG is still scarce, despite some noteworthy recent contributions. Given that the development of a consumer focused mobile tourist information strategy requires an understanding of consumers’ acceptance of this innovative service, this paper examines the factors influencing the intention to use the METG.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The acceptance and use of information technologies has been the focus of many studies aiming at understanding the determinants of their acceptance by consumers. Most studies have been developed against three theoretical frameworks: the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975) and the Technology Acceptance Model (Davis 1989) and the Diffusion and Adoption of Innovations (Rogers 1995). The first two are briefly discussed in the next two sections.

Theory of Reasoned Action

The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) postulates that a person’s behaviour is determined by his intention to perform the behaviour. Intention is, thus, seen as the best predictor of behaviour. This intention is, in turn, a function of two basic determinants. The first determinant is an individual’s attitude toward the behaviour. Attitude is the person’s general feeling of favourableness or unfavourableness for that behaviour and is formed based on the person’s salient beliefs that the behaviour leads to certain outcomes and the evaluation of the outcomes. In other words, whether the outcome of his behaviour will be positive or negative. The second determinant is subjective norm and is related to the influence of the social environment on intentions and behaviour. More specifically, it refers to the opinions of the person’s social environment about him performing the behaviour. The subjective norm is a consequence of the beliefs that specific referents think about whether the individual should, or should not, perform the behaviour, as well as the motivation to comply with these referents. The relative importance of attitudinal and normative components will vary according to the intention under consideration and from one person to another (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980). However, research suggests that most behaviour is controlled mainly by attitude than by social influence (Cooper and Donald 2001).

Technology Acceptance Model

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) was first introduced by Davis and colleagues (Davis 1989; Davis et al. 1989) for predicting user acceptance of information systems. Theoretically developed upon Fishbein and Ajzen’s TRA, the model aimed to be a parsimonious and valid theoretical template with which to study the adoption a broad range of end-user computing technologies (Davis et al. 1989). Similar to TRA, in the TAM system usage is determined by behavioural intention. In essence, the model posits that two variables fundamentally determine user acceptance of the technology: perceived usefulness and ease of use. The first TAM model posited that the two beliefs about using the innovation (ease of use and usefulness) impacted on intention through attitude. However, recently Venkatesh and Davis (2000) proposed a revision of the TAM (usually referred as to TAM2) in which the attitude construct is removed so that the beliefs about ease of use and usefulness are viewed as directly influencing intention (George 2002). Several researchers have accommodated this change (e.g. Liaw 2002; Luarn and Lin 2005) whereas others still refer to the original model (e.g. Ho et al. 2003; Chen and Tan 2004). The TAM model has many strengths that make it potentially suitable for studying adoption of technological innovations. It is a reliable and robust model, with empirical data extensively supporting and validating the theory (Agarwal and Prasad 1999; Chen et al. 2002; Vijayasarathy 2004). Moreover, it possesses the theoretical property of parsimony (Agarwal and Prasad 1999; Mathieson et al. 2001) and is focused on technology-based behaviours (Mathieson et al. 2001).

Information Search in Tourism

In order to define and understand the different types of behaviours associated with information search, search has been conceptualised in many ways, including internal/external (Gitelson and Crompton 1993; Fodness and Murray 1999), static/dynamic (Sheldon 1997), decisive/contributive (Vogt and Fesenmaier 1998), formal/informal (Mathieson and Wall 1982) and personal/interpersonal (Hsieh and O’Leary 1993).

Flognfeldt and Nordgren (1999) further suggested a temporal classification of search, according to the sequence of the travel consumption process: before, during and after visiting the destination. According to Mansfield (1992) and Sheldon (1997), information search and use tends to be more intense in before arrival at the destination than during the travelling period. At this stage, tourists decide upon whether to travel to the destination and make preliminary decisions regarding what to do once there. The assumption that most information search activity tends to take place before arrival has led to an emphasis of research on the pre-travelling stage (e.g. Snepenger et al. 1990; Fodness and Murray 1999; Gursoy and Chen 2000; Gursoy and Umbreit 2004). However,
there is a growing recognition of the role of information search during travel. In a recent study, Nishimura et al. (2007) suggested that for independent travellers, information search tends to be an ongoing task, with tourists externally searching for information actively. According to MINTEL (2006) “this is the age of the independent traveller”. In the UK, in 2006 Independent travel accounted for 58% of the outbound (representing a 49% growth since 2001) and generating £13.5 billion. The reasons that have fuelled this growth – sharp growth of budget airlines, access to the Internet and the rise of the i-traveller (a tourist guided by individual choice) – indicate a further positive outlook for this market. Therefore, destinations need to place more emphasis on satisfying the information needs of this valuable travel segment.

Many decisions regarding what to do may have been taken before arriving at the destination. However, tourists are likely to seek reinforcement of many of those decisions once there. In this case, their search may be one of fine-tuning previous consumption decisions (e.g. when to do it, what is the best way to get there). However, in many cases the decision of what to do is left until arrival. Thus, the purchasing process for many of the consumption decisions is likely to take place only after the tourists’ arrival. For example, the tourist may not be aware of certain attractions, local restaurants or entertainment activities prior to travelling. The purchasing process may be triggered by local advertising in local tourist guides, discussion with fellow tourists or recommendations from locals (e.g. receptionists). Recognising the importance of information search at the destination, tourist authorities have set up structures to facilitate tourists’ access to information. One of such examples is the tourist office. Here, tourists can find both literature and expert advice on many aspects of the tourist experience offered by the destination. Destination information services further disseminate and distribute information through other elements in the tourism system, such as hotels and attractions.

**Research on the Acceptance of METG**

Recognising that its adoption by tourists is one of obvious critical factor influencing the widespread use of METG, a number of studies have attempted to understand its adoption from the users point of view. However, most of these studies were based on field experiments whereby tourists are invited to use of system and then evaluate the experience (Cheverst et al. 2000; Schmidt-Belz et al. 2003). It was not until recently that research on the acceptance of METG by a wider tourist base begun to appear. For example, Lee and Mills (2007) explored tourists satisfaction with mobile technology by surveying Internet users. An underlying assumption of all these studies is the critical influence of tourists’ evaluation of the METG for the success of such systems.

The importance of evaluating the tourists’ perceptions of METG is further supported by the wider literature on the adoption of mobile handheld devices. For example, Sarker and Wells’ (2003) input-process-output model of the adoption of handheld devices views evaluation of the experience as a component of the process that feeds into the output. In other words, usage of the innovation is directly influenced by an evaluation of its use. According to Sarker and Wells (2003), evaluation of the experience can take three forms: functional, psychosocial and relational. The functional dimension refers to the availability of the system anytime and in anyplace and is closely related to efficiency provided by access to information while on the move. The psychosocial dimension includes issues such as security and privacy, while the relational dimension involves evaluating the opportunities for communication with other individuals. While consumers are likely to evaluate handheld devices based on these three dimensions, their importance is likely to vary from individual to individual and according to the specific content of the experience.

Based on the constructs identified by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) and adapted by Davis (1989) to develop the TAM, a conceptual model of the acceptance of the Mobile Electronic Tourist Guide was developed. The model is supported upon a number of hypothesis derived from the literature. Four constructs are included in the model: knowledge, usefulness, attitude and intention.

**Knowledge**

Clark and Belk (1978) define knowledge as the result of learning stored in memory. The importance of knowledge as an important element in the adoption of information systems is demonstrated by Rogers’ (1995) innovation decision model, whereby knowledge is viewed as the first stage of the adoption process. Knowledge is likely to be important at the early stages of the diffusion process, when the amount of information available about the innovation is limited, such as the case of the METG.

**Usefulness**

Perceived usefulness is the individual’s perception that using the information system will improve his/her performance (Davis 1989; Keen et al. 2004). Usefulness refers to the outcome of using the system, rather than to the process leading to the final outcome, which is captured by ease of use (Childers et al.
Usefulness is similar to relative advantage (Rogers 1995) in that it concentrates on the extent to which using the new system is perceived as being better that the one it supersedes.

Attitude

In the field of consumer behaviour, attitudes have been defined as an overall evaluation of the behaviour (Engel et al. 1995; Rogers 1995; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Howard and Sheth 1969) and as predispositions to respond in a particular way toward a specified behaviour or class of behaviours (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Rosenberg and Hovland 1960). The importance of attitude in consumer behaviour is demonstrated by the fact that virtually all of the most influential models of consumer behaviour view attitudes as a key variable influencing behaviour (e.g. TRA, TAM, Rogers, Howard and Sheth, Engle, Blackwell and Miniard). In voluntary behaviours, such as in the case of using the METG, people tend to perform behaviours that they evaluate favourably and avoid performing those that are viewed negatively.

Intention

Behavioural intention to perform the behaviour has been shown to be an antecedent of the behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein 1978). Ajzen and Fishbein (1978) suggested several measures of behavioural intention, but two main approaches to behavioural intention can be identified: one covering the likelihood of performing the behaviour and the other the intention to perform the behaviour. Intention and likelihood are different phenomena. Whereas intention refers to a goal or purpose, likelihood refers to the subjective probability that the behaviour will take place (i.e. that the goal or purpose will be achieved). Intention refers to a predisposition while likelihood can be thought of as resulting not only from that predisposition but from other variables such as the perception of the adequate resources to perform the behaviour. Generally speaking, the stronger the tourists’ intention to use the METG, the more likely they are to use them (Cao and Mokhtarian 2005). Therefore, behavioural intention can be regarded as a surrogate measure of the tourists’ acceptance of the METG.

Based on the relationships between variables postulated by the TRA and the TAM, the following hypothesis were formulated:

- **H1**: Knowledge of the METG influences usefulness.
- **H2**: Greater levels of perceived usefulness are associated with more a positive attitude towards using the METG.
- **H3**: The more positive the attitudes towards using the METG, the greater the intention to use it in the future.
- **H4**: The level of knowledge about the METG is positively associated with the intention to use them in the future.
- **H5**: Perceived usefulness influences the intention to use the METG.
- **H6**: The greater the level of knowledge, the more positive the attitudes towards using the METG.

**METHODOLOGY**

To test the hypothesis of this study, data was collected from a stratified sample of international tourists departing from Lisbon International Airport (Portugal) between October and November, 2006. The definition of the sample was based on the number of passengers departing from Lisbon’s Airport to European Union countries in 2005. The sample was randomly stratified by season and nationality. In order to achieve a 95% level of confidence, 600 questionnaires were collected. European Union nationals using Lisbon Airport come mainly from France, Spain (including islands), United Kingdom and other countries (Italy, The Netherlands and Germany). Together the nationals of these countries account for around 60 percent of departures from the airport. Using the number of departures from each of the above four groups, a minimum number of questionnaires was established: 107 from French nationals, 140 from Spanish, 85 from British and 268 from other nationalities. From the 600 questionnaires, 400 were retained for analysis in this study, which represents a response rate of 67%. This response rate corresponds to a sampling error of 2.8% with a confidence interval of 95%.

A questionnaire administered face-to-face was chosen to collect data. Respondents were randomly approached at the check-in area of the airport. Interviewing respondents at the check-in was selected for three main reasons. First, it was possible to identify where the tourists were travelling to, facilitating the selection of the right nationals. Second, because tourists were queuing, there was little competition of other activities for the traveller’s time and attention. Thus, they tend to be more willing to participate, increasing the response rate. Finally, by approaching tourists at departure, it was possible to analyse their use of information sources, including the METG, during the stay.
Tourists were asked to answer a number of questions focusing on information search, use of technology and acceptance of mobile electronic tourist guides. Knowledge was measured by one statement focusing on the tourists' level of knowledge of the METG (Krug et al. 2003), ranging from 'no knowledge' to 'know extremely well' (5 point scale). As far as usefulness is concerned, respondents were asked to rate the performance of METGs on a range of attributes based on Zipf and Malaka (2001) and Krug et al. (2003). Attitude was measured using one statement pertaining to the overall evaluation of the experience. Both usefulness and attitude were approached from a confirmation-disconfirmation point of view (Oliver 1980; Danaher and Haddrell 1996; Szymanski and Henard 2001) and thus they were measured using a 5 point Likert-scale, ranging from 'much worse than expected' to 'much better than expected'. Finally, behavioural intention was measured using one item asking respondents about the likelihood of future usage of METG (5 point scale from 'no' to 'for sure').

Structural Equations Modelling (SEM) was used to identify the determinants of intention to use METG. SEM specifies and estimates multi-equations models of latent variables (non-observable) that are anchored in observable (measurable) variables. The SEM model is based on a theoretical model which leads to the estimation of a number of distinct but interdependent multiple linear regressions, where one variable can be independent in one equation but dependent on another. Another particularity of SEM is that the explanatory variables can be latent or observable. A latent variable, while not directly observable, can be measured or inferred indirectly through a number of observable variables. Through SEM it is possible to combine the items/factors that make up each of the concept analysed (latent variable) objectively, accounting not only for the intra-factor dimensions but also the overall coherence of the model. Contrary other models that are mainly descriptive, SEM accurately estimates the cause-effect relationship between two variables.

The analysis of structural models consists of two stages (Hair et al. 1998). First, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is performed in order to identify the variables that make up each of the latent variables. Second, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is performed to confirm the results of the EFA and to the ascertain if all the constructs correlate freely. Next, the measurement model that provides the best fit for the data is estimated. In other words, the analysis identifies whether it is possible to improve the structural model until the best fit is achieved. This involves removing from the analysis those relationships that are statistically insignificant and adding others that can help improving the adjustment of the model (Correia et al. 2007a). Three types of measures were used to test the overall fit of model. The absolute fit index assesses how well the theoretical model fits the data, while the incremental fit index evaluates the proportionate fit by comparing a target model with a more restricted, nested baseline model (Hu and Bentler 1995). Finally, the moderated index gauges the degree to which the model fits the data. After testing the hypothesis, a standardized regression coefficient is produced for each significant path, showing the direction and the strength of the relationships.

Several steps were taken in order to ensure that data collected met accepted validity and reliability standards. A review of past studies in the fields of information search and acceptance of information technology informed the choice of variables to include in the study, as well as the operationalisation of each variables. Scales were adapted from previous studies that have suggested their validity and reliability. In addition, the hypothesised relationships between variables were supported on established theoretical principles and empirical evidence. The questionnaire was translated into the language of the respondents: English, French, Italian, Spanish, Dutch and German. The translation was initially made by qualified translators, followed by a ‘proof reading’ by at least on national of each of countries involved. Each of the six versions of the questionnaire (i.e. in each of the six languages) were pre-tested in order to identify any scope for improvement regarding the clarity and flow of questions. Only minor spelling and translation errors were reported by respondents and these were amended accordingly.

In addition, thorough review of the past studies on the topic was undertaken in order to identify the most suitable procedure to collect the data. The strategy employed resulted in a high response rate which, together with the use of a random stratified sample, suggests the generalizability of the data. That is, the findings can be extended to the more general population of international tourists departing from Lisbon airport. Finally, a number of techniques were used to gauge the reliability of the data, with the results indicating good levels of reliability (Correia et al. 2007b). Thus, an analysis of the survey’s validity, reliability and generalizability suggests the robustness of the data collected.

RESULTS

The conceptual model put forward in this paper attempts to explain the intention to use the METG using three variables: knowledge, attitude and usefulness. The initial model suggested six cause-effect relationships between the different variables. The model posited that usefulness was determined by
knowledge (H1), a favourable attitude was dependent on a positive perceived usefulness (H2) and that intention would be dependent on attitude (H3). In addition, the model speculated that intention was determined by knowledge (H4), usefulness was related to intention (H5) and attitude was determined by knowledge (H6). The model was estimated using the asymptotical distribution free methods as this can accommodate variables using different types of scale. The results of the initial estimated model revealed several relationships that were not statistically significant and the removal of these relationships improved the performance of the various indexes. The fit indexes of the structural model indicate a good fit to the data (Table 1). The values of the incremental fit indexes are close to one and the values of the absolute indexes close to zero, while the p value of the chi-square is non-significant. The standardized regression coefficients the paths are statistically significant and the 0.001 or 0.05 level (Figure 1), providing support for four out of the six hypothesised relationships.

### Table 1. Measures of the structural model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Absolute fit index</th>
<th>Incremental fit index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RMSR = 0.021</td>
<td>AGFI = 0.968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA = 0.011</td>
<td>NFI = 0.965</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TLI = 0.995</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IFI = 0.998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square = 2.096</td>
<td>RFI = 0.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p=0.351 df = 2</td>
<td>CFI = 0.998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GFI = 0.994</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1. Results of structural model for the intention to use the METG**

The estimate for H1 is .707 (p<0.001), indicating the existence of a strong positive effect of knowledge on perceived usefulness. There was also a positive relationship between perceived usefulness and attitude (β = .184; p<0.05), suggesting that the greater the level of perceived usefulness, the more positive the attitude towards using the METG was. Thus, H2 cannot be rejected. Hypothesising a sequential decision process by tourists, the model speculated that a more positive attitude would lead to a greater level of intention. The positive regression coefficient (β = .219; p<0.001) indicates that H3 cannot be rejected. Given the relative newness of the system in the market, it was also hypothesised that knowledge would be a determinant of intention (H4). The results indicating that the greater the knowledge, the more positive the intention as given by the positive and significant regression coefficient (β = .163; p<0.001). Finally, the path coefficients from perceived usefulness to intention (H5) and well as the new proposed path relationship from knowledge to attitude (H6) did not show a significant result. Thus, both hypothesis are not accepted.
CONCLUSION

Searching and using information is an important activity performed by tourists which can greatly affect the way they experience the destination. Similar to many other areas of the tourism industry, technological developments are reshaping the way that destinations interact with tourists. The potential of mobile technologies is significant, given that they provide access to dynamic tourist information that follows tourists wherever they go. At a time where the number of people living a ‘wired’ lifestyle is growing, destinations need to engage themselves in the process of making the most of the opportunities these technological developments entail. In this context, the Mobile Electronic Tourist Guide (METG) appears at the forefront of the services supported upon mobile technologies. In an attempt to enhance our understanding of the adoption of this service by tourists, this paper developed and tested a model for examining tourists’ acceptance of the METG. Using the Technology Acceptance Model (Davis 1989) as theoretical underpinning, the overall contention of this paper was that behavioural intention is an important indicator for tourists’ acceptance of the METG. The model considered three antecedents of intention: knowledge, usefulness and attitude. The relationships between them and between these and intention were explored using Structural Equation Modelling.

The findings revealed that tourists’ behavioural intentions could be raised through attitude by ensuring greater levels of perceived usefulness. Usefulness, in turn, is highly influenced by the tourists’ level of knowledge regarding the METG. In addition, there was also a direct significant path between knowledge and behavioural intention, suggesting that good levels of knowledge of the service are a pre-condition for greater usage of the METG. From this results, it is clear that an education program is required. This programme should focus on developing two types of knowledge (Rogers 1995): awareness knowledge (information that the METG exists), how to know knowledge (information required to use the METG). The extent to which individuals developed these two types of knowledge is a critical influence on adoption, given that without knowing that the METG exists and holding some understanding of how it functions adoption will not take place. Simultaneously, Communication of the benefits and their delivery are required in order to ensure greater levels of usage of the METG. This task requires a joint effort by technology, tourism and electronic guide suppliers, as well as the tourist board. The communication strategy needs to focus on the three levels: knowledge, usefulness and attitude. Rogers (1995) argues that the extent to which consumers trial the innovation influences its adoption. Providing opportunities for trial in a more restricted environment, such as tourist attractions, could not only ensure that tourists are made aware of such systems, but helping them to realise the usefulness of the METG.

The results of this paper have also important theoretical implications. TAM assumes that ease of use (not studied in this paper) and usefulness are important predictors of behavioural intention. However, while usefulness (via attitude) was an important predictor, knowledge was found to be a much more important one. This casts doubt over the predictive ability of the TAM in the context of innovations at their early stages of diffusion and where potential adopters know little about them. Therefore, conceptual models studying the acceptance of this type of innovations need to incorporate knowledge as an explanatory variable.

The findings of this study contribute to enhancing our understanding of how tourists perceive using mobile technologies in the context of the travelling experience. They can be used to inform local and national strategies aimed at developing Portugal’s (and other countries’) credentials as digital destinations. This study identified a number of issues that need to be addressed if greater levels of usage of the service are to be achieved. Ultimately, developing a high quality mobile technology experience will not only improve the tourist knowledge and experience of the destination, but also enhance its innovative and creative image among potential and actual tourists.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This paper was based on a research sponsored by the Scholarship Program of the Turismo de Portugal, IP.

REFERENCES


The Role of Food in Promoting Chinese Regions on the Web

Rong HUANG
Tourism, Hospitality and Marketing
University of Plymouth, UK
E-mail: Rong.huang@plymouth.ac.uk

ABSTRACT
Despite the increasing importance of the role of food in the marketing of destinations and the importance of tourism in China, relatively few studies have been done on measuring the Internet marketing effectiveness of food tourism adopted by CNTA and its regional administrations. Therefore the aim of this preliminary study is to assess how CNTA and its regional tourism administrations market their destinations through food tourism in the Internet. 32 regions in China were investigated. From the research, it is clear that food does play a role in tourism, and however is primarily considered as a supportive attraction, to a lesser extent, a key attraction in China. Given the importance of food and dining out in tourist experience and also sheer economic contribution, CRTAs need more aggressive marketing for their local food.

Key words: Food tourism, website evaluation, China.

INTRODUCTION
For many years the common understanding of the food-tourism relationship in the field of tourism studies was through the provision of food for tourists in restaurants, resorts or hotels (Huang and Hall 2007). But the way in which various ingredients are combined and cooked forms an important element of a national cultural identity (Bessiere 1998; Cusack 2000). Food has come to be recognised a part of the local culture which tourists consume that can add value to a destination (Telfer and Wall 1996), a potential component of local agricultural and economic development, as a differentiated product in a competitive destination market (Crouch and Ritchie 1999), as an indicator of globalisation, and as something which is in itself affected by the consumption patterns and perceived preferences of tourists (Hall, Sharples, Mitchell, Cambourne and Macionis 2003). Hence, du Rand et al. (2003) argue that it is apparent that food tourism has considerable potential to enhance visitor experiences and to contribute to the branding and competitive marketing of destinations.

An analysis of the relevant tourism literature and the promotional material of various destinations indicate that the role of food in the marketing of destinations has until recently received very little attention globally and locally (du Rand et al. 2003). The reality regarding food tourism is that local food in the form of regional cuisine is rarely present as an important resource in publicity material and promotional messages prepared for mainstream tourism (Handsuzh 2000 cited in du Rand et al. 2003)). Beyond practical development, academia lacks studies which attempting at understanding the connections between food, destination images, and food products at destinations (Frochot 2003; Hall and Mitchell 2000).

China features a vast area, numerous ethnic groups, different climates and differentiated geographical environments. The different regions have developed different tastes in food: some preferred sour food while others might have a sweet tooth. There are mainly eight cuisines and they refer mainly to the Han nationality. These are: Shandong, Sichuan, Hunan, Guangdong, Fujian, Jiangsu, Zhejiang and Anhui cuisine. Apart from the Han, China also has 55 ethnic minority groups whose living and eating habits vary greatly. China also boasts all kinds of snacks favored by tourists from all over the world. Guangdong residents have the habit of drinking morning tea. Tea-drinkers enjoy various snacks with tea, such as Goose Sausage, Steamed Bread with Stewed Sweeten Pork Filling and Fish Fillet Porridge (CNTA 2007).

Therefore, it is clear that China has fruitful food tourism resources which can be used to support local economy. Despite the increasing recognition of the role of food in attracting visitors and the often-quoted synergy and complementary nature of the food and tourism sectors, there has been relatively little research specifically focusing on food tourism linkages, especially in the Chinese context. However, there are some exceptions. The linkage between Chinese tea and tourism has been recently researched by academia. Huang and Hall (2007) examine the nature and regional context of tea festivals developed in the central Chinese province of Hunan from the later 1990s. Xiao (2007) reviews Fujian’s tea culture and identifies the current state of tea tourism in this province of China in relation to tourism development, indicating ways in which the tea and tourism industries might work together towards sustainable development. Jolliffe and Zhuang (2007) highlight tea-related tourism in Fuding. By profiling a local tea company, insights are gained into the potential role of small tea enterprises in facilitating tea tourism and implementing related pro-poor tourism projects.
INTERNET MARKETING IN TOURISM

Due to its dependence on visual representation and its intangible, heterogeneous nature, travel is thought to be very suitable for sale on the Web (O’Connor 2004). The Internet has had a profound impact on the travel industry around the world. Websites designed by tourism and hospitality industry have attracted much attention from relevant academics. Numerous studies regarding website evaluation have been conducted (e.g. Bender 1997; Morrison et al. 1999; So and Morrison 2004; Kim et al. 2002; Beldona and Cai 2006, etc.).

In March 2001, CNTA conducted a survey of Information Communication Technology (ICT) adoption rate among provincial and municipal tourism boards in China. According to its survey, the average IT adoption level is very low, both in terms of computer facilitation, trained personnel and communication infrastructure used. CNTA also realised that the Internet involvement of the Chinese tourism industry has proved to be a failure since many Chinese tourism companies had little idea of what e-business really is when they rushed to jump on the bandwagon, failing to reap real benefit from the Internet involvement (cited in Ma et al. 2003). Ma et al (2003) argue that the CNTA should play a role of promoter and organiser in e-business by providing certain guidance and assistance for enterprises.

A literature review indicates that critical to the success of a website is the stickiness built into the website. Stickiness according to Beddoe (1999) (cited in Beldona and Cai 2006) refers to a site’s ability to retain users and drive them further into a site. Gillespie et al. (1999) (cited in Beldona and Cai 2006) framework identifies these three key drivers of stickiness: (1) Content (2) Interactivity (3) Promotional Value. Parameters within each stickiness driver were developed by drawing from destination-marketing theory and empirical literature.

Based on the above review of available literature, the aim of this preliminary study is to assess how CNTA and its regional tourism administrations market their destinations through food tourism in the Internet. In order to achieve this aim, the following three research objectives are established: (1) to determine the current status of food as an attraction in their Internet marketing; (2) to evaluate the effectiveness of their websites, and (3) to develop guidelines for future strategy regarding to food tourism in their Internet marketing.

METHODOLOGY

In order to achieve the above research objectives, an extensive content analysis of the websites created by Chinese regional tourism administrations regarding to food tourism is undertaken. China’s administrative units are currently based on a three-level system dividing the nation into provinces, counties, and townships. At present, China was divided into 23 provinces, five autonomous regions, four municipalities directly under the Central Government, and two special administrative regions (CNTA 2007). Due to different rules adopted in special administrative regions, they are excluded in this research. Therefore, in total 32 websites are investigated.

Three key drivers of stickiness (content, interactivity and promotional values) which adopted by Beldona and Cai (2006) are investigated. However, in order to understand the status of food tourism in CRTAs’ websites, forms of food tourism are added to the content aspect. Therefore, 15 parameters are investigated (seven parameters in ‘content aspect’, five parameters in ‘interactivity aspect’ and three parameters in ‘promotional values aspect’). In order to increase the objectivity of the content analysis, the above three aspects are measured by a ‘yes/no’ approach with ‘yes’ indicating that the attribute is present and ‘no’ that the attribute is not present. The results for these three aspects are then weighted and scaled so that each final score is a percentage with the highest possible score being 100%.

It is considered to be important to non-English speaking people to use the website that has a bi-lingual capability such as English and Chinese. To address the language issue, two evaluators were employed to access 32 websites in August 2007. The evaluators were assigned to particular parts of the websites. As such, evaluator 1 assessed the English web pages, evaluator 2 assessed the Chinese web pages.

RESULTS

As illustrated in Table 1, one of the most striking observations discovered in this study is that a high percentage of Chinese regional tourism administrations (CRTAs) websites have bi-language capability (20 out of 31). Bi-language capability means that a website has an English version for English-speaking customers and one other language capability (e.g. Chinese).

Other language (such as Japanese, Korean, Dutch) version is also provided by some CRTAs. For China, tourism is an important industry in earning foreign exchange. In recent years China’s major inbound tourism markets have been Japan, Russia, the USA, Korea (CNTA 2007). While 64% of CRTAs have English versions, only 32% of them provide Japanese versions, even fewer provided Korean version. None of CRTAs has offered a Russian version for their
websites. Hence, it is imperative for CRTAs to develop multi-language websites to gain more international tourists from major inbound tourist markets. Furthermore, appearances and functions are not the same across different language pages. In their Chinese webpage, CRTAs tend to include information regarding to tourism policy, tourism resources, accommodation and transportation in their own region. Marketing function is only one of the functions (administration, research, etc) that CRTAs have used their websites for. However, in their foreign language webpage, CRTAs have used their webpage solely for providing information on their tourism resources. In terms of these differences between foreign language version and Chinese version, in order to solve this problem, Feng et al., (2004) suggestions (linking to an automatic translation website or forming a partnership in providing foreign language versions) are deserved to consider.

Table 1. Website language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of language offers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese only</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bi-languages (Chinese, English)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tri-languages (Chinese, English, Japanese)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qua-languages (Chinese, English, Japanese, Korean)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CURRENT ROLE of FOOD in CHINESE REGIONAL TOURISM PROMOTION**

The traditional way that food experiences are offered in different Chinese regions is reflected by the promotion of restaurants (see Table 2). This form of food experience occurs more easily as food has to be provided to tourists. The result appears to be similar to the findings presented by du Rand et al (2003) when they research the role of local and regional food in South Africa tourism marketing.

Although high percentage (90%) in promoting locally/regionally produced food deserves recognition, fewer CRTAs (9 out of 31) pay attention to provide valuable information on where to buy these food products. When the evaluators research CRTAs’ websites, it is clear that CRTAs have emphasised shopping aspect of tourist experience. But it is a pity they have not yet fully understood the role of locally/regionally food in tourist shopping. A plausible reason for this is that shopping information regarding to local food is unnecessary as tourists could easily find local food from local food markets or supermarkets.

However, by providing information for shopping different fruits in different seasons and local special snacks in different shops might avoid tourists’ disappointment.

Table 2. The current role of food in tourism promotion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Specialty restaurants/eating places</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locally/regionally produced food</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Special cuisine/food routes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food festival/events</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping information on local food</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Events calendar including food-related events</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food tour information</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only 32% of CRTAs (10 out of 31) have seriously used their local food in their tourism promotion by organising food festivals. Very little information is provided with regards to the culinary heritage or the authentic food tourism experience of the regions. Very few CRTAs have designed food routes (19%) and even fewer provided any tour relating to local food. Possible reasons for this could be lack of knowledge of local food or costly to involve additional effort, organisation and promotional activities as food festivals require or coordination as food routes demand.

From Table 2, it is apparent that food tourism lies strongly in the presence of specialty restaurants local food in their areas. This is in accordance with expectations as this is the traditional way of showcasing the food of a region and offering the tourists a cultural experience. In other words, local food has been used as a marketing tool in promoting Chinese regions but it is primarily as supportive attractions to tourists. Hence CRTAs might promote the local food of their regions with potential and move it from being a supportive attraction to enhancing it in becoming a key attraction.

**EFFECTIVENESS OF CRTAS’ WEBSITES**

The average total score for all websites was 6.80 over a total possible score of 15. Table 3 illustrates the achieved score for each driver of stickiness against the maximum possible score. Table 4 lists the top scorers for their website stickiness.
Effectiveness of three stickiness drivers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regions</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guangdong</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tianjin</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jiangsu</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunan</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhejiang</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ningxia</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xinjiang</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most websites score high on Interactivity, the average score is 3.20 over a possible 5. In terms of Interactivity, most of them provided site membership, site research and service evaluation. This is an encouraging result as Bender (1997) argues that interactivity is recognised as a unique advantage of online marketing and search function and feedback are essential in realising the interactivity of the internet. But only 7 CRTAs add a trip planning tool and even fewer (4 out of 31) provided online booking function. A possible reason for this is the current banking system in China has not been able effectively to support online transactions. But it still has advantage in providing economic, active and convenient information.

As for Content, the average score is 3.61 over a possible 7. The most striking finding is in Promotional value, none of the CRTAs has paid any attention to this aspect. Many researchers (e.g. Berman 2006; Duffy 2005 etc) argue that relationship marketing is crucial for surviving in competitive business environment. It can be implemented by developing databases throw newsletters, or e-cards. Therefore, urgent action is needed to make CRTAs’ websites an effective customer relationship marketing tool.

CONCLUSION

It is clear that food does play a role in tourism, and however is primarily considered as a supportive attraction, to a lesser extent, a key attraction in China.

Given the importance of food and dining out in tourist experience and also sheer economic contribution, CRTAs need more aggressive marketing for their local food. Some strategies for future online food tourism might be considered: (a) an attractive/unknown cuisine can be regarded as a resource of a region and needs to be developed as a region branding item. (b) Gastronomy routes can promote a region and can contribute to sustainable tourism projects (c) Specialty restaurants can be developed to assist with the promotion of the special cuisine of a region. However, care must be taken in explaining the results of this study as this study only observed CRTAs for a short period of time and also used one assessment framework. Therefore it would be interesting to compare with potential results by other assessment framework (such as Balanced Scorecard approach).

REFERENCES


Sustainable Tourism Development in Iran

Roxana FAGHRİ
International Office
University of Isfahan, Iran
E-mail: roxana.faghrir@gmail.com

ABSTRACT
This study deals basically with the concept of sustainability in tourism industry of Iran and what makes tourism development sustainable in Iran. Considering Iran's sociocultural, political, religious and environmental factors then related issues, challenges and opportunities are discussed. This study concludes that public-private partnership is a crucial element in sustaining tourism development in Iran and when Iran adapts a sustainable tourism philosophy, aim to conserve and preserve natural and built resources base; respect and protect local culture; optimize visitor satisfaction; satisfy demands of the industry; provide improved living standards and quality of life for residents (all of the groups that can affect or are affected by tourism development should be concerned).

Key words: Sustainable development, resources, policy-making, integrated planning, public-private partnership.

INTRODUCTION
In recent years tourism has known as a profitable and entrepreneurial industry which can have a great role in foreign exchange balance of countries. But tourism has not found its real place in Iran. Iran has a suitable geographical situation and natural endowments (e.g. Iran has 12 out of 17 kinds of climate) and 11 thousand registered historical buildings. Although Iran is in the list of 10 superior countries of the world from view point of tourist attractions, but the share of Iran from income of tourism industry in the world, is just 0.04% (Jam 2006, November 28. Tourism, a Disturbed Industry. Hamshahry) 7

As Iran can not depend on its oil resources forever and because of economic situation of Iran, it seems that tourism development in Iran is not a choice anymore but it is a vital and urgent matter. Tourism development can be an important vehicle for economic, social and peace development in Iran and because of the increasing negative political propagandas against Iran, tourism can be used as a mean to offset them. It will increase foreign exchange earnings of Iran, create employment, promote development in various parts of the country, reduce income and employment disparities, strengthen linkages among many sectors of the national economy and help to alleviate poverty.

But tourism also brings with it problems and dangers; tourist travel and tourist facilities place a strain on natural resources and environment; in many of the countries visited, the over-use of natural resources often results in loss of biological diversity; social and cultural structures may suffer from encounter with outside values and modes of behavior; the traditional life-styles of indigenous people adapted to ecological conditions gradually disappear. It is necessary to pay attention to religious factor in Iran. As Iran is an Islamic country which is very sensitive to observance of Islamic rules, there are some limitations in tourism development from this respect. So it is very important to develop tourism in Iran selectively, sensitively and gradually. For this purpose, we should bring the concept of sustainability to tourism industry of Iran.

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN IRAN
There are four pillars of sustainable tourism as Ritchie (2003) described and if true sustainability is to be achieved in Iran, appropriate policy and management solutions must be found for each of them. These 4 pillars are: 1) The ecological (environmental) sustainability 2) The economic sustainability 3) Socio-cultural sustainability 4) Political sustainability. The goals of sustainable tourism in Iran are to develop greater awareness and understanding of the significant contributions that tourism can make to the environment, the economy and the politics of Iran; to improve the quality of life of the community of Iran; to provide a high quality of experience for the visitor; and to maintain the quality of the environment on which the foregoing objectives depend.

Generally much of concern for sustainability, as related to tourism has focused on environmental aspects. Since, travel and tourism has perhaps the most powerful incentive to secure a clean and healthy environment. But every destination must maintain all dimensions of tourism sustainability (environmental, economic, social, cultural and political) if it is to develop and preserve true competitiveness. As Goeldner and Ritchie (2006) describe, the competitiveness of a destination refers to its ability to compete effectively and profitably in the tourism marketplace. So sustainability can pertain to the ability of Iran to maintain the quality of its physical, social, cultural and environmental resources while it competes in the marketplace. For example, it is important to remember that the end product of tourism is a satisfied customer. All of the
pieces of tourism destination are but the means to that end. It is true that tourism has significant economic benefits for Iran, but the continued success of tourism in Iran depends upon the level and sustainability of visitor satisfaction.

**SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT**

The construct of “sustainable tourism” will consequently be followed by “sustainable development”. Tourism and its role in sustainable development is currently the subject of much concern. As Ritchie and Crouch (2003) argues, because of the expected continuing growth of tourism and its pressure on the world’s resources, sustainable development is the approach that will be needed and it is the only sensible approach.

Sustainable tourism development as defined by The World Tourism Organization (1998) “is development that meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social, and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems”. Also sustainable tourism development is development that has been carefully planned and managed.

**THE ISSUES**

In order to sustain tourism in Iran, it is necessary to address various issues arising from tourism’s contribution to development in a comprehensive, systematic way. Issues of policy-making, planning, management and the participation of the private sector and other stakeholders can be named that need to be overcome by concerted efforts.

The first issue involves tourism policy-making in both its substantive and procedural aspects. Iran’s tourism policy should provide the most explicit statement of the government’s approach to sustainable tourism development and the roles that all stakeholders in the tourism sector are expected to take. In order for policy-making to be effective, government policy-makers and stakeholders need reliable information and timely data of good quality to enable better understanding of tourism’s complex and long-term interactions with the rest of the economy. The effectiveness of tourism policy-making will clearly be influenced by the availability of resources.

Sustainable tourism development in Iran requires guidelines for levels and types of acceptable growth. So Iran’s sustainable tourism development must be given policy definition and direction for each region, and locality where it is to occur. This must be done in according to environmental, social and economic conditions and requirements that exist there. In a complex world of many jurisdictions, it is important to identify the geographical area to which a tourism policy applies. There are many types and levels of tourism destinations in Iran, for which policy should be developed to suit the nature of the destination. Because for example policies for sustainability in mountainous region (e.g. a mountain resort in Dizin) will be different from seaside region (e.g. a beach resort in Kish Island) or a cultural heritage site (e.g. Persepolis in Shiraz). As a result, the objective of sustainability set forth the overall parameters for the type of policies to be followed and provide a guide for formulating the policies.

The second issue relates to planning in terms of its policy and operational elements as part of a process for deciding objectives, priorities and means for achieving objectives. As Manning (1998) explain, tourism can not be planned or managed in isolation (plan destinations, not tourism). Sustainable tourism development in Iran can be achieved in a comprehensive way through the use of a tourism master plan as well as integrated tourism planning. As Inskeep (1991) pointed out, in order to optimize the benefits of tourism and prevent or at least mitigate any problems that might be generated, good planning and careful management of tourism are essential. Therefore Iran should achieve a planning solution which ensures that the special identity of the country is maintained.

The third issue concerns management and leadership for sustainable tourism development, which involves leading, coordinating and controlling actions to mobilize resources in order to formulate and implement tourism policies and plans. This also involves administrative issues about the structure, functions and responsibilities of the national tourism organization. At a more general level, management issues involve working arrangements between the government and other tourism stakeholders, coherent intersectoral coordination, promotion of broader participation and arrangements to facilitate spreading the benefits of tourism more widely. Also managers should effectively identify limits, opportunities and impacts. Beside traditional economic/business management skills, for having sustainable tourism development, other management capabilities such as waste management, water and air quality management, visitor management, wildlife management and … are necessary.

The fourth issue focuses on participation of the private sector as a major stakeholder providing tourism services. Private sector in Iran mostly does not
feel safe to invest in tourism because of the economic situation of the country. This involves questions about how to attract greater private sector participation that is appropriate for sustainable tourism development as well as how to encourage public and private sector partnerships. Government policies and plans would need to focus on creation of a conductive business environment, formulation of an adequate legislative framework and strengthened governmental capacities to work with the private sector to make sustainable tourism development the top priority. Also government should provide the private sector some kind of guarantee to encourage them to invest.

The fifth issue is carrying capacity. Carrying capacity can be useful because it draws attention to limits and thresholds beyond which a destination should not be developed. In this context, harmony is required between the needs of the visitor, the place and the community in order to promote appropriate uses and activities. The scale and type of tourism facilities must reflect limits of acceptable use. In Iran guidelines are needed for tourism operations and also impact assessments are required. It is notable that the community heritage and natural resources must be maintained and enhanced using internationally acceptable criteria and standards. Therefore using assessment of carrying capacity, finding the limits of acceptable change and doing cost/benefit analysis are necessary.

CHALLENGES

As it is declared in Managing Sustainable Tourism Development, ESCAP REVIEW No.22 (2001), we should keep in mind certain realistic truths about tourism such as: it consumes resources, creates waste and requires certain kinds of infrastructure; it creates conditions for possible over-consumption of resources; it is dominated by private investment with priority on maximizing profits; its multi-faceted nature makes control difficult; and it may be seen as simply entertainment services consumed by tourists. The challenge of sustainable tourism development, therefore, is to balance the principles with these truths, and this can be done only through integrated, cooperative approaches involving all stakeholders and related economic activities in the area. The followings are some challenges that we face in tourism industry of Iran:

Challenges for Human Resources

In Iran, it has been recognized that the need to develop the required human resources in various segments of the tourism industry has become imperative and vital for sustainability. Cooperation at the regional level for example with successful countries like Turkey and Dubai, in tourism education and training also can help overcome a number of problems.

Challenges for Effective Environmental Management

While the viability of tourism in Iran could be threatened by negative environmental impacts, tourism could also contribute significantly to environmental protection. By the way the complex relationship between development and its impact on the environment creates problems for the effective environmental management of tourism development. Effective planning and coordination, as well as efficient enforcement of legislation can help address the problems. Efforts at environmental management in Iran should include coordinating strategies at all levels and among many sectors; making appropriate use of resources; and creating greater awareness of environmental consequences. Problems with legislation relate to enforcement of laws, the need for human resources to monitor and enforce and the need for stakeholders to understand the long-term benefits for sustainability if they comply with environmental laws and policies.

Challenges for Infrastructure Development and Investment

The relationship between infrastructure development and tourism development is clear. Integrated planning and the use of master plans can help overcome many constraints. Infrastructure requirements for the tourism sector should be properly integrated with the full range of a country’s infrastructure development and investment requirements. Banks and other development financing institutions in Iran should extend full assistance to tourism infrastructure development.

Challenges for Facilitation of Travel

The tourism paradigm that focuses on tourists’ needs and wants has undergone a major change that gives attention to security, sanitation and satisfaction. This has had a strong effect on Iran’s tourism industry, in addition to the effects of greater global interdependence and regional integration, which have created a rapidly changing global tourism market. For Iran, facilitation of travel involves attention to any impediments and obstacles that affect the flow of international tourists and the growth of tourism. A wide range of travel facilitation problems can impede sustainable tourism development. These problems can include, among others: (1) lack of accessibility; (2) inefficient policies and procedures for visas, customs and currency; (3) possible threats to the health and safety of tourists; (4) lack of information services for tourists; and (5) negative image.
Challenges for Enhancing Cooperation and Participation

The main general point to keep in mind is that sustainable tourism development can be achieved only through teamwork and collaboration with a focus on the goal of prosperity for the whole country.

The highly interdependent, multidisciplinary, multi-sector, and political nature of tourism, require close cooperation, coordination and shared responsibility among government and all stakeholders. While there are a set of principles and practices to help guide tourism development, stakeholders still face a number of challenges. Among the challenges are the following: Getting the private sector actively involved in the process of conserving and developing cultural heritage sites; obtaining the funds needed to develop products and getting the government to serve as a joint venture partner where appropriate; ensuring that tourism strategies and plans are integrated and linked to broader development plans, especially at the community level; encouraging local businesses, tourism operators and other stakeholders to cooperate; requiring impact assessments, including monitoring and indicators, where tourism development involves natural and heritage resources; making interpretation an essential part of the development process; and finding creative financing appropriate to developing tourism industry of Iran, where financial resources might be limited.

Maintaining close cooperation and coordination among institutions and groups that are public, private, NGO and other community representatives is essential for tourism development to incorporate shared objectives. It is important to keep in mind that public-private partnerships (PPP) can combine the public sector goal of development and the private sector goal of profitability.

In this context, attention to and involving host community (e.g. local people), is so vital for tourism industry of Iran. The general public in the local area must be educated about tourism development plans and programmes, current tourism events, benefits from tourism and how to cope with tourists of different backgrounds. Raising community awareness about environmental protection of nature areas, conservation of archaeological and historic sites, maintaining traditional arts and crafts, and improving environmental quality are issues that need public attention. Public education through tourism awareness programmes should be part of the tourism development plan and programme in Iran. Basic techniques which can be used are radio broadcasts, television programmes on tourism, newspaper articles and publications about tourism concepts, events and development projects, posters, brochures, booklets and infrastructure on tourism in the school system of Iran. As Xavier Font proposed in the third edition of Global Tourism, certification, as a voluntary mechanism to show high standards of performance, can be a valid instrument to gather local stakeholders around the common purpose of defining standards to make local tourism sustainable.

Challenges for Maintenance the Socio-cultural Fabric

For having sustainable tourism development in Iran, it is crucial that never underestimate the local socio-political and cultural context. Iran as a Muslim country has strict codes of social contact and some traditional & religious prohibitions that should be respected. To this end, tourists should be informed about local customs, dress codes, acceptable social behavior, how to conduct themselves in religious and sacred places, etc. Environmental conservation policies and rules may be included with this information. Information can be in the form of a tourist behavior code.

Challenges for Marketing

In Iran, the wealth of historical and cultural monuments, the vibrant and diverse cultures and ethnic groups and the spectacular geographic variety already create great tourism attractions. But because of lack of effective marketing strategies, they were not well introduced to international markets. Marketing for sustainable tourism must provide for a high quality tourist experience and it should focus on the shared goals of increasing tourism revenue by attracting more visitors to stay longer and spend more. It could be best to have a marketing strategy that focuses on a small number of carefully selected target markets and targets appropriate travel writers and journalists to create a positive image.

OPPORTUNITIES

There are usually a variety of views about the forms of tourism in any particular area. Differences may need to be resolved, making it important to consider all values and opinions, relations among groups and what role they can play in tourism development. Iran’s strength as a tourist destination is that it is unspoiled and not overdeveloped, especially in terms of the natural environment and the unique and rich culture and its heritage. This makes the country a strong tourism product that is relatively easy to sell. Here are some opportunities that Iran has for sustainable tourism development:
Development of Ecotourism

The beaches, mountains, rivers, forests, deserts and diverse flora and fauna of Iran make the environment a basic resource that the tourism industry needs in order to thrive and grow. In many countries, including Iran, ecotourism can fulfill the need to view the environment and cultural heritage as resources to safeguard for future generation.

