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There is a rich variety of customer satisfaction evaluation techniques, nevertheless rarely other approaches than the attribute-orientated ones are used. Therefore the article gives a short overview on existing alternatives and their specifics in the first part. The second part focuses on an evaluation of those methods in a practical way, by applying a bunch of methods in the context of leisure research. Based on an industrial heritage site, attribute-orientated-, incident-orientated approaches as well as silent hovering techniques are applied, in order to research their specifics and to evaluate the data provided by each methodological approach. Specific opportunities and threats are elaborated for each method in the context of leisure research.

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Giuli Liebman Parrinello

Tourism studies, generally considered multi-, inter- and even post-disciplinary, has not yet embraced neuroscience, despite the fact that the latter has been extending its domain in the last decades, opening up to human consciousness, as well as to social issues, arts and the humanities. This paper argues that it is also necessary for tourism social studies to take into account recent developments in this field. Bearing in mind a broad conceptualization of the tourist experience, an attempt will be made to indicate formulations in neuroscience which potentially cast new light on various aspects of tourism. The following points are evidenced: post-

cartesian embodiment (seemingly already a common background); so-called qualia, linked to phenomenological experience; the issue of the 'extended mind'; the discovery of mirror neurons; neuroethics, which can clearly be seen in relation to the ethics of tourism. In conclusion, the recent popularization of neuroscience through brain imaging is briefly explored.

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Jennifer Kim Lian Chan

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Rüya Ehtiyar, Volkan Altıntaş, Aylin Aktaş Alan & Seher Oren

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Anna Farmaki

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Meltem Caber, A. Akin Aksu & Tahir Albayrak

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Mahalia Jackman & Troy Lorde

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Evgenia Bitsani & Androniki Kavoura

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Bharath M. Josiam, Charles R. Foster & Gauri Bahulkar

Foodservice operators are being mandated to provide nutritional information (NI) on their menus to enable diners to make informed choices. However, there is little research on who would utilize NI on menus. This study utilizes Cluster Analysis to segment and profile diners at

full-service restaurants that need, and would utilize NI on menus in full-service restaurants in the USA. Cluster Analysis identified two distinct segments - Health Cognizants and Fast-Lane Foodies. The Health Cognizant segment, has positive attitudes towards NI, feels the need for NI, and would utilize it to make dining decisions. They tend to be females, those aged 35 to 65, and those belonging to the higher income and college educated strata. This segment already practices a healthy lifestyle and employs various healthful strategies while making dining decisions. The Fast-Lane Foodies are not particularly concerned about NI on menus. Implications are provided.

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Perunjodi Naidoo, Prabha Ramseook-Munhurrin & Ramesh Durbarry

Brand image is a prominent marketing tool for destination marketers. A strong brand image implies having an upper-hand over competitors and thus preventing tourists from shifting their purchase intentions to other destinations. This paper examines the brand image attributes of a small island developing state. It also determines the gap between tourists' expected and perceived brand image attributes. The study uses a focus group to guide the design of the questionnaire. Using factor analysis, the results indicate that the attributes performances exceed expectations, reinforcing the positive brand image of Mauritius. It is also found that the destination's attractiveness, up-market products, tourist attractions and the tropical setting were among the key factors in determining the brand image of the destination. The study also suggests that over-promising promotional campaigns may affect the brand image of small island developing destinations.

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Marilena Papageorgiou & Marie-Noelle Duquenne

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Tarek Sayed Abdel Azim

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Giuseppe Torluccio

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Kleanthis Katsaros & Athanasios Tsirikas

Organizational change is an intrinsic attribute of nature that provokes emotional and psychological effects. However, today there is a rising concern about the pace, frequency and content of change. Consequently, employees' tolerance-of-ambiguity rises as a critical competitive advantage that facilitates organizations to react quickly and change successfully. The paper examines managers' emotional and cognitive attitudes in the workplace and their influence in tolerance of change ambiguity. The research sample consists of 180 Greek hotel managers. The results of the principal components analysis indicate that three factors characterize managers' emotions, namely pleasure, arousal and dominance; and two their involvement respectively, namely importance and interest. Further, regression results illustrate the influence of dominance, importance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment in managers' tolerance-of-ambiguity. Concluding, the paper suggests certain policies for increasing managers' tolerance-of-ambiguity and thus, their performance during change.

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Hulusi Doğan, Engin Üngüren & Süleyman Barutçu

The purpose of the present study is to investigate and compare the potential and the satisfaction levels of Russian and German tourists visiting Alanya in creating a sustainable competitive advantage in Alanya destination. It is a common point that Russian and Germans are two nationalities most frequently visited Alanya, town of Antalya in Turkey. Moreover, every year many Russians and Germans decide to live in

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Korstanje Maximiliano Emanuel

Development and sustainability are terms under a hot debate in anthropology academy today and for a long time more. For one hand, the anthropology for development will argue that societies are located in a continuum in search for rationalization and social evolution; for the other hand, neo-Marxist anthropologists (known as well as anthropology of development) will emphasize the idea that some countries monopolize a major grade of capital with the aim to dominate politically to others weaker counties. By utilizing the ideology in educating undeveloped countries for an efficient economic resources administration, First World deploys a combination of financial assistance and ideological discourses enrooted in the paradigm of development, heritage, cultural tourism and sustainability to keep the control in a changing world. Likewise, the development not only is a troublesome concept -in part very difficult to grasp- but also comprises a mechanism to create a bridge between material exploitation and human's necessities. The present paper insists in the importance of development critical in these types of issues.

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Doğan Kutukiz, M. Akif Öncü & Ahmet Akcan

The capital structures of the enterprises and the factors that affect these structures have been dealt with extensively in literature. The experimental studies of Modigliani-Miller conducted within the context of developed countries' economic and institutional structures showed that capital structure does not affect the enterprise value. On the other hand, other studies revealed that the changes in the market affected the enterprises' finance structure and their finance preferences. In this study, the factors that determine the structure of the tourism enterprises are studied in an environment where market deficiencies abound. The study also looks at the changes that are caused by these factors especially during the crisis of during crisis period of 1998 – 2006.

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Olga Lysikova

Today the role of cultural heritage in the process of creation of the images of national identity becomes the sphere of intent research interest. In the focus of this interest there are the following matters: participation of tourists in the processes of globalization and cultural exchange. Touristic world is structured according to aesthetic criteria. In the pictures of the artists of the XIX century who took off to travel down Volga, to observe and to work in the open air we can trace artistic evolution of landscape painting. The largest European river is a spatial object regularly recalled in academic and artistic discourses, which is also scenery and a place of observation for many generations of aborigines and tourists. Volga River serves a certain highlighter of construction of national identity, symbolizes historical succession of cultural heritage, is a cultural-aesthetic topos of tourism and travelling filled with personal images.

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Aimilia Voulvouli

This essay discusses the cultural construction of the Namibian landscape by tourism advertising material, treating landscape photography as a language which can be analysed through signs. Nevertheless, since signs require a consensus of communication, a contextualisation of the pictures will also be made. Therefore, below I will attempt firstly, to discuss the

theoretical context in which the pictures will be analyzed, secondly, to present the geographical context in which the pictures were born and thirdly to discuss the pictures as signs by locating the points de capiton within them.

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Vlami Aimilia, Tsamos George & Zacharatos Gerassimos

Mountains occupy approximately one/fifth of the total surface of the earth and have been progressively transformed into important tourist destinations. Many developed countries have traced and implemented remarkable state interventions to promote tourism development in their mountain areas. State planning, fundamentally, intervenes in a compensating and balancing way, creating the necessary terms and conditions for the smooth formation of the necessary tourist capital at national, regional and local level. This paper evaluates the effectiveness of the state tourism policy in selected mountain prefectures of Greece (Ioannina, Evritania and Kastoria), according to the mountain zone typology used by UNEP-WCMC. The evaluation of the three entirely mountain prefectures according to selected aspects of the tourism policy implemented and the hotel evolutionary geographical distribution highlights a policy gap as regards tourism development in the Greek mountain areas; such tourism development has been progressively incorporated in the general regionalisation policy adopted of Greek tourism.

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Lóránt Dávid

The results presented in this research note are our first attempt to measure the competitiveness of regions. Having compared the current results to the previous studies of competitiveness, we can say that Hungary's second most important tourist destination is more affected than is justified by the situation of in-country tourism competitiveness. Consequently a different tourism development strategy should be adopted by the decision-makers. While in Budapest and Central Danube Tourism Region, in some cases – taking into consideration the conservation of environmental values - the improvements in many areas may still be green-field and new investments, as opposed to Lake Balaton Tourism Region, where primarily the development of the existing infrastructure and

quality improvement are the main focus. With regard to the first region mentioned above, for some areas it may be more desirable to increase the volume of tourists. For the Lake Balaton Tourism Region a quality development program, of current services, is needed.

SUSTAINABILITY OF YOUTH TOURISTS IN EVENT TOURISM: THE MALAYSIAN EXPERIENCES 503

Habibah Ahmad, Hamzah Jusoh & Noor Alyanie Nor Azazi

Youth tourists are becoming more influential as one of the market potentials in both developed and developing countries. Besides their conventional characters of being individuals, travels with tight budget and preferred non guided tours or on backpackers, youth tourists also play significant roles in event tourism which are more specific in term of schedules and themes. However, youth sustainability of event tourism is hardly discussed in tourism studies in Malaysia. Based on a case study of Visit Malaysia Year 2007 and a convenient sampling of 130 respondents, this article draws the perspective of youth tourists in event tourism. The findings showed that the clarity of youth tourists in event tourism, form of participation and event suitability act as the mediating factors that encouraged youths' participation in event tourism. Sustainability of youth tourists in event tourism also depends on the promotional campaigns and knowing the youth tourists' desires and capabilities.

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EDITORIAL

This is the fourteenth issue of TOURISMOS, finishing its seventh year of publication. In the previous thirteen issues, our multidisciplinary journal aimed at providing a platform that supports the transmission of new scholarly discoveries in the fields of tourism and hospitality, and we have been excited about offering a platform that supports scholars in building upon intellectual treasures and advancing our understanding about various fields of research in novel and meaningful ways. Capitalising on this effort, we now focus on furthering our scope and consolidating our position in both conceptual developments and practical applications in tourism, travel, leisure and hospitality.

The various research papers presented in this issue, address a number of topics namely package and mass tourism, the effect of e-services in tourism and cultural heritage, tourists' motivations and perceptions about tourism destinations, management of tourism clusters, hotel employee involvement in strategic human resources management, investments and turnover in the restaurant sector, the impact of country-specific macroeconomic factors on hotel chain expansion, social media in destination marketing, sustainable tourism and tour operators, travel demand and economic growth, management of special events, demand for nature-based tourism and mystery shopping for hotel services. The case studies examine various interesting topics like tourism planning, cultural tourism, alternative forms of tourism and promotion. Finally, research notes focus on various interdisciplinary issues related to tourism and hospitality.

Based on the previous analysis, we trust that you will enjoy reading the present issue, and we look forward to presenting you our next in spring 2013!

Paris Tsartas
Editor-in-Chief

Evangelos Christou
Editor

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COMPARING CUSTOMER-SATISFACTION EVALUATION METHODS, IN THE CONTEXT OF INDUSTRIAL HERITAGE SITES

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SEA LIFE

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Nottingham University

There is a rich variety of customer satisfaction evaluation techniques, nevertheless rarely other approaches than the attribute-orientated ones are used. Therefore the article gives a short overview on existing alternatives and their specifics in the first part. The second part focuses on an evaluation of those methods in a practical way, by applying a bunch of methods in the context of leisure research. Based on an industrial heritage site, attribute-orientated-, incident-orientated approaches as well as silent hooping techniques are applied, in order to research their specifics and to evaluate the data provide by each methodological approach. Specific opportunities and threats are elaborated for each method in the context of leisure research.

Keywords: *heritage; tourism; evaluation; customer-satisfaction; methodology*

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

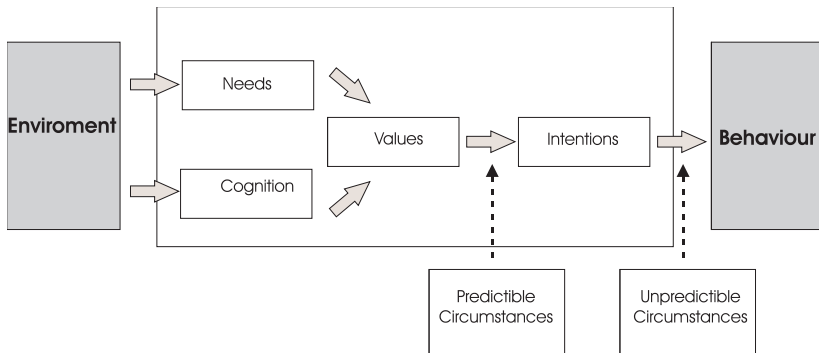
APPROACHES TO MEASURE CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

Due to the increasing competition in the tourism industry and continuously changing consumer behaviour and needs, the private tourism sector started in 1990 to focus on customer satisfaction. Taking a demand



perspective, one could argue this increasing awareness on consumer perception and satisfaction might be the foundation in social psychological attitude models. The focus on consumer perception has its theoretical inheritance from US American social psychologists such as Rosenberg, Fishbein and Ajzen, which is applied in various contexts for example, retail and transportation or leisure and tourism research. The attitude models suggest that objective conditions fail to be relevant for consumer behaviour. Thus, more nuanced extensions accommodate such phenomena by suggesting that the subjective perception (adequacy) and performance (importance) are used by consumers to rate the importance of the attributes and the adequacy of the brand. One of the most frequently used multiattributive attitude model is the Customer Satisfaction Index (cf. Töpfer, 1999, p.315). However, the multidimensional construct is widely used, in particular the tricomponent attitude model (illustrated in figure 1), which includes an affective, a cognitive and conative component (see Kroeber-Riel, 1984).

Figure 1

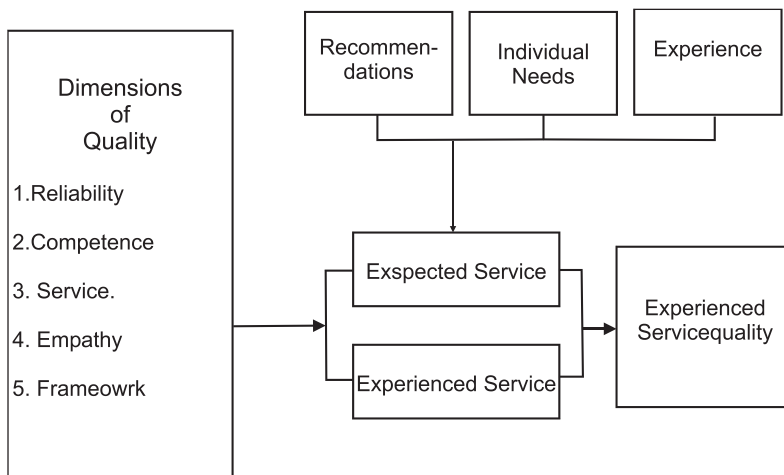


The attitude models were used to explain and partly predict customers' decision-making process. However, it has failed to incorporate variables, which has lead to extensions and complementation of the model (see the extended figure 1 including anticipated variables). The main principle of all attribute-based approaches to analyse customer and visitor satisfaction is that the attitude to an offer is based on the sum of the brand's attributive values. In particular, market research analyses customer satisfaction with concrete products including clearly distinguishable attributes. On the other hand, service product offers

encompass various contacts and components, which are analysed with this approach to gather (averaged) attributive values. Thus, several mean values for each component, e.g. friendliness of employees or physical evidence (atmosphere) are collected and the single values will be included in the evaluation; however, the single contribution cannot be identified retrospectively.

Although such methodological issues are prevalent, the attitude models constitute the basis for the prevailing pursued research to analyse customer and visitor satisfaction. One of the main and constitutive approaches is the process-orientated perspective of the expectation-disconfirmation model (cf. Matzler, 1997, Oliver, 1980). This model explains satisfaction as a result of the cognitive comparison process between expected and perceived performance quality. However, the actual comparison process is carried out in the last of the three phases of the model as illustrated in figure 2.

Figure 2



In the first phase, the emerging of attitudes, attitudes are considered as a phase of expectations, which emerge from implicit and explicit comparisons of different options including word-of-mouth and therefore creates the corporate image. In the second phase, perception, the consumer or visitor encounters directly the product or service. In the third phase, the emerging comparison process, the consumer evaluates the result considering the expected versus the actual performance and

differentiates between the individual expectation and the perceived reality – the actual product or service performance.

Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985, p.44) developed a GAP model. The model is considered as service-quality model and indicates five gaps (figure 3), which explains that the consumer evaluate the service performance according to the differences (gap) between expected and perceived service. The model identifies five gaps, which cause unsuccessful service delivery. These gaps are the consequence of differences in service delivery and the expected service quality (cf. Müller, 2000, p.32):

Gap 1: Gap between consumer expectation and management perception

Gap 2: Gap between management perception and service quality specification

Gap 3: Gap between service quality specification and service delivery

Gap 4: Gap between service delivery and external communications

Gap 5: Gap between perceived service and delivered service.

Although gap 5 is the focus when analysing customer satisfaction, the preceding four gaps are considered as foundation where the fifth gap is complementary to ensure an overall customer satisfaction analysis.

Taking the 5-gap model further, Parasuramann et al (1988) developed the SERVQUAL approach, incorporating attitude and satisfaction components to assess and measure service quality. This assessment is conceptualised with an attitude and satisfaction component. The focus is not an absolute value rather than the difference between expected and perceived service performance. The assessment is based on five service quality dimensions, namely reliability, competence, responsiveness, empathy, tangibles. Structured interviews were carried out to operationalise customers' expectation and perception through five point scale structure with a 22-item instrument.

However, a central problem of all approaches based on the adequacy-importance-perspective is that it implies:

- The expectation might be considered as the ideal condition and
- The model is linear compensatory in nature (the approach fails to reflect negative aspects when performance exceeds expectation, thus unsatisfactory items are compensated through satisfactory items) (Buttle, 1996; Robinson, 1999).

Figure 3

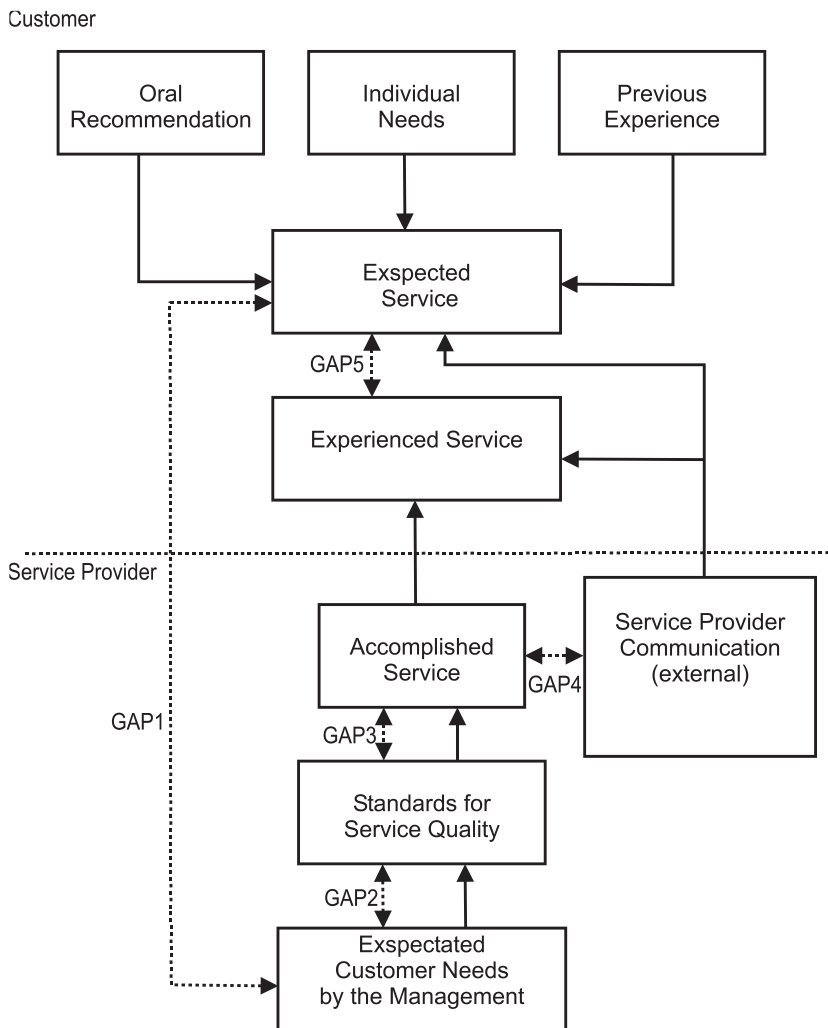
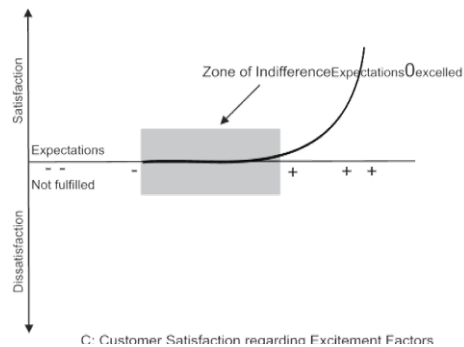
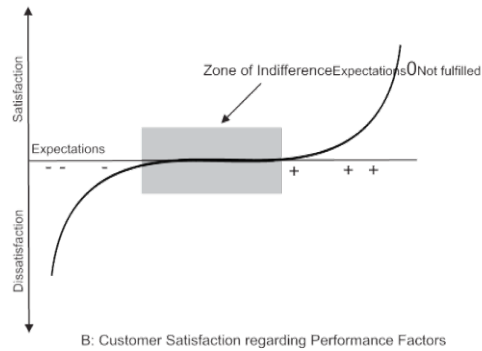
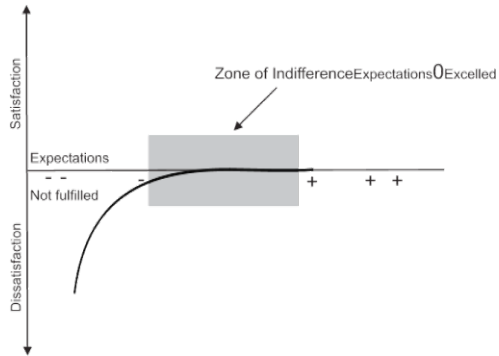


Figure 4



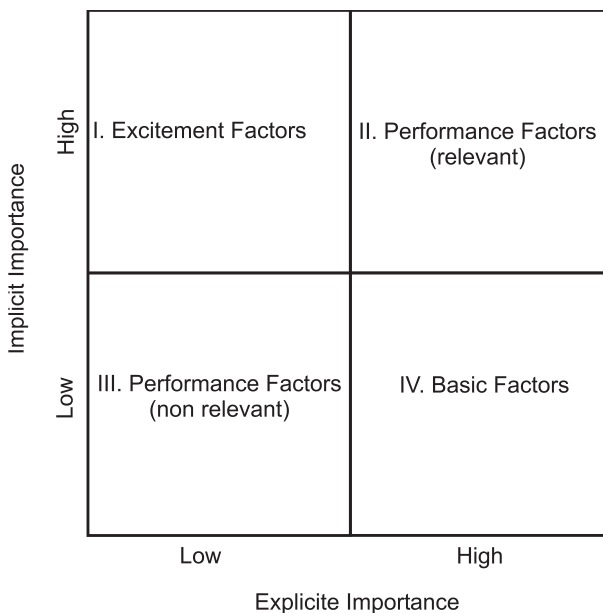
Moreover, a possible expectational inflation is not met (more detail see e.g. Dreyer/Dehner, 1998, p. 102-106; Töpfer, 1999, p. 314-324). By taking a multi-factor approach to operationalise customer satisfaction in marketing, the ‘Three-factor-structure’ appears more reliable to compare between expected and actual performance and is nowadays widely acknowledged (Matzler, Pechlaner and Siller, 2001).

The Three-factor-structure differentiates among following components (as illustrated in figure 4):

Basic factors build a market entry “threshold”, as these are the customers’ minimum requirements a service or product need to perform. Otherwise if not fulfilled it causes customers’ dissatisfaction.

Performance factors constitute competition barriers in the market. In this case the consumer is satisfied if expectations are exceeded – and dissatisfaction if expectations are not fulfilled.

Figure 5



Excitement factors include opportunities for the service provider to increase significantly perceived customers’ benefits (in comparison to competitors), provided that basic and performance factors are fulfilled.

These factors are not expected by the customer. However, these factors are able to increase customer satisfaction if available but do not decrease customer satisfaction if not available. Excitement factors cannot offset the lack of basic and performance factors (cf. Matzler and Sauerwein, 2002, p.318; Füller and Matzler, 2008).

The three-factor model exemplifies a hierarchical structure. Customer satisfaction therefore emerges “if the basic factors are not disconfirmed negatively, performance factors evaluated positively, and excitement factors perceived” (Matzler et al, 2001, p. 448). Moreover, the customer satisfaction construct is in this context characterised by individual expectancy benefits and temporal dynamics. Of further importance, social change processes, particularly the increase of experience and therefore changing expectations of individuals play an important role in this model. Thus, excitement factors may become performance factors and later develop to basic factors.

Concerning the identification of the factors, there are several approaches; however, the effort for data collection and analysis is relatively high. The new instrument, the two-dimensional “Importance Grid” developed by Vavra (1997) can diminish the effort; however, little empirical research has been done yet (cf. Vavra, 1997; Homburg and Werner, 1998). Vavra (1997) suggests that the three satisfaction factors can be derived from the combination of two types of attribute importance, termed explicit (customer's self-stated importance) and implicit (statistically derived) importance (see figure 5). On the one hand, a questionnaire is used to obtain directly relevant data about customer's self-stated attribute importance; on the other hand, the implicit importance is determined indirectly by calculating a multiple regression of attribute satisfaction in correlation to external criteria, e.g. overall satisfaction (cf. Smith and Deppa, 2009).

Following the attribute-oriented approaches, the customer value construct or the perceived customer value has recently been used to contribute further to satisfaction research. Based on economic research the customer value construct incorporates satisfaction/perceived benefits, and perceived costs. This construct determines “the gap perceived by the customer between the perceived (multidimensional) benefit and the perceived (multidimensional) costs/prices compared to its competitors” (Matzler, 2000, p.290).

These approaches explained above have in common that they investigate individual attributes of evaluated products and belong therefore to attribute-orientated methods. Much research in economics uses these approaches because the focus is on clearly defined products

with clearly defined attributes. However, in the field of human geography such as retail, transportation, or leisure and tourism the investigated products are intangible and complex incorporating various components such services and tourism experiences made by customers, passengers, or visitors. Thus, it can be argued that the product-attribute approaches, typically used in economics, are less appropriate for attribute research in human geography than a consumer-oriented approach.

Even if multi-attributive concepts of service quality are traditional models to analyse customer satisfaction, there are a great number of approaches to be found in market research. The reason behind the extensive circulation of these approaches, which have nowadays almost a monopoly, can be explained by the clear and precise results it produces, and can be further used for benchmarking. Another central reason for its usage is that the commercial-oriented market research works with multi-attributive measures because with relatively little effort feasible results can be generated. Considering other approaches, however, these are

- in part more time-consuming and more complex, or
- generate mainly qualitative data, which
- are more difficult to compare and analyse.

In addition, operational Marketing has criticised the capacity of traditional multi-attributive approaches. Stauss and Hentschel (1992) claim that “the traditional, standardised and attribute-based quality and satisfaction surveys seem to be unable to reflect the quality perception of service customers completely and the results are not sufficiently differentiated with respect to the information needs of the quality management” (p.116). The variety of methods used to capture customer satisfaction is illustrated in figure 6. Generally, customer satisfaction can be classified in “subjective procedures” and “objective procedures”.

On the one hand, the objective methods, does not involve the visitor directly, but as a person who takes an (objective) expert’s position and tests the product or the reaction of the customer:

Using the approach “Silent Shopper” or “Mystery Guest”, trained people imitate a mystery shopper who simulates visitors- or customers’ experiences.

A systematic observation of visitors and their direct reaction upon an offer is used to estimate service quality

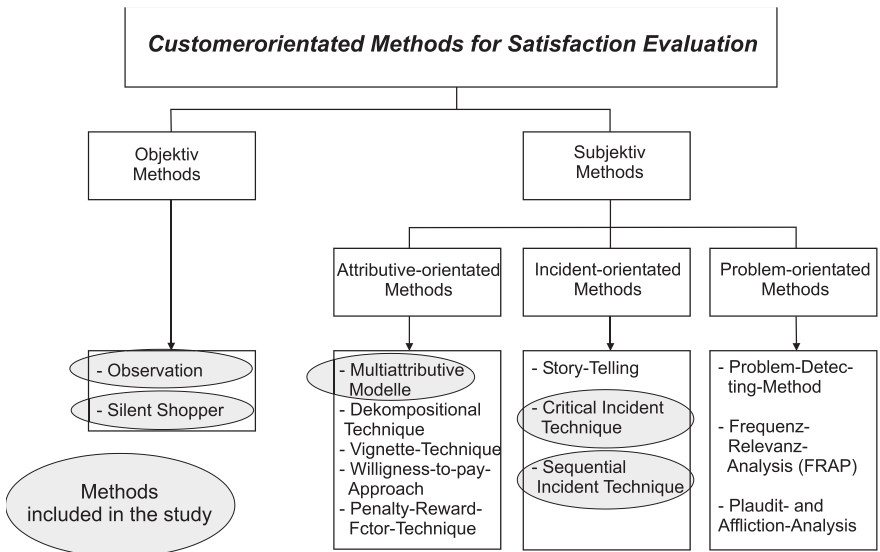
Although these approaches are explained for the most part of textbooks for market research, they are hardly used in practice with only a slow increase of the Mystery Guest-approach in recent years.

On the other hand, subjective customer-oriented measuring methods include attributive-oriented, but also incident-oriented approaches. In particular, in the hospitality sector with relatively co-ordinated service processes based on complex activities (reservation, arrival, check-in, stay, restaurant, departure), customer satisfaction is occasionally analysed using incident-oriented approaches. This approach is used to reproduce individual encounters between service provider and customer to analyse customer satisfaction (cf. Dreyer and Dehner, 1998, p.78).

One of the incident-oriented approaches, called sequential incident technique (cf. Bruhn, 1997; Strauss and Weinlich, 1997) provides a more detailed differentiation and analysis of the customer/visitors experience than the attribute-oriented methods. The aim of the method is to capture all customer experiences according to the sequential transactions of the consumption process and to develop a customer/visitor path following all phases. Generally, the analysis of incident-oriented approaches is relatively time-consuming requiring following four stages:

1. Defining the customer path
2. Collecting the incidents on the basis of the customer path
3. Capture all relevant incidents
4. Define the contact point, episode and transaction quality

Figure 6



Another measurement is the Critical Incident Technique (CIT), which pursues a different approach. It records single events or critical incidents that are either particularly satisfactory or particularly unsatisfactory, but does not capture the holistic consumption path (which often is highly distinctive and complex) (Bitner et al, 1985). CIT is used to identify extreme strength and weaknesses within the customer path. Similarly, problem-solving methods such as the analysis of complaints and compliments (cf. Cadotte and Turgeon, 1988, Johnston, 1995), measure primarily the extreme weaknesses (strength to a lesser extent) and as such the top of the iceberg of customer (dis-)satisfaction whereas the mean value between weaknesses and strength is disregarded.

Concerning the incident-oriented approaches, it is to be noted that these are not to be mistaken as a substitute of attribute-oriented approaches. Straus and Hentschel (1992) highlight that attribute-aided procedures and incident-oriented methods cover different aspects of service quality. Therefore, it appears appropriate not to consider these approaches as substitutes but rather as complementary methods (p.121). However, both methods have not been investigated systematically for synergies when combining both approaches.

The aim of this project was to compare empirically these distinctive methods. To do so, traditional subjective, attribute-oriented methods to measure multi-attributive attitudes of visitors and other measurements are compared and evaluated. Therefore, following methods – marked in figure 6 – are applied to an industrial heritage context to test its capacity:

- Objective measurements
 - Observation
 - Silent Shopping / Mystery Guest
- Subjective, incident-oriented methods
 - Sequential Incident Technique
 - Critical Incident Technique

Specifically, the incident-oriented approaches were taken into account. Strauss and Hentschel (1992) have used these methods in the context of services to analyse customer satisfaction within the German car industry. Both hypotheses were confirmed:

1. The incident-oriented quality measurement yield more detailed information than the attribute-oriented method (p.117) and
2. The incident-oriented quality measurement yield additional and therefore more complete information than the attribute-oriented method (p.118).

Additionally, Dyer and Dehner (1998) argue that the measure is appropriate in order to generate relatively complete and solid information

about the quality perception of the customer in different stages of the service processes.

CHOOSING THE INDUSTRIAL HERITAGE SITE ZECH ZOLLERN

Long time industry and culture were used as antagonistic terms. Their combination was unbeknown as were industry, heritage and tourism. In particular Sweden and Great Britain were cutting-edge nations in the field of industrial heritage and its touristic development. (see Soyes 1986, p.107f.)

It was only in the 1970th when the perception changed. Also Germany came to a “stronger awareness, that technical monuments form part of a society’s cultural heritage” (Hüchering 1999, p.289).

But the interest in industrial heritage and relating museums developed slowly. It was only in the middle of 1990th that industrial heritage sites achieved the status of potential destinations for leisure and vacation for a bigger part of the population. The only low augmentation of demand can be explained by the fact, that industrial landscapes had a negative image for a long time and simply did not correspond with the classical picture of attractive leisure and tourism choice (see Soyez 1993, p.42f.).

An attitude shift was introduced especially by the IBA Emscher Park in the 1990th. Since that time the Ruhrgebiet is trying to build its touristic and leisure profile on industrial heritage.

One of the most important elements of this strategy is the implementation of “Route der Industriekultur” (route of industrial heritage). Within this touristic route, central anchor points of industrial heritage have been packaged (see KVR 1999).

On the same page it has to be pointed out, that industrial heritage sites and museums are normally not self explaining. This means that a didactic preparation of the sites has to be undertaken. Therefore different approaches on information and knowledge transfer are used. This ranges from

- museum-like attractions with traditional knowledge transfer by showcases and explanation boards,
- destinations that add new media content to underline their infotainment character,
- stronger visitor participation (e.g. themed guided tours),
- orchestration of the sites with light and sound effects to produce a genuine impression.

By now it is the classical forms of interpretation that dominate; modern presentation and a direct activation of visitors are rare or only offered at certain times throughout the year.

Figure 7

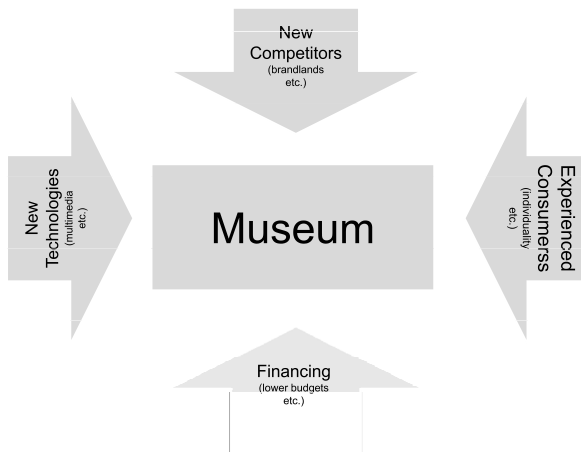


Foto 1



Foto 2



Huecherig already stated in 1997 (Huecherig 1997, p.72f.), that industrial heritage sites have to be prepared experience-driven, if the wider population is to be addressed and visitors should be attracted. As a reason he mentions the fact that expected standards of potential consumers have significantly risen over the recent years (more detail see Agricola 200, Hennings 2000, Steinecke 2000). On the same page, the range of consumer orientated leisure attractions that meet these expectations on entertainment and involvement, rose significantly in the 1990th. On the other hand the financial flexibility of the mainly public founded museums is much more difficult nowadays than it was in the 1980th, regarding the financial obstacles many local authorities are facing. This limits the possibilities of realizing staged concepts.

These challenges, that Heinze (1999, see fig. 7) formulates also apply to industrial heritage sites whose purpose is to inform the public.

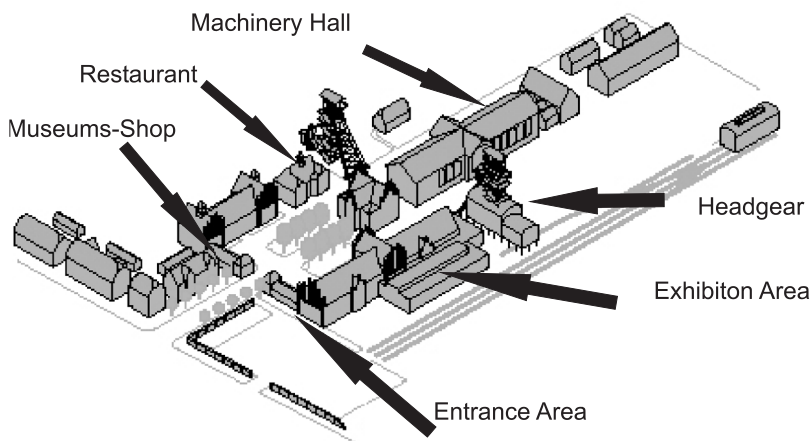
Zeche Zollern in Dortmund, one of the anchor points of the rout of industrial heritage, was chosen as the example site. Besides directly showing industrial heritage (pit frame, machine hall, see pic. 1), the

building that used to serve as pithead bath, is now accommodating a comprehensive documentation of mining and its history as well as culture of daily life in the Ruhrgebiet (see pic. 2). It intensively uses media and involves and activates visitors with various exhibits. The buildings on the grounds of Zeche Zollern are built in the style of brick gothic. That is why it represents one of the most important examples for the staging of the meaning of mining at its development (see pic. 3).

Foto 3



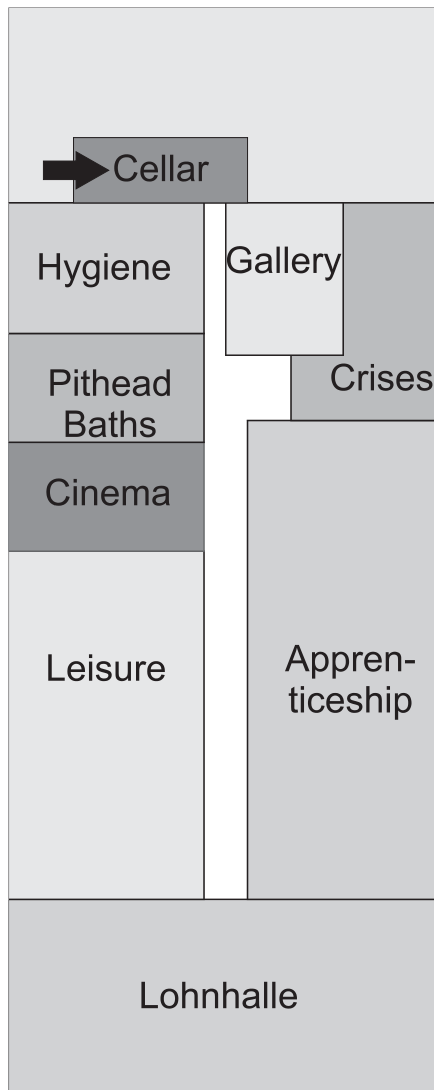
Figure 8



The area also shows the advantage of being clearly structured. This avoids complex structures when setting up the blueprint for the visitor path (see fig. 8). From the entrance and till area, the visitor reaches the exhibition via the Lohnhalle (where workers used to receive their pay). After exiting the exhibition, the pit frame and the former machine hall are the main points of interest. The way to the exit passes the restaurant and leads into the museums shop where you leave the area.

Also the exhibition itself is clearly structured and well arranged, so that it is possible to follow visitors without coming too close (see fig. 9). Via the Lohnhalle visitors reach the exhibition itself. It starts with covering “Education in Mining” and “Leisure in the Ruhrgebiet”. In the small theatre short historical films on the Ruhrgebiet are shown. This area is followed by a reconstructed part of the pithead bath that leads into the topic “Hygiene and Health”. Via a small themed tunnel the visitor reaches the part that covers the crisis of the mining industry. The hall can be exited via the former lamp room, but it is also possible to visit the basement, where security is covered and a special kids area is built in.

Figure 9



Approach

The initial idea was that it would be possible to apply different methods of measuring customer satisfaction to normal visitors of an attraction. Hence an experimental approach was chosen. This method has successfully been applied in psychological research, but almost completely ignored in social science. The participants face the setting “industrial heritage” in a way that the different research approaches of visitor analysis can be used. The probands themselves are not aware of the methods and their sequence. The experiment of comparing different methods was conducted with a project group of students at the University of Paderborn.

After defining the 12 steps of a possible visitor path through the premises and the preparation of the different instruments, the visit at Zeche Zollern took place, declared as explorative field trip.

Figure 10

Apprentice eship	text	☐ Not seen ☐ Start reading ☒ Not readed ☐ Read through	Plays with the terminal schließt sich Gruppe an 👉 No sound „Fuck“
	5 exhibit	☐ Not seen ☒ Not checked out ☐ cursory checked ☐ Intensively checked	
	Interaction (terminal)	☐ Not seen ☐ seen, no interaction ☐ starting interaction ☒ Interaction	
	interaction (chute)	☐ Not seen ☐ seen, no interaction ☒ starting interaction ☐ interaction	
	Overall-impression	Quite bored	
	time	☐ <1 min ☐ 1-2 min ☐ 2-4 min ☒ >4 min	

One part of the group was not aware of the purpose of the visit and served as test persons. The other part had been instructed and was lead

through the process during a previous visit in order to take over the role as observers and interviewers.

Before the actual visit a written survey was carried out in which recreational behavior and previous experiences with industrial heritage sites were identified, as well as expectations related to the product. By that the ex-ante weights for those parameters have been determined. These were to be asked again after the visit.

For the observation or contact point analysis it was differentiated (if applicable) between:

- reading explanation boards (cognitive stimulus)
- looking at exhibits or exposure to architecture or machinery using interactive elements

Additionally the time spent in the different areas has been recorded.

It was important to choose the categories in a way that they show a clear and accurate differentiation, which still could be observed from a certain distance. The practicability of the dimensions and categories has been pretested. As a result a four stage scale could be found for all dimensions. It was coded 1 to 4 for the evaluation.

In fig. 10 an extract of the observation form is shown. The form also shows qualitative elements and the order in which the different parts of the attraction have been visited.

At the beginning of the visit the students were given 1,5 hours to explore the area individually. Despite initial concerns none of the observed students realized the fact they were part of an experiment, even if there was always the observing person nearby.

The fact that the students mainly went round the area in small groups helped the approach. The observers also had been advised to let an observed person go in case it went into a remote part of the area. Following the visit (that ended with a cup of coffee for the major part of the group) interviews between observers and observed were conducted in a meeting room of Zeche Zollern. The fact they had been observed was not yet mentioned. Only the initially researched results of the observed students formed part of the evaluation at that point. The first survey covered especially characteristic aspects and their importance. The form was a standard exit survey as it is used in many attractions.

For the evaluation of the different items a five step scale ranging from very negative to very positive was used. For the importance the five step scale ranged from very unimportant to very important. To determine the implicit importance the overall score for the attraction was also identified.

This first interview part was followed by an unprompted listing of aspects that have been memorized in particular (see fig. 11), according to the critical incident technique. Additionally the test persons have been asked for a five scale rating of the aspects they named. For the evaluation only those mentions have been incorporated that do not refer to the attraction in general, but concrete situations.

Figure 11

1.1	a) What stayed in your mind?	Interactive exhibits		b) Why it stayed in your mind?	Lot of things not working		
	c) How would you rate ... ?	Very negative □	negative □	undecided □	positive □	very positive □	

1.2	a) What stayed in your mind?	henhouse		b) Why it stayed in your mind?	funny, not expected		
	c) How would you rate ... ?	Very negative □	negative □	undecided □	positive □	very positive □	

In a third step the sequentielle contact method has been used. All parts of the attraction were mentioned in the order they had been visited by the test persons. These were asked to rate the different parts on a five step scale (see fig. 12). After a preparation following the experiment, an evaluation scheme for the silent shopping was produced with the students. As a last step, expert ratings were conducted on a last field trip. Other elements, that will not be referred to in more detail, were a content analysis of the marketing communication and interviews with the management of Zeche Zollern.

Given the very small sample size of only 12 probands respectively 21 expert ratings for the silent shopping, the results themselves are not to be considered representative. The major aim of the experiment was to fathom the adequacy to identify strengths and weaknesses.

Despite the small sample size, a couple of interesting results could be found. A few of them will be presented in the following chapter.

Figure 12

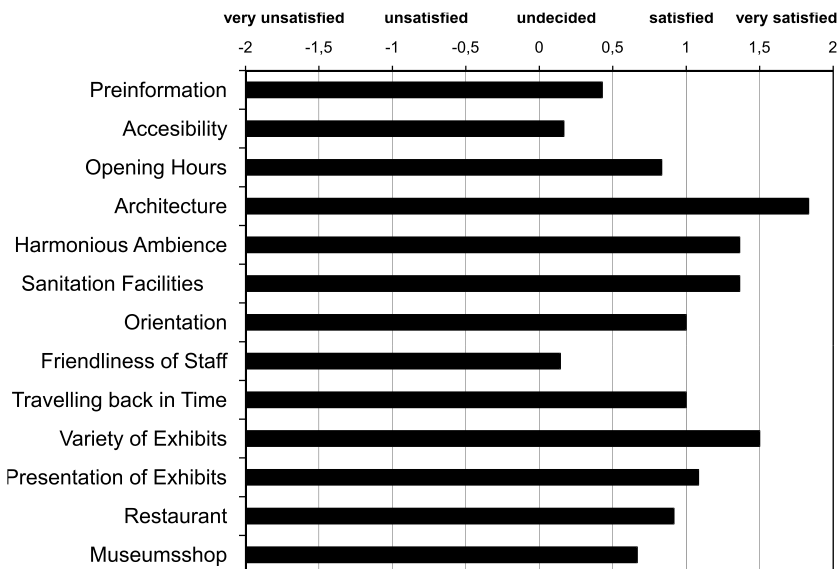
2.5	In the segment „Apprenticeship is there anything staying in your mind?	☐ no, not been there ☐ no, no recognition	☒ yes, because school-certificate	b) Why it stayed in your mind?	Boring exhibits	
	c) How would you rate ... ?	Very negative ☐	negative ☐	undecided ☐	positive ☒	very positive ☐

RESULTS OF THE MULTI-VARIABLE SURVEY

The overall satisfaction rate of 1,5 (between satisfied and very satisfied) shows a high degree of satisfaction with the offer. This could also be noticed with the group. Also the other two standard questions on the indirect determination of the overall satisfaction, one intention to recommend, and two intention to revisit (both on a five step scale from certainly not to certainly yes) showed relatively good results. For the intention to recommend a mean of 1,25 was found, that correlates highly significant at 0,7 with overall satisfaction. For the intention to revisit an arithmetic average of 0,92, without major spreads, was found. This corresponds to the most popular answer “yes, maybe”. Whether this indicator shows a realistic picture of satisfaction or the students do (not yet) from part of the main target group of industrial heritage sites, could not be determined, even in the following discussion. Following the positive overall satisfaction, also a major part of the single results on

features of the offer were positive, even though a clear differentiation could be seen (see fig. 13).

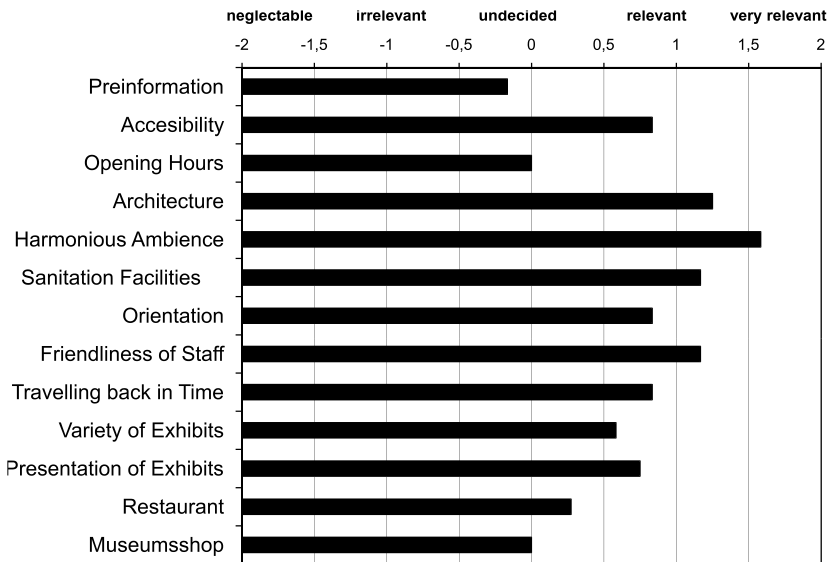
Figure 13



The probands confirmed a convincing architectural impression and a coherent atmosphere, meaning a high degree of authenticity. The high number of objects was well arranged, so that the test persons felt transferred into the past. On the other side, accessibility and pre-visit information only received average ratings. It must be said that, unlike a normal visitor survey, accessibility only covers public transport, as the group travelled by train. The item pre-visit information reflects the results of the tasks for the probands, to gather information on the web about the visited location. A significant drop against the other items can be seen with friendliness of staff. This item shows the lowest satisfaction rate. This indicates certain lacks in service quality.

Seeing the importance in fig. 14, that correspond to the single dimensions, relatively high scores can be observed for the aspects rated more than average, architecture and atmosphere. On the other hand also the slightly low satisfaction scores on accessibility and staff friendliness are also rated with a high explicit meaning.

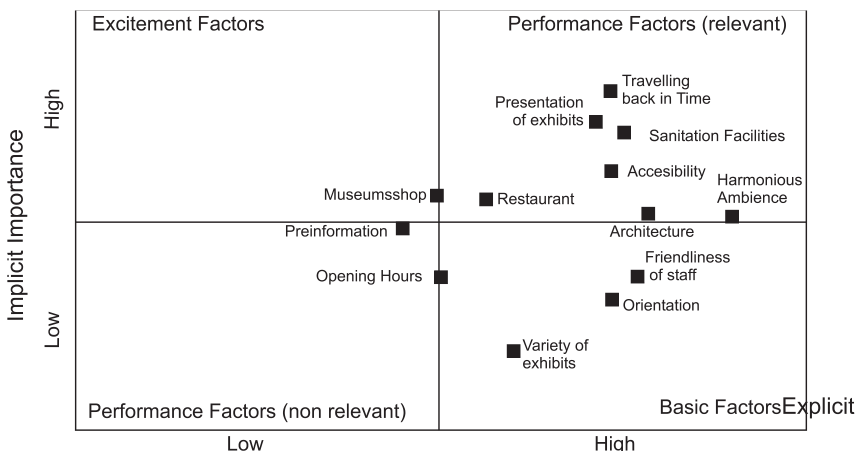
Figure 14



By multiplying these single ratings with the collected meanings, an overall engagement according to the adequacy-importance-method can be calculated. This turned out as 1,0 (transformed on a scale -2 to +2). This means that the overall satisfaction rate gained from the single ratings is considerably lower than the satisfaction score expressed spontaneously at the beginning of the interview. But as per the attitude model shown in fig. 1, the attitude score (in a narrow sense) affects the desired behavior (cognitive component); a good match with the stated intention to revisit can be seen.

To produce an importance grid (see fig. 15), not only the directly surveyed (explicit) importance, but also the implicit importance needed do be determined. The latter is calculated as the standardized regression coefficient with the (directly surveyed) overall satisfaction as dependant variable and the single satisfaction items as independent variables (see Matzler/Sauerwein/Stark 1994, p.460).

Figure 15



From the importance grid shown in fig. 15 you can see that none of the surveyed aspects acts as a real excitement factor (I. quadrant). Given the high explicit importance, i.e. the standards the probands have, only the restaurant and the museum shop show tendency towards excitement factors. At the same time, there are hardly any areas where the attractions offers elements that are not appreciated by the probands (unimportant performance factors in quadrant III.). A wide range of exhibits means for orientation and helpful staff are considered as self-evident basic factors. Given the fact that staff friendliness received the lowest scores, a need for action on that item can be seen. As the items identified as performance indicators show relatively good results, there is no immediate need for change. But a stronger staging of the presentation could help the extraordinary performance factor “to be transferred into the past” to achieve a better result, so that the overall satisfaction can be risen significantly.

Overall the results achieved by the item related approach reflect a high degree of visitor satisfaction of the probands. It became clear that the differentiation of single items compared to the overall satisfaction gives additional findings, despite a relatively high overall score. By using the importance grid, fields to be worked on could also be identified.

Comparison of expectations and experience

With the group of probands there was the option of an ex-ante / ex-post comparison of expectations. This is usually difficult to realize. Relating to the expectation-disconfirmation model (see fig. 2), the background knowledge on industrial heritage of the test persons has been determined via an ex-ante survey. It showed that the students were not part of the main users of museums. The visiting frequency in fig. 16 shows that a high proportion has visited different facilities not at all or only once during the last year. Only castles show a slightly higher intensity. Even if most of the students had already heard of the route of industrial heritage, only half of them had already visited at least one attraction of that kind. It must be added that it was students from the faculty for geography and tourism. The route of industrial heritage was covered in different lectures and most of the mentioned visits happened on field trips. Only two students had been to Zeche Zollern before.

Figure 16

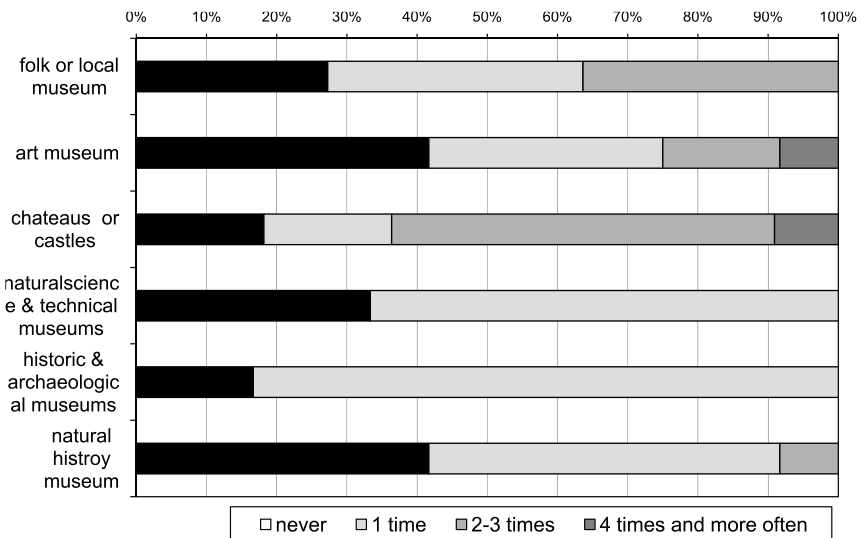
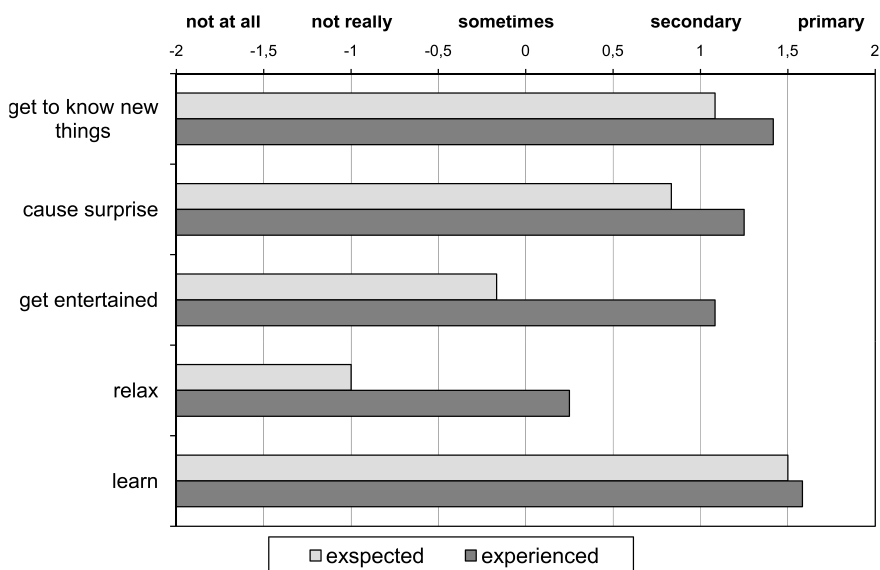


Figure 17



That the probands not really considered industrial heritage sites as attractive options to spend leisure time previous to the visit, is illustrated by the assumptions mentioned beforehand, which sort of experience is offered there (see fig. 17). The image of industrial heritage attractions is dominated by the conception you could “learn” and “make new experiences”. Significantly lower were the expectations towards the more hedonistic reasons “being entertained” and “relaxing”. After the visit the picture is clearly different. The positive experience that is also reflected in the rating of the overall impression is marked by the fact that the visit was also considered as entertaining and exciting (despite the excursion taking place on an educational background). This indicates that the marketing strategies might rely too much on cognitive aspects rather than the combination with affective experiences that are typical for edutainment attractions.

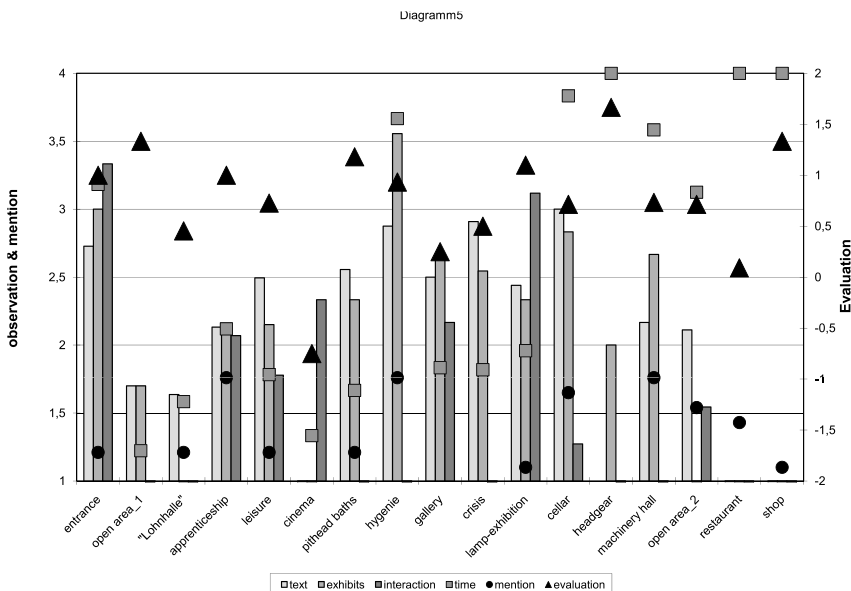
Comparing ex ante and ex post scores only resulted in minor variances. Only the two concrete aspects restaurant and shop, that were considered as relatively unimportant beforehand, gained in importance from the probands perspective. Connections between scores and changes

in importance, e.g. positive aspects also gain in importance, could not be proofed.

Results of the observation

Referring to the methodology presented in section 3, the following four dimensions were included at each of the so called contact points: reading of explanation boards (cognitive stimulus), looking at exhibits or exposure to architecture or machinery, using of interactive elements and additionally the time spent in the different areas. In figure 18 the averages of each dimension are presented for each contact point. As visible in the figure the interaction in each setting is rather different. After the intensive interaction with the wide range of information given right after the entrance area, the following two areas are rather neglected by the visitors. In the main exhibition hall a quite cursory interplay is visible within the first two sectors dealing with apprenticeship in mining industry and traditional leisure activities within the region. In the following setting, which is designed following the layout of a 1950's cinema, also a rather low interaction-level has to be stated, what may be explained by the quite long time horizon in-between the presentation of the movie.

Figure 18



Page 1

The following section dealing with hygiene and healthfulness in mining industry is able to reach the highest amount of attention amongst all sections. Nevertheless the thematic area dealing with the major mining industry crises and the following lamp-exhibition were able to reach rather long duration of stay. While discussing those two areas it has to be mentioned that the majority of visitors only took a brief look on the text, regarding the interactive exhibits also only timid interaction can be recorded. To sum up the results within the main exhibition hall from a methodological point of view, a relatively high correlation regarding the time spent and interaction with the given setting can be recorded.

After leaving the exhibition hall, which offers a rather conventional museum setting the majority of the visitors spend their time in the cellar below the main exhibition area, which mainly aims on children and therefore does not refer to their specific interests.

Foto 5



Outside the exhibition-hall the two dominating buildings of the complex, the machinery hall and the headgear draw the attention of the visitors. Contrasting to the exhibition hall only a limited amount of textual or interactive stimuli exist. Therefore the experience is based on the “in-situ-situation” of the buildings. The end of the tour is than characterized by a pretty long stay in the gastronomic are and the following museums-shop.

To return to the methodological opportunities given by this approach a clear identification of specific areas, which need a further optimization can be concluded.

Foto 6



In the survey following the just described observation, the visitors were asked which exhibition areas they really remember, the results showed a correlations between the times spend, the level of interaction and the memories of the visitors. The exhibition areas “apprenticeship in mining industry”, “hygiene” and the children’s area in the cellar showed a significantly higher nomination than the other areas.

That the before mentioned variables of commemoration, time spend and level of interaction not necessarily lead to a high satisfaction level becomes obvious by considering figure 18. When contrasting the satisfaction level with the before mentioned dimensions, especially those areas not being part of the museums-style main exhibition hall get high satisfaction ratings. The headgear, the museums-shop and the experience of the overall complex are those dimensions contributing to a high satisfaction level, but the time spend in those areas is rather short. On the other hand the positively rated areas within the exhibition site show a clear correlation of 0.38 between the times spend and the satisfaction

level. Therefore it has to be distinguished between the evaluation of the museums-style exhibition hall and the authentic “in-situ-situation”.

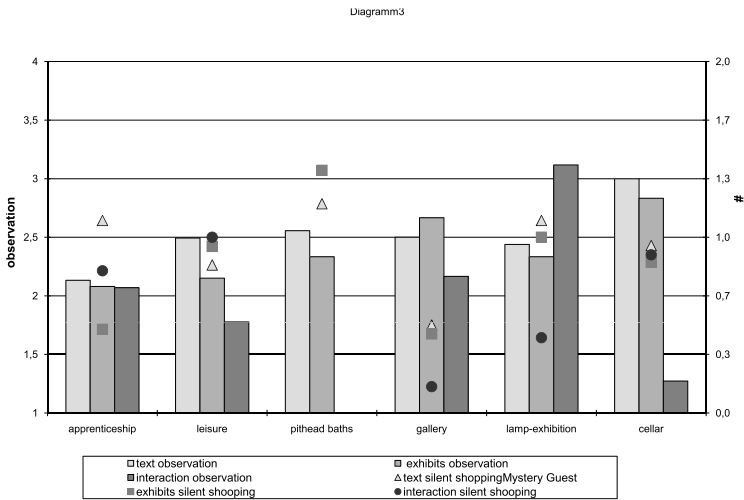
SILENT-SHOPPING RESULTS

In a third step an empirical tool was developed and applied following a silent-shopping approach. This tool was applied within individual visits of students at the chosen site. This methodology was used in order to generate more detailed results on the before already identified weakness of customer interaction. While not presenting any details of this study the competence and the friendliness of the staff was also in the context of the silent-shopping approach the major aspects as it was in the standardized survey.

Referring to the observation regarding the exhibition area also in the silent-shopping approach the dimensions, reading of explanation board, looking at exhibits and using of interactive elements had to be rated. In comparison to the results of the observation (see figure 19) the silent-shopping approach does not provide a coherent data. In case of the hygiene-area for example the results are more positive than the observation results suggest. In other cases right the opposite effect can be witnessed. Nevertheless the arithmetic mean of the ratings within the silent-shopping approach corresponded clearly with the standardized survey (see figure 20).

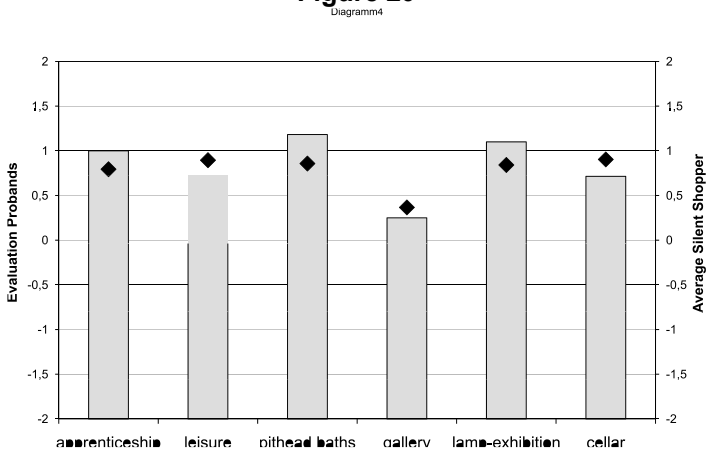
Therefore it can be concluded that the observation of visitors gives details on the attractiveness of specific section of the exhibition, but unfortunately no conclusion regarding the expressed satisfaction level of the visitors can be drawn. Maybe at this point the limits of the silent shopping approach are reached due to the fact that the method was mainly developed for evaluating interactions within the service sector (cf. Matzler/Pechlaner/Kohl 2000). Due to the before mentioned results obviously the silent-shopping approach is less suitable for evaluating the exhibits of a museum than for evaluating staff-customer-interactions.

Figure 19



Page 1

Figure 20



Page 1

CONCLUSION

The present article was not aiming on detailed evaluation of a specific industrial heritage site, but to test several methods in the field of customer satisfaction in form of a case study at one specific site.

It became obvious that the usually used methods based on an attribute-oriented approach deliver a suitable result, but that several aspects being relevant for the further development of the product are neglected. While the incident-orientated methods can especially if it comes to improvements deliver very helpful information.

Furthermore it became obvious that the different methods do not necessarily create congruent results. At the same time the different methods did not create conflicting results, but stressed different aspects. Due to the fact that each method sticks to a specific perspective the conclusions drawn from each method can hardly replace each other but only complement each other.

Therefore the so far in the field of customer satisfaction evaluation rather usual attribute-orientated approach should be accompanied in future by incident-orientated methods as well. Incident-orientated methods can be included in standardized survey as well and therefore do not necessarily create an additional work. Also the silent-shopping approach can be implemented by spending not too much effort.

Less applicable seems the observation approach, based on the experience within the case study quite often the interest of measuring reactions of the visitors conflicts with the protection of individual privacy. At the same time beside the approach chosen in this research to observe a visitor throughout the visit, a location specific instead of a individual specific approach may deliver similar results while less conflicting with the individual privacy. Regardless those concerns the observation technique can deliver helpful results when it comes to optimization of specific parts of an exhibition as shown in this research. Moreover additional options such as benchmarking of several sections within an exhibition can be applied. Coeval a more observation orientated approach could stress the importance of a more customer centred behaviour of staff. This dimension may especially interesting in education orientated institutions such as museums. Based on such an approach the regularly appearing low satisfaction level regarding the interaction with the staff is likely to be reduced, due to a rising awareness of staff members. This dimension referring to a higher customer orientation, will become jointly with the generation of new target groups and a increased customer retention basic needs in a more competitive leisure market of tomorrow.

Above all the mentioned aspects this article should be understood as well as a appeal towards a more creative and more experimental way of evaluating customer satisfaction.

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TOURISM AND NEUROSCIENCE: A PRELIMINARY APPROACH

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Tourism studies, generally considered multi-, inter- and even post-disciplinary, has not yet embraced neuroscience, despite the fact that the latter has been extending its domain in the last decades, opening up to human consciousness, as well as to social issues, arts and the humanities. This paper argues that it is also necessary for tourism social studies to take into account recent developments in this field. Bearing in mind a broad conceptualization of the tourist experience, an attempt will be made to indicate formulations in neuroscience which potentially cast new light on various aspects of tourism. The following points are evidenced: post-cartesian embodiment (seemingly already a common background); so-called qualia, linked to phenomenological experience; the issue of the 'extended mind'; the discovery of mirror neurons; neuroethics, which can clearly be seen in relation to the ethics of tourism. In conclusion, the recent popularization of neuroscience through brain imaging is briefly explored.

Keywords: Neuroscience; Embodiment, Extended Mind; Mirror Neurons; Neuroethics;

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTIONⁱ

There is often talk of inter-, multi-, more recently even of post-disciplinarity in the field of tourism studies (Przesławski, 1993; Tribe, 1997; Coles, Hall and Duval 2009), which responds to the need to keep abreast of latest developments, e.g. Tribe (2009) in the case of philosophy and MacCannell (2011) in the case of ethics. Surprisingly, there has been no such interest regarding neuroscience. The recent *Neuro-mania* (Legrenzi and Umiltà, 2009) has had little effect on tourism science, although some consequences of neuroscience are filtering through in the form of 'neuroeconomy', 'neuromarketing' and 'emotional marketing',



where neural nets and a computational approach are at work. And yet the achievements of neuroscience, together with the incredible progress made in genetics and biology and the development of cognitive science, have radically changed the overall framework in which so-called human nature can be examined (Gardner, 1987; Di Francesco, 2007a)ⁱⁱ.

We clearly cannot dwell upon the fundamentals of neuroscience here, a field where the literature is in constant growth (Kandel, Schwartz and Jessell, 2000; Oliverio, 2008; Edelman 2004). Suffice to mention the astonishing number of neurons – over 10 billion – in the human brain, the estimated 10 trillion synaptic connections, and the complexity of neural architectures involving a plurality of levels, such as neurons, local circuits and subcortical nuclei which are connected in systems and systems of systems (Damasio, 1999: 331). In such a context, neural architectures, being dynamic and continually redistributed, through their constant evolution and mutability, may very well call into question the stability of traditional concepts, such as image, which directly affect tourism studiesⁱⁱⁱ.

It is therefore argued that an adequate theoretical apparatus, informed by the current state of the art in neuroscience, is necessary when dealing with a multilayered and multifaceted phenomenon like tourism where, from a social and psychological point of view, the human being is positioned at the center. In particular, our intention here is to concentrate on just a few points regarding neuroscience, guided by previous research which has explored this very field in recent decades. At the same time, an eye will be kept on tourism from a qualitative, social science point of view and particularly on the tourist experience (Ryan, 2002; Uriely, 2005; Andrews, 2009). The following five issues are therefore discussed: 1) a general post-Cartesian attitude, which can be identified with *embodiment*, where there seems to be a point of contact with tourism studies; 2) the attention devoted to *qualia*, that is, to the phenomenological experiences affecting tourism social studies; 3) the problem of the *extended mind*, coupled with the definition of active externalism; 4) the discovery of *mirror neurons*, implying unforeseen consequences on the social aspects of human behavior; 5) the recent broad conceptualization of *neuroethics*, which can relate to various substantial aspects of the ethical problems concerning tourism. As a brief conclusion, *brain imaging* (*neuroimaging*), obtained in particular from fMR (functional Magnetic Resonance), is seen as an intrinsic breakthrough for neuroscience; it represents a popularized cartography of the mind to consider — albeit with caution — in relation to tourism studies.

EMBODIMENT: A POST-CARTESIAN ATTITUDE

Neuroscience and cognitive science have moved further and further away from traditional Cartesian dualism, which indeed now seems superseded. Rapid developments were made in the Nineties, starting with the much-quoted *The Embodied Mind* (Varela, Thomson and Rosch, 1991), although Varela, a biologist, still held a connectionist version of cognitivism. In 1994 the neurophysiologist Antonio Damasio published *Descartes' Error* (1994), emblematic of post-cartesian positions, providing a unified vision of reason, emotions and sentiment, which was a fundamental stage in the move from medical scientific neuronal assumptions to a more unitary discourse. As Damasio himself maintains in a subsequent work, *The Feeling of What Happens*, subtitled *Body and Emotion in the Making of Consciousness*, it is Spinoza, not Descartes, that we should consider our philosophical forebear (Damasio 1999). A relatively more recent thinker, the psychologist William James, is quoted for his "basic idea that feelings are largely a collection of body-state changes", and this is James's seminal contribution to the subject (Damasio, 1999: 288).

Given these premises, one might suppose that the so-called *mind-body debate*, typical of the current neuropsychological and philosophical controversy, could also represent a kind of anchorage for tourism studies, given that the tourist experience has been generally accepted and examined as necessarily *embodied* for over ten years. In fact, embodiment can be seen in recent decades as an archipelago of tourism studies with various, generally large islands or aggregations of islands, without any specific post-cartesian tendencies. The recently-founded Tourism and Embodiment Research Group (ATLAS, 2011) testifies to the need for reconnaissance and for a global vision, promoting contact between social disciplines and research areas.

A few considerations are necessary at this point. It should be noted that the marketing of tourism has always played on its sensuous aspects, while tourism theories have always been extremely abstract. An important stage in current research, however, was a provocative essay by Vejiola and Jokinen (1994) who put the question of the body at the center of tourism studies. Thanks to the feminist slant of their work, the Finnish authors were also acknowledged by Margaret Swain in a special issue of the 'Annals of Tourism Research' dedicated to gender in tourism (Swain, 1995). From that moment, the importance of the body in tourism research

has been irreversible. *Tourism and Gender: Embodiment, Sensuality and Experience*, edited by Pritchard, Morgan and Ateljevic (2007), witnesses the development of a trend where there is confirmation of the close consideration of gender studies and diverse anthropological approaches, to the extent that it can now be defined as mainstream.

Within the embodiment framework, however, other trends have been developing with regards tourism studies. It is not surprising that alongside the triumph of the tourist gaze (Urry, 1990) there has also been explicit explorations of the other senses; Dann and Jacobsen (2002), for example, not only stress the importance of the sense of smell, but also emphasize the tourist's polysensual completeness. With rather practical considerations in mind, the importance of the various senses has recently been explored within the framework of social tourism, that is, for people with disabilities (Richards, Pritchard and Morgan, 2010)^{iv}.

Concluding this brief review, we have the impression that, while there has been general talk of embodiment, it is, with some exceptions, mostly an *apparent* encounter, without a specific convergence of tourism studies with neuroscience or scientific disciplines. To a large extent the body has remained an epistemological challenge where current perspectives of neuroscience could, and should, be taken into account.

QUALIA

The debate regarding so-called *qualia* should also be located within our framework, although at first sight it appears to be an extremely philosophical and specialized discourse, a far cry from the field of tourism studies. In actual fact it is a general topic, laden with implications, as it deals with the phenomenological and/or qualitative categories of consciousness and the conscious subject, and hence is strictly interlinked with the tourist experience.

On the contemporary scene, distinct positions are held by various philosophers and neuroscientists, contributing to a broad configuration of "cartographies of the mind"^v. If we take the issue of *qualia* as a kind of litmus test, then among the most radical attitudes is that known as materialism or eliminative materialism. In this respect, the Canadian-American philosopher Patricia M. Churchland is interested in the relationship between neuroscience and philosophy, and aims at the complete assimilation of the mind into the brain (Churchland, 2002). She is, of course, against approaches and concepts such as *consciousness* and *qualia*.

One of the most significant recent theories in our opinion is the neural darwinism of the American Nobel prize-winner Gerald Edelman, which consists of an extremely flexible and structured evolutionary perspective, open to the so-called higher-order consciousness and to *qualia*. Edelman's views have been popularized in works like *Wider than the Sky* (Edelman, 2004) and *Second Nature* (Edelman, 2006).

According to Edelman's evolutionary neural theory, the hypothesis of *qualia* is connected to higher-order consciousness. In fact a distinction should be made between primary consciousness and higher-order consciousness, or "the capability to be conscious of being conscious. This capacity is present in animals with semantic abilities (chimpanzees) or linguistic abilities (humans), and those with linguistic abilities are also able to have a social concept of the self and concepts of past and future" (Edelman, 2004: 161-162). The problem of *qualia* is also dealt with in *A Universe of Consciousness* (Edelman and Tononi, 2000) in what is considered as one of the book's most demanding chapters.

The Italian neuropsychologist Oliverio also gives useful examples, wondering if it is possible to reduce "phenomenological or qualitative categories (the *qualia*, that is experiences or sensations like feeling pain, looking at red wine, tasting an ice cream) to neuroscientific events or to information processing" (Oliverio, 1999: 166-167). He answers of course in the negative.

Human existence itself is inconceivable without *qualia*. This becomes an even more valid proposition when considering an increasingly experiential branch of tourism which has superseded and incorporated the stage of exclusive *sightseeing* and concentrates completely on all five senses: for example in areas like food and wine tourism as well as all forms of enjoyment linked with *wellness*, where the olfactory, taste (gustative), auditory and tactile components are fundamental, as partly anticipated in the section on embodiment.

EXTENDED MIND

The first decade of the new millennium has been very productive from various viewpoints regarding the *mind-body debate*, particularly in ways which might also relate to tourism. In their seminal article *Extended Mind*, Clark and Chalmers (1998)^{vi} had focused on the fundamental relevance of environmental, and, generally speaking, spatial aspects in mostly cognitive terms. This framework implied an externalized, fairly widespread subjectivity. In their proposal of an *active externalism*, the

world presents itself as part of the cognitive process: in a nutshell, the question raised is, “Where does our mind stop and the rest of the world begin?”

A book edited over a decade later (Menary, 2010) contains both the original 1998 text and a presentation of the subsequent debate, including proposals of different views. However, it is clear that after the long supremacy of rationalist and positivistic attitudes with the emphasis on cold cognitive processes, embodiment, with its accompanying feelings and emotions, is now taken for granted. A neuroscientific perspective is also included, which in some ways goes beyond its frontiers, towards the writing system, and, implicitly, also the much-debated issue of second orality (Ong, 1982; Dehaene, 2009).

Within the framework of these second-wave cognitive-integration-style arguments, bodily physical manipulations of external vehicles are explained as different, but complementary to internal processes (Menary, 2010; Sutton, 2010).

The proposal advanced by Menary, who agrees with other authors, seems correct. He distinguishes processes requiring internal manipulation from processes requiring external manipulation, such as those set up through the writing system, which in a sense go beyond the neural system: “Stable and enduring external written sentences allow for manipulations, transformations, re-orderings, comparisons, and deletion of text that are not available to neural processes” (Menary, 2010: 240)^{vii}.

Concerning embodiment, it is interesting that new performances are continually being established, especially those gestures linked to the new way of touching screens which particularly apply when using iPads and iPhones rather than traditional computers. This fact determines novel associations and probably represents, in an evolutionary view, an unpredictable factor in the development of both brain and mind.

Some aspects of the old question of technologies, considered by the German philosophical anthropologist Gehlen in his interpretation of culture as human prostheses (Gehlen 1984), can be seen today, reflected in the controversial term of the ‘extended mind’. What is more, augmented reality (AR), which has apparently superseded virtual reality (VR), can be considered within this framework; its relevance is particularly evident in leisure and tourism, due also, for example, to the potential of GPS (Global Positioning System). The information about the real world surrounding the user becomes interactive and digitally manipulable; we need only think of solid state compasses and the various instruments with displays which allow us to explore a city and its hotels, restaurants etc.

Of course, not all facets of the problem can be clarified in these brief notes; indeed, contradictory issues remain as far as spatial and sensory-motor aspects are concerned owing to the specific nature of the tourist experience, which should be understood as a particular case of *extended experience*. Nevertheless, in our view the possible dangers implicit in some extended mind attitudes are eliminated if we agree that accepting the extension of the cognitive embodied process does not mean ignoring the specificity of the 'I', in the sense of the unity and uniqueness of the mind which has to be preserved^{viii}. As an Italian neuropsychologist has commented, "It is in the uniqueness of the mind, due to an interaction between genetic and environmental factors, that the roots of the 'I' are plunged" (Oliverio, 2008a: 109)^{ix}. This is also valid for tourism studies.

MIRROR NEURONS

A brief section should also be devoted to mirror neurons, which were discovered in Italy in 1996 (Rizzolatti et al, 1996, Rizzolatti and Craighero, 2004), perhaps one of the most significant scientific discoveries of recent decades. It was found that mirror neurons "fire" (become active) in the frontal lobes of macaques not only when the monkeys perform a certain task, but also when they watch someone else perform the same task. There is evidence that a similar system exists in humans, although this has yet to be proved conclusively. The consequences of such synchrony between action and observation are incalculable; according to the Indian neuroscientist Ramachandran, mirror neurons could even be for psychology what DNA has been for biology. In all probability they will pave the way towards a new theory of the mind and open up unexpected new horizons (Ramachandran, 2000). For example, regarding the general problem of the gap between biology and culture, it has been suggested that the very existence of mirror neurons might represent a kind of bridge between these two dimensions (Di Francesco, 2008).

Research revealing the explanatory potential of mirror neurons in imitation, empathy, language and many aspects of our social life has also been of the utmost importance (Iacoboni, 2005; 2009). In fact mirror neurons underpin a functional mechanism (embodied simulation), which can explain within a unitary neurophysiological framework important aspects of human social cognition and action. It would be even impossible to interact without them, because we would be blind to the actions, intentions and emotions of others.

In their popular work *Nella mente degli altri* [In the Mind of Others], Rizzolatti and Voza (2008: 65-68) choose the utterance “I feel your disgust, I identify with your pain” as the title of a brief chapter devoted to the physiological basis of empathy, one of the key issues accompanying the mirror neuron hypothesis. Not only does a generic neurophysiological organization allow us to understand the emotions of others, experiencing them in our inner self, but they also constitute an advanced net of sophisticated brain mechanisms located in different areas of the cortex. The social consequences are incalculable as the process can embrace fields which range from advertising to culture, to politics and even neuroethics. Researchers such as Boella are particularly interested in the mechanisms of empathy from a neuroethical viewpoint, and go even beyond mirror neurons (Boella, 2008: 96-104).

With the specific issue of the tourist experience in mind, mirror neurons could contribute to explaining some essential aspects of tourism, i.e. so-called imaginary, social representations, group dynamics and the gregarious spirit still typical of mass tourism despite a growing individualism.

Some scholars, in particular the Italian Gallese (2008), extend the range of mirror neurons to language mechanisms; indeed, an alliance has been established between Italian neuroscience and Californian cognitive semantics, and radical conclusions have been suggested, regarding actual concepts and the theory of understanding. In fact, as Gallese and Lakoff argue, language makes direct use of the same brain structures which are used in perception and action (Gallese and Lakoff, 2005); in this framework, language, far from being abstract and symbolic, is decidedly multimodal and embodied.

For this reason, remarkable consequences could also emerge from investigations into the tourist experience. Concepts present themselves, both rich and embodied; to suggest just one reflection based on a simple example, we might take the idea of a tourist destination like San Francisco. This concept presents as deeply embodied in its neuropsychological context, where many modalities are linked (sight, hearing, touch, motor action and so on), due to the fact that language exploits a ‘multimodal’ sensory-motor system which also involves unexpected areas of the brain.

NEUROETHICS

Neuroethics is a very recent field of research connected with the progress of neuroscience, and is based on the assumption of the neural

basis of moral choices which are increasingly verifiable experimentally through *brain imaging*. Neuroethics is located at the interface of neuroscience and moral philosophy, psychology, sociology, pedagogy and law, and this research on the brain has revealed unexpected behavior.

An extremely lively international debate is taking place, with explicative titles produced, such as Michael Gazzaniga's *The Ethical Brain* (2005), Marc Hauser's *Moral Minds. How Nature Designed our Universal Sense of Right and Wrong* (2006), Laura Boella's *Neuroetica. La morale prima della morale [Neuroethics. Moral before Moral]* (2008), Benjamin Libet's *Mind Time. The Temporal Factor in Consciousness* (2004) and Michele Di Francesco's *Neurofilosofia, naturalismo e statuto dei giudizi morali [Neurophilosophy, Naturalism and the Statute of Moral Judgments]* (2007a).

In fact the reorganization of the role of consciousness and self-consciousness which has emerged from this research, is disconcerting, especially as experiments conducted with the help of *neuroimaging* have evidenced a whole range of cerebral activities of which the subject was unaware. Therefore, the issue can even be seen in the terms of "What is my brain doing, while I (apparently) decide?" If, on the one hand, the traditional problem of *free will* is raised, on the other hand there is even talk of *zombies* living within us (Di Francesco 2007a: 131).

In this case too, several positions can naturally be identified, ranging from one inspired by radical naturalism, according to which the mind is the last to know what the brain is doing, to other more moderate stances (e.g. Di Francesco, 2007a).

The so-called *trolley dilemma* involving moral choices is a topic which might seem rather distant from our interests in tourism studies. This is a mental experiment where subjects are asked to imagine the following situations: a) stopping an out-of-control trolley which will run over five people unless you pull a lever to deviate its trajectory, but at the cost of one person's life; b) stopping the trolley in the same scenario, but where you need to push one person under its wheels. After a great amount of experiments, the results obtained provide a kind of universal basis for moral judgments. For the majority of the numerous people interviewed in various countries, a), that is, indirect action seems morally legitimate, while b), direct action, that is, directly pushing someone to their death^x, is disapproved.

There have been no specific studies linking neuroethics with tourism up to now, but it is likely that tourism studies will sooner or later be affected in some way, especially as the ethics of tourism has been a much-

debated topic since the Eighties, and has been officially codified in an extremely ambitious UNWTO document, the *Global Code of Ethics for Tourism* (1999). Furthermore, over the last decade an increasing number of different formulations of ethical problems in tourism have been advanced, from Lanfant (2004), to Macbeth (2005), Smith (2009) and MacCannell (2011).

The difference between direct and indirect action can probably be assumed to be a division regarding moral responsibility. In fact, there is a whole range of behavior between, for example, sex tourism, where the direct immoral action is condemned, and cases of international and domestic mass tourism, which are generally seen as something distant and not involving any serious moral responsibility. Moreover, a neuronal concept of responsibility could not only be applied at the theoretical level to the conceptualization of responsible tourism, but also to many practical cases of the tourist experience.

As far as future investigations are concerned, other new paths could be identified, e.g. related to a renewed concept of empathy which could characterize the traditional anthropological host-guest relationship. Other more general suggestions might concern tourism and wellness, as well as seeing the tourist experience as neuroenhancement.

NEUROIMAGING: IN PLACE OF A CONCLUSION

Scientific evidence, a tangible confirmation of neuroscience, is provided by *neuroimaging* or *brain imaging*. Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging (fMRI) is a specialized type of MRI scan which measures the hemodynamic response (i.e. the change in blood flow) relating to neural activity in the brain or spinal cord of humans or other animals. Compared to TAC and PET scans, fMRI is noninvasive and has contributed to creating a cartography of the brain, evidencing the main areas involved in any given function, especially those areas of the cortex which become active in motor functions, in language, decision-making, memory and moral choices. For example, the movement of a hand is linked to increased activity of the brain cortex, while an emotion is linked to a more intensive activity of the limbic system, all evidenced through graphic chromatism (Oliverio, 2008c).

The consequences of these experiments are incalculable. Thanks to their ongoing popularization, many of us laymen are agreeably surprised on an almost daily basis to see the bright images of single areas of the brain reproduced in even the general, non-specialized press. Of course, any sense of euphoria in ‘reading’ the brain (and mind) should be

mitigated by a more basic consideration of these ambivalent contributions, by considering the danger inherent in a merely physicalist interpretation of the human mind (Oliverio, 2008a: 33).

For now we must concede that there is no apparent or immediate spin-off in the field of tourism studies, as fMRI needs to be conducted in a laboratory and is still quite expensive. Although we can imagine its use in tourism marketing, it is claimed that even if the conditions for experiments were available (an unlikely situation) we would have to take into consideration the complexity of the tourist experience and the limited localization and artificiality of the laboratory experiment (Boella, 2008: 29, 37).

Nonetheless, tourism studies must keep a close watch on new research methods and results; future research could be based on results already obtained from fMRIs, possibly in combination with other methodologies. Indeed, tourism studies are meant to be open to various disciplines: it is thus now impossible to ignore the interdisciplinary openings offered by these images of the human mind and by neuroscience in general.

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ⁱThis article was presented at the XVII Congress of the International Sociological Association, Research Committee 50 on International Tourism in Gothenburg (July 2010) in a less elaborate form. A certain openness regarding the issue of neuroscience has characterized the ISA RC50 for several years. Already at the XIV ISA Congress in Montreal in 1998, the President Marie-Françoise Lanfant proposed a session on the theme 'New Sciences and High Technology in Tourism Research and Praxis. Mobility and the New Sciences', chaired by Liebman Parrinello. Part of her contribution was published under the title *The Technological Body in Tourism Research and Praxis* (2001). Later, at the RC50 interim symposium 'Understanding Tourism. Theoretical Advances' held at the Aegean University of Mytiline (14-16 May 2004), the importance of the link between neuroscience and the tourism experience was highlighted by the present writer under the title *Mind, Body and the Tourist Experience* (Liebman Parrinello, 2004).

ⁱⁱ According to Gardner's so-called cognitive hexagon, there are six main cognitive disciplines: philosophy, psychology, artificial intelligence, linguistics, anthropology and neuroscience (Gardner, 1987). Since then, neuroscience has undergone an enormous process of growth.

ⁱⁱⁱ See e.g. Rodrigues, Correia and Kozak (2011) *A Multidisciplinary Approach on Destination Image Construct*.

^{iv} For a more philosophical view, see Liebman Parrinello and Wang. The former (2001; 2008) considers the tourist's technological body in an evolutionary way; Wang (2008) follows Bourdieu in his philosophical approach in distinguishing four types of body-fields.

^v See Marraffa, M. (2007) *Cartographies of the Mind*.

^{vi} Cf. also A. Clark's (1997) significantly titled *Being There: Putting Brain, Body and World Together Again*.

^{vii} Certainly, one could object that the writing system, which was not so evident in handwriting, is now also subject to an overtly coercive conditioning, a pattern, a grid. Moreover it is something closely related to globalized patterns: the obligatory Word computer document system, the prevailing Times New Roman font.

^{viii} See Di Francesco, 2007b.

^{ix} See also by the same author, *Geografia della mente. Territori cerebrali e comportamenti umani*. [*Mind Geography. Brain Territories and Human Behaviors* (2008b).

^xThis issue is summarized and explained in more detail in Di Francesco, 2007a: 133-134

THE KEY DETERMINANTS OF AND BARRIERS TO INTERNET ADOPTION IN SMALL AND MEDIUM- SIZED HOTELS

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The present paper presents qualitative empirical evidence that addresses why internet usage/adoption is low and how it can be improved in small and medium-sized hotels in Malaysia. It explores the key barriers to and influencing factors of internet adoption in a sample of 25 Malaysian small and medium-sized hotels based on a theoretical framework of the organisational innovation and resource-based view theories. Key barriers to internet usage include owner/operator characteristics, cost and investment, firm size and internet access. Operator/user's assessment of perceived resource readiness, perceived potential utility and perceived performance seem to be the key influencing factors. The proposed holistic internet adoption framework also serves as a novel tool and a useful guide for individuals and ICT policymakers for improving and implementing e-commerce/internet. This paper adds to the internet adoption and decision literature and advances the theoretical and practical understanding of internet usage in small and medium-sized hotels, but requires further validation in other countries.

Keywords: *barriers in internet adoption, internet usage and adoption in SME hotels, internet adoption framework, key influencing factors, SME hotels in Malaysia*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

The advent of the Internet has had a transformative effect on the travel and hospitality industry and has brought about fundamental changes in terms of market reach and operational efficiency (Porter, 2001; Buhalis and Law, 2008). Noticeably, it has brought about many benefits



to businesses such as a reduction in operational and communication costs, the maximisation of internal efficiency, easy access to information and a reduction in the cost of updating brochures and pamphlets (Rocha and Victor, 2010). The Internet has also become an important tool to market and distribute travel and hospitality products and services to consumers of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs; Chaffey, Mayer, Johnson and Chadwick, 2000). Tan and Eze (2008) documented that information communication technology (ICT) adoption among SMEs in Malaysia provides new business opportunities and access to market information and knowledge, similar to that of large hotels. Nevertheless, the actual usage of the Internet is limited in SMEs compared with large hotels. Business transactions via the Internet (e-commerce and e-business) are still rare among SMEs in Malaysia (Tan and Eze, 2008) and they generally place little emphasis on the use of ICT (Chin, 2010).

One way of explaining this is through the study of factors influencing internet adoption from the user's perspective. It can be contended that understanding 'why' and 'how' in relation to internet adoption is important to promote and encourage the efficient use of the internet. The adoption of the internet by SMEs in any context is likely to be influenced by numerous factors because of contextual differences. Hence, a clear understanding of internet usage, together with a more holistic conceptual framework that explains the key determinants of internet usage or adoption and SMEs' general dispositions towards internet usage, is an important issue and research agenda.

Previous studies have explored internet use by SMEs (Tan and Eze, 2008) and small tourism enterprises (Karanasios and Burges, 2006; Kim, 2006; Ma, Buhalis and Song, 2003), but studies have been sparse on internet adoption in small and medium-sized hotels in Malaysia. The developed framework for e-technology adoption by SMEs (Rashid and Al-Qirim, 2001) may not be applicable to the small and medium-sized hotel context in Malaysia (Chan, 2008a). Elsewhere, there has been a growing number of studies on ICT and internet use; most of these studies are conceptual or managerial in their approaches (Chircu and Kauffman, 2000) and focus on e-markets from the market marker's standpoint or user's perspective (Bloch and Catfolis, 2001).

It has been argued that internet adoption may be closely affected by the user's assessment of perceived performance, perceived potential utility and perceived resource readiness, as pointed out by Guo and Xu (2010). E-marketing and internet-based business transactions and activities are becoming more pertinent and diffused among SMEs worldwide. Hence, in order to enhance internet adoption or usage,

understanding the underlying key determinants or influential factors becomes imperative.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS

The objectives of this paper are a) to describe the underlying factors affecting internet adoption and implementation from operators' perspectives; b) to explain the key barriers to internet adoption among small and medium-sized hotels; and c) to propose a holistic framework that facilitates the understanding of internet adoption and serves as a useful guide to adopting and improving internet usage within the hotels sector. This research aims to address why the Internet is not widely used or adopted by small and medium-sized hotels and understand the key barriers faced in the usage and adoption of the internet.

INTERNET USAGE IN THE HOTELS SECTOR

With the development of ICT and a knowledge-based economy, ICT is becoming an increasingly important tool for national economic growth (UNDP, 2007) and it has implications for the growth of the tourism and hospitality industry in many ways (Chan, 2008a). Law and Chung (2003) pointed out that in this internet era, guests can reserve hotel rooms directly from their own computers anytime and anywhere and that the most important thing is that they can receive confirmation in a very short time. Increasingly, travellers use the Internet for their travel arrangements (Josiam and Frazier, 2008), and the Internet has become a tool to enable potential tourists to seek out information on tourism services (Osti, 2009). Likewise, the Internet plays an important role in mediating between customers and hotel companies by being a place for information acquisition and business transaction and it may contribute to the creation of points of reference for word of mouth, as pointed by Osti (2009). The Internet is becoming an essential tool for organisations in general and for small businesses specifically in gaining competitive advantage via access to global markets (Rashid and Al-Qirim, 2001).

The adoption of the internet also enhances innovations in the tourism industry and knowledge-based economy (Papanis and Kitrinou, 2011). It offers new management and business opportunities in four main areas: competitive advantage, productivity and performance, new management methods and new business development (Buhalis, 2003). With the strategic and efficient implementation of technology such as internet adoption, the tourism and hotel industry can enjoy such benefits, and thus

deliver better products and services to customers (Papanis and Kitrinou, 2011). It can help gain competitive advantage by either maintaining price leadership in the market or by differentiating products and services (Ma, Buhalis, and Song, 2003; Papanis and Kitrinou, 2011). These factors are important for SMEs to sustain their competitive advantages and for future growth in a competitive and globalised environment.

In fact, seeking information for or booking small properties online has become a common feature within tourism and hospitality. More people are booking online than ever before and for hotel companies to remain competitive in the industry, they must establish their own websites for promotion, marketing and online transactions. Hotel websites have become the first, often the only and, in many cases, the last point of contact with hotel customers (Starkov, 2007). They have thus become a new channel for marketing and distribution, for mediating between customers and hoteliers (Au and Law, 2006) and for attracting potential customers (Rocha and Victor, 2010).

SMALL AND MEDIUM-SIZED HOTELS IN SABAH, MALAYSIA

Hotels are one of the important components in the small and medium-sized enterprise service sector in Malaysia (Bank Negara Malaysia, 2006; Goeldner and Ritchie, 2006). Furthermore, SMEs comprise more than 90% of the total number of businesses in Malaysia (SMIDEC, 2006), making them vital to the Malaysian economy and its national development. Over recent decades, the Malaysian government has actively promoted development and growth initiatives in ICT implementation to develop Malaysia into an information- and knowledge-based society. The government has emphasised the use of ICT in the Seventh Malaysia Plan (1996–2000), Eighth Malaysia Plan (2001–2005), Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006–2010) and the latest Tenth Malaysia Plan (2011–2015). Several government assistance programmes, including financial and ICT technology assistance, have also been set up to encourage the use of ICT. The use of ICT is now regarded as one of the most important tourism infrastructures and facilities in order to improve destination competitiveness and provide innovative tourism products and services (Nanthakumar, Ibrahim and Harun, 2008). By transforming their service delivery approach, small and medium-sized hotel operators will become better connected with their potential worldwide customers, while attaining operational efficiencies.

Sabah is a state of Malaysia, situated in the northeast of the island of Borneo, bordered by the South China Sea, Sulu Sea and Celebes Sea. The

increase in tourist arrivals in Sabah over the past few years has brought about a pressing demand for hotel accommodation. This has stimulated the rapid growth of small and medium-sized hotels. The ability for small and medium-sized hotel operators to harness internet technology, explore new markets and remain competitive is an important factor in achieving future economic stability and success (Chan, 2008b). In addition, small and medium-sized hotels in Sabah have limited financial capital, and thus they tend to be family-owned and depend on family labour (Turner, 2003). Furthermore, because they operate in a niche market and are not in direct competition with larger enterprises, they often suffer from information scarcity (Moyi, 2003). Indeed, the Sabah state government has realised the need to formulate a relevant internet adoption policy framework to ensure the consistency and efficiency of internet adoption by SMEs.

KEY DETERMINANTS OF INTERNET ADOPTION AND USAGE IN SMES

Pricewaterhouse Coopers (1999) pointed out nine critical success factors for Asian SMEs to develop e-commerce. These nine factors include operational goals and industry forces as well as the firms, environment and individual managers that shape and influence the success of e-commerce development. Generally, researchers have agreed that technological, organisational, environmental and individual contexts are the key influencing factors to internet adoption (Kapurubandara and Lawson, 2006; Rashid and Al-Qirim, 2001).

Lefebvre, Harvey and Lefebvre (1991) identified four categories of factors: company characteristics; company competitiveness and management strategies; the influence of internal and external parties on the adoption decision process; and the characteristics of new technologies adopted. These categories were used to explain the level of internet adoption and they are consistent with many empirical studies related to the factors affecting internet adoption in both developing (Rashid and Al-Qirim, 2001) and developed countries (Stansfield and Grant, 2003). Iacovou, Benbasat and Dexter (1995) pointed out that perceived benefits, organisational readiness and external pressure affect the adoption of electronic data interchange by small businesses. External pressure such as customer demand or competitor activity may lead to the adoption of the internet (Premkumar and Roberts, 1999). It is likely that these factors may also apply to internet adoption by small and medium-sized hotels.

Studies in developing countries have tended to emphasise the technological, organisational, physical, socio-economic and environmental factors that influence the adoption of ICT and e-commerce (Kapurubandara and Lawson, 2006). Ostensibly, the factors influencing internet adoption by SMEs in developing countries might be different from those in developed countries. Thus, to gain a better understanding of the adoption of the internet in Sabah, researchers should propose a relevant framework for internet adoption based on the insights gained from operators/owners' perspectives.

KEY BARRIERS TO INTERNET USAGE AND ADOPTION IN SMEs

OECD (2009) showed that SMEs face two types of barriers, namely internal barriers (which refer to organisational resources or capabilities and the company's approach) and external barriers (which are related to factors such as the environment, infrastructure, social and cultural barriers and legal, regulatory and political barriers) (Kapurubandara and Lawson, 2006). These barriers to internet adoption in SMEs can be categorised into owner/manager characteristics, company characteristics and cost and return on investment (Chau and Turner, 2001). The owner/manager is seen to play an important role in deciding on internet adoption in SMEs (Kim, 2006). Other major contributing factors for not adopting e-commerce include a lack of trained personnel or a lack of knowledge about the technology (including low computer literacy) (Knol and Stroeken, 2001; Salman, 2004; Kim, 2006), the cost of technology, access to ICT or internet facilities (Salman, 2004) and problems with security and trust (Aljifri, Pons and Collins, 2003).

Access to finance, technology, competent human resources and market information are common barriers among SMEs in East Asian countries (Harvie and Lee, 2002). In Malaysia, the lack of access to finance/loans, limited adoption of technology, lack of competent human resources, competition with multinational corporations and globalisation are the key barriers to market expansion for SMEs (Khairuddin, 2006; Tan and Eze, 2008); however, it is not certain whether these are applicable to small and medium-sized hotels.

RESEARCH DESIGN

This paper describes an inductive qualitative research approach to address the research questions and objectives, which are subjective and

contextual and require in-depth interpretation. A qualitative approach can generate a deeper understanding of behaviour and provide insight into how respondents think and feel as well as the reasons for those thoughts and feelings through their own voices. The use of in-depth interviews encourages respondents to further explain and clarify their answers and thus provides the opportunity to collect more in-depth and well-rounded data. The present research is guided and underpinned by the theories of organisational innovation and the resource-based view of the firm and is based on three assessment processes for adoption decisions: perceived performance, perceived potential utility and perceived resource readiness (Guo and Xu, 2010). The influencing factors of Rashid and Al-Qirim (2001) also guide the data analysis.