Development of Cultural Tourism

In Iran there may be sites of cultural and historical significance that are so unique that they create their own demand, such as the Perspolis in Shiraz or Naghshe Jahan Square in Isfahan. But in the process of sharing and experiencing the culture and heritage of a country such as Iran, it is not enough. As cultural tourists are mostly well-educated tourists that travel not merely for leisure and have goals of experiencing different cultures, they are, somehow, one of the most compatible and suitable kids of tourists for Iran. So, Iran should promote all of its cultural and heritage tourist’s attractions and also try to add them.

Using Integrated Tourism Planning

The main point to keep in mind is the inter-relationship of sustainability, planning, development and tourism. Integrated planning is one of several management approaches used to address the increasing complexity. Iran can perform tourism programmes (e.g., tour packages) joint with some successful countries in the region. As the history of Iran is connected to the history of other countries in the region and even some of them had been part of Iran, it will be interesting for tourists who come to the region to experience different countries and ...

CONCLUSION

The tourism industry of Iran needs to identify an action agenda and allocate responsibility for its implementation so that we can move toward the goal of a truly sustainable tourism system. Tourism development is a collaborative exercise, which involves investment in human resources, technology, infrastructure and superstructures, improvement of systems and procedures, proper development and maintenance, law enforcement by industry, in order to promote a tourist destination for sustained investment. Broad participation of all relevant stakeholders from the national to the community level in the process of tourism development planning and implementation is a major recommendation for addressing many issues related to sustainable tourism development. Sustainable tourism development should also be responsive to rapid changes and new demands in the international tourist market. By the way, the strength of the community was the basis for creating amenities that tourists seek and establishing practices to preserve those amenities for the future, thus sustaining community-based tourism for many years. The objectives for tourism development must be set in a context and contribute positively to the achievement of the broad economic, social, cultural and environmental objectives of the nation and country. In fact tourism is not an end for Iran but a means to an end.

REFERENCES

Emergence of a Creative City: Antalya a Film-induced Tourism Centre

S. Bahar DURMAZ  
City and Regional Planning  
Izmir Institute of Technology, Turkey  
E-mail: bahardurmaz@iyte.edu.tr

Koray VELIBEYOĞLU  
City and Regional Planning  
Izmir Institute of Technology, Turkey  
E-mail: korvelibeyoglu@iyte.edu.tr

Tan YİĞİTCANLAR  
School of Urban Development  
Queensland University of Technology, Australia  
E-mail: tan.yigitcanlar@qut.edu.au

ABSTRACT

In the age of competitiveness, the new rising trend of attracting creative human capital has become a novel approach to draw global financial capital into cities. It is essential for a city to incubate creativity to ensure economic growth, urban development, and socio-cultural and psychological wellbeing of its residents. In this context, Antalya, Turkey could become a creative city particularly by specialising on the film industry. Its natural and constructed assets and amenities along with its openness to creativity contribute to the development of Antalya as a film-induced tourism centre. This paper discusses creative city, its relation with film industry, and the effects of these two on tourism development. The methodology of the paper includes exploring global creative city examples, and major film industry developments, considering the strong relation between them. The paper also investigates Antalya’s creative city formation, and its potential to become an emerging film-induced tourism centre.

Keywords: Creative cities, film industry, place branding, film-induced tourism, Antalya.

INTRODUCTION

During the 19th and 20th centuries economic structure of many developed nation cities were transformed from agricultural-based to industrial-based economies, and in the last two decades industrial-based economies have started to be transformed into knowledge-based economies (Baum et al. 2007; Yigitcanlar et al. 2008a). In knowledge economy the demand for ‘human capital’ as the engine of economic and social growth becomes as important as ‘global financial capital’. Florida (2002) introduces the concept of ‘creative capital’ replacing the human capital theory. The creative capital theory concerns the particular group of people named as ‘creative class’ (e.g. occupations in architecture, arts, design, and media) as the source of the creative capital (Florida 2002). Due to the ‘new economy’, ‘creativity’ concept gains increased prominence amongst urban planners and policy makers, and is used in spatial planning with the influence of scholars promoting creativity (i.e. Landry). Besides, the creative class thesis influences the development strategies of cities, and lures the attention towards creative industries and creative cities as the significant tools of economic and social growth (Landry 2000).

Film industry, one of the major sectors of creative industries, shapes the economic development of cities, and contributes to their tourism development. Creativity fosters being distinctive, and contributes tourism providing the reputation of that city. The success of all, creative city, film industry and tourism, depends on a well designed place branding strategy and place quality, along the overall success of the filming companies. The main focus of this paper clusters around the effects of creative city, film industry, and tourism on economic and social growth of a city. This paper questions whether a successful specialisation on the film industry transforms a city into a creative one. The paper scrutinises global examples on the base of the subjects they choose to specialise, and the potentials and grounds of the city for the first stimulus of being a creative city. In the light of these theoretical debates, it discusses potentials of Antalya, Turkey to become a creative city focusing on the film industry, where this also has a positive effect on Antalya’s tourism sector development. Furthermore, place branding strategies, and place quality concepts are discussed in this paper as a vehicle for the making of a creative city with a positive effect on the film-induced tourism.

The paper is consisted of five sections. Following this introduction, second section introduces the current issues and trends relating to urban growth such as changing economic structure, creativity, creative class, and creative cities. The importance of place branding and place quality is also put forward in this section. Third section focuses on the film industry development, and scrutinises successful global examples questioning the effect of film industry on creative cities and tourism development. This section reveals tentative findings on the relationship between film industry and creative cities by asking whether specialisation in film industry helps in transforming a city into a creative one. Fourth section discusses Antalya’s potentials in becoming a film-induced tour-
ism centre, and the importance of the creative class for an emerging creative city. The paper concludes with some concluding remarks.

CREATIVE CITIES

In recent years the concept of creativity has come to the agenda of urban planning and development, and given birth to a number of new concepts. Creative city, creative class, creative capital, creative economy, creative industries, creative milieu, creative leadership, creative tourism are among the new concepts used extensively by scholars and led the development strategies of urban policy-makers. ‘Creativity’, basically the ability to produce new and original ideas and things, is defined as “any act, idea, or product that changes an existing domain, or that transforms an existing domain into a new one”; and a creative person is defined as “someone whose thoughts or actions changes a domain, or establishes a domain” (Csikszentmihaly, quoted by Kunzmann 2004:385). In Landry’s description creativity means the capacity to solve problems, and to create opportunities in different ways (Landry, 2004). He links the creativity concept with cities, and emphasises on ‘creativity and space’ by he saying “a creative milieu is a place – either a cluster of buildings, a part of a city; a city as a whole or a region – that contains the necessary preconditions in terms of ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ infrastructure to generate a flow of ideas and inventions” (Landry 2000:133).

The new structure of economy, based on knowledge generation and creativity, is the heart of economic and urban growth. In the knowledge economy the success of cities also depends on how creative they are (Landry 2004). As urban regions have become the localities of key knowledge precints and knowledge clusters across the globe, the link between a range of new technologies and the development of ‘creative urban regions’ has come to the fore (Yigitcanlar et al. 2008b). For that reason creativity have gained large attentiveness, and become one of the key concepts for city administrators and scholars who are in search of new ways in urban development to cope with technological changes and new emerging economic structures. As cities are increasingly playing a vital role in harnessing creativity for economic, urban, and social development, they are also in direction of creativity of its citizens in terms of leading significant changes in the structure of economy. According to Landry (2000) and Andrew and Spoehr (2007) creativity should be supported, and creative capacity should be captured and transformed into economic and social wealth for the development of a successful city and its competitive economy.

Florida puts forward another new concept for the creative group of individuals, the ‘creative class’ (Florida 2002). This new cluster of people is also the source of ‘creative capital’, which has become an essential asset for cities’ economic growth. Creative class is commercialised as creative capital being the driver of innovation in a changing economy, pioneering ideas, high-tech industry, and regional growth, which are fundamentally needed for further progress (Andrew and Spoehr 2007). This creative class theory has become so popular and discussed by many academics, implemented by city managers, and lead to new directions in economy. Florida (2002) estimates almost 40 million workers that constitute 30 percent of the US workforce are in the creative class, this figure is noticeably increased from 20 percent in 1980. He suggests his 3T concept of ‘tolerance, talent, and technology’ helps in forming conditions of a successful economy and place.

Atkinson and Easthope (2007:589) point the importance of creativity for the economy, stating that “developing creative abilities is of fundamental importance in meeting the challenges of economic development. Art can play a key role in the transition to a knowledge-based economy, and a culture of innovation, providing a social resource of intellectual capital and creativity”. Scholars such as Hall (2000) and Kunzmann (2004) are all emphasise the increased awareness to the notion art and business are joining forces in the new urban competitive economy.

‘Creative industries’ are the source of cultural products (Baum et al. 2008). These industries include various types of film/TV production, advertising, architecture, arts and crafts, new media, publishing, design, music, visual and performing arts, painting, sculpture, and activities such as movie, theatre, opera, and exhibitions. They provide various tools for being distinctive, and create competitive advantage in the globalising world where every place begins to look similar (Landry 2004). In parts of Europe (i.e. Germany and Britain) cultural industries are growing faster than other traditional industries (such as construction, chemical industries, steel production, coal mining or automobile industry) and ICT related industries. European cities such as Helsinky, Malmo, Copenhagen, and Barcelona are focusing on cultural industries, and developing projects on transforming large derelict industrial areas to creativity based universities, fine art and performing schools, knowledge precints, and urban technology parks (Kunzmann 2005). Similar policies are also implemented some of the capital cities in Australia (i.e. Adelaide, Brisbane, Darwin, Melbourne) (Andrew and Spoehr 2007; Atkinson and Easthope 2007).

KEY URBAN POLICY INSTRUMENTS FOR CREATIVE CITY FORMATION

As Hall stresses (2000) creative industries, creative people, culture of the spirit, aesthetic sense, and intellectual eminence are necessary to build a creative city.
Moreover, planning of a creative city involves creative people and planners/researchers, and open-minded and risk-taker developers (Kunzmann 2005). Developing creative industries as the main source of creativity is one of primary tasks for promoting a creative city. Most of the creative people work in creative sectors and live in creative cities, in other words it is the vibrant urban environment that incubates creativity. Again creative cities have the physical, social and economical attributes that forms ‘place quality’. Ideally, the economy of creative cities is based on creative industries, and creative workers (Landry 2000). Atkinson and Easthope (2007) summarises the key conditions for the formation of creative city by recapping the necessity of:

- High quality of life (including place quality).
- Highly educated and ethnically diverse population (creative class).
- Relevant capital accumulation (economic, human, and cultural) to attract and repel creative industries.

In the face of these requirements another important issue raises; how to succeed in operating creative city strategies. Atkinson and Easthope (2007) outline some of these tools focusing on arts, innovation, knowledge economy, place branding, strategies for managing growth, maintaining community diversity, and focusing on the strategies for supporting civic life alongside economic growth. Within this policy spectrum, ‘place branding’ deserves a good deal of attention in the promotion of successful creative cities.

PLACE BRANDING

Creative cities are the magnets of talented immigrants, and generators of wealth. As Florida (2002:292) remarks “wherever talent goes, innovation, creativity, and economic growth are sure to follow”. This statement draws attention to the importance of harnessing, attracting, retaining, and promoting the talent, and creative people as a competitiveness vehicle of creative cities (Yigitcanlar et al. 2007). In this regard, place branding strategies gains particular attention to pursue the competitive advantage providing the needs and desires of creative class. Landry (2000) and Florida (2002) claim that cities must compete with each other to attract and retain both investment and talent (i.e. creative people). Within the production process of places, place branding requires ‘image building’. A positive city image can offer a good international position for cities. Comprehensive branding strategy is fundamental to reinvent the identity, to rebuild or enhance the image of a city. A strong brand can: (Prophet 2006:4).

- Shift the perception of a place that may be suffering from a poor image among external and internal constituents.
- Create a common vision for the future of the community.
- Provide a consistent representation of the place.
- Enhance its local, regional, and global awareness and position.
- Discard unfavourable stereotypes associated with a place and make it more appealing.

Place branding is not only a logo or tagline of a city, but a process of developing strategies to succeed the long-term vision and objectives. Therefore, branding should be authentic to this place, and should indicate the sense of that particular place. It should trigger the potentials of that city, and strengthen the weakness of the city (Prophet 2006). Kunzmann (2004) argues that branding through culture and urban spectacles is an important vehicle for the creative development of cities. Similarly, urban spectacles like, film festivals, Olympic Games, concerts, and exhibitions are important in terms of attracting creative class, increasing the recognition of a city, and enhancing the activities of creative industries (Gotham 2005).

PLACE QUALITY

Place quality is another key urban policy instrument in the formation of a creative city. Place quality can be ensured by applying urban design principles, and place management strategies. Parfect and Power (1997:136) assert the three main arenas for achievement and implementation of place quality; “planning, development, and people” and adds that “the operation of planning policy and urban design underlines the factors of human power and the resolution of economic forces”. Place quality is generally considered important for urban competitiveness, and building a creative city. Increasing the quality of place is highly important both from the point of generating economic activity, and providing spatial, aesthetic, cultural, needs and psychological well being of people. Quality of place stimulates the creative process, and becomes the focus of the solution for attracting and retaining creative class. Creative people desire stylish built environment, urban diversity, mix of leisure and amenities, transport rich environment, public view/display, publicity, to display their body, and wants to see other’s as an art object. Creative people also want to travel easily, and participate in outdoor activities, urban spectacles, festivals, and sports activities (Baum et al. 2007).

Creative capital’s decision of location choice is different than the financial capital. The latter seeks for the place where it is most productive, and the crite-
ria are based on economic issues whereas the former focuses on the ability of places to attract and creative class. Creative capital deals with amenities, opportunities, community, social and family considerations. According to Florida (2002) an attractive and liveable place should content parks, bikeways, museums, art galleries, nightlife, diverse and tolerant population. He summarises the dimension of quality of place as: (Florida 2002:231-232)

- What is there: attributes of natural and constructed environment.
- Who is there: diverse kind of people emphasising the point that every people can live here that is tolerance.
- What is going on: vibrancy of street life-outdoor activities.

In this context, Kunzmann (2004) suggests that creativity is needed to maintain a balance between local identity and globalisation. The negative spatial and cultural consequences of globalisation (e.g. excessive consumption, unification of value systems, urban sprawl, and car dependency) should be dealt carefully. Kunzmann (2004) points out the necessity of balancing the local distinctiveness and global orientation.

**FILM INDUSTRY, TOURISM AND CREATIVE CITY: GLOBAL EXAMPLES**

Relatively recent and growing literature indicates that creative industries take important role in the rising creative economy (Baum et al. 2008). In this regard, film industry is a significant sector of creative industries, and an effective powerhouse of economic growth (Basset et al. 2002; Gasher 2002). Comprising various sub-sectors (e.g. photography, music and video industries, stagecraft, advertisement, motion picture, and video tape distribution), and large job opportunities, it increases economic vitality (Di Persio et al. 2003). The literature shows evidence that it positively affects tourism by increasing the recognition, which is important for building the image, promoting the place through films, and film festivals (Beeton 2005). Additionally by having the potential of being a magnet for creative class, it contributes to the formation of creative cities. During the last decades major film industries developed in the US, UK, Canada, India, New Zealand, Australia, and Germany. However, recently cities, rather than countries, are making reputation as the locations of film industry, for example Hollywood, and Bollywood-Bombay. There are other city-based initiatives such as Melbourne, Toronto, Vancouver, Berlin, and Auckland those purposefully focus on film industry and make it a significant catalyst of their creative economies (Basset et al. 2002; Gasher 2002; Croy 2004; Kratke 2004).

Canadian film industry is one of leading film and television production spot with a $4.4 billion industry, creating 46,000 full-time jobs annually. Canadian government promoted film-making as an opportunity to expand and diversify the provincial economy first in 1976, and developed strategic plans consisting of three phases – 1976-1986, 1986-1993, and 1993-2001 (Gasher 2002). State of British Columbia in Canada, mainly the city of Vancouver, occupies a distinctive place within this industry. According to a survey conducted on film industry in British Colombia, the success of the industry mainly depends on: the west coast film-making (with strong ties to Hollywood); the promotion and perception of movies by the provincial government; province’s natural assets, and variety of landscapes; and the success of luring the runaway productions from Hollywood with tax-credit programs as an inducement to both foreign and indigenous producers. On the other hand, the promotion of film industry is encouraged as a vehicle of attracting immigrants, capital investment, and tourists by the government (Gasher 2002). In July 2005 city managers initiated creative city taskforce, and developed strategic plans to establish Vancouver creative city (Creative City Taskforce 2008). Vancouver is now a worldwide recognition as a creative city, high degree of liveability ranking, and its success in both national and international competitiveness. In a recent international liveability survey, the city has acquired the third place (Mercer Human Resource Consulting 2007).

Similarly, cities in Australia like Brisbane, Sydney, Melbourne, Adelaides, and Hobart are also turning their economies focusing on creative industries (Atkinson and Easthope 2007). Governmental institutions in Australia are drawing attention to creativity and the creative industries especially on film industry. For example, the government aims to double the number of feature films produced in South Australia, and they aim increasing the number of people employed in creative industries by 20 percent by 2014. They also aim to increase the number of cultural institutions by 20 percent, and number of activities by 40 percent by 2014 (Andrew and Spoehr 2007).

**FILM INDUSTRY AND TOURISM**

The growth of the film industry has positive reflections on the tourism sector. Films increase the recognition of a place, and have a powerful effect on viewers on dictating their next vacation destination (Baker et al. 1998). Auckland, the entertainment city of New Zealand is a very good example. After the trilogy of ‘Lord of the Rings’ shot in Auckland, and is screened on cinemas, the recognition of city increased, and so does the number of tourist visited the city. Inspir-
ing from the recognition brought by the Lord of the Rings movie, the city focuses on strategies to specialise on film-induced tourism, and to attract more film makers to the country especially to Auckland. The natural amenities of the region, and high capacity of technical facilities for film production are promoted film production in Auckland (Croy 2004; New Zealand Government 2008). On the other hand, city of Auckland is among the cities developing strategies to become a creative city (Auckland City 2002). Districts of Hollywood, the US, and Bollywood, India are other good examples of film-induced tourism. Having large film studios and plateaus, these districts host large numbers of film production companies, artists, directors, and film makers. Moreover, these studios attract film-induced tourism development. Universal Film Studios in Hollywood, for example, is the popular destination of the tourists came to visit Los Angeles. Similarly, Bollywood in Mumbai and Ramoji, known as film cities, also attract tourists with the film studio tours.

**FILM INDUSTRY AND CREATIVE CITY**

There are worldwide examples of cities (i.e. Berlin, Vancouver, Auckland, and Austin), those are branded as creative cities, and having their film industry successfully developed. The question here is that whether the film industry is a major catalyst in becoming a creative city. Although the film industry alone can not lead a city to become a creative one, it is possible to argue that film industry has invaluable contributions in the formation of a creative city (Kratke 2004; Baum et al. 2007). For example, Austin, Texas, one of the well-known creative cities in the US, developed its film industry after becoming a creative city (Florida 2002). Specialisation in the music industry has provided Austin with the title of the ‘music capital of the world’, and the music industry of Austin supports the development of film industry. Although the film industry is not the primary resource of creative city formation for Austin, the sector now has become an important catalyst of attracting creative class in the city.

Besides its economies of scale, film industry also provides the diversity in the availability of talented people such as cast and crew, art and set directors, costume designer, director of photography, cinematography, sets, props, construction, scenic, costume, and the production designer (Hayward 2000). As aforementioned, the formation of creative class is the basis of moving towards a creative city (Landry 2000; Florida 2002). Film industry provides rich, vital and dynamic environment with various types of films such as commercial products, feature film, independent film, pornography, fan film, open content film, animation, short film, television programs, and web production (Hayward 2000). The film industry clusters other creative and cultural industries around itself, which constitutes a creative milieu.

Film making process consists of ensuing phases outlined as pre-production, production, post-production, distribution, and screening. Within the pre-production phase, location manager or unit manager from the film crew searches for the locations to shoot the film. Despite the major and most popular film production places such as Hollywood, Bollywood, film-makers are in search of alternative locations providing tax-credit programs with government incentives, cheaper budgets, low-cost production insurances, and local and transnational interaction. Besides, the integration of cultural and industrial forces, quality of natural and constructed amenities, accessibility, security, which are also the basic conditions of a creative city, have a positive effect on film makers’ location choice (Gasher 2002). For instance, Berlin and Cannes, known as the European capitals of talent and media, are destinations of most artists, bohemians, gays, and talented people. These cities are the centres of creative industries such as literature, publishing, film broadcasting, textile, theatre, dance, fashion, architecture and design (City of Berlin 2008). The film festivals, film studios, and art galleries attract the members of creative class to live and work in, and also contribute these cities’ economy (Kratke 2004). More than 300 films are shot around Berlin every year. Berlin is known as a creative hub for German film industry. Due to rich technical facilities for production and various film stages, Berlin also attracts international producers (Kratke 2004; City of Berlin 2008). Berlin and Cannes film festivals also provide an appeal to these cities.

**ANTALYA AS AN EMERGING CENTRE FOR FILM INDUSTRY**

Antalya, located in the South-Western coast of Anatolia with almost two million population, is specialised in tourism, agriculture, and trade as the major economic activities. The tourism sector in Antalya city and its surrounding region has experienced a significant boom since 1980s, which enabled Antalya to become the capital of tourism in Turkey. The city, also known as the ‘Pearl of Turkish Riviera’, has approximately half a million bed capacity licensed by the Ministry of Tourism and Culture (Antalya Metropolitan Municipality 2006).

**POTENTIALS FOR FILM INDUSTRY**

Antalya has rich natural and cultural assets that provides a good location option for film-makers. The city has rich variety of archaeological sites such as Aspendos and Side, historic buildings and districts such as Kaleici being the
most traditional symbol of Antalya city centre, monumental buildings, various waterfalls, natural parks, mountains and forests. Additionally the morphology of the city is enriched with ‘escarpment’ development at the shoreline (Antalya Metropolitan Municipality 2006). Antalya is suitable for shooting films with its diverse landscapes, mild climate with 300 days of sunshine with the right angle and brightness, and natural and constructed amenities. Many famous filmmakers and directors point out Antalya as a potential location to shoot and product films. The city offers different filming locations with its rocky deserts, caves, oasis palm groves, canyons, rivers, waterfalls, beach coastline, scenic roads especially with escarpments, historic-traditional settlements with a diverse urban life, fishing harbour, and diverse interiors with its historic monumental buildings, and mosques (Ministry of Culture and Tourism 2008). The city provides rich transportation facilities and global air connections to most of the cities worldwide. Recently the capacity of Antalya international airport is increased, and the construction of the second airport has been completed. A high-speed train project is on the agenda with an aim to decrease the travel time to other important national destinations, and enhance its cultural connections with economic and cultural capital of Istanbul (Arkitera Architecture Centre 2008).

Located at the Eastern Mediterranean coast, Antalya is in a close proximity to Middle Eastern cities such as Abu Dhabi, Beirut, Dubai, and Tel Aviv. There are international projects underway with Dubai interacting with major film companies (Warner), to built local versions of American film industry such as film academies (foreign campus of New York University), TV program studios, (MTV), and Hollywood Universal Studios (Guardian 2007). Antalya’s strategic location in the country provides advantages for being a movie hub. Particularly its proximity to Cappadocia and South-Eastern Anatolian picturesque landscapes, and architectural assets helps Antalya in being a popular national film location especially for national TV movies and films. The famous Cappadocia and South-Eastern Anatolian cities include Mardin and Goreme, listed in UNESCO’s world heritage list (UNESCO 2008). The new film industry investments have already started in Antalya. In 1999 Tekfen and American Golden Horn Film companies jointly built an international film studio in Antalya (Hurriyet 1998). A large number of films are shot in studios in Antalya including Arabian Nights in 2000, and G.O.R.A in 2004 (Antalya Film Studios 2008). Antalya ‘Golden Orange Film Festival’ also plays a key role in promoting the film industry within the city.

Antalya develops ‘city vision project’ with the participation of city’s major stakeholders: Antalya Metropolitan Municipality, district municipalities, Chamber of Commerce, and Chamber of Industry. These local actors emphasize the need for a brand for Antalya to make it a well known global city (Antalya Metropolitan Municipality 2008). The City Mayor Menderes Turel is very ambitious in making Antalya a ‘world city’ through branding it as a ‘tourism city’ (Ulueren 2007). Mayor’s enthusiasm and leadership affects City governorship, City Council, Chamber of Trades, and other stakeholders. The Golden Orange Film Festival and other film industry potentials of Antalya are being used as instruments of city branding strategies.

**POTENTIALS FOR CREATIVE CLASS**

The importance of creative class for the formation of a creative city is evident (Florida 2002). Antalya provides rich opportunities to attract and retain talented people with its natural and constructed amenities. Internationally-acclaimed marina, old town with traditional architecture, international boutique hotels, suits well with the experimental lifestyle of the creative class. Moreover the city presents a lively nightlife with various night clubs and entertainment centres. It should also be noted that the city’s tolerance is high for gay and lesbians. For example, there are hotels in Antalya and Kas open to gay-lesbian accommodation with its gay-lesbian workers (Hurriyet 2008). Antalya plays a major role in many national and international events (Golden Orange Film Festival, Eurasia International Film Festival, Aspendos Opera and Ballet Festival, Antalya Piano Festival, Antalya International Sand Sculpture Festival – Lara Sand City, Side International Art and Culture Festival). The city also hosts a great number of sports activities such as Alanya International Beach Volleyball, Alanya Triathlon Premium European Cup, golf tournaments, tennis and kayak competitions, archery, tennis, skiing contests. The city is preparing to host Turkish leg of World Rally Championship in 2008, and World Basketball Championship in 2010. There are also educational facilities related to creative industries in the city such as Akdeniz University Fine Arts Faculty, and Serik Vocational School in Serik town giving education on film-making, movie and TV programs. The city provides growing job opportunities for creative class at Antalya Technopolis, and various fairs and congress (Akdeniz University 2006; Antalya Fair Management 2008). Finally the city is in close relationship with other creative cities such as Austin as one of the eight sister-cities of Antalya. The mayor of both cities made a committed on 2006 and currently
developing joint projects to foster their relationship (Antalya Metropolitan Municipality 2006).

CONCLUSIONS

This paper focuses on the film industry as a vehicle of supporting tourism development and creative city formation, and questions the relationship among them. The paper discusses the benefits of moving towards a creative city, and specialising on the film-induced tourism development in Antalya. The preliminary findings of this research suggest a correlation between these three. Although, further research is needed to confirm this correlation, some of the insights of that research are discussed below.

Antalya’s economic and urban development can be based on a strong presence of creative industries in the city. Antalya has a rich potential to become an attractive place for creative industries, and develop into a creative city. For Antalya to be able to specialise successfully in the film industry, a well designed place branding strategy, which will increase the recognition of the city, is needed. On the other hand, place quality is also important as an inducement of attracting film industries, and creative class to live and work in the city. The city should be defined with a brand consistent of its historical values/characteristics, geographical properties, and socio-economic realities. Antalya also should develop its global connections by taking active roles in creative city networks. As for tourism it is not enough to brand it just with a vague label of a ‘world city’. Antalya should choose powerful sub-themes to emphasise its brand, and specialise on one (i.e. film-induced tourism centre), as the specialisation advances the recognition and the tourism revenues increases accordingly.

As observed from the cases of Vancouver and Auckland, these cities developed their creative city strategies based on different catalysts. Vancouver used the potential of being close to Hollywood, and the generous government support. Auckland used the popularity of the movie ‘Lord of the Rings’ and the potential of its natural assets. Antalya might use the recognition of its film festival, its natural potentials, and also location advantages as the catalyst of attracting film industry. Film industry need to be encouraged by government incentives, and the support of the movie and film associations. The lack of city marketing perspectives results in a variety of interconnected problems such as loosing the local identity, or authenticity of place, which are harmful to repel so-called creative class. There should be organising principles to steer policy making efforts to enhance or reinvent urban identity. The strategies for Antalya should be questioned to make it unique, attractive, and valued for business, consumers, residents, and visitors. Implementation of the branding process as the part of Antalya’s ongoing development process should be clearly identified. And the role of stakeholders, and policy makers in realising the brand strategy should be clearly defined.

Although competitiveness gains a great importance for global cities, policy makers of Antalya need to keep in mind that Antalya is also competing with itself. As Landry (2004) says it is good to be aware of what others are doing, however developing strategies depending on benchmarking may stop innovativeness. To be able to unique, and give distinctive responses to problems, require ‘critical thinking’ in a different way rather than letting the global transformations/market forces control the urban development. With a critical thinking Antalya also needs to developed policies to turn brain drain, one of significant problems of Turkey, into brain gain.

REFERENCES


Potentials of Hunting Tourism in Kastamonu, Turkey

Sabri UNAL
Faculty of Forestry
Kastamonu University, Turkey
E-mail: snsunal@gazi.edu.tr

Sevgi OZTÜRK
Faculty of Forestry
Kastamonu University, Turkey
E-mail: Sevgiotsurkt37@gmail.com

Aysel KALAYCI
Faculty of Forestry
Kastamonu University, Turkey
E-mail: ayselkalayci@hotmail.com

Cihan CILBIRCIOGLU
Faculty of Agriculture
Ankara University, Turkey

ABSTRACT

Hunting tourism has become a factor that obtains the ecological balance, protects the game animals from being destroyed and enables a significant contribution to the economies of many countries. But the hunting tourism in our country has not reached to deserved level yet. The city of Kastamonu has an adequate location for land hunting due to its topography plantation and wildlife. There are four hunting grounds of Kastamonu named Sopençoğlu, Canderoglu, Düzdag, and Belovacik Sample Hunting Grounds. In this study, hunting potential of Kastamonu and affairs of it has been tried to determine. Within this scope; hunting grounds existing in Kastamonu, the species of the game animals, the principles of hunting and the income gained from hunting tourism by Ministry of Environment and Forestry and village legal entity has been determined. Information has been gathered about the attitude of the local community to hunting tourism.

Key words: Kastamonu, hunting tourism, ecological balance, national economy.

INTRODUCTION

Hunting tourism is composed of the activities that aims to present the resources of the hunting and wildlife to native and foreign hunters under control and to enable these activities to contribute the national economy by evaluating these resources in terms of recreational and touristic (Özdönmez et al. 1996). In other words hunting tourism is one of the eighteen types of the basic application of tourism that encounters various needs of the people. The hunting programs organized by the hunting organizations and the agents for hunters are all in content of hunting tourism. Hunting that has a significant place in hunting tourism encounters various needs of the today’s people who are volunteer to turn back to nature by making them getting rid of the daily monotonousness. The purpose of the hunting tourism is to contribute the national economies by permitting to hunt the game animals of which the populations are adequate.

The most significant factor of the natural resources and forest resources to be damaged is the poorness especially the poorness in rural areas. For the areas on which the wood raw materials are not produced it is the best way to resolve the poorness is to develop the hunting tourism, natural tourism, and the hunting and wild life management. The best samples of the management of hunting and wild life in the world are in Zambia, Kenya, Nigeria, Ghana and Zimbabw where the areas that are not suitable for agriculture are used in the best way.

In countries such as Germany, Austria, Romania, Bulgaria, Poland, Russia and Spain by giving importance to the studies which are done to enable the natural balance again both the game animals have been rescued from being destroyed, and by courtesy of the planned hunting system the income of the hunting tourism has started to enable a significant contribute to the economics of these countries. As a sample of these countries in Turkey the application of hunting tourism has started with wild pig in 1977, and in 1981 the wild goats have been taken in to the content of the hunting tourism. In 1984, the native hunters have started to hunt in content of the hunting tourism such as the foreign hunters (Uyanık 2002). In Turkey, the foreign hunters have hunted without any restrictions till 1971. In 1971, with the law about the Travel Agents Association, the hunting tourism code prepared and various regulations were brought.

Within the code of hunting tourism it has been permitted for the foreign hunters to hunt by the A Group Travel Agents (AGSA) (Şafak 2003). Although it has a significant potential with regards to wild resources, the hunting tourism in Turkey is tried to be managed in a way that is so far to being scientific. To open the areas for hunting tourism without preparing the background such as population inventories and hunting plans defeats our wild resources to develop and even causes them to be depredated (Geray 1999). It is the precondi-
tion of the rationalistic wild-life management not to open the areas for hunting without preparing the population inventories and the hunting plans. Because it is impossible to decide the amounts, species and the ages of the animals to be hunted without knowing the total numbers in existence (İğircik 2000). Within the context of this study the hunting tourism potential of Kastamonu and the affairs of it between 2004 and 2007 years have been tried to determine.

**METHODOLOGY**

The hunting grounds and the species of the game animals existing in Kastamonu, digital data of last years about the hunting tourism, the limits of hunting for the native and the foreigner hunters and the data of the income gained by the Ministry of Environment and Forestry and village legal entity compose the materials of this study. With this purpose, face to face talks were conducted with the reeves in charge of managing the hunting grounds, the hunting association, engineers at the Directorate of The Preservation of Nature & National Parks Department and The Directorate of Environment & Forestry of Kastamonu province in order to evaluate the hunting tourism potential of Kastamonu. Some suggestions were tried to be presented for the affairs that are introduced as the results of these studies and meetings.

There are four hunting grounds within the boundary line of Kastamonu and the hunting grounds of Candaroğulları and Belovacık belong to goverment and the hunting grounds of Sepetçioglu and Düzdag are private hunting grounds.

**Public Hunting Grounds:**

1. **Candaroğulları public hunting ground**: The hunting ground is located in the center of the city and has an area of 4795 ha. The mammal game animals existing in the area are deer, roe deer, wild pig, fox, wolf, martes, rabbit, squirrel; and the bird species existing in the area are; eagle, falcon, buzzard, jay, stock dove, wood pigeon, quail, partridge, blackbird, woodpecker, fieldfare. The game animal permitted to be hunted is the wild pig. Two districts are existing in the area as the residential. Any inventory study has not been held in the area.

2. **Belovacık public hunting ground**: It is located in the Devrekeni district of Kastamonu and it has an area of 4135 ha. The mammal game animals existing in the area are deer, bear, roe deer, wild pig, fox, wolf, martes, rabbit, squirrel; and the bird species existing in the area are; eagle, falcon, buzzard, woodcock, jay, stock dove, wood pigeon, quail, partridge, blackbird, woodpecker, fieldfare. There is no residential in the area. Any inventory study has not been held in the area.

**Private Hunting Grounds:**

1. **Sepetçioglu Sample Hunting Ground**: It is located in the Araç district of Kastamonu and it has an area of 7154 ha. The mammal game animals existing in the area are deer, bear, roe deer, wild pig, fox, wolf, martes, rabbit, squirrel; and the bird species existing in the area are; eagle, falcon, buzzard, woodcock, jay, stock dove, wood pigeon, quail, partridge, blackbird, woodpecker, fieldfare. There is no residential in the area. According to the inventory study held in the area, 39 wild pigs and 6 wolves have been seen and it is estimated that 447 wild pigs and 69 wolves exist in the area. 34 wild pigs in 2006 and 23 wild pigs in 2007 have been killed in the area.

2. **Düzdag Sample Hunting Ground**: It is located in the Arac district of Kastamonu and it has an area of 7154 ha. The mammal game animals existing in the area are deer, bear, roe deer, wild pig, fox, wolf, martes, rabbit, squirrel; and the bird species existing in the area are; eagle, falcon, buzzard, woodcock, jay, stock dove, wood pigeon, quail, partridge, blackbird, woodpecker, fieldfare. There is no residential in the area. According to the inventory study held in the area, 15 wild pigs and 5 wolves have been seen and it is estimated that 177 wild pigs and 59 wolves exist in the area. Hunting of wild pigs is being held in two types called “drive” and “lookout” and for the 2007-2008 hunting season the dates of the hunting types are decided as 01.04.2007–31.03.2008 “look out hunting” and 01.09.2007–28.02.2008 for “drive hunting”.

Within the wild pigs look out hunting it is permitted to hunt 3 pigs for the foreign hunters, and 2 pigs for the natives. And within the drive hunting, it is permitted to hunt 3 pigs each for foreign hunters and natives. 9 wild pigs in 2006 and 20 wild pigs in 2007 have been killed in the area.

**RESULTS**

In study, revenue of hunting tourism, local and stranger hunter numbers with total hunter number, shooting pig number, total shooting animal number and revenue of village contribution share were examined as the bases of hunting
tourism in Kastamonu province. So species and number of shooting animals in Kastamonu and hunter number between 2004 and 2007 years are given in Table 1.

Table 1. Species and number of shooting animals in Kastamonu province between 2004 and 2006 years (Anonymous,2008).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year(s)</th>
<th>Species and number of shooting animal</th>
<th>Hunter number</th>
<th>Revenue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pig</td>
<td>Roe deer</td>
<td>Deer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>_</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After data in Table 1 were appraised variations of hunting tourism bases in Kastamonu province were given in Table 2.

Table 2. Variations of hunting tourism bases in Kastamonu province between 2004 and 2007 years (Anonymous,2008).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Variation of hunting tourism revenue(%)</th>
<th>Variation of stranger hunter number(%)</th>
<th>Variation of local hunter number (%)</th>
<th>Variation of total hunter number (%)</th>
<th>Variation of total shooting animal number(%)</th>
<th>Variation of shooting pig number(%)</th>
<th>Variation of village contribution share (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004-2005</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>- 225</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>- 30</td>
<td>- 11</td>
<td>- 46</td>
<td>66.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005-2006</td>
<td>285.3</td>
<td>1386</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>581</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006-2007</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>- 200</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>- 200</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avarage variation</td>
<td>134.2</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>- 5</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>66.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The numeral variations of data in Table.1 were shown in Figure.1 and the numeral variation of data in Table 2 were shown in Figure 2.

When data in Table 1, Table 2, Figure 1 and Figure 2 were evaluated, hunting tourism revenue in Kastamonu province was increased % 134 between 2004 and 2007 years. It was increased % 66 in 2005 to 2004, % 185 in 2006 according to 2005 and % 51 in 2007 according to 2006. When the data were examined hunting tourism revenue exploded in 2006.
Shape of hunting tourism in Kastamonu in Turkey hunting tourism was researched according to hunting tourism revenue between 2004 and 2005 years. So in 2004, total revenue which was supplied in the general of Turkey and this shape was % 4,7 in 2005 (Figure 3). According to data in Table 1, total hunter and animal number in Kastamonu province between 2004 and 2007 years were shown in Figure 4.
When data of Figure 3 and Figure 4 were evaluated, the number of stranger hunter which came to Kastamonu in 2004 was reduced % 225. So the number of shooting animal was reduced % 11. But opposite of this local hunter number was increased % 100 in 2004. In spite of this total hunter number was reduced % 30 in 2005 according to 2004. In 2006, stranger hunter number increased % 1386 so local hunter number increased % 85 and total hunter number increased % 581 according to 2005.

2006 was a gold year for Kastamonu according to hunter and shooting animal number. In 2007, local hunter number was reduced % 200. Opposite of this total and stranger hunting number with shooting animal number increased according to 2006. Generally stranger hunter number increased average % 401 but local hunter number was reduced % 5 between 2004 and 2007 years. Total hunter number increased % 191. So total shooting animal number increased % 141.

1. Resources of forests should be evaluated as strategic resources. Countries evaluate forest resources as strategic resources in the long term. Our country should also take the national forest resources to the statute of strategic resources as soon as possible.

2. In Kastamonu exists lacks about the application of the hunting tourism in the way of determined principles, various affairs and deficiency of staff.

3. There is an intensive impression on hunting and wild life because of various reasons. Awareness and the knowledge of our community and our hunters about the game animals and the wild life is not sufficient.

4. Without planning and excessive illegal hunting is being carried out. Registered hunters constitutes %3 of the total population of our country. Numbers of actual hunters are 3 times more than the registered hunters. The people who earned the right to hunt is well below those numbers.

5. Our hunting grounds are being used outside of their intended purpose. Agricultural chemicals and fertilizers are threatening the game and wild life. Natural habitats of wild animals are either getting smaller or disappearing.

6. Kastamonu rich in bio-diversity could not reach full capacity of its potential wild life hunting because of all sorts of different reasons.

7. Hunting tourism is being held limitedly due to lack of adequate inventory studies. Because only some specific species has been studied with in the inventory studies and most of the species of the game animals has not been reached yet.

8. A hunting ground planning is not at an adequate level in our country and Kastamonu. Hunting ground planning has been completed and at the moment there are four hunting ground locations in Kastamonu, at Sepetcioglu, Candaroglu, Duzdag and Belovacik Sample Hunting Grounds.

9. Infrastructure and resting facilities are not adequate for hunting tourism in Kastamonu and in our country.

10. It is very difficult to find enough qualified staff to take part in hunting tourism organizations.

11. There is an intensive grazing being carried out in hunting grounds. There is cattle breeding and intensive goat grazing being carried out at certain parts. Having farm animals at the hunting grounds could cause genetic pollution in the future as it was the case in Adiyaman.

CONCLUSION

At the result of the study, it has been determined that the income of the hunting tourism has risen with an acceleration of 134 % from 2004 to 2007 and, in 2005 it has risen 66 % more than it had in 2004, in 2006 it has risen 285% more than it had 2005 and in 2007 it has risen 51% more than it had in 2006. The income gained in Kastamonu from hunting tourism in 2004 is the 3.2% of the total income gained from the hunting tourism in Turkey, and in 2005 it is the 4.7% of the total income gained in the country. When considered that Kastamonu is one of the cities that has the largest area of forests in proportion to Turkey’s total forest areas, and the richness of Kastamonu from the point of bio-diversity, and it has virgin tourism resources and generally the hunting tourism potential of it, it can be seen that these values remain too low.

The hunting tourism has a significant potential from the point of wild resources is being tried to be managed in a way that is so far to be scientific in Turkey. Generally these areas are opened for hunting tourism without making the necessary preparations of background such as inventories of populations and the hunting plans. In Kastamonu, the inventory studies have been done which is the precondition of the rationalistic wild-life management, however it is determined that no hunting plans have been prepared. Consequently, the
potential of hunting tourism in Kastamonu has been realized and it is determined that especially in 2006 the income gained from hunting tourism has risen too much. By the way it has reflected to the total income of tourism naturally. The enhancement seen at the local community’s level of income that is obtained by hunting tourism has changed their attitude towards the wildlife positively.

It can be useful to apply the following suggestions to solve the affairs about the applications of hunting tourism in our country and in Kastamonu:

1. Management, utilization and protection strategies should be put forward aimed at rehabilitation and improvement of our countries disappearing wildlife resources.
2. At the applications of the hunting tourism rural management affairs should be solved and the staff should be trained enough and qualified.
3. Activities that cause land, air and water pollution should be prevented at the hunting grounds and hunting organizations should be carried out and completed without damaging nature.
4. To obtain a qualified management for sustainable hunting and wildlife it is necessary to train the local public, to rise the knowledge level, to get the support of the community, to get the public attend to the issues such as management, usage and protection and to give support and significance to the works of protection such areas.
5. Local population should be made aware that they are the ones being harmed when nature and wildlife is being harmed. Hunting should be perceived as embracement with nature.
6. Works should be expedited for natural and artificial production to raise the numbers of wild animals in order to carry out the implementations of hunting tourism in our country. Hunting ground industry should be encouraged. Management plans should be drawn up with the inventory works and strategies should be prepared to gain enough knowledge quality and quantity wise.
7. Service quality and infrastructure of the resting facilities should be adequate enough to meet the demand.
8. The staff of the ministry and the agent who takes part at the hunting organisations, the organiser that will work for real or legal personality, the guide or the service staff (guide, bag seller etc.) should be trained well. The technical staff should have the knowledge of foreign language.

REFERENCES
A Study of Cultural Tourism: The Case of Visitors to Prince Edward Island

Sean M. HENNESSEY  
School of Business Administration  
University of Prince Edward Island, Canada  
E-mail: hennessey@upei.ca

Dongkoo YUN  
School of Business Administration  
University of Prince Edward Island, Canada  
E-mail: dyun@upei.ca

Roberta MACDONALD  
School of Business Administration  
University of Prince Edward Island, Canada  
E-mail: romacdonald@upei.ca

Melissa MACEACHERN  
School of Business Administration  
University of Prince Edward Island, Canada  
E-mail: mameacherne@gov.pe.ca

ABSTRACT
Culture is an important part of the tourism “product” and is one of the factors that can improve the competitiveness of a tourism destination. Cultural tourism covers all aspects of travel that provide an opportunity for visitors to learn about another area’s history and way of life. However, it has been difficult to demonstrate how important cultural tourism and cultural tourists are for a specific destination. This paper’s objective is to examine the meaning and significance of cultural tourism for a major Canadian tourist destination. In doing so, the paper attempts to identify cultural tourists and profile trip characteristics of cultural tourists in an island setting. The results indicate that there are significant differences between “cultural” and “non-cultural” tourists. Cultural tourists were more likely to use travel information sources, to stay more nights at the destination, to recall communities they visited, to engage in all other travel activities, and to spend more money than non-cultural tourists. Consequently, the results demonstrate that cultural tourists are valuable in terms of their economic contribution to the destination and cultural/social interaction with communities.

INTRODUCTION
Many research studies suggest that a substantial percentage of tourists seek cultural experiences, such as visiting cultural attractions and participating in diverse cultural activities that are not “sun, sand and sea” related. The World Tourism Organization suggests that more than 40% of all international tourists are “cultural tourists” (Richards 1996). The Travel Industry Association of America has estimated that two-thirds of U.S. adults visit a cultural or heritage site or attraction when they travel (Silberberg 1995). Based on this data, it has been argued that cultural tourists represent a new type of mass tourist who seeks meaningful travel experiences (McKercher and Du Clos 2003).

There is little doubt that culture is an important part of the tourism “product” and is one of the factors that can improve the competitiveness of a tourism destination. An examination of the forces shaping the cultural “product” will help identify the reasons why cultural tourism is critical at destinations. For this study, cultural tourism covers all aspects of travel where visitors can learn about another area’s history and way of life. Thus, cultural factors in the context of tourism include the entertainment, food, drink, hospitality, architecture, and manufactured and hand-crafted products of a destination, and all other characteristics of a destination’s way of life (McIntosh and Goeldner 1990). McNulty (1991) and Weiler and Hall (1992) consider culture to include family
patterns, folklore, social customs, museums, monuments, historical structures, and landmarks.

Others include wilderness areas, landscapes, historic buildings, and artifacts as part of cultural tourism (Prentice 1993; Tassell and Tassell 1990). Tourists travel to be informed and to experience folklore, customs, natural landscapes, and historical landmarks as well as being involved in other activities such as nature, adventure, sports, festivals, crafts and sightseeing (MacDonald and Joliffe 2002). In addition, many activities at destinations that are not educational or cultural in a narrow sense provide opportunities for tourists to get to know each other (Richards, 1996). However, it has been difficult to demonstrate how important cultural tourism and cultural tourists are for a specific destination.

Who are the tourists that visit cultural attractions or engage in cultural activities, and why? What specific travel behaviours make them distinct from other travellers? How large is the demand for cultural tourism and what elements of culture attract tourists? How can cultural tourism be successfully developed and promoted? The answers to these types of questions may be quite different among destinations due to the different elements that create the culture of each destination. This paper’s objective is to examine the meaning and significance of cultural tourism on Prince Edward Island. In doing so, the paper attempts to identify cultural tourists and profile trip characteristics of cultural tourists in an island setting.

WHAT IS CULTURAL TOURISM?

The terms “cultural tourism” and “cultural tourists” are widely used, but also misunderstood. In addition, the definition of cultural tourism and cultural tourist remains vague (Aluza, O’Leary and Morrison 1998). Academics, practitioners, and policy-makers have been quick to identify cultural tourism as a significant and growing market, but have been hesitant or unable to describe and define the market.

Most attempts at defining cultural tourism agree that it consists of the consumption of culture by tourists (Richards 1996). However, this approach also produces new problems because it includes a wide range of cultural elements. For example, what kinds of cultural experiences should be included within the scope of cultural tourism? Does a three-hour visit to a museum turn an entire two-week holiday into a cultural tourism experience? Are tourists who engage in cultural activities initially motivated to travel because of cultural attractions?

Or, do they find out about the cultural product after arriving at a destination and engage in the activity “for something to do?”

It is clear that defining cultural tourism and cultural tourists is complex because it can mean different things to different people (McKercher and Du Cros 2003). For many tourists, travelling to experience different cultures equates to cultural tourism. For these travellers, encountering different cultures is synonymous with a cultural tourism experience. They consume the different sights, sounds, tastes and smells of an unfamiliar culture. On the other hand, academics and tourism marketers define cultural tourism as a discrete product category that is differentiated from other tourism activities or attractions by consumption of a destination’s tangible and intangible cultural heritage (Hall and MacArthur 1998; Leask and Yeoman 1999; Richards, 1996; Shackley 1998).

A growing body of literature indicates that some people are more highly motivated to participate in cultural tourism than others. McKercher (2002b) suggests that a definition of cultural tourists can be developed by considering two issues: the main reasons for a trip and the level of experiences at the destinations. A number of both conceptual and empirical studies have attempted to implement this process and explore the typology of cultural tourists.

Silberberg (1995) identified four types of cultural tourists, ranging from the greatly motivated to the accidental, while D. K. Shifflet and Associates (1999) identified three types of heritage tourists: “core”, “moderate” and “low”, with each of the segments demonstrating different behaviour and spending patterns. Stebbins (1996) suggests that the cultural tourist comes in two types: ‘general’ and ‘specialized’. The general cultural tourist makes a hobby of visiting different geographic sites. Over time, as general cultural tourists increase their knowledge of different cultures, they may become specialized cultural tourists who focus on one or a small number of geographic sites or cultural entities.

Aluza et al. (1998) contend that the cultural and heritage tourism market consists of five distinct segments with each having different trip characteristics, suggesting that not all cultural and heritage tourists are alike and should be targeted in different ways. McKercher (2002a) also suggests that cultural tourism can be segmented into five markets based on the depth at which the tourists engage in a culture or a cultural attraction, and how central the culture or attraction was to their choice of destination. To some segments, culture or the attraction played a major role in their decision while, for other segments, culture played either a minor role or no role in their decision-making (McKercher and Du Cros 2003).
Martin et al. (2004) report that cultural and general visitors are very different in terms of activities, expenditures, information sources used, and lodging preferences. Their study found that cultural heritage visitors were different from other visitors on most measurements, implying that heritage planners and marketers should take these differences into consideration when planning and promoting cultural heritage tourism. Nyaupane and Andereck (2007) suggest that cultural tourists can be divided into two groups: “true cultural tourist” and “spurious cultural tourist.” Comparisons between these groups in terms of demographics, importance of attractions, and motivations suggested that these two types (true and spurious) of cultural tourists are distinct.

Based on the above discussion, it is clear that cultural tourists are different from general tourists but, it seems, the question of what is cultural tourism remains unresolved. This paper attempts to lend an island perspective to the debate.

**METHODOLOGY**

This study used secondary data drawn from the 2004 Tourist Exit Survey conducted on Prince Edward Island (PEI), Canada’s smallest province, and a major tourist destination. The survey was conducted on behalf of Tourism PEI, the provincial government department responsible for managing the tourism industry on PEI. The main purposes of the survey are to collect statistics on the volume of travellers and their expenditures and to identify detailed characteristics of their trips. In 2004, a total of 3,139 surveys were completed by overnight pleasure tourists and these were used for this study. Among respondents, nearly 61% were male, 58% worked full time, and 29% were retired. Respondents varied widely in age, education, and annual household income. Of these, 27.3% were in the 50 to 59 years of age group, 23.7% had graduated from university (undergraduate), and 25.8% had an annual household income of $50,000 to $75,000, while 24% had incomes over $100,000.

The Exit Survey listed 28 activities that respondents could indicate they had participated in while visiting PEI. For this study, ten of these were deemed to be cultural activities: experiencing Acadian culture, visiting Canada’s birthplace attractions, attending a festival or event, visiting Founders’ Hall, visiting a theme fun or amusement park, attending a cultural performance (live theatre), going to a lobster supper (meal) enjoying evening entertainment (bar, pub, etc.), visiting Anne of Green Gables attractions, and visiting historical/cultural attractions. These cultural activities were used to develop a typology of cultural tourists.

To profile characteristics of cultural tourists, eight trip-related variables were used: geographical market, types of visitation, travel information sources used, travelling party size, trip duration, recall of communities visited, travel activities, and expenditures. Of these trip-related variables, the two multiple-response variables (travel information sources used and recall of communities visited), were converted to index scores.

On the survey, 13 selectable information sources were provided. An index score of travel information sources was developed by dividing the number of information sources selected by the respondent by 13, and multiplying by 100. Likewise, an index score of the recall of the communities visited on PEI was calculated. On the survey, 28 communities in eight regions on PEI were provided. Respondents using the number of regions recalled, divided by the total number of regions communities listed on the survey (9), and multiplying by 100.

**Data Analysis**

The data analysis in this study proceeded in three stages. First, all respondents were grouped by using a K-means clustering procedure whereby a set of points is partitioned into k groups (Pollard, 1981). This clustering method was employed to find disjoint clusters (SAS Institute, Inc., 1990) with the means of each cultural activity item serving as an input. In the second stage of the study, an analysis of variance (ANOVA), a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and discriminant analysis were performed. First, separate ANOVAs were conducted on each cultural activity item to determine whether the variables in each cluster group differed. Next, MANOVA and discriminant analysis were run to check the overall significance of cluster group differences that statistically confirm the results of cluster analysis. Discriminant analysis was used to identify the cultural activity variable’s influence on the cluster.

**RESULTS**

**A Typology of Cultural Tourists**

Table 1 clearly illustrates that the 3,139 overnight pleasure tourists could be neatly partitioned into two cluster groups based on the ten cultural activity items. Determination of the number of clusters is based on the examination of the F-statistics from a two-, three-, four-, and five-cluster solution derived from a K-means cluster analysis (Milligan and Cooper 1985; Reynolds and Beatty 1999). The two-cluster solution was the most meaningful and interpretable.

Panel A of Table 1 reports the clustering statistics. Of the 3,139 overnight pleasure tourists, 1,996 (63.6%) reported low involvement in cultural activities and
were termed “non-cultural tourists,” while 1,143 (36.4%) were highly involved in cultural activities and were termed “cultural tourists.” The remaining clustering statistics indicate that the clustering model was an excellent fit for the data.

Table 1. Summary of Clustering, ANOVAs, MANOVA and Discriminant Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Panel A: Clustering Statistics</th>
<th>Cluster 1</th>
<th>Cluster 2</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>R-square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of observations in cluster</td>
<td>1,996</td>
<td>1,143</td>
<td>3,139</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of observations in cluster</td>
<td>63.6%</td>
<td>36.4%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMS Std. Deviation</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>317.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum distance from the seed to observation</td>
<td>90.8</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nearest cluster</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance between cluster centroids</td>
<td>129.5</td>
<td>129.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Panel B: ANOVA Statistics

- Experiencing Acadian culture: 11.0 60.5 29.0 1187.91*** .275
- Visiting Canada's birthplace attractions: 6.4 60.5 26.1 1707.48*** .352
- Attending a festival or event: 9.3 31.4 17.4 268.14*** .079
- Visiting Founders' Hall: 3.3 40.2 16.7 914.69*** .226
- Visiting a theme, fun or amusement park: 14.7 16.3 15.3 1.43*** .000
- Attending a cultural performance (live theatre): 7.3 29.4 15.4 298.41*** .087
- Going to a lobster supper (meal): 24.6 64.1 39.0 562.71*** .152
- Enjoying evening entertainment (bar, pub, etc.): 7.5 19.2 11.8 99.20*** .031
- Visiting Anne of Green Gables attractions: 25.2 74.0 43.0 911.48*** .225
- Visiting historical/cultural attractions: 17.0 87.5 42.7 2779.41*** .470

Panel C: MANOVA Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wilks' Lambda</td>
<td>0.251</td>
<td>10 935.15</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pillai's Trace</td>
<td>0.749</td>
<td>10 935.15</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotelling-Lawley Trace</td>
<td>2.990</td>
<td>10 935.15</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Panel D: Discriminant Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Posterior Probability Error Rate Estimates for Cluster</th>
<th>.0548</th>
<th>.0480</th>
<th>.0514</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hit Ratio (%)</td>
<td>(94.5%) (95.2%) (94.9%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Cluster 1 was labelled “Non-cultural Tourists” while Cluster 2 was termed “Cultural Tourists” based on the mean scores of the ten cultural activity items.; *** p < .001

Panel B of Table 1 presents the ANOVA statistics for the two clusters. The numbers indicate the percentage of the respondents in each cluster that reported participating in the stated activity. For example, only 11% of the visitors in Cluster 1 reported that they experienced Acadian culture, while 60.5% of Cluster 2 reported this activity. A review of Panel B clearly illustrates that Cluster 1 has a much lower levels of participation for nine of the ten activities, thus supporting the labels used to describe the clusters. The F-values in Panel B reveal that the mean scores for nine of the ten cultural activities are significantly different at p < .001 level for the two clusters. The one exception is visiting a theme or amusement park, which does not seem to be a cultural activity based on the visitors’ participation levels. This result supports the method used to analyze the data. To further confirm the clusters, three types of MANOVA analyses testing the group differences in the cultural activity items was completed. The MANOVA statistics provided in Panel C of Table 1 were all significant at p < .001 so there are two distinct groups in this data.

Discriminant analysis was performed to examine which cultural activity items highly contributed to the clusters (the R-square and F-value in Panel B) and what percentage of hit ratio (or posterior probability error rates) exists in the identified clusters (Panel D). The results indicate that the model correctly classified 94.9% of the survey respondents into cluster groups. Of the nine cultural activity measures, “visiting historical/cultural attractions” was the most significant contributor to the clustering segments, closely followed by “visiting Canada’s birthplace attractions.” The next three activities (experiencing Acadian culture, visiting Founders' hall, and visiting Anne of Green Gables attractions) were all very similar in terms of their contribution to the clustering model. The remaining four activities were significant but more minor contributors.

**Trip-related Characteristics**

The next stage of the study investigated whether there were any significant differences between the two groups of cultural tourists with respect to trip-related characteristics. These characteristics included geographical markets, types of visitation, travel information used, recall of communities visited, travelling party size, trip duration, travel activities, and travel expenditures.

**Geographical Markets and Types of Visitation** In results available from the authors, statistically significant differences between the two groups were found in geographical markets and types of visitation. The members of cluster 1 (non-cultural tourists) were the most likely to be from Atlantic Canada (41.3%), while Cluster 2 (cultural tourists) were the most likely to be from U.S. (39.5%), etc.)
and areas more distant from PEI like western parts of Canada and other countries. It was also found that cultural tourists were much more likely to be first-time visitors (63.8%) whereas non-cultural tourists were more likely to repeat visitors (64.5%).

**Travel Information Sources used.** Table 2 provides an analysis of the various types of travel information sources used by all visitors and the two clusters. The table provides the index variable of the number of travel information sources used and the percentage of those visitors who reported using various types of travel information sources and index variable of travel information sources used. There are a number of interesting findings. First, the Internet (PEI homepage and other tourism Websites) was the travel information source most widely used by all visitors, and for each of the groups. Clearly, the Internet has become a widely used source of travel information. (See Wang et al. 2002; Bieger and Laesser 2004; Pearce and Schott 2005).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Travel Information</th>
<th>Cluster 1 (n=1,996)</th>
<th>Cluster 2 (n=1,143)</th>
<th>Total (n=3,139)</th>
<th>(\chi^2) value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Index of Travel Information Sources used</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>-14.57***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AAA/CAA Package</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>30.3%</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>100.14***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geography or travel book on PEI or Canada</td>
<td>16.2%</td>
<td>28.5%</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>66.85***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends, relatives, co-workers</td>
<td>30.2%</td>
<td>36.9%</td>
<td>32.6%</td>
<td>15.11***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist information centre in NS or NB</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
<td>26.4%</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
<td>30.71***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper story or advertisement</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>7.71**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel agent</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>7.89**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television program or advertisement</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>5.4%</td>
<td>5.04*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PEI travel information package</td>
<td>33.1%</td>
<td>49.4%</td>
<td>39.0%</td>
<td>81.80***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet/PEI Homepage/Tourism Web Site</td>
<td>41.0%</td>
<td>58.4%</td>
<td>47.4%</td>
<td>88.37***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maps/Atlas</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past experience</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtained information in PEI</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Cluster 1 = Non-cultural Tourists (63.6%); Cluster 2 = Cultural Tourists (36.4%); * = t-test result; \(p < .05\); ** \(p < .01\); *** \(p < .001\)

Closely following this was the PEI travel information package, and word-of-mouth (information from friends, relatives, and co-workers). Next was travel information from tourist information centers, from the AAA/CAA, and from travel books. Getting information into visitor’s hands is important. Woodside et al. (1997) report that destination visitors who are high information users tend to participate more in activities, spend more money daily, are positive about their experiences, and are more intent to return compared to low and nonusers of information. However, some information sources just contribute to the process of making travel decisions, others are “decisive.” Fodness and Murray (1998) report that independent external sources such as word-of-mouth advice and published travel guides help cement travel decisions.

These findings are clearly supported by the results provided in Table 2. While the six information sources discussed above are used by both groups of travelers, it is clear that cultural tourists are significantly more likely to use these sources. Based on this, it would be expected that these visitors participate in more activities, spend more while at the destination, and be more positive regarding their experiences. These, of course, would be exactly the type of visitors all destinations desire.

The least likely information sources used were newspaper stories or advertisements, travel agents, and television programs or advertisements. Overall, the results in Table 2 indicate that statistically significant differences between the two groups of tourists were found in the index variable of travel information sources used and the nine individual variables of information sources. Cultural tourists are much more likely to use travel information to plan the trip.

**Communities visited.** In results available from the authors, statistically significant differences between the two groups of tourists were found in an index of recall of communities visited and in the percentage of tourists visiting the eight communities/community clusters. Overall, it was found that cultural tourists were much more likely to recall communities visited on Prince Edward Island than non-cultural tourists. Of these PEI communities, cultural tourists were most likely to have spent time in Charlottetown, followed by Kensington, Stanley Bridge, Cavendish, and Stanhope and Summerside.

**Travelling Party Size and Trip Duration.** In results available from the authors, it was found that the travel part size was essentially identical between the two clusters. However, cultural tourists spent significantly more time on PEI 4.9 versus 4.2 nights.
Travel Activities. Results of independent t-tests indicated that the level of activities, other than cultural, were also significantly different between cultural and non-cultural tourists (Table 3). This was the case for all but four of the activities: camping, deep sea/salt water fishing, participating in a sports game, and attending a sport event as a spectator. Participation rates in some of the activities were high for all overnight pleasure tourists. For example, all visitors were likely to participate in sightseeing, visiting beaches, and shopping for crafts and souvenirs, while relatively view attended a sport event as a spectator, fished, or cycled. The mean values of most variables were higher for the cultural tourists than for the non-cultural tourists. As a result, cultural tourists were more likely to be active in terms of the level of travel activity participation, while non-cultural tourists were much more likely to visit friends or relatives or play golf.

| Table 3. Comparison of Travel Activity Participation across the Cultural Tourists’ Segment |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Travel Activities participated in (%) | Cluster1 (n=1,996) | Cluster2 (n=1,143) | Total (n=3,139) | t-value |
| Sightseeing                      | 61.9             | 90.5            | 72.3            | -20.50*** |
| Driving tour                     | 33.8             | 65.4            | 45.3            | -18.01*** |
| Harbour/city/land tours          | 10.2             | 29.4            | 17.2            | -12.75*** |
| Craft/souvenir shopping          | 50.1             | 82.7            | 62.0            | -20.57*** |
| Shopping (general merchandise)   | 32.1             | 48.8            | 38.2            | -9.25***  |
| Visiting a national park         | 36.0             | 72.9            | 49.4            | -21.70*** |
| Beach visits                     | 55.6             | 82.8            | 65.5            | -17.25*** |
| Camping                          | 17.8             | 17.0            | 17.5            | 0.61     |
| Confederation trail             | 12.6             | 39.0            | 22.2            | -16.26*** |
| Hiking                           | 11.0             | 30.0            | 17.9            | -12.47*** |
| Cycling                          | 5.4              | 7.9             | 6.3             | -2.66**  |
| Bird watching                    | 11.4             | 26.2            | 16.8            | -9.94*** |
| Boating/canoeing/kayaking/sailing| 5.8              | 11.5            | 7.9             | -5.36*** |
| Deep sea/salt water fishing      | 3.9              | 5.2             | 4.4             | -1.60    |
| Playing golf                     | 13.6             | 10.5            | 12.5            | 2.63**   |
| Participating in a sports game   | 5.5              | 5.9             | 5.6             | -0.41    |
| Attending a sport event as a spectator | 3.0         | 3.2             | 3.1             | -0.44 |
| Visiting friends or relatives    | 30.2             | 20.3            | 26.6            | 6.27***  |

Note: Cluster 1 = Non-cultural Tourists (63.6%); Cluster 2 = Cultural Tourists (36.4%); * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

Travel Expenditures. As shown in Table 4, statistically significant differences were also found in most of the travel expenditure variables across the clusters. Overall, cultural tourists spent significantly more money than non-cultural tourists. When calculated on a per person per night basis so as to negate the effects of travelling party size and trip duration, cultural tourists were also more likely to spend more money than non-cultural tourists.

| Table 4. Comparison of Travel Expenditures across the Cultural Tourists’ Segment |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| Travel Expenditures             | Cluster1 (n=1,996) | Cluster2 (n=1,143) | Total (n=3,139) | t-value |
| Average total spending per party per trip | $825.1 | $1186.2 | $957.9 | -8.98*** |
| Average spending per person per night | $100.5 | $122.3 | $108.5 | -6.21*** |
| Spending on accommodations *     | $35.2          | $42.1           | $37.8           | -4.63*** |
| Spending at restaurants and bars * | $23.1 | $29.1 | $25.3 | -5.82*** |
| Spending on groceries and liquor * | $6.1 | $5.3 | $5.8 | 2.60** |
| Spending on admission fees *     | $5.2           | $7.9            | $6.2            | -6.77*** |
| Spending on shopping for souvenirs and crafts * | $8.9 | $12.8 | $10.3 | -5.41*** |
| Spending on shopping for other merchandise * | $5.1 | $5.1 | $5.1 | 0.11 |
| Spending on auto/cycle related * | $118.8 | $141.1 | $127.7 | -2.00* |
| Spending on sports and recreation * | $3.6 | $2.3 | $3.2 | 3.03** |
| Spending on night entertainment * | $1.0 | $2.1 | $1.4 | -4.41*** |
| Other spending *                 | $1.4           | $1.8            | $1.5            | -1.09 |

Note: Cluster 1 = Non-cultural Tourists (63.6%); Cluster 2 = Cultural Tourists (36.4%); * = average spending per person per night; * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001

When considering the expenditure categories, the largest percentage difference was on admission fees, spending on souvenirs and crafts, and at restaurants and bars. Cultural tourists spent more on most categories of travel expenditures than did non-cultural tourists. Non-cultural tourists were more likely to spend money on “groceries and liquor” and “sports and recreation.”

DISCUSSION AND LIMITATIONS

The purpose of this study was to provide a preliminary analysis of cultural tourists to an Island destination. For this study, a cultural tourist was defined in terms of activities completed while visiting a destination. For this study that would be a person who visited a cultural attraction (such as art gallery, mu-
seum or historic site), attended a performance or festival, and/or participated in other cultural activities at any time during their trip as defined in Table 1. These visitors entered the “culture” category by virtue of having a greater than average score in terms of numbers of commercially available (as opposed to family affiliated) cultural activities engaged in, regardless of their main reason for travelling.

The primary analytical tool used in the study was cluster analysis. The first cluster was labelled “non-cultural tourists who accounted for the majority of overnight visitors to PEI in 2004 (63.6%). These visitors had relatively lower involvement in the selected, commercial cultural activities. The second cluster, “cultural tourists” accounted for 36.4% of the overnight visitors to PEI in 2004. They were moderately to highly involved (i.e. participation rates of 19 – 87%) in nine of the ten cultural activities selected for the purposes of this study.

The survey results indicated that there are significant differences between the two clusters with respect to trip characteristics. Cultural tourists were more likely to be from geographically distant markets (i.e., Ontario and other parts of Canada) or different countries (U.S. and other countries), be first-time visitors, use travel information sources, stay more nights, have better recall of the communities visited, engage in other travel activities, and spend more money than the non-cultural tourists. On the other hand, the non-cultural tourists tended to be from closer markets (i.e., the other two Maritime Provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia), be repeat visitors, visit friends or relatives and play more golf than cultural tourists, and spend more money on “groceries and liquor” and “sports and recreation.”

One of the limitations of the study is that the only variables available to define cultural tourists were commercial cultural activity items. As was discussed in the literature review, there is no evidence that cultural tourists in this study are “true” cultural tourists who are highly motivated to travel for cultural reasons and who seek a deep experience. Different people will participate in cultural activities and visit cultural attractions at different levels, depending on their own interests, travel motivation, cultural distance, preferred experiences or activities, level of knowledge, perceptions of destination, amount of learning, trip-related characteristics, socio-demographic background, and other factors (McKercher and Cros 2003; Prentice, Witt, and Hamer 1998; Stebbins 1996; Timothy 1997).

Therefore, these related variables should be included in any future research on cultural tourists. In Prince Edward Island, culture has been something inherent in the tourism product rather than a niche market in itself. However, cultural tourists may be segmented into a different niche market. More in-depth research on cultural tourism may reveal more meaningful subgroups of cultural tourists. Further research on tourism and culture should be undertaken, applying both qualitative and quantitative methods, to further investigate the importance of the cultural “product” in attracting tourists to Prince Edward Island. This research could also be the basis for making comparisons between destinations, particularly islands, where the cultural “product” and the underlying reasons why tourists visit may be more easily defined. Islands are a distinct type of travel market and the culture of these unique places may well be a key motivating reason why many tourists visit (Jolliffe and Baum 1999; Prohaska 1995; Kochel 1994).

CONCLUSION

This study has identified that cultural themes are an important factor for a significant portion of tourists visiting Prince Edward Island and demonstrated that cultural tourists are valuable in terms of their economic contribution to the destination and cultural/social interaction with communities. The study provides some insights into cultural tourism and the characteristics of cultural tourists on Prince Edward Island. Based on the results, it is clear that tourism marketers and operators need to emphasize culturally unique elements of Prince Edward Island and provide a variety of travel information sources to appeal and attract more distant (mid- and long-haul) markets and first-time visitors. Cultural tourists in this study also prefer to participate in other activities especially those related to nature, recreation, and entertainment. Therefore, cultural tourism should be presented in a manner that is accessible, enjoyable and easy to consume such as packaged offerings and special services. Successful products that cater to these needs may lead to increased tourism demand and the growing supply of cultural attractions. Cultural products that ignore this maxim will struggle to find a sustainable consumer base.

REFERENCES


Milligan, G.W and Cooper, M.C (1985). An Examination of Procedures for Determining the Number of Clusters in a Dataset, Psychometrika 50 (2): 159-179


INTRODUCTION

The objective of most tourism marketing strategies is to increase the number of visitors to a destination. These marketing campaigns attempt to influence behavioural intentions and increase the probability that travellers will visit. Thus, predicting travellers’ future behaviours is a critical part of planning for and forecasting of visitor numbers for destination marketers. To develop effective marketing strategies directed at encouraging visitation to a specific destination, tourism marketers must know when and how behavioural intentions are developed by members of the target market, and the factors that influence intentions to visit.

According to the 2006 Travel Activities and Motivations Survey (TAMS), 80% of U.S. travellers and 81% of Canadian travellers use the Internet as a source of information for personal use (Ontario 2007a, 2007b). However, does accessing travel information using the Internet affect the likelihood that the individual will travel to the destination? Or, are other forms of marketing more powerful in increasing the probability that an information seeker will become an intended traveller? The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between the media sources used by potential travellers and the likelihood that those travellers will visit a very popular Canadian tourist destination - Prince Edward Island.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975), predicting customers’ purchase behaviours is a matter of measuring their intentions to buy just before they make a purchase. Thus, behavioural intentions are a proposition connecting self and a future action as a plan to engage in a specified behaviour in order to reach a goal (Bagozzi and Warshaw 1990).

In general, behavioural intentions are created through a choice and decision process. Peter and Olson (1996) argue that consumers’ actions are based on beliefs regarding the benefits associated with taking a particular action (buying a product or travelling to a destination) and the subjective assessment of whether others want the consumer to engage in that behaviour. The outcomes of these reflective processes are integrated to evaluate alternative behaviours and make a decision. During the choice and decision process, intentions can change over time. The more time that elapses between the two, the greater the likelihood that unforeseen events will produce changes in intentions.
Travel intentions depend on tourists’ degree of certainty toward the destination (confidence generation) and on inhibitors, which can cause tourists to respond differently from what their attitudes dictate (Moutinho 1987). Travel intentions can be defined as the subjective probability of whether a customer will or will not take certain actions that are related to a tourist service. Thus, intentions to travel are a special form of belief held by the potential customers, concerning perceived likelihood of visiting the destination within a specific time period (Woodside and MacDonald 1994).

**Factors influencing Intentions to Travel**

Individual intentions are an indication of the readiness to undertake a given behaviour, and are assumed to precede actual behaviour (Ajzen 2002). Many studies in psychology have demonstrated the predictive validity of behavioural intentions. These studies report that the correlations between intentions and subsequent behaviour are relatively high ranging from 0.69 to 0.90 (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Elliott, Armitage, and Baughan 2003; Furnham and Lovett 2001; Giles and Cairns 1995; King 1975; Orbell, Blair, Sherlock, and Conner 2001). When appropriately measured, intentions account for a high proportion of variance in actual behaviour (Ajzen 1988). Behavioural intentions are significantly related to behaviour and are regarded as a predictor or indicator of actual behaviour.

Furthermore, prior studies indicate that intentions can be predicted based on the attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen and Madden 1986; Courneya 1995, Hrubes, Ajzen, and Daigle 2001; Schiffer and Ajzen 1985). These results are based on the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen 1985), and as an extension of the theory of reasoned action. The factors influencing intentions may be also related to or influenced by a multitude of variables such as personal, social, and informational background factors.

In the travel and tourism literature, intentions to travel are articulated and examined in the scope of trip planning behaviour, which is regarded as part of a complex decision-making and behavioural process. These processes involve multiple determinants or components which are interrelated (Decrop 1999). The whole process is dynamic and there is a continuous interaction between the elements of the decision process.

Many of the decision-making process and destination choice models have emphasized that travel stimuli (marketing communication, travel literature, word of mouth, and travel trade suggestions and recommendations), personal and social determinants of travel behaviour (socioeconomic status, personality features, social influences, and attitudes and values), and external variables (confidence, image of destination, past travel experience, assessment of objective/subjective risks, and constrains of time, cost, etc.) play an important role in creating destination awareness, influencing travel intentions, and/or selecting choice sets (destination, accommodation, activity, attraction, transportation mode, route, shopping, eating, etc.). Selected papers supporting these finding include Mathieson and Wall (1982); Middleton (1988); Reisinger and Mavondo (2005); Schmoll (1977); Um and Crompton (1991); Woodside and Lyonski (1989); Woodside and MacDonald (1994).

Of the factors influencing intentions, many tourism studies have suggested that advertising as a promotional campaign “stimulates” intentions or visits to a particular destination (Burke and Gitelson 1990; Kim, Hwang, and Fesenmaier 2005; Messmer and Johnson 1993; McWilliams and Crompton 1997; Woodside 1996). This approach has generally focused on evaluating individuals’ responses to advertising campaigns within the context of destination awareness and intentions to visit. It is primarily concerned with the flow of events, from the tourist stimuli to the purchase decision (Moutinho 1987).

In this context, Middleton (1988) describes it as a “stimulus-response” that includes a range of competitive products produced and marketed by the tourism industry and communication channels (such as advertising, sales promotion, brochures, personal selling, and PR) which can be manipulated by tourism marketers to stimulate potential tourists to make decisions to purchase. However, Pechmann and Stewart (1990) suggest that only those travellers who already had a general intention to travel to a particular destination are likely to formalize the destination decision based on the exposure to an advertisement.

This study focuses on the relationship between advertising awareness, media channel, and intentions to travel. It was assumed that, holding other factors constant, exposure to an advertisement for a destination is more likely to increase the intention to travel to the destination.

**METHODOLOGY**

This study uses data from two Web-based surveys concerning travel to Prince Edward Island in 2006. Prince Edward Island (PEI) is Canada’s smallest province, with a population of just 134,000 and 5,684 square kilometres of land. PEI is separated from its sister provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick by the
Northumberland Strait. In 1997, the Confederation Bridge was opened providing a permanent link to the mainland. PEI has been called "the million acre farm," and agriculture is the biggest industry. PEI is known for its potatoes, and fields with rows of green potato plants set in the red soil of the Island are a common sight. The combination of the red and green of the fields and the blue of the water makes for striking scenery, and is one of the reasons why tourism is the Islands’ second largest industry drawing over 1.1 million visitors per year.

The surveys were developed and launched by the Atlantic Canada Tourism Partnership (ACTP). This regional organization’s mandate is to increase tourism to the four Atlantic Provinces of Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick, Newfoundland and Labrador, and Nova Scotia, and funds are used for market research and advertising. The ACTP includes representatives from the Atlantic Canada Opportunities Agency (ACOA), a key provider of financing, the four provincial tourism departments, and the four provincial tourism industry associations.

Each Province’s tourism department was responsible for implementing its own surveys. The first, the travel intentions survey, was launched via pop-up messages that appeared on the official provincial tourism Websites inviting the visitor to take a short survey. This survey asked how respondents had learned about the PEI Visitors Website, the main reason for visiting the site, current place of residence (province, state, or international), recall of advertising for PEI in any form (TV, magazines, radio, online sites), the likelihood of visiting PEI, and the timing of a visit.

The second was a follow-up conversion survey sent by e-mail to all those who were deemed to have completed the first survey, and who agreed to participate in the follow-up study. For this survey, participants were asked about recollection of their intentions to visit PEI, search behaviour for travel information, trips taken in 2006, many trip-related questions for those who had visited PEI, and demographics. For those who had not visited PEI, the focus was on reasons for not travelling to PEI, and the intention to visit during the next two or three years. Respondents to both surveys were assured that all answers would be treated confidentially and no one person would be identified in the research report.

Data collection for the travel intentions survey took place over seven months from March 2 to October 4, 2006. When a customer visited one of four pages on the official visitors’ Website for PEI, a pop-up message appeared inviting the visitor to take a short survey on travel intentions. The four applicable pages were the Homepage, and the main pages of the “Getting Here,” “Things to Do,” and “Places to Stay” links. The pop-up appeared on both the English and French versions of the Website, and was triggered for every fourth click on one of the pages.

The number of pop-ups that appeared was based on page views, not simply “hits” to the Website. The number of page views is the number of times any file or content that would generally be considered a Web document was delivered by the Web server. Over this period of time, there were 11,446,710 page views. However, for individual users, the invitation to take the survey no longer appeared after the initial appearance of the pop-up. This was the case regardless of whether the user had declined or responded to the survey. Once a cookie was associated with a given IP address, the pop-up would not appear again.

Even so, since cookies were used, some individuals may have been double-surveyed since they may have accessed the PEI Visitors Website from a different computer. In addition, the user may have cleared the cookies from their browser or the cookies may have expired meaning the user may have received another invitation to take to the survey and some individuals may have answered the survey again.

The total number of unique page views on the applicable pages over this period was 1,643,187. The Homepage accounted for 1,043,697 of these page views, with the other four links accounting for the remainder as follows: Getting Here, 185,057; Things to Do, 180,358; and Places to Stay, 234,075 page views. Since the pop-up was programmed to appear on every fourth click on the applicable page, the number of unique opportunities to complete the survey was 410,797 (1,643,187 ÷ 4). Those agreeing to take the survey were eligible to win one of six Island-made products.

During the second week of October 2006, respondents who completed the Web-based travel intentions survey and indicated they would participate in a follow-up survey were sent an e-mail invitation to complete the online Conversion Study. The survey was available on a dedicated Website for 30 days.

RESULTS

Over the complete sample period for the travel intentions survey (March 2 to October 4), 410,797 unique pop-ups appeared. Panel A of Table 1 indicates the number of travel intentions surveys started by month. In total, 62,894 respondents started the survey, implying a response rate of 15.3%. However, of these only 55,803 people completed the survey. In addition, 1,996 surveys were discarded since they were completed by people under 18 years of age or who lived...
The number of respondents was highest in June but then significantly declined in the following months. This result suggests that many people plan their trip to PEI in the period leading to June and then the number of visitors to the Website substantially declines. It is also possible that the same people return to the visitor’s Website but, since they already received the pop-up, they would no longer be eligible for the study. This combination likely accounts for the large decreases after June.

Panel B of Table 1 indicates that the majority of respondents who provided residence location were from Canada (72.4%) with all provinces and territories represented. Canadian visitors to PEI are primarily from Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Quebec, and Ontario. These four provinces accounted for 84.9% of the surveys from Canada, and 63.5% of all the surveys.

A further 24.3% of respondents were from the United States with completed surveys from all 50 States. In terms of regions, New England (6 states) and the Mid- and South Atlantic areas (11 states) accounted for almost two-thirds of the surveys completed by U.S residents. The North Central (12 states) areas accounted for a further a 16.3%. Of the remaining states, California was notable, accounting for 4.8% of the surveys. These latter two areas are relatively new markets for PEI so this result would be considered encouraging for the PEI travel industry. Finally, 3.3% of respondents were from other countries. Based on this data it seems clear that the vast majority of travellers considering PEI as a destination live relatively close to the province. PEI seems to be considered as, primarily, a driving destination.

Table 2 provides the cross tabulation regarding how respondents to the travel intentions survey learned about the PEI visitor’s Website and the likelihood of visiting PEI in the next year. Results for both Canadian and US residents are provided. Respondents were asked to rate the likelihood of their visiting PEI in the next year on a five point scale with 1 and 2 being definitely and probably going to visit, 3 uncertain about visiting, and 4 and 5 probably and definitely not going to visit. A don’t know option was also provided. Respondents selecting options 1 and 2 were grouped and are termed intended travelers, while those selecting the other options are termed unintended travellers.

There are a number of findings of interest. First, significantly more Canadian respondents to the survey were intended travellers versus those from the US. This is likely a factor of distance to PEI and level of awareness. Second, about two-thirds of the respondents to the travel intentions survey learned about the PEI Visitor’s Website from other online sources – a search engine, a link from
another Website, or from an on-line ad. This result is not surprising given that a visit to a Website is the factor driving responses to the survey. Given this fact it might be considered surprising that only about two-thirds of respondents learned about the Website from an online source. Search engines are a powerful way to find information on the Web. That only 46.8% of respondents found the PEI Website through a search engine might be considered surprising. Potential visitors are using other ad forms, a positive sign for those marketing PEI.

Table 2. Cross-Tabulation of Learning Source of the PEI Visitor Website and Intention to Visit PEI:
For Canadian and US Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Canadian Respondents</th>
<th>US Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Intended Travellers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Sources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>26,668</td>
<td>20,937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(68.5%)</td>
<td>(78.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television, advertisement,</td>
<td>3,595</td>
<td>3,041</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>travel show, editorial</td>
<td>(9.2%)</td>
<td>(84.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper advertisement or</td>
<td>639</td>
<td>518</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>editorial</td>
<td>(1.6%)</td>
<td>(81.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazine advertisement or</td>
<td>1,490</td>
<td>1,267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>editorial</td>
<td>(3.8%)</td>
<td>(85.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information received by mail</td>
<td>1,378</td>
<td>1,182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3.5%)</td>
<td>(85.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends or relatives</td>
<td>3,135</td>
<td>2,709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(8.0%)</td>
<td>(86.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2,053</td>
<td>1,741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(5.0%)</td>
<td>(84.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38,958</td>
<td>31,395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(100.0%)</td>
<td>(80.6%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * (χ² value = 244.315; d.f. = 6; p < .000) and b (χ² value = 81.874; d.f. = 6; p < .000) were from Chi-Square Analyses; c One-sample tests were examined based on percentages in the parentheses within intended travellers (t-value = 2.904; p < .027) and d One-sample tests were examined based on percentages in the parentheses within intended travellers (t-value = .568; p < .591). e Online sources include a search engine (46.8%), a link from another Website (15.2%), or from an on-line ad (6.1%). The numbers in parentheses are the percentage of all respondents selecting this option.

Third, the fact that other information sources were used to learn about the PEI Visitor’s Website is important, particularly for Canadian respondents, since the intention to visit is significantly higher for these other information sources versus the online sources. This result makes sense given that respondents had to write the address for the Website down or take a document to the computer to type in the Website address. Those doing so are likely more committed to visiting a destination than those simply following a link from another online source. Getting information into potential visitor’s hands is important, particularly by mail and through word-of-mouth.

Those receiving information by mail seem to be highly committed to visiting. It has been well documented that word-of-mouth (friends and relatives) dominates other forms of advertising and is more important as an information source than marketer-dominated sources of mass media advertising (see Gilly et al. 1998; Fodness and Murray 1999; Money and Crotts 2003). Finally, one option that should be added to the list of choices is: “Visited the Website in the past.” This may provide an indication of how frequently visitors return to the Website, and provide an indication of possible double surveying.

In results available from the authors, it was found that 75% of respondents indicated that the main reason for visiting the PEI visitors Website was to plan or research a potential trip to PEI. Potential travellers visit the Website after deciding on PEI as a potential destination. Relatively few of the visitors to the site happen upon it while considering a potential destination, and those that do are less likely to visit PEI. This is particularly the case for Americans. It seems that the significant majority of visitors to the site are already aware of PEI as a travel destination. Relatively few of respondents were unaware of PEI, visited the site, and then added PEI to the list of possible destinations.

Also in results available from the authors, a significant gap between Canadian and American respondents concerning ad recall was found. While 65% of Canadian respondents recalled seeing or hearing an ad for PEI prior to visiting the Website, only 31.7% of US respondents did. Those seeing an ad though were much more likely to visit PEI. Overall, only 56.6% of those completing the travel intentions survey recalled seeing or hearing ads for PEI. This would likely be considered a disappointing result for those marketing PEI as a travel destination for two reasons.

First, a great deal of money is spent on advertising PEI by both government and industry. For example, for the 2005-06 tourist season, the PEI Department of Tourism spent about $11.7 million on marketing, including mass advertising.
and direct mail. This did not include funds received from other funding partners, or employee salaries and other administrative costs. Second, most respondents to the survey are from the primary points of origin for travellers to PEI and are already aware of PEI. Given this, it might be expected that more than 56.6% of the respondents to a survey that was on a destination’s Website would have seen or heard advertising for the destination. This result presents a major challenge to those marketing PEI.

For Canadian and US Respondents, Table 3 provides the media source of the ad that was recalled. Note that multiple responses were permitted so the total media sources recalled is higher than the number of respondents who reported seeing or hearing an ad. For the Canadian respondents, a TV ad accounted for 56.7% of all ads seen. Newspapers and magazines accounted for another 24.1% of ads seen. The other media sources recorded modest recall. For American respondents, TV and magazines were equivalent accounting 36% and 32% of the ads seen. While the result for TV may be disappointing, depending on the amount of money spent, the high rate of recall for magazines is encouraging. This seems to be a media in which more funds are invested. The cost of magazine advertising is also much less than TV.

Finally, it is interesting that the media source of the recalled ad had little bearing on the intention to visit. This result is surprisingly different from the results in Table 2 concerning the information source for the Website. The reason for this is likely due to the high incidence of online sources recorded in Table 2. Overall, the results would likely be considered disappointing outcome for those marketing PEI as a destination.

In results not reported, it is interesting to note that 81% of the intended travellers were planning to visit PEI in the peak tourism season of July to September. This result again supports the view that most visitors to the PEI visitor’s site are already aware of PEI as a travel destination, and are visiting the Website as part of the trip planning process. It appears that increasing the level of awareness of PEI as a destination will lead to more visitors.

Further Analysis of the Effect of the Level of Advertising Recalled on Travel Intentions

Logistic regression was used to identify the effect of the level of advertising recalled on travel intentions. Logistic regression is a suitable technique to predict the likelihood of an event occurring and uses a dichotomous dependent variable. Likewise, it can accommodate independent variables that are measured on a continuous or categorical scale. For these regressions, the dependent variable was intention to travel with intended travellers, as defined earlier, coded 0 and intended travellers 1. The independent variable termed “media effects” was the sum of the number of media sources the respondent reported seeing or hearing before visiting the visitors Website. The maximum value for this variable was 9.

Table 4 reports the results of this analysis for both Canadian and US respondents. The “overall correct” statistic indicates that the intended or unintended travellers were classified correctly at a very high level for Canadian respondents, slightly lower for the US. The model is highly significant for both countries indicating that recalling media significantly increases the likelihood of visiting PEI.

### Table 3. Cross-Tabulation of Media Source of the Ad that was Recalled and Intention to Visit PEI: For Canadian and US Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media Source</th>
<th>Canadian Respondents</th>
<th>US Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Intended Travellers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV</td>
<td>19,830</td>
<td>(56.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(36.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>1,870</td>
<td>(5.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td>3,531</td>
<td>(10.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazine</td>
<td>4,897</td>
<td>(14.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online</td>
<td>2,312</td>
<td>(6.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email</td>
<td>741</td>
<td>(2.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsolicited</td>
<td>602</td>
<td>(1.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct Mail</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct Mail</td>
<td>951</td>
<td>(2.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade Show</td>
<td>259</td>
<td>(0.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34,993</td>
<td>(10.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: a The cross-tabulation results are based on multiple responses; b (t-value = 1.804; p < .109); c (t-value = -.235; p < .109) One-sample tests were examined based on percentages in the parentheses within intended travellers.

Logistic regression was used to identify the effect of the level of advertising recalled on travel intentions. Logistic regression is a suitable technique to predict the likelihood of an event occurring and uses a dichotomous dependent variable. Likewise, it can accommodate independent variables that are measured on a continuous or categorical scale. For these regressions, the dependent variable was intention to travel with intended travellers, as defined earlier, coded 0 and intended travellers 1. The independent variable termed “media effects” was the sum of the number of media sources the respondent reported seeing or hearing before visiting the visitors Website. The maximum value for this variable was 9.

Table 4 reports the results of this analysis for both Canadian and US respondents. The “overall correct” statistic indicates that the intended or unintended travellers were classified correctly at a very high level for Canadian respondents, slightly lower for the US. The model is highly significant for both countries indicating that recalling media significantly increases the likelihood of visiting PEI.
visiting. While the media effects variable was significant for both respondents, the level of significance for US visitors was much higher. This is also reflected in the odds ratio.

Table 4. Analysis of Media Effects and Individual Media Sources on Travel Intentions Using Logistic Regression: For Canadian and US Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media Effects</th>
<th>Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
<th>Parameter Estimates</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.360</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.636</td>
<td>1.350</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Effects</td>
<td>.339</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.403</td>
<td>.463</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV</td>
<td>.168</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.183</td>
<td>-.025</td>
<td>.748</td>
<td>.975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>.376</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.457</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td>-.183</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.833</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.964</td>
<td>1.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazine</td>
<td>-.127</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.881</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>1.167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On-line</td>
<td>-.397</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.672</td>
<td>-.372</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.357</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.635</td>
<td>1.350</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Effects</td>
<td>.361</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.442</td>
<td>.480</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.616</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td>-.183</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.833</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.964</td>
<td>1.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazine</td>
<td>-.127</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td>.881</td>
<td>.154</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>1.167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On-line</td>
<td>-.397</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.672</td>
<td>-.372</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.689</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The odds ratio indicates the probability of an event occurring when the independent variable increases (Menard 1995). Therefore, the more media that is recalled, the higher the likelihood the respondent will visit PEI. Thus, Canadian (US) respondents who recalled seeing or hearing advertising for PEI are going to be about 1.40 (1.62) times more likely to visit PEI than those who have not been exposed to advertising for PEI. As suggested earlier, increasing awareness of PEI in the US market will result in more visitors.

To further investigate the individual media effects, the logistic regression model was also run using the media effects variable and a dummy variable for the individual media sources. So, for TV, if the respondent indicated that TV was the media source recalled, a 1 was used, if not the dummy variable assumed a value of 0. Individual regressions for each of the media sources were run. Given the low numbers of responses for some of the media sources, only those recording a minimum of 5% of the total responses in Table 3 were considered. This eliminated four of the media sources for both Canada and the US.

The results indicate that the overall media effects variable is still highly significant in all regressions, and the odds ratio is well above 1. However, the individual media source variables are positive and significant in only 2 of the regressions for both Canada and the US. In these cases, the individual media source is providing additional explanatory power in the regression, which is also reflected in the odds ratio. So, for example, Canadian respondents reporting that they recalled an ad from one of the nine sources, and also from TV or radio were much more likely to visit PEI. Both media sources were important and significant contributors to the intention to visit PEI.

The same conclusion can be drawn for US respondents reporting that they recalled a magazine ad or who received requested direct mail. For the other three (two) individual media sources for Canada (the US), the incremental impact of recalling the ad was negative. That is, this additional exposure negatively impacted the intention to visit PEI. It would likely be surprising to most marketers that exposure to additional advertising would have a negative impact on intentions. The more accurate way to interpret this result is likely that the overall media effects variable had a more powerful impact on intentions to visit PEI than did, for example, the extra exposure to newspaper ads.

**DISCUSSION**

The respondents to the travel intentions survey provided a total of 43,588 valid e-mail addresses. In mid-October, after the travel intentions survey closed,
invitation to complete the conversion study were sent by e-mail. A very modest 3,587 e-mail recipients started the survey indicating an 8.3% response rate. Of these, only 2,912 respondents completed the survey and 48 of these were discarded since they were completed by participant under the age of 18 leaving 2,864 usable surveys, an overall participation rate of only 6.6%. Of these respondents, only 849 indicated they travelled to PEI suggesting a conversion rate of only 29.6%. Given the 76% of respondents to the travel intentions survey suggested that they were definitely or probably going to visit PEI, this very low conversion rate is suspect.

Many prior studies suggest that low response rates can cause a variety of problems such as nonresponse bias which occurs when survey requests are ignored by large numbers of visitors (in this case) who differ from respondents in meaningful ways. In the context of a Web-based travel survey, for example, the results will be skewed if those who complete the online questionnaire hold different views of their travel experience than do those who withhold their responses (Couper 2000; Epstein and Klinkenberg 2002; Gonzalez 2002; Rogelberg et al. 2000; Thompson and Surface 2007).