This study used a purposive sampling technique based on small and medium-sized hotels listed by the Sabah Tourism Board. Interview appointments with individual operators were scheduled via phone calls and follow-up letters. The studied small and medium-sized hotels were located in the five major tourist districts of Sabah: Kota Kinabalu, Sandakan, Ranau, Tawau and Kudat. Data collection was carried out via in-depth interviewing using structured open-ended questions to understand the importance of the usage of the internet in the respondent's business as well as the barriers to and key determinants of internet adoption. This method is commonly used in qualitative research because it allows the researcher to interact individually with respondents, giving the opportunity to ask for clarification, and allows respondents' voices to be heard. Hence, more authentic and reliable responses can be collected.

Interviews were conducted with hotel operators at their respective establishments and lasted an average of 30–45 minutes. All interviews were tape-recorded. Given the qualitative nature of the interviews, there was no predetermined sample size; data collection stopped after 25 interviews since no new insights were being gained from the responses. Data were collected over a four-month period from July to October 2007. Each interview was preceded by an introduction to explain the salient details about the interviewer and the research project, to clarify the interviewee's role and importance in the research and to explain what was required of him/her in the interview and his/her right to withdraw from the interview at any time. All respondents were participative and open.

Twenty-five interview transcripts were analysed using a qualitative-phenomenological approach that was data-driven. Coding was mostly based on a single phrase or significant meaningful statement that generated themes related to the key themes and variables related to the descriptive themes, namely the key barriers to internet adoption based on

Chau and Turner (2001) and Salman (2004) and the determinants of internet adoption based on Rashid and Al-Qirim (2001) and Guo and Xu (2010). These findings were grounded in respondents' own descriptions, thus enhancing the reliability and validity of the research, and are consistent with inductive analysis.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Key barriers to internet adoption

We found that a significant number of small and medium-sized hotel operators perceive the benefits of the Internet and agree that it can improve their business performances; however, many still do not employ the Internet in their business operations.

Table 1 Key barriers that emerged from interview responses

	Interview themes	Key barrier categories (Chau and Turner, 2001; Salman, 2004)
1	Owner's lack of knowledge and skill Personally feel not important Lost control Prefer manual system Internet is not safe – security issues for the company and guests	Owner/operator characteristics
2	Expensive and costly to get internet service connected Financial constraints High maintenance cost – monthly subscription	Cost and return on investment
3	Small operation with limited ICT budget Emphasis on personal contact Staff lack computer/internet knowledge New operation	Company characteristics
4	Internet system not available and not reliable	Internet access and facilities

The empirical evidence shows four key barriers to internet usage/adoption: owner/operator characteristics, cost and return on investment, organisation size (Chau and Turner, 2001) and access to internet facilities (Salman, 2004).

Many respondents stated that the barriers to adopting the Internet are related to human, financial and organisational aspects. For example, there is a lack of knowledge and skills among staff in the accommodation sector, as evidenced from the interview response: 'the lack of competent staff in my business operations – my staff need to be trained to use computers and the internet' (Respondents 7, 8, 10, 12). In addition, the responses indicated that the knowledge and perceptions of the Internet are a significant barrier to using it. Many were worried about the potential loss of control over their operations and the issue of safety and security, as indicated in the following interview responses: 'using the internet is a complicated thing and I may lose control over my business' (Respondent 20); 'we are very concerned about the issues of safety and security ... in terms of transactions as operators and buyers' (Respondents 5, 6, 24). The latter finding is consistent with those by Aljifri et al. (2003), who pointed out that the problem of security and safety significantly influences internet adoption by owners/operators. The findings also confirm the findings by Knol and Stroeken (2001), who stated that a lack of computer literacy and knowledge about internet usage are major contributory factors to not adopting the internet or e-commerce.

The issue of cost and return on investment is also a major concern for many small and medium-sized hotels, which is consistent with the findings of Tan and Eze (2008) among SMEs in other sectors in Malaysia. Many view the Internet as an expensive service because of the relatively small size of their operations and high maintenance costs (Chan, 2008a). Thus, they are reluctant to invest in something that has uncertain tangible returns. They think that the Internet is unable to provide secure returns on investment in terms of direct profits, as indicated by some respondents: 'a small-scale business like us cannot afford the cost of purchasing and maintaining internet services... it is not justifiable' (Respondents 5, 7, 8, 24).

A small number of respondents indicated that the nature and size of their business operations did not justify using the Internet in terms of its cost, especially when they prefer to have more personal interactions with guests. To some owner/operators, the use of the Internet may give rise to problems in their operations, such as technical issues and support facilities. It was found that in some locations (Kudat and Sandakan), internet connections and services were unreliable, as pointed out by

respondents: 'the internet server is always down and at times very slow... the server is down frequently' (Respondents 6, 7, 8, 10, 24).

Key determinants of internet adoption among small and medium-sized hotels

The findings revealed four key determinants of internet adoption: technological, environmental, organisational and individual factors. These were categorised based on the influencing factors proposed by Rashid and Al-Qirim (2001) and subsequently linked to the perceived performance and needs, perceived potential utility/IT solution and perceived resource readiness of Guo and Xu (2010) as presented in Table 2 below.

The majority of interview responses cited the perceived benefits of internet usage in their daily business operations such as efficiency (speed, time and cost) and convenience (as a communication tool). This corresponds well with the study by Kim (2006) in Korea, which showed that SMEs regard 'easy access to information', 'better information' and 'convenience for customers' as the three main benefits of internet use.

Environmental factors resulting from customer expectations and industry trends emerged as the second most important factor, together with the firm's needs. The responses indicated that many decided to adopt the internet under pressure and expectations from both customers and the industry.

Organisational factors refer to staff knowledge and skills in IT, timing and practicality in relation to operations and the firm's resource readiness. Some respondents stressed that the use of the Internet is influenced by whether the staff are knowledgeable and have the relevant skills. Others indicated that their businesses were ready to use the Internet as a more practical way to market their services.

Individual factors (the characteristics of owner/operators, knowledge and perceived benefits of IT) also emerged as an important factor in internet adoption, as pointed out by many small and medium-sized hotel operators who are currently using the Internet in their business operations. This is consistent with previous studies (Kim, 2006).

These key determinants correspond well with empirical studies in both developing (Rashid and Al-Qirim, 2001; Mehrtens, Cragg and Mills, 2001) and developed countries (Stansfield and Grant, 2003). They are also in line with the study by Chieh (2008), which suggested that the adoption of technological innovations is significantly influenced by technological, organisational and environmental characteristics, which was also found in the framework for e-technology adoption by SMEs in New Zealand (Rashid and Al-Qirim, 2001).

Table 2 Key determinants of internet adoption by small and medium-sized hotels in Sabah

	Perceived performance and needs, perceived potential utility/IT solution and perceived resource readiness (Guo and Xu, 2010)	Factors influencing the adoption of the internet (Rashid and Al-Qirim, 2001)	Interview responses
1	Potential utility/IT solutions	Technological factors	• Convenient and saves time • Increases business performance • Fast communication tool for sending information and promotional materials • Reduces operating costs
2	Firm's performance and needs	Environmental factors	• IT trends • Guest expectations of having the internet • Impact of globalisation and global networking • New way to promote and market
3	Perceived resource readiness/firm's current resources	Organisational factors	• Knowledgeable and skilful staff • Timely to use
4	Perceived resource readiness/firm's current resources	Individual factors	• Owner/operator knowledge of IT/internet • Perceived benefits of using the internet

The process of internet adoption seems to begin with individuals (owners/operators) acquiring ICT knowledge and skills as well as an awareness of the benefits of the Internet. The technological benefits and organisation capability (financial and human capital) then follow. Environmental forces finally create the need for the Internet. This seems

to suggest that internet usage/adoption is determined by three elements: firm performance and needs, a firm's current resources and specific IT solutions (Guo and Xu, 2010).

These four determinants of internet adoption are illustrated in the quotes below:

‘the use of the internet increases business performance and ... it is very fast and convenient for me to provide information to my guests or customers’ (Respondents 1, 4, 9, 13, 21, 22).

‘we decide to use the internet mainly because of its speed, convenience and because it is easy to access data ... it saves time ...’ (Respondents 1, 2, 3, 4, 14, 15, 16, 17, 25).

‘... we are in the era of globalisation and the internet is a necessity’ (Respondents 2, 4, 13, 20).

‘... our guests expect that we have the internet and it is a trend in today's business operations, especially in tourism’ (Respondents 1, 2, 4, 13, 15, 21, 23).

‘Our customers request it and many of them expect that we have internet facilities...’ (Respondents 2, 4, 13, 15, 16).

‘two of my staff are knowledgeable and I feel it is also practical for my business’ (Respondents 2, 4, 16, 23).

‘it's timely to use the internet in my business and gain access to the world market’ (Respondents 2, 3, 16, 25).

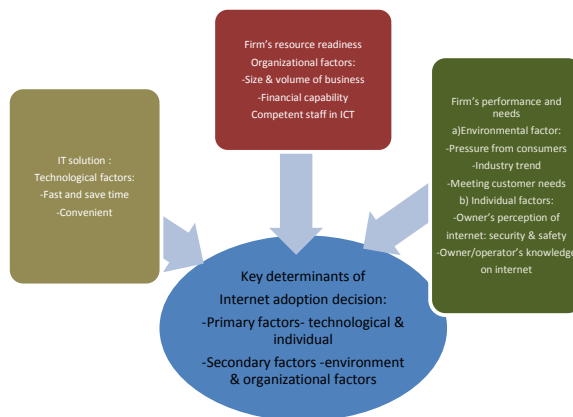
PROPOSED INTERNET ADOPTION FRAMEWORK FOR SMALL AND MEDIUM-SIZED HOTELS

In light of the foregoing, a conceptual framework for internet adoption by small and medium-sized hotels is presented in Figure 1. This framework shows the assessment of firm performance and needs because the resource readiness of small and medium-sized hotels determines internet adoption. The internet adoption decision can be largely determined based on the assessment of existing organisational performance, the innovation's potential utility (opportunity to reach wider market segments) and the firm's adoption ability in terms of human resources and financial readiness, which concurs with the organisational capabilities, perceived benefits and perceived credibility discussed previously (Riyadh, Akter and Islam, 2009).

This suggests that the findings of the present research are closely underpinned by the organisational innovation and resource-based view theories. Moreover, this implies that the matching of these elements – performance, resources and innovation – will enhance and determine

internet adoption, as pointed by Guo and Xu (2010), which is also in line with the technology acceptance model of Davis (1989; Figure 1). Thus, the framework offers a more holistic perspective of understanding internet adoption and is a novel tool and guide for individuals and government in terms of adopting, improving and implementing e-commerce within an SME context.

Figure 1 Proposed internet adoption decision framework for SMEs



This proposed framework is similar to the framework for e-technology adoption by SMEs in New Zealand (Rashid and Al-Qirim, 2001), except that the variables influencing internet adoption within the four factors are different. For example, government role and public policy are regarded as variables under environmental factors, whereas top management, specialisation and information intensity are not found in the organisational factors for SMEs above.

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

This paper reports a pioneering qualitative investigation into the barriers to and key determinants of internet adoption in Malaysia. It proposes a framework that provides a well-rounded explanation of internet adoption and implementation for small and medium-sized hotels. The study provides a holistic and clear understanding of internet adoption

by SMEs in the hotel setting in terms of ‘why’ and ‘how’. It points out the key determinants of and barriers to internet adoption and concludes that internet adoption is related to human, financial and environmental factors, which seem to inhibit internet adoption to different degrees. Nevertheless, it underscores the fact that individual background and characteristics/profiles need to be properly understood and issues on ICT infrastructure need to be properly addressed.

This paper contributes to the existing internet usage literature by providing an insightful understanding of the key factors affecting internet usage and adoption in small and medium-sized hotels in three ways. It extends our understanding of the key determinants of and barriers to internet usage/adoption. The framework outlines the key variables for each determinant and thus offers a holistic explanation taking into consideration the theory on organisational resources and innovations based on the assessment processes. The proposed framework also has significant implications in terms of encouraging more small and medium-sized hotels to use the internet. The state government needs to understand the factors influencing the use of the internet within the small and medium-sized hotel context to help improve internet use via planning, creating a regulatory framework, building capacity in IT infrastructure and skill formation and introducing incentive measures. The provision of relevant ICT training programmes and financial assistance is important for encouraging internet usage since most SMEs in Sabah operate within limited financial resources and lack internet knowledge and skills.

The main limitations of the paper lie in the limited study site and the sample respondents, which comprised SME operators from four subcategories within the small and medium-sized accommodation sector – budget hotels, bed and breakfast establishments, travel lodges and seaside resorts. The size of operations and perceived needs and benefits of internet adoption may differ between the respective owner/operators in each category in relation to the size of their business operations as well as their different education levels. This implies that factors affecting internet adoption may vary according to each subcategory of small and medium-sized hotels and location. The nature of the paper, being a qualitative study, also limits the generalisability of the developed framework for internet adoption by small and medium-sized hotels. This framework is designed for this context specifically; thus, the factors in the framework differ from large business operations regarding the nature of the operational environment, individual characteristics and organisation size. This offers a new avenue for future research to validate the framework in

other contexts, locations and using quantitative research or a mixed method approach in order to achieve generalisable findings.

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THE RECENT CHANGES IN PLACE FORMATION AND THE TRADITIONAL CITY IDENTITY OF ANTALYA

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The latest place formation of Antalya and as regards of the traditional city development has started in 1950s. Today the rapid change of Antalya is the biggest one of Turkish history of which definition has become gradually difficult. This change has occurred to a large extent without scientific and democratic plan. Problems like instability of social structure, migration, deviating urbanization, housing built without acquiring the land rights, structural and environmental pollution have seen in Antalya so many serious precautions should be taken to realize the place formation of city accurately. In this research, it is aimed at solving the problems of the place formation of Antalya and as regards of the changes in traditional identification that have been detected by all components in the city and city side with its functional structure. In addition, identifying the criteria, which will be effective on explaining and existence of urban identity, could develop.

Key words: *Tourism planning, City Identity, Antalya*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*



INTRODUCTION

The main objective of this type of tourism is to transform the regions, which are characterized by cultural resources, into ideal places for vacation, residence or business (Sdrali and Chazapi, 2007). *In* developing countries, as a basic rule of the information process revolution and the globalization, many communities share advanced technologies. The negativenesses reflected by this sharing which is supposed to have positive effects on urban areas are mainly observed on the physical places of the city as deterioration, many concrete buildings and poorly planned places. Today, many problems concerning structural, urban, cultural, esthetics, social, economical, transportation and settlement aspects occur in many cities. In today's cities which are increasingly getting crowded, growing, getting concrete, becoming insufficient, on one hand natural and cultural values are lost, on the other hand urban environment, place and living quality, city identity are vanishing day by day.

The communities lived within the territory of Anatolia in the past had created effective city samples in the city planning history. Many urban places having a wide variety of cultural elements starting from Hippodamus, the Ion thinker and planner, till the authentic cities of the Ottoman era were located on this territory. The cities when each era reflected its own thought and life on places can be found only in documents recently. As for the cities of today's world, it is known that the society, in general, is not pleased with the qualitative values of the physical environment they live in and the urban places are defined with terms such as concreting, urbanization, etc. Therefore, since the city symbol (as the complementary elements of the city streets, courtyards, population...) and the city culture of the previous Anatolian cities have been forgotten, places of poorly planned and similar characters are increasingly coming on the scene.

Bozkurt Güvenç (1990) explains the existence of the city, "... it is to perceive and comprehend the identity of the city as continuity from the past to the future". Therefore, within the continuity of "past – now – future", the harmony between the dimensions which are related to the places and which are not should be ensured dynamically. The expression 'place identities' refers to a wide range of social relations which contribute to the construction of a 'sense of place', a sense which enables people to feel that they 'belong' to a place, or that a place 'belongs' to them. Plural 'identities' is used to suggest that different versions of identity may circulate within a place, versions which are shaped by the individual or collective experiences of different people (Galdini,2007) .

For this respect, in this study, it has been tried to find out the place of the planning and design assumed to be very important in life fields within the process of redefining the city identity with recent data and approaches, determining the elements forming the city identity and how the city identity changes and gets distorted, and to determine their affects and relative values within this process. Determination of the measures related to identity formation and the examination of these measures on a sample city constitute another part of this study.

THE CONCEPT OF CITY IDENTITY AND THE ELEMENTS FORMING THE CITY IDENTITY

The city identity is the characteristics distinguishing a city from the other cities, in other words helping it metamorphose (Lynch, 1960; Ocakçı, 1995).

Since the identity indicates the characteristics enabling a city to be defined, it has to have different characteristics from the others. No doubt that the identity is a process affected by a number of factors.

The identity is composed of three components; the character of the location, the character and the meanings of the place. The mutual relations and communication of these three components play an important role in the formation of the identity of a place. These features may be summarized as follows:

- The character of the location; features in natural environment formed by climate, topography, geological formation and plant cover.
- The character of the place; the form and image formed by the shape made by fulls and blanks, structural formation, symbolic impact, the materials used, etc.
- Meaning; the identity is the concrete products on the urban places of past's societal lives and cultures. It is the range of meanings reflected by the communities during this period with their lives, struggles, sorrows, joys, longings etc.

Each of the above mentioned three components can be evaluated as the element of the city identity. The place character out of these factors is the connection element ensuring the continuity of the cities from their past to their future. They have important symbolic values in terms of the memory of the city.

Briefly, the elements forming the characteristics of the city identity are mainly as follows; the climatic nature of the region, traditional architecture style developed in parallel to this climatic nature, materials of

construction and urban tissue-place, the features of the regions-sub regions with which the regions on which the cities are established interact, social and economic elements. Moreover, these elements giving shape to cities play an important role mainly in the formation of the social identity of the city. The identities such as folklore, traditional handicrafts are obtained within a peculiar social, physical and historical environment (Tuncer, 1996).

Although the city identity has a complicated structure, the specific characteristics of cities may be indicative for the identities of these cities. Some cities gain their identities with geographical features such as Istanbul Bosphorus, Venetian Canals, Cape Town Topography, Antalya Cliffs. As for some cities, climatic features may also be characteristic. For example, London is famous with its fog. New York is identified with Manhattan Skyscrapers, İstanbul with its Mosques, Moskova with the Kremlin Palace, Paris with Eiffel Tower, which are monumental structures or with other indicative structures in these cities. Some cities are identified with their socio-cultural characteristics. Vienna with its waltz and Rio with its celebrations shall be important examples of the above mentioned cities (Hacıhasanoğlu, 1995).

However, whether this changing process is positive or negative, it will be a part of the identity. Solving the problem of degeneration, deterioration, in other words identity losses by acknowledging this change will be able to ensure the continuity of city identity in physical planning. Urban identity problem involves social, legal, managerial, political, cultural, economic dimensions. Therefore, the problem occurs at the implementation stage of the plans rather than planning process.

The Effects of Planning / Design Decisions and Applications on the Identity

Since 1950s, our country suffers from overpopulation in cities as a result of immigration from rural areas. Along with this overpopulation in big cities, the increasing need of houses comes out. A planning understanding giving opportunity to the arrangement of the living surroundings completely according to wishes – pressures with unearned land rates, jointly owned small parcel entrepreneurship, uncontrolled applications on outer parts of the cities has occurred. Therefore, unsound developments took place in cities.

As time passes, cities turn into a structure without a culture and a meaning by losing their characteristics making them a city. Kukan (2000), by explaining the chaos created for a person and a group by the

uncontrolled cities, defines this fact with immediate collapse theory. Moreover, it is also stated that the number of cities in Turkey resisting to this transformation decreases increasingly. As a result of such structuring process in Turkey, the peculiar characteristics and identities of cities are rapidly vanishing.

Our cities, with this situation, turn into a mass of places without spirit and identity formed only in the name of technology and development. Among the tourist destinations, cities are multi-functional in nature attracting tourists with their genuine urban characteristics such as night-life, shopping and business (Asprogerekas, 2007) . Therefore, this causes the residents of the cities and even those residing temporarily to suffer from an increasing dissatisfaction with the places. Having a lot of the characteristics of the physical environment in the humanbeing life has required many examinations and researches to be carried out on this issue. Therefore, in order to eliminate the above mentioned negative impacts, appropriate and easily comprehended local and regional plannings should be carried out.

The Recent Changes in Place Formation and the Traditional City Identity of Antalya

The peculiar natural and historical environment forms the traditional city identity of Antalya. That Antalya has hosted many civilizations so far has an important role on the formation of this identity. Antalya region presenting us the mystery of past is called Turkish Riviera thanks to its archeological and natural beauties. Antalya in which the sea, history, sun and nature are harmoniously united has the most beautiful and clean costs of the Mediterranean.

The Mediterranean costs of 640 km. length are embellished with archaic cities, monument graves, charming harbors, golden beaches, and Mediterranean-blue beaches, forests embracing the sea, tropical plants, orange yards and waterfalls. At the back side of these mythological legendary costs, snow-capped Taurus Mountains rise. It is a very rich province of us in terms of natural beauties, maintaining still its feature of being the center of an important settlement area on the south of Turkey just like during the history. Its recent importance is due to its economic and touristic characteristics. Furthermore, Antalya has more than the features necessary to be a worldwide tourism center.

One of the most important elements determining the identity of the city is the cliffs extending on east and west directions. Antalya is the place where world's travertines are spread out with their all features. The

travertines have a cliff of approximately 20 km. length and 39 m height on the shore. Antalya has gained a universal city identity with its characteristics and undebatable values.

The history of Antalya goes back to the Stone Age. The proof of this is the findings of Paleolithic age found out in Karain Cave near to Yağca Village. These findings are the evidence of the fact that first humanbeing remains were encountered in this period. Moreover, Antalya is one of our unique cost cities which have been successful to protect the historical values and elements of Rome, Byzantine, the Seljuk and the Ottoman till today.

The rapid population growth in Antalya in 1950s- 1960s was an additional development to the population explosion occurred in the country in general. Still the city having the highest population growth in whole Turkey is Antalya. The population growth accelerated with the immigration and the urbanization started in 1950s and the additional burden caused by this, as well as the existing factors, started to affect the economic life of Antalya in a negative way. The fact that at the end of 1960s the harbor of the neighbor city, Mersin, was opened to service in international standards caused the city to lose the value of its harbor and affected the economic sectors seriously.

However, in 1960s Antalya entered a very different and rapid development trend. This rapid development brought overpopulation growth along with itself. This increase caused the natural sources to be consumed, environmental pollution, and deterioration of the historical, cultural and natural wealth. In order to decrease the negative effects of this development in the city, the development plans should be applied carefully. However, instead of this, the plot speculation has not been controlled; mistakes have been made in planning approaches. These mistakes caused Antalya to be in this negative situation now. Although there are many lands which are suitable for the settlement and do not have agricultural nature, the burden of the development has been imposed on the city structure and the citrus fruits gardens. Within last 20 years, most of the city has been destroyed and constructed again. As a result, thousands of houses destroyed the original structure of the city.

Despite the rapid population growth, planning works have been initiated. It is seen that till 1977, no serious planning work was carried out in Antalya. The plans prepared in cooperation with Antalya Municipality planning office were ratified in 1980. In these plans prepared with serious researches and scientific studies, it was projected to use the north part of the city as a settlement area, to protect the fertile agriculture areas and the north plateau was suggested to be a satellite city. As for east and west

bands, they were planned for tourism purposes considering the need of the tourism sector and the sea usage of the residents, the back parts of the shore band was left as agricultural area. In other words, a modern city plan to carry Antalya to 2000s was projected. However, within the same period, with the anti-democratic applications, it is seen that these plans were not complied with. Likewise, after the Development law numbered 3194 entered into force and the planning authorities were left to municipality assemblies, the deteriorations started. The two examples given below will be enough for the applications executed. For example; the natural seat border of 100 m. formed due to cliffs on Lara shore band was decreased by 30 m. just upon a request of a single hotel. Later, the region which is a tourism area was turned into a residence area. The end of "Lara shore band" formed by ten or more-story buildings can be sufficiently perceived with the photos.

It is seen that the structuring process occurred today is not different at all from another city of the country having different characteristics and location. Therefore, in order to continue the explanation of world's culture city with which referred to Antalya for so long, it is necessary to protect the agricultural areas, to introduce historical and natural culture, to support it with tourism in which all the people of the world exchange cultures and to correct it as a world's culture city in which chimney-free industry can be developed.

THE GOAL OF THE RESEARCH

The goal of this research is to examine the place formation of Antalya and the identity change it suffers through the process in connection with its place formation, to search for solution by discussing the functional structure, values, as well as each integral component of the city and its surroundings in the country. Moreover, it is aimed at determining the measures which may be effective on the re-interpretation and creation of the city identity continuously.

THE SCOPE AND THE METHOD OF THE RESEARCH

Examining the effects on the city identity formation and the changing process of the city image, physical and social characteristics of Antalya considered to be an appropriate and rich example due to the fact that the population growth of the city is high, the summer and winter populations are changeable, it is recognized in Turkey and recently in the world, it has peculiar natural beauties and quite dense historical, natural and cultural

values and therefore that it often becomes the setting for the design and planning works of the city place, constitutes the illustration field. Within this context, the universe of research is formed by Antalya and the local people living in the neighborhood, technical personnel and tourists. The illustration of the research is formed by 100 people, 100 tourists and 100 technical personnel selected from the abovementioned universe.

The public survey (poll) form prepared by examining the literature was used as a data collection method. Tourists, local people and technical personnel were asked to answer the public survey form by using face to face interview method.

While 84 out of 100 public surveys applied to the local people were taken into consideration, only half of the tourists living in Antalya could be reached. 4 of 50 forms were cancelled since they were missing and 46 forms more were added to the research. 66 of the public surveys (polls) made to the technical personnel working in Antalya were returned.

FINDINGS OF THE RESEARCH AND GENERAL EVALUATION

Findings and Interpretations concerning the results of the research carried out on the local people

When the local people were asked whether the image of Antalya changed after they settled in Antalya, %64,2 of the people answered as its image did not change, while %35,8 of the people answered as it did. %86,7 of those stated that the image of Antalya changed perceive this change positively.

Table 1 The distribution of the answers concerning the Antalya image according to the local people participated in the public survey.

Has the image of Antalya before you come to Antalya changed after you settled?	Number	Percentage (%)
No	54	64,2
Yes	30	35,8

As seen on Table 3, %28,57 of the local people stated that natural data determines the identity of Antalya, %22,22 of them, traditional structure; %20,63 of them, historical structures; %17,46 of them, plant cover; %6,34 of them, recent structures; %4,76 of them, recent working order. According to these results, it is seen that natural data (sea, sand,

sun), traditional structure (Kaleiçi, Balbey, Haşimişcan Street) and historical structures (Clock Tower, Three Doors, Grooved Minaret, Hıdırlık Tower) are the most important elements determining the identity of Antalya.

Table 2 Change of the image of Antalya after coming to Antalya

If yes;	Number	Percentage (%)
Change in a more positive direction	26	86,7
Change in a more negative direction	4	13,3

Table 3 Values determining the identity of Antalya

According to you, Which places introducing Antalya are the most important ones?	Number	Percentage (%)
Natural data (Sea, sand, sun)	24	28,57
Traditional structure (Kaleiçi, Balbey, Haşimişcan Street)	19	22,22
Historical structures (Clock Tower, Three Doors, Grooved Minaret, Hıdırlık Tower)	17	20,63
Plant cover (greenhouses, citrus fruits gardens, small woods, etc.)	15	17,46
Structures of our time (Hotels, Glass Pyramid)	5	6,34
Structuring order of our time (New settlements, area of shanty houses, historical regions)	4	4,76

While % 63,63 of the local people considers their living place good, %18,19 of them considers bad, %9,09 of them considers excellent and %9,09 of them considers it average.

When the list of the satisfaction elements of the local people in the place they live in is examined, it seen that %29,03 of it is climate, %22,58 is open areas, %17,74 is geological structure, %8,06 is topography, %6,46 is structures, %4,84 is roads, %3,23 is social life. According to these results, the primary factors why the local people are satisfied with living in Antalya are the climate of Antalya, open areas and the cliffs defined as geological structures.

Table 4 According to the local people participated in the public survey, the distribution of the results concerning the evaluation of the living place

What do you think about the place you live in?	Number	Percentage (%)
Good	53	63,63
Bad	15	18,19
Excellent	8	9,09
Average	8	9,09

Table 5 According to the local people participated in the public survey, the distribution of the satisfaction elements in the living place

What are the elements that you are satisfied with in the place you live in?	Number	Percentage (%)
Climate	25	29,03
Open areas	20	22,58
Geological structure	16	17,74
Topography	8	8,06
Structures	6	6,46
Roads	5	4,84
Social life	4	3,23

All of the local people participated in the public survey consider the city view in A illustration (traditional structure) attractive-authentic-relieving. When we have a look at the distribution of the answers of the local people participated in the public survey on B illustration, it is seen that %77,27 of them found this mass housing picture repulsive, %81,82 of them, ordinary, %81,82 of them, gloomy. When we have a look at the distribution of the answers of the local people participated in the public survey on C illustration, it is seen that %50 of the local people found this picture reflecting the cliffs repulsive, %60 of them, ordinary, %54,54 of them, gloomy. As a result, that the cliffs which are very important natural structures for Antalya are recalled with the abovementioned percentages and expressions is quite thought-provoking.

Table 6 According to the local people participated in the public survey, the distributions of the ideal housing areas concerning the visual effect factors

	ILLUSTRATION A	ILLUSTRATION B	ILLUSTRATION C
Attractive	% 100	% 4,54	% 18,18
Average	-	% 18,18	% 31,82
Repulsive	-	% 77,27	% 50
Authentic	% 100		% 22,72
Average	-	% 18,18	% 18,18
Ordinary	-	% 81,82	% 60
Relieving	% 100		% 18,18
Average	-	% 18,18	% 27,28
Gloomy	-	% 81,82	% 54,54

Findings and Interpretations concerning the results of the research carried out on the Tourists living in Antalya

When the tourists participated in the public survey were asked whether the image of Antalya changed after they settled in this city, %33,33 of the tourists said that its imade did not change, while %66,67 of them said it did. %82,90 of those who said the image of Antalya changed after they settled stated that this change is negative. %17,10 of them said that they found this change positive.

Table 7 According to the tourists participated in the public survey, the distribution of the answers concerning the image of Antalya

Has the image of Antalya before you settled changed after you started to live in Antalya?	Number	Percentage (%)
No	15	33,33
Yes	31	66,67

Table 8 Change of the image of Antalya after coming to Antalya

If yes;	Number	Percentage (%)
Change in a more positive direction	5	17,10
Change in a more negative direction	26	82,90

As it is seen on Table 12, %33,40 of the tourists participated in the public survey stated that natural data determines the identity of Antalya;

%25,26 of them, historical structures; %17,62 of them, plant cover; %13,36 of them, traditional structures; %10,36 of them, the structuring order of our time. According to these results, it is seen that the tourists evaluate the identity of the city primarily with the natural data (sea, sand, sun), historical structures (Clock Tower, Three Doors, Grooved Minaret, Hıdırlık Tower) and the plant cover.

Table 9 Values determining the identity of Antalya

According to you, Which places introducing Antalya are the most important ones?	Number	Percentage (%)
Natural data (Sea, sand, sun)	15	33,40
Historical structures (Clock Tower, Three Doors, Grooved Minaret, Hıdırlık Tower)	12	25,26
Plant cover (greenhouses, citrus fruits gardens, small woods, etc.)	8	17,62
Traditional structure (Kaleiçi, Balbey, Haşımışcan Street)	6	13,36
Structures of our time (Hotels, Glass Pyramid)	-	-
Structuring order of our time (New settlements, area of shanty houses, historical regions)	5	10,36

While %55,87 of the tourists participated in the public survey considers their living place excellent, %30,50 of them, good, %13,63 of them, average. These results show that despite all negativenesses, Antalya has a satisfactory city identity with its rich features.

Table 10 The distribution of the results concerning the evaluation of the tourists participated in the public survey of the living place

What do you think about the city you live in?	Number	Percentage (%)
Excellent	26	55,87
Good	14	30,50
Average	6	13,63
Bad	-	-

%73 of the tourists participated in the public survey stated that they want to live in the traditional structure, %3,97 of them in mass housings, %24,13 of them on cliffs.

Table 11 The distribution of the results concerning the residence area that the tourists participated in the public survey want to live in

In which housing area of Antalya would you like to live?	Number	Percentage (%)
In the city structure of our time/near cliffs	25	54,5
Traditional structure	19	41
Mass residence (housing) areas	2	4,5

When we examine the Table 16, we may find out the satisfaction elements of the tourists in the place they live in. It is seen that %24,24 of them marked the climate choice, %25,76 of them, the plant cover choice, %15,15 of them, the geological structure choice, %10,61 of them, the structures choice, %3,03 of them, the roads choice, %12,12 of them, the open areas choice, %9,09 of them, the topography choice. According to these results, climate, geological structure and plant cover are more important for the tourists.

Table 12 According to the tourists participated in the public survey, the distributions of the ideal housing areas concerning the visual effect factors

	ILLUSTRATION A	ILLUSTRATION B	ILLUSTRATION C
Attractive	% 71,27	-	% 22
Average	% 24,50	% 28,87	% 30
Repulsive	% 4,23	% 71,13	% 48
Authentic	% 84,06	% 2,50	% 11
Average	% 12,74	% 16,34	% 30
Ordinary	% 3,2	% 81,16	% 59
Relieving	% 91,27	-	-
Average	% 8,73	% 25,42	%33
Gloomy	-	% 74,58	% 67

Findings and Interpretations concerning the results of the research carried out on the technical personnel working in Antalya

There are some questions which are open to interpretation in the public survey (poll) carried out on the technical personnel. The answers given to these questions are in general as follows;

1. Technical personnel agree upon the fact that the natural and historical features peculiar to the city, privileges given by the natural and the artificial elements to the city, its architecture, culture, etc are quite important for the determination of the city identity.
2. They underline the fact that in order to provide positive contributions to the change of the city identity, in planning and design dimension, it is certainly necessary to protect the elements of the city identity.
3. They described Antalya as a city which has many natural and historical features, however, they also stated that it can not be used properly with a correct planning and protection approaches.

Table 13 Evaluation of the technical personnel participated in the public survey of the identity formation of the city

In your opinion, what are the most important factors in the identity formation of the city?	In order of importance	Percentage (%)
Structures	1	33,2
Geological Structure	2	21,8
Plant Cover	3	12,7
Topography	4	10,3
Climate	5	10
Open Areas	6	7
Roads	7	5

As it is seen on Table 18, according to the technical personnel participated in the public survey, %33,2 of the primary elements forming the city identity is structures, %21,8 of them is geological structure, %12,7 of them is the plant cover. According to the technical personnel, particularly structures and the geological structure contribute a lot to the identity formation of the city.

As it can be seen on Table 19, according to the technical personnel, the primary elements forming the city identity of Antalya are natural features, historical structures, and traditional structure. These results are parallel to the answers of the tourists for this question.

According to the Table 20, the technical personnel consider the traditional structure shown in the Illustration A, %77,78 convenient. As for the mass housing areas in the Illustration B, they consider it %78,95

convenient. Majority of them consider cliffs which are the most important identity element of Antalya quite inconvenient (%80,55).

Table 14 Values determining the identity of Antalya

In your opinion what are the elements forming the city identity of Antalya?	Number	Percentage (%)
Natural data (Sea, sand, sun)	15	23
Traditional structure (Kaleiçi, Balbey, Haşimişcan Street)	15	23
Historical structures (Clock Tower, Three Doors, Grooved Minaret, Hıdırlık Tower)	12	18
Plant cover (greenhouses, citrus fruits gardens, small woods, etc.)	8	12
Structures of our time (Hotels, Glass Pyramid)	9	14
Structuring order of our time (New settlements, area of shanty houses, historical regions)	7	11

Table 15 Convenience states in living area types

	Convenient	Average	Inconvenient
Traditional structure	% 77,78	% 5,26	% 2,78
Mass residence (housing) areas	% 11,11	% 78,95	% 16,67
City structure of our time/cliffs	% 11,11	% 15,79	% 80,55

RESULTS AND SUGGESTIONS

Under the light of the analysis carried out on all groups in the public survey study, after combining and evaluating the results of this study and the information collected after examining the literature, the results reached and the solution suggestions are as follows:

In accordance with the questions which are open to interpretation and asked to the local people, the technical personnel and the tourists;

- The rapid urbanization and the immigration in Antalya brought unearned income economy based on lands along with itself and reached to a level which prevents the development of all other

economic foundations. According to this, in order to prevent supply speculation, all necessary measures such as collecting more tax from the lands exceeding a specific size, cheap land production, controlling the transfers of lands should be taken.

- They require the places within the Metropolitan development area to change by protecting their values of living and places coming from the past. Therefore, in the development of Metropolitan areas just like Antalya, the identities in the memory of these cities containing settlement, transportation and living styles should be protected and developed.
- The technical personnel state that the coast areas in the region are planned separately; therefore, there occur contradictions between the settlements interacting. Thus, there has to be a planning discipline which can protect and transfer the natural and cultural beauties of Antalya and its neighborhood to the next generations.
- According to the technical personnel, while selecting the development areas, the settlement areas should be examined in detail. The cliffs which bring Antalya to a distinguished place among the world's cities and which are the unique gifts of nature should be given importance and the city should be protecting with landscaping. At the same time, we should be sensitive in protecting the coasts and sandy beaches. The tourists and the local people share the same result (thought).
- The technical personnel emphasized the esthetic and artistic dimension of architecture and the fact that it is necessary to provide new values to the environment by ensuring the harmony between the physical and cultural values and establishing relieving place and visual relations. Moreover, they have also stated that the only way of creating attractiveness, establishing successful relations with the nature and creating an original city is making the city planning through city designing and complying with the plans. This plan should be in a way that it will protect the balance between the mankind and the nature and try to establish this balance.
- Majority of the tourists and the local people have stated that the image of Antalya has not changed after they settled in this city. According to these results, the tourists and the local people, despite some negativenesses, have stated that Antalya is the capital of tourism and it has many unmatched natural, historical and environmental values.

- Since the tourism potential of Antalya is high, the rate of immigration to this city is also quite high. According to last population determination, the city receiving the highest population is Antalya. The uncontrolled infrastructure caused by this population results in big damages in the environment. In order to use the natural sources in balanced manner and to ensure a sustainable development, the necessary works should be carried out for this respect.
- According to the local people and the tourists, the most important characteristics introducing Antalya are its plant cover, natural features and historical structures. Antalya in which sea, sun, history and nature become united in a magical way has the most beautiful and clean coasts of the Mediterranean. This important feature of Antalya should be protected; new works should be carried out to introduce other special features.
- The local people and the tourists consider the places they live in good, despite some negativenesses they suffer. For a sustainable development, sustainable tourism and therefore for leaving a better and a more beautiful city to the next generation, private and public sectors and the universities should cooperate. What is necessary should be made to ensure Antalya to be a worldwide tourism center.

As a conclusion, the unmatched characteristics of Antalya which is the origin of world's architecture culture with its thousands of years civilization should be protected so that the cities in future may inspire of its characteristics. This rich cultural characteristics form the universal identity and the future of Antalya along with the natural heritage surrounding it.

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A COMPARISON OF THE PROJECTED AND THE PERCEIVED IMAGE OF CYPRUS

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The purpose of this research is to identify and compare the projected and perceived images of Cyprus following repositioning. Secondary sources such as brochures, advertising campaigns and tourism websites were used to identify the projected image and a survey was performed to measure the perceived image. Questionnaires including closed and open-ended questions evaluating destination attributes and perceived image were disseminated to 393 British tourists. The research identified the differences between the two concepts, revealing that the marketing strategy of Cyprus has not managed to enhance destination image. The paper concludes with recommendations on marketing Cyprus tourism.

Keywords: *destination image; tourism marketing; Cyprus*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

For the past decade mass tourism destinations have been trying to distinguish themselves from competitors by developing alternative tourism forms and enriching their images. Destination image has received great academic attention as it influences destination selection (Vaughan and Edwards, 1999; Tapachai and Waryszak, 2000; Gallarza et al, 2002; Mohamed, 2008). However, most past studies have focused on the measurement of destination image (Driscoll et al, 1994), its components (Dann, 1996) and the identification of the factors that influence it (Walmsley and Jenkins, 1993). Little attention has been paid to the comparison between the projected and the perceived images of

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destinations. The measurement of fit between the projected and perceived images of destinations can yield important findings in terms of tourism marketing by allowing the exploration of tourist satisfaction. This is particularly true for traditional mass tourism destinations which tend to focus on alternative marketing strategies that support image alteration and redesign (Buhalis, 2000).

The purpose of this research paper is to compare the projected and perceived images of Cyprus in order to measure the degree of image enhancement following repositioning efforts. First, a review of literature on destination image is provided, followed by a discussion of the concepts of projected and perceived image. The image of Cyprus as projected by the Cyprus Tourism Organisation (CTO) is analysed through secondary sources, whereas the perceived image is measured through primary research. After analysis, the projected and perceived images are compared to determine the fit between the two.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Destination Image

The concept of destination image is not precisely defined making it difficult to conceptualise and measure image (Grosspietsch, 2004). Kotler (1991:570) defined image as “the set of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person holds of an object”. More specifically, Gartner (1986) defined destination image as an individual’s perception of attributes or activities available at a destination and McKay and Fesenmaier (1997:538) suggested that “a destination’s image is a composite of various products and attributes woven into a total impression”. These definitions show that destination image has been related to attributes and most past studies have used a set of attributes to measure it. However, Echtner and Ritchie (1991; 1993) argued that destination image consists of both attribute-based and holistic components and that the conceptualisation of image should embrace both (Dann, 1996; Imbrahim and Gill, 2005). Several researchers (Gartner, 1993; Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999) agree that image is a concept formed by consumers’ reasoned and emotional interpretation as a result of the interaction of a) the perceptive evaluations referring to an individual’s knowledge and beliefs about a destination and b) the affective appraisals relating to an individual’s feelings towards the

destination (Beerli and Martin, 2004). These two factors produce an overall image, which relates to the positive or negative evaluation of the product. This research paper incorporates both attribute-based and holistic aspects of destination image measuring their impact on the perceptive and affective image component.

The Role of Image in Tourism Marketing

The manipulation of destination image by tourism organisations to influence destination selection and consumer behaviour is widely recorded. According to Font (1998) knowledge of tourist image is important for destination positioning and differentiation. The marketing value of image is that it allows an intangible product like a destination to position itself against competitors (Wind, 1982) through the creation of a brand. Ashworth (1991) stated that the tourism product is a set of experiences packaged as a destination and marketed through images. Through advertising, product attributes are formed (Deighton and Schindler, 1988) and image becomes an artificially created differentiation. According to Wernick (1991) image promotion is concerned with transferring meaning onto a product in order to increase demand. As Mayo (1973) argued, tourists hold in their minds images of an ideal destination, which leads them to choose the destination that promises to provide them with the greatest amount of satisfaction. The traveller is likely to choose the destination with the most favourable image (Gartner, 1989). Therefore, image plays an important role in the destination selection process (Kamenidou et al, 2009).

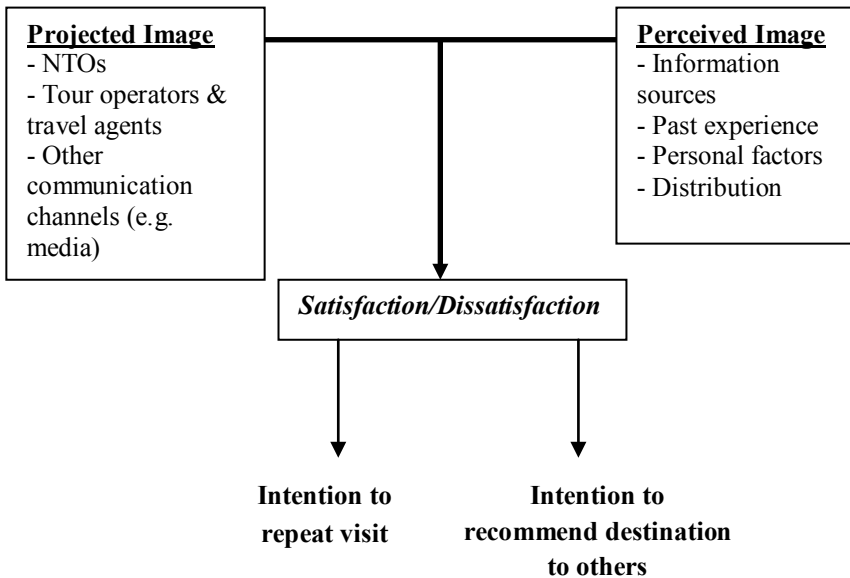
Projected and Perceived Images

Ashworth (1991) argues that images can be projected, whether consciously through promotion or unconsciously through communication channels, and then received by consumers which assemble the messages according to their predisposed constructs, which will influence their behaviour. Hence, image is of two types: the projected image formed through the promotional activities of tourism organisations and tour operators and the perceived image held by the tourist, which is influenced by the information received through word-of-mouth and experience (Kotler et al, 1993). The distinction between projected and perceived

image provides a useful approach for analysing image from a managerial and methodological viewpoint (Andreu et al, 2000).

Researchers have defined projected image as a ‘pull’ factor in the destination decision process. According to Smith (1989) pull factors are related to the destination’s cultural, environmental and recreational characteristics, used by tourist organisations and tour operators to attract tourists to the destination. Alternatively, socio-psychological variables such as motivation, preference and perception act as ‘push’ factors that predispose tourists to travel (Baloglu and Uysal, 1996). Tourists evaluate destinations according to their perception of the benefits offered by a destination; this evaluation is performed through images (Batra et al, 1996).

Figure 1 Relationship of Image and Satisfaction



Source: Author (2011)

According to Ryan (2003) tourists arrive at the destination with pre-conceived images. Bigne et al (2001) argued that image moulds expectations before the actual visit; hence, image is directly linked to tourist satisfaction (Chon and Olsen, 1991) as an actual visitation at the destination will influence satisfaction level, depending on whether the projected image in tourists' minds corresponds to the actual experience. Hence, satisfaction is important in enhancing destination image (Styliadis et al, 2008). Chon (1990) argues that dissatisfaction may result in avoidance of a repeat visit and a negative image communicated to other individuals (Gitleson and Kerstetter, 1994). The relationship between the projected, the perceived image and satisfaction is depicted in figure 1.

Following increased competition and changing tourist needs, several destinations have opted to reposition themselves to enrich their image. This is true of Mediterranean coastal resorts that wish to shift away from their 'sea and sun' images. Such repositioning strategies entail the enrichment of destination image through the development of new products and the improvement of service quality. It is therefore important to measure the degree of fit between the projected and perceived image to determine whether marketing strategies are successful in repositioning destinations.

THE PROJECTED IMAGE OF CYPRUS

Following examination of the strategy for Cyprus' repositioning, it is evident that the destination's image must be viewed in terms of the 'sea and sun' product and the SIT (special interest tourism) products. To analyse the projected image of Cyprus past research, advertising and positioning strategies initiated by the CTO and the tour operators were considered. Additional information was derived from internet websites.

Cyprus: A 'sea and sun' destination

The rapid mass tourism growth in Cyprus established it as a popular 'sea and sun' destination. Following the Turkish invasion a spatial restructuring occurred on the island, which shifted tourism development to the coastal areas, increasing the dependency of Cyprus on the 'sea and sun' all-inclusive package, which revolved around common attributes with few distinguishing factors. The emphasis on the 'sea and sun' image was evident in the island's communication strategy. Much of the CTO's

advertising was directed at reinforcing the island's main characteristics: sea, sun and sand. In the 1990s, in order to project a broader image and strengthen perceived 'quality', the CTO promoted the island's abundant cultural resources. However, research has shown that only 35% of tourists made trips outside their resorts, many of which were not for cultural purposes (CTO, 1993b), indicating the strong image of Cyprus as a 'sea and sun' destination (Sharpley, 2003). This image of Cyprus had been largely influenced by tour operators, which promoted the island as a safe summer, sea and sun destination with an emphasis on fun, relaxation and romance (Sharpley, 1998a). The promotion of Cyprus as a cultural, quality destination was further impeded by the popularity of Ayia Napa, which quickly became a haven for clubbers (Spanou, 2007).

In the late 1990s, competition and a deteriorating market highlighted the importance of distinguishing the destination from competitors and communicating to potential markets its authentic character and tradition. Hence, the CTO initiated a repositioning strategy in an attempt to diversify the destination.

SIT Product Image

A range of SIT products has been attached to the main 'sea and sun' product in order to enrich the tourist experience and destination image. Their development required the addition of several functional and psychological attributes, which had to be communicated to potential markets effectively. The CTO initiated an integrated communication strategy in an attempt to consolidate the image of the island. Until the late 1990s the CTO's promotion of the destination lacked a holistic approach; separate advertising campaigns were launched by different local advertising agencies in each target market leading to a profusion of messages and images. Since the late 1990s it was realised that a unified campaign was required and hence the advertising campaign was assigned to one international agency that was responsible for communicating the diverse tourist experience Cyprus offered in an integrated message to all target markets. Table 1 shows the latest advertising slogans.

The first slogan "*Cyprus: A whole world on a single island*" aimed to emphasise the small geographical area of Cyprus which allows tourists to perform several activities within a small island. The second slogan "*Cyprus: The island for all seasons*" emphasised the mild climate of the island that allows tourists to perform activities year-round whereas the

latest slogan “*Love Cyprus*” aims to inspire emotions in potential tourists and point out the relation of the island to Aphrodite, the goddess of love. The CTO’s communication strategy includes generic advertising campaigns in the main communication channels and promotional activities such as the hosting of journalists, who act as secondary information sources and are powerful in influencing images.

Table 1 Cyprus Advertising Slogans

Slogans	Main campaign features
<i>“Cyprus: A whole world on a single island”</i> Adv. Agency: Bates Europe Ltd	• Emphasises a range of products, including culture and historical tradition, natural richness and a diversity of activities • Shift away from the ‘sea and sun’ product and image by inviting people to explore the island • Emphasises the small geographical area of the island which allows tourists to travel around easily
<i>“Cyprus: The island for all seasons”</i> Adv. Agency: Scholtz & Friends AG	• Attempts to extend the seasonality by emphasising the mild weather of Cyprus year-round • Emphasis placed on the activities which could be performed in low seasons including rural tourism, sports, sightseeing etc
<i>“Love Cyprus”</i> Adv. Agency: Adel Saatchi & Saatchi	• An emotional message which acts as a statement and an invitation (CTO, 2006) • Distinguishes Cyprus by connecting the island with goddess of love Aphrodite • The use of several pictures allows for the promotion of the diverse tourist experience of Cyprus • Is used with the complementary message “the year round island” as a continuance of previous campaigns and as an attempt to extend seasonality

Source: Adapted from Andreu et al (2000)

In addition, PR campaigns have been initiated such as workshops in Cyprus for foreign travel agencies, presentations to specialised groups and educational trips for tour operators to convince them to promote Cyprus as a quality destination.