Regardless of the reason, the results for the conversion part of this research are highly suspect. This is further reinforced when it is considered that the trip-related and demographic variables for the conversion study are all significantly different than the results for the 2004 Exit Survey. This was examined by performing t-tests and Chi-Square Analyses. Thus, for the purposes of this paper, the conversion study results are not discussed.

CONCLUSION
While the overall response rate to the travel intention survey may seem low, the large number of usable responses should mitigate any sampling bias. For the conversion study, however, the very low response rate is a major cause for concern. It is not clear why so few of those who completed the travel intention survey completed the conversion study. With only 35 questions, the conversion study was not lengthy and, for most individuals, should have taken less than 10 minutes to complete. Perhaps the problem is associated with the method used to invite respondents to complete the conversion study. While a convenient and inexpensive method of communication, e-mail is subject to a high rate of non-response. This may occur because many e-mail programs direct e-mails from an unknown user to a junk mail folder that is then automatically emptied on a regular basis. The original respondent would then never have seen the request for a follow-up survey.

In other cases, users may have simply deleted the message without opening it if it is from an unfamiliar source. It is not uncommon for low response rates to e-mail requests. In many cases of unsolicited e-mails, response rates of less than 1% are not uncommon. For this study, users indicated they would complete a follow-up survey, but the combination of never directly receiving the request, lack of time, or simply a change of heart may account for the low response rate. Even in cases where all a respondent has to do is click on a Web address imbedded within an e-mail to confirm an earlier action, non-response rates can run as high as 25% (Based on a conversation with Vision Critical, a major on-line panel provider).

To deal with this low response rate issue, either a “cleaner” e-mail list needs to be used, more reminder e-mails sent, the response rate to the original pop-up survey increased, or improved incentives provided to complete the conversion study. As it stands, the results of the conversion study are highly suspect given the low overall response rate and the low number of completed surveys in general.

A significant amount of money was spent on this research project by the ACTP and while the travel intentions portion of the study would be deemed to be a success with quality data collected, the real underlying purpose, an estimate of the rate of converting intended visits to actual visits would, at best, be viewed as disappointing. Some of the suggestions made above should be implemented in an attempt to improve response rates in the future.

In addition, the travel intentions survey should be expanded to include more questions. For example, a question such as “have you visited PEI before, and if so, when” would be useful to further analyze the data for awareness and the influences on visitation. In addition, demographic data should be collected to compare the results to recent Exit Surveys to determine if a different type of traveller is visiting the PEI Visitor’s Website versus those visiting PEI. These additional questions would not significantly increase the time it takes to complete the survey and would make the results more useful.

In conclusion, this paper analyzed the results from two Web based surveys commissioned by the Atlantic Canada Tourism Partnership for use on Prince Edward Island, a major tourism destination. The results indicate that intentions to visit PEI are highly related to how potential travellers learn about the Visi-
tor’s Website. While online sources are the most prevalent method used, the intention to visit is significantly lower for this option versus the other options. Those using other sources are likely more committed to visiting a destination than those simply following a link from another online source. Getting information into potential visitor’s hands is important, particularly by mail and through word-of-mouth.

The intention to visit PEI is also highly related to the ability to recall certain types of advertising, although a significant gap exists between Canadian and American respondents concerning ad recall. While 65% of Canadian respondents recalled seeing or hearing an ad for PEI prior to visiting the Website, only 31.7% of US respondents did. Those seeing an ad though were much more likely to visit PEI. Overall, only 56.6% of those completing the travel intentions survey recalled seeing or hearing ads for PEI.

Given the amount of money spent on advertising PEI, that most respondents to the survey are from the main points of origin for travellers to PEI, and that most respondents are already aware of PEI, this might be considered a disappointing result. It also presents a major challenge to those marketing PEI. The large majority of respondents to the survey were aware of PEI as a travel destination prior to completing the survey. Increasing the level of awareness in the US market will significantly contribute to increasing American visitors to PEI. For various reasons, the conversion part of the research effort provided unreliable results.

REFERENCES


Pro-poor Approach in Tourism as a Means of Ending Poverty:
Case study in Nepal and Sri Lanka

Shammika D.L.A.H.
Department of Economics
University of Ruhuna, Sri Lanka
E-mail: shammikaur@yahoo.com

Krishangani PPGI
Department of Neurology
General Hospital Matara, Sri Lanka
E-mail: indikaur@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
For alleviation of poverty; pro-poor approach in development programmes has been identified as a necessity. Tourism industry has been identified as having a potential for pro-poor development. It can be an important force for developing underprivileged rural areas. Two locations in Nepal and Sri Lanka were identified for analyzing the applicability of the pro-poor tourism concept in micro-level. Poverty alleviating measures in those localities are discussed as eliminating income deprivation, capability deprivation and exclusion calling for social mobilization, gender equality. Integration of grass roots level people and mobilization of marginalized groups such as women are antithetic to the social exclusion pervasive in Humla and Matara. Promoting agro based small and medium enterprises allow peasants to make their own linkages with trekking companies, hotels and travelers. This is an advanced stage of entrepreneurial activities. To direct benefits of tourism industry to the poor the planning and policy making should take bottom-up approach rather than top-down.

Keywords: Pro-poor tourism, income deprivation, capability deprivation, exclusion, social mobilization.

INTRODUCTION
The definition of poverty remains vehemently contested however, while condition of poverty clearly vary between different areas of the world, as does the way poverty is experienced, making it more difficult to reach a ‘universal’ definition that can be agreed upon. Poverty is actually a rational issue which refers to life chances and experiences which are uneven socially and spatially, but debates about poverty have generally focused on those groups that are deprived and lacking in social power, assets or capital (Power,M., 2003). In describing and conceptualizing poverty, researchers, policy makers and activists often employ terms such as vulnerability, destitution, hunger, degradation, exclusion and powerlessness. There is no doubt that these words mean or conote a lack of certain things regarded as necessities of life (Rahnema 1992).

However different the understanding about poverty, it is seldom argued on indiscriminate ramification of poverty on every part of the world. Poverty possesses a threat to political stability locally as well as globally. Words of a British prime minister, Clement Atlee exemplify the concern of developed world about poverty and the need to tackle it. He said ‘we can not create a heaven inside and leave a hell outside and expect to survive’ (Nabudere 2003).

For Rahnema the term ‘global poverty’ is in some ways ‘an entirely new and modern construct’, while attempts to comparatively measure inequalities between nations and eradicate them can be considered to be partly a product and intervention of the post war era (Rahnem,1992). Truman’s Point IV speech in 1949 introduced a new understanding of “development” as providing “technical assistance” to the less fortunate peoples. It was at this juncture that the stage for the entry of the ‘brettonwood’ institutions, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, came into the arena of development and modernization (Sach 1990). Long before this, policy makers in many developing countries had in fact defined poverty alleviation as the over arching objective of their national development.

As far back as 1938, nearly a decade prior to India’s becoming independent, Jawharal Nehru, the future Prime Minister of independent India addressing the national planning committee of the Indian national congress said “…could not consider any problem much less plan, without some definite aim and social objective. That aim was declared to be insuring an adequate standard of living for the mass. In other words, to get rid of the appalling poverty of the people…the national income had to be greatly increased, in addition to this increased production their had to be more equitable distribution of wealth’ (Nehru 1946). As Nehru had clearly identified misdistributions of wealth has proven to be a major contributing factor for the failure of development in most countries.

This is also an ironical result of imposing alien theories and models of development on ‘developing countries’. In the case of Nepal foreign aid has mainly helped the urban elite and has thus worsened the inequality in income and asset distribution (Adithya 2005). The same phenomenon is expressed also by the significant difference in the prevalence of poverty in urban and rural areas of developing countries. Poverty in Nepal is largely a rural phenomenon. In 2000/01, 44% of the rural population was living in poverty. Poverty was significantly lower, only 23%, in urban areas (Adithya 2005). The legacy of the Sri Lankan rural poor is not different from that of Nepal.
According to the 2002 censuses incidence of poverty in urban sector was 7.9% while that of rural was 24.7% (Poverty Statistics report 2002). To mitigate this disparity and uplift the quality of life of rural poor economic growth is an essential ingredient. It is the positive participation of the poor in the development process which is seen to promote economic growth. Increased rural income generates greater demand, which in turn is the key to balance and sustainable rural economic growth and food security, because it will promote a diversity of local services, trade and production with impacts locally perceived and manageable.

**PRO-POOR DEVELOPMENT**

During the 1990's the thinking on poverty and development shifted to increase the emphasis given to development strategies that were pro-poor founded on information and priority among processes that are ‘participatory’ and responsive to what it means to be poor, why people remain to be poor and the constraints that have to be overcome if poor households are to pull themselves above the poverty line (McMurty 1998). Today the poverty line adopted by the World Bank to indicate poverty is US$ 1.08 a day (World Bank 2000). Most people in Nepal are very near the absolute poverty line which is indicated by the marginal difference between poverty line income per year (US$100-150) and the national per capita income per year (US$170-230). Even though the per capita income in Sri Lanka (US$900) is relatively satisfactory the national poverty headcount ratio remains high (22.7 percent in 2002) (Poverty Statistics report, 2002). In the case of Nepal its gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate is quite erratic and unstable.

During the various development plans, the GDP growth rates show large swings (1.8 percent to 4.9 percent) (Devendra and Chhetry 2001). Sectoral growth rates reveal even larger swings. Nonagricultural growth rates have remained consistently higher than agricultural growth rates. Nonagricultural growth rates, on the other hand, exhibit a more stable growth path and tend to cluster around 6.6 percent (Devendra and Chhetry 2001). Overall GDP growth rates tend to cluster at around 5.0 percent (Devendra and Chhetry 2001). In Nepal the percentage share of total foreign exchange earning from tourism in comparison to total export and third country export is high registering the levels of 43.6% and 56.1% respectively on an average during the fiscal years 1974/75 to 1996/97 (Shrestha, Hari and Prasad 2000). At present, the gross tourism earnings represent around 3.2% of the GDP in Sri Lanka. Furthermore, around 51% of gross domestic output of the tourism sector represents its value added component. The significance of tourism both in Nepal and Sri Lanka envisage a potential the industry has to accelerate countries’ economic growth.

But to be an effective mean of ending poverty the tourism industry should generate net benefits for the poor and should unlock opportunities for economic gain other livelihood benefits and engagement in decision making for the poor which is lack in existing system of tourism.

The existing classic approach of tourism occasionally brings direct benefits for the poor. This top-down, expert-led approach is evident in the control exerted by multi-national companies, with their external capital, expertise, technology and ideas. The entrepreneurial role of elites and the lack of planning control over large-scale package tourism that is usually aimed at foreigner reflects the inadequacy of the state which rarely has the desire or the ability to limit development without loosing what are perceived as valuable jobs and revenue (May 1991). There are a number of convergent ideas within neopolitist development with its focus on a bottom-up approach involving local people from the beginning and post modernism. Some of these can be traced to sustainable forms of development and related to tourism. Alternative approaches that stem form grass roots development, including certain type of eco-tourism and community based tourism exhibit more sustainable characteristic than mass package tourism.

**EMERGE OF PRO-POOR TOURISM**

In 1999 at the Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) meeting in New York, tourism was discussed for the first time in the Rio process. There was considerable concern, and some anger, expressed by developing country governments and by NGOs about the way in which environment had dominated initiatives on tourism since the 1992 United Nations Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro. Developing country governments and NGOs alike were insistent that the balance needed to be significantly redressed and that there needed to be a triple bottom line approach to assessing sustainability, with considerably more attention being devoted to economic and social issues. Although the Earth Summit was intended to focus on environment and development issues, many of those present at the 1999 CSD meeting felt that development had largely been ignored. As a consequence the CSD urged governments to ‘maximize’ the potential of tourism for eradicating poverty by developing appropriate strategies in co-operation with all major groups, indigenous and local communities. Work on pro-poor tourism has highlighted a number of issues that need to be
addressed by tourism in order to enhance its contribution to poverty reduction (Ashley, Roe and Goodwin 2001).

LOCALITY

In Sri Lanka and Nepal I identified two localities where the concept of sustainable pro-poor tourism is being practiced. Humla is a very remote district of Mid-West Nepal in the north-west corner of the country bordering Tibet. In a composite index of development, Humla district ranked fourth from worst off (Banskota, Sharma, Sadeque and Bajracharya 1997). Gender issues are a major concern - in a ranking of the 75 districts of Nepal, Humla scores lowest in terms of women’s empowerment (Banskota, Sharma, Sadeque and Bajracharya 1997). A Dutch development agency (SNV), works through its District Partners Programme (DPP) with district and village development committees, NGOs and the private sector to ‘benefit women and disadvantaged groups at village level.’ Tourism development is one means of achieving that objective in Humla District. Local people lack the skills, awareness, capital and linkages to provide what trekking companies and tourists require. Kirale Kele is an estuary located within the Matara district in Southern Province of Sri Lanka. This area was started to develop as a tourist destination by Southern Development Authority in 2006. The project mainly focuses on community participation, bio-diversity and environmental conservation in the area. The poor people in Kirale-Kale area have been provided with various opportunities in order to sustain the pro poor initiatives.

DISCUSSION

The transition to modern economic growth was not only a question of ‘more’ (output per person) but also a ‘change’. The transition to modern economic growth involved urbanization, changing gender roles, increased social mobility, changing family structure and increasing specialization (Sachs and Jeffrey 2005). The pro-poor sustainable tourism projects lounged in Humla and Matara demonstrate certain characteristics underpinning modern economic growth.

Gender discrimination causing high incidence of poverty among women and female-headed households is a significant factor for poverty in South (Asia and Adithya 2005). Opening job opportunities in informal sector has increased the participation of women in income generation both in Humla and Matara. Small and Medium Enterprise sector possibilities were identified in handicrafts, vegetable farming, poultry farming, and hotel and teashop management. The pea and potato production, apple production apricot wine making in Humla and toddy, vinegar production and fishing in marshland in Sri Lanka are also available which are distinctive to each location. An aspiration to return to traditional values and skills can result in cultural craft revival that can act as important tourist economy (Cater 1994). As well as, increase local pride and self-confidence and boost the local economy. However it is also argued the jobs created in tourism field can draw workers away from other sectors of the economy and thereby cause a fall in output level in those sectors.

Out of 50,212 population in Humla district 80% of peoples’ condition was below the poverty line. The cluster of 7000 selected in Simikot – Hilsa was the worse in Humla district (Regmi 1999). Out of this 2800 people are benefited from the project. 40 % of this population earned only less than 10$ per month. After the new project was initiated the income has increased to 60-80$ (Caroline Ashley, Dilyes Roe and Harold Goodwin, 2001). In Matara district, population was 7, 97, 673. Out of that 16%remains bellow the poverty line (Censes report in Matara District 2005). 34,100 of people below poverty line are being benefited from the project(Censes report in Matara District, 2005). SDA predicts that per-capita income in Kirala kele area would increase form 13$ to 200$ (Wijerathna, 2007). It is useful as a simple device to count heads and roughly quantify the poor in terms of income poverty. But whether this devise is adequate and appropriate to measure poverty and the success of poverty alleviation programmes is debatable. Focusing on this issue, Sen Amithya sees that to have ‘inadequate income is not mater of having an income level below and externally fixed poverty line, but to have an income bellow what is adequate for generating specified levels of capabilities for the person in question’ (Sen 1992). Education and training delivered by CBOs can move local people into
managerial roles within the tourism industry and as knowledge an experience are defused, so their role in decision making and hence more active participation increases. For the Kirala kele project in Matara Southern Development Authority (SDA) has integrated various stake holders such as Sri Lanka Tourist Board, Irrigation department, Central Environment Authority, Local Government Authority, Matara Municipal council and most importantly the local people through CBOs. This decision making process, represents a drastic departure from that of national level policy making in tourism which is mainly top-down.

The national level intervention depicts the Friedmann’s social reform theory which is based on the premise that those in charge of policy are best placed to understand the particulars of the situation, and possess appropriate training to design adequate solutions for their resolution (Friedmann 1987). It goes with the believe that without state intervention and control the market economy would produce inefficiency, waste and injustice.

In contrast to that Friedmann’s social learning model recognizes the political realities and the perception of reality are not limited to those constructed by the experts and are as numerous as the participant in the planning process: no single agent has the exclusive right to represent reality. Its’ most determining characteristic is its dependent on transformative practices originated within civil society (Friedmann 1987). The social learning model recognizes the legitimacy of personal knowledge in the decision making system. People live in unique circumstance and each society may possess special knowledge about their particular environment which is not in the purview of science. Friedmann’s used social learning model to explain different aspects of the community processes inherent in community tourism planning.

By utilizing social learning model in tourism local communities are empowered through the building of individual and collective capabilities. In Humla project many capabilities were needed to establish in order to empower the local communities. Production and marketing skill training to entrepreneurs and groups (CBOs), entrepreneurship development, Skill development training, in hotel management, trekking guide and cooking, English language, vegetable and fruit cultivation, poultry farming, handicrafts such as beadwork, knitting and weaving etc., to be provided via local NGOs to CBO members along the Simikot – Hilsa trail (Naomi and Saville 2001). Over time education, training and support can move local people into managerial roles within the tourism industry and as knowledge and experience are diffused, so their role in decision making, and hence in more active participation, increases.

Nevertheless, the possibility of deprived people to integrate in main stream is deceptive in the backdrop of social discrimination present in the form of caste, religious and ethnic differences. For example trekking tourism in Humla is currently entirely controlled by influential people of the Lama caste.

In Hindu villages along the trail, decision-making and entrepreneurship is concentrated amongst Thakuri caste people to the exclusion of occupational castes. Unity amongst Lama caste people is marked and they have a tradition of forming strong business relationships. Conversely, Hindu castes are renowned for maintaining divisions between so-called high and occupational castes and for only interacting in hierarchical ‘patron-client’ relationships.

The problem for most of the poor seeking work is that they cannot compete with the relatives and friends of the mule owners and therefore rarely get work (Ashley, Roe and Goodwin 2001). Awareness rising about inequity and the social disadvantages needs to be undertaken. In Sri Lankan case caste discrimination is not as severe as Nepale case. But it can not be neglected. What happens here can be regarded as social exclusion and deprivation which has been defined by European Foundation as the process through which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society in which they live (European Foundation 1995). Integrated rural development programmes, community development projects and the interventions by NGOs to mobilize the poor at the local level and ‘empower’ them can be seen as examples of efforts to combat social exclusion and promote social integration. When any forms of tourism grow, in fact it can determine both considerable positive and negative consequences on local economies, social cultural and environmental arenas.

It is important to note that effective and proper management of tourism is very important so as to control excessive exploitation and degradation of land and cultural norms and traditions. For environmental conservation in Humla several villages have decided to form Community Forestry User Groups. If active and well managed, these groups have the potential to control deforestation and replant and regenerate forest areas. After all the responsibility is to compromise and integrate multiple goals through an intentionally designed inclusive process in the interests of majority of community members.

REFERENCES


Naomi M. S. (2001). Practical Strategies For Pro-Poor Tourism: Case Study Of Pro-Poor Tourism and SNV in Humla District, West Nepal.


..., (2005), Censes report in Matara District, Sri Lanka: Censes and Statistic Department, Colombo.

Towards a Better Understanding of Theme Park Experience

Shuk Ting DORIS LO
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, China
E-mail: hmdorisl@inet.polyu.edu.hk

ABSTRACT
In today’s economy, the competition is shifting away from how companies deliver their services to how well they convert their services into a memorable experience. This notion is particularly true to all theme park operators since theme park visitation is a kind of experiential consumption, visitors look for hedonic experience rather than simply commercial service offerings. Theme park is a crucial component of today’s leisure and tourism industry with expected global revenue of $19.7 billion in 2010; however, the nature of theme park experience is still not well understood and most studies only emphasized on the theme park service offerings. The lack of understanding on theme park experience limits the contribution of theme park research. In light of this, this paper serves to enrich and extend the current knowledge on theme park experience by examining its psychological nature. Also, two psychological components — quality of experience and affect — in assessing theme park experience are discussed.

Keywords: Theme park experience, quality of experience, motivation; affect.

INTRODUCTION
The opening of Walt Disney Magic Kingdom in 1955 symbolized the beginning of the theme park industry. According to Lyon (1993), theme park is defined as “parks where rides and shows are placed and dressed in a story or theme context”. A similar but more detailed definition was given by Economics Research Associates (ERA) in which theme park is defined as “a gated attraction that contains rides and/or shows in a themed environment, offers a pay-one-price ticket for its guests and attracts at least 500,000 annual visits” (cited in O’Brien 2003).

Nowadays, theme park is a crucial component of the leisure and tourism industry, providing entertainment and excitement for local residents and tourists. There are over 350 theme parks worldwide, attracting more than 600 million visitors annually (O’Brien 2003). Global revenue from theme parks is expected to reach $19.7 billion in 2010, which represents a 30% increase from 2004 (Traiman 2004). Continuous growth is expected in the next decade, with Asia leading the way. For instance, if Shanghai Disneyland opens in 2010 as planned, it could have the largest number of visitors in the world (Ding 2004).

Theme park visitation is a kind of experiential consumption, visitors look for hedonic experience rather than simply commercial service offerings (Johns and Gyimóthy 2002). When visitors are asked why they visit a theme park, they often say that they want to have fruitful leisure experience with fun and excitement (Metzger, Kittiparaporn, Riabudhi Chia 1993); very few say they want only quality park services and facilities. Therefore, theme park operators need to understand the nature of theme park experience and find ways to satisfy their visitors.

In particular, theme park management need to examine the psychological aspects of theme park visits to understand what constitutes visitor experience and satisfaction. For example, the proper functioning of rides and cleanliness of food and beverage outlets are important, but the affective and experiential aspects of theme park visitation should also be managed. Yet, most literature emphasized on the theme park services and attributes. This paper serves to enrich the theme park literature by discussing the nature of theme park experience and its inherent components.

NATURE OF THEME PARK EXPERIENCE
Nowadays, companies can no longer focus on the physical aspects of the product; they also have to manage experience which contributes much to customer satisfaction and behavioral intention (Chan 2004; Oliver 1993; Westbrook and Oliver 1991). However, experience has been loosely-defined in the literature (Haywood and Muller 1988; Pearce and Caltabiano 1983). Different researchers have attempted to explain and apply the concept of experience in their studies, but cannot agree on its definition. A general review of the literature reveals three common interpretations of experience: a) experience is a countable concept that basically refers to “previous consumption frequency” (e.g. Pearce and Caltabiano 1983), b) experience is a general term that describes the whole consumption process (e.g. Haywood and Muller 1988; Jackson, White and Schmierer 1996), and c) experience is a psychological and subjective concept that incorporates emotion and/or motivational components in generating satisfaction (e.g. Chan 2004; Otto and Ritchie 1996; Unger and Kerman 1983; Vitterso, Vorkinn, Vistad and Vaagland 2000). Amongst these three interpretations, experience as a psychological and subjective concept has obtained more
attention from scholars, which signifies the importance of visitor emotions and/or needs when assessing experience.

In essence, experience is a psychological concept that primarily concerned about customers’ emotions and the fulfillment of customers’ needs (Mascarenhas, Kesavan and Bernacchi 2006). Theme park is a kind of experience-based products (Johns and Gyimothy 2002). Theme park visitation is a kind of socially organized recreational activity in which individuals voluntarily participate during their free time. People usually visit a theme park with family members or friends for intrinsic purposes such as having “a learning experience” or forgetting “personal worries” (Milman 1990). As supported by Johns and Gyimothy (2002), “the attractiveness of theme parks is often interpreted in terms of fulfilling consumer needs.” Also, theme park visitors look for enjoyable experience; for example, they want to have a happy, pleased, excited and aroused trip in a pleasant theme park environment. Visitors’ overall assessment of their theme park experience is actually guided by their emotional feelings (Bigne, Andreu and Gnoth 2005). These further pinpointed the psychological nature of theme park experience that deserves considerable attention.

In this paper, theme park experience is defined as a kind of recreational experience that comprises two psychological components: quality of experience and affect. Basically, ‘quality of experience’ refers to the fulfillment of visitors’ needs while ‘affect’ refers to visitors’ emotional feelings. In essence, theme park services are important to contribute, but not equivalent, to theme park experience.

MEASURING THEME PARK EXPERIENCE

Two components of experience are examined in this paper. The first component is quality of experience which was first introduced in the leisure literature and viewed as the antecedent of visitors’ overall satisfaction. Tian-Cole, Crompton and Willson (2002) define quality of experience as “the psychological outcomes which visitors derive from visiting a facility. It reflects visitors’ perceived benefits they obtain from the experience”. To be simple, it concerns about ‘need fulfillment’. In other words, a positive quality of experience can be attained when visitors can realize their motives (i.e., need fulfillment) via activity participation. Though this concept seemed to be relatively undeveloped, it can be understood through the concept of motivation.

Quality of experience is related to motivation. Motivation is a pre-consumption measurement and quality of experience is a post-consumption measurement. According to Manfredo, Driver and Tarrant (1996), “motivation, which is also known as psychological outcomes, was viewed as a hierarchy of instrumental and terminal expectations which influence people’s choice of activities and settings.” In tourism and leisure research literature, several approaches have been applied to conceptualize motivation. For example, Plog (2001) divided tourist types into two extremes along the Psychocentric-Allocentric Continuum as – Allocentric (i.e. venturer) and Psychocentric (i.e. dependable); the former types are characterized by variety-seeking, adventurous and confident personalities whereas the latter types are characterized by self-inhibited and non-adventuresome and nervous personalities. Iso-Ahola (1982) attempted to explain motivation by a Social Psychological Model, which introduced the two major components/forces in affecting both tourism and leisure behaviors – Approach (seeking) and Avoidance (escape). In the Approach component, it is believed that people engage in tourism or leisure activities for the sake of psychological/intrinsic rewards such as feelings of mastery; while in the Avoidance component, people join the activities since they have a desire to leave their everyday environments.

In addition to the conceptual frameworks, scholars developed various scales to measure customers’ or visitors’ motivations such as the Driver’s Recreation Experience Preference (REP) Scale (cited in Manfredo et al. 1996) and the Leisure Motivation Scale/Measurement (LMM) (Beard and Ragheb 1983). The REP scale was constructed based on motivational theory, and it is one of the most popular psychometric scales to measure the psychological outcomes desired from leisure participation. This scale has been adopted in a number of leisure or recreational researches, such as the studies done by Crandall (1979) and Tian-Cole et al. (2002). Manfredo et al. (1996) observed that the REP scale is especially applicable to outdoor and natural recreational settings, and that it can be used to determine trip-specific or activity-specific motivations (i.e., why people engage in a particular trip/activity). The LMM scale is similar to the REP scale in which both scales are intended to measure activity-specific motives, but LMM scale divided those motives into four major dimensions as intellectual, social, competence-mastery and stimulus-avoidance. Totally 48 items with 12 items included in each dimension were developed, but a shorter version with 8 items for each dimension was recommended by the authors for research purposes. Example motivation items in the LMM scale concerning reasons to engage in leisure activities are – to seek stimulation, to discover new things and to develop close friendships.
In Tian-Cole et al.’s (2002) study, quality of experience was measured by the adapted Recreation Experience Preference (REP) scale. Instead of exploring the motives behind visiting a wildlife refuge, the authors examined visitors’ satisfaction based on the extent whether their motives can be realized via activity/trip engagement (i.e., need fulfillment). Results indicated that a positive quality of experience did significantly affect visitors’ overall satisfaction.

In sum, motivation is a pre-consumption measurement (e.g. I visit a theme park to enjoy going on thrilling rides), whereas quality of experience is a post-consumption measurement (e.g. I was able to enjoy going on thrilling rides). Most literatures focus on pre-consumption motivation. Only a few studies consider need fulfillment (Dawson, Bloch and Ridgway 1990; Dunn-Ross and Isola-Hola 1991; Lounsbury and Hoopes 1985; Ragheb and Tate 1993). To be simple, positive quality of experience is the attainment of the perceived psychological outcomes (i.e. motivation) via activity participation. Since fulfilling visitor needs is a pre-requisite to theme park visitors’ satisfaction, it is vital to examine quality of experience when assessing theme park experience.

**AFFECT**

Another component of theme park experience is affect. In the psychology literature, consensus has not been reached over the definition of ‘affect’ or ‘emotion’ (Kleinginna and Kleinginna 1981), and many researchers apply these terms interchangeably. Their conceptual relationship is demonstrated by various definitions in the psychology, consumer behavior and service management literatures. For instance, Oliver (1996) writes that “lists of affects will be encountered which include emotions, and lists of emotions exist containing what some would prefer to call affects”. Over the years, two popular scales were used to measure emotion/affect across disciplines – the Differential Emotions scale (DES II) and the Pleasure-Arousal-Dominance (PAD) scale.

The DES II, introduced by IZARD, C.E. in 1977, was a shortened and refined version of DESl8 in 1972. The author proposed 10 discrete emotions (i.e. 10 subscales) which could measure the physiological responses and expressive behaviors of individuals’ subjective experiences. The 10 sub-scales measure positive, negative as well as neutral affects by involving 10 pairs of words which indicate intensity levels – words on the left are of smaller intensity (Oliver 1996). Specifically, the 10 emotions could be experienced separately or simultaneously by individuals during the course of the activities in particular settings. Example pairs are Interest – Excitement; Sadness – Grief; Surprise – Astonishment. The DES II was adopted by a number of researchers in measuring consumption emotions (Liljander and Strandvik 1997; Oliver 1993; Westbrook and Oliver 1991).

The pleasure-arousal-dominance (PAD) scale (Mehrabian and Russell 1974) aims to assess the emotional states of individuals within an environmental or social setting. The three emotional dimensions of pleasure, arousal and dominance are included in the scale, and each is measured by six pairs of words that indicate the degree of emotional intensity. Example pairs are Happy – Unhappy, Excited – Calm and Dominant – Submissive. The three dimensions capture different emotional aspects, and are viewed as independent of each other. Thus, they can be applied simultaneously or selectively depending on the focus of the research. A number of authors adopted this scale in order to measure consumption experiences (Bigne et al. 2005; Dawson et al. 1990; Hui and Bate son 1991). For instance, Bigne et al. (2005) used the PAD scale in measuring theme park visitors’ affect in their study; however, they did not consider the dominance dimension due to its inappropriateness.

As theme park is an experience-based product which primarily ‘sells’ experience, whether the visitors feel happy, excited and aroused etc. can greatly influence their theme park experience. Thus, in addition to quality of experience, affect is another important theme park experience component.

**CONCLUSION**

As commented by Johns and Gyimóthy (2002), emphasizing services and attributes is no longer enough to truly comprehend experience-based products including theme parks. In fact, a memorable theme park visitation includes not only good park facilities and amiable employees, but also positive visitors’ feelings with their needs being fulfilled. In this paper, theme park experience is defined as a kind of recreational experience that comprises two psychological components: quality of experience and affect. Positive quality of experience refers to the attainment of visitors’ pre-trip motives via activity participation while affect refers to the visitors’ feelings towards the whole theme park visitation. This paper serves to enrich the current knowledge on theme park experience by explaining its nature and introducing two inherent psychological components. To summarize, visitors have a positive theme park experience when they can realize their motives (e.g. they were able to learn new things) and feel positively (e.g. happy, pleased, contented, stimulated) via theme park visitation.
REFERENCES


Control of Ensuring Hygiene in Hospitality Facilities and Check Lists

Sibel ERKAL
Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences
Hacettepe University, Turkey
E-mail: erkalsibel@hotmail.com

ABSTRACT
Economic, social and technological improvement and change of this era has also considerably affected the tourism sector as in all sectors. Thus the need for providing and receiving a better quality, healthy, efficient service has arisen. Providing safe services, which conform to the rules of hygiene, in running an organization has an important place among activities for protecting the health of clients and thus increasing the image of enterprise in a positive manner. Hygiene as an interdisciplinary issue, is also among subject focuses of Home Economists. It is known that one of the functions that Home Economists implement in institutions is creating a healthy, clean, and hygienic environment. An effective control system, which will be implemented in the housekeeping department in accommodation for tourists, will significantly contribute towards creating a hygienic environment. Checklists have an important role in controlling a healthy environment. A proposed draft checklist is given in the paper.

Key words: Hygiene, hospitality facilities, housekeeping, checklist, personal hygiene.

INTRODUCTION
Tourism is an event specific to human beings and nowadays it is one of the most important mass activities (Karaduman 1996). Quick, economic, social and technological improvement and change of this era has also considerably affected the tourism sector as in all sectors. Thus the need for providing and receiving a better quality, healthy, efficient service has arisen. Various activities have been initiated concerning these needs (Şafak and Erkal 1996).

In Turkey, which has an important place in the world with regard to the tourism sector, highlights how important the relationship is between tourism-health as in every aspect of tourism. Health in Tourism carries importance in terms of sector needs, the country’s economy and impact of the country internationally. Therefore, the issue of tourism and health is an interdisciplinary issue that should be handled from all angles (Şafak and Erkal 1996).

The first factor that affects human health is “Genetic” and the second is “Environmental”. It is difficult to determine or control genetic factors. However, people’s effect on and control over environmental factors is substantial. Improving environmental factors in favor of human health depends largely on the knowledge, attitude and behaviors of people. These behaviors determine the social status of people or societies and arise as the most determining factor of health (Özden 1996). A healthy life is a human right and protecting and improving one’s health is a duty. Every individual, taking the responsibility of protecting and maintaining health, at the same time protects the health of the environment, while protecting his/her health. The reason is that human beings and the environment complement each other, and continuously interact with each other (Şafak 1997).

Providing safe services, which conform to the rules of hygiene, in running an organization has an important place among activities for protecting the health of clients and thus increasing the image of enterprise in a positive manner. Hygiene is described as cleanliness and conformity with the rules of health and it is perceived considered as an indication of quality. It is also amongst one of the most important factors that clients look for in an enterprise. Thus, conformity with the rules of hygiene carry a great deal of importance in all activity areas of hotels (Kozak and Çiček 2005). Hygiene as an interdisciplinary issue is also among subject focuses of Home Economists and it is a complex science, which synthesizes knowledge of health for protecting, improving and maintaining life at a high level for a long time in society. It is known that one of the functions that Home Economists implement in institutions is creating a healthy, clean, and hygienic environment (Şafak and Erkal 1996).

The issues of hygiene do not have only one dimension, they are comprehensive and are handled under two topics, as general hygiene of the environment and personal hygiene in itself. Within the scope of general hygiene of the environment, issues such as lighting, ventilation, heating, noise, cleaning and accidents, within the scope of personal hygiene, personal cleanliness, care, dressing and body mechanism are included (Şafak 1997; Erkal and Şafak 1998).

Obeying hygiene rules in the institutions serves the following principles: Infection control, accident prevention, using the human body efficiently, creating a pleasing environment. By creating an environment with hygienic conditions: A clean environment is assured, absenteeism is reduced, quality service is provided for guests which in turn may lead to customer preference and personal
recommendation to other customers, running costs are reduced, well-trained health and safety aware personnel (Şafak and Erkal 1996; Şafak 1997).

Each member of staff in the institution has responsibilities concerning hygiene. Within this group, each staff member, particularly those responsible for carrying out cleaning activities and working on the various floors of the building, laundry and kitchen, has an important place. Moreover, administrators who are in charge of implanting planning, organization and assessing the activities undertaken in those institutions, also carry a great deal of responsibility (Şafak and Erkal 1996).

All staff must know why they do what they do in connection with their duties relating to human health (Bulduk 2003). So staff should be trained especially in hygiene (Şafak 1997; Değirmencioğlu and Çiček 2004). Control of hygiene is as important as training in ensuring hygiene. Control plays an important role in conducting housekeeping services, and controlling is an activity which is conducted for realizing aims determined previously, assessing if the available resources and opportunities are used in conformity with the determined bases and principles, and for correcting the mistakes and making up for deficiencies found (Yertutan 2000; Şafak et al. 2007). The basis of an effective housekeeping is control, and the basis of good control is effective observation (Şafak 1997).

**SIGNIFICANCE OF CONTROL**

Facilitating future planning, ensuring that work is carried out regularly, according to procedure, providing the opportunity for on-site inspection for the administrator, determining in which subjects there is need of training (Yertutan 2000; Kozak 2001). Control is related to tools, materials, personnel, accidents, quality, products received at the end of production, production premises, production date and the means of production (Yertutan 2000). In order to implement controlling activities, the requested results should be known. The main steps of control process are:

1. Determining standards in the light of objectives, plan and policies
2. Measuring the activities conducted
3. Comparing the results of conducted activities with the standards previously determined
4. Deciding to correct (Can et al. 1998).

Effective control depends largely on the person in charge of control. The person, who will control, should have the ability to examine, understand and be a flexible person. Moreover, she/he should understand the importance of trusting personnel and working in cooperation with them, whilst conducting a working programme, and should reflect this to the personnel. This person should be able to correct the mistakes and be easygoing and constructive in the process. During the checking process, checklists, an effective data collecting tool can be used. Checklists help recording right information at right times (Batman 1999; Gibler 1987; Hatfield and Winter 1986). These lists have an important role in creating and controlling a healthy environment, as they have in all areas of housekeeping. Checklists are important because through check-lists detailed control is realized; they ensure that important information is not omitted and insufficiencies are detected (Yertutan 2000). Determined rules and standards guide the preparation and development of these lists (Kapa et al. 1997). Standards will determine the expectations of housekeeping for creating a healthy environment. Standards should be prepared and developed for: improving housekeeping services, evaluating processes, ensuring chemical, bacteriological, osmological and entomological cleanliness as well as with physical cleanliness, using the human body efficiently, protecting oneself against accidents, establishing healthy human relations, developing an efficient housekeeping programme and working in cooperation with other departments (Şafak 1998).

An effective control system, which will be implemented in the housekeeping department in accommodation for tourists, will significantly contribute towards creating a hygienic environment.

Detailed checklist and observation procedures were designed to evaluate the level of housekeeping in a well designed work area. The results of evaluations were used to provide feedback to the workers on their progress in improving the work environment (DuFort and Infante-Rivard 1999). Due to the aforementioned reasons, it will be useful to prepare and apply checklists continuously in every kind of institution, and making the necessary corrections by determining deficiencies and developing checklists specific to the institution. While developing these lists, lists in various resources, which are prepared previously, can be used. So some of the checklists, which I developed utilizing various resources, are presented below: (Stutts and Borsen 1990; Jones 1985; Castro 2007; Stover et al. 2007; Drummond 1990; Erkal and Şafak 1998; http://64.233.183.104/search?q=cache:www.bvsde.ops-oms.org/ smanual/2007; Food safety checklist 2007)
### Personal Hygiene

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Non applicable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personnel wear clean, neat and untorn</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel wear appropriate clothing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body is clean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hair is worn in neat fashion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel wear different shoes on the job and leave them in the institution</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fingernails are trimmed and clean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment and personal protective clothing are provided to personnel whenever this is required</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masks are utilized in operations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gloves are utilized in the activities that require them</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel are utilized protective equipment when handling the waste</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel understand the risks of wastes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection equipment for eyes is utilized in the operations where toxic substances are handled.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel observed to be healthy in general and wounds covered</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel oriented to general hygiene procedures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel are informed of potential dangers and toxicities of cleaning compounds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplies are being lifted properly using the leg muscles and not the back muscles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel always wash their hands including forearms when exposed, using a sanitized liquid soap as frequently as necessary, and always</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### General Hygiene

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Non applicable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General Cleaning (General areas: Lobby, Corridors, Restaurant etc)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General areas are kept clean, free from oil, grease or paint and from any other combustible material</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corridors are free from objects</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The work area is not wet or moist</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Halls and corridors are vacuuming</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Halls and corridors are mopping</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Windows are clean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplies used for dusting are changed frequently</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filters on vacuum cleaners are changed regularly and cleaned</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All housekeeping equipment cleaned with detergent - germicide</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All carpeted area cleaned as frequently as needed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When floors are being scrubbed or polished, is the area identified as being slippery by posting or roping off the area</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Furniture and astrays in visitor, staff and resident are cleaned regularly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trash containers are emptied in resident areas when they are ¾ full</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate illumination is provided</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate ventilation is provided</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rooms floor are non-slippery</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General neatness and cleanliness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floors are vacuuming daily or as needed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floors are mopping daily or as needed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dusting daily</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Windows are clean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sheets are changing and making bed daily</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleaning solutions are changed every room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garbage cans are emptied</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
detergent germicide solution
Handwashing facilities are cleaned daily with a detergent germicide solution
Soap/ paper towel/ toilet paper dispensers are restocked daily
The toilet is cleaned at least once a day
Garbage cans are emptied

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kitchen</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Non applicable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adequate illumination is provided</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate ventilation is provided</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Storage areas are cleaned, properly designated, and in hygienic condition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemicals correctly stored</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tools properly stored</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Different types of stock items stored separately</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Laundry</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Non applicable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adequate illumination is provided</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adequate ventilation is provided</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-skid mats or floors are provided in wet areas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The walls and ceiling of the laundry are clean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The work area is not wet or moist</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel wear non-skid boots or shoes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel wear gloves, masks.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel wear masks.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dirty laundry picked up and sorted daily</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean linen room is clean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garbage cans are emptied</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Area: Personnel Name: Date:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Safety</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Non applicable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Safety instruction signs are used wherever safety instructions or reminders are needed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel always wear the appropriate protective equipment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel understand their responsibility concerning workplace safety</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel are informed on safety procedures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel are trained proper techniques for lifting and avoiding slips, trips and falls</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel are informed and properly trained in the correct usage of workplace chemicals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keep machines and other objects out of the center of aisles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All work area clean and free of trip hazards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All lights are appropriate and in good repair</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staircases are clean, in good repair and free from trip hazards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handrails are secure and in good repair</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handrails and grab bars are in place and secure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoke detectors are in place and in working order</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fire detection systems are available</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extinguishers comply with established standards</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The fire detection system in good working order and regularly tested</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel are trained to use the fire extinguishers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extinguishers are properly loaded and free from dirt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical lines are fully protected and isolated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical appliances and cords tested for electrical safety</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical equipment turned off when not in use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The equipment and machines receive periodic preventive maintenance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RESULTS

In general, anything that corresponds to the column “No” (incorrect phrases) should be considered a potential hazard. Attention should be given to determine whether it represents a significant risk. In general, the statements that fall in the “Yes” or “Non-applicable” Columns represent the absence of hazard or an adequately controlled risk. Non- applicable: The statement is not applicable

REFERENCES


Analysis of the Position and Technical Characteristics of Navigable Canals of the Hydro System Danube-Tisa-Danube from the Aspect of the Tourist Valorization

Škiljaica VLADIMIR  
Faculty of Technical Sciences  
University of Novi Sad, Serbia  
E-mail: vlaski@uns.ns.ac.yu

Čuruvija MILOŠ  
Faculty of Sports and Tourism  
University of Novi Sad, Serbia  
E-mail: curuvija@tims.edu.yu

Čuruvija IVANA  
Faculty of Sports and Tourism  
University of Novi Sad, Serbia  
E-mail: ivana@tims.edu.yu

ABSTRACT
The network of canals of Hydro system Danube-Tisa-Danube (HS DTD) is situated, practically, in the central part of the main European waterway North Sea-Black Sea, which provides extremely favorable conditions for connecting with the touristy markets in the west, as well as those in the east of the Europe, especially of the neighboring countries. Total length of the basic canal network is 960 km, but only 664 km is available for navigation. This large canal network connects 80% of towns in Vojvodina region which represents a good basis for the development of all aspects of tourism and their exploitation through nautical tourism. A very big obstacle for nautical tourism development represents a deficiency of tourist-nautical infrastructure and national, not international, status of navigable canals of HS DTD.

Key words: Hydro system DTD, nautical, tourism, canal, Vojvodina.

INTRODUCTION
The new Pan European waterway with 3505 km of total length was done by opening of the waterway Rhine-Main-Danube for traffic. This waterway connects the North Sea from Rotterdam with the Black Sea at Sulina. The main European waterway North Sea-Black Sea consists of following parts: part of the river Rhine from Rotterdam to Mainz (length 538 km), part of the river Main from Mainz to Bamberg (length 385 km); the canal Main-Danube from Bamberg to Kelheim (length 117 km) and waterway of the river Danube from Kelheim to Sulina (length 2411 km). This main European waterway connects inland waterways networks of 14 European countries (about 480 million citizens). The IV waterway category is provided in whole length, in accordance with unique ECE criterions. Very large number of people living in this region gives a possibility for organized tourist offer to compete with popular European regions such as Mediterranean coast and the Alps. The most nautics and vessels are located in Western Europe, which is in direct connection with material basis, but that shouldn’t represent an obstacle for tourist valorization and exploitation of the Danube region in Serbia and, in connection with that, of HS DTD.

The navigable system Danube-Tisa-Danube belongs to the Danube navigable system. Connection of domestic inland navigation with the wide network of the European waterways is possible with in integration by the river Danube into the Pan European waterway “Rhine-Main-Danube” from the North Sea to the Black Sea. The farther lengthening of waterway, by Tisa to Tokay in Hungary and by Navigable Begej to Timisoara in Romania, will be possible in addition. The position of waterways of the HS DTD and relation to the main European waterway North Sea-Black Sea is shown on map 1.
ANALYSIS OF NAUTICAL TOURISM ON HS DTD

For the evaluation of water importance as an integral part of natural environment, it is necessary to imagine it without water, in other words without rivers, lakes, glaciers, etc. It is clear that the most attractions of the environment are actually the water and all it’s kinds of appearance. Lost of one of the environmental basics elements would bring to the significant diminution of tourist attractions, and in some cases to complete lost of tourist demand (Muller 2004).

Tourism as an economic field functions on economic principals, whereby the relation between the expenses and the incomes is deduced in details. The basics attributes are price increasing with the maximum expenses decrease. The water traffic attained the ideal relation where the expenses, whether of transportation only or travel, are convincingly the lowest. It is important to say that the attractiveness of traveling by boat is bigger then with the other transport devices, which facilitates a service price increasing and a bigger difference between the expenses and prices which results a bigger profit too. From that reason tourist ship industry is growing constantly because of building ships of a couple of thousands passengers capacity. However, these observations refer to big ship companies or big ships which have underlined economic component of transport. Nautical tourism also considers the smaller, often private, vessels activation, which changes the economic component because the price of tourist enjoyment in some cases could be very high. That depends of course of the vessel type and the sailing itinerary. Between these two types there are several different types which are trying to fulfill the average tourists as well.

The number of vessels which are sailing trough HS DTD could be seen in table 1. These data are received from the Department for information system “Vode Vojvodine” Water Authority which is responsible for canals. Number of vessels could be exactly deduced because of the technique of sailing trough the navigation locks.

In the year 2005 through navigation locks have passed 102 private boats and yachts, for which was invoiced 88.882 dinars (cca 1270 €) in total. Because in HS DTD can not enter vessels with foreign flags (more about this in next part of this work), it can be concluded that all vessels were from Serbia. As the tourist flow on HS DTD are very low, which can be seen in table 1, for the comparison of possible number of visitors was taken the boat ride in Special natural protected area „Stari Begej - Carska bara”, where tourists stay mostly in Stari Begej while sailing with tourist boat. The number of tourists in this area (table 2) is also the biggest in this Special natural protected area, and because it is completely enclosed the number of tourists could be exactly deduced (Stojanović 2004).

Table 1. Private ships locking through the navigation locks in 2005, (source: HS DTD navigable use rapport for the year 2005)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Navigation lock</th>
<th>Number of ship locking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bečej</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kucura</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bogojevo</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novi Sad</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vrbas</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Srpski Miletić</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sombor</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kajtasovo</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botoš</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novi Bečeje</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slajićevo</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Boat ride tourist flow on Stari Begej (2002-2003) (Source: Stojanović 2004)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>3.532</td>
<td>3.905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>2.520</td>
<td>3.248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>2.695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>1.132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>10.093</td>
<td>11.908</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From these figures could be seen the number of visitors trough the year on Carska bara, but the most important for us is the fact that whole of them were traveling by boat. It is important to point out that most of the visitors were
from Serbia. It is certain that these figures could be projected on almost 60% of the canal network. Northern parts of HS DTD, Jegrička and others, have more tourist attractions then these on Carska bara. It is important to be mentioned that some parts of canals have similar characteristics and they are not protected areas, so the organization of tourism on these canals could diminish the tourist pressure on protected areas. However, the basic problem is tourist-nautical infrastructure which almost doesn’t exist on the whole HS DTD.

WATERWAYS AND NAVIGATION LOCKS OF HIDROSISTEM DTD

Total length of the basic canal network is 960 km, which includes large canals, Tamiš and present rivers as unique whole. Total length of 664 km is expected for navigation, but only 600 km of waterways is enabled until now. On the navigable canals of the HSDTD there are 17 navigation locks, but 4 of them are old partially reconstructed and 13 are new. Two navigation locks on the rivers: on the Tisa (as part of the dam in Novi Bečej) and on the Tamiš (near to Pančeva), were also built in the HS DTD. Complete ship locking duration is about 30-40 minutes, in dependence of water level, or denivelation that must to be surmounted.

One part of a very old navigation lock and milldam is possible to be valorized in tourism through industrial heritage. The most interesting is the navigation lock near Novi Bečej which was constructed by legendary Eiffel, and which should be the initiator of tourist tours. On European inland waterways there are seven distinctive categories (classes) (based on resolution of Commission of ministers of transport of European Community, which was established by European Economic Commission - EEC). Categories of waterways are formed in dependence of dimensions and carrying capacity of ships and compositions (tows), that can navigate without any undisturbed. In accordance with unique criterions for categorization of the European inland waterways, the navigable canals network of the HS DTD consists of canals that belong the following categories: the most represent the canals of IV category in length of 321 km; then canals of I category in length of 128 km; canals of III category in length of 120 km; canals of V category in length of 22 km and canals of II category in length of 8,3 km. The most important for nautical tourism is the fact that all canals of HS DTD are navigable for small boats and yachts, while bigger cruising ships have to stay in canals of IV and III categories.

NAVIGATION POSSIBILITIES

Navigation possibilities of the canal network of the HS DTD can be explained as:

- In large canals, which dimensions are similar with the canal Novi Sad-Savinovo Selo, (dimensions at low navigable level: width on bottom \( b=47,0 \) m, average profile depth \( h=3,15 \) m and transversal section area \( F=117,0 \) m\(^2\)), during navigation of ships with 1000 t of carrying capacity which velocity in motionless water is \( v=8,0-8,5 \) km/h, hydraulic mutation can deteriorate canal banks are not observable.
- In accordance with researches which were done it could be concluded that coefficient of ship resistance increasing in canal is in interval: \( k_w=1,80-2,96 \), and for zone of navigation speeds in motionless water \( v=5,00-8,50 \) km/h.
- In canals which dimensions are similar with the canal Novi Sad-Savinovo Selo maximal engine power of ships should not be greater than 150 kW. These ships should not be longer than 20 m, to navigate as freely as possible on canals and pass through the navigation locks.

NAVIGATIONAL PERIOD

The navigation suspension on main canal network is defined every year (from 21 December to 21 march of next year) by the “Regulations book about the way and conditions of exploitation of water resources management objects of the main canal network of the HS DTD”. It means that navigational period is 365-91=274 days. The "Regulations book..” should regulate the possible navigation in period from 21 December to 21 March next year, if there is no ice on the canals of the HS DTD, this certainly can prolong the navigational period. The number of days in navigational period represents a positive aspect for tourist valorization because it coincides with an active period of tourist travel, in other words it is in spring, summer and autumn. That could be compared with data in table 2 from which could be seen that the most visitors on Carska bara are actually in these period of the year.

STATUS OF INTERNATIONAL WATERWAY

Surely, there is an interest that certain parts on major routes of the HS DTD network, of the whole system of canals of DTD obtain the status of international waterway. At the moment, foreign vessels can navigate on inland waterways on which international regime of navigation is valid. However, foreign vessels can navigate on other inland waterway for the purposes of entering
Serbian ports opened for international traffic according to the conditions given by the government of Republic of Serbia. The necessity of HS DTD inclusion as an international waterway has a crucial role in activation of nautical tourism, specially for nautics which have their own vessels. As it was mentioned before, the biggest number of nautics is in Western Europe. As the entrance in HS DTD is forbidden for vessels with foreign flag, that is one of the decisive reasons why tourism on HS DTD is not developed. It is necessary to facilitate sailing to individual nautics to enjoy in canals, and also to drive attention to native population on the importance of the canal network for local community. If the following provision of decree are considered carefully:

a) Memorandum of Understanding the Development of the Pan-European Transport Corridor VII (the Danube), annex 3, which originated as a result of the third Pan-European conference on transport (Helsinki 1997) under 2: the definition of the corridor it is stated that the Danube–Tisa canal is a component part

b) European Agreement on Main Inland Waterways of International Importance (AGN), Geneva 1996, accepted by the ECE – Inland Transport Committee. It defined the network of inland waterways of international importance, the network of the E category water-ways. In the annex I named “Inland waterways of international importance” it stands that:

- The river Danube from Kelheim to Sulina is treated as the main waterway and has E 80 mark;
- The river Tisa from its mouth into the Danube to Szeged and the river Begej from its mouth into Tisa to Timisoara are treated as a branch of the main waterway (Tisa has E80-01 mark) and as a branch of a branch of the main waterway (Begej has E 80-01-02 mark)

The same document in the annex II “Inland navigation ports of international importance” includes the following ports as those of international importance: Belgrade (P 80-48 mark), Smederevo (P 80-49 mark) and Prahovo (P 80-52 mark), even though the government of FRY with its decree “Decision of determining the ports for international traffic” (Official booklet of the FRY, number 2, from January 1996) under 2, for international river traffic determines the following ports on the Danube: Apatin, Backa Palanka, Novi Sad, Belgrade, Pancevo, Smederevo and Prahovo, and on Tisa it is Senta.

At the same time according to the provision of the law of marine and inland navigation (Official booklet of the FRY, number 12/98) all the canals of the HS DTD (except the section Novi Sad-Savino Selce km 0,00 to km 1,255) in the legal terms belong to national waterways of Serbia.

CONCLUSION

The network of canals of HS DTD is situated, practically, in the central part of the main European waterway North Sea-Black Sea, which provides extremely favorable conditions for connecting the industrial centers, situated on the banks of the canals, with the markets in the west, as well as those in the east of the Europe, especially of the neighboring countries, especially Hungary and Romania. The network of canals of HS DTD is ranked into four categories, of which the most common is IV as the best for navigation. It allows two-way navigation of motor ships of registered capacity of 1000 t.

On the canals of HS DTD there are no ports, considering the criteria of being technically equipped, except the one in Novi Sad, which cannot be considered to be in the canal because the water level on its harbor area depends on the Danube’s water level. This fact has a negative influence on possible nautical tourism development on HS DTD, because vessels, big and small, don’t have a place to dock. HS DTD connects about 80% of towns and villages in Vojvodina, in other words 80% of towns are on canals. From that could be concluded that canals connect the most of tourist attractions in Vojvodina, and their connection for the international waterways of Danube and Tisa gives the opportunity of almost all tourist attractions in Vojvodina. That fact leads to better use of actual tourist attractions through nautical tourism, whether it is from cruising ships or smaller vessels.

REFERENCES


Clustering and Web Design as Additional Marketing Tools for Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs). Case Study of Tourism Clusters in the Region of Epirus, Greece

Skoultso G. SOFOKLIS
Interdepartmental Program of Postgraduate Studies in Tourism Planning Management and Policy
University of the Aegean, Greece
E-mail: sskoultso@aegean.gr

Tsimitakis N. EMMANOUIL
Interdepartmental Program of Postgraduate Studies in Tourism Planning Management and Policy
University of the Aegean, Greece
E-mail: e.tsimitakis@aegean.gr

Karipis I. KONSTANTINOS
Interdepartmental Program of Postgraduate Studies in Tourism Planning Management and Policy
University of the Aegean, Greece
E-mail: kkaripis@aegean.gr

ABSTRACT
This paper presents the difficulties that small and medium enterprises (SMEs) face in the tourism market, since they are less competitive and less effective in promoting their final products than their larger competitors. Tourism clustering and web design are used by SMEs in order to increase their competitiveness and the quality of services and become more attractive to tourists. The tourism cluster in the region of Epirus, Greece, is an example of how non-competitive SMEs can achieve their goals and survive in global tourism market.

Key words: Interpretation, web design, clusters, small and medium enterprises (SMEs), Internet marketing.

INTRODUCTION
Considering the lack of competitiveness of SMEs, it is necessary to develop the appropriate methodology in order to overcome their problems. In this paper there is an analysis of the implementation of effective Web Design and Cluster-
The aim is not to produce a strategic plan prepared by outside consultants with little ownership by the cluster stakeholders. The clustering process is organic, and driven from within. It does not follow the normal pattern of analysis → strategy → and recommendations. It is much more dynamic. Initial analysis is necessary, but only to guide action. Well-informed cluster stakeholders have sufficient knowledge to select the initial issues. They are essential parts of the industry. Furthermore, the issues evolve to reflect changing circumstances. At a later stage there is a need to undertake a more diligent strategic review. The cluster development process needs to be fine-tuned for each cluster. The history of collaboration in a specific region, how different the products or services are, and the structure of the cluster will all influence the development procedure.

What works for one cluster may be inappropriate for another: each cluster will have its own opportunities, roadblocks, traditions and culture. Some clusters can quickly move into substantive development initiatives, others take time to develop the necessary trust. There are eight stages in the process for local clusters, listed on table 1 (Cluster Building: A Toolkit, A Manual for starting and developing local clusters in New Zealand Prepared by Cluster Navigators Ltd 2001):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1. Analyze Local Economy.</th>
<th>Identify the embryonic and the more developed local clusters and prioritize which ones to initially concentrate on.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 2. Initial Cluster Stocktake.</td>
<td>Gather information about the cluster in the local economy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3. Establish the Leadership Team.</td>
<td>Carefully choose the appropriate people to participate in the leadership group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4. Develop Cluster Vision.</td>
<td>Establish the preferred future for the cluster.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 5. Identify Stepping Stones.</td>
<td>Identify the key steps to the preferred future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 7. Institutionalize the Cluster.</td>
<td>Set up an institution/organization which will sustain the clustering process into the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 8. Upgrading the Strategic Agenda.</td>
<td>Move to longer-term, more substantive projects.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The advantages of creating a tourism cluster affect the destination and the enterprises. First of all, SMEs get more competitive and improve their tourist services. The co-operation leads them to act independently without the cost of intermediaries in order to reach the target group. A well-organized cluster can provide them with the appropriate techniques of reaching the potential customer. For example, a common internet site for the cluster could give them this opportunity. In addition, the benefits for the SMEs are economic too. Cluster reduces the average cost of promotion and multiplies the income as it increases the number of arrivals.

Furthermore, the destination creates a new tourist image and improves its services. The collaboration of different enterprises can offer a holistic tourism product to the potential traveler. After building the cluster, destination can offer accommodation, transfer, recreation etc. The tourist should be sure that visiting the destination is the right choice in order to enjoy all the essential services of the tourist experience. Moreover, the tourism development at the destination, affects the local economy. Not only tourism enterprises gain from this development, as the increase of income improves the standard of living and helps the increase of investment in the area.

The best practices for building a successful tourism product consists of two elements: setting the appropriate common goals and co-operation for their achievement. Each tourism cluster can be organized differently depending on the characteristics of the destination and of the enterprises in the area. Although, it is very important to choose the right tourism image to promote and set the feasible goals for the tourism development concerning all the consequences for the local society, in order to achieve sustainable tourism. After setting these goals it is essential to achieve effective co-operation between the tourism enterprises. All enterprises should act as an entity. Without this strategic approach the goals of the cluster can not be implemented.

After building the cluster it is essential to ensure its effective promotion, so the need for internet marketing and web design arises. Today, the Internet plays an important role to businesses. It gives them the opportunity for e-commerce, e-booking and e-Marketing. It is obvious that Internet influences a lot the tourism market and each tourism enterprise separately. Internet marketing and web design provide the necessary tools for promoting destination, cluster and tourist image (Βελαχοπούλου 2003). Hence, a reference for effective web design becomes a necessity.

WEB DESIGN

Web design is the selection and the co-operation of the appropriate available features in order to create the structure of a website. It plays an important role
for the success of on-line marketing. Its success or its failure does contribute to the final result of the internet marketing plan. The way of displaying information, the time that the user spends for navigation within the site, the repeat of visiting the website represent factors which can lead to website success (Buhalis 2003). Before starting the construction of the website, it is essential to set the goals and the strategies that must be followed during the process of web designing.

- Which is the main purpose of the site?
- Which is the target group?
- What should user do or think after visiting the site?
- Which web strategies will be implemented?
- By which ways the final website will be evaluated and reconstructed?

Regarding the kind of website categories, there are common features that every site should have in order to be successful. First of all, websites should include the appropriate information for users. Information that misleads the users can only affect negatively the success of the site. Because of quick navigation of the internet, the topic of the site should be clearly defined from the beginning of navigation and through the end. Hence, the homepage should define the goal of the website from the title even if it is possible. Moreover, the homepage distinguishes the whole ‘quality’ of the site because it gives the first impression to users. So, it is clear that the homepage should be thoroughly designed. (Doolin et al. 2002).

The homepage should include a variety of opportunities for users. Site map, useful links (to pages within the current site or others), links to main pages of the current sites have to be displayed in the homepage (Rachman and Buchanan 1999a). For example, in a tourism website, maps should be available in the homepage according to the services that are being provided. Furthermore, wide texts should be avoided.

Regarding the rest of the website, the most important information should be displayed properly and without the need of scrolling. Every page should have the opportunity to basic navigation possibilities as a mean for better user’s orientation (Rachman and Buchanan 1999b). A very important element for successful web design is quick navigation. Downloading time should be reduced by displaying only the needed information and avoiding unnecessary elements. A great amount of multimedia graphics can also increase the time needed for download.

Additionally, every page should content independent information. Internet users’ should have the ability to read a web page, as a written text, but not in cases that additional information are needed. Furthermore, internet users’ should know where he is in the site at any time (Koyani et al. 2000). By using a site map and different colours according to the thematic categories, it is a common way to achieve internet users’ orientation. Additionally, distinctive hyperlinks and fonts are essential for internet users in order to read easily the displayed information. Multimedia graphics should be used to achieve a friendly virtual environment for internet users. But, as already referred, it should be carefully selected in order to avoid a long-time downloading.

Especially for tourism websites, they should include useful information for potential visitors. Printable maps and tourism guides can give to the visitor a decent image of the place. Moreover, accommodation, transportation, accessibility, entertainment and sights are essential information categories for every successful tourism site. The main problem for these categories is that tourism websites should be very attractive for potential visitors in order to attract them to make a reservation. They have to promote the sense of place and achieve the best coordination within all the features of web design to make the virtual environment a hallway to the destination. Another tool that ensures that sense of place given to potential visitors is interpretation.

**INTERPRETATION**

Interpretation is a communication process, designed to reveal meanings and relationships of our cultural heritage, to the public, through first hand involvement with objects, artefacts, landscapes, or sites (Pearl and Woods 1976 in Interpretation and Information, a strategy for the Sussex Downs Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty 1997). In addition, interpretation is an education activity which aims to reveal meanings and relationships through the use of original objects by first hand experience, and by illustrative media, rather than simply to communicate factual information (Freeman Tilden, 1957 in Interpretation and Information, a strategy for the Sussex Downs Area of Outstanding Natural Beauty 1997).

Interpretation means many things to different people. It can provide an education and information service people enhancing countryside experiences. For the countryside or heritage manager, it can be a cost-effective management
technique enabling careful distribution of visitor pressure to minimize environmental impacts. For the local community it can be used as a marketing tool in local tourism initiatives. It can also develop a sense of place, helping people to get more enjoyment from the area in which they live. Furthermore interpretation can help promote understanding and learning, as well as encouraging interaction and adding enjoyment. It can contribute significantly to visitor’s experience.

In increasing visitor awareness of environmental issues, interpretation can often have more impact than the use of regulatory measures to change behaviour in the countryside. Information can raise awareness which, in turn, can lead to a greater appreciation of the value of the local environment (Colquhoun 2005).

Heritage interpretation is a means of communicating ideas and feelings which help people understand more about themselves and their environment. There are many different ways of communicating these ideas, including guided walks, talks, drama, displays, signs, brochures and electronic media. Heritage interpretation is often used in national parks, museums, zoos, botanic gardens, Aboriginal keeping places, galleries, historic sites, science centres, state forests, urban parks, and reserves. Interpretation is used increasingly by guided tour operators, conservation organisations and local history associations.

Interpretation is the key to understanding ourselves and who we are. It challenges people to work out what a specific area means. Interpretation makes sense of life, of systems and structures. Interpreters rank with the historians, geographers, biologists, physical scientists, writers, artists and curators in comprehending the human condition. Interpreters work in most important places. They deal in stories, ideas and experiences. They explain, guide, reveal, arrange, question, share and provoke. They are central to the national conversation about meaning and significance. Above all interpreters engage with people. They know their visitors’ needs and interests. They must know how to create communication links between people and place, past and present, people and people. They know the important questions visitors want answered.

The main benefits of interpretation are to:

- Enrich the visitor’s experience by making it more meaningful and enjoyable.
- Assist the visitor to develop a keener awareness, appreciation and understanding of the heritage being experienced.
- Accomplish management objectives by encouraging thoughtful use of the resource by the visitor
- Promote public understanding of heritage management organisations and their programs.

The interpretive process model helps interpreters to create all types of interpretive products that connect audiences to the meanings of a place, object, event, or person. The interpretive process model furnishes a sequence of activities with which an interpreter can develop opportunities for their audiences to make emotional and intellectual connections to the meanings of the resource as well as cohesively develop an idea or ideas that are relevant to the resource and the audience. The interpretive process model focuses on elements that make a product interpretive. Effective interpretive products also require accurate information and skillful delivery. There are 7 steps regarding the interpretive process model listed below (National Park Service, U.S. Department of the Interior 2002):

1. Select a tangible place, object, person, or events that you want the audience to care about
2. Identify intangible meanings.
3. Identify universal concepts.
4. Identify audiences.
5. Write a theme statement – include a universal concept.
6. Use interpretive methods to develop links into opportunities for connections to meanings. Illustrate the themes statement.
7. Use theme statement to organize opportunities for connections and cohesively develop an idea or ideas.

CASE STUDY: THE TOURISM CLUSTER IN THE REGION OF EPIRUS

The Region of Epirus is located at the Northwest side of Greece. Its tourism environment is of great ecological and cultural interest. There is a great variety of sights able to achieve adequate tourism flows. Nevertheless, the Region of Epirus has not created a cohesive tourist image yet and the majority of tourism sites remain under-developed. Strategic weaknesses and opportunities in the region of Epirus (Ελληνικός Οργανισμός Τουρισμού 2003):

- The lack of standardizations which leads to uncertain quality levels of final products.
- Difficulties in designing and promoting final products.
They are less competitive than their main competitors due to their low budgets and economic resources. Furthermore, they offer fewer services.

Remote and isolated regions are usually unable to participate in the industrial and technological competition due to the lack of skilled personnel, management experts, investing assets, infrastructure, adequate raw materials and access to the markets.

Their long distance from the major Greek cities (Athens, Thessaloniki and Patras) increases the costs for transportation and limits the quick access.

They are in a long distance from the major tourism markets and they are characterized by geographical dissemination. Therefore they are based on external organizations in order to attract customers.

The lack of industrialization and the conservation of natural, social and cultural resources provides a competitive advantage.

The vast majority of tourism enterprises is SMEs, which causes many problems since the weak private sector is not able to carry out the promotion and distribution of tourism products. Therefore it is easier for multinational tour operators and transportation companies to dominate. The private sector needs strong investment motives and operational support from the public sector towards regional development. The public sector should offer to the tourism sector the infrastructure needed and boost the private sector by enforcing the production and preventing multinational organizations to reduce the private sector’s operational range.

The above strategic weaknesses of SMEs not only make them less competitive in the global tourism market, but lead them towards shutdown since SMEs are not part of a bigger company. Strategic weaknesses of the SMEs affect the effectiveness of remote and isolated destinations and vice-versa. While local SMEs create tourism networks for production and distribution, which competitiveness is based on the area they operate, regions trust local SMEs for the production of an appropriate and attractive tourism product. This is obvious on the region of Epirus and local SMEs. Hence, creating a tourism Cluster becomes an obvious need for the area. Its main purpose has to adjust to the benefits derived from implementing the clustering strategy. The expected results are:

- Cooperation of the enterprises within the Cluster
- Improvement of electronic equipment of its enterprise
- Improvement of the services quality
- Prolongation of the tourism period.

By the creation of the current Cluster, becomes the necessity for Web Marketing and Design. The expected results from the promotion through the Internet are:

- Promotion of the Region as a whole and of its Cluster’s enterprise
- Promoting the distinctive features of the Region
- Focusing on specified target groups

The process of constructing the website applied basic web-design principles in order to be successful. First of all, there is a sense of uniformity through the web pages. Color and font of its page change according to the thematic category in the website. (e.g. the pages which refer to natural environment have different features from those who refer to the history of Epirus.) Moreover, information about enterprises has the same length according to their category. Also, user has a clear sense of where he is in the site within every page. It is essential not to feel disorientated during his navigation through the website. Moreover, pages do not lead to dead ends. Every page offers the opportunity of returning to Home Page or to skip to pages of the same information level.

Furthermore, basic ideas of promoting the Cluster are implemented. Navigation through the site gives to users the sense of the place (the Region of Epirus). Each user is convinced that his trip to Epirus can be a wonderful experience for him. First, Website gives information about the sights of the region and its tourism environment. Enterprises are promoted within the second level of information. User takes information firstly about the places that he can visit during his stay and secondly about the services that he can enjoy. The interest focuses on the place, not on services. However, user gets information about the Cluster’s enterprises that offer hosting, residence, food, transfer, etc. In this way, user is convinced that there is a cohesive tourist image for Epirus.

The way of displaying information is based on interpretative tools and tries to define the sense of the place around the Region. The sense that is promoted is the harmony between man and nature. The attempts of man to take advantage of nature and its features (rivers, bridges, water trails and historical events) lead to this main idea. Epirus is a region that has a great variety of sights. The main difficulty during the construction of the website is the process
of deciding which sights of the Region must be promoted. A variety of criteria was taken into account in order to choose the most attractive sights. Firstly, historical value, environmental significance and cultural interesting were assessed. At a second level, distinctiveness at local, regional, national and international level of each sight was examined. Which feature of the sight is unique and able to attract tourists? Moreover, it was essential to ensure accessibility of each sight. If a sight is not easily accessed, its promotion is useless. Additionally, the sights that were finally included in the website are located close to the enterprises of the cluster in order to retain the holistic tourist product of the area.

CONCLUSION

To sum up, web design is a very useful tool for tourism business. In co-ordination with the implementation of clustering tourism enterprises offers to SMEs the opportunity to improve their services and to be more competitive. A cohesive tourist image can be created and promoted in order to achieve an increase to tourism flows. Moreover, Interpretation is a tool which can contribute to create more effective tourism websites. The Region of Epirus is a case that clearly distinguishes all the benefits from implementing the above methods.

REFERENCES


Where Tourism Runs the Economy and Shapes the Culture

Taniya SHAH
Department of Anthropology
Quaid-i-Azam University, Pakistan
E-mail: shah_taniya@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT
The proposed paper draws its data resource from an empirical study carried out on a premier hill station and tourist spot “Murree” in Pakistan. The study focused on the interplay of tourism and culture. In order to discern the changes induced in socio-economic and cultural life of the locals by Mass tourism, the present labor force of the locale working in the tourism industry is compared with its earlier roles as landlords, farmers and tenants. According to the fore mentioned information, traditional subsistence was carried out through agriculture, which was replaced by cash labor exerted by tourism industry in Murree. Thus change of the subsistence pattern carried out change of status for the locals from that of producers to that of consumers. When tourism extracted the labor force, it consequently made the indigenous population interact with the wider world. To cut short the present paper will explore the panorama of tourism as economic activity with cultural outcomes specific to the findings of four months fieldwork carried out in a village of Murree.

Key words: Mass tourism, traditional hierarchy, economic development vs cultural exploitation, participant observation, dependency paradigm.

INTRODUCTION
In the field of tourism the wide spread commitment of Anthropology has only gained significant space within cultural Anthropology but even in the same, studies from indigenous perspective remains still far behind.

As Green Wood has suggested: -

“Tourism poses a profound research challenge for contemporary anthropologists and the broadest theoretical issues in the discipline: Culture as representation, cultural diversity, culture’s dynamic properties, the importance of mythic authenticity, the character of inter-cultural interactions and link between power, economy and culture”. (Greenwood 1989:185)

Despite this evident significance of tourism and its impacts on the host society, scientific research on almost all the questions pertaining to it is regrettably lacking. Particularly the socio-cultural shifts, its has brought to the indigenous living has not been previously assessed.

Murree hills of Pakistan is one example of a small resource based sight which builds a demand upon the urban industrial market for a “change of pace” and a “breath of fresh air” by promoting and developing its natural and wilderness assets. Chau identifies this potential coining the same situation in Canada where:

“A large portion of leisure and recreational travels tend to flow to economically backward areas where natural resources are generally unsuitable for agricultural or industrial purposes: snow for winter spots, the hills and mountains for climbing, hiking etc, forest lands for national and provincial parks. The Tourism allows these areas, which have been apparently disinherit to enter into stages of regional and national growth; and the resources, which are unproductive for other industries, represents a source of wealth for tourism.” (Chau 1973: 73)

The principal approach to study tourism, which surrounds the present study is the “interaction approach” that emphasizes, “Tourism is about people visiting other places and other people”. This interaction of tourist being the “guest” and locals being the “host” hold certain impacts on each other.

In this respect, my consideration is on the problem of accepting the development innovations brought by the tourism and rejecting the old traditional practices, there by disrupting the socio organizational setup. Strictly speaking, leaving the traditional subsistence patterns to serve “tourism industry” has made the indigenous population more dependant than it was in earlier times. This implies that the inflation because of tourist has also to be tolerated by the host population. However, the income they get from tourism industry is far more than the agricultural gain and therefore tourism has been willingly accepted along its negative socio-cultural consequences. So the problem lies whether tourism has made economics running the culture? Another problem lies in the irregular and incomplete impact of modernization on developing societies like ours. Particularly speaking traditionally, organized societies like of Pakistan, where the cultural set ups are so strong that socio cultural shifts have discontinuous impact, which may be followed by partial restoration of structures and forms, failed to be completely destroyed. Hence the problem arises, whether any socio cultural change initiated by tourism can disturb the traditional status and expected roles assigned to that particular status?
As Anthropology is the study of human societies and cultures around the world and throughout history, Anthropologists describe, analyze and explain the range and variation in the human condition in diverse settings. This century old discipline has made healthy contributions to our understanding of the complex world. It even reconsiders the authenticity of our experiences dealing with mass tourism in the 21st century.

The under taken research revolves around socio-cultural and economic shift brought by mass tourism. The following remarks of Nunez from his article on “Weekendismo” in the Mexican village of Cajititlan, which in many respects established the research agenda for the first generation of socio-cultural Anthropology research on Tourism, became high inspiration for my selected research.

“Tourism may be studied and understood within the general framework of acculturation theory; for example the urban tourists may be viewed as “perciipient culture” (1963:347)

Nunez further argues that:

“Tourism and its effect in a village society cannot be adequately understood without reference to the socio-economic structure of the larger society of which it is a part”. (1963:352)

Finally he hopes to have demonstrated.

i. Tourism may bring about rapid and dramatic changes in the land use patterns, value systems and portions of an economy.

ii. That tourism is a legitimate and necessary area of culture change research.

iii. That the study of tourism may provide another laboratory situation for the testing of dependency paradigm and acculturation theory (1963:352).

Thus present study is a systemized ethnography of socio-cultural and economic change, which is the consequence of mass tourism including both domestic and outbound tourists.

As the research revolves around the socio cultural and economic impacts of tourism in a village of Murree, therefore an attempt has been made to depict the relation of the locals with that of tourism industry mainly in context of altered subsistence patterns i.e. mode of productions.

Let we move forward while setting the following propositions:

- Mass Tourism has altered the traditional economy patterns from agriculture to wage labor in host society.
- Murree has made its neighboring villages dependant on it for their survival and progress.
- Tourism has altered the traditional hierarchy through professional mobility.

The principal tools employed during research mainly were participant observation and rapport building including sampling, key informants, socio-economic survey forms, in-depth interviews, structured questionnaire, social mapping and audio visual aids.

Participant Observation is the phase in the research methodology which assigns itself as one of the ideals of anthropological research. It is the practice by which the researcher not only acts as an observer but for attaining in-depth information about the local people he/she participates in their daily routine tasks as much as possible. “You try to experience your informants life to the extend possible”.

More above “Rapport Building” being the most important part of the anthropological research work includes gaining the trust of the community members, so they stop recognizing the researcher as a stranger and facilitate the data collection.

The investigation penetrates deeply into how socio-cultural transformation in the traditional subsistence patterns that took place in the researched community, draws out to fulfill the demands of mass tourism and consequently this socio-economic activity weaved a net of dependence around the host community. The development in such localities is guided by tourism demands and preferences. Thus it becomes blessing and on the other hand growing inflation making a threat to survival for poor locals proves if it is a blight.

Murree is the premier hill station of Pakistan, which becomes a real temptation for tourists due to its scenic beauty and pleasant weather. A beautiful village of Murree, “Dharjawa” constitutes the ethnographic setting of the under taken field research, which comes under Ghora Gali union council, Murree Tehsil, District Rawalpindi of Potohar region.

The neighboring villages of Murree existed since centuries but Murree as a city came into being along with British in 1849. Before that, it was just a deep
and thick forest. Old records of Municipal cooperation reveal that “Construction” in Murree was initiated in 1850 but British’s Adventurous nature had long ago explored this place.

Before that in 1820s the hill area was attached by the Sikhs under Ranjit Sing and was finally conquered in 1830. This area was then given to one of the Sikh General Gulab Singh as a Jagir. He is remembered as a very cruel ruler and this cruelty made the locals to revolt against him in 1837. Conran and Craik make the following description of the period.

“It is said though the statement may be an exaggeration, that twelve thousand of Dhunds, Sattis and Ketwals were perished in this hill campaign. Certain it is that some parts of the hills, before well peopled and fertile, became as a desert; men were not left sufficient to fill the fields, and a famine wept off money of the miserable survivors of Ghulab Singh’s Revenge (Conran and Craik 1910:252).

Pocock recounts it as:

“The British came to the old man who owned Murree and asked him about coming to live there. He had plenty of land and thinking that they must be very poor to have come to him for this he told them that they could have it for Rs. 50/-... They were not really poor of course. One of them was a king. But the old man did not know that. The next day an Englishman came with his men sahib and the old man, seeing that she had only a skirt and no shalwar or chaddar (shawl) assumed that they must indeed be poor if they could not afford the extra cloth for these. So he took the Rs. 50, kept twenty for himself and gave thirty back telling the Englishmen to buy shalwar for his wife” (Pocock 1972: 97).

Today, Dhund being the oldest inhabitants of Murree hills claim it to be their land because departure of British meant the reversion of land rights to the locals.

One of my informants reported that:

“British came to our forefathers and requested them to give a place enough for a camel which they happily agreed. Then that treacherous quom prepared thread (sutar) out of camel’s skin and measured the land taking this all into their hold so it was through deception, they took our land”.

After partition of sub-continent in 1947 the non Muslim traders migrated to India, which created serious threat to economic life at Murree. These dark clouds persisted for two years and gradually Muslims of Murree took trade in hand which was also facilitated by the Muslims who migrated from India and were already indulge in trade. Then ‘just after one year of partition in 1948 Indian Air force planes bombarded at Murree in some misconception which fell in Gora Graveyard. Hundreds of tourists took this situation as alarming and within a night left Murree.

Thus Murree got various titles like “Switzerland of Pakistan”, “princess of Mountains” and “Himalayan daughter”. This beautiful dreamland also attracted Pakistani filmmakers to shot movies here. Writers and poets persuaded its paranoiac beauty. Murree administration initiated various festivals to attract tourists towards Murree, which consequently made its economic environment and social being very healthy and beneficial.

It is significant to note that the tourism at Murree in the past was “tourism of aristocracy” when a very limited strata of the total population in terms of power and money was in position to avail that entertainment. This implies the interaction of tourists and hosts as highly asymmetrical where tourist was very dominant and rich but the host was from extreme poverty. Today is very different situation and what actually has created this difference is the number and kind of tourists flowing to the tourist site. Today’s tourism at Murree is mass tourism where a large number of tourists belonging to different economic strata and varied objectives of touring access Murree. On the part of the host society this difference is marked by the fact that in earlier times this self sufficient and self-dependent indigenous community moved towards labor and made Murree live and now Murree is conditioning the survival of its neighboring villages.

The consultants calculated the detailed demographic surveys and estimation of population in order to calculate the net water demand of the area. This implies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Permanent</th>
<th>Visitors</th>
<th>Floating Visitors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>32,103</td>
<td>43,964</td>
<td>20,606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>37,578</td>
<td>51,463</td>
<td>21,657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>43,988</td>
<td>60,243</td>
<td>22,762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>51,492</td>
<td>70,517</td>
<td>23,903</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Annual operations and maintenance estimate for water supply (1999-2000)

The table clarifies that Murree hold immense tourist potential both as main attractions as scenic / natural beauty and summer health resort. Besides the site is worth mentioning for hiking, tracking and horse riding.
There is a good road up into the “Murree hills” which takes about 60 minutes drive from the Islamabad. Along this Pindi-Murree road, there are number of small settlements and beyond the village of Tret, the hill sides are covered with pine and deodar trees. Murree tehsil is further divided into 15 Union Councils. These are Murree city, Ghora Gali, Dariya Gali, Musayari, Ban, Gail, Angoor, Phagwary, Sair Bangla, Dewal, Charhan, Rawat, Tret, Potha Sharif and Nambal. The research locale “Dhar Jawa” comes under Ghora Gali Union Council.

In the Iqbal Municipal Library of Murree city, I got a Urdu book “Khayaban-e-Murree” written by Abdul-latif Kashmiri published in 1981. This had a single paragraph recorded about Dharjawa of that time what I take essential to present it here as this can make the reader measure the present through the past. This says:

“It lies in West of Murree city at a distance of about 4 miles. About 3 miles from Sunny Bank and 1 mile towards West of Chita Mor. This green village comprises of an area of 1714 acres. Panna and Naral are its famous Dhoks. Western end of this village touches the Hazara boundary. “River Haro” flows down to Dharjawa and segregate if from District Hazara. There are some apple farms also in the area.” (Kashmiri: 1981: 107) Translated.

“This village comprises of 80 houses. Majority population is Dhund few chaudarys are also settled. According to census 1961 the total population is 2834 which has increased to 3200.” (Ibid: 108) Translated.

“Dharjawa” derives it’s name due to the fact that it is believed that around 250 years ago as a consequence of massive sliding, the shape of village resembled the sword’s cult. Second part Jawa was initially a big sub-Dhok of Dhaar which later on became separate and now itself consist of almost 13 Dhoks—“Jawa” means a place of “water”.

The history of the village “Dharjawa” was not known clearly by all the people. Any way, the elders of the village narrated the historical events and the arrival of their forefathers in their own way. According to one of my oldest informant and through the combination of the information provided by other resources following version is taken as the most reliable one. It is believed by all the villagers that the first and earliest settlers in this area were the ‘Abbasi’ i.e Dhund who constitute 90% of the total population. Their arrival is rooted in the era, which dates back to 250 years ago. The arrival of the Dhund Abbasi “Java khan” is recorded as 8-10 generation ago. Along with the Dhund Abbasi there are also chudharys who narrate there arrival in the same period when Dhund arrived here and chudharys became the tenants of Abbasi quam. The third quam living here is “Kashmiri”. They live in suburbs of Bansra Gali and administratively come under Mauza “Dhar Java”.

According to the oldest person to Kashmiri Mohalla Mr. Abdul Rauf Butt, their forefathers came here 152 years ago and bought this land from the Dhund Abbas of Dhar Jawa.

These were three brothers Aqal Butt, Maqal Butt and Qullu Butt who first settled here after migrating from Kashmir because of drought and famine. At that time there were three households of kashmiris which have how increased to 50 households at Dharjawa.

The Dhunds of Dharjawa narrate their migration from Hazara that is in province NWFP. It was told by one that for many years before the partition of subcontinent the people from Hazara use to come here via River Haro and robe the villagers and then go back on the same day. They were physically healthy and strong so the villagers were very afraid of them and were helpless. The only thing they could have done was to reside more upwards from River Haro at higher elevation in Dharjawa.

The locals justify their migration from Hazara to Dharjawa in terms of need for much area to live, pastures for grazing their animals and above all for living a peaceful life without being threatened by other dominant quams as they were done at Hazara.

Dharjawa shares most of its main characteristics with other villages in the Murree Hills and it exhibits fairly steep slopes and hundreds of deep ditches on both side of its thin road. It makes 120 minutes climb from the lower end “bundhar” of the village to the upper end “Dhok Chita Mor”. The elevation at lower end of Dharjawa is at River Haro ie 3930 ft, where as the upper end is at elevation of 6255 ft above see level. So one can easily imagine the dangerous depth of the village. It is 8 km distance from bun (River) to Chita Mor (upper) end of the village.

According to Census Report 1998, the total population of “Dharjawa” is 6262 with a total of 921 households. The total no of males is 3,169 and the total numbers of females are 3,093. Almost 5% of the total households are having one or two members living abroad in Middle East countries.

The inhabitants of the mountain areas like to construct their houses on the East side in order to get proper sun light and heat. Same like in Dharjawa peo-
people have built their houses on the Eastern side of the hill. Due to heavy depression, the compound walls of the house are not considered as essential.

Mostly these houses are designed in one line so ventilation could be uniformly achieved in the bedrooms. The moisture is so much in the area that if house-design is not kept in consideration a specific smell due to humidity will be produced, which will further facilitate the growth of insects.

The old traditional house consists of a big hall or two rooms with fronted verandas. The big hall styled house is a simple box structure, a single room with that roof made of wood, stone and mud-mortar. The big hall is beautifully distributed for different uses, such as sitting, cooking, sleeping, working, entertainment and storage. The freezing winters leave no option for windows, except for a skylight in the roof. It is also used for exhausting the smoke of fire that always shoulders in the hearth during winters. A part from this there is also cattle store. Bathroom and toilets are not attached to houses rather they are made at little distance of few steps from the house.

“As village population expanded, the land came under increasing pressure. Moreover, since among these people land is customarily divided into equal shares to sons so holdings became increasingly fragmented. This has culminated in a situation today where little land is available for agriculture and where the land that still is cultivated suffers from considerable over use”. (Donann 1988:62)

Today, agriculture remains very little source of income for villagers. Usually maize (makkai) is planted. Sometimes potatoes and chilies are grown. But all what is grown here is seldom a surplus.

In 1947, after partition, the Pakistan Government took over the administrative hold of reserved and protected forest areas, and renounced most of the rights, which the locals were enjoying under the British. Now there is forest officer whose job is to prevent villagers from cutting wood for fuel or construction, and who impounds livestock caught grazing there. This has created problem for locals who use wood both for heating and for cooking. Not only wood but also all the resources, which local households have traditionally exploited, are disappearing at an increasing rate, to which all of them are aware. Thus one of aged respondent reported:

“My father had plenty of land and had trouble in farming it all so he did not thought of buying more land. Then he had two sons my brother and me. My brother had four sons and I am with five. So all the time land is getting smaller and smaller”.

Keeping in view the diminishing resources the only way-out is cash economy. It is not possible for locals to live on proceeds of agriculture and the youngsters are not ready to do it even. This situation is responded by seeking wage labor and Murree builds this demand. The village has 3,169 males out of which 2100 are above 18. Out of these 2100 male adults 1680 males are engaged in cash economy. From this one can get the certain idea of villagers inclination rather dependence on employment oriented occupations offered by tourism industry.

“Tourism infrastructure comprises wide ranging and diverse activities which require intense significance. Many of these activities are in form of public activities like power, water, gas, transport and communication”. (National Tourism Policy: 1993)

The heart of Murree is “Mall Road” which is blocked for any kind of traffic during the season. In Summers Mall Road is filled with flocks and flocks of people from all over the country till late nights. The roadsides have been decorated with grassy parks, lights and benches to facilitate the tourists. Mall Road previously known as Jinnah road provides the tourist with all flavors of food, handicrafts, decoration accessories, garments, photographic equipment and photo labs, Music shops, Internet café and all that one can ask for.

At present there are twenty daily newspapers at doorstep of tourist staying in Murree. Along with it there are 12 cable operators active in easy cable reach to Murree. Further nine Internet café and five mobile phone shops make the communication quite evident.

This growing communication is facilitating the visitors, tourists as well as the locals but on the other side the indigenous community is hegemonized on a fast track towards social change. For instance school going children bunk their colleges and schools to watch movies and chat through the net café when their illiterate parents remain aloof of reality. This results in the conflict between the two generations. Similarly cable watching and lust for mobiles, which have affected their motivation towards study as well as labor that has spoiled youngsters.

Tourism in Murree is a season activity. Such a high flow of tourists in season adversely influences the civic amenities. Thus some how, tourism instead of being beneficial, bring in its wake hardships and misery for the local inhabitants. Secondly an attendant evil of tourism is its spoiling effect on local flora and fauna. A lack of conservation policy needs to be devised and integrated simultaneously with developmental aspects. Locals feel deprived of their own
land being articulated as a moneymaking machine where the flow of profit mostly goes to the urban community and the entrepreneurs. On the other side, the flying cost of land at Murree has inclined the locals to sell out their property and invests somewhere else. This cost demand relationship in terms of land has substituted the land use patterns by indigenous communities of Murree.

Referring to impact of tourism development, Cohen records:

“Under the impact of tourism development and destinations undergo a series of transformations, ranging from the ecological and economic to the political social and cultural domains. These transformations tend to cause serious local dislocations particularly at the early stage of tourism development, owing to the unbalanced growth of the service sector, which is usually not accompanied by concomitant developments in other sector of the local economy and society”. (Cohen-1984)

The consequences of tourism that Murree bears on the village under study ‘Dharjawa’ can be seen stemming out in two directions. Once refers to the impact of tourism that implies the changes it has brought to the existing patterns of culture and society while the second deals with the actions and induction’s made by tourism in that particular area.

When attempted to measure the level of irritation generated by tourist host encounter, Doxey drew up the following index:

1. “The level of Euphoria. The initial thrill and enthusiasm that comes along with tourism development means that the tourist is made welcome.

2. The level of Apathy: - once tourism development has taken place, the tourist is taken for granted and is now seen as a source of profit making; contact is now on a more formal basis.

3. The level of irritation: - as the industry approaches saturation point, the hosts can no long cope with tourist, without additional facilities.

4. The level of Antagonism: - The tourist is now seen as the bringer of all ills and problems to the host society.

5. The final level: - During the above process of development the host have forgotten that all they once regarded as being special was exactly what attracted the tourist, but in the rush to develop tourism, circumstances have changed.” (Doxey: 1976)

The steady growth of tourism in mountain regions has affected agricultural practices and land use, explicate related to tourism is the conversion of agricul-
and they did so. Especially the female education grew rapidly but the crux was that strict cultural barriers bound these literate female for not to join any professional carrier that implies going out and leaving their homes. They are literate, able to earn but they can’t do it. Secondly acquiring education even at intermediate level increased their average marriage age which was before hardly sixteen and now has rise to twenty one. This has further exaggerated frustration is females and pressure on their parents to look for the right mate.

Dharjawa is one of the most populated as well nearest villages of Murree. And Murree itself is famous for its high quality educational centers and institutions. Inspite of these facts the literacy rate of Dharjawa is only 57.8%, which is the lowest among all the villages of Murree. As compared to Dawel and Rawat where the literacy rate has exceeded 75%, although the students have to walk miles and miles in order to reach their schools. On the other hand Murree stands at such a little distance to Dharjawa and even then education failed to grow.

What actually happened was that the people of Dharjawa were with two options either education or cash money from serving industry. So they decided the ready-made money creation program that implies leaving education and adopting labor works. Their parents and elders pressurized the youngsters who wanted to study for working and bringing money to the home economy. That’s how the net literacy rate could not meet the expected growth. Most interestingly this situation is gender sensitive. As the indigenous community does not build any pressure on female for money creation, the female education did not face hurdles and it kept on growing gradually. This implies a striking difference between male and female adolescent education at present.

At first sight, tourism changing religious beliefs may even feel ridiculous but if we peep deep into it, we find connectivity. The village of Dharjawa has a past of agricultural community, which was self sufficient in production and consumption. Their interaction with cities was highly seldom. All the population belonged to the Sunni-Branch of Muslims with further division into Brahevlvi Maslaq. The village Mullah who usually was called from another area was frequently the medium through which knowledge of Islam was acquired. There was a usual practice of visiting shrines and recitations for ‘kahatm’ on a small portion of food every Thursday. Thirty years back to present, one don’t find a single local Hafiz (able to recite the Quran by memory) in the whole village. Then occupational mobility took them to Murree and few of them got interested in “Daras sessions” arranged by Tableegi Jamat at Murree. These
people joined the procession and were taken to Saudi-Arabia for a couple of months. Returning from that a small building was laid on the upper tip of Jawa. The same was assigned for prayers as well as “Dars”. Gradually people (whose religion was just limited to the Friday sermon of the Maulvi and visits to shrines) started participated in the sessions. Later on regular classes for “Hifz” and “Tafeer” were carried out. At present there are more then fifty students learning Quran by heart.

Thus gradually people converted themselves from Brahelvi maslaq to the Deoband maslaq and now just in the period of thirty years the 74% of Dharjawa community represent themselves as Deobands which total was previously Brahelvi. Narrating this change to me, a respondent of mine reported:

“In early times we were ignorant as there was no interaction with the outer world. For us what the maulvi sahib says was the right and appropriate. This was so because all others of us did not know how to practice religion correctly. Many of us did not even knew to read Quran rather than understanding it. Then we left agriculture, went for the cash money and thus interacted with the outer world. Few of our men were inclined towards Dars activities and they stimulated others also to participate. This was how we came to know and differentiate wrong and right. Now atleast one person of every household attends the Dars and surely we have switched to Deoband maslaq”.

When hierarchical relationships are being studied, we can speak of them as representing rank. In this way, rank order serves to be an organizing principle not only for arranging individuals into particular groupings but also assigning appropriate functions to them. So, narrating this fact, each ethnic group also sees to be a status group. Therefore “rank” itself assigns superior and inferior positions to groups of society.

Tourism has melted strict hierarchical arrangement and this is because of the occupational mobility among the villagers. Speaking of traditional hierarchy present in Dharjawa in past times was undoubtedly topped with the superior most ranking ‘Dhund’ who were not only the initial settlers but were the owner of vast amount of land which was partially cultivated by themselves and partially by their tenants who were the chaudharys. Land being the unit of value, prestige, authority and wealth especially in South Asian rural communities formed this hierarchy.