The CTO also takes part in international tourism exhibitions; in 2010 the organisation participated in 130 tourist fairs. In order to promote SIT, the CTO advertises the destination in tourism trade magazines and in special events such as exhibitions, sport and cultural events. The importance placed by the CTO on communication and promotion is evident in the expenditure on advertising campaigns, which tends to increase over the years. Table 2 shows the total advertising budget from 1998-2008.

Table 2 Advertising Budget

Year	CY£
1998	7155000
1999	6025000
2000	7760000
2003	7847329
2004	8528400
2005	9680450
2006	9400000
2007	9400000
2008	12000000

Source: CTO (2008)

The advertising budget has increased between 1998 and 2008 from CY£7,155 million to CY£12 million, despite small decreases which occurred in 1999, 2006 and 2007. The majority of the budget was allocated to the priority target markets such as the UK, Germany and Russia. However, the extent to which such efforts have been successful in improving the perceived image remain unexplored. Past studies have shown that there are differences between the projected and perceived image (Andreu et al, 2000; Grosspietsch, 2004). Therefore, it is significant that the projected and perceived images of Cyprus are identified and compared.

METHODOLOGY

Research Objectives and Questions

The introductory section of this research paper has pointed out the lack of research into the relationship between the projected image and the perceived image of destinations. To address this gap, this research aims to identify and compare the projected and the perceived image of Cyprus following its repositioning efforts to determine whether: a) its marketing strategies have been successful in increasing tourist satisfaction and b) the perceived image of Cyprus has been enhanced. In order to achieve this, the projected image is explored through secondary sources and compared with the perceived image which is identified through primary research. In addition, the perceived image is measured across several variables that affect its formation to uncover important managerial implications. Consequently, the primary research objectives are:

- 1) The exploration of the perceived image in relation to the factors that affect its formation;
- 2) The identification of the perceived image of Cyprus; and
- 3) The evaluation of destination attributes in terms of quality and value for money.

Regarding research question 1, it is proposed that the perceived image be measured in terms of the key factors influencing it, namely tourists' information sources, personal factors, past experience and distribution method. Thus, the following hypotheses are formed:

Hypothesis 1: The perceived image varies according to tourist demographic factors and motivations.

Hypothesis 2: The perceived image varies according to information source types.

Hypothesis 3: The perceived image varies according to the number of previous visits.

Hypothesis 4: The perceived image varies according to the way the trip is organised.

Regarding questions 2 and 3, the overall image of the destination is considered together with perceived quality and value for money in relation to destination attributes drawn from previous studies.

Sampling

A survey was conducted between June and August 2009 in order to identify the perceived image of Cyprus. A self-completion questionnaire was disseminated to 557 British tourists at Larnaka airport's departure lounge; 440 questionnaires were returned and 47 questionnaires were regarded as unusable. The sample used was considered representative of the population as more than 50% of total tourist arrivals are from the UK and 40% of tourists arrive in the summer months; also, tourists with experience at the destination were required to compare between the projected and perceived images.

The purpose of the questionnaire was to elicit respondents' attitudes on a variety of issues relating to their experience in Cyprus. Specifically, the questionnaire aimed to measure perceived image through the rating of several attributes as well as to explore relationships between variables affecting image formation and perceived image. Thus, the questionnaire was based on closed-ended questions, which included 5-point Likert scales that measured the respondents' attitudes on a variety of destination attributes in terms of value for money and quality, 7-point numerical scales that measured the respondents' perception of overall value for money and quality, satisfaction level and likelihood of recommendation, a ranking question whereby destination attributes were ranked and a semantic differential scale used to obtain respondents' attitudes over a series of bi-polar adjectives about the destination. Two open-ended questions were also included to allow respondents to describe Cyprus in their own words and make suggestions about the improvement of the tourism product. Analysis of the data was performed using SPSS whereas the open-ended questions were analysed using thematic analysis.

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Respondents' Characteristics

A total of 393 completed questionnaires were collected by the researcher indicating a response rate of approximately 70.6%. The key characteristics of the sample were that 47.9% belonged in the 18-34 age group, 73.9% were either married or in a relationship, 66.2% were repeat visitors and 83.2% visited for leisure purposes. A detailed profile is presented in table 3.

Table 3 Respondents Profile

Characteristic	Number	Percentage
<u>Age</u>		
18-24	130	33.9
25-34	54	14
35-44	45	11.7
45-54	50	13
55-64	70	17.9
65-74	34	8.8
75+	3	0.8
<u>Gender</u>		
Female	204	52
Male	188	48
<u>Marital Status</u>		
Single	90	23
In a relationship	104	26.5
Married	185	47.4
Divorced	11	2.8
Widowed	1	0.3
<u>Travelling with children</u>		
Yes	58	14.8
No	333	85.2
<u>Educational Level</u>		
Secondary school	100	26.5
Work training	195	51.6
BA degree	56	14.8
MA degree or higher	27	7.1
<u>First-time Visitor</u>		
Yes	133	33.8
No	260	66.2
<u>No. of Previous Visits</u>		
One	58	22.3
Two or more	202	77.7
<u>Primary Reason for Travel</u>		
Holidays	326	83.2
Religious	3	0.8
Visit friends/family	45	11.5
Health	2	0.5
Business	1	0.3
Other	15	3.8

<u>Factors influencing travel decision</u>	218	55.5
Family/friends	36	9.2
Tour operator/travel agent	13	3.3
Advertising	25	6.4
Media	126	32.1
Past experience	31	7.9
Other		
<u>Travelling on Packaged Tour</u>		
Yes	153	38.9
No	240	61.1
<u>Packaged Tour Components</u>		
Transportation	153	100
Accommodation only	23	43.8
Accommodation B&B	24	15.7
Accommodation H/B/FB	61	39.9
Excursions/tours	7	4.6
Other	3	2

Respondents' Perception

Factors affecting Image Formation

Statistical tests such as correlation coefficients and multiple regression were used to explore relationships between variables and independent t-tests, while ANOVA and MANOVA were used to explore differences between groups. The first step in ensuring a reliable set of scales measuring the attribute-based components of destination image was to perform factor analysis using principal component analysis with varimax or oblique rotation procedure. Hence, the cognitive and affective image components were derived. In terms of the cognitive image three factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1 were retained. Examination of the scree plot supported the conclusion of a three-component solution. The three factors accounted for approximately 57% of the item variance (36.8%, 11.6% and 8.9% respectively).

Three variables were created of which the first represents the 'attractiveness' of the destination by summarising evaluations of the 'environment' and 'hospitality', the second represents 'activity', summarising evaluations of 'outdoor activities' and the third represents

the typical 'holiday', summarising evaluations of 'sea' and 'having fun'. This can be seen in table 4.

Table 4 Cognitive Image Component
Pattern Matrix^a

	Component		
	1	2	3
beautiful scenery	,433	,104	,218
friendly people	,802	-,240	-,079
day activities	,163	,291	,635
evening activities	-,066	,003	,768
excellent beaches	-,063	-,250	,793
good sports facilities	,248	,487	,441
relaxed atmosphere	,548	-,344	,211
good weather	,312	-,741	,258
good value	,402	,323	,129
attractive towns	,764	,139	,014
good service quality	,812	,049	-,008
quality accommodation	,788	-,064	-,117

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 16 iterations.

In terms of the affective image one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1 was retained. Slightly more than 39% of item variance was explained by this factor and as seen in table 5 a variable was created which represents the 'holistic' evaluations of the affective image.

Table 5 Affective Image Component Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
describe Cyprus (boring - exciting)	,576
describe Cyprus (common - distinctive)	,561
describe Cyprus (unsafe - safe)	,625
describe Cyprus (inferior-luxurious)	,699
describe Cyprus (inhospitable-welcoming)	,663

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Based on the results of hypotheses testing the following points are concluded:

- a) The first cognitive image component of Cyprus which represents 'attractiveness' is affected by the purpose of visit [$F(2, 225)=2.5$, $p=.029$]. Also, as seen in table 6 only 'age' has a significant relationship with the first (attractiveness) and second (activity) cognitive image components, indicating that the tourism product promotion should be segmented (Shin, 2009).
- b) 'Past experience' influences the first component of the cognitive image (attractiveness), 'travel agent' influences the third component (holiday) whereas 'past experience' and 'advertising' influence the affective component (holistic). This indicates that people travelling for a 'sea and sun' holiday are largely influenced by their travel agent; past experience seems to influence the cognitive and affective image more than other sources while advertising has an affective appeal in people as it evokes feelings (table 7). This implies that

policy-planners must strengthen cooperation with tour operators and target repeat tourists.

Table 6 Multiple Regression Coefficients

COG1	B	SE B	β	R ²	Sig.
<u>Model 1</u>					
Constant	-0.435	0.158			
Age	0.012	0.004	0.197	0.039	0.003
<u>COG2</u>					
<u>Model 1</u>					
Constant	0.295	0.155			
Age	-0.009	0.004	-0.144	0.021	0.034
<u>COG3</u>					
<u>Model 1</u>					
Constant	0.571	0.273			
Gender	-0.260	0.137	-0.130		
Travel with children	0.001	0.193	0.000		
Educational level	-0.004	0.087	-0.003		
Marital status (widowed)	-0.198	0.171	-0.090		
Age	-0.011	0.005	-0.176	0.041	0.106
<u>AFF</u>					
<u>Model 1</u>					
Constant	-0.015	0.212			
Age	0.003	0.003	0.061		
Gender	-0.168	0.101	-0.085		
Educational level	-0.044	0.064	-0.038		
Marital status (widowed)	0.149	0.145	0.065		
Travelling with children	-0.044	0.153	-0.016	0.013	0.498

*significance level = ($p < 0.05$)

Table 7 Multiple Regression Coefficients

COG1	B	SE B	β	R ²	Sig.
<u>Model 1</u>					
Constant	-0.117	0.078			
Past Experience	0.385	0.141	0.178	0.032	0.007
COG2					
<u>Model 1</u>					
Constant	0.177	0.197			
Friends/family	-0.173	0.195	-0.086		
Travel agent	0.071	0.266	0.021		
Advertising	0.290	0.392	0.056		
Media	-0.186	0.254	-0.055		
Past experience	-0.247	0.204	-0.114		
Other	-0.052	0.278	-0.014	0.013	0.815
COG3					
<u>Model 1</u>					
Constant	-0.050	0.068			
Travel Agent	0.522	0.222	0.154	0.024	0.019
AFF					
<u>Model 1</u>					
Constant	-0.071	0.063			
Past experience	0.234	0.113	0.108	0.012	0.040
<u>Model 2</u>					
Constant	-0.097	0.064			
Past experience	0.254	0.113	0.117		
Advertising	0.591	0.292	0.106	0.023	0.016

*significance level = ($p < 0.05$)

- c) Perceived image varies with the number of previous visits [$r=0.167$, $n=146$, $p<0.044$], indicating that tourists travelling to Cyprus frequently have more positive perceived images. This might be explained by the fact that frequency of travel allows for greater exploration of the destination.

Table 8 Multiple Regression Coefficients

COG1	B	SE B	β	R ²	Sig.
<u>Model 1</u>					
Constant	0.268	0.124			
Accommodation only	-0.365	0.176	-0.205	0.042	0.040
COG2					
<u>Model 1</u>					
Constant	-0.497	0.970			
Accommodation only	0.352	0.980	0.182		
	0.692	1.014	0.224		
Accommodation	0.457	0.983	0.229		
B/B	0.331	0.529	0.067		
Accommodation	1.142	0.748	0.165	0.056	0.357
HB/FB					
Excursions					
Other					
COG3					
<u>Model 1</u>					
Constant	-0.120	1.039			
Accommodation only	0.386	1.959	0.184		
	-0.279	1.087	-0.083		
Accommodation	0.101	1.054	0.047		
B/B	-0.942	0.567	-0.176		
Accommodation	0.476	0.801	0.064	0.077	0.178
HB/FB					
Excursions					
Other					
AFF					
<u>Model 1</u>					
Constant	-0.342	0.944			
Accommodation only	0.272	0.952	0.145		
	0.326	0.969	0.121		
Accommodation	0.448	0.953	0.237		
B/B	0.212	0.410	0.047		
Accommodation	0.110	0.569	0.017	0.013	0.875
HB/FB					
Excursions					
Other					

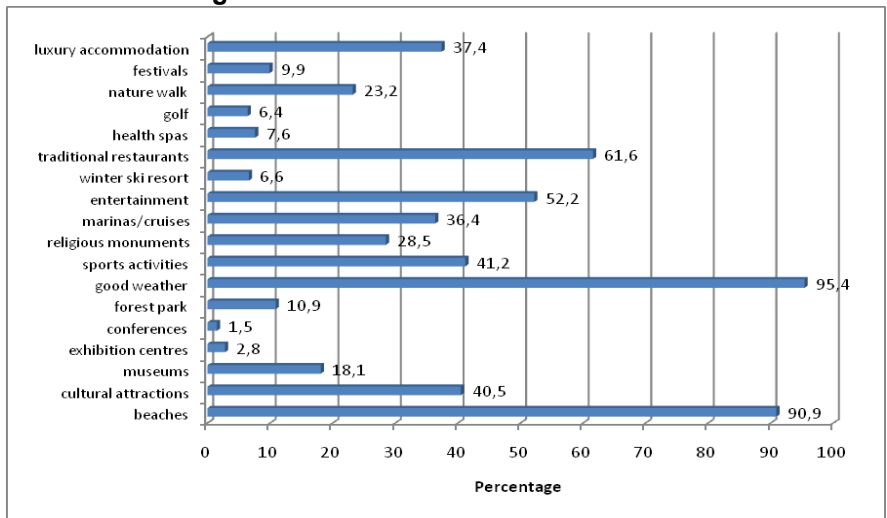
*significance level = ($p < 0.05$)

- d) In terms of the way the holiday package was distributed only ‘self-catering accommodation’ had an association with the first component of the cognitive image (attractiveness), indicating that those selecting ‘self-catering accommodation’ have a lower perceived image (table 8). This suggests that self-catering accommodation units need to be improved.

Perceived Image

Respondents’ perceived image was measured through a series of questions including ‘what characteristics the destination has to offer’ and ‘how would you describe Cyprus’. The aim of such questions was to obtain respondents’ perception of the destination using attitudinal descriptors and to observe the type of characteristics attached to Cyprus. In terms of characteristics it was found that ‘good weather’ (95.4%), ‘beaches’ (92.9%), ‘traditional restaurants’ (61.6%) and ‘entertainment’ (52.5%) were preferred, indicating that respondents perceive Cyprus as a typical ‘sea and sun’ destination (figure 2).

Figure 2 Destination Characteristics



Moreover, when asked to rate Cyprus in terms of bipolar scales respondents rated Cyprus high in terms of ‘safety’, ‘excitement’ and ‘hospitality’ but gave lower rates for ‘luxury’ and ‘distinctiveness’ showing that they do not perceive Cyprus as being a luxury or unique destination (table 9).

Table 9 Cyprus Descriptors

Descriptors	Mean Value	Standard Deviation
Boring – Exciting	6.09	0.96
Common – Distinctive	5.43	1.33
Unsafe – Safe	6.30	1.18
Inferior – Luxurious	4.04	1.49
Inhospitable – Welcoming	5.50	1.73

Note: Scale values ranged from 1 (highest) to 7 (lowest); the lower the mean value the highest the agreement with the negative descriptor

Perceived image was also measured through an open-ended question whereby the respondents were asked to describe the destination. Respondents’ descriptions were based primarily on destination attributes and included both positive and negative perceptions. The three most popular positive descriptors were typical ‘sea and sun’ characteristics such as ‘good weather’ (46.3%), ‘friendly/hospitable’ (38.8%) and ‘good beaches’ (14.4%) whereas the three most negative descriptors were ‘expensive’ (8.6%), ‘unclean’ (1.4%) and ‘unfriendly’ (1.2%). When asked to offer suggestions regarding the improvements to the Cyprus tourism product respondents said ‘better value for money’ (34.7%), ‘better infrastructure’ (9.9%), ‘better public transport’ (8.3%), ‘cleaner environment’ (5.9%) and ‘better activities and/or greater variety of activities offered’ (5%). When asked to express their satisfaction, 91% of respondents claimed to be satisfied with 76.6% stating they would most likely return and 86.8% saying they would recommend the destination to others.

Evaluation of Destination Attributes

According to Dmitrovic et al (2007), measures of image such as perceived quality and value for money influence satisfaction level.

Hence, respondents were asked to rate the destination in terms of overall quality and value for money. It was found that overall quality (5.37) was rated higher than overall value for money (4.40). Specifically, ‘restaurants’, ‘accommodation facilities’, ‘natural environment’ and ‘entertainment’ were rated more positively in terms of value for money while ‘public transport’, ‘infrastructure’ and ‘shopping facilities’ were poorly rated. In terms of quality, ‘restaurants’, ‘accommodation facilities’ and ‘natural environment’ were rated positively while ‘public transport’, ‘infrastructure’ and ‘entertainment’ were rated poorly (table 10). This indicates negative perceptions regarding infrastructure quality.

Table 10 Mean Values for Destination Attributes

Attributes	% of Respondents		Mean Value		Standard Deviation	
	VFM	QUAL	VFM	QUAL	VFM	QUAL
Public transport	43%	46%	3.29	3.17	1.06	1.06
Accommodation	87%	88%	3.91	3.93	0.83	0.82
Natural environment	95%	94%	3.77	3.75	0.83	0.84
Cultural Attractions	83%	84%	3.66	3.66	0.83	0.86
Activities Offered	88%	89%	3.71	3.69	0.84	0.76
Infrastructure	83%	83%	3.47	3.46	0.80	0.81
Entertainment	91%	95%	3.77	3.53	0.92	0.85
Shopping Facilities	94%	92%	3.45	3.73	0.89	0.89
Restaurants	98%	98%	3.97	4.01	0.90	0.80

Note: Scale values ranged from 1 (very bad) to 5 (very good); the lower the mean score the lower the rating respondents gave to each tourism product attribute

**The responses missing were from tourists that did not use one or more of the attributes above*

When asked to rank destination attributes according to importance respondents ranked ‘weather’, ‘accommodation’ and ‘atmosphere’ as the three most important with ‘transportation’, ‘cultural attractions’ and ‘sports facilities’ ranked as the least important three. It appears that respondents perceive typical ‘sea and sun’ holiday elements as being of

primary importance with culture and variety of activities viewed as less important (table 11).

When asked to agree with certain statements about Cyprus respondents agreed more with the statements that Cyprus has a 'good weather', 'relaxed atmosphere', 'friendly people' and 'excellent beaches' and less with the statements that Cyprus has 'good sports facilities', offers 'good value' and has 'attractive towns' indicating that respondents' perception of Cyprus revolves around typical 'sea and sun' characteristics that could be emphasised as strengths of the destination.

Table 11 Destination Attributes ranked according to Importance
 (n=381)

Attributes	Mean Value	Standard Deviation
Weather	1.81	1.70
Accommodation	4.06	2.14
Atmosphere	4.81	2.48
Residents' friendliness	5.07	2.66
Value for money	5.09	2.89
Nightlife	5.17	3.36
Service quality	5.66	2.42
Availability of activities	6.38	2.83
Scenery	6.68	3.15
Transportation	8.18	2.44
Cultural attractions	8.19	3.04
Sports facilities	8.84	2.73

Note: Scale values ranged from 1 (most important) to 12 (least important); the lower the mean score the higher the importance placed by respondents on the attribute

Table 12 Agreement with statements of destination attributes
(n=390)

Statements	Mean Value	Standard Deviation
Cyprus has a good weather	4.72	0.50
Cyprus has a relaxed atmosphere	4.33	0.60
Cyprus has friendly people	4.11	0.82
Cyprus has excellent beaches	4.20	0.82
Cyprus offers good service quality	3.95	0.74
Cyprus has quality accommodation	3.96	0.79
Cyprus has a beautiful scenery	3.89	0.80
Cyprus offers lots of activities at night	4.03	0.76
Cyprus offers lots of activities during the day	3.83	0.72
Cyprus has attractive towns	3.71	0.78
Cyprus has good sports facilities	3.65	0.94
Cyprus is of good value	3.21	1.16

Note: Scale values ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree); the lower the mean score the lower the agreement of respondents to statements

CONCLUSIONS

This research paper compared the projected and perceived images of Cyprus. In terms of the projected image it is concluded that despite Cyprus' efforts to reposition itself as a quality destination significant differences exist between the projected and perceived images of Cyprus as respondents continue to perceive Cyprus as a 'sea and sun' destination. It is thus clear that destination image is difficult to alter. Hence, it is recommended that tourism marketing strategies be adapted according to the needs of each market segment targeted, that the strengths of the destination be emphasised in promotion, that tourist facilities be upgraded to increase perceived quality and that the projected image coincide with reality.

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A MODEL FOR EXPLOITING e-CRM IN B-TO-B e-COMMERCE

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In international tourism and travel literature, importance of the business-to-business (B-to-B) relationships and the role of e-CRM implementations are widely ignored. However, sophisticated relationships among to wholesalers (tour operators) and retailers (travel agencies) quite deserve to further interests of the academicians. Therefore, proposed model of this research was generated to examine to B-to-B electronic commerce environment in travel sector and the roles of e-CRM features in wholesaler-retailer relationships. Structural equation modeling results indicated that satisfaction of the retailer travel agencies' sales staff was positively and significantly effected by the website quality of the wholesaler tour operators' extranet system. The results indicated any statistically significant relationship between customer services of the tour operator and satisfaction of the travel agencies' sales staff.

Keywords: *e-CRM, website quality, satisfaction, trust, customer services*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Customer relationship management (CRM) is a new managerial approach which signifies the importance of using every contact point with

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the customers (Pan & Lee, 2001). Schoder and Madeja (2004) suggest that CRM is an ideal concept for increasing companies' profitability by enabling them to identify and concentrate on their profitable customers. As a new version of CRM, e-CRM extends to the traditional CRM into electronic channels. In other words, nowadays CRM stands for just a part or a section of e-CRM. Therefore, in recent years, substantial literature on tourism marketing concentrates on the growing importance of the internet and CRM implementations (Osti, 2009). e-CRM Features are known as the "value added services" (Kuttainen et al., 2005) which generally consist of the multimedia tools. In general, features are important for personalization and inter-active relationship with the customers. Especially in web systems like extranet where the functional features are more fundamental, the wholesaler-retailer chain can be strengthened and the geographic distances are disappeared by the real-time knowledge share (Vlosky et al., 2000).

In travel industry, travel agencies' sales staffs play vital roles in establishing long-term relationships between customers and companies. Their roles of creating and maintaining relationships with the customers enable the long-term success of the companies. However, the relationships of the travel wholesalers and retailers in electronic commerce environments and the roles of agencies' sales staff in e-CRM had not been a research area for the academicians for years (Boles et al., 1996; Crosby et al., 1990; Macintosh et al., 1992). Therefore, the aim of this research is to measure to perceptions of travel agencies' sales staff from suppliers' (tour operator) extranet system in the content of e-CRM.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Satisfaction (in e-CRM Platforms)

Although e-CRM is based on people, process and information-communication technology studies ignore the role of system users (Sigala, 2006) who process the knowledge on customers' expectations and tourism products (Kanellopoulos, 2006). Surprisingly, studies about the sales staff and their roles in e-CRM strategies date back to the last two decades (Crosby et al., 1990; Macintosh et al., 1992; Boles et al., 1996). More interestingly, studies are quite limited that examine the perception of sales staff who are the frequent users of e-CRM systems. For this

reason, travel agencies' sales staff and their perception about the extant system are the focus points of this study.

Trust

In business-to-business and e-CRM relationships of travel companies, studies are also very limited about user trust outputs (Doney et al., 2007) and interactions with other variables. Many researchers claim that there is a linear relationship between trust and satisfaction (Kennedy et al., 2001; Bauer et al., 2002; Flavian et al., 2006). On the other hand, a general consensus does not exist about the direction of this relationship. For example while Geyskens, Steenkamp and Kumar (1998), Szymanski and Hise (2000), Reichheld et al. (2000) state that trust evolves to satisfaction; Flavian et al. (2006), Miyamoto and Rexha (2004), Garbarino and Johnson (1999) remark that satisfaction evolves to trust. In this study, authors proposed the hypothesis below which is set forth from the second group of the researchers:

H₁: Satisfaction directly and positively affects trust

Website Quality (Its Relationship with Trust and Satisfaction)

Ho (2007) indicates that online users tend to relate service quality with website quality, and are very sensitive about the functionality, easy connection, easy to find information. Online users also expect high quality of website design which harmonizes conceptual, functional and aesthetic facts (De Marsico & Levialdi, 2004). Success of the website systems are used to be related to satisfaction in the existing literature (Bailey & Pearson, 1983). Previous studies showed that functional website quality characteristics (such as rich content, visual appeal and others) have a positive influence on satisfaction (Delone & Maclean, 1992; Molla & Licker, 2001; Spiller & Loshe, 1998; De Wulf et al., 2006; Zviran et al., 2006; Cheung & Lee, 2008).

In the literature, there are several scales which were generated by the aim of measuring website quality. For example Parasuraman et al. (1988) have advanced their well-known ServQual scale for online transactions by e-S-Qual (Parasuraman et al., 2005). Many other scales have also offered such as Wolfinbarger and Gilly's (2003) eTailQ; Francis and White's (2002) PIRQUAL; Yoo and Donthu's (2001) SITEQUAL; Chen and Wells's (1999) (attitude toward the site) AST; Bauer et al.'s (2006)

eTransQual and Loiacono's (2000) WebQual™. WebQual™ is capable of reflecting many dimensions of a website system although some of its shortcomings can be observed like; focusing on a better system design for the website designers rather than measuring overall quality of the website in the eye of customers and ignoring the fulfilment dimension (Boshoff, 2007). This scale is needed to be tested by empirical studies in the business-to-business e-CRM area. In this study, authors preferred to WebQual™ scale as the measurement tool and offered to the hypothesis below:

H₂: The website quality (of the supplier -tour operator, in this case-company) has a direct and positive effect on the trust of users.

Moreover, user trust is assumed to be effected by suppliers' website quality and its customer/user services (Ribbink et al., 2004; Wolfenbarger & Gilly, 2003; Cox & Dale, 2002; Gregg & Walczak, 2010), while website success is affected by the users' trust towards to system and its suppliers. Therefore, the third hypothesis of this study is:

H₃: The website quality has a direct and positive effect on users' satisfaction.

Customer Services (Their Relationships with Trust and Satisfaction)

Web-based customer/user services can be used for internal and external customer support (Negash et al., 2003). In tourism and travel sector, business-to-business services and e-CRM functions are mostly used by travel agencies' sales staff whose tasks are very time sensitive and stressful. If the website or extranet system in use is well structured, they will be more effective and more profit generating people with the help user-friendly work processes. Thus, one of the main duties of the company managers is to let users to evaluate how they think about the system they use and to get their voluntarily assistance for system optimization (Gefen & Ridings, 2002). In B-to-B marketing, for a holistic e-CRM implementation, system providers' (tour operator, in this case) should be focus on technical and content quality of their extranet (Rocha & Victor, 2010). In the context of e-CRM, the improvement of customer/user satisfaction is also crucial, which can be influenced by many factors such as the quality of digital content, service and content provider. Therefore it is hard to increase satisfaction "just by improving

one factor” (Joo & Sohn, 2008). For this reason, other hypotheses of this study are:

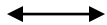
H₄: *Customer/user services (of the supplier) have a direct and positive effect on the trust of users.*

H₅: *Customer/user services (of the supplier) directly and positively effects to user satisfaction.*

PROPOSED MODEL

The aim of this study is to examine to the relationships between the variables of website quality, customer services, satisfaction and trust.

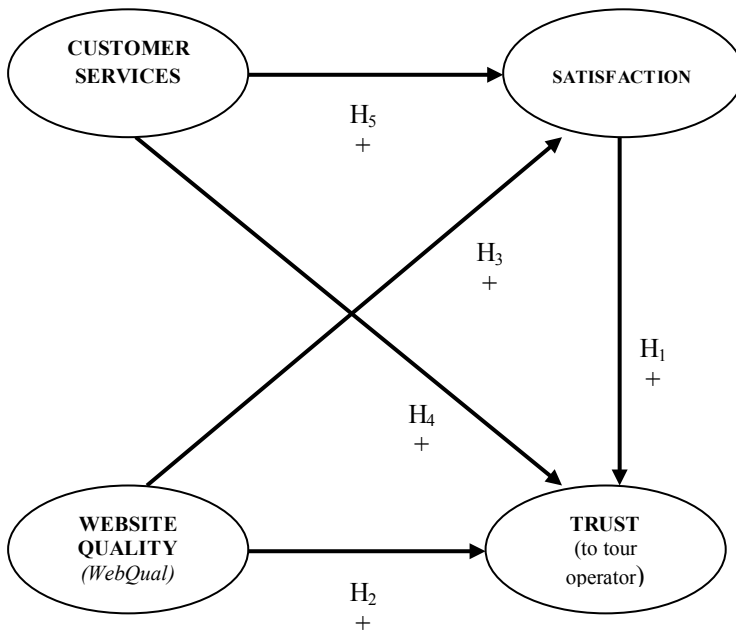
Table 1 Literature Summary

Variables	Relations	Authors
Trust  Satisfaction	Mutual and positive	Ostrom and Iacobucci (1995), Sirdeshmukh et al. (2002), Wang and Head (2007), Salegna and Goodwin (2005)
Satisfaction  Trust	Unilateral and positive	Flavian et al. (2006), Miyamoto and Rexha (2004), Garbarino and Johnson (1999)
Trust  Satisfaction	Unilateral and positive	Geyskens et al. (1998), Szymanski and Hise (2000), Reichheld et al.(2000), Bloemer and Odekerken-Schroder (2002), Lin et al. (2006)
System Features  Satisfaction	Unilateral and positive	Klenke (1992), Zviran et al.(2006), Joo and Sohn (2008), McKinney et al.(2002), Roh et al.(2005), Devaraj et al. (2006), Negash et al. (2003), Thong et al.(2006)
Customer Services  Satisfaction	Unilateral and positive	Bhattacharjee (2001), Devaraj et al. (2002)

In addition to the relationships stated at the theoretical section, in Table 1, a brief literature summary about these variables and the direction of their inter-relationships are shown.

Proposed model is shown in Figure 1 which was generated from the existing literature, explained in the theoretical section of the paper.

Figure 1 Proposed Model



METHODOLOGY

All constructs of the proposed model were measured by 5 point-type of Likert scale (1 totally disagree- 5 totally agree with), and individual scales obtained from the literature review have been combined in the

model. For example, satisfaction from the extranet system was measured by Flavian et al.s' (2006) satisfaction scale with four items, system users' trust towards to supplier (tour operator) has been measured by Álvarez et al.s' (2006) (cognitive and emotional) trust scale with eleven items, customer services has been measured by eight items taken from Wolfenbarger and Gilly's (2003) eTailQ scale, and finally website quality has been measured by Loiacono's (2000) WebQualTM scale with thirty six items (Appendix: Questionnaire Items).

Items were translated by native speaker tour guides into each language and sent via internet to abroad travel agency managers' electronic mail addresses for the distribution of sales staff (Bulgaria 92, Ukraine 80 and Kazakhstan 70 travel agencies). The average number of the sales staff for each agency was determined as 2; and the possible number of the participants was found as (2 person x 242 travel agencies in three countries) 484 people. 127 questionnaires from Bulgaria, 101 from Ukraine and 108 from Kazakhstan were obtained. Total number of the usable questionnaires was 336 and rate of return was 69 %.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Number of the participants according to nationality are shown in Table 2. Majority of the participants of the study were middle-aged (36.9% between 26-33 years old), females (75.9%), with high level of education (76.5 %).

Table 2 Distribution of Participants by Gender and Nationality

Country		Male	Female	Total
Ukraine	N	29	72	101
	%	28,7	71,2	100,0
Bulgaria	N	32	95	127
	%	25,1	74,8	100,0
Kazakhstan	N	20	88	108
	%	18,5	81,4	100,0
Total	N	81	255	336
	%	24,1	75,9	100,0

Overall satisfaction of the participants was high (means 4,16). The lowest overall means was belong to the participants from Ukraine (4,09), while the highest was from the participants from Bulgaria (4,23). Besides, “in general terms, I am satisfied with the way that this website has carried out transactions” item (usersatisf4) had the lowest overall means in this scale (4,09). Thus, system designers should pay attention to the capacity enlargement and functional enrichment efforts for a higher user satisfaction. For all countries, there could not found any statistically significant differences according to participants’ ages and genders.

Trust perceptions of the participants towards to tour operator was also high in general (4,14). There were statistically high differences between the participants from Bulgaria (4,18), and Kazakstan (3,95). Female participants who expressed that “tour operator has a good understanding of the products and services available in the tourism market” (trust2) had higher means (4,25) than male participants (4,20). Besides, the participants who were between 18-25 years old had lower means (3,98) than the participants who were between 42 and above years old (4,27). Overall satisfaction of the participants from the customer services (user support system) were high (3,99) as well. However, participants from Ukraine had the lowest means (3,96) than other countries for this variable like other variables. Female participants who stated that “after sale support at this site is excellent” (custserv5) had higher means (3,83) than male participants (3,65); and means for the item “inquiries are answered promptly” (custserv3) statistically significant according to age of the participants. Participants who were between 18-25 years old had more positive perceptions than 42 years and above years old participants.

Finally, overall perception of the participants about website quality of the tour operator’s extranet has been analyzed, and no statistically significant differences could be found according to nationalities. But, female participants’ means was higher (3,96) than male participants (3,84) in general. Moreover, female participants had more positive perceptions about the system functions. There could not found any significant differences according to age of the participants.

Measurement Model

In this study, reliability of the satisfaction scale was evaluated by Cronbach’s Alpha which was 0.77 and acceptable. Cronbach’s Alpha was

0.88 for user trust; 0.84 for customer services and 0.94 for WebQualTM which proved that all scales had sufficient reliabilities. On the other hand, some items of the scales had to be deleted because of their low factor loadings. Remaining items were totally four for customer services scale; four for user trust scale and four for satisfaction scale.

The validity of the satisfaction, user trust and customer services scales did not retested as they obtained from the existing literature, however WebQualTM scale had to be re-tested by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), because of its multi-dimensionality. After the first analysis, Chi-square value was as 4090.92; degrees of freedom (df) 594; RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation) 0,133; AGFI (adjusted goodness-of-fit index) 0,55; RMR (root mean square residual) 0,11 and SRMR (standardized RMR) 0,095 which reflected that goodness-of-fit indices were not acceptable. At the second step, some items had to be deleted which negatively effect to the validity with low factor loadings. Items which had factor loadings lower than 0,50 and insignificant t-values eliminated. After these corrections, indices became acceptable enough for the further analyses. Chi-square value was 712.82; degrees of freedom (df) 245 and RMSEA 0,075.

For supplying the convergent validity of the scale, the significance of the t values (above than 1.96) in item-latent variable relationship has been examined, which was followed by the calculation of extracted variance tests for determining the construct validity. Variance- extracted and construct reliability values above than 0,40 are acceptable (Tabachnick and Fidell 2007). Factor loadings and construct reliability of each dimension of the WebQualTM is shown below (Table 3). After the significance of t-values, variance-extracted and construct reliability were tested and found acceptable for “convergent validity”. The next step was to test “discriminant validity” of the scales.

In this study, discriminant validity of the WebQualTM scale was tested by Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) method. If the scale consist of various dimensions, the parameter estimation between two factors (their correlations) can be fixed to 1 (limited model) or set free on the other model (unlimited model). If the Chi-square value of the unlimited model is significantly lower than limited model, it can be said that scale has discriminant validity according to this method. Advanced analyses showed that all unlimited model Chi-square values were lower than limited model values. Thus, the scale showed discriminant validity and high level of construct reliability.

Table 3 Variance Extracted and Construct Reliability (WebQual™)

Dimension	Item Code	Standard Factor Loadings	t-Values	Variance Extracted	Construct Reliability
infofittotask	web1	0,76	15.32	0,55	0,78
infofittotask	web2	0,81	16.51		
infofittotask	web3	0,66	12.54		
tailcomm	web4	0,68	13.09	0,45	0,71
tailcomm	web5	0,71	13.70		
tailcomm	web6	0,64	12.14		
onlinecomp	web7	0,68	12.80	0,41	0,68
onlinecomp	web8	0,67	12.68		
onlinecomp	web9	0,58	10.60		
relativeadv	web10	0,86	18.15	0,62	0,83
relativeadv	web11	0,71	14.06		
relativeadv	web12	0,80	16.49		
visualapp	web13	0,86	19.06	0,72	0,88
visualapp	web14	0,92	21.36		
visualapp	web15	0,77	16.30		
innova	web16	0,91	20.86	0,69	0,86
innova	web17	0,95	22.70		
innova	web18	0,59	11.54		
emotionalap	web20	0,73	13.58	0,45	0,62
emotionalap	web21	0,61	11.22		
consimage	web22	0,83	18.06	0,68	0,86
consimage	web23	0,89	19.83		
consimage	web24	0,75	15.62		
easeofunders	web25	0,83	17.74	0,63	0,83
easeofunders	web26	0,80	16.68		
easeofunders	web27	0,76	15.46		
intuitiveopr	web29	0,90	17.39	0,62	0,76
intuitiveopr	web30	0,66	12.34		
trust	web34	0,53	9.91	0,60	0,81
trust	web35	0,88	18.17		
trust	web36	0,87	17.94		

Testing Hypotheses

Proposed model was tested by structural equation modelling. Remaining items for each variable and relationships among these variables in the proposed model are shown in Figure 2. In addition, the goodness-of-fit indices of the model were given in Table 4. Chi-square/df and AGFI criterions were acceptable, and all the other indices were higher acceptance limits.

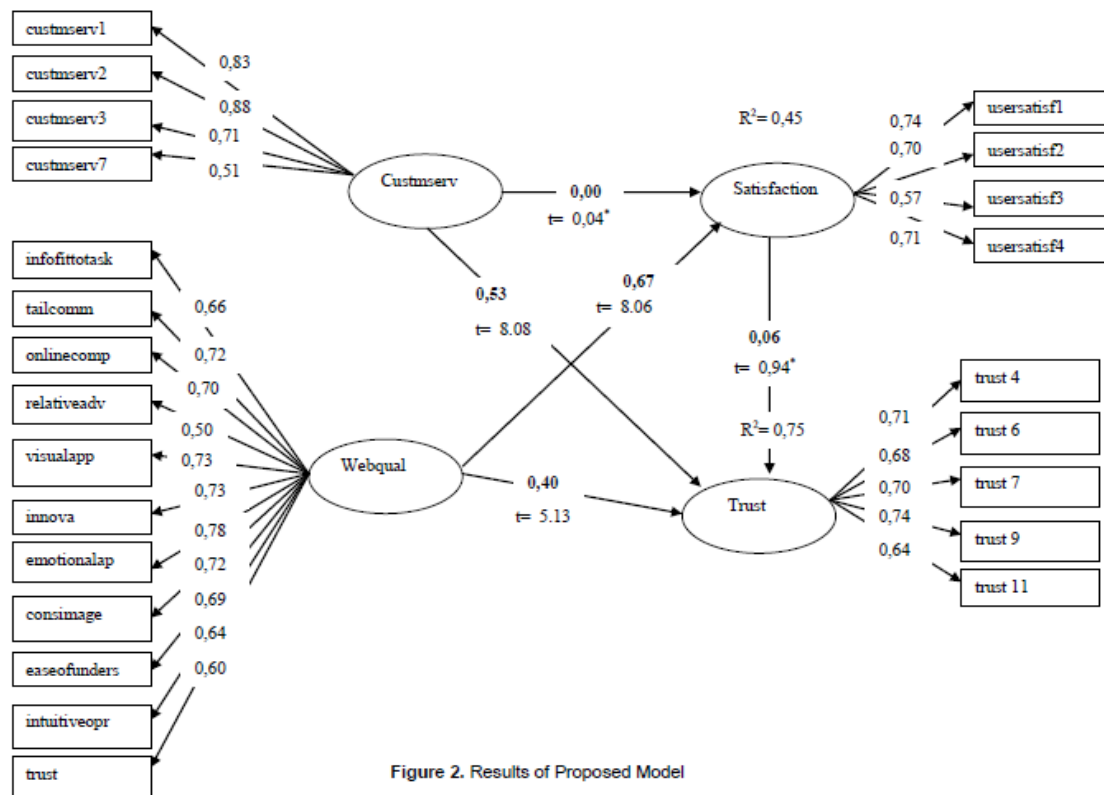


Figure 2. Results of Proposed Model

Table 4 Goodness-of-fit Indices of Proposed Model

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Proposed Model	Recommended Values	References
Degrees of freedom (df)	245		
χ^2	712.82		
χ^2/df	2.90	≤ 3.00 or ≤ 5.00	Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand (1996), McKinney et al.(2002)
GFI	0,85		
AGFI	0,82	$\geq 0,80$	Chase (1978), Etezadi-Amoli and Farhoomand (1996)
CFI	0,97	$\geq 0,90$	Hair et al. (1998)
NNFI	0,96	$\geq 0,90$	Lin (2007)
RMSEA	0,075	$\leq 0,10$	Lin (2007)
SRMR	0,074	$\leq 0,10$	Lin (2007)

As before mentioned, this study had five hypotheses. After the analyses, three of these hypotheses were confirmed:

H₂: *The website quality of the supplier has a direct and positive effect on the trust of users.*

H₄: *Customer services of the supplier have a direct and positive effect on the trust of users.*

H₃: *The website quality of the supplier has a positive effect on users' satisfaction.*

On the other hand, two hypotheses had to be rejected which were:

H₅: *Customer services of the supplier have a direct and positive effect on users' satisfaction.*

H₁: *Satisfaction directly and positively effect to trust.*

In addition to hypothesis testing, other findings were summarized as follows:

The analyses results indicated that "Response Time" sub-dimension (web31, web32, web33) of the WebQualTM scale was statistically insignificant. Besides, "I feel cheerful when I use the website" item (web 20) on the "Emotional Appeal" sub-dimension and "It would be easy for me to become skilful at using the website" item (web28) on "Intuitive

Operations” sub-dimension were found statistically insignificant. Therefore, all these sub-dimensions and items are eliminated from the scale. Rest eleven sub-dimensions confirmed to the multi-dimensionality of the WebQualTM which was generated by Loiacono et al. (2007). Loiacono et al. (2007) suggest that scale is a very reliable measurement tool and has completed its early development stages. Now, it should be tested for the business-to-business relationships and non-commercial foundations&customer electronic commerce interactions. Thus, the study is one of the candidate works which may contribute to fill this gap in the business-to-business e-CRM literature.

Proposed model test results indicate that customer services does not directly and positively influence to user satisfaction. The only variable that explains satisfaction positively and significantly is website quality which also directly and positively influence to user trust. However, satisfaction has no influence on user trust. Customer services and website quality variables explain just 0,44 of the user satisfaction. Therefore, in the future studies, these variables can be examined and their characteristics can be understood by e-CRM specific scales.

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

In this study, e-CRM tools of a multinational tour operator and their influences on extranet users in three countries have been investigated by a proposal model. The main connection points of the agencies’ sales staff with the tour operators are extranet and customer services. The more effective are extranet and customer services of a tour operator, the more system users are going to be satisfied with their jobs and trust to their suppliers. Actually, a quality travel wholesaler is focus on identifying and acting on the internal and external user’s needs and expectations (Yurtseven, 2006). Thus, tour operators need to understand their retailers’ needs and expectations, to establish technological infrastructures for data sharing, and to build win-win strategies for long-term business partnerships. At this point, internet and e-CRM features of the extranet systems empower organisations to achieve those objectives (Mavri & Angelis, 2009).

LIMITATIONS

The basic limitation of this study is choosing the convenience sampling method. For this reason, findings of the research are not suitable for any generalization for major samples. However, conducting the research in three countries and making collaboration with one of the major tour operators in those markets can be seen as the main strengths of the study.

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APPENDIX (Questionnaire Items)

User Satisfaction	
usersatisf1	In general, I am satisfied with the service I have received from the website
usersatisf2	The experience that I have had with this website has been satisfactory
usersatisf3	I think that my travel agency made the correct decision to use this website
usersatisf4	In general terms, I am satisfied with the way that this website has carried out transactions
Trust	
trust1	Tour operator is well equipped to deal effectively with anything I ask for
trust2	Tour operator has a good understanding of the products and services available in the tourism market
trust3	The promises it makes are credible
trust4	Tour operator has a lot of experience and usually knows what is best for me
trust5	I think it is a good tourism service supplier
trust6	The staff has been sincere in their dealings with me
trust7	Tour operator always keeps the promises it makes
trust8	If there is a problem it is honest with me
trust9	Tour operator worries about me being provided with a

trust10	good service It gives me good advice when I ask its opinion about the best tourism service
trust11	I trust this tour operator a lot. (overall)
Customer Services	
custmserv1	Tour operator is ready and willing to respond to customer needs
custmserv2	Customer service personnel are always willing to help you
custmserv3	Inquiries are answered promptly
custmserv4	When you have a problem, the website shows a sincere interest in solving it
custmserv5	After sale support at this site is excellent
custmserv6	This website has customers' best interests at heart.
custmserv7	I feel like the company wants to provide me with a good system using experience
custmserv8	This website appreciates my business
Website Quality (WebQual™)	
infofittotask	<i>Informational fit-to-task</i> The information on the website is pretty much what I need to carry out my tasks
infofittotask	<i>Informational fit-to-task</i> The website adequately meets my information needs
infofittotask	<i>Informational fit-to-task</i> The information on the website is effective
tailcomm	<i>Tailored information</i> The website allows me to interact with it to receive tailored information
tailcomm	<i>Tailored information</i> I can interact with the website in order to get information tailored to my specific needs
tailcomm	<i>Tailored information</i> The website has interactive features, which help me accomplish my task
onlinecomp	<i>Online completeness</i> All my business with the company can be completed via the website
onlinecomp	<i>Online completeness</i> Most all business processes can be completed via the website
onlinecomp	<i>Online completeness</i> The website allows transactions on-line
relativeadv	<i>Relative advantage</i> It is easier to use the Website to complete my business with the company than it is to telephone, fax, or mail a representative
relativeadv	<i>Relative advantage</i> The website is an alternative to calling customer service or sales
relativeadv	<i>Relative</i> The website is easier to use than calling

	<i>advantage</i>	an organizational representative agent on the phone
visualapp	<i>Visual appeal</i>	The website displays visually pleasing design
visualapp	<i>Visual appeal</i>	The website is visually appealing
visualapp	<i>Visual appeal</i>	The website is visually pleasing
innova	<i>Innovativeness</i>	The website is innovative
innova	<i>Innovativeness</i>	The website design is innovative
innova	<i>Innovativeness</i>	The website is creative
emotionalap	<i>Emotional appeal</i>	I feel happy when I use the website.
emotionalap	<i>Emotional appeal</i>	I feel cheerful when I use the website
emotionalap	<i>Emotional appeal</i>	I feel sociable when I use the website
consimage	<i>Consistent image</i>	The website projects an image consistent with the company's image
consimage	<i>Consistent image</i>	The website fits with my image of the company
consimage	<i>Consistent image</i>	The website's image matches that of the company
easeofunders	<i>Ease of understanding</i>	The display pages within the website are easy to read
easeofunders	<i>Ease of understanding</i>	The website labels are easy to understand
easeofunders	<i>Ease of understanding</i>	The text on the website is easy to read.
intuitiveopr	<i>Intuitive operations</i>	It would be easy for me to become skillful at using the website
intuitiveopr	<i>Intuitive operations</i>	I find the website easy to use
intuitiveopr	<i>Intuitive operations</i>	Learning to operate the website is easy for me
response	<i>Response time</i>	When I use the website there is very little waiting time between my actions and the website's response
response	<i>Response time</i>	The website loads quickly
response	<i>Response time</i>	The website takes long to load. (R)
trust	<i>Trust</i>	I feel safe in my transactions with the website.
trust	<i>Trust</i>	I trust the website to keep my personal information safe

<i>trust</i>	<i>Trust</i>	I trust the website administrators will not misuse my personal information
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AN INTERDISCIPLINARY ANALYSIS OF TOURIST LANDSCAPE STRUCTURE

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This article presents a new methodological framework for assessing the structure of coastal tourist landscapes, bearing the potential for development, in order to adjust to all sorts of other tourist landscapes. Through a combined application of landscape indicators, remote sensing and landscape character assessment methods, the proposed framework aims at the measurement of attributes of the state of a landscape. The paper, accordingly, proceeds from a) an extensive literature review, based on the elements and aspects of tourism and landscape that comprise the tourist landscape and on qualitative and quantitative landscape assessment methods, to b) the presentation of the proposed methodological framework and set of indicators and c) ends with a series of conclusions on the applicability of the proposed methodological framework, in a tourist landscape context.

Keywords: *Tourism, tourist landscape, landscape indicators, landscape assessment, landscape structure.*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, landscape is widely recognised as a major element of national and European heritage (Council of Europe, 2000). Appreciating the cultural, ecological, environmental and social values of landscape, the European Landscape Convention encourages Europeans people and governments in landscape identification, assessment, protection, management and planning. Many landscapes are prone to tourism



pressures and environmental, economic, social and aesthetic impacts (Coccossis & Tsartas, 2001). The analysis of tourism impacts upon the landscape, and, more specifically, the alterations of its structure, examined in this paper, lie in the context of an attempt to understand better the mechanisms and processes of tourism development that have informed and continue to drive landscape transformation, through time.

Literature review shows that there is a lack of research on the analysis and assessment of fundamental structural elements and their interrelationships, in a tourist landscape, especially as regards research conducted with the aid of quantitative methods and tools (Parker *et al.* in Herold *et al.*, 2005). Landscape character assessment methods have, so far, been widely used by landscape architects, in order to analyze the state of a landscape and any changes it may be going through (Lausch & Herzog, 2002). In the field of landscape ecology, several quantitative methodological tools--specifically under the name of *landscape metrics*--have been developed and applied (Forman and Godron, 1996), while no such set of research tools exists for the urban landscape. This absence of recent research on quantitative methods for the assessment of the state and change of the spatial structure of a tourist landscape, point to the need for such a methodological framework, holistically addressing and capturing landscape morphology, in general, and landscape structure, in specific (rather than relief, texture, color, etc)--since, according to Doukelis (1998), analyzing landscape structure, facilitates the study of tourist place history, and therefore tourist place development.

This paper, accordingly, purports to fill this gap, by undertaking research in this important, yet uncharted, area and to present a new methodological framework for analyzing and assessing the structure of tourist landscapes. Through a combined application of landscape indicators, remote sensing and landscape character assessment methods, the proposed framework aims at measuring attributes of the state of a landscape. More specifically, it assesses the composition and configuration of tourist landscape elements, in an attempt to analyze landscape organization and identify possibilities of development in the tourist landscape. This goal will be accomplished, through two specific objectives, as follows:

- To identify the main landscape *components*, commonly associated with tourist landscape structure (appearance) and
- To assess the *attributes* of these components, in an effort to evaluate the appearance of the tourist landscape as a whole.