As Srinivas indicates;

“Thus, the traditional rural economy, ownership of land is the most important source of wealth, and is the means by which individuals lift themselves up in the local prestige system”. (Srinivas 1976: 17)

On the other hand, rank or social status consists of one’s economic position thereby guided by one’s occupation. So the Dhund were followed by the Kashmiris of Dhok kashimiri Mohalla who owned shops in the Murree market. Chudharys came low in the hierarchy because they worked as tenants of Dhund and watchmen of land.

Dhund left the cultivation at their lands and went for cash jobs. Consequently the need of tenants was eroded, as there was no land to cultivate, therefore chaudharys were also forced to approach Murree for survival. Now previously the landowners, producers and the tenants both stood together as being un-skilled laborers. From on wards the journey was the same, attaining money, which is the greatest homogenizing agent. Both made money serving the tourism industry and together were in position to invest into transport (local). Here one can find Dhund as Jeep driver and owner and a chauhdry previously a tenant, now a jeep owner and a driver. In this situation the earlier dependency of the tenants on the landowners and Dhund was lifted off.

CONCLUSION

Although tourism has brought Murree such as foreign exchange, employment, higher Government revenue and transformation of agricultural into modern service industry, it continue to act like a two-edge sword which to some extent has damaged the indigenous societies of its neighboring villages. The economic benefits have brought prosperity mainly to the urban communities as entrepreneurs. The rate of economic return to the poor strata therefore remains very low.

Over the past many years the rural neighbors of Murree which provide major man power to its hospitality industry have not been benefited from tourism because of there weak linkage with the local production. Now what ever one sees, get attracted and finally buys from the “Maal Road” is either from China or from other parts of the country but there is no local product of Murree itself or its surrounding villages. But even then the income from tourism is of course heavy than what they can get from agriculture and therefore serving industry becomes a priority.

Tourism is an economic activity with cultural outcomes. It is well-justified cultural phenomena with ritualized behaviors and complex meanings for both
the host and tourist. The changing economics of the host society has made them replaced traditional houses by modern patterns eroding the local material culture. The higher standard of living in urban tourist destinations has caused immigration from near by rural neighbors, resulting in the changes in demographic structures and possible cultural shock.

Government policy do emphasize tourism but they are mostly concerned with increased tourist arrivals, marketing, physical development in terms of infrastructure, access and the facilities. The local involvement in tourism remains absent.

In the present study tourism is found responsible for altering all dimensions of indigenous life whether it is occupation, land use, dress, religious beliefs, women socialization, adolescent education and traditional hierarchy. Moreover, tourism in Murree has increased rapidly and massively so consequently there is political fallout from the resultant inflation, spiraling land prices, increase transport, housing, food cost and the boom-bust cycle of construction industry.

To conclude, tourism has sufficient potential to alter socio-economic and cultural life of host community. With respect to the particular context of present study on impact of tourism on indigenous society, the entire data and description supports the proposition that “today Murree is conditioning the survival of its neighboring villages where tourism runs the economy and shapes the culture”.

REFERENCES


Social Impacts of Tourism in Island Communities: An Exploratory Study of Community Perceptions and Participation in Aruba

Thais NIEROP
Faculty of Hospitality and Tourism Management Studies
University of Aruba
E-mail: thaisnierop@hotmail.com

Ryan PETERSON
Faculty of Hospitality and Tourism Management Studies
University of Aruba
E-mail: thaisnierop@hotmail.com

ABSTRACT

Aruba is known for its warm, sunny weather, mile long white beaches with its crystal clear water. However, few people know how rapid tourism has grown on this 193 km² area island. This study will be assessing the multivariate nature and interaction effects of social impacts of tourism in a mature tourism-intensive island community and the nature and intensity of social impacts of tourism within the Aruban community. This study, in addition, will provide empirically-validated guidelines for both scholars and practitioners in the field of social sustainability of tourism development in island communities.

Key Words: social impacts, island community, tourism development, community perceptions, community participation.

INTRODUCTION

With its potential to generate employment, stimulate investments and generate substantial government revenues, tourism plays an important role in economic development and competitiveness of countries. Many surveys have been conducted with the goals to measure and understand the economic impact that tourism has on the small island. However, any tourism development should not only look at the economic impacts but should also consider the social impacts such as changes in tradition and values, commercialization of culture, increase in the rate of crime, traffic and pollution, since all these impacts could have an effect on the way residents perceive tourism (Brunt 1999).

Too often, tourism developments carry the seeds of self-destruction if and when due diligence is not applied (Peterson 2006). For Aruba, a small island in the Caribbean, tourism represents its main economic pillar since 1987, responsible for more than 70% of economic GDP and employing over 80% of the total labor market. Aruba has seen an immense growth in tourism in a relatively short time. The population has had to adapt to many changes, and following several theories, including Dox (1975) and Butler (1975), it is the aim of this study to assess the social impacts of tourism developments as perceived and experienced by the host community.

Subsequently, the (doctoral) study (in-progress) centers on the following research questions:

1) How does the Aruban population perceive the impacts of tourism growth and expansion on the community?
2) How does economic dependency have an impact on perceptions and experiences, i.e., do residents employed in the tourism industry perceive tourism and its impacts differently than those not employed in the industry?
3) How does the distance between the residents’ home from the tourist zone affect how they perceive tourism and its impacts?
4) How do information and participation channels effect the perception and experiences of the community? How does familiarity of tourism plans influence residents’ perceptions and opinions?

In pursuing empirical answers to these questions, this study seeks to integrate and advance theory specifically with regard to the dynamics of social impacts of tourism in mature tourism-intensive island-based contexts. The remainder of this paper addresses the theoretical background (section 2), and provides an introduction to the case of Aruba (section 3) and the employed research methodology (section 4). Expected contributions are addressed in the final section of this paper.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Andereck and Vogt (2000), there is a relationship between attitudes and support for tourism development, even though the nature of the relationship is different for each community. Before any tourism development, it is crucial to understand how community members may perceive this development. It is difficult to develop or expand a sustainable tourism industry in a community, if you don’t have the community’s support. Matina and Dimitrios’ study reconfirmed that tourism has socio-economic impacts, both positive and
negative depending on a variety of factors present in a destination. Yet, in some destinations, tourism has been developed at the expense of the host community, where economic achievement is more important than the overall well-being of the host population. They should also predict tourism’s negative impacts, taking into consideration that the population forms an important player, influencing either positive or negative the development stage of the tourism development.

Butler’s tourism life-cycle reports that impacts increase over time resulting in a diminish support from residents. Regarding the pace of tourism development, it is observed that some destinations have witnessed rapid growth, which has been relatively uncontrolled (Mathieson and Wall 1982). Consequently, social impacts are likely to be higher in these areas. According to Page et al. (2001), local communities need to adapt gradually to the needs and benefits of change and tourist demand. Horn and Simmons (2002) conclude that it is important to keep tourism growth at a rate which enables local residents to adjust to the accompanying changes. Residents’ attitudes and perceptions towards tourism are positive when the personal benefits obtained exceed the costs. In contrast, when the living standards and social conditions are threatened, perceptions are negative. According to Ap (1992), through research it is possible to eliminate negative impacts of tourism and also minimize residents’ negative behavior towards tourism which can create the loss of valuable economic benefits.

Keogh’s (1990) study searched to understand what type of information residents of a destination area needed for a more effective participation in community planning. The study indicated that information was lacking on a number of issues related to the planning of tourism development and that residents were not very familiar with the information that was available, a situation which analysis suggests may have an overall adverse effect on resident perceptions and their general opinions. The study by Belisle and Hoy found that in Colombia attitudes varied with the distance between the tourist resort and the respondent’s home.

In summary, the foregoing literature suggests that there are at least three interacting factors that have a hypothesized affect on the perception of the community with regard to the social impact and implications of tourism development, i.e., (1) economic dependency and employment in the tourism industry, (2) residential proximity and spatial distance to tourism hotspots, and (3) community information and participation in tourism development (Figure 1). Subsequently, this study hypothesizes that:

- Residents employed in the tourism industry are more favorably disposed toward tourist than those not employed in the industry;
- Residents’ perceptions vary with the distance of the residents’ home from the tourist zone;
- The level of community information and participation has an indirect and moderating impact on the relationship between economic dependency and perceived social impact, and on the relationship between residential proximity and perceived social impact of tourism.

THE CASE OF ARUBA

Aruba is a small island in the Caribbean, Dutch West Caribbean to be specific and with an area of 193 km², from which 30 km² is designated to nature conservation. Until 1985 Aruba’s population consisted of 61,000 people and a large part of the community worked at the oil refinery. Tourism was not the major economic pillar prior to the closing of the refinery in 1985. To address the unemployment and economic situation of Aruba, the government turned to tourism as a solution to solve the crisis.

In 1985, Aruba had a total of 2,061 hotel rooms and by 1990 the island more than doubled its hotel rooms, reaching a total of 4,822. By 2006, the island reached a total of 7,483 hotel rooms. During this same time period, stay-over visitors grew from 344, 336 to 732, 514, and the total population grew from 61,000 to 102, 149. In a time span of less than two decades, social and structural density of Aruba increased with over 100%, and is currently considered one of the most tourism-dense islands in the Caribbean.

Table 1. Sample tourism and demographic statistics for Aruba (Central Bureau of Statistics, 1990-2006).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>2005</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stay-over tourists</td>
<td>432762</td>
<td>732514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel rooms</td>
<td>4822</td>
<td>7483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>64410</td>
<td>102149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cars</td>
<td>25186</td>
<td>49521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism employment (direct)</td>
<td>5643</td>
<td>7651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of which foreign labor</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The rapid growth in the tourism industry resulted in a massive influx of foreign labor. Between January 1987 and September 2002, more or less 59,000 people migrated to Aruba. The high influx of foreign workers resulted in tensions on the housing market. The government tried to lessen this pressure by constructing subsidized residences. The bloom in the labor market also created the temptation for foreign workers to seek a better living, even if that meant working and staying on the island illegally. The census of 1991 and 2000 provides the following information. In 1991, the total labor force consisted of 31,111 people, of whom 8,097 were born overseas, which represents 26% percent. In 2000, the labor force had increased to 45,037, representing a growth of 44.7%. The total number of employees not born on Aruba increased to 18,447, meaning that 40.9 percent of the labor force was born outside Aruba and that the foreign labor force increased by 127.8% in less than a decade.

The case of Aruba demonstrates a growing and expanding tourism economy, with average growth of more than 10% per annum. While the economic success of Aruban tourism is not disputed, and well beyond the scope of this paper, recent studies and anecdotal evidence indicates that this rapid growth and continued expansion is causing social pressures and anxiety (Peterson 2006). A recent study by National Geographic (2007) describes the island as lacking social, cultural and environmental integrity, while several NGOs have publicly and actively questioned the sustainability and acceptability of continued tourism growth and expansion.

METHODOLOGY

There are three purposes for this study. The first purpose is to identify the positive and negative tourism impacts and aspects as perceived by the Aruban community. The information will be used to establish a general profile of the population’s satisfaction with the tourism industry. The second goal is to determine if residents employed in the tourism industry are more favorably inclined towards tourist than those not employed in the industry. The third purpose is to determine if residents’ perceptions vary with the distance of the residents’ home from the tourist zone. The survey will measure economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts and community perceptions as perceived by the local community. As dependent variables the study will be looking at all the above mentioned impacts as perceived by the local community and sub-communities. The independent variables will be the distance between respondents’ home with the tourist zone and the respondents’ dependence on tourism employment.

The gathering of information for this study will rely on a questionnaire, interviews, observations, and focus groups. The first part of the questionnaire is related to the residents’ perceptions of the positive and negative impacts of tourism on the host community. Residents will be asked to agree or disagree with statements measuring their opinions about different tourism impacts. Consistent with previous studies, a five-point Likert scale will be used. The second part of the questionnaire will consist of questions regarding the demographics of the sample, for example, age, gender, household income, etc. The applied sampling technique can be described as stratified sampling in order to maximize the external validity and representation of findings. Data analysis will consist of quantitative data analysis (e.g., principal component, ANOVA and multivariate analysis) using Statistical Package for Social Science, and qualitative data analysis including secondary data analysis, archive analysis, interview coding and pattern matching techniques.

To maximize the response rate of the sample, the surveys will be filled out on a personal basis. Three focus groups discussions will take place with key players in the local tourism industry. Because this study has never been conducted on Aruba, a pilot study will be used first to identify and eliminate any problems before the full survey is carried out. This way the questionnaire can be edited and be ready for the bigger sample. By mid of 2008, the first survey should have been conducted and enough information should have been gathered to measure and understand how the host population feels about tourism and how this may influence their attitudes towards tourism. By early 2010, a second measurement is planned to assess the longitudinal effects of social impacts of tourism growth and expansion.

CONCLUSION

There are several scientific studies that indicate how important it is that any tourism destination should involve its host community in decision making for tourism planning and development. In general, the perceived tourism impact to the host community has been studied from one perspective, either looking at the distance of the resident’s home and the tourist zone, or studying the perceived impacts from residents who are directly employed by the tourism industry. This study will assess the perceived impact that tourism has on the host community of Aruba taking into consideration different variables simultaneously. We know that in general, residents employed by the tourism industry have the tendency to see the impacts as positive, while residents not employed by the tourism industry tend to see tourism as having negative impacts. It has
also been confirmed that residents living close to the tourist zone are more inclined to perceive the impacts as negative, while residents living further away from the tourist zone perceive tourism as positive. However, if the community is not adequately informed of tourism development plans and if the community does not participate in the decision making, how does this influence the residents’ perception? Will their perceptions be more positive or negative?

In summary, the key contribution of this study is twofold: (a) to assess the multivariate nature and interaction effects of social impacts of tourism in a mature tourism-intensive island community (Figure 1); (b) assess the nature and intensity of social impacts of tourism within the Aruban community; and (c) provide empirically-validated guidelines for both scholars and practitioners in the field of social sustainability of tourism development in island communities.

REFERENCES
New Product Development and Sustainability in Nature-Based Tourism Destinations

Tsimitakis N. EMMANOUIL
Interdepartmental Program of Postgraduate Studies in Tourism Planning Management and Policy University of the Aegean, Greece
E-mail: e.tsimitakis@aegean.gr

Tsigkani E. VASILIKI
Interdepartmental Program of Postgraduate Studies in Tourism Planning Management and Policy University of the Aegean, Greece
E-mail: emtnt07025@emt.aegean.gr

ABSTRACT
In recent years, growing awareness among tourism researchers of the relations between tourism and natural resource management has resulted in a substantial body of academic literature examining tourism issues under a relatively new set of tourism concepts. Seemingly new forms of tourism, such as nature-based tourism, ecotourism, and sustainable tourism, now are advocated as an environmentally safe basis for economic development in many rural locations worldwide. The main topic of the paper is to present a case study: the European Long Distance Path E4 in Sterea Ellada, and to elaborate on issues concerning funding, local economies stimulation and minimization of tourism activity’s negative impacts on natural environment. The paper aims to justify and conceptualize the benefits deriving from nature-based tourism (focusing on trekking) and to identify the possibilities of intergrading ecotourism and sustainable financial and tourism development, in the certain area of Path E4 in Sterea Ellada.

Key words: Nature-based tourism, ecotourism, sustainable tourism, sustainable tourism development, trekking, the european long distance Path E4.

INTRODUCTION
The Mediterranean has long been plagued by unsustainable development associated with conventional tourism. Valuable coastal and marine ecosystems have been destroyed to accommodate marinas, seaside hotels and recreational activities at sites, which are important habitats for Mediterranean fauna and flora. An alternative to this model of tourism development has begun to emerge in the form of ecotourism: sites with important biological diversity and natural beauty have been organised to accommodate nature-seeking tourists, orienting to the specific interests of the areas (Page and Dowling 2002). These sites provide a different variety of tourist accommodation and services, which is enriched with the outstanding beauty, and interest of nature.

A key to the maintenance and enhancement of natural sites and protected areas in Europe is mobilizing local communities and political support for their conservation. Ways must be found to demonstrate that the conservation of nature and the sustainable use of natural resources are relevant to the daily lives of people, even of those who may never visit the area (Orms 1995). In Greece, as well as in several other Mediterranean countries, protected areas are usually seen as a problem, an intrusion in the lives of local people and irrelevant to their daily needs (Worker 1993). Restrictions on land use or natural resource exploitation are usually ignored, if not actively sabotaged because of the infringement on locally generated income (Mathieson and Wall 1982).

One way of developing the support of the local people is to encourage the influx of visitors from outside the area, which brings supplementary income and awareness of the site’s importance. Ecotourism has been defined as “environmentally responsible travel and visitation to relatively undisturbed natural areas, in order to enjoy and appreciate nature that promotes conservation, has low visitor impact, and provides beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local populations”. A prerequisite for this type of activity is effective communication to the public at large of the values and interests of the environment (Campbell 1999). Environmental education must be developed in a way that is accessible to ordinary citizens, adaptable to the needs of the old or the young, the city-dweller, the policy maker or the tourist (Whelan 1991). Another prerequisite is the consistent presence on site of individuals or groups actively involved in these pursuits (Young 1999). Often this can only be achieved by investment from private sources or from conservation organizations, which have the means and flexibility to ensure continuous support (Van and Cooks 1990). This support, however minimal, can fill in the gaps between government-funded programmes whose development and implementation are often plagued by bureaucratic delays (Pleurammon 1994).

Tourism development commonly has been advocated as an alternative to traditional natural resource-based economic development, such as timber production, agriculture or mining (Farrell and Runyan 1991, Hanemann 1994). Recently, many advocates of tourism have promoted seemingly new tourism concepts, such as nature-based tourism, ecotourism, and sustainable tourism, among others (Wall 1994). These new forms of tourism are promoted as an
environmentally safe way for rural communities to generate income from natural resources (Bryden and Faber 1971, Yang 1994). They are advocated particularly in developing countries because most of them possess a comparative advantage over developed countries in their ability to provide relatively pristine natural settings (Gunn 1988). Affluence, education, and environmentalism, all contribute to increasing visitation to wild lands and generate income for local communities through the expenditures of tourists such as those for lodging, transportation, food, guides, and souvenirs (Archer and Owen 1971).

Demand for these new forms of tourism, it is argued, arises from increased concern or interest in unique and fragile ecosystems and a growing desire to travel to new and different places, and an increasing number of people who have the financial means to do so (Nash 1986). Research interest in these new forms of tourism has surfaced partly because of decreasing timber harvests and increasing recreation on national forest lands and the resulting impacts of these changes on local economies (Hanemann et al. 1991). Supply and demand projections for outdoor recreation into the decades to come suggest that quantities demanded will exceed supply for many activities including wildlife observation, primitive camping, backpacking, nature study and trekking (Forster 1989).

**TREKKING**

Trekking is a physical exercise and takes place outdoors. It usually involves traveling along paths (paved or not) and visiting forests, hills, mountains and/or remote traditional villages, heritage/cultural sites etc. The distance covered must be at least 5km long, otherwise it is just about walking, and not trekking. Trekking is a non-demanding human activity and the only requirements are: good health condition and good will. Costs are of the lowest, comparing to other sports or outdoor activities, making trekking not only an affordable choice, but a very popular too, especially amongst Europeans. According to the difficulty level there are three levels of trekking: a) common trekking, b) mountain trekking and c) climbing (alpinism is excluded due to its very special requirements in physical abilities and equipment).

It is strongly believed that trekking is an enhanced tourism product, since traveling short distances on foot helps tourists encounter local communities and cultures in depth, in contrary with long hall journeys by plane or train (Roe et al. 1997). In Europe main paths through mountains or forests have been established since the previous century and it is very common to see travelers, alone or with their families, trekking on these. For trekkers traveling within central Europe it is very easy to find information about paths, lodgments or organizations. It is also affordable enough to acquire the equipment required. In northern Europe paths can facilitate one-day trips and in Scandinavia trips of two days or more. These terms get a little differentiated in the Mediterranean, where nature-based tourism and trekking still lay on primitive levels.

**THE EUROPEAN LONG DISTANCE PATH E4**

The European Long Distance Path E4 has a total length of 10,450km and crosses through eight European countries (Spain, France, Switzerland, Austria, Hungary, Bulgaria, Greece and Cyprus) (Table 1). The route begins from Gibraltar, Spain and ends in Pafos, Cyprus (pic. 1a). There are 11 paths in Europe and E4 is the longest one. Today, the network of European paths goes through 25 countries. The E4 Path starts from the Pyrenees, crosses Alps and enters Greece in Promachonas (Greek-Bulgarian borders). It passes Mt. Olympus and reaches...
Gytheio, in Peloponnese, and then Kastelli in Crete. The highest pick, on the Greek part of the path, is Skolio, on Mt. Olympus (2,911m). The ideal period to trek on the Greek part of the path is between May and October. Accommodation may be very difficult to arrange during winter due to the fact that most of the villages the path comes through have less than some tens of inhabitants. Information about paths, facilities, equipment, weather etc. is provided by local climbing clubs or the Greek Climbing Federation.

THE EUROPEAN LONG DISTANCE PATH E4 IN STEREAA ELLADA

The Path E4 in Sterea Ellada starts from Karpenissi and ends in Delphi (pic. 1b). It is a route of medium difficulty and it is known as a path for mountain trekking. The longest part of the path goes over hills and short mountains, on non-paved footpaths. During their travel trekkers can visit traditional villages and sites of natural or historical beauty and interest. The work of lining and signaling was made under funds of local administration authorities and communities and local climbing clubs. The main path and its branches were traced according to questionnaires filled in by climbers, planners and individuals that have visited the area. The results of the survey helped local authorities to understand some of the product’s dimensions and to establish new directions towards which they should move in order to enrich it. The questionnaire was developed and distributed by local climbing clubs to tourists, trekkers and locals in Sterea Ellada, during spring, summer and autumn of 2005.

THE PRESENT CONDITION

The area of Sterea Ellada is divided into 5 prefectures (Voiotia, Evia, Evritania, Fthiotida and Fokida) and the Path E4 crosses 4 of them (table 2). These 4 prefectures are divided into 67 municipalities and the Path E4 crosses 7 of them. In the following table these prefectures and municipalities are shown (Table 2).

The route is divided into 7 parts (Table 3), its total length is approximately 100km and 19 hours of trekking are required. The highest pick of the route is Pyramida, on Mt. Giona (2,507m). The Path E4 crosses 7 mountains (Mt. Giona, The Vandousia Mts., Mt. Parnassos, Mt. Velouhi, Mt. Kaliakouda, The Eastern Agrafults Mts. and Mt. Oxia), 4 ski resorts, 1 National Park (Parnassos), numerous Byzantine and post Byzantine churches, prehistoric caves, lakes and rivers. Apart from 8 shelters which can accommodate trekkers / tourists during spring, summer and autumn, there is no other special facility for tourists trekking along the path. Moreover, most of these shelters are closed from November until February. The area is habitat of rare rodent species and of protected bird species and trekkers can walk through forest paths and enjoy numerous fir and olive forests and visit numerous traditional villages, where they are welcome to taste local products. One of the main problems is that most of the villages have no habitants during winter months and there are no organized accommodation facilities. There are just a few rooms to let and tourism facilities ly on primitive levels.

The main economic activity of the local communities is agriculture and farming, consequently tourism facilities are numbered. Furthermore, tourism business of the area is focused on ecotourism with small agrotourist enterprises struggling to survive in this semi-mountainous area. Despite the difficulties of accommodation the route is well organized, while there are signings informing trekkers about the route they should follow and the areas they can visit around. In addition, there are plenty of water springs and the only supply required is a pack with small quantities of food and water. Clothing appropriate for trekking and maps are also necessary. At the end of the route trekkers will find the archaeological site of Delphi, which is considered to be of very high archaeological value as it is the most rich in archaeological findings area of Sterea Ellada.

Table 3. The parts the Path E4 in Sterea Ellada is divided into

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Prefectures</th>
<th>Municipalities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Part 1</td>
<td>Karpenissi - Krikello</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 2</td>
<td>Krikello - Stavropigi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 3</td>
<td>Stavropigi - Artotina</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 4</td>
<td>Artotina - Athanasios Diakos</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 5</td>
<td>Athanasios Diakos - Kaloskopi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 6</td>
<td>Kaloskopi - Eptalofos</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part 7</td>
<td>Eptalofos - Delphi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
NEW PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT

Developing new products, especially in tourism, is a procedure of very high complexity, and by default it requires multidimensional and multi-scientific approaches. In this paper, and for this case study, authors tried to conceptualize this process and to create a framework that could help them in developing new products for the area. Authors grounded this framework upon the base of marketing, financial theories and ecotourism principles.

The first step in this framework is to take into consideration that new tourism product development is affected by several factors, such as the human setting, the natural setting, the social environment and the natural environment, just like tourism itself, as a phenomenon (Miller and Auyong 1991). Landscape and traditional architecture on one hand, and community structures and local mentality on the other, along with environmental analysis, must be taken into account when planning to develop new products, since ecotourism is greatly affected by all these three factors.

The next step is to follow the concept of developing new products. Authors created a “checklist” (table 3) and added all the main elements, concerning ecotourism products. This checklist, not only made it easier to the authors to accomplish the certain case study, but it is also believed to be suitable for use in other case studies, similar to this.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4. New ecotourism product development “checklist”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Point</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pin-point the resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment of the resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment of the existing products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse the interconnections between existing products and resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market research / analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specify the new products that could be developed in the area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyse the interconnections between resources and products to be developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provisional assessment of the products to be developed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THE FUTURE

According to bibliography (Fennel 1999) and to what locals said when asked to fill the questionnaires in, ecotourism and trekking are considered to be nature-friendly forms of tourism. Furthermore, locals suggested that trekkers and nature-seeking tourists interact with local communities without disturbing them and without causing radical changes. After all, ecotourism is strongly believed to be more preferable because of its smooth impacts (Bramley 1993) and its high profitability (Laaman and Gregersen 1996). But what tourism planners should always keep in mind is that developing ecotourism, and trekking as part of it, in an area is a long-lasting and demanding procedure (McKercher 1998); demanding both in work and funds (Moore and Carter 1993).

Successful planning of ecotourism can lead to sustainable tourism development and to successful development of nature friendly tourism forms (Anderson 1994), such us trekking (Hjalager 1997). Sterea Ellada is ideal for developing trekking since it is rich in natural beauty and has variable geomorphology. However, there is no supply to cover the existing demand; the number of the shelters and agrotourism establishments and of the beds is too small. Furthermore, the level of products offered is of poor quality and according to tourists and trekkers has low value for money. Most of trekkers are forced to overnight in conventional mass tourism hotels, since they have no other choice.

The research results helped authors to develop suggestions towards sustainable nature-based tourism planning taking into consideration the present condition of tourism in Sterea Ellada, its natural and cultural attractions and possible sources of funding. Suggestions where developed not only for each the areas Path E4 crosses, but on levels of prefecture and district too:
On local level:

- Development of agrotourism accommodation and catering facilities taking into consideration the local communities’ farming activities.
- Development of ecotourism accommodation and catering facilities taking into consideration possibilities of developing spas and thermal establishments.
- Development of supporting establishments for climbers, trekkers etc. such as special sports centers and shops.
- Establishment of a geological-information center for tourists visiting the area.
- Establishment of bird watching facilities.
- Establishment of natural activity centers inside the forests.
- Improvement of the path network.
- Improvement of the quality level of local products offered.
- Lining new paths towards the canyons and caves.
- Lining new side paths towards villages of great architectural beauty.
- Orientation of the existing tourism infrastructure towards sustainability and protection of nature.
- On level of prefecture and district:
  - Development of information kiosks all along the E4 Path.
  - Establishment of first aid centers along the main and the side routes.
  - Enforce strict legislation concerning environmental protection.
  - Boost private investments and development efforts.
  - Inform and motivate local communities and businesspeople to development of nature friendly forms of tourism.

LOCAL COMMUNITIES MOTIVATION – FUNDING

The two main problems that tourism planners face when trying to develop sustainable forms of tourism within an area are: a) local communities’ non-cooperation and b) low financial budgets (Lane 1994). The first problem derives from the fact that forms of sustainable tourism such as nature-based tourism and trekking demand dedication and patience. Local communities must cooperate and comply with strict environmental regulation and cut their nature threatening activities down (Lusigi 1978). Most people stand against sustainable forms of tourism because mass tourism “seems” to give money back in shorter times after investment (Liu and Var 1982). In contrary, nature friendly tourism (and trekking as a part of it) is believed to be a long lasting investment procedure with low cash flow (Seidl 1994). That is not always true, and the State needs to inform and motivate locals towards nature-based tourism development through enriching its educational system and through contacting local pressure groups (McKercher 1993). According to these the authors suggest:

- Establishment of environmental education programs for students and individuals.
- Cooperation with local pressure groups and local communities through meetings, seminars etc.

The second problem lies on the financial level. Usually budgets, both private and public, are too low in order to support green-tourism development. Complying with the legislation for environmental protection when building or running an establishment, costs get usually higher (Pigram 1983). The State has to face this fact and work on solutions for mediating these high costs (Allin 1987). For the case of Sterea Ellada authors suggest that funds could derive partly from private or public investment, local Administration funds, and European Community Funds.

REFERENCES


Mobile Sex in a Global Perspective: The Case of Brazilian Sex Workers

VoonChin PHUA
Sociology and Anthropology
Gettysburg College, USA
E-mail: vphua@gettysburg.edu

ABSTRACT

In this paper, I examine three aspects of the relationship between sex tourism and globalization: commodification of race; differences among clients; and the stigma of ‘voluntary’ sex workers. I use Brazilian sex workers as a case study. I have conducted informal discussions, in-depth interviews and participation observations among Brazilians in the US, Spain and Brazil from 2003-2007. In terms of commodification of race, I argue that sex workers have the agency to utilize this implicitly negative notion and make it work to their advantage in the sex market. Sex workers also have different perceptions of their clients depending on whether they are local or non-local. Finally, in part, depending on where people are and where the business is consummated, the stigma of sex work varies. This paper further illustrates the complexities of sex tourism.

Key words: Sex tourism, Brazil, globalization.

INTRODUCTION

Carter and Clift (2000: 6) state that “a normal working definition [for sex tourism] is taken as travel for which main motivation is to engage in commercial sexual relations.” Most studies have focused on tourists from wealthier countries visiting less developed countries and engaging in sexual activities there. This is consistent with the perspective that the sex industry is built on exploiting and victimizing individuals who have few options or are literally forced into the trade. Not surprisingly, sex tourism research historically has focused primarily on the negative aspects of sex work with a basic assumption that “the conceptualization of the sex worker as deviant” (Browne and Minichiello 1996: 51).

Comparatively, fewer studies have examined the phenomenon that sex workers travel to consummate their transactions. Clift and Carter (2000: 267) comment that “prostitutes themselves may be internationally mobile.” The neglect, in part, is because these sex workers do not necessarily fit the ‘victim’ model. First, most studies that focused on sex tourism in one way or another view sex workers as victims of circumstances. However, recent research has argued that that “the intrinsic nature of sex work is not all oppressive, and that there are different kinds of worker and client experiences and varying degrees of victimization, exploitation, agency, and choice” (e.g. Scott et al. 2005: 321; Browne and Minichiello 1996). Ryan (2000: 35) posits that “it is possible to locate prostitution as a voluntary activity.” In fact, some scholars posit that sex work could be an occupational choice and the decision to enter the trade is a rational one (e.g. Weitzer 2005; Sanders 2005; Uy et al. 2004; Browne and Minichiello 1996; Calhoun and Weaver 1996). Koken et al. (2004: 29) report that some Internet escorts even reframe “sex work away from the stereotypical social problem model to sex work as a legitimate form of work which can be a constructive and positive force in the lives of those in the commercial sex industry as well as those who seek their services.”

Second, the ability of these sex workers to travel reflects their resourcefulness. The ability to travel is not only dependent on monetary resources for travel costs but in some cases, the ability to fulfill individual country’s visa requirements or to know how to circumvent that. In some way, this reflects the entrepreneurship of these sex workers, their ability to market themselves and to command a high price to cover travel costs. Third, sex workers offer non-sexual services (e.g., Lucas 2005; Brennan 2004). Some of these services include providing car service, tour companionship and sightseeing tours (e.g., Phua and Caras forthcoming).

Fourth, with the advancements in transportation and communication technologies, many sex workers advertise their services in a global market via the Internet, offering not only local services but the delivery of their services to the clients as well (Pruitt 2005; Phua and Caras forthcoming). “Escorts now have websites, which include photos and descriptions of their services, and potential clients are able to e-mail these escorts or find them in popular Internet chat rooms” (Parsons, Bimbi and Hallkitis 2001: 102). Evans et al. (2000: 543) report that “a growing number of customers were using the internet to arrange tours.” “Some erotic tours are obvious fronts for prostitution, even listing the age of consent in various countries” (Evans et al. 2000: 540).

All these reasons indicate the agency sex workers can have in determining work conditions. Even as sex workers are diverse and the sex industry is evolving, the stigma of sex work is not easily or evenly erased within different systems of inequality (e.g., class, gender, sexuality and race). In this paper, I
am interested in sex tourism within the framework of globalization. Specifically, I like to examine three aspects of the relationship between sex tourism and globalization: commodification of race in sex work; differences between local and non-local clients; and the extent the stigma of ‘voluntarily’ participating in sex work varies as viewed by different audience.

I will use both Brazilian male and female sex workers as a case study. Brazilian sex workers serve as an interesting case study as Brazil’s reputation as a sexually more permissive country is distinctive in South America and its sex tourism is highly stylized and diverse (e.g., Phua and Caras forthcoming). The data used in this paper is part of a larger project on Brazilian male sexualities. I have conducted informal discussions, in-depth interviews and participation observations among Brazilians in the US, Spain and Brazil from 2003-2007.

In the following paragraphs, I will first briefly situate the sale of Brazilianness in a global context. Then I will briefly describe the differences between local and foreigner clients. Finally, I will discuss how other Brazilians view sex work and how their views vary.

BRAZILIANNES FOR SALE

“The globalization of capital, technology and labor has helped to create a dynamic, interdependent landscape and a culture industry that has multiplied the range of leisure products and places available in the international tourism system” (Jamal and Kim 2005: 59). With improvements in transportation and communication technologies, many clients are traveling further to procure sexual services and sex workers can advertise their availability locally and beyond. Potential clients can now preview websites of sex work agencies or of individual sex workers (e.g. Parsons, Bimbi and Halkitis 2001; Frutt 2005). Both parties could make advance planning via the Internet before traveling to meet each other locally, or often across state and national borders.

Studies indicate that sex workers could be active agents in strategizing and positioning themselves in the market. For example, Sanders (2005) reports that some of the female sex workers in her sample actively shape their work identities and play an expected version of the prostitute role as a business strategy to attract and retain clients. In fact, some of these strategies employed by some sex workers are based on marketing principles used in other industries. Racial or ethnic sexual stereotypes are often hyped as “the long held ideological tendency to eroticize [non-westerners and]... has been pervasive since the rise of western dominance” (Evans et al. 2000:540). Phua and Caras (forthcoming) show that Brazilian male sex workers play on the positive sexual stereotypes to distinguish themselves from other online sex workers. Ethnic branding is developed not only to enter a niche market, but also as a way to sell a “cultural package.” Indeed, sex workers often advertise their ethnicity, race or nationality as part of their personal brand. Franklin and Crang (2001) argue that the tourism culture includes the preparation of how tourists would see and of the places to be seen. Tourists “commodify[ly] local indigenous people as objects to be enjoyed and photographed” (Jamal and Kim 2005: 64). Applying the logic here, potential clients sometimes concoct sexual fantasies based on racial or ethnic sexual stereotypes. Thus, sex workers can use this to their advantage and ethnic branding can be interpreted as a way to market a particular fantasy to increase sales.

LOCAL AND FOREIGNER CLIENTS

While the earlier section describes Brazilianness as an attraction for foreigners, Brazilian sex workers market includes both foreigners and locals. In his study of male sex workers, Phua (2006) posits that there is a tension between tourists (both domestic and international) and locals. On some websites, authors of postings even advise tourists not to overpay and upset the local economy especially if they are not ‘regular’ visitors.

Sex workers perceive non-local clients, especially foreigners, to be in the ‘vacation mood’ and tend to be more generous and thus, easier to ask for more money. As a result, they are sometimes the target for affection more than locals. On several occasions when some Brazilian friends and I were hanging out at bars, sex workers approached us and started a conversation with us. Once they found out that my friends are locals and I live in the US, I became the sole object of their affection. In most cases, I became rather uncomfortable with the whole situation and we generally finished our drinks and left. What is interesting was that some of my Brazilian friends are wealthier than I am but according to one female sex workers: Brazilian men are for fun, foreigners are for work. I have also been told that things in Brazil are cheaper than in the US or that I am on holiday (which is not true) and I should enjoy myself. Indeed, dollars are stronger than Reais, though its relative strength has been diminishing in the past couple of years. At good restaurants, prices are equivalent to fine dining in the US.

I have met many rich tourists, but I have also met many individuals who may be considered middle or lower middle-income in the US. One example is this man from the Midwest who earns about $30,000 per year. He does not do
much on weekends and self-proclaimed to be very thrifty when he is in the US. However, he would save up his money and every year, he would spend about one week in Brazil to “live like a king.” According to him, he “lives for this one week.” He describes himself as an average looking man who is slightly overweight. He does not considered himself to be attractive but claims to be attracted only to “model-like beauties.” According to him, no model-like women would give him a second look in the US, but in Brazil, he is constantly swarmed by beautiful women and could “bed” a few a day. The single most expensive cost is his airfare. One does not need to stay at fancy hotels as they are many good and decently priced hotels available. More important to sex tourists is the ease of bringing friends up to their rooms as some hotels forbid that or require guests’ registration and or identification.

In another case, one gay man enjoys “holding court” where he would invite sex workers or any attractive individuals to sit with him in a restaurant or a bar and he would pay for food and drinks for the entire table. At the end of the night, he might go home with some of his guests but that is secondary to feeling wanted and surrounding himself with friendly nice attractive men. This person visits Brazil a couple of times a year, sometimes for a week and other times for a long weekend. In a few instances, at the end of the night, his bill was ridiculously expensive as many individuals had joined his table momentarily just long enough to get that free drink or food. Worse, some who had left the table continued to order and point to that table for payment.

Locals can be equally extravagant but in most cases two things work in their favor. First, knowing the language and the culture allows them to negotiate without losing face. Second, perhaps more important is that sex workers generally do not overcharge or exploit them when compared to what they would do to foreigners because their presence is more regular throughout the year and as a result, their gossip about sex workers are perceived to be more lethal.

**BRAZILIANS’ VIEW ON SEX WORK**

Most Brazilians I have spoken with generally adopt the attitude that if that is what sex workers want to do, then they should do it. “You have to do whatever it takes to survive” is a common attitude. However, it is important to note that ‘survival’ here includes making a living to afford a better standard of living and not just about meeting the basic living expenses. Some express confusion as to why someone would choose to work in that industry because of potential risks of sexually transmitted infections, and its effects of relationships. Others joke that if they could, they would do it as they see having sex as enjoyable and that they heard that the money is good. Most of the reasons they mentioned that prevented them from doing it are that they didn’t feel that they are attractive enough, fear of the stigma associated with sex work, or that they do not know how to go about entering the trade.

What is interesting is the difference in terms of how Brazilians view sex workers depending on where they are. Both Brazilians in Brazil and in the US view sex workers working solely in Brazil as products of a failing economy. “It is hard to get a job there,” “Don’t earn enough to support the family,” “less opportunity for better paying jobs,” and “people are more understanding about the work” are common justifications to participate in sex work. However, when it comes to Brazilian sex workers in Europe or in the US or those who can travel outside of Brazil, Brazilians’ attitudes towards them differ depending on where they are. Some Brazilians who live in Brazil express envy that these individuals are living better and achieving more than they could in Brazil. The good-for-them attitude is common among these people. One participant mentions that “sex is the international visa.”

On the contrary, some Brazilians living in the US have more negative views towards these more mobile Brazilian sex workers. According to one participant, Brazilians who are in the US should not be sex workers as “this is not the country to do that because you can work and make money.” Others are concerned about the negative image these sex workers are giving them: “I don’t want the Americans to think that I can be bought just because I am Brazilian,” and “We are in another country and we are representing our country. Sex is good but we don’t want people to think that we are all prostitutes.” A few participants wonder why these people are working as sex workers if they can afford to travel. One of the participants who mentioned that also offers the reason that these sex workers can travel because of their work.

**SEX TOURISM AND GLOBALIZATION**

To say that sex tourism is multifaceted is an understatement. Studies on sex tourism have examined different topics and scholars have adopted different vantage points in examining these topics. For example, Clift and Forrest (1999: 616) report that “[e]xisting studies of sexual behavior of gay men abroad suggest that the pursuit of sexual encounters is an important motivation for some gay men on holiday.” They also report that “[g]ay tour companies and other tourist oriented business are helping to create settings in which sexually motivated men are accommodated together for periods of leisure, with ample time, opportunity and privacy for sexual encounters” (Clift and Forrest 1999: 623).
Seabrook (2001) focuses on the sex industry in Thailand and discusses children’s rights whereas Ryan and Hall (2001) include in their discussion the role of the state.

In this paper, I focus on three aspects of the relationship between sex tourism and globalisation: commodification of race in sex work; differences between local and non-local clients; and the extent the stigma of ‘voluntarily’ participating in sex work varies as viewed by different audience. I try to present a different perspective to each of the issue by focusing on the agency of the sex workers. In terms of commodification of race, I argue that sex workers have the agency to utilise this implicitly negative notion and make it work to their advantage in the sex market. Even though issues of exploitation still exist, not all sex workers are solely passive players in this industry. Sex workers have different perceptions of their clients depending on whether they are local or non-local. This is not to suggest that other socio-economic characteristics are less important. Finally, the stigma of sex work varies by context. In part, depending on where people are and where the business is consummated, the stigma varies. This paper further illustrates the complexities of sex tourism.

REFERENCES


Examination of Secondary Data to Portray the Status of Sport Tourism in Turkey

Yavuz YILDIZ
Physical Education and Sport
Celal Bayar University, Turkey
E-mail: yavgildiz@hotmail.com

Hasan Fehmi MAVI
Physical Education and Sport
Celal Bayar University, Turkey
E-mail: hasan.mavi@bayar.edu.tr

ABSTRACT
The Turkish tourism mainly depends on coastal tourism. Since the coastal tourism market is very competitive in the Mediterranean region and Eastern Europe, the best approach for Turkish tourism might be to diversify and provide alternative tourism products. Recently, sport tourism is emerging as an alternative mode of tourism in the world as well as in Turkey. The purpose of this study is to examine the status of sport tourism in Turkey by using secondary data from the Turkish Statistical Institute (TSI), the World Tourism Organization (WTO), the Ministry of Culture and Tourism (MCT), and the Association of Turkish Travel Agencies (ATTA). Analysis of secondary data revealed that the number of tourists visiting Turkey is steadily increasing, however, only 1% of overall tourists visiting Turkey might be considered as sport tourists. In addition, although the number of tourists with sports purposes is quite stable, their expenditure tends to decline.

Key words: Sport tourism, tourist profile, alternative tourism, tourism trends.

INTRODUCTION
Tourism, in general, has 6% share in the world’s economy in terms of exporting goods and services (approximately 525 billion US$ in 2003; 773 billion US$ in 2006). As a service export, tourism exports approaches almost 30 percent (World Tourism Organization 2007). As an economic market and study area, sport tourism attracts the attention of government/public organizations as well as the academic/scientific community (Gibson 1998). It is considered a very important subject since sports tourism is a source of revenue, has social and cultural effects, improves welfare of the people, and gives pride to society in general through the organizations of international events. (Deery, Jago and Fredline 2004).

The multidimensional and interconnected events make the concept of sport tourism hard to define. For example, Gibson defines sport tourism “leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to play, watch physical activities or venerate attractions associated with these activities”. It is claimed that sports tourism combines three main behaviors, participating, watching and visiting, respectively (Gibson 1998; Deery, Jago and Fredline 2004). Certainly, sports tourism will include participants interested especially in sport and tourism but they would not necessarily be familiar with the sports tourism concept (Weed 2005).

According to Standeven and De Knopp (1999), sport tourism is “all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organized way for non-commercial or business/commercial reasons that necessitate travel away from home and work locality”. Sport tourism can be defined as traveling nationally or internationally for the purpose of participating, watching or just being there for the sport related activities (Demirkan et al. 2006).

![Figure 1. Conceptualization and Classification of Sport and Tourism](image-url)
Weed (2007) recently emphasized such a wide-ranging approach of sport tourism and considered it as an inclusive term that covers key components such as event sport tourism, golf and ski tourism, adventure sport tourism etc. Gammon and Robinson’s (1998) classification of sport and tourism can help to conceptualize the sport tourism better for tourism businesses, government/public organizations, investors, as well as researchers. As Figure 1 shows, sport and tourism can be used together to form new concepts like “sport tourism” and “tourism sport”. Both new concepts have their own definition according to the purpose or motives of tourists in each category. Simply, the primary motive for sport tourism is sport, while the primary purpose is tourism for tourism sport. In their recent article, Robinson and Gammon (2004) claim that such classification can be utilized to identify current and future sport tourism developments. Although researchers did not really agree on how sports tourism is defined and classified, they are agree on one thing that it is a market with growing potential to generate revenues at local, national and international levels.

Crompton (1979) who studied why tourists need sports tourism and what motivates them claimed that such motivation derives from needs such as getting away, self-discovery, social interaction, gaining respect, relaxation, and developing social relations. In addition, Fairley (2003) through his studies discovered that nostalgia (missing the past) is a motivational factor. However, the important thing in participant motivation is the level of consciousness and intentions. For example, a tourist can do sports activities, because being at the right time and right place can make him or her happy. In another case, the same tourist because of active or passive participation consciously travels. It can be claimed that both tourist profiles can be suitable for the sports tourism model (Deery, Jago and Fredline 2004). Robinson and Gammon (2004) claim that combining sport and tourism motives can be unrealistic and can not emphasize all the possible combinations of motives. They used a sport tourism framework to show a relationship between sport and tourism motives by using primary and secondary considerations.

In summary, it appears that researchers do not agree on what sports tourism is and what motivates tourists to be part of sports activities and even emphasize concerns about legitimacy of the sport tourism as an independent scientific domain, however, they agree on complexity and multidimensionality of sport tourism and need for explanatory research (Gibson 2004; Pigeassou, Bui-Xuan and Gleyse 2003; Robinson and Gammon 2004; Weed 2007).

**SPORTS TOURISM IN TURKEY**

Historically, in Turkey, the tourism industry depends on mass tourism with coastal activities including sea-sand-sun (35) types of attractions. It would be naive to claim that such a traditional approach did help Turkish tourism. In fact, Turkey’s share in international tourist arrivals was only 4.1% and collected only 4.5% revenue from the European tourism market in 2006 (World Tourism Organization 2007). Therefore, it is not unexpected to attempt to diversify and find alternative modes of tourism for the Turkish market (Tezcan 2004). Sport tourism is a strong candidate to diversify Turkish tourism. Turkish land allows all year round sports tourism because of its climate and geography. Limited sports tourism related studies about Turkey show that water sports and nature sports are leading sports tourism activities. In their study, Zorba et al. (2004) administered a questionnaire to 717 sports tourists visiting Turkey to determine their demographic profile. The results revealed that most of the tourists were male and regardless of gender, most of them were 30 years old and older (49.65%). Tourists who participated in sports tourism before preferred to participate in sports tourism again. While tourists who stay in hotels and holiday resorts prefer water sports (swimming, riding banana etc.) and nature sports (hiking, etc.), the older tourists participate in less active activities (dart, walking etc.) Sports tourists constitute only a small percentage (1.3%) among all tourists and they spend 2.5 million dollars (2%) (Zorba et al. 2004).

In recent years, extreme sports, as an alternative to the popular sport culture, has potential for Turkish sport tourism. Rafting, paragliding, horseback riding, underwater and water sports, caving, winter sports, mountaineering, and rock climbing were among the alternative sports. Many parts of Turkey are suitable for extreme sport participation. The purpose of this study was to examine the profile of tourists who came to Turkey because of sports reasons and to share the information with organizations that are responsible for developing sport tourism.

**METHODOLOGY**

The secondary data for this study was obtained from the Turkish Statistical Institution’s (TSI) yearly survey about inbound tourism. By using the “Departing Visitors Survey”, TSI, at 22 sites depending on the way tourists exit the country (by air, road, rail, and sea), conducts a field study covering 95% of visitors who reside outside Turkey. Surveys in 12 different languages (English, French, German, Arabic, Japanese, Russian, Romanian, Bulgarian, Italian, Spanish, Greek and Turkish) were conducted face to face with exiting tourists. The sur-
vey questions the profile (age, gender, educational level) and the travel characteristics of tourists (purpose of the visit, places stayed, number of nights spent, accommodation type, types of expenditure). This study is limited to the data from TSI that represents the information collected between 2001 and 2006. For the purpose of this study, tourists who enter the country with sports purposes and are not Turkish citizens are classified as sport tourists.

RESULTS

The Turkish tourism is largely dependent on European countries (approximately 63%) and Commonwealth of independent countries (14.06%). Table 1 indicates that 67.34% of tourists visiting Turkey are either high school or university/college graduates. Table 2 shows that regardless of the 2006 decline, there is a gradual increase in the amount of total tourists visiting Turkey as well as tourists with sports purposes. The ratio of tourists with sports purposes shows a fluctuating trend since 2001. While the highest ratio was 1.08 the lowest was 0.86. In Table 3, in general, tourism income has an increasing trend by years. However, sports, educational, cultural expenses tend to decline after 2003. As Graph 2 depicts, from 2003 to 2005, although there is an increase in the number of tourists with sports purposes, their expenditure appears to decline.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Background</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Literate (but not completed formal education)</td>
<td>1,710,554</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school</td>
<td>7,644,701</td>
<td>8.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school or equivalent</td>
<td>12,177,496</td>
<td>12.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school or equivalent</td>
<td>30,757,805</td>
<td>32.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University/college</td>
<td>33,523,628</td>
<td>35.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate degree (masters and/or doctorate)</td>
<td>8,172,194</td>
<td>8.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1,472,252</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>95,458,630</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Distribution of Tourists by Purpose of Traveling in Turkey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Total tourists (Religious, cultural, sports, shopping, course, convention etc)</th>
<th>Only sports purposes</th>
<th>Ratio of Tourist by only sports purposes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>13,450,118</td>
<td>133,916</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>15,214,518</td>
<td>130,829</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>16,302,050</td>
<td>161,717</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>20,262,641</td>
<td>218,633</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>24,124,502</td>
<td>260,487</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>23,148,688</td>
<td>202,586</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>112,502,497</td>
<td>1,108,167</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Distribution of Expenditures of Tourists Visiting Turkey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Total Tourism Revenue (including package tour) ($)</th>
<th>Total Personal Expenditure($)</th>
<th>Sports, Educational, Cultural Expenditure ($)</th>
<th>Ratio of Sports, Educational, Cultural Expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>10,067,155,226</td>
<td>7,900,185,585</td>
<td>207,541,137</td>
<td>2.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>11,900,925,508</td>
<td>9,416,948,607</td>
<td>248,445,484</td>
<td>2.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>13,203,144,940</td>
<td>10,516,391,863</td>
<td>275,976,398</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>15,887,699,507</td>
<td>12,265,388,605</td>
<td>231,906,130</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>18,153,504,754</td>
<td>13,850,427,435</td>
<td>244,291,085</td>
<td>1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>16,850,889,006</td>
<td>13,786,185,481</td>
<td>185,809,030</td>
<td>1.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>72,860,174,001</td>
<td>67,735,527,576</td>
<td>1,393,969,264</td>
<td>2.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 2. Ratio of Sports, Educational, Cultural Expenditures Relative to the Ratio of Tourists by only Sports Purposes
CONCLUSION

It is vitally important to know the basic data related to “external demand” to develop the tourism industry and to increase its contribution to the overall economy. The need for such information is gradually increasing every day. In addition, long-term predictions and determining trends based on these predictions and providing data to use in planning tourism are gaining importance for healthy development in tourism. It is argued that the detailed profiling of tourists might help for a more accurate assessment of the economic impact (Preuss, Seguin and O’Reilly 2007).

Previous researchers called to diversify Turkish tourism products by following the contemporary trends in World tourism and consumer preferences. Sports tourism can be regarded as a strong candidate for providing diversification for the Turkish tourism market (Tezcan 2004; Zorba et al. 2004; Zorba, Miçoğlular and Zorba 2004; Koç 2005). In fact, the Turkish government is encouraging tourism efforts by providing tourism development regions, establishing development plans and making tourism encouragement laws. In tourism development regions, one of the alternative tourism activities is sport tourism (Tezcan 2004).

Table 4. Comparison of Alternative Tourism Activities in Tourism Development Regions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourism Development Regions</th>
<th>Aydin-Didim</th>
<th>Muğla-Dalaman</th>
<th>Northern Antalya</th>
<th>Manavgat-Oymapinar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business-Shopping Centers</td>
<td>Agro Tourism</td>
<td>Business-Shopping Centers</td>
<td>Eco-Tourism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congress, Festival and Exhibition Tourism</td>
<td>Eco-Tourism</td>
<td>Film Studios</td>
<td>Golf Tourism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture Tourism</td>
<td>Golf Tourism</td>
<td>Golf Tourism</td>
<td>International Institutions for Natural and Ecological Researches</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eco-Tourism</td>
<td>Health and Thermal Tourism</td>
<td>Motor Sports</td>
<td>Nature Parks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf Tourism</td>
<td>Nature Parks</td>
<td>Sports Tourism</td>
<td>Sports Tourism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Tourism</td>
<td>Sports Tourism</td>
<td>Theme Parks</td>
<td>Theme Parks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme Parks</td>
<td>Yachts and Marine Tourism</td>
<td>University and Educational Opportunities</td>
<td>Youth Tourism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yachts and Marine Tourism</td>
<td>Youth Tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth Tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Tezcan 2004

While sports tourism provides diversification for the tourism market, it will also impact the economy at the city and country level. For example, a WTO report claims that Germany increased international tourist arrivals and receipts because of their successful hosting of the 2006 FIFA Football World Cup. In fact, overall European tourism was greatly boosted by hosting sports events such as the Winter Olympic Games in Turin, the Ryder Cup in Ireland, and post Olympic effect in Greece (WTO 2007). Such an impact can be seen from the Sports Tourism International Council’s Sport Tourism Index (STIX) that sport tourism has a 32% share in overall tourism expenditure (Kurtzman 2005). Robinson and Gammon (2004) suggest that such an index should be calculated for countries, regions and cities to compare their current sport tourism offerings with either competitors or national/international averages.

Since the 1990’s, a serious increase can be observed in international sport event organizations in Turkey. In addition to team sport events, international individual sport events were also organized. It might be important to mention that Turkey provides training places for European soccer teams during season breaks and preparation periods. All these organizations and events, most likely, produced the increased number of sport tourists visiting Turkey.

Visual inspection of the data in graph 1 revealed that although both the number of tourists visiting Turkey and sport tourist increase, but the ratio of sport tourists appears not to increase considerably. In other words, the numbers of sport tourists are not affected by the increase of general tourist numbers. Another interesting finding was that expenditure of tourists increased since the number of tourists increased; however, the sports, educational, and cultural expenditure has a decline trend since 2003. World Tourism Organizations recently recognized that tourism receipts of Turkey declined 18.2 billion US$ to 16.9 billion US$ from 2005 to 2006 (World Tourism Organization 2007). Possibly, such a -7.2% change in overall tourism receipts can be used to explain the decrease in sport tourism receipts. However, despite such a decrease, Turkey still ranked among the top 10 in international tourism receipts (WTO 2007). According to WTO by 2020, Europe will maintain the highest share of world arrivals, although there will be a decline from 60 percent in 1995 to 46 percent (WTO 2002).

In general, tourists visiting Turkey were mostly college/university (35.12%) and high school or equivalent (32.2%) graduates. Thirty-five percent of tourists visiting Turkey with sports purposes got their information from tourism businesses and travel agencies before their trip to Turkey. Tourists visiting Turkey
considered themselves mostly middle income people (70%). While 46% of tourists were between the age of 24 and 44, 35% was between 45-64 years of age (TUIK written communication 2006).

It would not be an exaggeration to mention that sports tourism in Turkey is not getting the attention it deserves despite the serious investments in the tourism industry. Tourism businesses do not emphasize sports tourism but mostly tourism sports activities (water activities for fun, riding banana etc). However, in recent years, because of tourists‘ service demands, tourism businesses started to provide variety of sports activities (squash, badminton, tennis, para-gliding, beach volleyball, etc.) to increase customer satisfaction and preference of their business by tourists. Gammon and Robinson’s (1998) classification of sport and tourism can be used by tourism businesses to diversify their sport related services. For example, organizing a competitive sporting event that attracts passive or active participation of tourists can be a hard definition of sport tourism. On the other hand, participating in a tourism program that includes sports activities can be a hard definition of tourism sport. By accepting such a classification, tourism businesses should not rely on the soft definition of tourism sport but actively organize competitive sporting events, recreational sporting activities, and tourism programs with sporting themes.

A finding from this study suggests that although the numbers of tourists are increasing, revenue is not increasing proportionally. Therefore, since half of the tourists visiting Turkey between 25 and 44 years of age, the service and activity offerings to sports tourists should be increased, renovated, and diversified by increasing the availability of quality service and communication skills with tourists, and providing safe areas to participate in sporting activities (skiing, triathlon, sailing, mountaineering, scuba diving, rafting etc.). Harrison-Hill and Chalip (2005) emphasize the importance of marketing in sport tourism for enhancing the quality of tourist experiences. They argue that the characteristics and meaning of experiences of sport tourists should be explored to understand them and to intensify the quality of experience in future.

By using creative and productive approaches, the geographical features of Turkey should be forefront and be used for marketing tourism, especially, to increase sports tourism. All regions in Turkey should be examined for climate, travel, geography, economic development, infrastructure and service to determine sports tourism profile. Consequently, policies should be developed. It might also be suggested that knowing which places are suitable for which sport (Turkish Sports Tourism Map) could provide increased options for sports tourists, and an increased and diversified demand for business that can produce higher employment.

To conclude, the concept of sport tourism should be operationalized to give direction to diversification process of tourism in general. In addition, available data should be analyzed beyond the description of tourism and sport tourism. Such syntheses of Turkish tourism data will advance our understanding of tourism as well as sport tourism. It will also help us to formulate strategies for developing tourism market in Turkey.

REFERENCES


Turkish Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Written communication, September 8th 2005.


Island Tourism of Jeonnam, Korea

Youngsun SHIN
Department of Tourism Management
Honam University, Korea
E-mail: yshin@honam.ac.kr

ABSTRACT
This paper examines the challenges facing Jeonnam as a tourist destination. Challenges stemming from the island’s peripheral location, topographic limitations, and inefficient economies of scale include inaccessibility, inadequate infrastructure, image problems, lack of coordinated marketing efforts, lack of political support for tourism, extreme seasonality, and lack of tourism education. Nonetheless, local officials and industry stakeholders are meeting these challenges by turning them into tourism opportunities. In many cases, islands face problems of isolation, undersized economies, small physical size, and small populations, but these difficulties themselves can in some cases be viewed and utilized as tourism development assets.

Key words: Island tourism, tourism development, Jeonnam, New Challenges, Dadohe.

INTRODUCTION
The purpose of this paper is to examine the challenges and opportunities of islands tourism in Jeonnam, an island, which according to Nielsen (1999), has been kept on the periphery of the world by its harsh climate and distance from major population centers. This case is concerned with Jeonnam Islands (“Dadohe”), one of Korea’s several small islands and perhaps the least developed, which has reached a critical stage in its evolution as a visitor destination. It considers actual and proposed developments there and the management of the island, as well as how Jeonnam Islands are presented as an attraction. Although Jeonnam Islands are unique in many ways, some wider conclusions can be derived from its study relating to features of island tourism and the problems facing those responsible for the management of these destinations.

“Dadohe” is thus facing a period of uncertainty in which the resources making it attractive to residents and the tourists who venture there will be threatened. There is a danger of tourist overdevelopment and that “Dadohe’s” authentic rustic charm will be replaced by the artificial ‘Rustic Charm’ of the image makers and resort operators, and Jeonnam will lose one of its few sites which offers an insight into an important aspect of its history and heritage. In the longer term, the construction of a new town and supporting infrastructure would have even more far-reaching effects and destroy its particular ambiance and appeal.

TOURISM IN JEONNAM ISLANDS (“DADOHE”)
Jeonnam has a total of 1,969 offshore islands, most of them given over to use by the military and oil refining industry or for recreation purposes (Figure 1). According to Wong’s (1993) classification of island tourism, it can be defined as ‘a small island with limited resources and thus suitable only for small scale tourist development’. A map of the islands and its location can be found in Figure 1.

“Dadohe” has not experienced rapid urbanization and industrialization and traditional ways of the life persist. Economic activity is mainly related to primary production and the population lives small villages. The Jeonnam rural community life which might have been found some areas of great cultural, scenic and scientific importance. Geologically, “Dadohe” is made up of granite hills and swamps which hold significant mangrove ecosystems. Secondary vegetation and abandoned rubber plantations are also found with rocky and sandy beaches from which there are good views of the Jeonnam shores. Most of the current population inhabit “Dadohe”, with scattered small settlements elsewhere. Several practice subsistence farming, otherwise commercial fishing and farming provide employment with net-cage fisheries, prawn farming, coconut plantations, orchards and ornamental plant cultivation and small-scale vegetable growing.

Figure 1. Map of the “Dadohe”
**Table 1. Tourism in Jeonnam**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total (Thousand)</th>
<th>Domestic (Thousand)</th>
<th>International (Thousand)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>38,245</td>
<td>38,071</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>46,689</td>
<td>46,747</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>50,754</td>
<td>50,458</td>
<td>296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>65,189</td>
<td>64,875</td>
<td>314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>70,217</td>
<td>69,882</td>
<td>335</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Tourism Department of Jeonnam (2006)

---

**FACING CHALLENGES WITH OPPORTUNITIES**

Jeonnam’s peripheral location, small population, and lack of sovereign authority have created several challenges to the development of tourism. “Dadohe” have the harsh climate and distance from major population centers have kept Islands on the periphery of the world. Within the purview of the benefits and challenges of insularity and marginality described earlier in this paper, this section identifies several obstacles facing Jeonnam Islands in its attempt to develop tourism and how some of the solutions might also be found within the same conditions.

**Inaccessibility**

Perhaps the most glaring difficulty is accessibility, or lack thereof. For example, Jeonnam tourism is desirous to expand its promotional efforts in China and Japan, owing to its close proximity and heretofore untapped market potential. Another aspect of accessibility that is heavily influenced by size, climate, topography, and small population is the remarkable reliance on air as the primary means of domestic travel. Topography, insufficient economies of scale, and harsh climatic conditions preclude the construction of roads and railways between towns and villages, and while passenger ships navigate the west coast in summer, they are time consuming. These conditions combine to make flying the most efficient form of domestic travel, but the cost is exceptionally high by most Jeonnam people’s standard and by many tourists’ standard as well. This fact contributes considerably to the high cost of vacationing in Jeonnam, particularly if time is limited. Jeonnam Tourism and private enterprises are beginning to see the value of turning inaccessibility/peripherality into an asset by playing along with the notion of collecting places.

**Tourism Infrastructure**

Harsh physical conditions make road and railroad building extremely difficult and costly. Also, because so few tourists travel to the island, the building of extensive tourism-related infrastructure is difficult to justify economically. Building hotels, airports, and public transportation is expensive owing to harsh natural conditions and the high costs of transporting building materials. Few businesses and individuals can afford to import them. Thus, a significant dearth of tourism amenities and infrastructure creates additional constraints, as the current tourism infrastructure could not possibly handle larger influxes of visitors.

**Image**

Image is an additional difficulty facing the industry and its proponents in Jeonnam. This had the effect of distancing the decision makers and marketers from the product being developed and in effect diverted attention away from the actual destination. The perceptions of Jeonnam abroad tend to be distorted based on media bias, and as Wall (1992) has noted for other world destinations, the problem is not one of bad image, it is more simply a matter of Jeonnam having no image at all. In an effort to alleviate the effects of inaccessibility and image, tourism officials are trying to target China and Japan audience more because they feel that China and Japan have the most potential for market growth. An additional way of enhancing image and enlarging the island’s attraction base, tourism officials and businesses have attempted to appeal to new markets by focusing on new forms of tourism. The island’s heritages are playing an increasingly important role in marketing efforts and tour packages.

**Lack of Decisive and Coordinated Marketing Efforts**

Another challenge traditionally has been a lack of decisive and coordinated marketing efforts (Nielson 1999). Likewise, the special local conditions described so far in this section (e.g. lack of infrastructure, image problems, inaccessibility) have made it difficult for Island to market itself abroad. Jeonnam Tourism plays an important role in this effort, and the island is well represented by local and regional tourism business representatives. This form of multilateral regional cooperation is important, for as recent research shows (Timothy 1999; 2001; Hall 1994; Pernia 1999; Teye 2000), the benefits of cross-border cooperation and the development of multi-nation tourism destinations are numerous, most notably in the areas of ecological sustainability, human
resources, economic development, marketing and promotion, and infrastructure improvements.

**Lack of Political Support**

So far tourism has received relatively little support by Jeonnam politicians. Although this is beginning to change, the main economic interest among politicians for the future lies in agriculture. According to industry leaders and other observers, support for tourism by government leaders is difficult to achieve, because they feel that a more realistic option is natural resources, owing to the island’s position on the global periphery. This has resulted in some limited internal conflict among advocates of tourism and other government representatives. Little can be done about this problem, although tourism advocates are continuing to fight for government support, and as the most recent planning documents reveal (Danielson 1998), administrative backing is beginning to be realized.

**Seasonality**

Distinct high and low seasons have also been a major cause of concern among tourism industry supporters. Jeonnam’s high season (July-September) is short, and tourist arrivals during this period outnumber arrivals during the other nine months combined. This extreme seasonality has resulted in the classic problems associated with seasonal variations in tourism (e.g. unemployment, oversupply of services, etc). This phenomenon has limited marketing efforts as well as the physical development of tourism since creating additional airports and hotels does not make economic sense. To assuage the sting of seasonality, Jeonnam Tourism recently began a new emphasis on marine and ocean tourism (Jeonnam Tourism Department 2007). Facilities are being built to house large groups, and existing establishments are beginning to expand to meet a growing demand in this area. While this form of tourism is still in its infancy and will no doubt face some problems owing to the high cost of traveling to Jeonnam.

**CONCLUSION**

Interest in islands and other peripheral areas has recently experienced a new level among international tourists who are seeking new and exotic destinations. Islands in particular have become popular because of the feelings of difference and separation they evoke (Butler 1993). While being attractive destinations, particularly for those who collect places (Timothy 1998), they, according to the literature, experience many unique difficulties owing to their marginal locations, such as friction of distance, fragmented and disorganized tourism industries, lack of economic control, and lack of governmental and resident support.

Jeonnam is no exception. Located on the world periphery, Jeonnam experiences many challenges to its tourism industry, including high cost of accessibility, a lack of tourism infrastructure and image, uncoordinated marketing efforts, minimal political support, extreme seasonality, and lack of service skills among the indigenous population.

The appeal of insularity and marginality are distinct in Jeonnam. Remoteness, difference, distance, distinct culture and heritage, wilderness environment, and small size in economic and population terms create an unmistakable and unique Jeonnam’s attraction base, which appeals to tourists who are in search of new and exotic places to visit. However, the characteristics of marginality and insularity that Jeonnam exhibits, which make it attractive to the adventurous tourist, can be difficult to overcome. This paper illustrates some ways that these issues that affect islands and peripheral locations are being overcome.

Every island destination therefore has its own character and general principles management and good practice need to be shaped accordingly, based on a thorough understanding of tourism in the context of wider development issues. Success can be achieved as shown by government policy in the Maldives (Inskeep 1994) and Seychelles (Wilson 1997) and the size of the island(s) would appear to be a significant variable, a subject which requires further research. With regard to “Dadohe”, the impacts of existing and future tourist activity on the economy, society and environment need to be studied more fully form a multi-disciplinary perspective and the consequences of new developments monitored carefully in order to assess any benefits and damage. Such information would be a basis for the formulation of conservation and preservation measures. Residents and visitors should be surveyed about their attitudes to the island and views of its future, and the ways in which it is being presented by the commercial sector and Tourist Board analysed. Answers to these and related questions would assist in devising and implementing a management programme that is as harmonious, sympathetic and appropriate as possible given the prevailing circumstances and political realities.

**REFERENCES**


Measuring the Destination Images of European Cities

Zehra BOZBAY
Faculty of Business Administration
Istanbul University, Turkey
E-mail: zehrat@istanbul.edu.tr

Hilal ÖZEN
Faculty of Business Administration
Istanbul University, Turkey
E-mail: zehrat@istanbul.edu.tr

ABSTRACT
The growing importance of international tourism to most countries and cities of the world has led to an increasing interest in studying the factors that influence customers’ perceptions of destinations and finally their decisions while selecting the places to go. Research of the past two decades has demonstrated that tourist’s destination image is a valuable concept in understanding individual’s subjective perception, his/her consequent behavior and the destination selection process. But, the majority of published image studies have focused on measuring the image of a particular country. Recent general scarcity of research of this nature raises questions about the cities’ image. The purpose of the study was to analyze the images of three European cities -Paris, Rome and Prague-as tourism destinations. Data was collected from 904 Turkish people. Anova analysis was conducted to identify the differences between the image perceptions. Significant perceptual differences were detected with respect to Paris, Rome and Prague’s images.

Key words: Destination image, European cities.

INTRODUCTION
The importance of the tourism destination image is universally acknowledged, since it affects the individual’s subjective perception and consequent behavior and destination choice. This importance has led to a growing body of research on the tourism destination image. The essential characteristic of the research line is its multidimensionality. Destination image has been a considerable research during the last decades in marketing. Investigation has been commonly based on either effective destination positioning or on the destination selection process. In particular, destination image has had a significant impact on people’s selection of the places to visit. Destination image has therefore become important both for practitioners engaged in positioning destination images and for academics trying to gain a deeper understanding of the destination image construct.

Though tourism image is critical to the success of any destinations, a lot of qualitative and quantitative studies were made to explore the similarities and differences between the image perceptions of people in many countries. But, few image studies to date have focused specifically on city’s image. The tourism industry in European cities has been growing sharply in the past few years. Among its visitors, Turkish citizens are one of the most important and attractive markets for the European cities. In this study, Turkish consumers’ perceptions of Paris, Rome and Prague are examined.

LITERATURE REVIEW
A destination’s image is defined as the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that people have of a place or destination. Doswell (2000) defines ‘destination image’ as the feelings, ideas and reactions which the name of a place evokes. But, Mossberg and Hallberg (1999) prefer to define ‘destination image’ as the ‘tourist’s mental picture of a specific destination. Conceptually, destination image is an ambiguous definition within this study’s framework of tourism marketing, as it applies to two different domains of reality. First, it refers to the pattern of beliefs in a consumer’s mind stimulated by associations with the destination product, and secondly, it refers to advertising or public relations messages about the destination product (Assael 1998; Konecnik 2004). A destination image like any other entity is open to perception by a range of observers across the tourism system, both from the supply and demand perspectives (Watkins, Hassanien and Dale 2006; Kelly and Nankervis 2001).

Destination image is a valuable concept in understanding the destination selection process of tourists and destination positioning strategy (Goodrich 1978; Scott, Schewe and Frederich 1978; Stringer 1984; Woodside and Lyons 1989). Because of the intangible nature of tourism, individuals purchase tourism products based on destination images developed from previous experience or available information. The creation of a distinctive and unique destination in the tourism industry plays a vital role in positioning the destination in the consumer’s mind and holds the key to destination differentiation (Watkins et al. 2006). An important step in the destination management process is an understanding of the attitudes of visitors and potential visitors of a destination (Deslandes 2006). So, tourist destination images are important because they influence both the decision-making behavior of potential tourists and the levels of
satisfaction regarding the tourist experience (Jenkins 1999). An accurate assessment of destination image is a prerequisite to designing an effective marketing strategy and helps the destination marketer to offer what its visitors are expecting and create more realistic expectations if necessary. Destination images are a major factor forming the link between an individual’s motivations and destination selection process (Watkins et al. 2006).

According to Sönmez and Srakaya (2002), if a destination is interested in developing a sustainable tourism industry in a period of increasing competition, then it needs a clear understanding of tourists’ images to develop a successful positioning strategy in the competitive marketplace. Central to destination marketing is the way in which the image is perceived and acted upon by potential tourists as it is often perceptions rather than reality that motivate tourists to visit a destination (Andersen, Prentice and Guering 1997). The tourist marketer’s goal is to match the promoted image and the perceived image in the consumer’s mind to avoid a distorted destination image. Indeed, a lack of knowledge of a destination’s appeal from the perspective of potential tourist markets hinders the development of a destination’s image (Watkins et al. 2006).

A destination’s image has been recognized as a complex and important concept in the destination-selection process. In the last three decades tourism researchers as well as industry practitioners and destination marketers have been very interested in measuring a destination’s image. In addition, the proper methodology for measuring a destination’s image has been the subject of many travel and tourism studies. A destination’s image may be analyzed from different perspectives, and composed of a variety of individual perceptions relating to various product/service attributes (Kozak 2001).

The majority of published image studies have focused on measuring the image of a particular country. There is even less literature that evaluates the image effects of more subtle city imaging. Recently, the general scarcity of research of this nature raises questions about the cities’ image. The city in the actual world is an artificial, man-made structure. It is based on radical reconstruction of the natural world that brings into existence certain spatial settings and arbitrary rules that model the behavior of its inhabitants and visitors (Bilek 2006). A city can have an overall reputation as an industrial city, while individual elements as sports facilities, museums or shopping centers can have individual reputations for totally independent reasons.

Cities are now competing on a ‘global catwalk’ for tourists’ attention (Degen 2003). As Landry and Bianchini (1995) state, this competition is ‘based less on natural resources, location or past reputation and more on the ability develop attractive images and symbols that project these effectively (Smith, 2006). For this reason destination image is also a necessary item for the city. The image of the city is even becoming a target representative of culture and ideology as a whole, as has just been demonstrated in Turkey.

Poor perceptions of a city can devalue its image and have far reaching consequences for its future prosperity. These negative associations may reduce the likelihood of inward investment, undermine business community activities and have a detrimental effect on the number of visitors, thereby exacerbating urban decline. By contrast an improved “city image” perception, reinforced by visual evidence of improvements within the city, can reverse the downward trend. Due to the rise of urban tourism destinations at global scale, the assessment and development of an appropriate image for cities has become increasingly important. So, city’s image is becoming weapon for tourism.

**THE COMPONENTS OF DESTINATION IMAGE**

In the field of marketing, tourism destination image has been subject to considerable research during the past three decades (Hui and Wan 2003). A key theme within tourism destination image research has been that of the components of the destination image. In tourism decision-making models, the distinction and the direction of the relationship between cognitive and affective components of image has been emphasized (Woodside and Lyonski 1989; Um and Crompton 1990). In the models, tourists form their feelings (affective image) as a function of beliefs (cognitive image). The cognitive component and affective components of image are distinct, but these two components are sequentially related in the sense that affective evaluation depends on cognitive evaluation of objects (Mayo and Jarvis 1981; Russell and Pratt 1980; Woodside and Lyonski 1989).

Gunn (1972) referred to two levels of destination image-organic and induced. Goodrich (1978) also identified two levels of image-the primary destination image formed by a visit, and the secondary image formed by information received from external resources. Furthermore, Phelps (1986) referred to the same two levels of destination image as primary and secondary. Building on theory, Fakeye and Crompton (1991) developed a model to describe the relationships between organic, induced and complex images that incorporated experiences at the destinations. Milman and Pizam (1995) suggested that a destinations’ image has three components: the product (ie. quality, variety, price); the behavior and attitude of employees who come into direct to contact with tourists; and the
environment such as weather, the quality and the type of accommodation and physical safety. In completing the image-measuring technique, Echtner and Ritchie (1991, 1993) acknowledged the existence of three continuums that support the image of any destination: 1. functional-psychological, 2.unique-common and 3. attribute-holistic (Hui and Wan 2003).

Nonetheless, an examination of several image studies revealed that none of the researchers had been successful in capturing all the components of destination image. The majority of image studies is structured or quantitative in nature, and has tended to focus only on the common, attribute-based aspects of destination image. Unstructured or qualitative methodologies are more conducive to measuring the holistic components of destination image and also capturing unique features and auras. Cognizant of this fact, Echtner and Ritchie (1991) developed a system of measurement using quantitative and qualitative methods, that is a set of scales to measure the common attribute-based components of destination image along both functional and psychological dimensions and a series of open-ended questions to capture the holistic components of destination image along both functional and psychological dimensions and, as well as the presence of distinctive or unique features or auras (O’Leary and Deegan 2003).

METHODOLOGY

Previous research on destination image has concluded that each destination offers a variety of products and services to attract visitors and each tourist has an opportunity to choose from a set of destinations. Different factors may have an influence on destination choice. The destination choice process might therefore be related to tourists’ assessments of destination attributes and their perceived utility values. Numerous attempts have been made to classify major elements of destinations. Among these elements are climate, ecology, culture, architecture, hotels, catering, transport, entertainment, cost and so on. Destination-based attributes could be many and differ from one destination to another (Kozak 2002). Thus, the objectives of the study are to;

1. Explore destination images from tourism perspective
2. Identify the underlying dimensions of European cities’ images
3. Determine Turkish people’s perceptual differences between the images of Paris, Rome and Prague.

In this study, it is aimed to find the differences between the destination images of Paris, Rome and Prague. The following hypothesis was tested:

H1: There is significant difference between the destination images of Paris, Rome and Prague.

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

There are many ways of measuring tourism destination image. These approaches can be divided into two categories: 1.qualitative 2.quantitative techniques. The first category encompasses methods such as free elicitation and open-ended questions, focus groups and in-depth interviews and expert discussions. The second category mainly consists of statistical procedures involving bivariate such as t test and correlation analysis and multivariate methods such as factor analysis, cluster analysis, Anova and Manova (Hui and Wan 2003). In general, multivariate techniques predominate because they allow for the determination of latent multidimensional structure (components) of destination image as well as average scoring as a numeric measurement of image (Hui and Wan 2003).

In this study, respondents were asked to evaluate the destination images of Paris, Rome and Prague. A descriptive statistic analysis was employed to examine perceptions of destination images of Turkish people. The Anova multiple comparison analysis was conducted for the purpose of identifying the sig-
nificant differences in perceptions of Turkish people among Paris, Rome and Prague.

Consumers’ perceptions of destination images are known to be complexly determined and to be multidimensional. So, a destination’s image can be analyzed from different perspectives, and composed of a variety of individual perceptions relating to various product service attributes. Due to the rise of urban tourism destinations at global scale, the assessment and development of an appropriate image for European cities has become increasingly important. Since, those countries are well known by Turkish people Paris, Rome and Prague were chosen for our study. In addition, Turkish people are one of the most important and attractive markets for the European cities by location. The population of this study was Turkish citizens interested in travel and tourism. The research was conducted via internet survey between 16-23 January 2008 in Turkey.

The sample for the data analysis consists of 904 Turkish people expressing their ideas about the images of Paris, Rome and Prague as tourism destinations. The respondents were asked to provide information about their destination image perceptions. Turkish consumers’ perceptions of the cities’- Paris, Rome and Prague - image as tourism destinations were asked. 22 Likert statements which are used to measure the functional and psychological attributes of consumers were derived from the study of Echtermann and Ritchie (1993) and Choi, Chan and Wu (1999). A five point Likert scale was used and the scales ranged from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5).

RESULTS

Out of 904 respondents surveyed, males constitute of 71.1% and females constitute of 28.9%. The majority of respondents belong to 26-35 years age group (47.3%), followed by the 18-25 years age group (23.6%). Of the respondents, 61.4% had at least finished university degree and another 28.8% finished high school. Some 65.9% of the respondents were married and 34.1% were single. Most of the respondents were merchant or workers with low income level. Family size was mostly four people with 36.4%.

The cities’ destination images were explored by principal component factor analysis with Varimax rotation giving rise to an five factor solution. The internal consistency of items was measured within each factor using Cronbach’s alpha tests. To further analyze the differences between the destination images of cities, Anova was performed.

Factor analysis was applied to determine the underlying dimensions of Paris, Rome and Prague’s destination images. Five factors with eigen values greater than one emerged from the factor analysis. The reliability of each construct scale was assessed by computing Cronbach’s coefficient alpha. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of factors for Paris, Rome and Prague are over 0.70, the general accepted level of Cronbach’s alpha coefficient (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black 2005). Cronbach’s alpha measures of Paris are 0.849 for city’s environmental beauty and convenience, 0.817 for city’s citizens, 0.837 for local culture and cuisine, 0.735 for shopping and tourist accommodation and 0.713 for place and architectural structure. Cronbach’s alpha measures of Rome are 0.880 for city’s environmental beauty and convenience, 0.859 for city’s citizens, 0.838 for local culture and cuisine, 0.780 for shopping and tourist accommodation and 0.793 for place and architectural structure. Cronbach’s alpha measures of Prague are 0.890 for city’s environmental beauty and convenience, 0.892 for city’s citizens, 0.876 for local culture and cuisine, 0.827 for shopping and tourist accommodation and 0.865 for place and architectural structure. The items formed five factors that explained 60.488 percent variance for Paris, 65.176 percent of the variance for Rome and 69.360 percent variance for Prague. The items included in each factor and the factor loadings were reported in Table 1.

City’s environmental beauty and convenience factor comprises eight items such as “There are many gardens and parks in this city.”, “This city has well-developed transport system.”, “Highways and roads are in good condition in this city.”, “It is easy to get good service in restaurants and hotels in this city.”, “This city is clean and green.”, “This city is an orderly city.”, “This city is a safe place to visit.” and “This city is a progressive city.” City’s citizens factor is composed of four items relating to “The local people are courteous.”, “The local people are honest.”, “The local people are friendly.” and “The local people are hardworking.”.

Local culture and cuisine factor includes three items relating to “The lifestyles and customs in this city are similar to those in my city.”, “The architectural styles of the buildings are similar to those in my city.” and “The food in this city is similar to ours.”.

Items regard to shopping and tourist accommodation is captured in another factor. It consists of four items such as “This city is a good place to shop.”, “Good quality of products are available in this city.”, “Food is varied and exotic in this city.” and “There are a wide variety of products available in this city.”. Factor called place and architectural structure includes variables like
“There are many interesting places in this city.”, “There are many restful and relaxing places in this city.” and “There are lots of natural scenic beauties in this city.”

Table 1. Cronbach’s alpha and factor loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Paris</th>
<th>Rome</th>
<th>Prague</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Beauty &amp; Convenience (8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are many gardens and parks in this city.</td>
<td>0.738</td>
<td>0.752</td>
<td>0.709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This city has well-developed transport system.</td>
<td>0.731</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td>0.816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highways and roads are in good condition in this city.</td>
<td>0.687</td>
<td>0.676</td>
<td>0.614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is easy to get good service in restaurants and hotels in this city.</td>
<td>0.650</td>
<td>0.601</td>
<td>0.624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This city is clean and green.</td>
<td>0.647</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td>0.679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This city is an orderly city.</td>
<td>0.636</td>
<td>0.638</td>
<td>0.665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This city is a safe place to visit.</td>
<td>0.591</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>0.747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This city is a progressive city.</td>
<td>0.489</td>
<td>0.543</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha</td>
<td>0.849</td>
<td>0.880</td>
<td>0.890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City’s Citizens (4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The local people are courteous.</td>
<td>0.740</td>
<td>0.800</td>
<td>0.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The local people are honest.</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td>0.776</td>
<td>0.761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The local people are friendly.</td>
<td>0.734</td>
<td>0.616</td>
<td>0.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The local people are hardworking.</td>
<td>0.701</td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>0.778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha</td>
<td>0.817</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>0.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Culture &amp; Cuisine (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The lifestyles and customs in this city are similar to those in my city.</td>
<td>0.874</td>
<td>0.865</td>
<td>0.886</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The architectural styles of the buildings are similar to those in my city.</td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td>0.821</td>
<td>0.854</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The food in this city is similar to ours.</td>
<td>0.787</td>
<td>0.759</td>
<td>0.792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha</td>
<td>0.837</td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>0.876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping &amp; Tourist Accommodation (4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This city is a good place to shop.</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td>0.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good quality of products are available.</td>
<td>0.697</td>
<td>0.692</td>
<td>0.721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food is varied and exotic in this city.</td>
<td>0.620</td>
<td>0.585</td>
<td>0.630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are a wide variety of products available in this city.</td>
<td>0.555</td>
<td>0.611</td>
<td>0.724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td>0.827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place &amp; Architectural Structure (3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are many interesting places in this city.</td>
<td>0.767</td>
<td>0.813</td>
<td>0.848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are many restful and relaxing places in this city.</td>
<td>0.758</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>0.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are lots of natural scenic beauties in this city.</td>
<td>0.733</td>
<td>0.760</td>
<td>0.813</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s Alpha</td>
<td>0.713</td>
<td>0.793</td>
<td>0.865</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Variance Explained</td>
<td>60.488</td>
<td>65.176</td>
<td>69.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Anova was conducted in order to identify significant differences between perceptions of destination images of Paris, Rome and Prague. Results from Anova reveal that there is significant difference between destination images of Paris, Rome and Prague, so H1 is accepted.

Table 2. Anova table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Beauty &amp; Convenience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>31.147</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15.574</td>
<td>39.926</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1056.294</td>
<td>2708</td>
<td>.390</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1087.441</td>
<td>2710</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City’s Citizens</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>23.461</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.731</td>
<td>21.509</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1476.909</td>
<td>2708</td>
<td>.545</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1500.371</td>
<td>2710</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Culture &amp; Cuisine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>47.470</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>23.735</td>
<td>24.047</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>2672.866</td>
<td>2708</td>
<td>.987</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2720.336</td>
<td>2710</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping &amp; Tourist Accommodation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>50.667</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>25.333</td>
<td>46.195</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1485.070</td>
<td>2708</td>
<td>.548</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1535.737</td>
<td>2710</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place &amp; Architectural Structure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>36.623</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.312</td>
<td>34.052</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>1456.239</td>
<td>2708</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1492.863</td>
<td>2710</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents perceived that environmental beauty and convenience image of Paris is higher with the mean of 2.167 than Rome and Prague. Respondents also perceived that country’s citizens image of Prague is higher than Rome and Paris with the mean of 2.711. Local culture and cuisine dimension of destination image of Rome is higher than Paris and Prague by 3.146. Shopping and tourist accommodation dimension is higher for Paris compared to Rome and Prague. Place and architectural structure dimension of destination image of Rome is also higher than Paris and Prague.

The Anova multiple comparison analysis was conducted to explore the significant differences in the destination image perceptions of Turkish consumers. Significant differences were found between Paris, Rome and Prague in “environmental beauty and convenience” image of cities. On the other hand, there
are significant differences between Paris and Rome, Paris and Prague in their “citizens’ image”. But, there is no significant difference in the “city’s citizens” image of Rome and Prague. In addition, there are significant differences between Paris and Rome and also between Paris and Prague in “local culture and cuisine” image but, there is no significant difference in the “local culture and cuisine” image of Rome and Prague. Significant differences were found between Paris, Rome and Prague in “shopping and tourist accommodation” image of cities. Lastly, there are significant differences between Paris and Rome and also between Rome and Prague in “place and architectural structure” image but, there is no significant difference in the “place and architectural structure” image of Paris and Prague.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of the study was to identify the images of the three European cities -Paris, Rome and Prague- held by Turkish consumers. To achieve this purpose, a structured method of destination image measurement was applied. The variables contained in destination image scale were reduced into five dimensions named “environmental beauty and convenience”, “city’s citizens”, “local culture and cuisine”, “shopping and tourist accommodation” and “place and architectural structure” by factor analysis. Then Anova was conducted in order to find the differences between the images of cities.

The findings suggest that city images’ means are strongly different by “environmental beauty and convenience” and “shopping and tourist accommodation” dimensions but somewhat different by “city’s citizens”, “local culture and cuisine” and “place and architectural structure” dimensions of destination image. Destination image of Paris stand out with “environmental beauty and convenience”, “shopping and tourist accommodation” dimensions. It is not surprising, since almost everyone perceives Paris as the hearth of fashion and romance. Therefore, Turkish people also accept Paris as a good place to shop with its various and fashionable products.

Rome’s “place and architectural structure” and “local culture and cuisine” dimensions are the mostly accepted dimensions by Turkish people, since Italy-Rome is a Mediterranean city like Turkey. So, Turkish people see their places and architectural styles and also their local culture, food more similar to Rome.

“City’s citizens” dimension of Prague’s destination image is perceived better than other two European cities by Turkish people. This may arise from the reason that the people of Czech Republic are more courteous, friendly, honest and hardworking in the eyes of Turkish people.

This research showed that image perceptions of Turkish people differ from one destination to another. Efforts to understand the factors pushing tourists to visit a particular destination and how likely it is to be different from those of others visiting other destinations could help destination management to set marketing strategies. So, the findings of the study might help tourism agencies targeting Turkish people.

The differentiating destination image perceptions for each of the cities were stated in this study. Based upon the findings, the recommendation for destination management authorities could be that Paris should try to make its citizens, local culture and cuisine more familiar to Turkish people. Rome has almost average perceptions by Turkish people in all destination dimensions. So, right actions should be taken in order to improve tourism images of those cities examined. Prague should concentrate its efforts on the shopping and accommodation services to make itself more competitive in the Turkish market. Also it should try to make its places and architectural structure known more by Turkish people.

As this study has been amongst the first to compare Turkish people’s perception across various destinations and across various nationalities both the methodology and the findings could be helpful for other researchers who will probably undertake similar researches in the future.

As many other research studies, the current study has some theoretical and methodological limitations. First, the research was carried out in Turkey and therefore the findings are culturally bound and are likely to have limited application to other destinations, regions or cities. Second, only Paris, Rome and Prague were taken as European cities. So, the findings are limited upon those cities studied. It is hoped that this study will stimulate further research on destination image in the tourism industry to provide valuable insights for both academics and practitioners.

REFERENCES


Use of Security Aspects in Tourism Service Management and Marketing

Zeki DEMİR
Faculty of Forestry
Düzye University, Turkey
E-mail: pmzukidemir@hotmail.com

Osman UZUN
Faculty of Forestry
Düzye University, Turkey
E-mail: pmosmanuzun@hotmail.com

Haldun MÜDERRISOĞLU
Faculty of Forestry
Düzye University

ABSTRACT
Tourism is one of the leading national economics’ industries in Europe and worldwide growing very fast, and it has been taken as priority in strategic and economical development. The industry of tourism influences social, cultural, and economical life of each and every society, and vice versa (Balode et al). A guide –book and Training tool were prepared by group of authors within the Leonardo da Vinci programme project, SECTOUR- Security in Tourism- Innovations in Tourism Education and Business Practice. The purpose of this paper is to explain this project results. The purpose of this research is to provide the term of tourism security, its place and importance in commerce tourism products using both traditional management and marketing methods and innovative and modern solutions that would match the situation. Materials are intended for enterprises of tourism section of market like tourism agents, undertakers of hotels and rural guest houses, those who offer free time activities, tourism industry professional associations, etc. The purpose of the materials is to provide some advice that might help them to improve commerce of their offered services, competitiveness and quality control. Beside the professional environment, the content of the advice is useful as methodical tool for studying tourism management in professional and higher education (Balode and et al. 2007).

The purpose of this study is to provide the term of tourism security, its place and importance in commerce tourism products using both traditional management and marketing methods and innovative and modern solutions that would match the situation. Materials are intended for enterprises of tourism section of market like tourism agents, undertakers of hotels and rural guest houses, those who offer free time activities, tourism industry professional associations, etc. The purpose of the materials is to provide some advice that might help them to improve commerce of their offered services, competitiveness and quality control. Beside the professional environment, the content of the advice is useful as methodical tool for studying tourism management in professional and higher education (Balode and et al. 2007).

Europe as the final destination of traveling has leading positions in the entire world, but nowadays new forms of danger and insecurity appear for both the humankind and tourism as the leading branch of national economy. It puts the existence of tourism enterprises themselves into danger and forms combination of circumstances and factors that disturb the development. International terrorism, inner and outer conflicts, new diseases and epidemics, unpredictable disasters, change of the climate all become risks of tourism business. Risks of security in tourism take new, unknown, unusual and unpredictable forms of appearance, and the industry itself has to be able to respond this kind of challenge adequately. Nowadays, demand for culture, nature, and active tourism grows the most rapidly among travelers. Some research and reports of tourism service providers show that there is rapidly growing demand for secure tourism products, and the criterion of security is one of the most important while choosing this or that product. Also the World Tourism Organization (WTO) claims that one of the restraining factors of the branch development is that the questions of tourism security are not regulated enough. The statistics of WTO explains that the vast majority of tourism infrastructure organizations operate at a loss because of terrorism and nature disasters. On the growth of demand after interna-
tional tourism and in order to preserve the place in the business environment, tourism operators not in Europe only but also worldwide should think about unified quality tourism product which would meet the security standards (Balode and et al. 2007).

Terrorist attacks and demand after possibilities of active recreation make us think of tourism security more that ever before. The situation has become like that during the past five years, which is why a lot of tourism enterprises lack necessary experience to satisfy this need, and the criteria of security are basically to follow the given legislation from the state for the major part. But clients are more and more interested in security aspects beside the basic information about a trip. Clients mostly say that they had chosen one or another tourism operator because the tourism agent they took had good reputation and trustful experience. The situation not only asks for developing tourism security factors but also developed methods of marketing and professional issues from the serving personnel which give the clients trust to the security of tourism rout or other service (Balode and et al. 2007).

Hall et al. (2001) The article provides a review of the expansion of the concept of security and the relationship of security to tourism. It is argued that the concept of security has become transformed from one of collective security and common defence to embrace notions of common and co-operative security. Despite the damage done to the concept of collective security because of the United States led invasion of Iraq, the development of common security structures through collective, multilateral frameworks such as the United Nations remains important for the expansion of security concerns to cover the environment, health and economic threats. Hall et al. (2001) also emphasize that tourism and supranational tourism organizations have little influence on peace and security agendas although such agendas are important for tourism. Nevertheless, particularly at the micro-level, appropriate tourism development may serve as a means to ward off potential future conflict over resource and environmental security.