The following literature review is intended to discuss and elaborate on the two principal dimensions of a tourist landscape and their

interrelationships. It is followed by an analysis of the tourist landscape and its shaping through time and ends with the presentation of the methodological framework accompanied by a set of landscape indicators and their applied metrics. The scientific contribution of this work is discussed in the last section of the article, which puts forth the ways in which this framework may be put to use by landscape and tourism development agents, planners or other landscape stakeholders; this latter part of the article also addresses the value and relevance of this work to landscape theory and methodologies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

At the outset of our research endeavor, it was considered important to identify the two main dimensions of a tourist landscape--namely a) landscape and b) tourism--their interrelationships and the ways in which these come together, in forming a tourist landscape, at the place of destination, before, after and during the visit (Hall and Page, 2006). We, therefore, begin with a brief literature review of the theoretical background of these terms, as they apply to our study, in order extract the main attributes that comprise the structure of a tourist landscape.

-Landscape: Landscape is the result of the ways, in which different components of our surrounding environment – physical, biological and social—interact and become perceived. Therefore, landscape is concerned with and manifests in the various forms of the complex interrelationships between people and place.

The significance of landscape in geography was introduced by the Berkeley School of Landscape, in the 1920's. Human/ cultural geographers, such as Cosgrove (1998), have since focused on the perceptual and symbolic dimensions of landscape, instead of its visual components: "landscape is the way we see it or perceive it rather than the image or the object" (Johnston et al., 2000: 429-431). According to Wascher (1995), landscapes are dynamic systems that develop on the basis of the variable nature of human and natural procedures. Therefore, landscape is considered as a system of forms, functions and values (Wascher, 2002; Terkenli & Kizos, 2003).

On the other hand, landscape architects base their analytical perspectives on the *ways* that landscapes are structured by humans (Fry *et al.*, 2004). For landscape architecture, and specifically in landscape assessment methodologies, the term landscape refers to its visual appearance, reflecting the way certain attributes--such as scale, form and

enclosure--are combined, in order to create various landscape patterns, perceptible by the visitors (Warnock & Brown, 1998: 44-46).

Landscape ecology recognizes three basic features to a landscape, as follows (Forman and Gordon, 1996):

“1. Structure, which refers to the spatially related properties of elements of the ecosystem and their spatial interrelationship within the landscape,

2. Function, which describes the existing interaction between the spatial elements of the ecosystem, which is expressed in exchange processes of energy, material and substances, and

3. Dynamics, exhibited by the change to structures, to functions of the landscape structure and to the landscape mosaic over time” (Kronert *et al.*, 2001: 114).

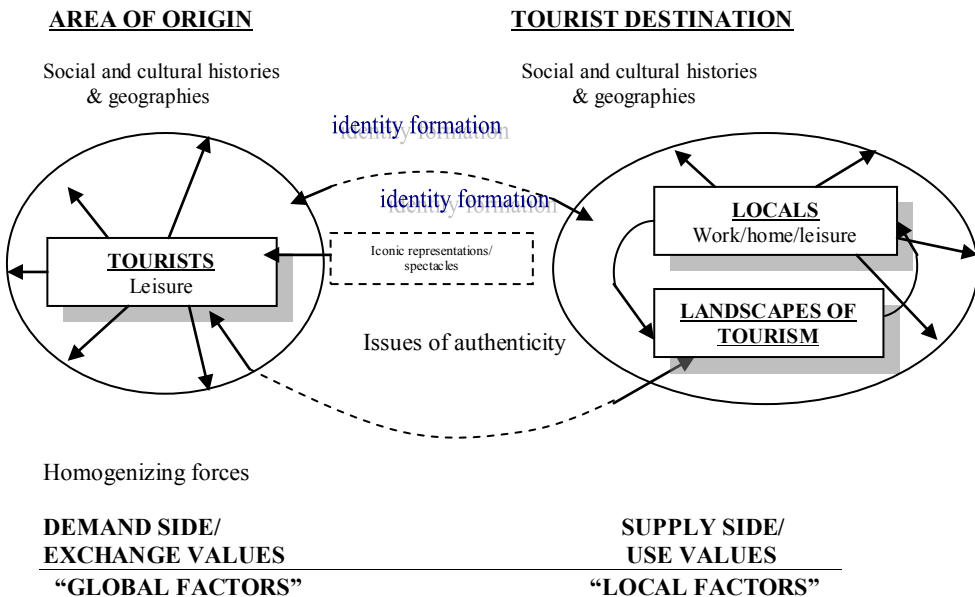
Tourism: The definition of tourism by Jafar Jafari (2003) focuses on “the study of humans away from their usual habitat, of the industry which responds to [their] needs, and of the impacts that both tourism and industry have on the host’s socio-cultural, economic, and physical environments”. The emphasis lies on tourism, as a compound activity, which includes travel towards, within and around a destination, for purposes of consumption, accommodation, recreation, as well as all relevant specific and general services (Inskeep, 1991; Pearce, 1989, in Briassoulis, 2002). “Mill and Morisson identify the four major parts of the tourism system, as being: 1) the market (tourists), 2) travel (transportation), 3) destination (attractions, facilities, and services), and 4) marketing (information and promotion), with each part closely linked in sequence with the other” (Inskeep, 1991:22).

On the other hand, the spatio-temporal development of seaside tourist destinations, as elucidated by the evolutionary models of Butler’s tourist area life-cycle model (1980), Miossec’s model of tourist development (1976), Opperman’s model of tourist space in developing countries (1993) and Gormsen’s (1981) model of spatio-temporal development of international seaside tourism, is deemed particularly valuable in the analysis of the tourist landscape. These models, thus, constitute an effective assessment guide, useful in the establishment of the degree, manner and direction of tourist development, at a tourist destination.

Tourist landscape: This article focuses on the tourist landscape, as the destination setting of the tourism system, and as the first axis in the construction of our proposed framework (Gunn, 1979; Mill and Morrison, 1985). Clare Gunn (1979:409) defines a landscape of tourism, as the total physical and visual environment utilized by all tourism activities, including the whole context and infrastructure of tourism development,

such as transportation, services, information, direction and, generally speaking, all such developments that attract people to a destination. Therefore, the tourist landscape incorporates the following tourist landscape elements and their interrelationships: 1) tourist attractions and activities (Inskeep, 1991; Pearce, 1995) including all natural and human-made features of destination (Jafari, 1982), 2) infrastructures, specifically developed for tourism (accommodations, food establishments, etc.), 3) environmental elements of the tourist destination (air, water, soil), 4) basic infrastructures of the tourist place, such as transportation networks, water supply, sewage, solid waste disposal systems etc, and, finally, 5) the landscape as a whole (Briassoulis, 2002).

Figure 1 The formation of tourist landscape



Source: Terkenli, 2002

On the basis of the definitions provided above, the tourist landscape emerges as the product of tourism activities, which tend to dominate an area and "infect" its appearance. In light of its easy and ready

accessibility, as well as its representational and relational properties, landscape constitutes a most significant geographical medium in the analysis of relationships that develop between tourist and visited location (Terkenli, 2002). The readiness and amenability of landscape to variable human intervention transform it into a veritable stage for consumption, play and recreation. The tourist landscape, consequently, becomes a social interface where local and global perspectives, the sides of supply and demand, production and consumption etc. come together in the ready construction and consumption of place identity (Terkenli, 2000: 185-6) (figure 1).

According to Wall (in Jafari, 1982), *tourist landscapes* are both natural and human-made, designed to serve—or products that emerge from—the accommodation of *all* needs of tourism development. The term *tourist landscape* will be adopted throughout this work, as the most appropriate and widely used medium of referring to landscapes, organized or transformed mainly through and for purposes of tourism development. More often than not, tourist landscapes are characterised by an insensitive use of space and land, closely related to tourism development; extensive rebuilding and expansion of tourist infrastructures along the seashore; uncontrolled urbanisation and multifunctional land uses; excessive road network extension; spatial fragmentation; as well as the homogenisation of landscape elements, resulting in the loss of place identity (Green & Hunter in Johnston and Thomas, 1995; Antrop, 1998; Terkenli, 2002). Due to the complexity of the tourist landscape, and particularly that of the urban tourist landscape, most research on tourism structures in the landscape has so far focused on the spatial arrangement of tourist infrastructures—the most visually apparent formal aspect of tourism development, in the landscape.

Methods and tools of analysis: Landscape assessment methods and methodological tools represent our second basic axis, in the construction of the proposed framework. In specific, our methodological framework will be developed on the basis of existing methodologies and tools and the ways in which these may be employed, for our purposes, in order to support our landscape assessment frame. Three of the most widely applied methods for analyzing visual qualities, in this broader area of research, are Landscape Character Assessment (LCA) (e.g. Swanwick, 2002), the Scenic Beauty Estimation (SBE) Method (e.g. Daniel & Boster, 1976) and the Visual Resource Management (VRM) system (e.g. Bureau of Land Management, 1980).

Among methodological tools used in quantitative landscape research, indicators present the final level of interpretation in landscape analysis

(Bartel, 2000). In the field of landscape ecology, several quantitative methodological tools--specifically under the name of *landscape metrics*--have been developed and applied (O'Neil *et al.*, 1988; Turner, 1991; McGarigal and Marks, 1995; McGarigal *et al.*, 2002). In research fields outside landscape ecology and across various types of environments (in particular, urban areas), under the name of landscape metrics, spatial metrics have been used to quantify the shape and pattern of vegetation in natural landscapes (Gustafson, 1998; Hargis Bissonette & David, 1998; McGarigal, Cushman, & Neel, 2002; O'Neill *et al.*, 1988). At the same time, other attempts to create landscape indicators of visual qualities (Tveit *et al.*, 2006; Ode *et al.*, 2008) have been based on frameworks stemming from aesthetic theory, for purposes of visual landscape quality and character (Lothian, 1999; Zube *et al.*, 1975). One such significant attempt towards landscape indicator classification was undertaken, in 1993, by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), in order to model cause and effect relationships between humans and the environment, employing the "Pressure-State-Response" model.

METHODOLOGY

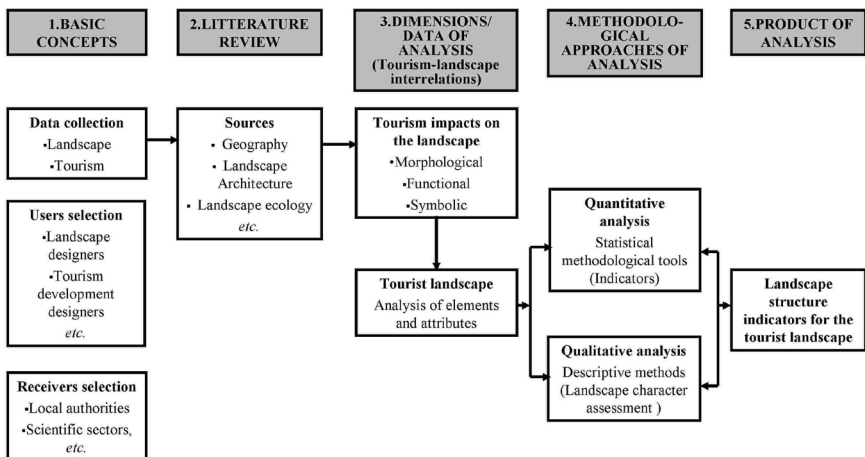
Landscape is widely viewed as constituted as a cultural system of three basic interlocking sets of aspects: visual, cognitive and experiential, alternatively theorized as form (the visual), meaning (the cognitive and the symbolic) and function (invested and articulated experience and cultural or biophysical processes) (Terkentli, 2000). This research is limited to formal landscape attributes, rather than attributes pertaining to landscape functions or values/ meanings/ symbolisms. It is also independent of attributes imbued on the landscape, by the observing side, following the subjectivist approach of landscape analysis (Lothian, 1999).

Our study, thus, focused on the morphological visual dimension of landscape, leaving out purely aesthetic attributes, such as color, texture and relief--following Swanwick *et al.*'s schematic presentation of landscape etymology (2002).

Accordingly, the construction of our methodological framework for the analysis and assessment of the tourist landscape is based on elements and aspects of both tourism and landscape comprising the tourist landscape, and on both qualitative and quantitative methods of landscape analysis. Therefore, the proposed model is constituted on two main axes, the interrelationship of tourism and landscape on the one hand and

landscape methods and techniques of analysis on the other; the final product is a system of tourist landscape indicators. Since landscape is defined and assessed here on the basis of a combination of geographical and landscape-architectural methodological approaches, the development of the proposed framework also draws upon landscape character assessment methods, which actually provide the basic theoretical frame of landscape analysis. The model's formulation follows a hierarchical structure of five basic levels: *conceptual definitions; literature review; analysis of the interrelationship of tourism and landscape; methods and techniques of analysis; and production of analysis results*. A schematic representation of the proposed methodological framework appears in figure 2.

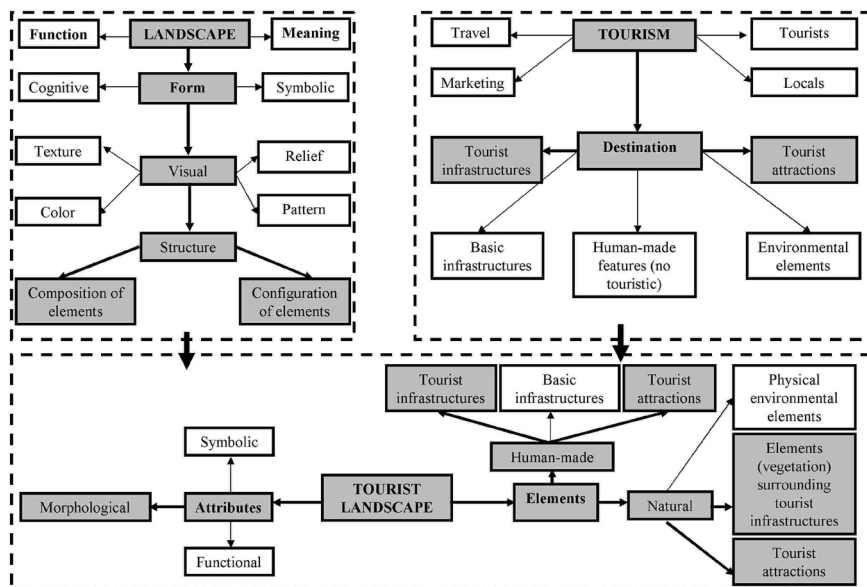
Figure 2 Organizational steps in the construction of the methodological framework



As the conceptualization and analysis of the tourist landscape have been based on the synthesis of its theoretical backgrounds, namely in the fields of landscape and tourism (figure 3), elements of tourist landscapes under assessment have been organized in two basic classes: a) human-made and b) natural. Built or human-made elements include: a) those targeted towards or specified for touristic use (i.e. hotels, B&B), b) those concerning tourist attractions and c) those forming the basic

infrastructures of a tourist destination area (road networks, electricity and water systems, etc.). Natural elements comprise of: a) purely environmental elements of the physical geographical context, such as water, air, soil, vegetation, b) on-site vegetation species (indigenous or not) and c) tourist attractions.

Figure 3 Conceptual diagrammatic analysis of the elements and attributes of a tourist landscape. (*Areas of the main focus of this study appear in grey*).



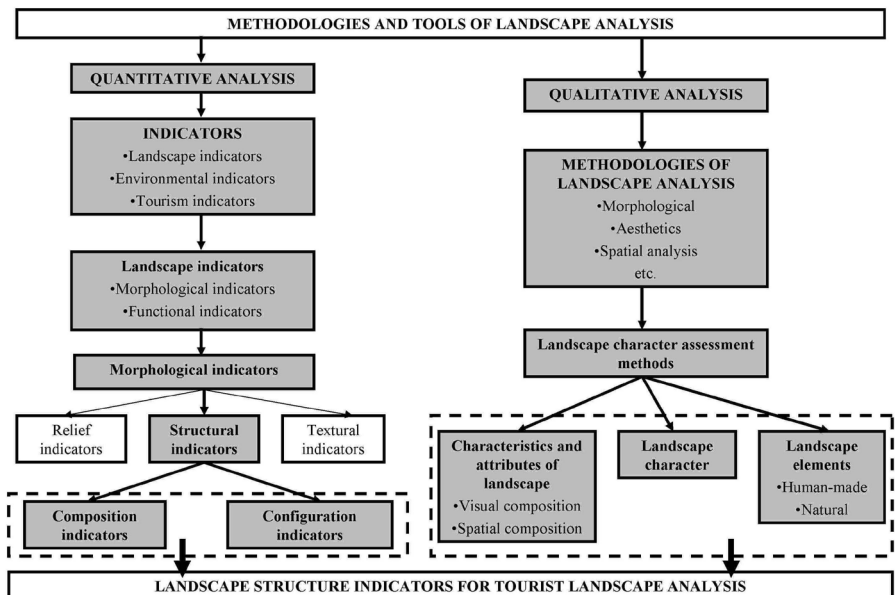
Our proposed methodological framework is developed on the basis of a review of methodologies, systematically categorized in terms of the three landscape aspects of form, function and meaning/ values, with an emphasis on the morphological aspects of the tourist landscape.

Among methods of landscape analysis, Landscape Character Assessment (LCA) (Shanwick, 2002) provides a more suitable understanding and evaluation of landscape as a resource, for purposes of enabling landscape enhancement, planning, conservation, restoration and, more generally, management. For this reason, its employment has been selected as the most appropriate tool towards the achievement of our

research goals. This method aims at assessing landscape elements (both natural and human-made), land uses, landscape attributes of visual and spatial composition (such as complexity, continuity, coherence, naturalness, visual scale, etc), visualization, as well as their interrelationships and, finally, the character of the landscape as a whole.

The Pressure-State-Response approach was another useful tool in our research (Spilanis & Karayiannis, 2009), since it brought out? our basic focus on state indicators, while describing the condition of the tourist landscape, as well as observable changes and processes, undertaken towards the goal of sustainable development, in any specific landscape under study. Significantly, a brief literature review on existing tourism indicators (Komilis and Vagonis, 1995; White *et al.*, 2006), conducted in this research, revealed the absence of adequate tourist landscape indicators, a gap that this study purports to fill. A conceptual diagrammatic presentation of the methodologies and tools that emerged from the literature review, and where then applied to our landscape analysis, is presented as follows (figure 4).

Figure 4 Conceptual diagrammatic presentation of methodologies and tools of landscape analysis.



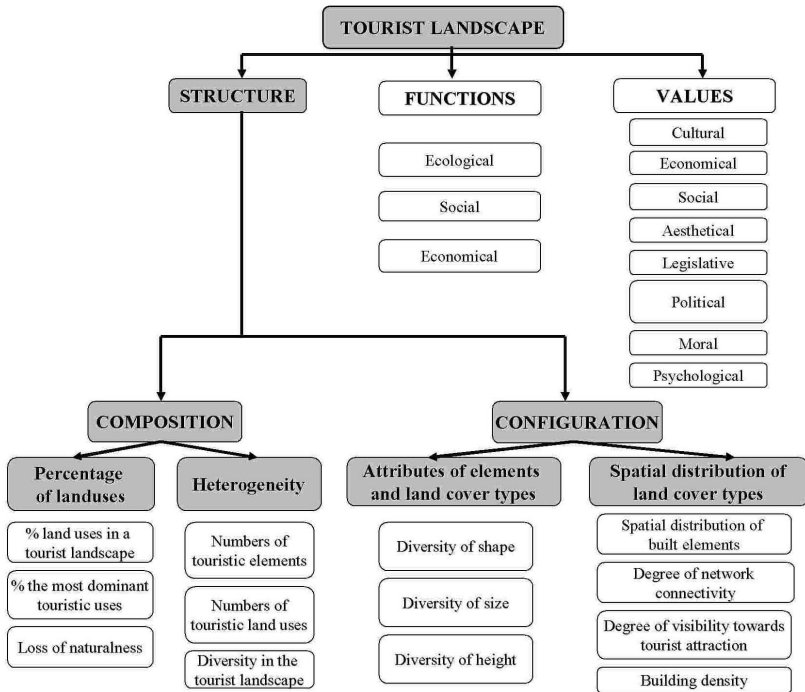
Such a review revealed that landscape indicators, as they appear in scientific literature so far, tend to be grouped into two categories: morphological and functional (Turner & Gardner, 1991). Since our framework focuses on the morphological aspects of the tourist landscape, we, then, turned to morphological indicators, and, more specifically, to the development of landscape structure indicators and their adjusted metrics. Two main categories of metrics were singled out, for the purposes of our study: composition metrics (concerning the proportion of the landscape taken up by each patch type, patch richness, patch evenness and patch diversity), and configuration metrics (concerning mean patch-shape, fractal dimension, contagion, interspersion and juxtaposition) (McGarigal and Marks, 1995).

The selection of indicators proposed by this research project rested on the groupings presented above, as well as on the following assumptions: a) the complexity of landscape elements, shapes and sizes is indicative of the degree of human intervention in the physical environment, b) the more developed an area for tourism purposes, the higher the degree of its network connectivity the more pronounced the presence of tourism infrastructures (Zografos & Deffner, 2009), and c) the spatial configuration of landscape elements and land cover types expresses landscape evolution and transformation, at a specific place, during a specific time period.

PRODUCTION OF ANALYSIS RESULTS

Our preceding literature review on landscape indicators, metrics and landscape character assessment methods concluded with the following proposed set of indicators, formulated on the basis of two structural landscape aspects, borrowed from landscape ecology: landscape composition and landscape configuration (figure 5). Taken together, these landscape indicators comprise our proposed landscape indicator model.

The landscape indicator model, as shown above, has been conceived in this more general form, aimed at an application to conventional 3S's tourist landscapes, but may be further developed or tailored to the particularities of various other types of tourist landscapes, such as winter tourism, agrotourism, e.t.c. The proposed specific tourist landscape indicators are presented, together with their applied metrics, in the following table (table 1).

Figure 5 Conceptual diagram grouping tourist landscape indicators.

With regard to the scale level, at which this set of landscape indicators are proposed to be employed, in this study, class (land use) level and landscape level metrics are considered as the most appropriate ones for tourist landscape analysis. “Class metrics represent the spatial distribution and pattern within a landscape of a single patch type; whereas landscape metrics represent the spatial pattern of the entire landscape mosaic, considering all patch types simultaneously” (McGarigal et al., 2002). Although many of these indices may be identical at the class and landscape levels, their interpretations may be somewhat different, at different scales of measurement. Obviously, it is up to the researcher to select the appropriate geographical scale, for any particular analysis of tourist landscape structure.

Table 1 Proposed landscape structure indicators for tourist landscape analysis

TOURIST LANDSCAPE STRUCTURE INDICATORS	APPLIED LANDSCAPE METRICS
A. Composition indicators	
1. Percentage of land uses	
<i>1^a. Percentage of tourist and non-tourist land uses.</i>	<i>% from thematic maps</i>
<i>1^b. Percentage of the most dominant tourist uses.</i>	<i>% from thematic maps</i>
<i>1^c. Loss of naturalness</i>	<i>% of unbuilt natural areas</i>
2. Heterogeneity indicators	
<i>2^a. Number of selected elements of tourist interest (landmarks)</i>	<i>Number derived from thematic maps</i>
<i>2^b. Number of various types of land uses in a tourist landscape</i>	<i>-Number of Patches (NP) -Patch Richness (PR)</i>
<i>2^c. Diversity in a tourist landscape</i>	<i>Shannon's Diversity Index (SHDI)</i>
B. Configuration indicators	
3. Attributes of built elements and land cover types.	
<i>3^a. Diversity of shapes of land cover types</i>	<i>Patton's Diversity Index (DI)</i>
<i>3^b. Diversity of sizes of land cover types</i>	<i>Patch size standard deviation index</i>
<i>3^c. Diversity of heights of built elements.</i>	<i>Shannon's Diversity Index (SHDI)</i>
4. Spatial distribution of land cover types	
<i>4^a. Building density</i>	<i>Patch Density</i>
<i>4^b. Spatial distribution of built elements in tourist landscape</i>	<i>Nearest Neighbor Distance index</i>
<i>4^c. Degree of network connectivity</i>	<i>Indices α, γ</i>
<i>4^d. Degree of visibility towards tourist landscape of interest</i>	<i>Visibility index</i>

DISCUSSION

Among composition indicators, those referring to an attribute of the tourist landscape itself—such as richness and diversity—through the estimation of the number and percentage of land uses, provide a general

idea of tourism development in the area. Thus, they also indirectly refer to the degree of land cover (urbanisation of rural landscape), to change in pre-existing land uses and, by extension, to the dynamics of the whole local socio-economic context. On the other hand, loss of naturalness, through over-construction, in combination with the increase in the diversity of elements or land uses in a tourist landscape, which often comes with tourism or other development, creates optical disharmony and spatial confusion to the visitor. As a consequence, not only functional, but also symbolic landscape dimensions are affected or disturbed, as much for the locals as for the tourists.

Among configuration indicators, those referring to formal attributes of tourist landscape elements (shape, size and height) are particularly important for the extraction of information on the planning and building status of the area under study and for the elucidation of landscape functions of the past, present and future. These landscape elements are precisely those that come readily under the perception of the visitor of a tourist landscape. With the aid of the above indicators, presence, scale and spatial arrangement of tourism units and infrastructures are assessed, as are also the fragmentation of space, the degree of the road network development and the potential for visual and functional accessibility to and from poles of tourist attraction. Indicators of spatial distribution of various land cover types are equally useful, as structural and functional indicators. They are considered valuable in understanding tourist landscape formation, land-ownership arrangements of a tourist region and future trends in tourism development. These indicators may also prove informative about the historical evolution of the tourist landscape, that is the stages of tourism development, as inscribed in the landscape, in accordance to various models of tourism geography—such as Butler's tourist area life-cycle concept model (1980), Miossec's model of tourist development (1976), Opperman's model of tourist space evolution in developing countries (1993) and Gormsen's (1981) model of spatio-temporal development of international seaside tourism. Their contribution lies in their ability to assess the spatial concentration of tourist activities, which is also directly connected to their ability to evaluate purchasing land values in the region, and hence its potential for further tourism development.

The application of the proposed methodological framework, combining landscape metrics, remote sensing and landscape character assessment methods, may support the analysis of tourism growth and land use change in a variety of different tourism settings. Spatial assessment, on the basis of the proposed set of indicators, may contribute to a better

understanding of the behavior of both tourists and locals and lead to more grounded political decisions, ensuring a more balanced flow and concentration of tourists towards and through poles of landscape attraction. Landscape indicators deserve a central place in the tourism research and planning agenda, since they may be employed for various purposes, from the detailed mapping of tourist land use changes, at various geographical scales, to helping deduce a number of socioeconomic characteristics from remote sensing data. Such analysis of temporal change in tourist landscape structure, based on remote sensing and spatial metrics, may also encourage the development of new methodological perspectives in landscape and tourism sciences.

Moreover, most significantly, the proposed set of landscape indicators, stemming from our methodological framework for tourism landscape assessment, must be viewed as constituting only a subset of a larger and more well-rounded set of indicators, analysing structural and functional changes in tourist landscapes, in conjunction with indicators assessing state and change in the cognitive/ symbolic, qualitative aspects of the tourist landscape.

CONCLUSIONS

The methodological framework introduced above, purports to be an efficient instrument in the evaluation of fundamental structural elements and traits of a tourist landscape. It is hoped that it constitutes a valuable tool for any landscape or tourism development agent, planner or other stakeholder in the broader interdisciplinary research area of urban planning, environment, landscape and/or tourism planning, in the context of any systematic, sustainable and comprehensive spatial intervention in a tourist region or specific destination. It may also prove to be a useful tool for local authorities, providing important quantitative information on tourism impacts on the landscape, thus helping reinforce tourism development geographically remote areas. From the information thus deduced, useful conclusions on social economic, political and cultural processes that created and continue to create a landscape may be additionally derived. The proposed framework may thus constitute a valuable tool in future planning efforts towards description, appraisal and assessment of the state of coastal tourist landscapes and of potential impacts of the tourism industry on them.

However, landscape indicators are not a panacea in tourist landscape assessment. Rather in combination with other data concerning both the

natural and the socio-cultural aspects of the landscape, they may prove to be a crucial tool for constructing a realistic simulation of future local-level tourism development. This research is still at an early stage and relies heavily on metrics and assumptions originating in landscape ecology, GIS science and spatial analysis. Tourist landscape metrics tailored to the needs of tourism analysis at different scales, as well as further improved remote sensing and mapping products, remain issues and areas of further research. The successful application of such a tool may potentially also serve in the improvement of infrastructures, as well as techniques and strategies, the protection of the natural and cultural environment, tourist landscape, upgrading social prosperity and economic blossoming, but also move generally speaking, to future local tourism development on a more sustainable and landscape-sensitive basis. Finally, landscape planning and tourism management may profit greatly from linking landscape structure to landscape preferences and other such methods and models (Dodds & Butler, 2010) currently used in tourism geography and other fields of tourism study.

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WOMEN IN HOTEL MANAGEMENT IN ZIMBABWE: CAREER AMBITIONS, PROGRESSION TACTICS, AND CAREER CHALLENGES

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Research investigates career ambitions, progression tactics and challenges among female hotel managers in Zimbabwean hotels. Data was gathered through a questionnaire survey of 84 female hotel managers in Zimbabwe. Most female hotel managers in Zimbabwe aspire to attain top management positions. However, they face several challenges in their attempts to achieve their career goals. To enhance their career progression prospects, there is a clear need to adopt more aggressive tactics, especially with regard to undertaking further study. For the industry there is need to institutionalise policies and structures that are more “woman-friendly”. However, cultural norms and values pose a major challenge for the change process. Further, women should take responsibility for their own careers. They could strengthen their promotion chances by undertaking postgraduate business leadership courses at esteemed institutions, and by being more assertive of their capabilities. The research focuses on Zimbabwean female hotel managers, whose career ambitions, progression tactics and challenges have not yet been documented.

Keywords: women, management careers, hotels, gender discrimination, Zimbabwe.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Senior management positions in hotels have traditionally been dominated by men with women forming the majority of operative staff. Typically, a woman will perform those roles which are perceived as feminine, such as welcoming the guests, cleaning the rooms and serving

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the food and drink, while a man will do the repair work and manage the hotel (Mullins, 1998). With the championing of women's rights and equal opportunities, this observation becomes a popular topic of concern. As expected, remedies have been suggested, but it would appear, however, that it will take time before the disparity in the representation of women in key managerial roles in the hotel industry is evened out, assuming that this will happen at all.

Although a lot of research has been conducted on the challenges faced by female managers in the corporate environment, little is known about the situation in African countries. Research has also tended to focus on female managers' career progression challenges, without first finding out what their career ambitions are. To try and cover a section of this gap, this research investigates career ambitions, progression tactics and challenges among female hotel managers in Zimbabwean hotels.

Background

Much has been written about the under-representation of women in top positions in the hotel industry worldwide (Altman et al, 2005; Bartram, 2005; Biswas and Cassell, 1996; Brownwell, 1994; Cassell, 1996; Cattaneo et al, 1994; Gordon, 1993; Hicks, 1990; Maxwell, 1997; Mooney and Ryan, 2009; Purcell, 1993; Shirley, 1995; Soehanovic et al, 2000; among others). Women tend to occupy lower levels of hotel hierarchies (Adib abd Guerrier, 2003; Ng and Pine, 2003; Woods and Viehland, 2000). Women managers are also concentrated in supervisory, first line management positions, while top management positions are still dominated by men. Guerrier (1986) observes that women's limited progression can be explained to a large extent by the traditional career route to top management, characterised by a prolonged apprenticeship, advancement through informal contacts, and high geographical mobility (also Ladkin, 2000).

Wentling (2003) also found similar results in the United States. Women were "plateauing" at middle management positions, at which level they could only act as implementers of strategy, rather than as formulators of strategy. Burke et al (2007) observe that there is widespread agreement that women continue to face difficulty in reaching top ranks in management, despite having appropriate education, increasing years of service, the passage of time, and generally similar levels of job performance. In the same line of argument, Schein (2007)

asserts that to the extent that managerial work is viewed as “male”, the characteristics required for success are also viewed as being possessed by men rather than women. Schein argues that all other factors being constant, a male is seen as better qualified, by virtue of his gender alone, than does a female to gain entry into and advance in management. Schein found in a United States study that women were perceived by both male and female managers as less likely to possess the traits, attitudes, and temperaments required to succeed as a manager, and argues that this kind of “think male, think manager” stereotype promotes prejudices against the advancement of women in management.

Career ambitions

Guerrier (1986) argues that if women do not aspire to attain senior management posts in hotels this is a response to the way such positions are portrayed and the lack of opportunities they may perceive. However, research which has documented the issue of female management careers in the hotel industry has tended to focus on female managers' career challenges while giving little attention to their career ambitions and progression tactics (for example Maxwell, 1997; Mooney and Ryan, 2009; Purcell, 1993; Soehanovic et al, 2000; Woods R and Viehland D, 2000). Thus the subject of career ambitions has not been explicitly covered in data collection in the majority of such studies, perhaps with researchers assuming that they already know what female managers aspire to in their careers.

Career progression challenges

Gender divisions of labour in the hotel industry are undeniable. For example, Biswas and Cassell (1996) conducted a case study on the gender divisions of labour in an English hotel and found that men occupied higher status roles than women. Women on the other hand were concentrated in “mothering” and in “glamorous” roles. Women felt that they were viewed as maternal home-makers (for example chambermaids, breakfast waitresses), or as sex objects (for example receptionists, and sales and marketing staff). Interestingly, women actively cooperated with the men in reinforcing stereotypes. For example, chambermaids believed that it was not “nice” for men to clean. Women also accepted

discriminatory recruitment practices in order to maintain the sexual division of labour within the hotel.

Another topical issue which deserves mention within this background is the issue of disparities in salaries between male and female managers. Burgess (2009) analyses salaries in hotel financial management and concludes that women and men appear in general to hold different types of jobs within the hospitality industry financial management function. Typically, men undertake higher status and therefore higher pay jobs than women. Burgess argues that occupational segregation and educational qualification are major reasons behind the disparities in salaries. Burgess adds that social attitudes towards women's employment have compromised their advancement. Other authors have reported that compared to men, women are more willing to work for less money (Omar and Davidson, 2001).

The metaphor of the "glass ceiling" has been widely discussed in relation to the obstacles faced by female managers in their desire to get to the top. The glass ceiling has been described as hidden societal and attitudinal barriers that hinder the career progression of women (Bird et al, 2002). Mooney and Ryan (2009) argue that when analysing barriers to the advancement of women in hotel management, it is important to appreciate the intersections between gender, other diversity characteristics and the glass ceiling. Li and Leung (2001) argue that an important predictor of the existence of the glass ceiling is female managers' lack of connection to professional and old boy networks. Mooney and Ryan identified four glass ceiling barriers to women's advancement in the hotel industry, namely:

- The long hours culture in the industry: their interviewees revealed that they sensed disapproval from co-managers if they attempted to reduce their working hours. The long working hours are a major challenge for women because many have significantly more domestic responsibilities than their male counterparts. The researchers found that this was particularly a challenge for women in their late 20s and early 30s, who are more likely to be married and with children. Some of their respondents commented that in their experience, most women who progressed to the top were either single or lesbian, signalling to young women that if they wanted career progressing, they had to sacrifice a partner or children.

- The “old boy’s network” or the “ old boy club”, defined in the study as a shared history and background- a mindset expressed as informal networks in the workplace that women difficult to penetrate.
- Hiring practices that favour men based on the perception that men are less likely to leave the job or the industry due to reasons associated with marriage and childbearing, as compared with women.
- Geographical mobility: the researchers observed that geographical mobility improves the chances of progressing up the corporate ladder. Their interviewees felt that men had greater liberty for mobility than women because men’s mobility is less restricted by their children’s needs (if they have any), a responsibility which generally falls on, and is perceived as belonging to the wife, if he has one.

In an investigation of the profile and career challenges of female managers in Singapore hotels, Li and Leung (2001) found that the women had “given up” some family life in order to get ahead. Their research context bears close resemblance in cultural terms, as will be explained later, to the Zimbabwean case, thus their findings and discussion will be discussed in some detail.

Some researchers have also found that women in middle management are not strategically positioned for progression towards the post of general manager, attainment of which we could consider as the ultimate goal of hotel management careers. Typically, a manager must go through the post of Food and Beverage Manager or perhaps Rooms Division Manager in order to increase his or her chances of being promoted to the post of general manager, when the post becomes vacant. Kattara (2005) for example found that the majority of female hotel managers in Egyptian hotels were not in positions which favoured their ascent to the position of general manager. The major barriers to women's advancement in this case were very similar to other identified in other researches described above: gender discrimination, relationships at work, mentor support, and a lack of networks.

The role played by cultural values in influencing the career progression of women in management jobs is well documented. For example, Li and Leung argue that cultural values in Singapore play a role in restricting women's access to professional and old boy networks by

restraining them from entertaining their business associates in private clubs or on the golf course, places well acknowledged in Singapore culture as congenial for developing these networks and “learning through the grapevine”. Because of such exclusion, female managers have limited opportunity to socialise with powerful executives (usually male) who could help their career development. Li and Leung suggest that female managers should establish their own networks to overcome the isolation in a male dominated corporate culture. Their networks could serve as informal communication, support and mentorship systems that effectively counterbalance men's groups.

Progression tactics

Li and Leung also note that whereas strong credentials and skills have proven to be important in the advancement of women to middle management positions, they have not been sufficient to elevate them to executive positions. They also found that the barriers to their advancement were not due to corporate practices and policies, but rather were a function of cultural and societal sanctions. The managers mentioned seven factors that had contributed to their success at their level, namely:

- interpersonal skills;
- leadership skills;
- educational qualifications;
- industry experience;
- hard work;
- job knowledge; and
- strength of determination.

The respondents reported that they had to deal with the egos of their spouses who felt threatened by their career advancement. According to Li and Leung, in-laws and husbands exert psychological pressure on women to perform their traditional family roles. Women in Singapore are expected to contribute to the family's income and simultaneously fulfil their duties as wife, mother and daughter. Further, they believed that they had to work harder than their male counterpart to prove their capability.

It has become clear that women need to enhance their career advancement chances by acquiring higher qualifications such as an Masters of Business Administration (MBA). The question however is, is

this sufficient? Does it enhance women's advancement in the corporate environment? Heaton and McWhinney (1999) studied the impact of an MBA on male and female managers. They found that women had not done as well as men after the MBA. However, most felt that the MBA had helped them to overcome some of the barriers that they faced in their careers.

It has to be acknowledged however that some women do in fact make it to the top, and this raises curiosity as to how such women have done it. Maxwell (1997) conducted a research to investigate a few success stories of women who had made it to the position of hotel general manager, and to analyse these women's motivation to succeed, factors that had enabled them to rise to the top in the hotel, as well as the consequences of their career achievements. Maxwell found that the four interviewees were highly career-motivated, ambitious and committed. The research identified equal opportunity and mentoring support as key enabling factors. The female managers in this study had had to "throw themselves completely into work", change companies to gain wide experience, work very long hours, engage in business socialising, and "put on an extra 30%" as ways of "proving" themselves. A career focus that brought serious work-life balance challenges was however cited as a major consequence of their achievement.

There is however limited hospitality specific research which provides insight on women's career progression tactics. As stated earlier, researchers have tended to diagnose the problems faced by women, without establishing in detail how women are attempting to deal with such problems.

Research questions

The research sought to answer the following questions:

- What career ambitions do female hospitality managers in Zimbabwe have?
- What career advancement challenges do female hospitality managers in Zimbabwe face?
- What career progression tactics have they adopted?

METHODOLOGY

The research is documented through a survey conducted with a sample of 84 female hotel managers in Zimbabwe. An interpretivist approach was opted for given the perception-based nature of the inquiry, which meant that the researcher took the ontological standpoint that there were multiple subjective realities related to experience and knowledge. Such data could only be captured through a descriptive, qualitative process.

Questionnaires were distributed to all available managers during their managerial lunch breaks at 27 hotels. The managerial lunches, a long standing tradition in Zimbabwean hotels, where hotel managers enjoy their lunches together, provided a convenient opportunity for data collection. The researcher inquired about any managers who might have remained in their offices and took the questionnaires to their offices for completion.

Managers were asked to state their ages as either “above 35” or “35 or below” (72%). In the researcher's previous research, it was observed that Zimbabwean women were reluctant to state their ages explicitly. One respondent had previously jokingly stated that she always understates her age “to appear younger.” Thus, allowing them to state a range rather than a figure was likely to be received more positively and perhaps deter some from misrepresenting their ages deliberately.

The hotels were selected judgementally from a list provide by the Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management, Midlands State University, Zimbabwe.

The questionnaire was designed so that large spaces were available to provide detailed answers. Respondents were asked to recount their experiences and anecdotes freely. The questionnaire was designed to seek the following on the following areas:

- career ambitions;
- career progression tactics; and
- career challenges.

Sample characteristics

The current positions held were as follows: 2 assistant general managers; 7 food and beverage managers and 6 rooms division managers,

13 front office managers, 11 marketing managers, 8 reservations managers, 13 restaurant managers, 7 human resources managers, 10 functions managers, and 7 guest relations managers. The majority (72%) of managers were aged above 35.

FINDINGS

Career ambitions

72% of the managers reported that they intended to stay in the hotel industry and advance up the corporate ladder, while 58% indicated that they were aiming at rising to the post of General Manager eventually. They were however uncertain about the chances of realising this dream, an observation which is consistent with Guerrier's (1986) argument that women's perceptions of career progression opportunities. 28% stated that they intended to quit the industry at some point to work in other industries (11%) or to start families (17%).

These findings reveal that female managers in Zimbabwean hotels are quite ambitious but slightly apprehensive of their career advancement prospects. Due to the limited research on the area, comparisons with female managers elsewhere are not possible at this point. It would be hoped that in future other researchers would address this gap to enable meaningful comparisons to be made.

Career challenges

The following career challenges were identified most frequently:

- Poor work-life balance (88%): respondents alluded to the challenges of balancing work with household responsibilities such as childcare and home keeping
"Sometimes you are at work up to midnight. And you have a household to run and kids to take care of. It gets to a point when it feels crazy and the pressure can really crack you up. You are supposed to act like you are twenty people in one".
- Vertical segregation (64%): respondents felt that women were considered second-best in the hospitality industry; that a woman would only be appointed to a senior management position if a suitable male could not be found.

- The “old boy club”(34%): for example, one respondent wrote *“the men have their clique, and sometimes you just don’t fit into it, no matter how hard you try”*
- Unfavourable perceptions of female hotel managers (4%).
“there is a stigma attached to every woman who works in a hotel. Many people think women who work in hotels are promiscuous, because the hotel is perceived as a leisure centre, and the perception that we sleep with every male manager, and with guests. And many people believe that you have to sleep your way up the ladder to get on in the hotel business”.

As such, the progression challenges identified by the respondents mirror very closely those identified in similar researches, elsewhere (for example Hicks, 1990). It is interesting that that this should be the case despite the differences that exist in the macro-social environments between Zimbabwe and other countries, such as the relatively lower priority status accorded to gender issues in developing countries when compared with the developed world. It appears then that the challenges faced by women are largely similar; that this virtual homogeneity is indifferent to subtle differences in social and cultural environments in different countries.

The majority of respondents complained that their organisations were not woman-friendly; that there were not enough interventions in policy and structure to make it easier for women to balance their work and family lives. However, in a few of the cases, they acknowledged some organisational practices which were helping, such as “breastfeeding hour” and dinners where spouses were invited. But the general perception was one of the inadequacy of these practices and the need for much more. In particular, they felt that they needed to have the latitude to renegotiate their work schedules to take account of family responsibility. These concerns can be related to what has been termed overt discrimination practices, such as the lack of child care facilities, role models and mentors for women, for example, (Bird et al, 2002).

Career progression tactics

14% of the managers stated that they were at that time furthering their formal education, while 78% indicated that they intended to do so in future. Of the former, 7% were undertaking a Master of Business Administration program, while the remainder were undertaking an

undergraduate degree program. The majority, most of whom were over 35 years of age, however emphasised that they had realised that for progression in the hospitality industry, experience and hard work were the most important “qualifications”. They thus indicated that they often “went the extra mile”, working overtime, performing beyond their job obligations, making personal sacrifices for company benefit, and being innovative and creative in the discharge of their duties. This compares well with the findings made by Maxwell (1997), although Zimbabwean women appear to focus more on “going the extra mile” than on any other tactic.

Given the limited research on career progression tactics adopted by women in hotel management, these findings provide only an exploratory background for future researchers who might want to explore the topic in more detail.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

We need to ask whether the women in the study are correctly positioned, in terms of their current positions, to ascend to the ultimate post. If only two of the respondents out of 84 were assistant general managers, then the prospects for most female managers of eventually assuming the role of general manager are not very good. Further, very few of the respondents were occupying key positions of food and beverage manager and rooms division managers, offices which are typically most favoured in promotion to the general manager post.

There is also the question of ambition. The majority of respondents expressed the ambition to go up the corporate ladder, although they were uncertain as to whether this dream would be realised. One needs to consider what happens in the event that such a dream is not realised. Frustration will be inevitable. Obviously, different individuals will react differently to the thwarting of a career. Some may remain in the organisation, while others may decide to quit. While the former may be more likely, the latter is not rare. This however requires empirical investigation in future research: what becomes of female managers whose dreams of going up the corporate ladder do not come true?

The issue of work life balance is indeed a critical one in hospitality workplaces, at whatever level, and for both males and females, as stated earlier. Perhaps the work-life challenge in this context is somewhat heightened because custom dictates that women carry virtually all of the

domestic responsibility. Most respondents cited this as a major hindrance towards their career advancement. This issue, along with vertical segregation and the “old boy club”, all corroborate the findings of previous research, demonstrating that women in Zimbabwe, face very similar challenges as those faced by female hotel managers elsewhere.

In a very competitive labour marketplace, a first degree is no longer a source of competitive advantage in terms of promotion chances, because many managers now possess an undergraduate qualification. The awarding educational institution can however make a huge difference. Female hotel managers in Zimbabwe should therefore boost their promotion chances by undertaking postgraduate study at credible business schools.

Wildes (2005) discussed the issue of a social stigma attached to working in hospitality. This is the stereotype attached to the job of serving others, supported by the colonial history and the history of tipping. For some, hospitality work is analogous to the servant -master relationships in colonial times. However, the stigma highlighted in this study is quite different. It relates to the stereotype that people who work in the hospitality industry are promiscuous, immoral, or “loose”. There is also a belief that women who progress in the hospitality industry do so through illegitimate means, commonly referred to as “sleeping your way up the ladder”. To deal with this challenge, there is need for public awareness initiatives to build a positive image of women working in the industry, thereby undermining the stigma.

To reduce turnover among female managers, and to reap maximum benefit from their skills, hospitality companies need to change their human resource management approaches so that they are more friendly towards women. This could entail:

- allowing employees to take career breaks if they need to for purposes such as childcare without forfeiting their jobs
- openness in career progression paths that are based on merit and are equally accessible to both males and females; that is, not communicated within the framework of an “old boy club”
- cultivating gender sensitivity through regular focus group discussions in order to challenge gender-based discrimination, especially those forms which operate at a subconscious level because they have become a “culture”
- mentor support for both men and women

- home-working, where this is possible
- more flexible work schedules which take into account work-life balance issues.

Organisations need therefore to adopt a holistic approach to the challenges faced by women which addresses all forms of gender based discrimination: overt discrimination (for example a lack of child care facilities at work), covert discrimination (such as prejudiced attitudes, beliefs and male defined exclusionary behaviour), and unconscious discrimination, as in the psychological impact of a patriarchal organisational culture (Bird et al, 2002).

It is interesting to note the similarities in the cultural norms and values between Singapore, or Asia in general and Zimbabwe, in terms of society's expectations of the women's place in the workplace and in the family. Zimbabwean women, particularly black women are also expected to be subservient to their partner. Men are expected to dominate in the home, and this expectation spills into the workplace. The man must indeed dominate financially and professionally. The wife would normally pursue career progression if it does not compromise this balance. Marriages where the women becomes more prominent than the man in terms of career (and financial) success frequently in divorce. Women are also expected to perform domestic chores even when their career consumes most of their energy and time. Even when they have domestic workers, some chores such as preparing dinner and making the marital bed are perceived to be the job of the wife.

Regarding professional and old boy networks, Zimbabwean women also face the same predicament as Asian women. Cultural norms and values restrict the degree of interaction that women can build with male industry executives. There is a cultural stereotype that women who entertain men who are in powerful executive positions are in fact trying to "sleep their way up the ranks". Husbands will also object to their wives entertaining other men in their absence because they are either suspicious of their wives or because they worry about what other observers might infer. To be the subject of society's pity over the perceived "infidelity" of a wife is a situation which most black Zimbabwean men will not want to deal with, even when they believe the intentions of their wives to be strictly professional, because it would be a sign of weakness on their part. These cultural norms have to be challenged first before women can succeed in their quest for gender balance in the corporate world.

The career progression tactics mentioned by the respondents perhaps highlight a very significant weakness in women's career advancement approach. It is clear that most women do not strengthen their career progression prospects by undertaking further study. While experience and diligence and work are important, exceptionally good formal qualifications are increasingly becoming prerequisites for top management positions in the hospitality industry. With most universities in Zimbabwe, including the Midlands State University, the University of Zimbabwe, and the National University of Science and Technology offering postgraduate business leadership and management courses on part-time, block release, and visiting school bases, Zimbabwean hotel managers, whatever their gender, have flexible and convenient options for further study. Women have to take full responsibility for their own progression in the hospitality industry. They need to become more assertive in their workplaces. Given the daunting challenges that women continue to face, it may be that women have to work a little harder than their male counterparts to "get on"; to break through the glass ceiling.

Limitations of the research

The major limitation of this research one of scale. Future researches could use larger samples to make the findings more generalisable. It would also be interesting to carry out a similar research with male managers and then draw comparisons. For example, comparisons of their educational qualifications, industry experience, perceptions of career progression challenges, and career intentions, with those found among women would shed light on why women seem to lag behind. This research has done the exploratory work. Future research should build on this base to conduct closer analyses of individual issues identified here.

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ELECTRONIC MARKETING PRACTICES AT HOTELS IN TURKEY AND A SURVEY WITH FOUR AND FIVE STAR HOTELS

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Marketing activities to provide competition advantage, particularly electronic marketing have been a very important need for hotel operations. Through electronic marketing tools, hotel operations can have access to more mass of people faster with less cost. Electronic marketing of hotels in Turkey were not analyzed enough and in this survey, it was questioned how much hotel establishments in Turkey benefited from electronic marketing practices and how much they could keep up with the changes in electronic marketing. With this purposes, it was intended to determine the level of electronic marketing practices and electronic marketing elements via their own website, according to the types and classes of hotel establishments. The method of content analysis was used. According to data of collected from hotels' web sites in Marmara Region, %96.8 of hotels are covered by search engines and five star hotels & chain hotels were found more dynamic and were allowing the practices for electronic marketing.