According to Thapa (2001), the sporadic domestic political instability during the last decade, compounded with the ongoing international war on terrorism in Afghanistan and beyond, has created a substantial decline in tourist visits to Nepal. Safety and security are important aspects of travel destination choice and the perceived risk within Nepal and the South Asian region has mired the pace of international tourist arrivals. The objectives of this paper were to examine the state of tourism in Nepal and the negative repercussions of the political instability and international conflict that has thwarted the potential for growth.

The term ‘secure’ (security) cannot be defined easily; it comes from many things – security factors that have important role in life of a human, society or state.

Anonymous (2006), Security is one of the most important basic conditions of social, economic, technical, ecologic, and biological system development, that is why it is not to be taken aside of theoretical aspects of development of different systems related to the life of society and on which the security level of every individual, family, local community, state organization, the society itself as well as the state or national security does. That is why the theoretical basic settings of development of economical and social systems include also the theory of security. The level of each social and economical system is defined by the length and the quality of the lives of inhabitants, friendly environment and circumstances for satisfaction of one’s needs. That points at the security of the level of individual’s life and social and economical system which make national security basis with the purpose to protect political rights and freedom of inhabitants, and correct development of individual and society (Balode and et al 2007).

Tourism is one of the leading national economics’ industries in Europe and worldwide growing very fast, and it is been taken as priority in strategic and economical development. The industry of tourism influences social, cultural, and economical life of each and every society, and vice versa.

The question of security is derived as one of the most actual theme in the world in the 21st century, as security of a state and individual, security of traveling, security of the environment of tourism. The human while going on a trip independent of the goal of the trip thinks of the questions of security, for example, when one travels by plane or ship, climbs mountains or take some rest at the beach, stays at the place to spend a night or enjoys the holiday one had been waiting for a long time at the rural yard. Certainly, security activities are done in every country determining minimum possibility to call out a crisis situation or insecurity for the inhabitants of the state and the guests, making more persistent control at the borders of the country, in the cities and towns, airports or places where large amount of people gather.

Anonymous (2006), The questions of security worldwide are put under more and more attention because nowadays a lot of new forms of insecurity for both humankind and tourism as the leading industry of national economics appear
Researchers propose that „make usual existence of individual or society under insecure and form a set of circumstances and factors that break development“ (Balode and et al. 2007).

Anonymous (2004), New forms of insecurity such as international terrorism, inner and outer conflicts, new diseases and epidemics, unpredictable nature disasters, change of the climate all become risks of tourism business. Security risks in tourism take new, undiscovered, unusual, and unseen forms (Balode and et al. 2007).

Anonymous (2006), Dangers produce risks for an enterprise. That means that possibility of danger produces possibility of risks: economical risks, technical risks, criminal risks, social risks, nature disaster risks. It has to be mentioned that many dangers can produce one risk and one danger can produce many risks. For example, fire (insecurity) in the tourism dwell (object) can produce destruction of the enterprise (economical risk) and non-functioning of the tourism dwell for long time (technical risk) (Balode and et al. 2007).

Many countries of the Europe have open market economics, which are quite under international influence and its fluctuations; the stability of the state is influenced by non-even development of its regions which makes social and economical differences deeper. That is why improvement of understanding and knowledge of security issues of state institutions, municipalities, businessmen and the society is very important. There is economical sovereignty insecurity, difficult moments with environ psychological, regional politics and social security, problems with organised criminality and corruption; they continue negative influencing of state economics and trust of inhabitants to the existing democratic state system which also corrupts the image of the country. The defined principles should be included into national country security concepts working out new policy planning and programme documents in state government and private section, as well as a plan of actions in possible crises situations.

Law execution and information providing for a tourist depends on competence of a businessperson and news in tourism security provided by state institutions. Each country should work out unified and comprehensive theoretical and methodical material with practical use which would show optimal plan and would provide a client all the information about tourism security in the world to be chosen depending on the goal of the trip the tourist takes. Also after the wishes of a tourist it should have possibility to model a bunch of tourism security factors (possible forms of insecurity) in a proper country and a plan of actions in crises situations to match the newest information about the social and politics, cultural and economical life of the appropriate country. To provide quality of tourism product and services it is necessary to set new priorities defining aspects of tourism product and service security; to promote it as a new tool for better sales of a product at both local and international markets. To provide the state policy in prosecuting the security activities we need new knowledge within tourism education and practices of enterprising.

That is the basis to promote collaboration of state institutions and private section making some common policy of security and working out plans and programmes for several industries. To provide preparation of highly educated professionals for tourism labour market, it is important to get access to modern theory materials and scientific works for both students and faculties of the higher education institutions. That is why research of security factors and skills of crisis management become important and actual themes among tourism professionals.

State security policy basic principals’ prosecution has a very important part in tourism business to provide stable inner policy, social and economics situation. The promoter of development of tourism industry is state national security concept procedure prosecution which describes and defines the situation from the view of security as well as evaluates the factors that influence the security situation in the country. Important part in providing security procedures is not only played by international and military policy situation but by inner security factors as well, state democracy bases, economical development, social security and prosperity, the criminal situation, quality of the environment, culture, etc., which provides possibility to develop local tourism, provides the viewpoint of foreign tourists about the country and create wish to travel. Responsibility for state security policy prosecution provides state legislation systems and structures taking into consider international legislation and laws as well as matching worldwide political, economical, security, and defense structures.

Anonymous (2003), World Tourism Organization (WTO) data show future forecasts in world tourism industry and point out demand after new regions that are little known by tourists and are not yet discovered. WTO Tourism Vision 2020 provides that the number of tourists would grow from 457, 2 mil (1990) up to 1, 561, 1 mil (2020) with 4% growth per year. The capacity of tourism industry is connected to people income and growth of the amount of free time. Same way more intense flow of tourists in Europe is forecast in 2020,
comparing to the flow of tourists in the world which would get from 61, 8% (1990) down to 45, 9% (2020) and besides, it would grow from 11,9% to 25,4% East Asia direction (Balode and et al. 2007).

Tourism security issue actuality in the world gives countries possibility to position the image of the country as secure final destination with different, rich culture and nature heritage sources, friendship of people, secure environment with wide possibilities for tourism.

**METHODOLOGY**

Project is implemented in co-operation with partner organizations from Latvia, Italy, England, Greece and Turkey. Partnership consists of professional and higher education institutions, professional associations and tourism business enterprises. Firstly, introducing of term of tourism security and review of literature about tourism security. Every partner gained information about situation of tourism security and risk, tourism products using both traditional management and marketing methods. After that materials were prepared in hierarchy and published two guide books; Use of Security Aspects in Tourism Service Management and Marketing, Training tool “Development of Secure Tourism Services”. And some evaluation about tourism security and this guide are given in this paper.

**RESULTS**

It is determined some strategy directions of solving problems for security factors research and classification in tourism business:

1. To provide the strategy of developing security in the future analysis of strong and weak sides, options and threats has to be provided.
2. To do some research in state tourism industry with a goal to find tourism security factors that provide or delay development of tourism industry and classify them by groups this is about: tourism market – state - region – local self-government – businessperson – tourist.
3. To realize possibilities provided by tourism security issue research and actualizing in:
   - Politics field
   - Economics field
   - Environment development field
   - Management and collaboration field

Tourism marketing peculiarities, review of strategy and methods in security aspects; Dr. Philip Kotler, the most authorized author in marketing study books industry, says about marketing: “Marketing is a profession, not a kind of art.” Kotler is also the author of actual for the moment marketing theory that needs and wishes of consumers can change all the time, so a businessperson has to create marketing in the way to be able to respond to them. Marketing is successful if the needs of the clients are satisfied.

The purpose of the materials is to actualize security issues as one of the main news of the modern tourism marketing. Starting marketing activities, you have to choose which activities to put funds in order to achieve the maximum possible effect with minimum possible funds. But before taking some particular
marketing tools, the tourism enterprise has to put in order its inner organization structure. You have to make sure that company’s offered products or services can be provided to a client at the security level that the company would like to advertise them and put into the market. Special attention should be paid to new products and services (new final destinations of travels, hotels, services of active recreation); you have to make it sure if everything works perfectly, because any unpaid attention or mistake can sufficiently crash trust of the potential clients and the further development of the business itself.

Project emphasizes issues related to most important tourism security factors. Elaborated material helps tourism service providers to create material for their clienteles-travelers in order to provide security information and necessary warnings in issues related to their travel destination.

Training tool consists of textual material, divided in themes, such as: General Safety and Security in Tourism & Travel; Natural Hazards; Climate and Typical Natural Phenomena; Hiking and Cycling Trail; Transportation; Hotel Security; Safety on Tourism Route; Private personal safety: crimes risks; Rural Tourism Security; Emergency situations.

Each of these themes is extracted in form of Ten Top Questions which are related to each theme. The top ten tips is the main working instrument for creating of appropriate security information.

In the conclusion, the project results were improved tourism management educational programme, online support for assessment, assistance, and continuous upgrading of the tourism guide and tourism manager qualification and the material for improving the quality of tourism service enterprise management. The project products are training tool "A guide of safety aspects within tourist routes ", including all relevant travel safety and security areas, which should be considered by the tourism service provider and travellers, accompanied by practical examples about tourism safety and security, recommendations for tourism service providers "Safety and security aspects in tourism service management and marketing. Project products are foreseen for use in following sectors: tourism education (including informal education), and tourism service providers (travel agents, hotels, leisure activities providers).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The pilot project of Leonardo da Vinci programme was prepared by Latvia Culture College, Latvian Country Tourism Association Lauku Celotajs, Amitié, Acharnes Culture Organization Kokkinos Mylos, Association of Latvian Travel Agents, Abant Izzet Baysal University. Project Name: Safety and Security in tourism– innovations in educational programs and business practice Project Number: 2005 - LV/05/B/F/PP-172.004 Partnership consists of professional and higher education institutions, professional associations and tourism business enterprises. Project is implemented in co-operation with partner organizations from Latvia, Italy, England, Greece and Turkey.

REFERENCES


Determining the Cost of Market Segments in the Hotel Industry by Using Activity-Based Costing

Oktay TAŞ
Faculty of Business
İstanbul Technical University, Turkey
E-mail: oktay.tas@itu.edu.tr

Zeynep İLTÜZER
Faculty of Business
İstanbul Technical University, Turkey
E-mail: iltuzer_zeynep@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

In the last quarter of the 21st century, many doubts had been arisen due to ineffectiveness of the traditional costing approach in the allocation of indirect costs. As the indirect costs are not directly related to a product, service or customer, traditional cost accounting methods are not appropriate ways to deal with the indirect or overhead costs. Activity-Based Costing developed at beginning of 1990s in order to overcome the difficulties in allocating overhead costs, in other words indirect costs, to products, services or customers etc. Primarily the manufacturing companies use activity-based Costing approach. In fact it is very appropriate costing approach for companies in service industry such as tourism, banking, e-business. In this study, the aim is to demonstrate how activity-based costing is applied in a hotel and how the outcome of the method can affect the hotel decision making process or how the outcome of the method can be used for other purposes. For this, a hypothetical 500-room hotel is used. After the brief introduction to the issue at hand, in order to gain general insight about what the literature thinks about the use of activity-based costing in businesses in the tourism sector. In the third part, basics of activity-based costing have been introduced and in the next part, the application has been done for the hypothetical 500-room hotel. In the conclusion whole study is summarized and the outcomes have been evaluated.

Key words: Activity-based costing, hotel businesses.

INTRODUCTION

A good strategic decision making process requires the high quality inputs. The appropriate methods for cost allocation provide the correct amount of cost in formation for the decision making process. In 1988, the survey of CAM-I -The Consortium of Advanced Management, International- showed that the executives had carried important concerns about the short comings of the traditional costing approach (Hicks 2005). Traditional costing methods had been developed much earlier and at those times the labor force was the most important component of the production process, and indirectly it affected the development of the costing methods. In today’s economic environment with the help of rapid technological developments

Substantial changes in the way of doing business also change the cost structure of the companies. Indirect costs had started to cover the bigger portion of the costs that businesses incur. As a result, major area of determining proper cost information turned into allocating overhead costs to products/services properly. Activity Based Costing developed by Kaplan, Cooper and Johnson at the ends of 1980s to deal with the problems in the traditional costing system (Cooper 1988a; b; Cooper and Kaplan 1988; Johnson and Kaplan 1987a, b). Activity-Based Costing is an important tool for the distribution of overhead cost to product/services, customers or any cost object. Especially, business in service sectors such as tourism whose cost structures involve the indirect costs substantially.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Very little is yet known about management accounting and its use in tourism enterprises. The researchers in management accounting have traditionally been, above all, interested in the accounting systems of large manufacturing companies. Besides this, in the literature there are researches interested in accounting practices in service sector. Adams in 1996 had examined the relevance of activity-based costing and life-insurance industry. The study concludes that the activity-based costing is appropriate method for the life-insurance companies that have high overhead cost and diversified product lines to provide more accurate cost information, cost of services and better insights into operational performance and strategic decision making (Adams 1996). Withertie and Kim in 2006 had examined the process and analyze the benefits of and the obstacles to implementing ABC in a financial services environment. They found that the major factor in the success of an ABC implementation is gaining the support and cooperation of the organization’s employees and the more employees understand and support the ABC initiative, the greater the chance the ABC system will be successful (Witherite and Kim 2006).

In addition to these, Bamber, Smith, and Hughes in 2001 examined the activity-based costing in hypothetical bank that has suffered falling profits to determine how and why costs reported by the activity-based system differ from the costs reported by the traditional system, and what this difference means for the Bank’s business strategy (Bamber, Smith and Hughes 2001). Another area in which researches are interested is the healthcare industry. There are many
studies involving the use of activity based-costing in healthcare industry. One of them carried out by Kennett, Durler, and Downs in 2005. The paper examines the case of a UK healthcare organization that implemented ABC to provide sharper cost information for control and decision-making. Another application area that activity-based costing draws attention is the IT services. Neumann, Gerlach, Edwin, Finch, Olson in 2004 reports on a cost management project using ABC modeling focused on an IT division of a publicly held software development firm (Neumann et al. 2004).

As it is seen from the literature reviews, activity-based costing is gaining importance more and more in varied industries in the service sector day by day. Although there are not many studies there are researches interested in activity-based costing in tourism enterprises in the literature. Among these studies, those interested in the use of activity-based costing in menu engineering are of high percentage. Specific group of scientists has interested in the use of activity-based costing in restaurant industry and menu engineering. In 2003, Raab and Mayer carried out a field study among the restaurant controllers to identify the knowledge and use of activity-based costing. The outcome of the fields study showed that the use of activity-based costing in the restaurant industry almost non-existent despite correspondence with the industry characteristics (Raab and Mayer 2003). The same researches carried out another research in 2005 involving the test of using activity-based costing in buffet style restaurant in Hong-Kong. They concluded that the distribution of operating expenses with the help of activity-based costing showed that every item the restaurant sold in a dinner buffet it incurred a certain amount of loss (Raab and Mayer 2005). Recently, Raab and Mayer suggest that activity-based costing is an appropriate tool for assessing the variable costs by activity-based costing and they conclude that the use of ABC is a feasible approach to buffet restaurant product costing in spite of the extra effort it requires (Raab and Mayer 2007).

Besides the intense studies interested in the use of activity-based costing in restaurants and menu engineering, there are a few studies involving the relation between the uses of cost accounting in tourism enterprises. For instance, a study of Pellinen in 2003 stated that cost accounting tools were not influential in pricing in tourism sector since the prices were set on other factors than cost (Pellinen 2003). On the other hand, the results of the field study of Damitio and Schmidgall in 1990 demonstrated that hotel managers gave substantial importance to cost accounting information as input for budgeting, income accounting, pricing and financial planning (Damitio and Schmidgall 1990). The study of Dunn and Brooks in 1990 made a very important contribution to literature to demonstrate how activity-based costing was used in market segment profitability analysis and to explain rigorously the steps of application of the activity-based costing (Dunn and Brooks 1990). The paper has been also taken as guidance for this study. Noone and Griffin have carried out another similar study in 1997, which also demonstrates how activity-based costing was used in customer profitability analysis and how vital the cost information, and accuracy are for the customer profitability analysis. They concluded that the activity-based costing was the most effective and accurate costing method to apply to customer profitability analysis in a hotel environment (Noone and Griffin 1997).

FUNDAMENTALS OF ACTIVITY-BASED COSTING

Activity-Based Costing is a cost accounting concept based on the premise that products require an organization to perform activities and that those activities require an organization to incur cost (Hicks 1992). Overhead costs or indirect costs are the main cost component of the service sector businesses inherently. Therefore it is not a appropriate approach to allocate overhead costs to services by the volume of service. Activity-based costing has been developed to answer this issue. As it is seen from the definition, activity-based costing approach thinks that products/services do not directly consume resources but they consume activities. This concept is put into practice by two-step procedure, while there is only one step in the traditional costing approach. Figure 1 depicts the difference between activity-based costing and traditional costing. Traditional costing system has no first step as in the activity-based costing and although the second step is similar for both traditional costing system and activity-based costing, the allocation in this step based on production volume in traditional costing system while it is based on the product’s consumption of the activities in activity-based costing.
The first step of implementation of Activity-Based Costing is to identify activities in the organization and then to organize these activities as they form the activity based cost pools. For example, check-in, check-out, advertising, housekeeping can be cost centers for a business in the hotel industry. Communicating, setting-up, servicing and processing checks can be cost centers for a restaurant. The second step is to trace the overhead costs to each activity center and to evaluate each cost center’s cost. The overhead expense can be easily obtained from the financial statements of companies and then overhead expense is distributed cost centers with the cost driver of pertinent stage one. Cost drivers can be defined as these activities or transactions that are significant determinants of cost. The followings are some of the cost drivers gained acceptance by various writers: The number of production runs undertaken drives production scheduling, inspection, material handling and set up costs. The number of received orders drives the costs of the receiving department. The number of dispatch orders drives the cost of the dispatch department. The number of purchase, supplies and customers orders similarly drives the costs associated with raw material inventory, work-in progress and finished goods inventory. Let consider a restaurant. Let suppose its basic activities are servicing, processing-checks and cleaning. Expense categories should be allocated each cost center by the appropriate cost driver. The time that takes to carry out the activities can be chosen as a cost driver for each expense category for the restaurant example. The cost driver rate would be 2 minutes for cleaning, 1 minute for servicing and 0.5 minute for processing bills. By using these rates, expenses are distributed to corresponding activity centers. In the third step, activity-based cost centers are traced to products/services by pertinent second stage cost driver. The main object of the activity based costing may not be to find a product or a service cost. It can be a customer segment or a project etc., which are generally called “cost objective”. For our example, if the aim is to find cost of each customer segment, the cost objectives can be customer segments such as long-term customers, short-term customers, and mid-term customers. Cost center’s cost are multiplied by second stage cost driver and then the each customer segment’s cost value is found by summing cost of each cost center to cost object.

**METHODOLOGY**

In this study, the application of activity-based costing has been realized by perusing the following steps:

1. Major activities of the corresponding business are determined in the first step. Since there are too many activities in a organization, activities are determined so that it would be feasible to assign a cost driver for each of them. In this step, it is important to familiarize with the company main functions and procedures in order to identify fundamental activities. The needed information to classify the small actions is gathered by interviewing with the managers and employees of the departments. For instance, in a hotel, sweeping carpets, changing towels etc. are the activities that can be grouped as “housekeeping” activities.

2. Second step is to obtain expense categories. The expenses accounts and their values have been easily acquired from financial statement of the company, namely income statement. In this step it is important to determine which expense accounts are classified as direct cost, which are directly associated with cost objects, and which expense accounts are classified as overhead cost, which are not directly associated with the cost objects.
3. The third step is the first allocation stage. In this step, the overhead expenses that are determined in the second step are distributed to activities that are determined in the first step according to the contribution amount of activities to expense categories, namely first stage cost driver rates. In this study, the Expense-Activity-Dependence matrix, which is made up by Roztocki and Valenzuela in 1999, has been used to realize the allocation.

4. Forth step is to determine the cost objects of activity-based costing procedure. Cost objects can be customer segments, projects, and departments of a company. That is, they are the entities that are expected to evaluate their costs to the companies. For example, the purpose of a company would be determining the costs of its customer segments, long-term, short-term, mid-term customers. Or a company wants to know how much its certain product line cost. In that case product line of interest would be cost object of activity-based costing procedure.

5. The last step is the second cost allocation stage according to second stage cost drivers. The expense amount of the each activities centers that is determined in the third step is allocated to cost objects determined in the fourth steps according to the level of the consumption of activities of each cost object. To realize this step, Activity-Product-Dependence matrix, which is also proposed by Roztocki and Valenzuela (1999), has been used in this study.

**DETERMINATION OF COSTS OF MARKET SEGMENTS IN A HOTEL**

In this section, it is aimed to allocate the expenses recorded in the financial statements of the business to the corresponding market segments based on the functional linkages between expenses and market segments in a tourism enterprise. To do this, a hypothetical 500-room hotel whose name is given as Five-Star Hotel is used. As it is explained in the fourth section, the application of the activity-based costing begins with the determination of major activities of the company. Table 1 presents the major activities; this table is prepared by considering the possible activities of a 500-room hotel. Activities can be determined more detailed. For instance, for a larger hotel, restaurant activity center can be divided into two activity centers, which are food preparation and food service. While this increases the precision, it increases the complexity.

In the second step, expense categories and their amounts are determined. In a real world company, the needed information is obtained from the financial statement of the company in question. In this study, expense categories and their corresponding values are chosen so that they reflects the possible state in a real hotel and expense categories and their amount have been determined as in the Table 1.

**Table 1. Expense Categories and Corresponding Amounts for FiveStar Hotel (000s)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expense Categories</th>
<th>Cost ($)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human Resources</td>
<td>850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance/ Human Resources</td>
<td>922.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance/ Customers</td>
<td>922.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing and Advertising</td>
<td>2050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy (heating, electricity)</td>
<td>815</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance and Depreciation</td>
<td>4100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone</td>
<td>400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banquet</td>
<td>825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>4510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rooms</td>
<td>5125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Human resources, marketing and advertising, finance, administration and energy expenses are the common expenses for all type of businesses. Telephone, banquet, restaurant and rooms expenses are peculiar to a business in a hotel industry not as long as the hotel is too small. Maintenance &depreciation expenses covers costs associated with the furniture, building and heating system. Finance expenses are divided into two subcategories to make easy the distribution of expenses to activities by determining more appropriate cost drivers and ultimately to obtain more accurate cost allocation results. Finance-Human resources expense category involves the expenses related to payment of wages such as preparation of payrolls. Finance-Customers expense category involves the expenses related to accounting procedures of customers.

Next step is the determination of the cost of each activity center. This is the first cost allocation step, which is not found in the traditional costing approach.
The activities determined in the Table 1 causes organizations to incur costs and therefore every activity is responsible of certain amount of expenses that organizations incur based on the consumption level, namely the cost driver for each expense category. Table 2 shows the each expense category and its corresponding cost driver. These cost drivers are determined according to nature of the expense category and based on the studies in the literature.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expense Categories</th>
<th>First Stage Cost Drivers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human Resources</td>
<td>The number of employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance/ Salary Payment</td>
<td>The number of employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance/Customer</td>
<td>The number of bills and checks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>%100 of corresponding activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing and Advertising</td>
<td>%100 of corresponding activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy (heating, electricity)</td>
<td>The square footage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance and Depreciation</td>
<td>The square footage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone</td>
<td>%100 of corresponding activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banquet</td>
<td>%100 of corresponding activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>%100 of corresponding activity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rooms</td>
<td>The number of employees</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sometimes there can be more than one cost drivers between expense category and activity centers. The most explanatory cost driver of the relation between activities and expenses should be chosen. This sometimes requires dividing expense categories into subcategories since one cost driver does not provide sufficiently accurate allocation. In this study, the division of finance expenses as Finance-Salary Payment and Finance-Customers has been made in order to obtain more accurate cost allocation. Finance-Salary Payment expenses are affected from the all activities that use human resources. Therefore the cost driver is determined as the number of employees for the Finance-Salary Payment expense category. Finance-Customers expenses are affected from the activities that result in certain accounting activities such as accounting of checks from restaurant or banquet. Therefore, the cost driver is the number of customers for the Finance-Customers expense category. If finance expenses are taken as a whole, what cost driver should be chosen is a problematic, the number of employees or the number of customers. Whichever you chose, there will be certainly improper allocation of expenses to the activities since neither the cost driver of number of employees nor the cost driver of the number of customers does not reflect the functional relation between expenses and activities. For the expense category of Energy, the square footage reflects the functional relation between energy expenses and activities most appropriately. For instance, room activity center consumes the heating system energy in the biggest portion among the other activities since the rooms cover the biggest area of the hotel building. Room activity center should be assigned the biggest portion of the energy expenses. The same logic can be used for the expense category of Maintenance and Depreciation and therefore the cost driver is chosen as the square footage. Telephone, Banquet, Restaurant, Administration and Marketing expenses are directly assigned to activities with the same name since the activities that leads these expenses are determined as activity centers.

Table 3. Allocation of expenses to activity centers according to first stage cost drivers in percentage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expense Categories</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Administration</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human Resources</td>
<td>2% 8% 20% 30%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance (Salary Payment)</td>
<td>2% 8% 20% 30%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance/Customer</td>
<td>- - 43% -</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration</td>
<td>- - - - -</td>
<td>100% 100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing &amp; Advertising</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>1% 1% 1% 5% 75% 10% 5% 1% 1% 1% 100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance &amp; Depreciation</td>
<td>1% 1% 1% 5% 75% 10% 5% 1% 1% 1% 100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone</td>
<td>- - - - - - - - - -</td>
<td>100% 100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banquet</td>
<td>- - - - - - - - - -</td>
<td>100% 100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>- - - - - - - - - -</td>
<td>100% 100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rooms</td>
<td>- 10% 40% 50% - - - - - - - - 100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 details the cost driver rates of the each expense categories. From Table 3, Restaurant activities are responsible for 25% of the human resources expenses, 25% of Finance-Salary Payment expenses, 50% of Finance-Customer expenses, 10% of Energy expenses, 10% of Maintenance and Depreciation expenses and responsible for all of the restaurant expenses, that is 100% of restaurant expenses. This is the restaurant column interpretation of Table 3. In terms of row interpretation of Table 3, 2% of Human Resources expenses is due to Advertising & Marketing, 6% of Human Resources expenses is due to reservation activities, 20% of Human Resources expenses is due to check-in and check-out activities, 30% of Human Resources expenses is due to housekeeping activities, 25%, 10%, 3%, 5% of Human Resources expenses is due to restaurant activities, banquet activities, telephone activities and general administrative activities, respectively.

Table 4 represents the dollar contribution of each activity center to each expense category while Table 4 represents the contributions in percentage. For example, Human resources expense is $850,000 in total. $17,000 of it results from the advertising activities, $51,000 of it results from the reservation activities and so on. From Table 4, The Five Star hotel incurs $2,134,600 due to advertising & marketing activities, $668,000 due to reservation activities, $2,850,230 due to check-in and check-out activities, $3,340,000 due to housekeeping activities, $3,686,250 due to rooms activities, $5,952,000 due to restaurant activities, $1,266,450 due to banquet activities, $502,330 due to telephone activities, $837,780 due to general administrative activities. The most striking activities forming the major part of the Five Star Hotel expenses are restaurant, housekeeping, room activities. The least costly activities are reservation and telephone activities.

The next step is that the activity centers’ costs are traced to cost objects. This is the second cost allocation stage. To do this, first of all the cost objects should be determined. Since the purpose of the study is to determine the cost of market segments of the hypothetical Five Star hotel, the cost objects are the market segments of the hotel, which are group customers, transient customers, restaurant customers and banquet customers. Group customers are such as incentive groups, tours etc. transient customers are those who stay individually and relatively shorter period than that of group customers. Restaurant and banquet customers are the non-room related customers. That is, those do not stay in the hotel room but use the restaurant and banquet services of the hotel.

Another important point for this step is to determine second cost driver rates and allocate costs to cost objects according to these rates. Table 6 represents the cost driver of each activity-based cost pool.

Table 5 represents the activity centers and their corresponding cost drivers when the activities’ costs are distributed to market segments. Advertising & Marketing activities are distributed to market segments of the hotel according to the level of the number of advertisements addressing the market segments. Reservations and check-in and check-out activities are distributed to market segments based on the number of arrivals and departures. Since transient customers have shorter average length of stay, they cause more reservations,
check-in and check-out activities relative to group customers. As a result, the number of arrivals and departures is an appropriate cost driver for the allocation of the cost of reservation activity center. For the housekeeping and room activities, the cost driver is the number of room nights. It is proper to distribute costs of housekeeping and room activities according to how many nights customers in different segments stay in the hotel since every nights requires some housekeeping and room services activities.

Table 5. Activity centers and corresponding second stage cost drivers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity Centers</th>
<th>Second Stage Cost Drivers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advertising &amp; Marketing</td>
<td>The number of advertisements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reservations</td>
<td>The number of arrivals and departures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check-in and Check-out</td>
<td>The number of arrivals and departures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housekeeping</td>
<td>The number of room nights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rooms</td>
<td>The number of room nights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>The number of meals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banquet</td>
<td>The number of covers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone</td>
<td>The number of calls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Administration</td>
<td>Activity level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows in what proportions costs of activity centers is distributed to market segments based on the cost drivers represented in Table 5. From the Table 6, 10% of advertising & marketing activities are done for the banquet and restaurant customers, while 40% of advertising & marketing activities is done for the group and transient customers. Group customers place 35% burdens on the reservation and check-in and check-out activities, while transient customers place 65% burdens since transient customers have shorter average length of stay and consequently have a higher turnover ratio relative to group customers. Room and housekeeping activities’ costs are distributed evenly for the hypothetical hotel in this study since it is assume that group customers and transient customers have equal number of nights during the period that analysis has done. 65% of restaurant activities are due to non-room restaurant customers while 22.5% of it is due to room related customers, group and transient customers. Banquet services involve two segments, which are banquet customers and group customers. 40% of banquet activities is based on the non-room related banquet segment, while 60% of it is based on the room related group segment.

Table 7 represents the final results of the study. The cost of each market segment to the hypothetical FiveStar Hotel is seen from the Table 8. Consequently, the hotel incurs $720,040 cost due to banquet customers, $4,082,260 cost due to non-room related restaurant customers, $6,609,410 due to group customers and $6,905,410 due to transient customers. The results in Table 8 also provide to see potential areas for cost savings. Both from Table 6 and Table 7, the total cost distributed to group market segment covers %50 of room charges equal to $1,843.130; %22.5 of restaurant charges equal to $1,339.200; %60 of banquet charges equal to $759,870; %50 of telephone charges equal to 251.160 in dollar; %50 of housekeeping costs equal to $1,670,000; %35 of the check-in and check-out costs equal to $997,610; %35 of reservation expenses equal to $233,800; %40 of marketing costs equal to $853,840. Therefore, we can see how much of the activities cost each market segment is responsible for. From this point of view, reservation activities and check-in and check-out activities are mostly consumed by the transient segment, banquet activities are mostly due to group segment customers and so on.
Table 7. Allocation of activity center costs to cost objects in dollar (000s)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Cost Objects</th>
<th>Banquet</th>
<th>Restaurant</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Transient</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advertising &amp; Marketing</td>
<td>213,46</td>
<td>213,46</td>
<td>853,84</td>
<td>853,84</td>
<td>213,46</td>
<td>2134,60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reservations</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>233,80</td>
<td>434,20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>668,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check-in and Check-out</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>997,61</td>
<td>1852,71</td>
<td>2850,33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housekeeping</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1670,00</td>
<td>1670,00</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3340,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rooms</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1843,13</td>
<td>1843,13</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3686,25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurant</td>
<td>3868,80</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1339,2</td>
<td>1339,2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5952,00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banquet</td>
<td>506,58</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>759,87</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1266,45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>251,16</td>
<td>251,16</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>502,33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Administration</td>
<td>Not Distributed</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>837,78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>720,04</strong></td>
<td><strong>4082,26</strong></td>
<td><strong>6609,41</strong></td>
<td><strong>6905,04</strong></td>
<td><strong>20399,95</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION

Activity-based costing has been developed at the end of 1980s as a solution of problems that the traditional costing system cause particularly in overhead cost. In fact it has been mostly applied by manufacturing companies since it was developed, activity-based costing is very appropriate costing method for service companies, which have big proportion of overhead cost in total cost. From this perspective, activity-based costing gains substantial importance for hotel industry whose substantial portion of costs are due to overhead cost. Estimation of cost of certain cost objective, different investment projects, market segments...etc., is very important for profit maximization rather than revenue maximization. Therefore, an accurate costing approach provides vital information for pricing and setting rates, market segment analysis, yield management etc. In this study, it is aimed to show opportunities that activity-based-costing provides for the hotel industry. For this, how activity-based costing is implemented in hotel industry and how the results of each step is interpreted and is used is explained in detail. To do this, a hypothetical 500-room hotel is used and probable services provided by the hotel and probable activities are determined. This study can be a good guidance for those who think to apply a costing procedure but do not know exactly which method to apply or how the method to apply and provides a guidance how the result is interpreted and used. For the analysis of hypothetical 500-room hotel, FiveStar Hotel, four market segments are determined, which are restaurant and banquet segments (non-room related) and transient and group segments (room related). The outcomes of market segment cost analysis by the implementing activity-based costing approach are as follows: 34% of the costs the hotel incurs is due to transient segment, 32% of cost the hotel incurs is due to group segment, %20 of the total cost is due to restaurant segment and remaining part of the cost, 14% percent, is due to banquet segment. The cost analysis provide a detail understanding about which segment consumes which activities mostly and provide better understanding about which activities creates which type of expense category. For the FiveStar hotel, the biggest portion of reservation annmd check-in and check-out activities are carried for the transient market segment. On the other hand, Marketing, housekeeping, restaurant and telephone activities are carried out in equal for both transient and market segment group. The results of the cost analysis can be differentiated by changing the design of the analysis, i.e. the cost object of the analysis. The cost object can be different investment alternatives or different market segments instead of those used in analysis.

REFERENCES


Witherite J., Kim II. (2006). Implementing activity-based costing in the banking industry: benefits include the proper costing of transactions, the ability to trace specific costs to bank customers and the ability to measure customer and product profitability.” Bank Accounting & Finance, 19 (3).
Intercultural Differences and the Heritage Tourism Experience: An Exploration of Western and Chinese Values

Zheng ZHOU
Tourism, Hospitality and Marketing
University of Plymouth, UK
E-mail: zheng.zhou2@students.plymouth.ac.uk

Steve BUTTS
Tourism, Hospitality and Marketing
University of Plymouth, UK
E-mail: sbutts@plymouth.ac.uk

ABSTRACT
The globalization of travel brings those with different culture backgrounds, making it important to identify national culture values when cultures intersect. Heritage tourism adds a different dimension to the motivation and experience of different national cultures. This paper aims to explore the culture value difference between Chinese and Western tourists through their experience of heritage tourism at the Palace Museum in Beijing. Through research it was found that some value differences exist between Western and Chinese groups including: ‘being’ and ‘doing’, ‘individualism’ and ‘collectivism’, and ‘high context’ and ‘low context’, which can help to explain tourists’ perceptions and behaviors in their visitor experience in the Palace Museum of Beijing.

Key words: Heritage, tourism, culture, intercultural, China.

INTRODUCTION
Tourist culture, which can explain tourist behavior, is an important factor in the development of the tourism industry. Already established in the literature is the fact that tourist culture originates from the tourists themselves, although it is different from their normal culture. Therefore, it is rational to admit the significance of social and national culture value in the research of tourist culture. Samovar and Porter (1991) point out that American, European, Asian and Australian societies have opposite cultural values and orientations, with the maximum culture difference is found between Asian and Western cultures. Also, they stress that the differences between the societies directly cause the social members’ different perceptions and actions in the tourism environment. This study expects to explore the different national culture values and their respective influences on Western and Chinese heritage tourists.

This paper focuses on the Palace Museum in Beijing as a cross-cultural research site. The Palace Museum is one of the most comprehensive historical and artistic Chinese museums. It was established on the foundation of the palace that was the ritual center of two ancient dynasties, the ‘Ming’ and ‘Qing’, and their collections of treasures. In 1987, the Palace Museum was declared a World Heritage Site by UNESCO as the Imperial Palace of the Ming and Qing Dynasties, due to its significant place in the development of Chinese architecture and culture (Bronson 2004).

In order to research the value of national culture and its influence on tourists engaged in heritage tourism, this paper compares Chinese and Western people’s cultural values and tests them on both countries’ tourists who visit a heritage site (the Palace Museum). An assessment is made as to whether the differences between Western and Chinese people’s cultural values cause differences in tourists’ perceptions and actions. This paper aims to explore the differences in behavior and perceptions of these two culture groups during their visit—the project of which this paper is derived also considered pre- and post-travel phases, but space does not permit discussion of these phases here.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THIS RESEARCH
Pizam and Sussmann (1995) state that the understanding of tourist culture can help tourism best meet tourists’ needs and minimize the potential negative impacts. As the national (or social) culture is the origin of the tourist culture, research on this aspect may produce an effective insight of tourists including understanding of tourists’ perceptions and forecasting tourist behavior. Furthermore, the identification of culture value in heritage tourism can be an important reference for heritage managers to segment the market, design heritage attractions and develop marketing strategies when they are preparing to serve a cross-culture group of tourists. Finally, Pizam and Sussmann (1995) state that the role of culture difference in determining tourist behavior has not been paid much attention in tourism research. To address this, a quantitative research method was adopted to identify both Chinese and Western tourists’ responses to their heritage tourism experience. Primary data were collected by a self-administered questionnaire survey in the Place Museum and analyzed by SPSS
software. A total of 332 usable responses were obtained, 147 from Western visitors, and 185 by Chinese, as they exited the Palace Museum.

**DEVELOPMENT OF HERITAGE TOURISM IN CHINA**

In China, the word of heritage means ‘inheritance’ and is often used to describe belongings such as property left by people who have passed away, which has a much narrower meaning than the broader use of ‘heritage’ (Zhang 2002; Yang 2003). Therefore the words ‘cultural relic’ are instead used to describe national properties such as historical buildings and archeology sites (Yang 2003). The development of heritage sites in China might be traced back to the 1980s (Tao 2001). In 1985, China joined the Convention Concerning the Protection of World Natural and Cultural Heritage; in 1987, the words ‘Heritage Site’ are first used in Chinese when six cultural sites were entitled as World Heritages Sites by the convention. In the 1990s, heritage tourism as a new concept was raised in public and attract scholars, operators and tourists’ attentions (Tao 2001).

Li et al. (2007) reason that there are three important reasons for the high development of tourism in heritage sites of China from the 1990s. Firstly, China has made a transition from being central-based to a market-orientation economy. Secondly, people’s increasing spare time and disposable income has expedited the growth of international and domestic tourism (Cai et al. 2001; Cai and Knutson 1998). Lastly, higher education is able to produce huge interest in sites significant to the development of China’s heritage (Light et al. 1994).

The literature investigated that formed the foundation for this research suggests that differences in the designation of cultural value between Western and Chinese visitors are based on established patterns of cultural differences including religious philosophies, individualism and collectivism, and high and low context culture (see Hofstede 2001; Reisinger and Turner 2003; Fan 2000; Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey 1988). Analysis of the literature provided some guiding assumptions (see Table 1) and aided questionnaire design.

### Table 1. Assumptions Based on Literature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assumptions</th>
<th>China</th>
<th>Western tourists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A 1 Chinese tourists like group traveling or family traveling in heritage tourism more than Western tourists.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A 2 Chinese tourists dislike showing personal feelings in public/at a heritage destination, but Western tourists willingly show themselves in heritage attractions by doing things such as participating in activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A 3 Chinese tourists emphasize personal learning of heritage sites, but Western tourists prefer to acquire explicit information by direct communication.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A 4 Chinese tourists are inclined to be tolerant and accept the presentation of heritage sites and tourism activities, while Western tourists may prefer to emphasize different individual perceptions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A 5 Chinese tourists are willing to obey norms and rules in heritage places, while Western tourists dislike these, although they still obey.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

Table 2 and Table 3 present some differences between Western and Chinese tourist respondents on the perceptions of interests in travel to the Palace Museum. As Table 2 shows, there is a high percentage of Western respondents who emphasize the personal feeling for ‘ancient atmosphere’ (46.3%) in the travelling process including visual and auditory effects. Also, 38.8% of Western respondents express ‘not interested in the tour guide’s introduction.’ The results support Hofstede’s (2001) view that Western people are more self-oriented and emphasize the right to private opinion. Moreover, more than half the Western respondents feel ‘very interested’ in some physical attractions such as ‘palaces and gardens’ and ‘original Chinese food’ (52.4% and 53.7%) which might be related to their ‘doing’ culture value with emphasis on the measurable activities and physical perceptions (however, there is no clear evidence to show that Western tourists feel interested in the antiques). This result can partly support Assumption 4 that the Western tourists stress personal perceptions in heritage travel.
As Table 3 shows, although Chinese tourist respondents also emphasize the personal perceptions of atmosphere, they still don’t express an obvious interest on one specific attraction. The statistical data for Chinese respondents correspondingly presents an average distribution pattern that seemingly supports Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck’s (1961) opinion that people who are from a ‘being’ culture hope to indulge in pleasures of spontaneous activities and reveal their spontaneity as an expression of their human personality. As Table 3 demonstrates, Chinese tourists pay less attention than Western tourists to physical attractions (except for antiques) which might be also attributed to the ‘being’ culture that is more concerned with spiritual life than material life (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961). Another reason is that Chinese tourists have a similar physical living environment within the Palace Museum and thus they don’t express clear preferences on physical attractions. However, Chinese people hold a neutral opinion to the tour guide’s introduction that seems not to comply with their studying motivations in the travel process.

Moreover, from the two groups’ comparison on traditional visual performances and participated programmes, some clear differences and similarities are displayed. As Table 4 shows, Chinese tourist respondents express a similar degree of perceptions with Western respondents on visual performances but were very different on participated programs. Over half of Chinese respondents do not feel interested in the participated programs in the museum, but over 60% of Western respondents think these programs are ‘interesting’ or ‘very interesting’. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) point out that Western cultures are ‘doing’ and ‘action’ oriented, which emphasize activity, task completion, and goal achievements. For Chinese people, DeMente (1994) notes that they comply with formal rules of social behaviour, keeping emotions under control, and being self-restrained and reserved to save their own and other’s ‘face.’ Therefore, the results might be able to test Assumption 2 that Chinese tourists dislike showing feelings in public heritage destinations, but Western people would like to show off themselves in participating activities.

For the research on both groups’ perceptions of influential factors during their travels, Table 5 provides a contrasting view. As the table shows, both Chinese and Western tourist respondents were inclined to believe the signage and information boards are helpful, although there is a certain difference on perception level between them. Actually, the design of information boards in
the Palace Museum may indicate this common result of the two culture groups. The Museum’s information board in Chinese actually provides a space to present complex and profound contextual information to tourists with ancient poems and proverbs. As Hofetede (1980) states, Chinese people are accustomed to obtaining information from contextual messages. Therefore, interest in the information boards by Chinese tourists reflects Chinese tourists’ learning motive in the travel process. Also, this result may explain why Chinese people are not very concerned with the tour guide’s introduction, as normally the information board can provide more abundant and systematic information than the tour guide. However, in the Palace Museum, the information boards in English only offer basic and direct information (simple form with name, period, map or short statement) that may satisfy Western tourists’ requirement for heritage understanding, as Hofetede (1980) indicates that Western cultures belong to a low context culture with the requirements for explicit instructions, signs and procedures.

Table 5. Comparison of Perceptions on Influential Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influential Factors</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Very affected</th>
<th>Affected</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Not affected</th>
<th>completely not affected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Information boards</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>31.9%</td>
<td>27.0%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Western</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>42.2%</td>
<td>19.7%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication with Staff</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>27.0%</td>
<td>37.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Western</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>44.9%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freedom to explore</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>23.8%</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Western</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>38.1%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the aspect of communication with the palace staff, the Western tourist respondents hold a positive opinion, but most Chinese respondents think it is not meaningful to communicate. Dodd (1995) states that with the influence of low context culture, Western people need explicit messages with clear instructions to pass exact meanings, and precise verbal codes and words are very necessary to transmit the meanings. Therefore, the Western tourists possibly need more verbal and flexible approaches to understand the meaning and significance of a heritage place but not by many contextual messages. This result partly supports Assumption 3 that the Western tourists emphasize verbal communication in the heritage travel. Considering why Western tourist prefers talking with local staff than a tour guide, one reason may be that the tour guide’s introduction is too broad to focus tourists’ questions. Furthermore, Chinese and Western tourist respondents express a similar wish for ‘travelling freedom’ although there is an existing difference between the numerical percentages. As As McKercher and Cross’s (2002) mention that most tourists actually want to have their experience controlled and are amenable to having the asset presented in a manner that facilitates easy consumption. The reason is that most domestic tourists and virtually all international tourists may visit an asset only once in their life time.

For the perceptions of rules set in the Palace Museum, there is also a difference between Chinese and Western tourist respondents. For Chinese respondents, most hold a very positive attitude to acceptance of the rules (shown in Table 6). For Western respondents, a certain amount of disagreement has been shown. For example, 27.9% tourists think “No Camera” in the Palace is not rational; 36.1% tourists think to wear slippers in the specific sites is not important; and 26.5% tourists think the ban on food and drinking in the palace is not necessary. This result may prove Assumption 5 that Chinese visitors are more likely to obey rules in heritage sites compared with Western tourists.

Table 6. Differences of Perceptions on Rules

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rules</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Very important</th>
<th>important</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Not important</th>
<th>completely</th>
<th>Not important</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Camera</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>25.9%</td>
<td>29.7%</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Western</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
<td>42.2%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>27.9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please Wear Slipper</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>27.6%</td>
<td>27.0%</td>
<td>30.8%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Western</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td>32.0%</td>
<td>36.1%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No food and drink!</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>28.6%</td>
<td>28.1%</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>15.7%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Western</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td>34.7%</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Touching!</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>25.9%</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>27.6%</td>
<td>13.5%</td>
<td>6.5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Western</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
<td>21.8%</td>
<td>19.7%</td>
<td>8.2%</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONCLUSION

Chinese tourists to the Palace Museum emphasize peaceful personal understanding of heritage sites and receive information from contextual introductions. Compared with them, Western tourists prefer personal feeling from direct perception from physical attractions, participated activities and verbal communications. This difference of result might be attributed to the difference between ‘being’ and ‘doing’ cultural values, and the difference between high and low contextual culture as well. Moreover, Western tourists emphasize the right and importance of personal perception not acceptance. Chinese tourists, however, show an obvious tendency to acceptance of the heritage presentation (or rules) although they express to a certain extent the psychological need for ‘freedom’. This reflects the differences of cultural values between individualism and collectivism. To conclude, this paper sheds light on some of the issues relevant to the growth of Western visitors to China’s heritage attractions, as well as the increase in China’s domestic tourism market. However, these issues do not represent a problem, rather they represent opportunities for maximizing the visitor experience for all.

REFERENCES

Zhang, Lizhu (2002). Realizing the Transfer from Cultural Heritage Tourism to Culture Tourism, Tourism Tribune, 5 (7-9).