Keywords: *Hotel, Electronic Marketing, Hotel Web Sites*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Electronic marketing (E-marketing) aims to promote and sell a product with a low budget and by using the opportunities offered by Internet. Low cost, effective promotion and being open to innovations are among the evident characteristics of electronic marketing. It is known that electronic marketing has benefits such as facilitating access to customer information, minimizing the time to be lost, reducing personnel costs, providing important information about customer expectations and



approaches of customers to the product, enhancing the efficiency of the personnel, improving easy accessibility, and providing coordination and flow of information among departments (Ruzgar Sevinc, 2007:10). It is known that after the processes required for electronic marketing have been completed and a specific customer mass has been achieved, there is a need to apply those strategies that will make existing customers dependent (Civelek Sozer, 2003:179).

When booking systems at the website were first designed for users, factors such as price, security and comprehensibility were important. However, with an increase in the use of websites by users, it was considered important to access much information (such as communication, virtual tour and access to different links), to emphasize the functionalities of operations (such as clarity and comprehensibility of information about purchasing, provision of all information on services and products, fast and stable booking systems, security measures, cancellation of operations, and repayment) and to integrate them into the booking systems of hotels (Kim & Kim, 2004:390). Eli Goldratt states that "If you want to be competitive, you'd better concentrate on the value perception of the market" (Goldratt, 2008:134). It is seen that the availability of an opportunity for fast communication and for reaching new users via Internet increases the use of Internet as a means of marketing by tourism establishments (Boylu and Tuncer, 2008:12). With the conducting of those affairs that are included in the scope of marketing activities in electronic medium, potential customers are reached; the costs of marketing activities intended to provide information about the company, brand, facilities and services are minimized; and accurate results can be created for the decisions to be made.

The first remarkable advantage of e-marketing is that it reduces costs. The cost of e-marketing platform is lower than those of other marketing platforms such as face-to-face sales or distributor platforms and it can offer establishments an opportunity to access customers whom the existing distribution channels will not be able to reach due to local and temporary constraints. E-marketing platform reduces costs with the three advantages it offers to its consumers and is able to increase the opportunity for access (Sheth Sharma, 2005:616). *First*, without any need for human beings, marketing companies are able to offer unlimited information to their customers. This is an advantage when compared with other types of communication, for the amount of offered information is more than the information offered by any other types of communication, and the information can be presented in a format, by which the target mass can comprehend more easily. For instance, it is very difficult to

design plane tariffs and booking systems to serve personal needs. Within this scope, the alternatives offered for customers in e-marketing or web-based format are very high in number. *Secondly*, e-marketing companies allow an interaction that adapts information to their customers with respect to the design of services and products to meet the special needs of individual customers. *Finally*, e-marketing platform, as applied in successful companies such as Dell and amazon.com, enables operations to be performed only between the customer and the firm without any need for other people. With electronic marketing, hotel establishments may have various advantages. These advantages can be itemized as follows:

- Instead of preparing brochures, hotel establishments might perform promotions at their website;
- Service might be provided for 7 days and 24 hours;
- An interactive communication might be made with potential customers without any international differences of time or language;
- A global customer profile might be formed;
- The questions to be posed, and information to be demanded, by customers might be responded soon;
- Sections of views and recommendations might be prepared, and positive and negative ideas about prices, services and products might be learned;
- The sector might be tracked and, when necessary, developments might be adapted soon;
- Innovations, changes and extra advantages regarding the development of products might be utilized;
- When necessary, all customers, partners and the press might be provided with information and promotion via Internet, also using the video conference system;
- Sources of income such as sales and advertisement in electronic medium might be created;
- The cost of online booking is low, and the commission paid to intermediaries decreases.
- In addition, there might be online advertisements, promotions, cost-free products, software, and low-priced sales.

Besides the advantages concerned, a disadvantage of e-marketing is that it takes seconds and even milliseconds for Internet users to exit the website that they are touring and immediately make comparisons with the rival hotel establishments. It is known that in order to take place at the top ranks in the use of information technologies, cost, reliability, risk

problems, security, and especially the security holes of payment are considered as great problems in electronic marketing (Pires Aisbett, 2002:294).

LITERATURE REVIEW

When the existing literature was examined, it was determined that there were various studies on electronic marketing practices at the websites of four- and five-star hotel establishments. In her study, Sigala (2001) found that many hotels used Internet to promote the hotel and to provide information about prices. In the same study, it was expressed that those hotels which offered alternatives of discount so as to increase their sales promotions and bookings constituted the majority. It was found that 16% of the hotels offered online booking and safe modes of payment, whereas all hotels made bookings via e-mail. According to the findings, the hotels were recommended to design their website according to changing customer needs and make them online, visible and accessible.

In their study for the evaluation of Internet websites of Accommodation Establishments in Turkey, Karamustafa, Bickes and Ulama (2002) stress that the use of Internet websites for communication of marketing of products offered by accommodation establishments is quite new. They conclude that the habits of existing and potential customers to go shopping on the Internet have not reached the desired level yet. Yalcin and Demircioglu (2002) found that firms benefited superficially from marketing communication activities at their websites and used various electronic marketing activities at elementary stage. Internet as a new means of marketing and the classification of factors affecting the use of Internet. Pirmar (2005) stated that the tourism industry was also suitable for e-commerce due to its structure and that e-commerce provided both tourism establishments and customers with savings of cost and time.

In a study by Chiang (2003) that examined the websites of some 65 hotels in Singapore, it was determined that online booking; online payment, fast discount and online confirmation opportunities; restaurant promotions; and family-child promotions took place at the websites of the hotels within the scope of the study at the rates of 95%, 83%, 49% and 3%, respectively.

In their research on the contents and operation capabilities of websites of some 77 5-star hotels in China, Hsu, Zhu and Agrusa (2004) observed that since numerous hotels had international customers, English and Chinese generally predominated at hotels' websites and that 32.5%

had a website only in English, while 1.3% had a website only in Chinese. Websites generally provided basic information about hotel and facility. 62% of hotels offered an online booking service. The most interesting finding of this study is that although many hotels offered bilingual or multilingual services at their website, online booking operations were mostly performed in English. This yields the conclusion that five-star hotels generally regarded the English-speaking people in other countries as their target customer mass. Only 5% of the hotels offered online booking in Chinese. However, many hotel websites did not offer links to other sites that provided added value such as travel partners (car rental and plane ticket) and local attraction points. As a result of the study, it was stated that the presentation of additional functions and services at websites to visitors and consumers provided websites with added value and attracted potential customers more.

In their study, Baloglu and Pekcan (2006) suggested findings regarding website design at luxurious hotels. The research was carried out at some 139 four- and five-star hotel establishments in Antalya, Mugla and Istanbul with a high recognition of destination. It was observed that in approximately 75% of the hotels, online information demand forms, dates of special events, online view forms, links to other related sites, promotions, online payments, links to tourism information sites, audio features, date of last update, and use of advertisements were rather scarce. It was found that the hotels in Turkey did not fully benefit from Internet and e-marketing, regardless of type and class of the hotels.

In her study on the role of Internet in destination marketing, Ozdemir (2007) stated that tourism marketers benefited intensively from the opportunities provided by technological developments in the field of destination marketing as well and that they gave up the traditional marketing understanding and were headed for a modern marketing understanding. It was expressed that as regards Internet, it was concentrated on being different, website designs and website contents in the tourism industry, wherein international competition is intensive.

In a study by Tutar, Kocabay and Kilinc (2007) on e-commerce practices in tourism sector in and around Nevsehir, it was found that costs decreased and productivity increased upon the commencement of the use of information and technology in accommodation establishments. It was stressed that the use of computer-based automation was at the rate of 88% at the front office department of the hotels located at the surveyed site and that competitive advantage in the tourism sector might be provided using information and technology.

In their study on the content analysis of hotels' websites, Bayram and Yayli (2008) analyzed the websites of some 286 four- and five-star hotel establishments. According to survey results, it was seen that hotel establishments widely included booking by e-mail, hotel images and room images – the criteria that determine marketing practices at websites - in their website. Another striking finding of the study was the quite high number of websites that did not offer any opportunity for online booking or online payment.

In a survey on the effect of the management structure of accommodation establishments on web-based marketing activities, Boylu and Tuncer (2008) found that the bookings that accommodation establishments received via electronic systems were at a low level. The emphasis on the fact that more than half of the establishments did not accept online payment and that the management structure of an establishment was an important factor in updating the information on promotions, products and prices was striking. In the survey, it was concluded that there was no correlation between advertising on Internet and the management structure of the establishment, that the development of security required for e-marketing activities was insufficient and that it was not adequately understood that Internet was an opportunity for competition and for opening to the world.

Kanellopoulos (2006) indicates that consumers or travel agents has opportunity to create, manage and update itineraries. Web application allows the customer to specify a set of preferences for a vacation and query a set of information sources to find components such as car rental, leisure activities and air fares in real-time. Also it was seen that it Intelligent tourism information systems offer full integration, flexibility, specialization and personalization.

A SURVEY AT FOUR STAR AND FIVE STAR HOTEL ESTABLISHMENTS IN THE MARMARA REGION

Purpose, Scope and Method

In the research on the investigation of the electronic marketing practices of four- and five-star hotel establishments operating in the Marmara Region, it was questioned how much hotel establishments benefited from electronic marketing practices and how much they could keep up with the changes in electronic marketing. With this purpose, it was intended to determine the rates of use of electronic marketing practices and electronic marketing elements via their own website,

according to the types and classes of hotel establishments. The method of content analysis, a qualitative research technique, was applied in the collection of data about electronic marketing practices in the hotel establishments.

When preparing the data collection scale used in the research, the previous studies by Karamustafa, Bickes and Ulama (2002), Baloglu and Pekcan (2006), and Bayram and Yayli (2008) were taken as the basis, and a new assessment form for electronic marketing practices was created. An individual assessment form was used for each visited website; the websites were assessed one by one depending on the specified criteria; and except for those websites which were under construction, each website was visited only once and the obtained data were recorded in the prepared assessment form. Assessment of the criteria under each category in the assessment form was marked as Present (1) and Absent (0).

The Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient, which is regarded as the most used reliability measurement to determine the reliability of scales, was used in this research. Reliability of the data were tested, and the reliability of the scale was found as $\alpha=0.828$. Frequency (f), percentage (%) and chi-square (χ^2) were used in the analysis of data. Chi-square analysis was made in order to determine whether there was any significant difference in terms of the prepared criteria among hotels' websites according to the type and class of establishments.

In the Marmara Region, the number of four-star hotel establishments was found as 135, while the number of five-star hotel establishments was found as 55. Since the website of a four-star hotel was under construction and two hotels did not have any website and since the websites of two hotels among five-star hotel establishments were under construction and one hotel did not have any website at the time of the study, a total of 185 hotel establishments constituted the sample of the study.

The research limit was the date interval when the criteria for electronic marketing practices were assessed. Because websites made innovations at specific time spans, they had a dynamic structure and the time intervals of the activities varied, the research was limited to the date interval of August 3, 2009-August 15, 2009.

Findings and Evaluation

Before starting with the practice section, the four- and five-star hotel establishments in the Marmara Region were listed. The search engine was written as Google, and their status of being within top ten on the page was checked. At the same time, their links with travel portals on

the first page were also examined. The forms of content analysis were prepared as many as the number of hotels. Later on, the hotel pages were visited one by one, the criteria were assessed and the data were transferred to the forms. In order to understand the likelihood of the noticeability of the importance of electronic marketing by hotel establishments, the booking stages of all hotels (on request-online booking) were performed respectively, and the criteria were assessed accordingly in the research. The electronic marketing criteria of hotel establishments were examined as Contact information (14 subtitles) and promotion (17 subtitles).

Four- and five-star hotel establishments were searched one by one via the search engine 'Google'. The hotels were all within top ten ranks. Of all five-star hotels, 43 performed their promotions and sales at www.bookinturkey.com. As a result of the research, it was found that of all four-star hotels, 51 were members of www.bookinturkey.com, 19 were members of www.booking.com, six were members of www.travelguide.com, 10 were members of www.reservationeurope.com and three hotels were members of www.expedia.com travel portal, and their sales were performed at the sites concerned.

Table 1 Distribution of Hotel Establishments by Type and Class

	Hotel Type		Hotel Class	
	Chain Hotel	Independant Hotel	Five Star	Four Star
n	57	128	53	132
%	30,8	69,2	28,6	71,4

The frequencies and percentages of the criteria created for the assessment of electronic marketing practices of hotel establishments, considered as the sample in the research, at their website are presented in Table 3. According to the data under the title of contact information, it was observed that hotel establishments attached importance to the issue of communication and that communication instruments such as online communication (1.6%) and online chat (4.9%) had low rates of use at the websites of hotel establishments. It might be stated that the use of electronic bulletin that presents news from within and outside the establishment (20.0%) is low. It might be stated that the low use of FAQ (Frequently asked questions) (4.9%) resulted from the easiness to access customers via e-mail. It is seen that the rates of use of alternatives of Customer Complaint Line (4.9%), Recommend (Send) to your Friend

(6.5%), Satisfaction Survey (10.3%), Online Visitor Book (13.5%) and Help (10.8%) at websites are low.

Of the features entitled the property of promotion, being found in the search engine was found to be at the rate of 96.8%. This rate indicates that the hotels are aware of the importance of being found by search engines, and particularly of being included in the page that appears first. It is seen that those hotels which are not found in search engines benefit from travel portals and make use of functions such as being found, noticed and recognized as well as sales in electronic medium. The feature of use of a simple and comprehensive booking form was found as 86.5%. It might be stated that the simplicity and comprehensibility of booking forms, which have an important place in the ability of hotels to perform online sales, indicate that importance is attached to this subject, that they provide customers with comfort of use, and that they might encourage manipulation to online bookings. The 69.2% rate of online booking in the sample shows that the importance of this subject has been understood. In addition, depending on the identical percentages of the features of being registered in online booking and travel portals, it can be evaluated that hotel establishments were aware of the importance of performing sales at their own website and that they also continued to perform sales via travel portals. Apart from online booking, the 60% rate of on-request (ask-buy) booking alternative and the 51.1% rate of other booking alternatives demonstrate that the hotels used the feature of performing sales at their own websites.

Table 2 Electronic Marketing Criteria for Hotel Establishments
 (n=185)

E-marketing Criteria	Present		Absent		E- marketing Criteria	Present		Absent	
PROMOTI ON	n	%	n	%	CONTACT INFORMATI ON	n	%	n	%
Customer Membership Opportunity	67	36.2	118	63.8	E-Mail Address	176	95.1	9	4.9
Being found in the Search Engine	179	96.8	6	3.2	E-Bulletin	37	20.0	148	80.0
Registration in the Travel	128	69.2	57	30.8	FAQ	9	4.9	176	95.1

Portal									
Online Collection	103	55.7	82	44.3	Help	20	10.8	165	89.2
Other Payment	73	39.5	112	60.5	Online Visitor Book	25	13.5	160	86.5
Online Call Sales Center	15	8.1	170	91.9	Feedback Form	78	42.2	107	57.8
Promotions	111	60.0	74	40.0	Satisfaction Survey	19	10.3	166	89.7
Member Promotions	48	25.9	137	74.1	Online Communication Prog.	3	1.6	182	98.4
Innovation	81	44.0	103	56.0	Online Chat Program	9	4.9	176	95.1
Advertisements	46	24.9	139	75.1	Fax	178	96.2	7	3.8
Dynamic Pricing	104	56.2	81	43.8	Telephone	182	98.4	3	1.6
Application of Special Membership Discount	54	29.2	131	70.8	Announcements-news	53	28.6	132	71.4
Application of Agency Discount	58	31.4	127	68.6	Right Customer Complaint L.	9	4.9	176	95.1
Simple and Comprehensive Book. Form	160	86.5	25	13.5	Recommend to your Friend	12	6.5	173	93.5
On-Request Book.	111	60.0	74	40.0					
Other Booking Alternatives	94	51.1	90	48.9					
Online Booking	128	69.2	57	30.8					

Within the sample, it was observed that the online call center for booking (8.1%) was not used, that online collection was performed at the rate of 55.7% and that other payment alternatives were used at the rate of

39.5%. It might be stated that all those hotels which made online booking within the sample prepared their booking pages in such a way that they were quite practical, easy-to-use and professional and they allowed making operations in a short time. The preference of online marketing, which provides customers with an alternative of immediate confirmation and payment, might have caused a reduction in the rate of use of booking by electronic mail. Besides, it might be stated that the rate of making bookings by telephone and fax is still higher than predicted (51.1%).

Chi-square was used as the analysis method in order to test whether the correlation observed among the variables in the cross tabulation was statistically significant. Chi-square analysis was made so as to see and assess whether there were differences in the subtitles of features of the prepared websites according to the type and class of hotel establishments within the scope of the research (Yazicioglu Erdogan, 2004:204). As a result of the analyses, it might be stated that the rate of the surveyed hotel establishments to use satisfaction survey at their website (10.3%) was rather low. A satisfaction survey is a two-way process, in which hotel establishments can provide information about their services, and the reasons why its rate of use was low might include elements such as the problems experienced as regards the sending of forms, scarcity of technical knowledge, and inadequacy of knowledge of the analyses of forms.

Independent hotel establishments and five-star hotel establishments use the feature of satisfaction survey at a higher rate. It was observed that especially independent hotel establishments published online many of the satisfaction surveys they used. It might be stated that the comments of those customers who had stayed at the hotel earlier and wrote views will play an important role in the selection of hotels by the customers who will stay at the hotel or receive a different service.

It might be stated that the feature 'recommend to your friend', an important feature for promotion, will increase as time progresses and that the hotel establishments will use it at a higher rate. When it is considered that today's web users always share those elements such as any information, entertainment and image that they like and that attract them, the alternative 'recommend to your friend' might be expressed as an important feature for marketing. It is understood that chain hotel establishments and five-star hotel establishments use the feature 'recommend to your friend' at a higher rate and that this difference is statistically significant ($p=0.001$).

Of the subtitles of contact information, the features of electronic mail, online visitor book, feedback form, online communication

programs, online chat programs, fax, telephone and right customer complaint line were compared according to type and class of hotels. It was found that the features, which were compared in terms of the type and class of hotels, were close to each other. According to the result of the research, it was observed that traditional instruments were used intensively in communication activities.

Table 3 Distribution of the Feature ‘Recommend to your Friend’ by Type and Class of Hotels

Recommend to your Friend	Hotel Type		Total		Hotel Class	
	Chain	Independent	n	%	Four Star	Five Star
Available	48	125	173	93,5	129	44
Not Available	9	3	12	6,5	3	9
Total	57	128	185	100	132	53
	$(\chi^2=11,754, P=0,001)$				$(\chi^2=13,487, P=0,001)$	

It is seen that customer membership opportunity was offered at a low rate at the websites of hotel establishments. It is doubtless that making customer membership opportunity attractive and its use will bring advantages to hotels in terms of customer profile, and first of all, hotel establishments have to attach more importance to this feature. Chain hotel establishments and five-star hotel establishments used customer membership opportunity at a higher rate. During their trips, customers generally select known and previously stayed hotel establishments. The availability of customer membership opportunity creates a preference for customers to stay at the same hotel. Hotel establishments offer applications of special membership discount along with the feature of customer membership opportunity. According to the study, it is seen that the applications of special membership discount were used at the hotels at the rate of 29.2%. It might be stated that chain hotel establishments and five-star hotel establishments used the feature of applications of special membership discount at a higher rate and that it was also influential on the preference of chain and five-star hotel establishments. Hotels prefer Google as the search engine at the highest rate. It is understood that five-

star hotel establishments attached more importance to the feature of being found in the search engines.

Table 4 Distribution of the Feature 'Registration in Travel Portals by Type and Class of Hotels

Registration in Travel Portals	Hotel Type		Total		Hotel Class	
	Chain	Independent	n	%	Four Star	Five Star
Available	10	47	57	30,8	49	8
Not Available	47	81	128	69,2	83	45
Total	57	128	185	100	132	53
	$(\chi^2=6,802, P=0,009)$				$(\chi^2=8,607, P=0,003)$	

When the feature of hotel establishments' registration in travel portals is considered, it is observed that 69.2% were registered. Of the five-star hotels within the scope of the study, 43 performed their promotion and sales at www.bookinturkey.com. As a result of the research, it was found that some 51 four-star hotels were members of www.bookinturkey.com, 19 hotels were members of www.booking.com, 6 hotels were members of www.travelguide.com, 10 hotels were members of www.reservationeurope.com and 3 hotels were members of www.expedia.com travel portal and that their sales were performed at the sites concerned.

Table 5 Distribution of the Feature 'Dynamic Pricing' by Type and Class of Hotels

Dynamic Pricing	Hotel Type		Total	
	Chain	Independent	n	%
Available	12	69	81	43,8
Not available	45	59	104	56,2
Total	57	128	185	100
	$(\chi^2=17,294, P=0,001)$			

The rate of the feature of online collection by hotel establishments within the scope of the research was found as 55.7%. However, the rate of

use of the alternative of dynamic pricing was 56.2%. It might be stated that the rates of online payment alternative, one of the important stages of electronic marketing, were low. It might be suggested that those hotel establishments which apply the electronic marketing process have to attach more importance to alternatives regarding payment.

Table 6 Distribution of the Features of Online Call Sales Center, Other Booking and Online Booking by Type and Class of Hotels

Online Call Sales Center	Hotel Type		Total		Hotel Class	
	Chain	Independent	n	%	Four Star	Five Star
Available	44	126	170	91,9	131	39
Not Available	13	2	15	8,1	1	14
Total	57	128	185	100	132	53
	$(\chi^2=23,890, P=0,001)$				$(\chi^2=33,413, P=0,001)$	
Other Booking	Hotel Type		Total		Hotel Class	
	Chain	Independent	n	%	Four Star	Five Star
Available	18	72	90	48,9	72	18
Not Available	39	55	94	51,1	59	35
Total	57	128	185	100	132	53
	$(\chi^2=17,294, P=0,001)$				$(\chi^2=1,104, P=0,293>0,05)$	
Online Booking	Hotel Type		Total		Hotel Class	
	Chain	Independent	n	%	Four Star	Five Star
Available	11	46	57	30,8	45	12
Not Available	46	82	128	69,2	87	41
Total	57	128	185	100	132	53
	$(\chi^2=5,122, P=0,024)$				$(\chi^2=2,325, P=0,127)$	

When the type of hotel and the use of the feature of dynamic pricing were compared, it was found that chain hotel establishments used the feature of dynamic pricing at a higher rate than the independent hotel establishments, and it was observed that there was a significant difference between them ($p=0.001$). It was determined that the rates of use of the

alternative of dynamic pricing by five-star and four-star hotel establishments were close to each other.

It is observed that there was a decrease in booking by electronic mail despite an increase in the use of online booking. Within the framework of this change, it might be stated that hotel establishments preferred online communication more.

It was concluded that chain hotel establishments used the online call sales center at a higher rate than independent hotel establishments. When the class of hotel and the feature of online call sales center were compared, it was seen that five-star hotel establishments used call sales centers at a higher rate. It might be stated that there was an increase in the rates of five-star hotels and chain hotels to use online call centers that enabled making a booking faster and that they used different methods besides traditional bookings. In this way, they could address any customer profile.

Considering that not all customers can have a high rate of use of computer, it might be stated that booking forms have to be prepared to be as comprehensive as possible. Accordingly, it was observed that chain hotel establishments and five-star hotel establishments used the feature of application of agency discount at a higher rate. It was seen that the feature of simple and comprehensive booking form was used at a higher rate at chain hotel establishments.

RESULT AND SUGGESTIONS

According to the results of the research, it is of considerable importance to create a continuously efficient communication process with customers for electronic marketing. More importance should be attached to the means of communication for the information and services demanded by customers. Although the rates of use of classical means of communication are quite high, the use of online means of communication – the indispensable elements of the developing technology – is rather low. As a result of the analysis, it was also concluded that the rates of use of features of electronic bulletin, FAQ, help, announcements, and ‘recommend to your friend’ were high at five-star and chain hotel establishments. Being found by search engines and especially taking place on the first page are quite essential. In the study, it was determined that search engines were used by the hotels. It was seen that those hotels which were not found in the search engines benefited from travel portals and made use of the functions of being found, noticed and recognized as well as sales. Of the five-star hotels within the scope of the study, 43

performed their promotions and sales at www.bookinturkey.com. It was found that of the four-star hotels that participated in the research, 51 were members of www.bookinturkey.com, 19 hotels were members of www.booking.com, 6 hotels were members of www.travelguide.com, 10 hotels were members of www.reservationeurope.com and 3 hotels were members of www.expedia.com travel portals and that their sales were performed at the sites concerned. Even though there is an easy method that enables customers, who have decided to make a booking, to immediately make a toll-free call and make their booking, the rate of use of the call center is rather low. The reasons for the low rate of use might be considered as technical problems, financial problems and the lack of demands by customers. First of all, users are provided with customer membership opportunities in order for them to become the customers of the hotel. Later on, with the formation of a professional website by the addition of alternatives of outstanding “special membership” discounts, gifts, gift checks and promotions, the electronic marketing process is initiated. It was determined that endeavors of promotion were intended to be used more by five-star and chain hotel establishments, but they were not enough.

As a result of analyses, it was found that five-star hotels and chain hotel establishments used electronic marketing practices more than independent hotels and four-star hotels. It might be stated that to be able to compete and to acquire a global dimension, it is important to complete the stages required for electronic marketing processes, to track innovations and to attach importance to and use security. It might be stated that the application of electronic marketing in professional sense will create opportunities for hotel establishments. Methodologies for the Websites and their quality assessment do not adequately cover the two major dimensions related to that same quality: technical quality and content quality (Rocha and Victor;(2010), In this context, suggestions for the websites of hotel establishments can be listed as follows:

- The alternatives “Share this website”, “Recommend it to your friend” and “Add to your favorites” should be used at the websites of hotels.

- In the communication section, visuality might be enhanced by adding the alternative of leaving visual messages to feedback forms and by attaching photographs and videos of those who have stayed at the hotel (by getting permission) to the online visitor book.

- A visual album section might be prepared so that customers can transfer their images and videos about the hotel to this album. The visual aids likely to be used in advertisements can be obtained from this section.

It is possible to make use of advertisements, which customers prepare, or, in which they act, and, which are shared on Internet.

- Importance should be attached to the use of links of social sites. Innovations in this field should always be tracked, and the changes can be immediately adapted to the websites. For instance, links to common socialization sites such as Facebook and Twitter might be provided.

- An alternative of making comparisons with similar hotel products might be added for the selection of hotel rooms or different services. In this way, customers might be enabled to determine the optimum alternative for themselves among the alternatives.

- Sections as regards creative issues such as playing games, entertainment, painting, and 'you create the hotel' and features, which may include personal forums like 'have your voice heard', might be created. These features might provide an opportunity for the creation of new ideas for a hotel establishment.

- If there are historical, social and interesting attractions with respect to the country, city or environment where a hotel is located, they might be strikingly emphasized, e.g. the location of a hotel in a region where world-famous people live(d) or the location of a hotel next to a chain of restaurants which is the subject of a very popular book.

- It should be ensured that all events that will take place or are considered to take place in the close vicinity of the hotel should always be announced.

- The URL address of a hotel establishment might often be repeatedly advertised at sites, which are highly visited by the target mass of the hotel, in a visible fashion. In addition, except for the Internet medium, URL addresses should be written on billboards, in newspapers and journals with high circulation, at entertainment sites, at shopping centers, on TV, and on the means of mass transportation so that their rates of being remembered can be increased.

- For the fulfillment of many actions, those people who have knowledge of technology (based on applications), who are creative, who are curious and who are researchers and followers should be assigned with the responsibility of electronic marketing and web.

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ENDNOTES

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EXAMINATION OF ECONOMIC GROWTH AND TOURISM IN BARBADOS: TESTING THE SUPPLY- SIDE HYPOTHESIS

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The goal of this study is to examine the supply side hypothesis of tourism demand, that is, to answer the question: Does economic growth in Barbados spur tourism growth. Results suggest that there is a long-run relationship between real GDP in Barbados and tourist arrivals. Specifically, we find that a 1% expansion in real GDP is associated with a 1.2% increase in tourist arrivals. Further, our Granger causality test suggests that the supply-side hypothesis is valid for Barbados.

Keywords: *tourism, economic growth, Barbados*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Barbados is a small open economy, located in the Caribbean, northeast of Venezuela. The country has a total area of 431 km² and a population of about 280,000. Barbados has a fixed exchange rate, the Barbadian dollar (BBD) being tied to the United States dollar (USD) at a rate of 2 BBD = 1 USD. In recent years, the economy has diversified into manufacturing, offshore financial services, information services and tourism. Barbados' economy grew at a rate of 2.4 per cent over the 10 years ending in 2006. Barbados has a natural comparative advantage for the development of its tourism industry. Temperatures vary between 20°C and 33°C and there is an abundance of sunshine year-round. Tourism is Barbados' primary source of foreign exchange.



Since 1980, its share of total foreign exchange earnings has hovered around 50 per cent. Tourism contributed between 10-12 per cent of overall gross domestic product (GDP) since 1974. The industry also employed roughly 10 per cent of the workforce over the same period. Moreover, Barbados has consistently ranked among the top seven tourist destinations in the Caribbean. A total of 1.27 million visitors were recorded for the year 2004, with estimated tourism receipts of USD \$763 million, or 3 per cent of the total USD \$21.6 billion for the Caribbean region. However, cost considerations and the constraints imposed by size as well as limited resources have prompted Barbadian policymakers to increasingly focus on a niche-market approach. Strategies have increasingly focussed on embedding tourism in the indigenous culture through heritage and eco-tourism.

The main policy tools by successive Barbadian Governments to develop the various tourism sectors have been favourable incentives and policies geared towards promoting their competitiveness and sustainability. Incentives chiefly take the form of tax concessions for a number of years, including the construction of hotels and duty free imports of some supplies and materials. The Government of Barbados have also directly invested significantly in the tourism industry through marketing, investment in tourism infrastructure and policy initiatives which have allowed investors to reduce the costs of inputs into the industry. Table 1 highlights the contributions from various governmental and public sector bodies. Between 1993 and 2002, total contributions more than doubled. The Barbados Tourism Authority, which has a mandate to plan strategies and programs to develop the sector and promote Barbados as a preferred tourism destination contributed an average of 85 per cent of the overall contribution over this period. There are also occasions when the Central Bank of Barbados, provides guarantees for the moratoria of repayment of loans by hotels and other tourism businesses to commercial bank intermediaries and other lending institutions, when these businesses are experiencing great financial difficulties caused directly or indirectly by external shocks, such as recessions, natural disasters or incidences of terrorism.

Within this context, the goal of this study is to examine the supply side hypothesis of tourism demand, that is, to answer the question: Does economic growth in Barbados spur tourism growth. An answer to this question has important policy implications. If findings do indeed show a causal relationship from economic growth to tourism growth, then the approach adopted by policymakers should be to stimulate growth in other sectors of the economy so that overall economic growth will in turn lead

to expansion in the tourism industry. Finally, knowing whether the relationship, if it exists, is long-run or short-run can also provide policymakers with further insight into how to position and reposition the country's economy over.

Table 1 Government Investment in Barbados Tourism Industry¹

Fiscal Year	Source					Total Investment
	Min. Tour.	BTA	BIDC	CTO	TDP	
93/94	0.967	29.380	0.899	0.040	0.019	31.306
94/95	0.912	32.657	0.594	0.040	0.242	34.446
95/96	1.070	35.788	3.135	0.040	0.786	40.818
96/97	1.452	42.399	3.956	0.040	5.439	53.286
97/98	1.569	37.050	2.719	0.040	5.539	46.917
98/99	1.520	43.364	1.760	0.040	5.160	51.845
99/00	1.960	42.770	1.064	0.040	1.749	47.583
00/01	4.189	48.698	3.365	0.040	N.A.	56.292
01/02	2.078	50.150	19.056	0.052	N.A.	71.336

The plan of the paper is as follows. Section 2 provides a brief review of the related literature. Section 3 describes the sources of the data and outlines the empirical methodology employed. Section 4 presents the empirical results and analysis. Conclusions are presented in the Section 5.

BRIEF REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The ability of tourism to promote economic growth has been widely recognised in the academic literature (see Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Culpan, 1987; Pearce, 1991; Ige and Odularu, 2008; Çetinel and Yolal, 2009). Tourism often boosts foreign exchange, government revenue (through tax collections) and is an important source of employment, both directly and indirectly. More than this, the multiplier effect of tourism is assumed to boost other sectors of the economy, such as the transportation, agriculture, entertainment and the food and drinks sectors which often service the tourism industry.

Against this backdrop, several countries have opted to incorporate tourism as part of their growth strategy. This, in turn, led to the unfolding of a new line of research: the tourism-led growth (TLG) hypothesis. As in the case of the export-led growth hypothesis, a TLG hypothesis would postulate that tourism Granger-causes economic growth. Balaguer and

Cantavella (2002) were among the first researchers to test the TLG hypothesis. The authors find evidence of unidirectional causality running from tourism to economic growth for Spain and hence conclude that economic growth in Spain has been sensible to persistent expansion of international tourism.

Since the work of Balguer and Cantavella (2002), other researchers have sought to explore the causal relationship between tourism and economic growth (see for instance, Brida et al, (2009, 2010)). While it was initially thought that the direction of causality ran from tourism to higher growth (as shown in the seminal paper by Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda, 2002), the recent literature suggests that higher growth in the destination might could be the cause of higher levels of tourism (Eugenio-Martin et al, 2008). For instance, investigating the case of Korea, Oh's (2005) Granger causality test imply a one-way causal relationship from economic growth to tourism i.e. the existence of the "supply-side" or "economic-growth driven tourism" hypothesis. Similar results were also attained Narayan (2004) for Fiji. Alternatively, several studies tend to suggest that tourism and economic growth tend to strengthen each other i.e. evidence of bi-directional causality. Among these are Dritsakis (2004) for Greece, Durberry (2004) for Mauritius, Kim et al. (2006) – Taiwan and Louca (2006) – Cyprus.

Eugenio-Martin et al (2008) note that, while the results of a causal relationship from tourism to economic growth are in line with multiplier theories of tourism, the economic underpinnings of a causal relationship from economic growth to tourism expansion are less clear. As such, Eugenio-Martin et al (2008) note several variables that can contribute to a positive causal relationship from economic growth to tourism. Specifically, the authors note variables which tend to boost arrivals, but also boost growth. Among these are:

- Infrastructure – many tourists expect a minimum level of infrastructure as part of their experience.
- The degree of openness – as a country opens its frontiers and reaches new markets, there is an increase in business travel, which is often a particularly lucrative form of tourism.
- Political Stability – generally, tourists prefer destinations that are politically stable.

Relative prices in some cases can play a key role in determining tourist arrivals. For instance, Nanthakumar et al. (2008) found no causal relation between tourism and real GDP; however, there was bi-directional causality between domestic prices and tourist arrivals.

In what follows, the authors evaluate the impact of economic growth in Barbados on tourism in Barbados. While the importance of tourism to the Barbadian economy is well documented (see for instance Archer, 1984; Jackman and Greenidge, 2010), to the best of the authors' knowledge, no other study explicitly investigates role of economic growth in stimulating tourism demand for Barbados, or any other Caribbean country. Hence, by focusing on Barbados, this paper adds to the rather sparse body of knowledge on the supply-side hypothesis and hopefully, would further empirical evidence and understanding on growth-led tourism nexus in developing countries.

DATA AND ECONOMETRIC APPROACH

The model presented here bares much similarity to that proposed in the Tourism-led growth literature, consisting of economic growth in destination country, tourism activity and a price variable. Total arrivals to Barbados are utilized as a proxy for tourism activity and real gross domestic product is used to measure economic growth. As price indices for tourism related goods and services are not available for Barbados, we use a relative price index calculated as follows:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n w_i \left[\frac{P}{e_i \times P_i} \right] \quad (1)$$

where w_i is the tourist arrival weight for each source market i , e_i is the nominal exchange rate between country i and Barbados, P_i is the consumer price index in country i and P the consumer price index for Barbados. It follows that an increase in this index implies that goods and services are relatively more expensive in the destination country and should be associated with a decline in tourist arrivals.

The database employed in this study consists of quarterly data over the period 1975:1 to 2010:2. Observations on arrivals are taken from the Caribbean Tourism Organization's Annual Statistical Digest while data on RGDP are collected from the Central Bank of Barbados. Data on the nominal exchange rates, consumer price indices for Barbados and its major source markets are obtained from the International Monetary Fund's (IMF) International Financial Statistics. It should be noted that all series have been seasonally adjusted and expressed in natural logarithms.

Econometric approach

As a preliminary step to our analysis, we ascertain the order of integration of the variables using the Phillips-Perron unit root test. If the variables are all non-stationary, it follows to study the existence of a cointegrating relationship. To test for the presence of a long-run relationship, the maximum likelihood method developed by Johansen (1988, 1991) is utilised. Johansen (1991) proposes two test statistics for testing the number of cointegrating vectors: the trace and the maximum eigenvalue statistics. The null hypothesis for the trace test is that there are at most r cointegrating vectors, while for the max eigenvalue test, the null $r = 0$ is tested against the alternative that $r = 1$; $r = 1$ is tested against the alternative $r = 2$; and so forth. The Schwarz Information Criterion (SIC) is used to select the number of lags i required in the cointegration test.

Innovation accounting is used to determine the dynamic responses of the variables. We employ the impulse response function to trace how tourism responds over time to a shock in real GDP and relative prices. Variance decomposition provides information concerning the relative importance of each innovation towards explaining the behaviour of endogenous variables. In a nutshell, the decomposition shows the proportion of forecast error variance in a variable that is explained by innovations to itself and other variables. We use the generalised forecast error variance decomposition technique attributed to Koop et al. (1996) and Pesaran and Shin (1998). The results of this method are not sensitive to the ordering of the variables in the VAR.

Finally, to examine whether any short-run relationships exist, the Granger-causality test developed from the seminal paper of Granger (1969) is utilised. Basically, this test seeks to ascertain whether or not the inclusion of past values of a variable x do or do not help in the prediction of present values of another variable y . If variable y is better predicted by including past values of x than by not including them, then, x is said to Granger-cause y .

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Table 2 presents the results of the Phillips-Perron unit root test. These suggest that all series are integrated of order 1. Accordingly, tests for cointegration are undertaken.

Table 2 Unit root tests

Variable	Level	Test	1 st Diff.	Test	Decision
Real GDP	-2.848	Trend and Intercept	-11.370***	Intercept	I(1)
Tourist Arrivals	-3.085	Trend and Intercept	-14.723***	Intercept	I(1)
Relative Prices	-1.987	Trend and Intercept	-12.100***	Intercept	I(1)
Notes: *** indicates significance at the 1% level; ** indicates significance at the 5% level; and * indicates significance at the 10% level.					

The results from the cointegration test are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3 Unit root tests

Null Hypothesis	Alternative Hypothesis	Test Statistic	P-Value
Trace Test			
$r = 0$	$r \leq 1$	44.58	0.03
$r = 1$	$r \leq 2$	19.78	0.24
$r = 2$	$r \leq 3$	7.73	0.27
Maximum Eigenvalue Test			
$r = 0$	$r = 1$	24.80	0.07
$r = 1$	$r = 2$	12.05	0.41
$r = 2$	$r = 3$	7.73	0.27
Long Run Parameter Estimates (Dependent Variable: Tourism)			
Real GDP	1.217* (2.013)		
Relative Prices	-0.890* (2.702)		
Note: T-statistics in parentheses			

Both the trace and maximum eigenvalue test indicate the presence of one cointegrating vector. Thus, there is evidence of a long-run relationship between the variables. Table 3 also presents the

cointegrating equation estimates, which imply that there is a significant positive relationship between tourist arrivals and economic growth in Barbados. In fact, the parameter estimates suggest that a 1% expansion in real GDP is associated with a 1.2% increase in tourist arrivals in the long run. Moreover, an increase in relative prices seems to deter arrivals.

Given the existence of a cointegrating relationship, a dynamic vector error correction model is estimated. Such an undertaking provides the speed of adjustment after the growth rate of real GDP, relative prices and arrivals deviates from long run equilibrium in period $t-1$. With a t -statistic of -2.136, the adjustment coefficient is significant in the tourism equation. The coefficient of -0.048 implies that that on the occasion of a 1 per cent positive deviation from the long-run relationship, tourist arrivals falls by 4.8 per cent each quarter, in order to eliminate the discrepancy. This provides some preliminary evidence that tourism demand is responsive to conditions in the destination country.

Impulse response functions and variance decompositions

In this sub-section, we analyse the impulse response functions and variance decompositions. We are essentially interested in analysing the behaviour of the output and tourism variables. The impulse responses of the variables over a 20-quarter forecast horizon are shown in Figure 1. In line with growth-led tourism hypothesis, the evidence suggests that an unexpected shock to real output leads to a significant jump in tourist arrivals. Furthermore, this positive effect seems to be fairly persistent. Hence, tourism is strongly affected by economic increases in both the short run and long run. Also, an unanticipated increase in relative prices (or an increase in the cost of living in Barbados relative to the source country) is followed by a small decline in arrivals to Barbados. One key observation is that the initial impact is very small, but as the forecast horizon widens, the impact magnifies. This may imply that it takes some time for higher domestic prices to affect tourists.

Table 4 presents the results of the variance decompositions. The estimated suggests also suggest that the future variation of tourism is generally governed by itself and real GDP in Barbados. Specifically, the contribution of output in Barbados to tourism variability ranges between 15% and 24% throughout most of the forecast horizon. This result emphasises the significant role that economic development in destination country plays in volume of arrivals in both the short and long runs; any shocks to the GDP will have a considerable effect tourism development in the country. In contrast, relative prices explain very little of the variation

in tourism in the first 5 quarters (less than 1%) and only reaches about 7% in the 20th quarter. This is consistent with our notion above that in the short-term, tourism is not very responsive to changes in prices, but more-so in the longer term.

Figure 1. Dynamic Effects of Domestic Factors on Tourism

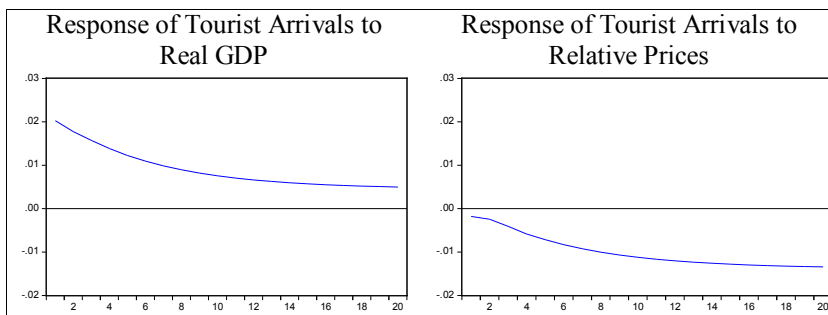


Table 4 Variance Decompositions

Dependent Variable					
	Period	Standard Error	Tourism	Output	Relative Prices
Tourism	1	0.05	81.75	18.25	0.00
	5	0.09	76.67	22.96	0.37
	10	0.12	77.78	19.79	2.43
	15	0.14	78.03	17.13	4.83
	20	0.15	77.20	15.20	6.86

Short-run causality tests

To formally investigate the short-run relationship between tourist arrivals, output and relative prices, Granger-causality tests are conducted within the VECM estimated earlier and results reported in Table 5.

From the F-statistics, the null hypothesis that output does not cause or precede arrivals is clearly rejected and confirms our inferences in section 3.1; that is, economic growth has an insignificant impact on the

growth of the tourism. The Granger causality test also lends further support to the validity of tourism-led growth hypothesis for Barbados, that is, the economic fortunes of the country are closely tied to its tourism industry, thereby justifying Government's keen tourist-attracting policies. Together, these results imply that prolonged economic growth in Barbados will enhance the growth of tourism in the long run and, due to the backward linkages in the short run, the rise in tourism activity will in turn further boost domestic output. This is consistent with the findings of Dritsakis (2004), Durbarry (2004), Kim et al. (2006) and Louca (2006). However, we could find no evidence to support the notion that relative prices impact the country's tourism sector, which is in contrast to the work of Nanthakumar et al (2008). But, relative prices does impact real GDP in Barbados. Thus, an indirect price effect can emerge (i.e. through its impact on real GDP).

Table 5 Granger causality tests²

Causality	F-Statistic	P-value
Real GDP $\rightarrow$ Tourism	2.88	0.09
Relative Prices $\rightarrow$ Tourism	0.47	0.49
Tourism $\rightarrow$ Real GDP	3.75	0.05
Relative Prices $\rightarrow$ Output	3.91	0.04

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Whilst most tourism experts acknowledge that the characteristics of the destination country do influence arrivals, the inclusion of supply factors into the tourism demand model is quite rare. Against this backdrop, the aim of this study was to determine if economic growth in Barbados spurs growth in its tourism industry. We find evidence of a long-run relationship between these variables. Specifically, we find that a 1% expansion in real GDP is associated with a 1.2% increase in tourist arrivals. Further, our Granger causality test suggests that the supply-side hypothesis is valid for Barbados. Given the country's enthusiastic approach to develop the various tourism sectors, i.e. via investment and infrastructure, the evidence in support of the supply-side hypothesis seems justified.

What is particularly interesting is that relative prices appear to have little direct effect on tourism demand in the short term but a significant impact in the long-term. It seems that in the short-term, tourists place more weight to the level of economic development of the country than the price level. This could, in large measure, be related to the nature of the Barbadian tourism product, that is, natural physical attributes (namely sun, sea and sand), various modes of entertainment and friendly people. In other words, since Barbados is not a shopping destination per se, prices of goods and services may be a somewhat irrelevant factor for tourism demand in the short-run. Alternatively, this finding may be due to use of an aggregate price index as a proxy for the cost of tourism in Barbados. The goods and services consumed by tourists may not necessarily be those consumed by the typical local consumer (Witt and Witt, 1995; Lim, 1997) and as a result, given a much smaller weighting in the Barbadian CPI. In other words, it may not fully capture the price effect on tourism demand.

Overall, our findings seem to indicate that economic growth in Barbados plays a significant role in explaining arrivals to this destination. Thus, the approach adopted by policymakers should be to stimulate growth in other sectors of the economy so that overall economic growth will in turn lead to expansion in the tourism industry. Given the backward linkage between tourism and growth, the rise the rise in tourism activity can in turn further boost domestic output.

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ENDNOTES

1. The data is taken from the Statistical Department of Barbados. All figures are in BDS (\$mil). Min. Tour. Stands from Ministry of Tourism; BIDS stands for Barbados Industrial Development Corporation and CTO stands for Caribbean Tourism Organisation. N.A. means "not available".
2. The notation real GDP $\nrightarrow$ tourism represents the null hypothesis: Real GDP does not Granger-cause tourism. A similar interpretation follows for the remaining hypotheses.

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ACCESSIBILITY VERSUS ADVERTISING FOR MOUNTAIN TOURISM: THE CASE OF NAFPAKTIA

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The paper examines the factors influencing visitors' preferences in the mountainous area of Nafpaktia, Greece and the implications for an advertising communication programme. The study is a survey and 500 respondents filled in a questionnaire. It describes visitors' characteristics, the research and the estimation of the number of visitors of the area, the description of the reasons of visiting the area, the duration of their stay and the research and analysis of their needs and expectations. The empirical work succeeds in making a theoretical and practical contribution to the way sustainable development presented for Nafpaktia, Greece can consist of a typical recourse for mountainous disadvantaged areas of the Mediterranean. Tourism management in mountainous regions may concentrate on the ways of attracting the visitors and mainly on accessibility, tourism infrastructure, preservation of natural beauty contrary to the hypothesis made that informative advertising promotional material locally, nationally and internationally is a necessity.

Keywords: *sustainable tourism development, accessibility versus advertising and mountain tourism*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

The general tendencies in economy do not favor the reinforcement of the traditional mountainous economy. On the contrary, animal husbandry and agriculture at present level is a very difficult task to sustain. Thus,



mountainous societies need to take advantage of their comparative benefits which are not anymore the open fields in the mountains, but the mountainous environment where its original value is transformed to a rising market due to the urban and busy centres dwellers' demand to get in touch with Nature (Dietz, 1999). A basic element in the attainment of the sustainable development of tourism can be found among the harmonious relationship of the area, the visitor and the local community. The satisfaction of the excursionists' needs in sustainable tourism, consists one of the most important prerequisites and a basic determinant for the reinforcement of competitiveness and the guarantee of sustainable development of the rural businesses and areas.

Mountain regions have unique mountain- specific resource characteristics; these include diversity, marginality, inaccessibility, fragility, niche and aesthetics (Nepal and Chipeniuk, 2005; Nyaupane and Chhetri, 2009). Advertising efforts have recently been associated with the management of specific forms of tourism -such as wine tourism- (Bruwer and Alant, 2009; Vlachvei, Notta and Ananiadis, 2009) or rural tourism combined with cultural and heritage tourism (Dallen, 2005). We hypothesise in this study that the provision of promotional material can also be significant for mountain tourism associated with free time activities in mountains and is a necessity so that a tourist visits the area. The possibility of increasing knowledge about the mountain region are among the factors that positively affect the intentions of potential tourists minimising issues of inaccessibility and marginality which are in fact inhibiting factors (Nyaupane and Chhetri, 2009). Research in the Western mountainous inlands of the Spanish Eastern Pyrenees showed that conservation policies and cultural museums are mushrooming in the area in an attempt to leave from the marginal position they are in order to attract more visitors (Vaccaro and Beltran, 2007).

ALTERNATIVE MOUNTAIN TOURISM: THE THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH

The team of the Network for European Communications and Transport Activities Research (NECTAR) claims that, in Western Europe leisure time activities will probably be equivalent to 40% of the oveland transport by 2020 (regarding the kilometres covered) and 60% of the air transport. The raising polymorphism of the way of life will have a reflection on the emergence of new types of special tourism markets which will cater for young people, couples with no kids, pensioners and conference participants. The raising demand of tourism will be more obvious to the South European population where the percentages of participation are relatively low. The free movement

within the European Union (E.E.) contributes to the rise of newly retired moving from North to South Europe due to the favourable climate (Masser, Sviden and Wegener, 1992: 43-44).

Nowadays, it is typical that standardised and mass tourist packages do not cater for tourists' needs. People realised the problems that could be created by the prevalent model of mass tourism and they were driven to search for alternative forms of tourism (ecotourism, rural tourism, cultural tourism, historic tourism). These forms respect the local community and its visitors and in the mean time, the cultural heritage and the environment. Their aim is to offer vacations to tourists that are interesting, yet educating, while beneficial for the local community and have as a result the viability of the tourist areas.

The success of rural tourism does not only depend on specific tourist services (hospitality, transport, dining, etc) but also on general factors which influence the experience rural tourists gain such as: advertising of the area before visiting it, reservations, the trip to the area, the first welcome, information for the area, accommodation and dining infrastructure, the sights to be visited, hospitality, issues of hygiene and safety, the natural environment, the farewell, the return journey but also the possibility of getting in touch and communicating with the community, keeping the memories alive (European Commission, 1999). Thus, the overall experience is significant for the tourist's satisfaction (Chatzigeorgiou, Christou, Kassianidis and Sigala, 2009: 146; Christou and Saveriades, 2010: 95).

In other words, the satisfaction that the rural visitor enjoys, while on sojourn at a rural tourism unit, is influenced not only from the accommodation but also from factors which are associated with the area as a whole and the stages before and after visiting it. A significant factor associated with the area is transportation which has a role to play in the development of tourism (Musa and Ndawayo, 2011: 303). The provision of information for visiting these areas is also significant for visitors to get informed about the area although relatively little research has been made (Dodd, 1999; Lytras et al., 2006; Vlachvei, Notta and Ananiadis, 2009).

In regard to Greece, the visitors in mountain regions in the provincial and underdeveloped areas of Greece visit the areas during their holidays; research in fact has shown that for many visitors these regions are their permanent holiday location (Soutsas, Tsantopoulos, Arabatzis and Christopoulou, 2006).

In Greece, policies in tourism showed priority for the development of already developed areas or world known areas of archaeological interest such as Epidaurus or Delphi- which are both World Heritage Sites-

because a region that has not been developed will be difficult to host visitors (Kavoura, 2001).

Nevertheless, rural tourism development in Greece, which is the main form of alternative tourism, until nowadays is imputed to a big extent by the uncontrollable implementation of European funding programmes and had as a consequence the creation of tourist infrastructure for rural tourism (mainly accommodation) of questionable quality (Iakovidou, Koutsou and Partalidou, 2009; Partalidou, 2002) and would contribute to its long-term maintenance.

Nowadays, the rural businesses in Greece have different functional forms: accommodation, shops, sales rooms of local products, centres of dining, amusement centres, alternative tourist offices, hosting of programmes of open-air activities and excursions of ecotourist and cultural interest, farms, businesses which produce products while they advertise and elevate the local and cultural heritage. They function on the basis of personal interest, or as a legal entity and they are of private or of cooperative initial (E.L.O.T, 2003).

In most cases, the abovementioned types of rural tourism businesses developed, copying mass tourism's type, without a special design and without the establishment of a framework which would determine the profile and the available services according to the philosophy of rural tourism. As a result, they did not manage to fulfil the expectations of the excursionists and to establish rural tourism as a distinctive standard of development in the countryside (Lawson and Manning, 2002).

The level of employment to these sectors, which survive due to the financing of the European Union, is constantly decreasing and will continue to decrease at an increasing rate, in relation to other areas, due to the adverse conditions of production in these mountainous areas (Borton, 1993). Furthermore, the objective that the European Union has set for employment in the primary sector of the 6-7% of the economically active population, puts into an extremely adverse position the mountainous district because such policy is in favour of the areas with the highest productivity. Therefore, the endogenous development of mountainous areas depends on the creation of new forms of employment which will, in turn, reinforce the local production.

Whereas the agricultural and open-air activities are in a position of territorial and social reconstruction and the passing from an agricultural area of one activity to a polymorphous and multi-functional district consists of an outlet, for the mountainous areas, it consists of a one way direction and a necessary condition of existence (Allaire, 1998).

The elements which attach importance to the special character of the tourist product of mountainous areas are determined by the specificities: of the mountainous areas' societies and their distinctiveness, of the natural and human made environment, of the tourist resources of the areas, which consist of the elements of the product's content, and, of the organisation of the activities in zones and their functional and organic connection as a whole, which, by creating the periphery, a touristically uniform zone, maximises the benefits which emerge from the development of the tourist resources and consists of the structural elements of the tourist product, or the model of organisation, interconnection and utilisation of the tourist resources to a complementary whole (Bitsani, Kalomenidis and Stavroulakis, 2007).

CHARACTERISTICS OF MOUNTAINOUS NAFPAKTIA

The area under study is mountainous at its biggest part and includes the prefectures of Apodotia, Pilini and Platanos. This area's borders are the Prefecture of Nafpaktos on the south, the Prefecture of Thermou on the west, the Prefecture of Evritania on the north and the Prefecture of Fokida on the east (T.E.I. Kalamatas, 2005a). The landscape of the area is mainly formed from the mountainous Sarantaina and West Vardousia to the dense and complex hydrographic network of Ano Evinos river.

It is a unique mountainous landscape, of an extremely distinctive natural beauty, even more distinctive of those of neighbour National Forests of Oitis and Parnassos. In regard to the most mountainous part of the Prefecture of Apodotia, it has also been characterised as a national forest and extends up to the dorp of Lefka, where an environmental centre of documentation and information has been created.

20% of the area is covered by wood, 10% is utilised for agricultural activities and the biggest part of the rest of the land are pastures. The bioclimatic conditions vary because of the geographical position, the rich mountainous area with the deep denes and the canyons of the hydrology of the Evinos' river basin, in particular, Evinos' river with its confluents Kotsalo and Poriri, Mornos' river, the reservoir lake of Evinos and the technical lake of Mornos. Animal husbandry has a privileged position in the productive activities of the population while the traditional type of the small family-run business prevails. There is a hot spring of Staxtis Bath in the municipality of Pilini, which demonstrates the existence of metals and minerals, without though, collateral development (Bitsani, Kavoura and Kalomenidis, 2009).

According to Greek Law 2539/97 and “I. Kapodistrias” programme (Greek Law 2539/1997), the prefectures of the area are consisted of 43 civic geographical departments, which are small and scattered in the area. The organisation of religious celebrations is the main activity which preserves many of the traditional elements of the area (T.E.I. Kalamatas, 2005b). The significance of events for rural development has been argued by researchers (Skoultzos and Tsartas, 2009: 293).

In conclusion, the following could be underlined for the area of mountainous Nafpaktia:

- It is characterised by a high percentage of people employed in the primary sector which results in the low production of a big part of labour.
- The character of the area, which is mainly mountainous, hinders the balance between the spatial development and that of the urban areas which unavoidably develop with high rates.
- The insufficiency and the absence of specific situations of social infrastructure results in the absence of the quality in the provision of services and, therefore, the low standard of living.

The characteristic of the area is the seasonality since the population rises dramatically in specific periods starting in April and ending in August, creating the prerequisites for the development of this advantage and taking over entrepreneurial initiatives (T.E.I. Kalamatas, 2005b).

An effort has been recently made for the development of the advantages of the area through various national and European programmes and initiatives, such as the European Initiative LEADER II and the European Initiative LEADER+. Within the framework of the abovementioned programmes, guest houses were created and various types of accommodation, infrastructure for kayak and rafting in the Evinos river and also footpaths. Agro tourism is well supported by the European Union’s initiative (Dritsaki, 2009: 149).

The Rion-Antirion hitch, which connects the two big districts in Greece, Peloponnesse and Sterea Ellada, where Nafpaktia is located, makes people’s transfer easier, but also there is direct access from Patras, the third biggest port in Greece. In addition, the expected construction of the Ionian Road “Ioannina-Antirion”, will offer opportunities for tourist development.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study is a survey. While Crapo and Chubb (1969) argue that the main disadvantage of this method is the low rate of answers, Shafer

Hamilton and Schmidt (1967) argue that the census with survey is generally more reliable for the gathering of information. The main disadvantage of this method has been dealt with the discussion of the research assistants with the respondents who asked them to return the questionnaires as soon as they filled them in.

The questionnaires were distributed during seven different periods (from 18/12/2005 to 20/08/2006) which corresponded to the periods of big celebrations such as the period of 13th–17th of August, which is a big religious celebration for Christian Orthodoxs, Christmas, Easter, the period of the Greek Carnival and the summer vacations. The research assistants were in hub road points (the entrances in the dorpes) and informed the visitors that they would collect the questionnaires in 20' to 30' minutes. Any other information was provided. In mountainous Nafpaktia's case, where there are not many visitors, the whole population of the visitors were asked; they were 500. When there was a family, only one member filled in the questionnaire.

The type of questions was decided to be close-ended because otherwise respondents would provide many irrelevant answers. The basic disadvantage of the questions of this type is that the main reason -the answer- may not be included in the question (Nuxall, Galloway and Smith, 1976). In order to deal with this disadvantage, we made an effort to provide relatively perfect answering categories and in specific questions, the category "other reasons" or "I do not know" was included so that the answer could be safeguarded. Crapo and Chubb (1969) refer to the issue that the use of open-ended questions depends on the type of the desired answers, for example, the open-ended questions give more perfect and without mistakes answers in the case of high school students and close-ended questions are more suitable for safeguarding of real information such as age, education, rent, etc. and guarantee points of view on issues people have clear ideas about. Nuxall, Galloway and Smith (1976) conclude that close-ended questions are used when a quick response is needed that can be easily sorted.

This survey's questionnaire includes questions mainly limited in an idea, for example "which is the main reason", or "how many days will you stay in mountainous Nafpaktia". The questions were brief and simple while leading questions and calculations were avoided. The sorting of the questions may influence the answers and Nuxall, Galloway and Smith (1976) suggest that the more simple and more useful questions to be inserted in the beginning and socioeconomic questions to be inserted in the end of the questionnaire. Attention was paid in the sorting of the questions of the specific survey and in the beginning the questions were short. The main questions were in the middle and not in the

end so that if the respondent had denied to answer the last questions, the gathering of important data would not be influenced.

The sample size was determined in order to guarantee that the estimation error for the ratios would not be above 0,05 at a confidence level 95%. Cochran (1977: 413) offers a good example for the estimation of the sample with the type: $\sigma_p = P \chi Q / n$ when the percentage of the sample P is normally distributed, p must be in the space (p +/- 5) except for one in 20 cases. Then, $n = 4P \chi Q / 25$ while P: ratio (in the specific case of this research of the returned questionnaires which were filled in) · Q: I -P

n: sample size

P : percentage % of the total population, ratio of the cases which hypothetically have the characteristic under study, σ_p : standard error.

Crapo and Chubb (1969) used the absolute error and with the hypothesis of the best possible variable of the population estimated the sample as follows:

$$0,05 > 1,96 \text{ or } n = P(I-P) (1,96/0,05)(1,96/0,05)$$

$P(I-P)/n$

where: 0,05 : Absolute Error P : ratio (of the returned questionnaires which were filled in)

n: sample size

1,96 : (t) Confidence Level, t = 1,96 when the confidence level is 95%. Adjusting the abovementioned types in our study, when the ratio (P) is between 30 and 60 then $P \times Q$ or $P \chi (I-P)$ will be 2100 (30x70) and the maximal 2500 (50x50), when P = 50 and n must be > 385, which is

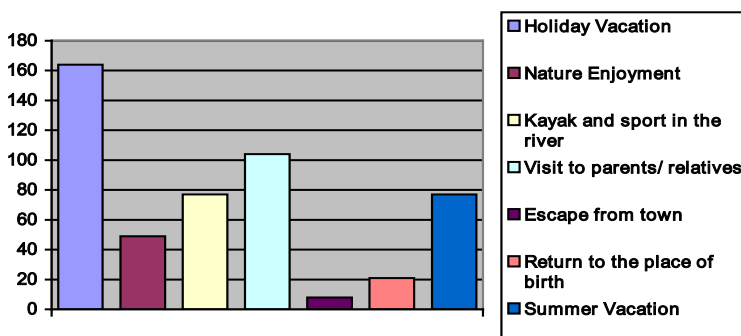
$$n > \frac{p(I-P)}{(1,96/0,05)} \quad (1,96/0,05) \text{ or } n > \frac{0,50}{(1-0,50)\chi} 1538 \text{ or } n > 385$$

The process of data used the statistical package S.P.S.S., version 12. and initially started with certain checks and specifically with the validity and reliability check, while the descriptive statistical analysis of basic variables of the research followed. In regard to the remaining units/questions of the questionnaire, validity and reliability depends on research where proportional measurements and checks have taken place. Further analysis of data research concerned inductive statistical methods and primarily the use of statistical methods, necessary for the description, generalisation and interpretation of the conclusions of our sample. More specifically, the technique of Categorical Principal Component Analysis was used.

ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS

The results of the research for each of the abovementioned periods (Christmas, Easter summer months) do not present many fluctuations and thus, they will be presented as a whole. Demographic characteristics of the sample are as follows: 56,2% is consisted of men and 43,8% are women, a percentage of 30,2% belongs to the age category 31–45, 27% in the age category of 46–64, while in the age category 18–30 age belongs the 23% of the respondents and 19,8% are above 65 years old. In regard to their educational level, 35,2% of the respondents are graduates of secondary education, 23,6% are University graduates while 26,4% are graduates of primary education. The percentage of illiteral is relatively high, 14,8%, which is explained from the analysis of the questionnaires, since they all belong to the older age category 65–99 and the reason of visiting the area is the return to their place of birth. This allows us to conclude that they are immigrants of the war period who left from mountainous Nafpaktia in order to make ends meet, a hypothesis which was also confirmed during the conversation of the respondents with the research assistants who were gathering the questionnaires.

Figure 1 Reasons for visiting mountainous Nafpaktia

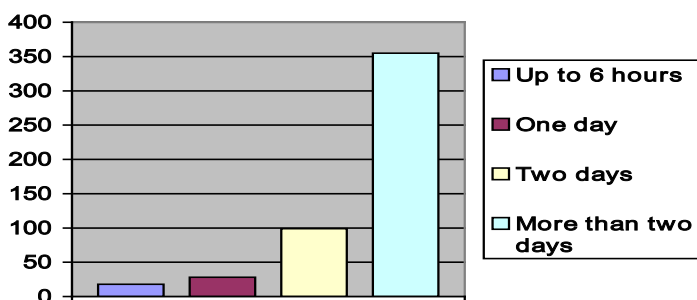


100% of the sample lives in other cities permanently, mainly in big urban centres, while the majority of the sample, 93,4%, visited the area because of the fact that their family is from mountainous Nafpaktia and they either have a family house there or they visit relatives. The percentage of the visitors of alternative tourism is 15,4%.

70% of the sample answered to the question “number of visits in the area”, that they have visited mountainous Nafpaktia many times while

30% of the sample visited the area for the first time. In regard to the duration of stay, 71% of the sample, stays more than two days, a percentage that confirms the answer to the question about the reasons for visiting mountainous Nafpaktia, where 70% answered “the return in the place of their ancestors’ or of their place of birth” (as Figures 1 and 2 show).

Figure 2 Number of visits



In regard to the activities they had during their stay, 77,8% of the sample, were busy hiking, 29,4% went climbing, 25,4% had lunch in the country, 50,2% observed and enjoyed being in the nature, 38,4% took photographs while a percentage of 42,6% of the sample visited archaeological and religious sites. At this point, it should be stated, that the abovementioned activities took place not exclusively but complementarily one to the other, according to the respondents. Nevertheless, 39,8% of the sample were exclusively busy with alternative tourism (kayak-rafting), (Figure 3).

Of those visitors who did hiking, 16,6% answered that they reached the top of the mountains, 12,8% went to the alpine centre while 13,4% of the mountaineers returned before reaching the alpine centre. The biggest, though, percentage of the climbers, 18,2%, visited the environmental center of Lefka (Figure 4). In regard to the flow of visitors in the footpaths, the overwhelming majority answered that the visitors were so few to such a degree that they hardly noticed them and only 4 respondents or 0,8%, answered that there were many visitors. In regard to the protection of nature, visitors seem to be sensitive enough and the answer to the question “whether they know what procedures exist for the area which has been characterised a national forest”, only 16,4% answered that they do not know.

Figure 3 Development of activities

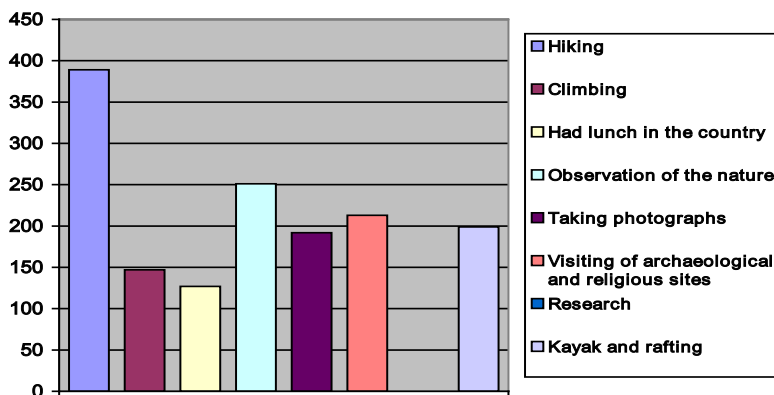
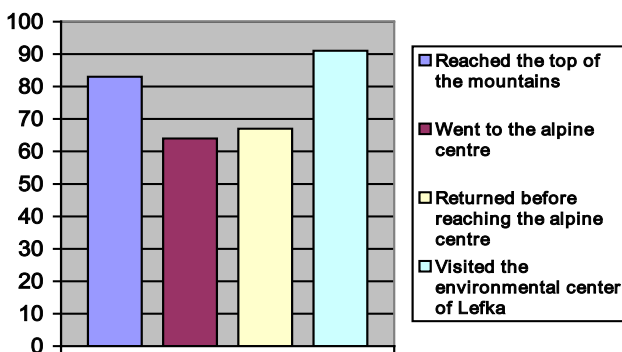


Figure 4 About climbing

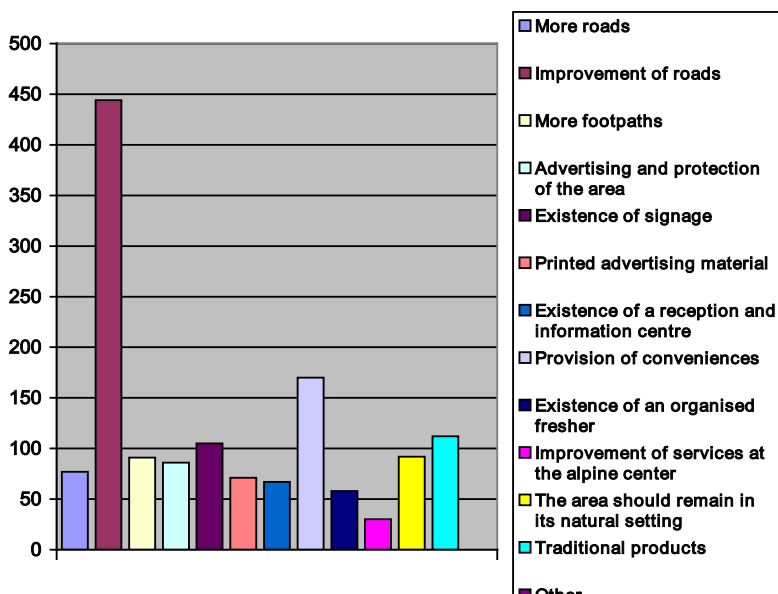


In regard to the question “what would make your visit more pleasant”, the answers focused on the existence of infrastructure and the provision of services. In particular, 88,8% of the sample believes that the improvement of the existent roads would make the visit more pleasant, 15,4% would want more roads and 18,2% more footpaths. 34% of the visitors would like the provision of conveniences (such as water, telephone, first aid *etc*), while 24,2% of the visitors focused on the possibility of buying traditional products. 46,9% who visited the alpine centre would prefer to have better services there.

11,6% of the respondents would like the existence of an organised fresher, while 18,4% answered they would prefer the area to remain in its natural setting.

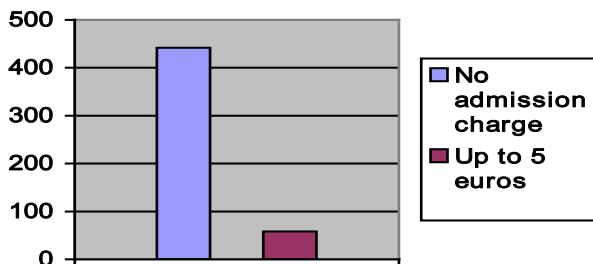
In addition, 21% consider the existence of signage and information to be important, while 17,2% would prefer the presence of personnel for informing the visitors about the area and for advertising its good spots while, at the same time, protecting the area, 14,2% would want printed advertising material which would inform the visitors about the area and 13,4% would prefer the existence and function of a reception and information centre. Therefore, 65,8% of the respondents consider very important the provision of information and the advertising of the area which would make their visit more pleasant (Figure 5).

Figure 5 Factors for attracting visitors for a pleasant stay



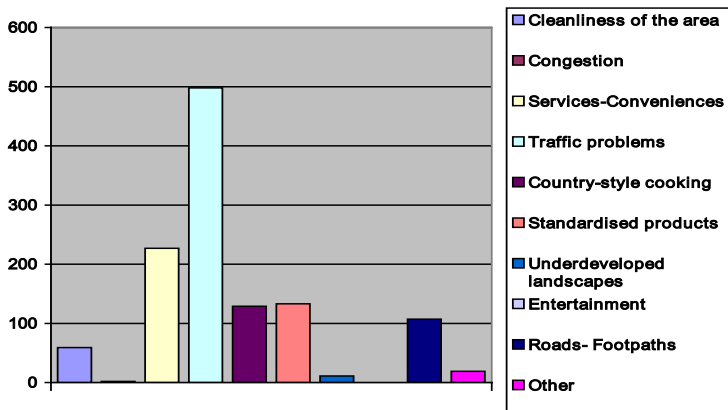
Nevertheless, in regard to the question of whether visitors are willing to pay a certain amount of money as an admission charge, 88,4% of the respondents answered that they do not want to pay anything while 11,6% of the respondents would pay up to 5 euros (Figure 6).

Figure 6 Willingness to pay an admission charge



The answers to the question “which were the problems you dealt with during your stay” are directly related to the answers they gave to the question “what would make your visit more pleasant”. Thus, the factors which could contribute to the development and the elevation of visiting the area of mountainous Nafpaktia are confirmed in an objective way. More specifically, 99,6% of the respondents considers infrastructure to be the dominant problem, 55,% the absence of services and conveniences, 25,8% the absence of country-style cooking and 26,6% the presence of standardised products as one can see in Figure 7.

Figure 7 Problems of the area



43,4% of the respondents considers the main problem to be the absence of entertainment, 11,8% the cleanness of the area and 21,4%

dealt with the problem of bad road infrastructure and the absence of footpaths. On the contrary, 2,2% of the respondents dealt with a problem of underdeveloped landscapes and only 2 respondents (0,4%) answered that they dealt with a problem due to the congestion and the presence of too many people. Finally, 19 of the respondents (3,8%) mentioned that they dealt with other, general problems. Research for another provincial area in northern eastern Greece has shown that the main problems that visitors face in the region relate to the lack of parking areas and cleanliness (Soutsas, Tsantopoulos, Arabatzis and Christopoulou, 2006).

IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT: ACCESSIBILITY AND INFRASTRUCTURE PRIOR TO THE IMPLEMENTATION OF AN ADVERTISING COMMUNICATION PROGRAMME

The exponential growth of tourism industry brings about consequences which many times have a negative impact in the economic, social and natural environment of tourist areas while at a macro level may diminish the same procedure of tourism *per se*. Informed, socially and environmentally responsible tourists who seek alternative types of vacations and adopting alternative behaviours, have the opportunity to minimise these consequences, to contribute to the viability of the tourist areas and to encourage the local agents towards the design and implementation of decisions of sustainable tourism development.

The small village with single crop farming and local economy, the small shopping centre of the area, the close or distant semi-urban centre, the big urban centre with which the economy of mountainous areas is associated in a variety of ways, consist of elements of an aggregate productive whole which was disorganised with the transformations in the development of the centre with negative consequences in the economic and social life for the mountainous and the peripheral zone of the system. The results of the research illustrate that the area under study has opportunities to develop in the tourist sector.

According to the analysis of the results of research the following basic findings arise: the visitors' profile of the area is mainly consisted of people who are associated in many ways with the area, visiting the place of birth or the neighbouring area while there were not any visitors from other countries. This is also explained by the absence of infrastructure and little advertising of the area at national and international level. Can we then speak for a niche market on its own as literature argues for mountain regions' characteristics? (Nyaupane and Chhetri, 2009). The vast majority of the respondents referred to the problems in relation to the road

network, the transportation, but also the absence of traditional products, which, according to the respondents, consist of the determining factors of raising the visiting in mountainous Nafpaktia. Local products are significant for success in rural tourism business (Sotiriades, Tyrogala and Varvaressos, 2009: 50). Furthermore, the inexistence of forms of entertainment and organised activities of alternative tourism are inhibiting factors of visiting the area, which negatively influences the development of domestic and external tourism.

An advertising communication programme and the absence of informative promotional material which would advertise the area is found to be of inferior importance comparing to issues of accessibility and infrastructure. The local agents need to focus their attention on the design of a mild tourist development of the area, with a parallel appropriate communication design of advertising and promoting the area nationally and internationally. There is not only necessity for the creation of infrastructure but also the organisation and implementation of an advertising communication programme which would promote such infrastructure, the activities and the uniqueness of the area.

The state may contribute to the development of these areas with the agents in charge of its management and the financial reinforcement for the areas' development, which will go hand in hand with the advertising of such infrastructure and amenities. Market studies with regard to the attitudes of people towards tourism and the tendency of their tourist interests are also useful to be initiated and repeated so that evaluation programmes can occur on the presentation of the areas and the identification of tourists' points of view (Kavoura, 2007; Rakic and Chambers, 2008); such a market study was carried out by the Greek National Tourism Organisation (GNTO) in 1998 at national and international level but only for the first time since 1951 when GNTO was founded (European Committee GNTO, 1998).

Mountain areas may be elevated to poles of tourist development, a mild form of development which will use the environmental, cultural and historic advantages (O.E.C.D., 1994), development without exclusions for any citizen so that each and every citizen will enjoy the benefits. Therefore, the derivative benefits, from tourist actions in the mountainous areas will equally pervade the local community and the social web to safeguard the well being and the quality of life in these areas while many job vacancies can be created which will contribute to reduce the decrease of the population regarding younger ages. This is the vision for sustainable development and management for a balanced relation between nature and man. Sustainable development presented for Nafpaktia, Greece

can consist of a typical recourse for the mountainous disadvantaged areas of the Mediterranean.

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FOR WHOM THE MENU INFORMS: A MARKET SEGMENTATION APPROACH TO NUTRITIONAL INFORMATION ON RESTAURANT MENUS

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Foodservice operators are being mandated to provide nutritional information (NI) on their menus to enable diners to make informed choices. However, there is little research on who would utilize NI on menus. This study utilizes Cluster Analysis to segment and profile diners at full-service restaurants that need, and would utilize NI on menus in full-service restaurants in the USA. Cluster Analysis identified two distinct segments - Health Cognizants and Fast-Lane Foodies. The Health Cognizant segment, has positive attitudes towards NI, feels the need for NI, and would utilize it to make dining decisions. They tend to be females, those aged 35 to 65, and those belonging to the higher income and college educated strata. This segment already practices a healthy lifestyle and employs various healthful strategies while making dining decisions. The Fast-Lane Foodies are not particularly concerned about NI on menus. Implications are provided.

Keywords: *Nutritional Information; Menu Labeling; Segmentation; Attitudes; Behavioral Intentions*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Both the popular and academic media have expressed alarm and concern about increasing rates of obesity and diabetes worldwide. The foodservice industry has often been blamed for providing unhealthy menu



items that exacerbate these medical issues. The foodservice industry has rejected this charge, and has responded by emphasizing the free choice of consumers in selecting from diverse menu options. All packaged food items sold in the United States of America (USA) have been required to display Nutritional Facts Label (NFL) for more than fifteen years. Furthermore, concerns about public health have driven legislators to pass laws mandating the provision of Nutritional Information (NI) on fast-food restaurant menus in USA. These laws place a heavy burden on food-service operators by increasing the cost and complexities of operation. However, what has been missing from this debate is research on the demographic and psychographic profile of consumers who would use NI.

The questions that need to be addressed are: Whom does the menu inform? How large is the market segment of consumers that really care about NI on their menus? What is the profile of consumers that would be users or non-users of NI? How do the health and food related lifestyles of consumers impact their need for NI, and their intention to utilize NI? Given the costs and complexities associated with placing NI on menus, should restaurateurs provide NI pro-actively?

Previous studies have focused on the history of Nutritional Facts Labeling (NFL), eating out patterns of modern day Americans, the importance of NFL to consumers, and industry actions towards making NI available to consumers (Turner, 2007; Palmer and Leontos, 1995; Guthrie, Lin, and Frazao, 2002; Hamblett, 2008; Kozup, Creyer, and Burton, 2003). However, no study has examined consumers and profiled them, on the basis of their interest in utilizing NI to make informed decisions, particularly in full-service restaurants. To address this gap in the literature, this study utilizes cluster analysis to identify and profile segments that are interested in, and likely to, utilize NI in full-service restaurants. Consumers are segmented and profiled based on demographics, their attitudes towards NFL and NI, their current behaviors and habits pertaining to health and dining, and their behavioral intentions about their health and usage of NI in restaurants.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Nutritional labeling in the restaurant industry in the USA

A study found that, 67% of women and 49% of men wanted NI on restaurant menus. The study also found that approximately 90% of the consumers don't feel very well informed about the nutritional values of food in restaurants (Perlick, 2004). Driven by the perceived need to

provide better information to consumers, several laws concerning NI directed towards fast food and full-service restaurants have been proposed in the last few years. The primary targets of these mandates have been fast food restaurant chains. They have been required for a few years now to provide nutritional information about their menu items (Walkup, 2004). These chains are the primary target, because Americans eat 64% of their restaurant meals in fast-food chain restaurants (Mount, 2008). The recently enacted Labeling Education and Nutrition (LEAN) Act in the US Congress extends nutrition labeling laws across the USA (Carper, 2008). As a fundamental part of this act, all restaurant chains with 20 more outlets are required to list calories, trans-fat, saturated fat, and sodium at the point of purchase (Rosenbloom, 2010).

Majority of fast-food chains already have detailed nutritional information available on their websites. Increasing number of fast-food chains such as McDonald's, Burger King, Subway, etc. already display NI at the point-of-purchase. Several other full-service restaurants such as Olive Garden, Applebee's, Chili's, etc. have joined the healthy dining initiative. The initiatives undertaken by these restaurants included having, highlighting, and labeling low calorie items on their menus, reduced portion size options, etc.

Consumer attitudes towards nutritional facts labeling

Americans have taken several steps towards reducing fat from food prepared at home (Putnam, 1999). Food prepared away from home is generally less healthy in comparison to the food prepared at home (Lin & Frazao, 1997). However, when dining out, the three primary diner motivations namely: convenience, attractive ambiance, and delicious food surpass the importance of healthy eating (Lin and Frazao, 1997). Furthermore, many consumers consider dining out to be an indulgence, and are not inclined to eat healthy when doing so (Putnam, 1999).

There are many determinants of nutritional behavior that need to be considered when changing nutritional and eating behavior: biological, economical, psychological, socio-cultural, home economics related, and situation-related (Gedrich, 2003). Research shows that attitudinal characteristics such as belief, and stage of change towards choosing a healthy option when eating out, had a significant relationship with the selection of a menu item. The study also found that behavioral measures, like frequency of eating low-fat and low-sugar foods were found to be significantly related to the attitude of trying to choose a healthy option when eating out (Stubenitsky, Aaron, Catt, and Mela, 1999).

Studies have found that close to three quarters of American adults use Nutritional Facts Labels (NFL) on packaged food. There seems to be a link between using food labels and eating more healthy diets. About 48% of people also were found to have changed their buying preference due to the available NI. A poll found that 71% of the Americans made changes in their food intake to eliminate fat from their diets. Research also shows that's 80% of Americans want restaurants to provide NI for all their menu items to enable them to make informed choices Furthermore, it was observed that their choices were guided by the NI available (Wootan, 2007). Another study found that providing NI increases the intent to repurchase, gives a feeling of higher quality, better satisfaction, and also leads to people making healthful choices (Conklin, Cranage, and Lambert, 2004). Consumers want to be able to access information such as the total fat content and the total carbohydrate content in their food (Mills and Thomas, 2008). Research also shows that the preference for less-healthy foods seemed to have diminished when NI was provided (Burton, Creyer, Kees and Huggins, 2006).

Studies have shown that women were significantly more likely to use information on food labels than men. Women were also observed to be more aware of the daily caloric requirements. Furthermore, 67% of participants were able to identify the number of calories they should be consuming per day. Weight status did not show any significant influence in the use of food labels (Krukowski, Harvey-Berino, Kolodinsky, Narsana, and Desisto, 2006).

Healthy lifestyle behaviors & habits

Obesity is one of the primary health concerns facing the USA. In the past 30 years, the rate of obesity has increased among both adults and children. Under these circumstances, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) has been emphasizing the importance of a healthy lifestyle in addition to healthy eating. A healthy weight cannot be achieved only through a "diet"; it has to be complemented with an overall on-going healthy lifestyle (CDC, 2008). National Institutes of Health (NIH) are also trying to reduce obesity in children by promoting an overall healthy lifestyle. This is being done through programs like We Can! which was launched in 2005 (NIH, 2007). The We Can! program emphasizes having a healthy lifestyle through increased physical activity, improved food choices, and reduced passive recreation (NIH, 2007).

The third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (1988-1994) studied the health related lifestyles of 16,176 adults. The study

found that approximately 7.0% of USA population is engaged in a healthy lifestyle. Females, White respondents, and those with over 13 years of education were more likely to engage in healthy lifestyles (Ford, Martine, Ford, De Proost, Will, Galuska, & Ballew, 2001). However, it was observed that the intention of leading a healthy lifestyle does not necessarily translate into concrete actions to achieve that goal. The challenge is in identifying that segment of the population which has not just the desire, but also the capacity and the willpower to do so.

Market segmentation in the restaurant industry

Market Segmentation is a strategic tool that enables the understanding of distinct consumer segments to better understand consumer behavior, purchase intentions, create precise marketing strategies and support responsible marketing initiatives (Bowen, 1998; Richard & Sundaram, 1994; Swinyard & Struman, 1986). An effective market segment contains groups with similar behavior, a high group identity, and can be targeted with an effective marketing mix (Kau & Lim, 2005). Several different statistical approaches have been used to segment a market. Albebaki & Lakovidou (2011) reviewed segmentation studies in wine tourism examining and comparing the different approaches used. Josiam, Sohail & Monteiro (2007) segmented customers of Indian restaurants in Malaysia, while Reynolds & Hwang (2006) segmented American customers of Japanese restaurants in the USA.

One of the well-established market segmentation statistical approaches used to gain deeper insight into the differentiating factors between consumer segments is Cluster Analysis (Green and Krieger, 1995). The two primary methods historically used in Cluster Analysis are partitioning method and hierarchical method (Myers, 1996). However, lately the Two-Step Cluster Analysis method, which draws on the strengths of both methods, is becoming more popular. In the Two-Step Cluster Analysis, initial pre-clusters are formed by the hierarchical method, and then followed by an iterative portioning process, that classifies cases into distinct clusters formed by the hierarchical method (Arimond & Elfessi, 2001).

The cluster segmentation approach has been extensively used in the hospitality/tourism literature in several contexts. Past studies utilized the cluster approach to understand travel motivations, satisfaction, dining choices, etc. with respect to the lodging, and travel industry (Cha, McCleary, & Uysal, 1995; Gonzalez & Molina, 2009; Sirakaya, Uysal, & Yoshioka, 2003). The cluster segmentation approach has often been used

to develop consumer typologies based on demographic, lifestyle, and behavioral variables. (Oh & Jeong, 1996; Granzin & Olsen, 1997). Cluster analysis was used to segment tourists to Lake Plastiras in Greece into four segments (Kokkaili, Koutsouris, Chrysochou, 2009). A segmentation study, (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2002), done in the context of benefits sought divided diners into five segments: Value Seekers, Service Seekers, Adventurous-Food Seekers, Atmosphere Seekers, Healthy-Food Seekers. As the names suggest each of these segments gave importance to distinct factors such as value, great service, cuisine variety, and ambiance. The Healthy-Food Seekers chose to dine in a restaurant based on the variety of healthful menu choices, restaurant location, and availability of non-smoking seating areas. This segment of Healthy-Food Seekers were least concerned about price, ambiance and service quality.

Bahn and Granzin (1985) have utilized Cluster Analysis to test the merits of benefit segmentation for restaurant marketers. They found that nutritional concerns were among the benefits sought, which could affect restaurant patronage.

Predicting future behavior

Research has shown that attitudes are pre-cursors of behavioral intentions. Measuring attitude towards a behavior can help predict the intention to perform that behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Furthermore, prediction can be improved if respondents are asked questions that pertain to immediate past behavior, as opposed to general attitudes or intentions. Research has found that future behaviors are guided by past behavior through two basic processes (Ouellette and Wood, 1998). First, that any specific behavior is repeated, because the control and initiation process for that behavior becomes automatic over a period of time, converting that behavior to habit. Second, that the past behavior frequency reflects the strength of the habit, and hence has a significant impact on future behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Ouellette and Wood, 1998). This is affirmed by another study, which found that repetition of any behavior leads into a habit. Such habits are then guided by an automated cognitive process, rather than elaborate decision making (Aarts, Verplanken & Knippenberg, 1998). Furthermore, behavioral measures, like frequency of eating low-fat and low-sugar foods have been found to be significantly related to the attitude towards, and intention of trying to choose a healthy option when eating out, thus confirming the importance of both attitudinal and behavioral influence on food selection (Stubenitsky, Aaron, Catt, and Mela, 1999). Hence, this study asked

respondents to report both their attitudes, and their actual past habits/behaviors in terms of food and health lifestyles.

NEED FOR STUDY

Concern for public health and the perceived role of the foodservice industry in influencing food consumption is driving much of the legislative action mandating NI on menus. In the rationale for the introduction of the LEAN act, the co-sponsor, Senator Lisa Murkowski stated (Carper, 2008):

“The LEAN Act will facilitate a national debate on the important issue of menu labeling and will raise a broader discussion on the importance of healthy lifestyle choices”

With growing emphasis being laid on a healthy lifestyle rather than just healthy eating, it is important to understand the link between current health-related behaviors/habits/lifestyles and intention/usage of NI in restaurants. The foodservice industry could benefit from a better understanding of the market segmentation profile of health-conscious customers. Such understanding could lead to changes in menus and marketing strategies that are better targeted, leading to higher customer service levels. Diners would also benefit from the increased availability of healthy options on restaurant menus.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this research was to identify the need for, and intended usage of nutritional labeling on menus in full-service restaurants on the basis of the consumers attitudes and current food/health related habits and lifestyles. The objectives of the research were:

- **Objective 1:** To determine the size of the market segment of full-service dining consumers that need and intend to use nutritional information (NI) in making their dining decisions.
- **Objective 2:** To segment consumers on the basis of their need for and intended use of the NI in full-service restaurants.
- **Objective 3:** To understand the various significant demographic, attitudinal, and behavioral differences between the identified market segments.

METHODOLOGY

Questionnaire

The survey was administered at a full-service student-run restaurant on the campus of a university in the southwest of the USA. Respondents were asked about their demographic profile and their attitudes towards NFL on packaged foods and NI on restaurant menus. They were also asked about their current food and health related lifestyle and habits, to better predict behavioral intentions. The bases of these behavioral questions were the tips given to consumers for healthy eating when dining out, in a report by medical professionals. The report suggest that consumers can eat healthy when dining out by reducing portion sizes, substituting with healthy items, avoiding fried foods, ordering salad dressing on the side, etc. (UW Health, 2004).

Reliability and content validity were confirmed through a pilot study with 82 respondents. Revisions were made to the survey as a result of feedback from the pilot test. The final survey comprised of the following five parts:

- (1) Demographic data.
- (2) Attitudes towards NFL on packaged foods, and NI on restaurant menus, using a seven-point Likert scale.
- (3) Current food/health related lifestyles and habits, using a seven-point Likert scale.
- (4) Behavioral intentions (using a seven-point Likert scale) towards:
 - a. Improving personal health and healthy dining
 - b. Using NI to make dining decisions in full service restaurants
 - c. Eating out more often if NI was made available on menus
- (5) Type of NI which would be important in a menu, using a seven-point Likert scale.

Data collection

This survey used a convenience sample of guests of the restaurant. Over a period of one month, 500 surveys were collected. For Cluster Analysis, since missing values lead to excluded cases, 347 surveys, complete in all regards, were utilized for this study. Individual responses were anonymous. Respondents were not compensated. SPSS software was used for data analysis.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Demographics

The demographic profile of an average respondent was: female, in the 45-64 age group, of White/Anglo ethnicity, well educated (over 90% were college educated), with a relatively high household income. The detailed demographic information is presented in Table 1.

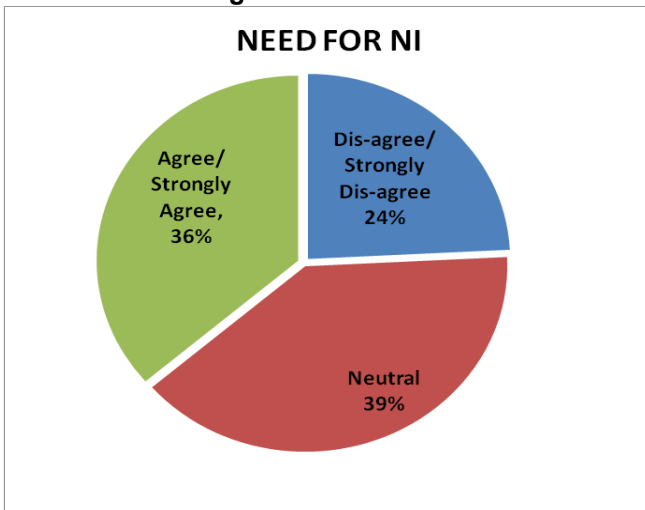
Table 1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

<i>Gender</i>	N	Valid%
Female	216	62.2
Male	131	37.8
<i>Total</i>	347	100.0
<i>Age</i>	N	Valid%
18 – 24	47	13.5
25 – 34	52	15.0
35 – 44	36	10.4
45 – 54	79	22.8
55 – 64	70	20.2
65 – 74	40	11.5
≥ 75	23	6.6
<i>Total</i>	347	100.0
<i>Ethnicity</i>	N	Valid%
White/Anglo	288	83.0
Others	59	17.0
<i>Total</i>	347	100.0
<i>Annual Household Income</i>	N	Valid%
≤ \$24,999	55	15.9
\$25,000 - \$49,999	68	19.6
\$50,000 - \$74,999	75	21.6
\$75,000 - \$99,999	67	19.3
\$100,000 - \$124,999	40	11.5
\$125,000 - ..> \$150,000	42	12.1
<i>Total</i>	347	100
<i>Highest Level of Education</i>	N	Valid%
High school or less	28	8.1
Some college or Associate degree	94	27.1
Bachelor's degree	101	29.1
Master's degree	71	20.5
Professional / Doctorate degree	53	15.2
<i>Total</i>	347	100

Objective 1: To determine the size of the market segment that need and intend to use nutritional information in full-service restaurants

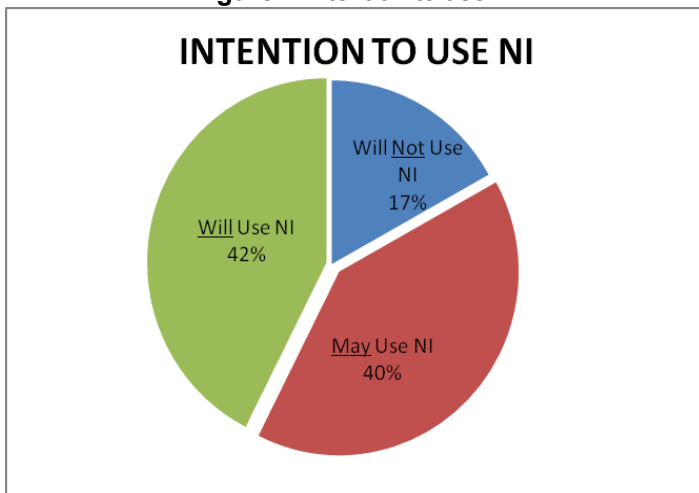
The study found that 36% of respondents feel the need for NI, 39% are neutral and only 24% of the respondents don't want NI to be made available on menus in full-service restaurants (Figure 1). This is consistent with earlier studies that have found that about 80% of Americans do want restaurants to provide NI for all menu items (Wootan, 2007).

Figure 1 Need for NI



Consistent with these findings, it was also found that 42% of the respondents would use NI, 40% of the respondents may use NI, and 17% of the respondents would not use NI to make dining decisions. This demonstrates the presence of a relatively large market segment of over a third of the respondents that wants NI, and would use NI in full-service restaurants (Figure 2). Since there appear to be distinctive groups with different characteristics, it is important to identify and understand their composition.

Figure 2 Intention to use NI



Objective 2: To segment consumers needing and intending use NI

Market segmentation is based on the assumption that all consumers do not belong to a single homogenous group. Rather, consumers can be grouped into several sub-groups which are homogeneous within and heterogeneous across each group segment. To explore these patterns deeper, a 2-Step Cluster Analysis was conducted. The benefit of 2-Step Cluster method is that the sample is portioned into distinctive and sharply defined naturally defined clusters. The researcher does not force respondents into pre-determined clusters with this method. However, this method also excludes those respondents who clearly do not belong to any of the defined clusters. The resulting defined clusters enable marketers to develop focused product and marketing strategies for each of the distinctive segments.

The Cluster Analysis categorized the respondents into two distinct clusters. None of the respondents were excluded. These clusters were named by the researchers, based on their characteristics. The two clusters are Health Cognizants- those who are mindful of what they eat and their overall health, and Fast Lane Foodies- those who do not give much importance to healthy eating and lifestyle habits (Tables 2a & 2b).

Table 2a Cluster Means of Relevant Variables with ANOVA Values

Cluster Summary			
	N	%	
<i>Health Cognizants</i> (Cluster 1)	165	48.2%	
<i>Fast-Lane Foodies</i> (Cluster 2)	177	51.8%	
Total	342	100%	
Observed Clusters			
	<i>Health Cognizants</i>	<i>Fast- Lane Foodies</i>	
	Mean	Mean	
Demographics	%	%	
<i>Female</i>	58.9%	41.1%	n/a
<i>Male</i>	30.5%	69.5%	n/a
<i>Age</i>	Mean	Mean	n/a
<i>Level of Education</i>	4.39	3.95	n/a
<i>Level of Income</i>	3.61	3.21	n/a
Attitudes - Dining & NI	Mean	Mean	F- Value
<i>Dining out is an indulgence</i>	4.72	3.95	19.400**
<i>Dining out is a necessity</i>	2.70	3.06	3.517
<i>NI on restaurant menus is important</i>	4.84	2.85	198.759**
<i>I need NI on full service restaurant menus</i>	5.04	2.94	193.376**
<i>NFL on packaged food is important</i>	5.88	3.76	214.928**
<i>NI on menus would help me decide</i>	5.67	3.05	320.840**
<i>Portion size labeling on menus is important</i>	5.64	3.63	182.885**
Behaviors & Habits –Health & Dining	Mean	Mean	F- Value
<i>Exercise frequency</i>	4.48	3.69	17.048**
<i>Current overall health</i>	5.21	4.58	28.775**
<i>Current dining out frequency</i>	3.28	3.37	.305
<i>Watchful about food choices</i>	5.65	4.23	103.873**
<i>Eat healthy at home Vs. restaurants</i>	5.32	4.41	36.063**
<i>Order healthy food item</i>	4.04	2.60	128.943**
<i>Strategize ordering to reduce portion size</i>	3.35	2.54	43.062**
<i>Substitute with a healthy food item</i>	4.52	3.11	88.457**
<i>Use NFL on packaged food</i>	4.99	3.10	180.539**
Behavioral Intentions – Health	Mean	Mean	F- Value

and NI

<i>Intention to improve health</i>	6.16	5.49	31.101**
<i>Intention to eat healthy when dining out</i>	6.04	4.13	213.699**
<i>Intention to use NI in full-service restaurants</i>	4.99	2.99	353.751**
<i>Intention to dine out more if NI was available</i>	5.24	2.98	155.618**

Note: *p<.05, **p < .01.

Table 2b Cluster Characteristics of Relevant Variables with Chi-Square values from CROSSTABS

SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF CLUSTERS

	<i>Health Cognizant</i>	<i>Fast-Lane Foodies</i>	Total Percentages	Chi-Sq.
Gender				25.890**
<i>Male</i>	30.5%	69.5%	100%	
<i>Female</i>	58.9%	41.1%	100%	
Age				28.796**
<i>18-34</i>	29.5%	70.4%	100%	
<i>35-54</i>	48.0%	52.0%	100%	
<i>55-74</i>	65.8%	34.2%	100%	
Education				17.235**
<i>Some HS or less</i>	0%	100%	100%	
<i>HS Grad or GED</i>	47.1%	52.9%	100%	
<i>Some College or Associate</i>	37.5%	62.5%	100%	
<i>Bachelors</i>	52.0%	48.0%	100%	
<i>Masters</i>	58.1%	41.4%	100%	
<i>Professional</i>	66.7%	33.3%	100%	
<i>Doctorate</i>	51.3%	48.7%	100%	
Household Income				10.963

Note: *p<.05, **p < .01.

Health Cognizants

The Health Cognizants segment is well educated (Masters Degree), belongs to a high socio-economic strata (\$50,000 to \$74,999 or higher) and is older (45-54). This group is the larger of the two segments, representing the majority of the identified cluster sample (Table 2b).

It is found that the Health Cognizant segment has positive attitudes towards NFL on packaged foods, and NI on menus. Consistent with their attitudes, this segment practices healthy lifestyle and eating behaviors and habits. In line with their attitudes and behaviors, this segment intends to improve their health. The Health Cognizants are also the ones who dine out less often, and consider eating out to be an indulgence. This segment is more likely to use NI to make their dining decisions, and more likely to increase frequency of dining if NI was available (Table 2a).

Fast-Lane Foodies

The *Fast-Lane Foodies* are younger (35-44), not as educated (Bachelors' Degree), and not as affluent (\$25,000 to \$49,999) as the *Health Cognizants*. This group is the smaller of the two segments, representing the minority of the identified cluster sample (Table 2b).

Furthermore, the *Fast-Lane Foodies* are indifferent in their attitudes towards NFL and NI, not as conscious of their eating behaviors and habits, or as particular about their health lifestyles, compared to the *Health Cognizants*. The *Fast-Lane Foodies* dine out more often, and do not necessarily consider dining out as being an indulgence. This segment may not use available NI, or change their dining frequency if NI was made available (Table 2a).

Objective 3: Understanding significant attitudinal, behavioral, and intent differences between clusters

This study examined the relationship between a variety of health and dining related lifestyles of respondents. One-way ANOVA tests were conducted to identify statistically significant differences between the segments based on their attitudes, habits, and behavioral intentions, as given below:

Attitudes - Health and NI

ANOVA analysis revealed significant differences in means between *Health Cognizants* and *Fast-Lane Foodies* with respect to their attitudes towards NI, healthy eating, and a healthy lifestyle (Table 2a). *Health Cognizants* were observed to have favorable attitudes to the provision of NI, on a number of measures. This segment feels the need for having NI available in full-service restaurants, and recognizes the importance of NFL on packaged food. They favor the provision of portion size labeling on menus also. This suggests that they understand nutritional and health issues pertaining to eating out very often; hence, they dine out less often, considering it an indulgence.

On the other hand, the *Fast-Lane Foodies* have significantly less favorable attitudes towards NFL and NI. They do not ascribe much importance to both. In addition, they do not have a favorable attitude about providing portion size labeling on menus. Furthermore, *Fast-Lane Foodies* dine out more often, and do not consider it to an indulgence (Table 2a).

Current Behaviors/Habits – Health and Dining

ANOVA analysis also revealed significant differences in means between *Health Cognizants* and *Fast-Lane Foodies* with respect to their current health and dining related behaviors and habits. *Health Cognizants* exercise more frequently, are more likely to be watchful about their food choices, more likely to eat healthy at home vs. restaurants, and maintain a better overall health. They are also more likely to be current users of NFL on packaged foods. *Health Cognizants* consistently reported significantly higher means on all current healthy dining out behaviors such as: ordering healthy items, strategizing to reduce portion size, substituting with a healthy food item, etc. The *Fast-Lane Foodies*, on the other hand, have completely contrasting practices concerning their food and health related habits (Table 2a).

Behavioral Intentions – Health and NI

Consistent with attitudes and current habits, ANOVA analysis also revealed significant differences in means between *Health Cognizants* and *Fast-Lane Foodies* with respect to their behavioral intentions. Sharp contrasts between the two segments were observed with respect to all four of their behavioral intentions. *Health Cognizants* segment scored

significantly higher on their intention to improve their health. *Health Cognizants* also reported a significantly stronger desire to eat healthy when dining out. Consistent with these intentions, they reported significantly higher means on their intention to use NI on menus, and to dine out more often if NI was available. The *Fast-Lane Foodies*, on the other hand, reported significantly lower mean scores on all four of the behavioral intention measures (Table 2a).

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The likelihood of future behavior can be predicted by attitudes, habits, and past behavior. While this study did not use a predictive statistical model, a definite pattern of significant relationships was observed between the attitudes, current behaviors/habits of diners, and their intention to use NI on restaurant menus. This is consistent with Bahn and Granzin (1985), who utilized cluster analysis for their benefit segmentation study; they found that nutritional concerns were among the benefits sought, which could affect restaurant patronage. These findings are also consistent with an earlier study that have found past food/health behaviors to be associated with making healthy food choices (Stubenitsky, Aaron, Catt, and Mela, 1999).

This study grouped diners into two distinct segments i.e. *Health Cognizants* and *Fast-Lane Foodies*. The first segment consists of those who are aware and concerned about their health, and practice healthy food habits and related lifestyles. This segment consists of those individuals who want NI, and would use it. This study found that approximately 25% of the respondents did *not* want NI, consistent with earlier studies showing that 80% of Americans *do* want restaurants to provide NI for all menu items (Wootan, 2007). The second segment – the *Fast-Lane Foodies* is composed of those not unduly concerned about such issues.

Diners belonging to the *Health Cognizant* group want NI on menus, and already use NFL on packaged foods. Consistent with this, they intend to use NI in restaurants. It is noteworthy that the *Health Cognizant* group is composed of those in the higher socio-economic strata, who already dine out very frequently, and have the income to support additional dining out at full-service restaurants. The demographics of this segment are closely aligned with that found in a national study of people that engage in healthy lifestyle, cited earlier (Ford, et al., 2001). Furthermore, they intend to increase their frequency of dining out, if NI was made available. This is not surprising, as the provision of such information would enable them to make informed choices, reducing their concern about unhealthy

food choices in restaurants. This is consistent with an earlier study that found the segment of “Healthy-Food Seekers” to be less concerned about price (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2002).

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Menu labeling is a front-burner issue in both the popular media and the academic literature. Legislation on menu-labeling is already enacted or on the agenda of legislative bodies in states and cities across the country. Federal legislation like the LEAN Act mandates the disclosure of nutritional information on menus. This act was recently included in the comprehensive healthcare legislation that was passed by the US Congress in March 2010. The foodservice industry needs to take immediate action nationwide to implement the provisions of this act (Rosenbloom, 2010).

The restaurant industry would face many challenges in the implementation of NI on their menus. Implementation could be logistically difficult, expensive, and time consuming. Despite standard operating procedures, frequent changes in menus and variability within the chain would increase costs and complexity of implementation (Boger, 1995).

On the positive side, certain market segments would increase their patronage, if NI were made available. Presenting NI on menus gives restaurateurs an opportunity to target health-conscious market segments. Addressing the concerns of these segments in an innovative manner could offer a competitive advantage to those taking a leadership role.

Restaurateurs will be acting in their own interest by being ahead of the legislation on this major issue. A pro-active menu labeling strategy, in alignment with their business goals, would serve restaurateurs well. A reactive response to one-size-fits-all national legislation, or a patchwork of local regulations, would aggravate the problems of implementation.

As in most issues, consumers’ use of NI depends on many demographic factors. This study has shown that women use NI more than men do; furthermore, provision of NI would encourage women to dine out more often. Marketing materials targeted at women can project the provision of NI as a consumer empowerment strategy.

Diners between 35-65 years of age are the most likely to use NI. Restaurateurs can target this age segment in their marketing materials. Here, the focus should be on the provision of NI on menus as a tool to make better informed healthy-eating decisions.

Highly educated (Post-graduate) participants and those with higher income levels are more likely to use NI. Here again, marketing materials

can show the restaurant catering to the lifestyle of affluent, health-conscious diners. Such imagery would also resonate with other segments that aspire to this lifestyle.

Inundating the consumer with marketing imagery cannot cover up the reality of menus laden with tasty, but unhealthy, calories and fat. The industry needs to address the reality of providing healthier meals at restaurants. There is a great need to invest in research and development of new items that are healthful, yet flavorful and appealing to consumers. Furthermore, existing menu items need to be re-engineered to reduce their fat and calorie content, while enhancing their flavor profile, to respond to consumer demand.

FUTURE STUDIES

Future studies could address the development of predictive statistical methods, such as Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), that would give a deeper insight into the motivations of consumers with regards to NI on menus (Krukowski et al, 2006). Studies could address consumer perceptions of caloric content of beverages, both alcoholic and non-alcoholic. Studies could also look at the gaps between perception and reality of “healthy” food, such as vegetarian or vegan menu items, in terms of nutritive value. Additional research could also be done on the consumers’ attitudes toward NI in different parts of the world, enabling cross-cultural and cross-national comparisons, since concerns about menu labeling are emerging across the world.

One of the hurdles in the implementation of placing NI on menus is the challenge of providing sufficient but relevant information, while avoiding information overload and clutter. Hence, it is imperative to study the best format to place NI on menus (Stubenitsky et.al., 1999).

CONCLUSIONS

The questions that guided this study were: Whom does the menu inform? How large is the market segment of consumers that really care about NI on their menus? What is the profile of consumers that would be users or non-users of NI? How do the health and food related lifestyles of consumers impact their need for NI, and their intention to utilize NI? Given the costs and complexities associated with placing NI on menus, should restaurateurs provide NI pro-actively?

These questions have been answered as given below:

- NI on menus does inform a significant segment of diners.

- This segment comprises an estimated 35% to 45% of diners in full service restaurants.
- Diners concerned about NI are likely to be female, in the 35 to 65 age group, and predominantly from well-educated, higher socio-economic backgrounds.
- Current food and health lifestyle habits/behaviors do impact intended use of NI.
 - Those already following healthy strategies in terms of exercise, health, and dining habits are the most likely to use NI.
- Despite the cost and complexity of implementing NI on menus, restaurateurs should do so for two important reasons.
 - First, to respond to the needs of a significant market segment, noting that this segment dines out often as part of its lifestyle, and has the resources to do so.
 - Second, to gain first-mover advantage by proactively implementing a NI on menu strategy aligned with business objectives.

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THE BRAND IMAGE OF A SMALL ISLAND DESTINATION

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Brand image is a prominent marketing tool for destination marketers. A strong brand image implies having an upper-hand over competitors and thus preventing tourists from shifting their purchase intentions to other destinations. This paper examines the brand image attributes of a small island developing state. It also determines the gap between tourists' expected and perceived brand image attributes. The study uses a focus group to guide the design of the questionnaire. Using factor analysis, the results indicate that the attributes performances exceed expectations, reinforcing the positive brand image of Mauritius. It is also found that the destination's attractiveness, up-market products, tourist attractions and the tropical setting were among the key factors in determining the brand image of the destination. The study also suggests that over-promising promotional campaigns may affect the brand image of small island developing destinations.

Keywords: *brand image attributes, destination marketing, Mauritius, positioning, small island developing states (SIDS)*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

The topic of destination image has received a lot of attention in tourism research (Kamenidou *et al.* 2009; Shin, 2009), however, the growing body of work on image (Gallarza *et al.*, 2002; Pike, 2002)



reveals that investigations focus mostly on a few countries or regions neglecting most emerging tourist destinations in developing countries (Sonmez and Sirakaya, 2002), specially overlooking small island destinations. As a result, island literature is peripheral as compared to the mainstream (Tsai and Clark, 2003). Therefore, despite the abundance of studies in this area, little attention has been given to the brand image of small islands developing states (SIDS) although a strong brand has become a prerequisite for SIDS who wish to compete amongst other international existing and emerging tourism destinations. These destinations need to be effectively managed from a strategic perspective with brand image playing a key role in positioning the destination as tourists have a multitude of destinations to choose from. Data obtained from studies conducted on image may assist destination managers to identify the strengths and weaknesses of these destinations and provide critical insights on how to better position SIDS as tourism destinations.

Despite Mauritius being featured as a prime island destination by many international magazines, there is scant research on the brand image of Mauritius. Hence, the purpose of this paper is to evaluate the brand image of Mauritius as a holiday destination from the tourists' perspective. The specific objectives of this study are to (1) identify the brand image attributes that tourists use to depict the island; (2) determine the gap between the tourists' expected and perceived brand image attributes.

BRAND IMAGE

Although destination branding is derived from the literature and marketing practices of product branding, branding a destination consists of unique challenges. Effective destination branding consists of marketing activities which create and reinforce positive images associated with the destination with the intention to influence consumers to select the destination instead of another (Blain *et al.*, 2005). Image is at the core of destination branding (Cai, 2002) and a strong destination brand can only be created through a powerful and distinct brand image. Brand image is the consumer's mental representation of the offering (Dobni and Zinjkan, 1990) where symbolic meanings are associated with the specific features of a destination. These mental pictures represent what tourists observe, feel and experience about the destination. It is acknowledged that tourists' selection of a holiday destination is founded on the degree to which the place generates favourable images (Gartner, 1989).

Brand image has been viewed as “a cluster of attributes and associations that consumers connect to a brand” (Biel, 1993: 71). Attributes have been defined as the “descriptive features” typifying a product or service (Keller, 1998: 93). Destination management organisations (DMOs) often use selected brand image attributes to build and strengthen the positioning of a destination. The result is that the appealing brand image attributes of the destination will reach the consumers and the associated benefits will be vividly present in their minds in the form of images. As such, image is a critical factor in motivating the tourists in their purchase decision (Cai, 2002) regardless of whether the image is truly representative of the destination (Um and Crompton, 1990). Studies have also found that there is a relationship between image and tourists’ behavioral intentions (Mohamed, 2008)

The positive images projected by destination authorities are meant to positively change the perceptions that tourists hold of the destination (Tasci *et al.*, 2007). However, in many cases “tourists who are the focus of the image formation campaign may see things differently from that of the destination promoters” (Tasci *et al.*, 2007:1531) as brand image is also influenced by factors which are less controllable by the DMOs such as unplanned communication tools like word-of-mouth or consumers own perceptions of the destination (Berry and Seltman, 2007).

Several methodologies have been developed to measure the image of destinations. According to Echtner and Ritchie (1993), destination image is a comprehensive and complex construct that is better approached using both qualitative and quantitative techniques. Other researchers also support these methods which either mostly constitute of a structured, quantitative approach or less commonly, an unstructured, qualitative approach such as focus groups or open-ended survey questions (Pike, 2002; Beerli and Martin, 2004). In the quantitative approach, image is evaluated through a list of attributes assessed by a Likert scale or a semantic differential scale, where ratings are obtained for each attribute (Sonmez and Sirakaya, 2002). Echtner and Ritchie (1991; 1993) proposed a scale to measure tourists’ perceptions of a destination attributes and argue that the latter can be separated into functional and psychological attributes. The functional attributes are associated with the tangible or measurable attributes whereas the emotional aspect comprises of the symbolic or intangible attributes. Destinations should make a rigorous analysis of their image by combining together the different image attributes in order to identify the most functional and psychological characteristics of the destination (Echtner and Ritchie, 1993) since these attributes position and differentiate the destination. Furthermore, through

the quantitative approach, the overall image is calculated as an average or sum of the attribute scores. Structured approaches have the advantages that attribute lists are easy to administer, produce data that can be easily coded and analysed, and facilitate comparison (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991), however, they offer little opportunity to capture “the full dynamics or richness inherent in the process of destination choice” (Dann, 1996: 42), thereby potentially reducing the completeness of the measurement due to lack of qualitative information. Multi-attribute methodology is a common approach to measure image and it has been noted that differences are revealed across studies among attributes used (Ahmed, 1991; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999a, b; Chaudhary, 2000; Chon *et al.*, 1991; Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Kozak and Rimmington, 2000; Stepchenkova and Morrison, 2008).

MAURITIUS AND TOURISM

Mauritius a developing island located in the Indian Ocean covering 1,860 square kilometres (720 square miles) is a well-known holiday destination for beach-resort tourists. Due to the influence of the colonial era where indentured labourers and slaves were brought from different countries, contemporary Mauritius consists of a dense population (about 1.2 million) of Indian, African, Chinese and French descendants.

Today, tourism is one of the main pillars of the Mauritius economy. The growth of the industry has occurred continuously from 27, 650 tourists in 1970 to 906, 971 in 2007 (AHRIM, 2008). In 2007, gross tourism receipts amounted to USD\$ 1,226 million (40, 687 million rupees) and provided direct employment to 26, 322 individuals (AHRIM, 2008). Europe is the main tourist generator with 595, 653 tourists in 2007, showing a rise of 16.7% since 2006 (Table 1). The leading market is France with 240, 028 tourist arrivals followed by the United Kingdom, Reunion island, Italy, Germany and India.

The brand image of Mauritius has been predominantly shaped by the marketing efforts carried out by the Mauritius Tourism Promotion Authority (MTPA) which is the national DMO responsible for promoting the island in selected foreign markets. The principal assets underpinned in the promotional tools are that of the sunny weather, sandy beaches and calm lagoons which depict Mauritius as a paradise island with tropical climate, exotic flora and fauna, and multi-ethnic hospitable inhabitants. As in several other island destinations (Ioannides and Holcomb, 2003), the Government has adopted the strategy of high-spending tourists in pursuing tourism development as a key economic activity. These up-

market tourists have higher requirements in terms of tourism products and facilities offered at the destination. Hence, Mauritius is positioned as a luxury destination with high standards of hotels where tourists can experience superior service.

Table 1 Tourist Arrivals for Year 2007

Country of Residence	Tourists Arrivals	Percentage (%)
France	240, 028	26.5
United Kingdom	107, 297	11.8
Reunion Island	95, 823	10.6
South Africa	81, 733	9.0
Italy	69, 510	7.7
Germany	65, 165	7.2
India	42, 974	4.7
Australia	19, 635	2.2
Switzerland	17, 546	1.9
Other Countries	167, 260	18.4
Total	906, 971	100

Source: AHRIM (2007)

In recent years, emphasis is increasingly being placed on the island's history, culture and heritage, ecotourism products, safety of the destination and niche products such as golf, medical and therapeutic tourism. The marketing efforts carried out by the MTPA have contributed to create the brand image of Mauritius. The challenge facing Mauritius as a holiday destination is even greater since the Government's strategy is to raise tourist arrivals to an unprecedented figure of 2,000,000 by the Year 2015. In order to attain these objectives, the Government has increased the budget of the Mauritius Tourism Promotion Authority to USD\$ 10 million (340 million Mauritian Rupees) for the year 2008/2009 (Deloitte 2008) and appointed a private firm for enhancing the destination brand.

STUDY METHODS

Due to the exploratory nature of the study, the research design consisted of two phases. Echtner and Ritchie (1993) suggested that in order to capture all the components of destination image a combination of structured and unstructured methodologies should be used. Gurthie and Thyne (2004) also recommended that unstructured methods be incorporated into the research design at an early stage to elicit information from respondents that can be later analysed using quantitative methods.

Following the combination of structured and unstructured methodologies suggested by the literature, the first phase of the research design consisted of a focus group, carried out to enable the social reality of the tourists to be constructed from their own perspectives. The purpose of the focus group was to develop a list of attributes representing the brand image of Mauritius which would then be used to develop the survey instrument. This is further supported by Echtner and Ritchie (1991), who suggested that if the attributes were likely to be numerous and diverse, extensive research should be taken to ensure that all have been uncovered and to give greater validity to the attribute list. McCartney (2005) also used a mixed methodology to measure destination image perceptions where a focus group was used to obtain additional attributes. One of the objectives of the questionnaire was to assess the gap between expected and perceived brand image attributes. To calculate this gap, it was necessary to phrase the focus group question in relation to respondents' expectations of the brand image of the destination prior to their visit. As a result of this process, the responses were refined into a list consisting of 18 specific attributes (Table 2). Most of the attributes generated were similar to those found in previous studies such as "safety and security", "quality standard of hotels" and 'reasonable price'. The attributes that were uncommon to other studies were "medical expertise", "spa facilities", and "golf".

The second part of the methodology consisted of a questionnaire that was designed taking into account the attributes generated from the focus group. A pilot study was conducted to determine if the questions were correctly set and understood and if the data collection approach was appropriate. Following this exercise, the questionnaire was revised with minor amendments. The survey was carried out daily over a period of 4 weeks in the months of January and February at the Sir Seewoosagar International Airport of Mauritius. In situations where individuals were travelling in groups or families, only one questionnaire was provided to avoid repetition and imitation of responses (Kozak and Rimmington, 2000). Only departing tourists were surveyed, as they would be in a better position to express their views based on the experience with several aspects of the destination. 400 samples were obtained from tourists at the departure lounge, fifty-eight of the responses were found unusable and the remaining 342 were processed for analysis purposes.

Table 2 Attributes Generated from Focus Group

	Attributes of Destination
1.	Standard of Hotels
2.	Hospitality of locals
3.	Cultural diversity
4.	Safety and Security
5.	Cultural and Historical Sites
6.	Local Cuisine
7.	Peaceful and Relaxing
8.	Ecotourism and Nature-based Activities
9.	Family Activities
10.	Nightlight and Entertainment
11.	Festivals, Events and Handicraft
12.	Shopping Facilities
13.	Medical Expertise
14.	Spa Facilities
15.	Golf
16.	White Sandy Beaches
17.	Sunny and Warm Climate
18.	Reasonable Price

Descriptive analyses were used to provide the European tourists' profile and to obtain mean scores of the brand image attributes for the perceptions, expectations and gaps data sets and paired *t*-tests were carried out to investigate if there was a statistically significant difference between the perceptions and expectations sets of scores. A principal components factor analysis was then conducted on the brand image instrument to confirm the various facets of the brand image construct.

STUDY RESULTS

Analysis of brand image attributes

A pre-analysis testing for the suitability of the entire sample for factor analysis was computed. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.86 and the Bartlett tests of sphericity was significant at $p < 0.01$, thus indicating that the sample was suitable for factor analytic procedures. A principal components factor analysis was then conducted on the brand image instrument to confirm the various facets of the brand image construct.

Table 3 Results of Factor Analysis on 16 Attributes and Its Four Factors

Factors and attributes	Eigen value	Factor loadings	Percentage variance	Cum. Percentage	Cronbach alpha
Factor 1: Tourists Attractions	6.549		36.38	36.38	0.843
Cultural and Historical Sites		0.843			
Ecotourism and Nature-based Activities		0.789			
Family Activities		0.674			
Festivals, Events and Handicrafts		0.643			
Nightlife and entertainment		0.580			
Shopping Facilities		0.555			
Factor 2:Up-Market Products	2.196		12.20	48.59	0.750
Medical Expertise		0.579			
Spa Facilities		0.827			
Golf		0.747			
Factor 3: Destination Attractiveness	1.327		7.37	55.96	0.751
Quality standard of hotels		0.527			
Hospitality of Mauritians		0.776			
Local Cuisine		0.688			
Reasonable Price		0.558			
Factor 4: Tropical Setting	1.024		5.69	61.65	0.704
White Sandy Beaches		0.694			
Peaceful and Relaxing		0.677			
Sunny and Warm Climate		0.814			

Notes: Overall alpha coefficient = 0.881

Individual attributes were assessed for discriminant validity within the destination brand image construct using VARIMAX rotation on the

perceptions-expectations scores of these attributes (Table 3). On the basis of Hair *et al.* (1998) criterion, factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and factor loadings that are equal or greater than 0.5 were retained. The percentage of variance explained by four factors in the perceptions-expectations data sets were 61.65%. 16 attributes loading under the four factors were extracted from the analysis with the exception of two attributes “cultural diversity” and “safety and security”. The factors have been labeled as follows: “Tourist Attractions” (Factor 1), “Up-Market Products” (Factor 2), “Destination Attractiveness” (Factor 3) and “Tropical Setting” (Factor 4). Factor 1, “Tourist Attractions”, explained 36.38% of the variance in the model and encompassed 6 attributes including “family activities”, “nightlife and entertainment”, “shopping facilities”, “ecotourism and nature-based activities”, “cultural and historical sites” and “festivals, events and handicrafts”. Factor 2, “Up-Market Products”, explained 12.2% of the variance and consisted of “medical expertise”, “spa facilities” and “golf”. Factor 3, “Destination Attractiveness”, explained 7.37% of the variance in the model and composed of 4 attributes which were “standard of hotels”, “hospitality of Mauritians”, “local cuisine” and “reasonable price”. Factor 4, “Tropical Setting”, explained 5.69% of the variance and referred to 3 attributes “white sandy beaches”, “peaceful and relaxing”, and “sunny and warm climate”.

Attributes for each subscale were subjected to reliability analysis. The alpha coefficient for the total scale was 0.881 and 0.843, 0.750, 0.751 and 0.704 respectively for the factors of “Tourist Attractions”, “Up-Market Products”, “Destination Attractiveness” and “Tropical Setting” respectively. Usually a reliability coefficient above 0.70 is considered sufficient for exploratory studies (Nunnally, 1994). Thus, the results indicated that these multiple measures were highly reliable for the measurement of each construct.

Measuring brand image attributes

The 16 brand image attributes of Mauritius derived from the factor analysis are presented in Table 4 which portrays the expectations and perceptions scores as well as the gap results. It is observed from the expectations scores that the means ranged from 2.96 to 4.59. The respondents have high expectations for “peaceful and relaxing” with a mean of 4.59 and “sunny and warm climate, mean = 4.59” followed by “hospitality of Mauritians” with a mean of 4.53. The lowest mean score of 2.96 was obtained for “family activities”.

Table 4 Gap Scores for Brand Image Attributes

Factor 1: Tourist Attractions	3.41	3.22	0.18 (0.53)	6.44*
Cultural and Historical Sites	3.65	3.31	0.34 (1.00)	6.19*
Ecotourism and Nature-based Activities	3.47	3.24	0.23 (0.95)	4.47*
Family Activities	3.25	2.96	0.29 (0.96)	5.52*
Festivals, Events and Handicrafts	3.31	3.09	0.22 (1.00)	4.12*
Nightlife and entertainment	3.28	3.15	0.13 (0.96)	2.43**
Shopping Facilities	3.49	3.58	-0.09 (0.92)	-1.94**
Factor 2: Up-Market Products	3.54	3.35	0.18 (0.66)	5.05*
Medical Expertise	3.43	3.57	-0.14 (1.06)	-2.50**
Spa Facilities	3.45	3.01	0.44 (0.97)	8.34*
Golf	3.73	3.48	0.25 (0.88)	5.30*
Factor 3: Destination Attractiveness	4.18	4.32	-0.14 (1.09)	-2.38*
Quality standard of hotels	4.25	4.28	-0.03 (0.78)	-0.70
Hospitality of Mauritians	4.55	4.53	0.02 (0.68)	0.64**
Local Cuisine	4.06	4.31	-0.25 (3.90)	-1.16
Reasonable Price	3.85	4.16	- 0.31 (0.97)	- 5.89*
Factor 4: Tropical setting	4.51	4.52	-0.02 (0.43)	-0.72**
White Sandy Beaches	4.50	4.39	0.11 (0.65)	2.90*
Peaceful and Relaxing	4.54	4.59	- 0.05 (0.65)	-1.40
Sunny and Warm Climate	4.49	4.59	- 0.10 (0.68)	-2.80*
Overall Gap (Combined scale of 16 attributes)	3.91	3.86	0.05 (0.41)	2.38**

*Notes: Standard Deviation, SD is presented in brackets; *p < 0.01; **p < 0.05*

Tourists were also required to rate their perceptions of the brand image attributes after having experienced the destination and the findings revealed that the mean scores ranged from 3.25 to 4.55. The highest mean values were observed for “hospitality of Mauritians” with a mean of 4.55 followed by “peaceful and relaxing” (mean value of 4.54), “white sandy beaches” (mean value of 4.50) and “sunny and warm climate” (mean value of 4.49). It can be further observed that relatively low

perceptions scores were obtained for “family activities” and “nightlife and entertainment” with mean values of 3.25 and 3.28 respectively.

Table 4 also depicts the gap scores, that is, the perceptions minus expectations (P-E) scores of the attributes measured. The largest positive gap scores were attributed to “spa facilities” (0.44) followed by “cultural and historical sites” (0.32) and “family activities” (0.29). In fact, out of the 16 brand image attributes, 9 were highly rated by the respondents. Hence positive gap scores were also obtained for “golf” (0.25), “ecotourism and nature-based activities” (0.23), “festivals, events and handicrafts” (0.22), “nightlife and entertainment” (0.13), “white sandy beaches” (0.11) and “hospitality of Mauritians” (0.02). The most notable negative discrepancy between the perceptions and expectations ratings is concerned with “reasonable price” with a score of -0.31. Negative gap scores were also obtained for “local cuisine” (-0.25), “medical expertise” (-0.14), “sunny and warm climate” (-0.10), “shopping facilities” (-0.09), “standard of hotels” (-0.03), and “peaceful and relaxing” (-0.05).

Using the paired *t*-test, a comparison of each tourist’s paired ratings on their perceptions and expectations of brand image attributes indicated that 12 of the 16 attributes examined were statistically significant (Table 4). In addition, the overall gap (defined as perceptions minus expectations) score was 0.05 and was statistically different at the 0.05 significance level, indicating that the destination performed better as compared to the expectations of tourists.

DISCUSSION

From the study, it is observed that despite faced with numerous challenges as a SIDS, Mauritius is well positioned in the European market since the overall gap between perceptions and expectations is positive. This tends to suggest that the destination has been able to deliver its brand promise as tourists’ perceptions of the destination concur with images projected by the DMO and other influential sources available to them prior to their visit. However, the development of a scale to measure the brand image attributes of Mauritius reveals that although the overall brand image is positive, there are also weaknesses in specific areas. The results indicate 4 distinctive factors that characterise the brand image of the island from the tourists’ perspective: “Tourist Attractions”, “Up-Market Products”, “Destination Attractiveness” and “Tropical Setting”. Factor 1, “Tourist Attractions” and Factor 3, “Destination Attractiveness” are factors which have also been revealed in the study of Kozak and Rimmington (2000) focusing on Mallorca, Spain. This shows that image

factors such as “Tourist Attractions” and “Destination Attractiveness” are common to both SIDS and larger developed countries although attributes falling under these factors are unique to specific destinations.

Factor 1 “Tourist Attractions” received lower expectations scores than any other factors. The small size and limited resources which characterise SIDS may have led to the expectations that apart from beach-based activities, the island would be limited in terms of availability of attractions. This is supported by strong positive gaps for “cultural and historical sites” (0.34), “ecotourism and nature-based activities” (0.23), “festivals, events and handicraft” (0.22) and “nightlife and entertainment” (0.13). Over several years, the marketing efforts have largely focused on Mauritius as a honeymoon destination rather than a family destination. Hence, tourists perceived that the attribute “family activities” performed better than their initial expectations. “Shopping facilities” scored a negative gap which could be explained by open-ended responses where some tourists stated that they felt exploited by locals as they were harassed to buy certain items and were charged higher prices than Mauritians.

Factor 2 “Up-Market Products” reflects product and services which have been developed and marketed in an attempt to position Mauritius on the “high end”. Mauritius is a known up-market destination in European countries and is further pursuing this image through products such as golf and wellness tourism. As Ioannides and Holcomb (2003) argue, the strategy of up-market tourism has been adopted by several small island destinations in order to preserve their limited natural resources. For the destination under scrutiny, increasing the number of international tourist arrivals to a figure which is equivalent to almost twice the current population size contradicts the initial development of up-market tourism strategies where the objective was to preserve limited resources and reduce environmental impacts on SIDS. The expected rise in the number of tourists has resulted in the construction of additional hotel rooms in Mauritius which may affect its high image status as in order to be profitable, prices of rooms may have to be reduced during off-peak seasons. As such, the destination is likely to become financially accessible to a larger number of tourists impacting on its up-market brand image.

Factor 3 “Destination Attractiveness” obtained the highest negative gap scores across all factors, Destination managers should devote particular attention to this factor as it consists of features which shapes the positioning of the destination and provides the place with its competitive edge. For example, Mauritius has long been marketed as a destination

which possesses high quality hotels and hospitable inhabitants. However, a positive gap was only observed for “hospitality of Mauritians”. The locals extend their welcome to tourists who they consider as guests. However, attributes regarding “quality standard of hotel”, “local cuisine” and “reasonable price” all obtained negative scores. The hotels of Mauritius are marketed as offering an excellent service. However, if employees have not been able to meet the requirements of customers in terms of service standards, this could have contributed to the lower perceptions of service quality delivered by hotels. Therefore, hotels must ensure that they have well-trained and dedicated employees so as to deliver the brand promise. “Local cuisine” also obtained a negative gap score as European, Chinese and Indian food are the most common types of cuisine available in Mauritius. A negative gap was also obtained for “reasonable price” as some tourists expressed that they were charged higher prices than Mauritians. It is common practice for several businesses in Mauritius to charge a “tourist price” as it is believed that tourists have a higher purchasing power as opposed to locals.

Factor 4 is a brand image factor unique to SIDS. However, shortcomings were observed for “sunny and warm climate” showing that the expectations of tourists were not met. This was because at the time of the survey, the country was under the influence of a cyclone and the perceptions of respondents were not equivalent to the idyllic weather portrayed in the promotional materials. For SIDS climate is an important image attributes which has become highly marketable and a source of comparative advantage. Mauritius is marketed as having sunny weather all year round despite being prone to cyclones from four to six months during the summer months. Although cyclones do not affect the destination every year, tourists are seldom aware that SIDS are nevertheless exposed to such natural disasters and that the ‘promises’ of a sunny holiday may not be met by the destination.

The attribute related to “peaceful and relaxing” also obtained a negative score. SIDS have been portrayed as remote destinations equivalent to a perfect getaway from metropolises such as Europe. Brown (1997) argues that Indian Ocean islands for instance the Maldives, Mauritius and Seychelles evoke idyllic images that are reflected in the language of promotional literature. Promotional slogans used by the DMO also evoke such images, for example- *a world out of this world* is a slogan used to portray Mauritius in European destinations. This slogan is supported by pictures of white sandy beaches and turquoise lagoons portrayed with no individual or sign of development. However, Mauritius is one of the most densely populated countries in the world where cities

and towns bustle with people, traffic jam, noise and other activities. This is further highlighted from open-ended responses which reveal that tourists felt that careless litter disposal and vehicles cause a considerable amount of pollution which tends to spoil the “peaceful and relaxing” environment. The European tourists also perceived that the Mauritian drivers were reckless and this further contributed to disturbing the peaceful expected state of the tropical destination setting. Thus, the negative gap could be explained by an “exaggerated” promotional campaign resulting in tourists developing anchored images of Mauritius as an untouched paradise island.

CONCLUSIONS

The study reveals that Mauritius has been able to develop a strong brand image due to its Unique Selling Proposition. It is reported that “Tourist Attractions”, “Up-Market Products”, “Destination Attractiveness” and “Tropical Setting” were key factors in determining the brand image of the destination. These brand image factors represent the Unique Selling Proposition of the brand Mauritius and cannot be transposed to other SIDS. The destination managers of SIDS should carry out a careful identification of their destination attributes in order to develop a Unique Selling Proposition for their respective destinations. The destination Mauritius should capitalise on its Unique Selling Proposition and related attributes as they represent an opportunity for differentiation. The threat to establishing a clear brand image in Mauritius lies in uncontrolled developments which may spoil the image of these nations. Mauritius is perceived as an attractive up-market tropical destination with a wide range of attractions. It is essential for destination managers to effectively handle its combination of attributes to consolidate the tourism appeal of the destination and to maintain its desired positioning in the target markets. The study has reported negative characteristics, which if not rectified will severely impinge on the image, and positioning of the destination. A positive image may continue even long after the factors that has moulded it has changed (Fayeke and Crompton, 1991) and although the present image is one where the local inhabitants are hospitable, negative incidents such as tourists feeling exploited in their exchange of transactions are likely to spoil the brand image of the destination over the long-term. Therefore, continuing to improve the features of the destination is imperative (Joppe *et al.*, 2001). Since SIDS are reported to have fragile ecosystems, it is also imperative to manage the natural environment and control litter disposal.

Branding a destination is more complex than branding a product since it is incorporeal and consists of several interdependent components which represent the holiday experience. The image of destinations is of imperative importance to tourism boards (Horrigan, 2009) and the brand image of destinations must be able to capture the multitude of experiences offered during a holiday. If the marketing efforts are successful, strong brand image attributes can become pull motivators for tourists to select a destination over another. There is also a greater risk in destination branding as travelling to a small distant island is more costly in terms of both finances and time. The brand image attributes are of utmost importance in providing tangible cues which will help reduce the perceived risks and provide impressions of quality. Although destination managers do not have ownership of the holiday experience, they still need to ensure that the image attributes are marketed in a homogenous manner to avoid inconsistencies between the projected image and the perceived image. This could be achieved through collaboration of the different stakeholders such as DMO, Government, tourism organisations, and the local population. They should work in partnership to promote these factors as well as to redress any shortfall associated with the brand image attributes. Additionally, destination managers should provide realistic promotional messages so as to meet its brand promise.

This study is of valuable assistance to academics, DMO and tourism organisations and it also extends the limited body of work available on destination branding in SIDS. However, the limitations of the study must be noted when interpreting the results and developing future research. The study was carried out during the aftermath of a cyclone and surveyed only European tourists. A study analyzing cross-cultural perceptions and expectations would be valuable in enhancing knowledge on how best to position the destination in specific markets based on brand image attributes.

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TRANSITIONAL DEVELOPMENTS AND SPATIAL RE-ORGANIZATION OF SPA TOURISM IN GREECE

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The present paper seeks to confirm that spa tourism is now in a period of transition following extensive, questionnaire-based fieldwork in Greece's prime spa destinations. The research sought primarily to profile the different types of spa visitors today, and secondarily to identify the visitor-type who will predominate in the years ahead. The paper's ultimate aim is to use its conclusions and the trends it uncovers to draw up general guidelines for contemporary spatial planning in spa tourism destinations in accordance with contemporary views and needs.

Keywords: *spa tourism; spatial organization and planning*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION: SPA TOURISM IN TRANSITION

Spa tourism and the use of spa waters are not confined to the modern era. Rather, man has been well aware of the beneficial qualities of hot mineral springs since the dawn on history, and has made use of them systematically and even daily for millennia (Skarpia-Hoipel, 1996). Of course, this does not mean that the nature of the activity has always been the same; in fact, this has changed a number of times down the centuries, and has served the specific needs and goals of each era.

If one were to attempt to present a historical overview of these stages, one would note that hot mineral springs and their waters constituted a primary means of cleanliness and treating wounds for the peoples of early antiquity (Douglas, Douglas and Derrett, 2001). In contrast, during the



Classical era, the use of mineral waters was an important therapeutic medium and means of regaining physical health (Charitakis, 1935). During the Roman period, spas acquired a more social hue whose emphasis was more on caring for one's health in general (rejuvenation and well-being) than on cures (G.A.H.S.M.-G.T.A., 2006). However, this tradition came to an abrupt halt in the period that followed. The Middle Ages were the darkest period for spas, when the use of mineral waters was demonised and remained virtually forbidden for many centuries (M.E.S.P.P.W., 2000).

As spa use moved into the 19th century, it developed into a rapidly-growing form of tourism while, owing to continuous progress made in the field of Medicine, the hydrotherapy dimension of spa use would prevail once again in the early 20th century (FEDERTERME, 2004). There can be no doubt that for the past two centuries, at least, spa use has been inextricably linked with hydrotherapy and cure. However, the taxing conditions and intense rhythms of life around the world in the contemporary era have led to a re-adaptation once more, especially since the 1980s, as spa use has come to revolve around health in a broader sense, and the restoration of spiritual and physical health in particular (wellness). The hydrotherapy dimension of spa use has largely been supplanted as a result.

Within this framework, this paper will attempt to confirm the above statement by means of extensive empirical research conducted in Greece's main spa locations. It will aim to explore the profile of today's spa visitors and to categorize them on the basis of shared features and behaviours. In addition, the rationale underlying this categorization – i.e. the definition of different types of spa tourists in Greece today – was to identify the group whose profile and consumption habits are expected to predominate in the years to come. Finally, on the basis of the conclusions drawn from the new data and trends taking shape on the Greek spa scene, the paper will attempt to provide strategic guidelines (spatial, economic etc.) relating to the organization required for spa tourism destinations in the light of contemporary socio-economic developments and trends.

THEORETICAL APPROACH OF SPA TOURISM

As thermalism is an ancient activity, the bibliography on spa bathing and spa tourism (lately) is especially extensive as a result.

Perusing the bibliography in question, one realizes that it largely deals with the history of the phenomenon and its varying fortunes through different eras and conditions (e.g. Jaltet, 1985; Gerbod, 2004). In

addition, a significant part of the bibliography examines spa installations of the past (antiquity) and present from an architectural, historical or cultural perspective (e.g. Skarpia-Hoipel, 1996; Moldoveanu, Meade & Lafon, 1999). Similarly, there are a large number of tourist guides which deal with installations of this sort, published in all the countries with a spa tourism tradition.

However, although spas are one of the most ancient forms of tourism, they have rarely been the focus of studies seeking to identify the particular features of the people who visit them. Even in Greece, where the practice of taking the spa waters originated (in the 5th c. BC), the majority of research has focused on chemical analyses of spa waters and their therapeutic qualities (e.g. Lekkas, 1938; G.A.H.S.M.-G.T.A., 2006). Research conducted in the late nineteen nineties and more recently (Tsartas, Manologlou & Markou, 2001 · Didascalou, Lagos & Nastos, 2009 · Vasileiou & Tsartas, 2009) may constitute the sole exceptions; however, these researches were not based on extensive questionnaire-based fieldwork, thus they provide mostly general estimations on spa tourism in Greece.

By the same token, a detailed examination of the spatial element of this form of tourism is also absent from the international bibliography, with the possible exception of a publication (Glaus, 1975) which, apart from being quite old, deals almost exclusively with trends in the design of spa tourism installations. There are also a number of publications which deal with the geographical dimension of spa tourism (e.g. Jamot, 1988; Boyer, 2005), though these, too, fail to draw conclusions on the preferred spatial planning for tourist attractions of this sort.

In this context, this article breaks new ground in attempting, through extensive empirical research, not only to record the profile of the spa tourists in Greece today, but also—and more importantly—to use suitable statistical analysis to explore the profile of the new generation of spa visitors who are expected to dominate in the near future.

METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH

Field research

The field research carried out included the completion of 700 questionnaires in three of Greece's main spa destinations (Figure 1) which together account for over 40% of the spa tourism in the country (Spathi, 2000).

The 300 questionnaires were completed at 8 of the 24 spa installations in Loutra Aedipsou, 250 in the two operational facilities in Kamena Vourla, and 150 in Loutra Hipatis' sole working spa. The sampling was differentiated in this way in order to maintain the relative ratio between the three in relation to their annual spa visitors.

The field research took place between June 2007 and May 2008, since some of the installations in the three spa locations (mainly those offering modern spa services) operate year-round.

Figure 1 Places of field research



Data processing: core considerations and hypothesis

The data was collected using a questionnaire consisting mainly of closed questions, to facilitate its completion: in practical terms, since it was known that most of the users of spa installations in Greece are elderly (over 65), it was thought that the use of closed questions would contribute

significantly to the validity of the responses by avoiding comprehension problems (Duquenne, 2005).

The type of questions addressed to the 700 people can be divided into three categories: those focused on the spa users' socio-economic profile (gender, age, annual income and place of permanent residence); questions relating to their accommodation / spa service use; and a third group of questions seeking an evaluation of the installations and services offered.

The statistical processing thus involves methods for analysing and monitoring quantitative variables. In a few cases, it was deemed necessary to group the respondents into a limited (in relation to the wording of the questionnaire) number of categories. The process sought to avoid issues of statistical significance arising during the monitoring of sequential relationships between the variables under examination. The variable 'age' is a good example: when it emerged that only 7% of the spa visitors were under 40, it was thought best to group everyone under 50 into a single category, while keeping the next two categories (50-64 and over 65) as they were. Although the proposed grouping made it impossible to pinpoint the behavioural singularities of very young visitors, it did allow a satisfactory differentiation of visitors on the basis of the important criterion of age.

One of the most fundamental analytical considerations was the need to differentiate the spa visitors' behaviour on the basis of age. Specifically, we were interested in the degree to which the demand for contemporary services and an upgraded environment was more prevalent among younger age-groups, since we believed this would permit us to determine whether spa tourism in Greece really was in a period of transition towards contemporary spa services focused on health, rejuvenation and well-being.

A second hypothesis relates to the tourists' income level and living standards. If income reflects the living standards of the respondents to a significant degree, then their place of permanent residence could, at least indirectly, define their living standards. Thus, their declared places of residence were categorized in accordance with their degree of urbanization, with four residence categories defined: major urban centres (Athens and Thessaloniki plus cities abroad), regional urban centres (like Patras, Herakleion etc), small to medium-sized urban centres, towns and agricultural centres.

The tourists' profiles were analysed using the K-means classification method whereby individuals are grouped around mobile centres using a repeated process, with the number of desired classes having been defined beforehand: the process is complete when the classes stabilize, revealing

the final population distribution (Mavromatis, 1999). To apply the method, the tourists' key socio-economic features were used as variables (gender, age, income and place of residence). The choice of alternative numbers of groups (from 3 to 6) ultimately led us to divide the population into three discrete groups, given that with this number the iteration process came to an end after only five reiterations (the other alternatives required longer reiteration procedures).

RESULTS OF THE SURVEY: DISCERNING NEW TRENDS AND BEHAVIOURS

Dominant spa tourist groups

Applying the above statistical method, the sample of 700 individuals was divided into three discrete groups/categories of spa tourists, with Group A containing 158 tourists, Group B 202 and Group C 340.

As far as gender was concerned, the results revealed no significant differences between the groups, despite the frequency of the male population being relatively higher in Group A (Table 1). Given that spa tourism in Greece is generally a 'female affair', it did not come as a surprise that gender proved not to be a significant factor in the formation of the different tourist profiles.

Table 1 Gender by spa tourist group

	Male		Female		Total
Group A	69	43.7%	89	56.3%	158
Group B	80	39.6%	122	60.4%	202
Group C	122	35.9%	218	64.1%	340
Total	271	38.7%	429	61.3%	700

Table 2 Age-profile by tourist group

	<50		50-64		65+		Total
Group A	48	30.4%	55	34.8%	55	34.8%	158
Group B	7	3.5%	39	19.3%	156	77.2%	202
Group C	35	10.3%	63	18.5%	242	71.2%	340
Total	90	12.9%	157	22.4%	453	64.7%	700

However, significant differences were evident in relation to the age of the tourists, with Group A clearly including younger individuals than the other two groups (Table 2). Specifically, while Group A includes tourists from every age-group, with young tourists (up to 49) accounting for 30.4% of the group, over 75% of the tourists in groups B and C are over 65.

With regard to place of residence, it emerges that there are significant differences between all three groups (Table 3). Thus, Group B consists of spa tourists who are almost exclusively from rural areas, while groups A and C are extremely urban in nature, with 91.8% of Group A and 100% of Group C living in Athens, Thessaloniki or a regional urban centre of Greece.

Table 3 Place of residence by spa tourist group

	Main urban centre		Regional urban centre		Medium/s mall town		Rural areas		Total
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No
Group A	119	75.3	26	16.5	10	6.3	3	1.9	158
Group B	-	-	-	-	107	53.0	95	47.0	202
Group C	258	75.9	82	24.1	-	-	-	-	340
Total	377	53.9	108	15.4	117	16.7	98	14.0	700

Table 4 Declared annual income by group

	Not declared		< €10,000		€10,000-€15,000		€15,000-€20,000		> €20,000		Total
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No
Group A	-	-	-	-	-	-	58	36.7	100	63.3	158
Group B	13	6.4	131	64.9	48	23.8	10	5.0	-	-	202
Group C	39	11.5	192	56.5	109	32.1	-	-	-	-	340
Total	52	7.4	323	46.1	157	22.4	68	9.7	100	14.3	700

Finally, turning to income levels (based on the annual income declared by the respondents), the research indicates that there were significant differences here, too, between the three groups (Table 4), with the tourists in Group A having a higher standard of living compared to the

other two groups. Specifically, the 100% of Group's A members declared an income in excess of €15,000 per year, and 63.3% over 20,000 per year. Groups B and C – both of which generally consists of elderly tourists – mainly include people with a low declared annual income of between €10,000 and €15,000. It should be noted too, that Group B in particular included large numbers of tourists in the lowest income category (less than €10,000 per annum). These findings in relation to groups B and C thus confirm that the majority of the tourists in them are pensioners who, according to data from the Hellenic Ministry of Economy and Finance General Secretariat for Information Systems (2003), declare an average annual income of €10,750 as opposed to an average of €14,000 declared by salaried employees and €13,000 for the country as a whole.

Summarizing, the application of the described statistical methodology generated three main discrete categories of spa tourists: Group A, which consists of generally younger spa tourists (though older categories are not absent from it), most of whom come from the country's main urban centres and have a high annual income; Group B, which, with very few exceptions, is made up of elderly tourists who largely live in towns and medium-sized cities and whose annual income is in the lowest category; and Group C, which displays a number of similarities with Group B (older, low income), but actually constitutes a discrete category of spa tourists whose members, all of whom are from large cities, reveal entirely urban incomes and modes of consumption.

A comparative presentation of the profiles of the predominant spa tourist groups

Having distinguished and described the three main groups of spa tourists in Greece, now will follow the presentation of the main findings of the research as a prelude to tracing emerging trends.

Starting with the type of services the tourists opt for (Table 5), wellness services (which denotes the use of new types of services with an emphasis on rejuvenation and well-being) seems to lag somewhat behind, since the majority – especially the tourists in groups B and C – apparently opt for hydrotherapy (cure) services.

Of course, this result should not be misconstrued: given that modern wellness services are a new phenomenon in Greece, where they have only featured on the tourist scene since 2000, a careful reading of the results in Table 5 actually reveals that modern spa wellness services have experienced rapid growth, successfully attracting almost half the people (44.3%) in Group A – who are generally younger, urban and with high

incomes, as well as slowly catching on with older age-groups and elderly urbanites (Group C), in particular.

Table 5 Type of services opted for by spa tourists group

	Hydrotherapy		Wellness		Total
Group A	88	55.7%	70	44.3%	158
Group B	196	97.0%	6	3.0%	202
Group C	307	90.3%	33	9.7%	340
Total	591	84.4%	109	15.6%	700

The fact that wellness spa services are attracting an ever growing number of spa tourists in Greece is also evident from the results in Table 6 which reveal that, while spa tourists traditionally choose to visit spas to partake of hydrotherapy, wellness and rejuvenation services are constantly gaining ground. Thus, 37.3% of the individuals in Group A already opt for spa services aimed exclusively at rejuvenation and relaxation, while in the other groups – which include largely elderly spa visitors – rejuvenation/relaxation is an ever more popular reason for partaking of spa waters, especially in Group C, whose members are largely from urban centres.

Table 6 Expectations of spa services

	Exclusively rejuvenation / relaxation		Rejuvenation / relaxation and hydrotherapy		Exclusively hydrotherapy		Total
Group A	59	37.3%	20	12.7%	79	50.0%	158
Group B	19	9.4%	30	14.9%	153	75.7%	202
Group C	59	17.4%	30	8.8%	251	73.8%	340
Total	137	19.6%	80	11.4%	483	69.0%	700

($\chi^2 = 52.1$ sig = 0.000)

Turning to the time that spa tourists spend in the spa towns, Tables 7 and 8 reveal that the average stay is quite long, with Group A tending to restrict their stay to fewer than 13 nights, as opposed to 16 and 17 nights for groups B and C respectively.

Thus, Table 8 shows that Group A, which displays a preference for modern wellness spa services, tends to restrict its stays to fewer than 7 nights, while groups B and C, which consist of more elderly visitors who chiefly choose hydrotherapy services, opt to stay for an average of 2 to 3 weeks.

Table 7 Average stay (duration in days)

	Average stay (in days)	95% Interval of confidence	Anova Test
Group A	12.9	11.2 – 14.7	F= 12.969 (sig = 0.000)
Group B	16.3	15.9 – 17.0	
Group C	16.9	16.0 – 17.8	

Table 8 Duration of stay (in days)

	Up to 1 week		From 1 to 2 weeks		More than 2 weeks		Total
Group A	56	35.4%	56	35.4%	46	29.1%	158
Group B	4	2.0%	105	52.0%	93	46.0%	202
Group C	33	9.7%	134	39.4%	173	50.9%	340
Total	93	13.3%	295	42.1%	312	44.6%	700

Linked to stay duration, the data on the type of accommodation chosen by the visitors (Table 9) reveals that this correlates directly with their income level. Thus, Group A, the group that makes the shortest stays in the spa towns, is more likely to opt for accommodation which provides spa services on site, while the groups associated with longer stays (B and C) are more likely to opt for more economical accommodation. Thus, 50% of the individuals in Group A – who are better off financially and usually opt for wellness services – stay in hotels which provide these facilities on site, while 90.1% and 87.6% respectively of groups B and C opt for independent accommodation – meaning hotels or rooms a short distance away from the spa facilities – to reduce the expense of their longer stays.

Table 9 Type of accommodation selected

	Hotel with on site spa facilities		Normal hotel		Rented room / private home		Total
Group A	79	50.0%	35	22.2%	44	27.8%	158
Group B	20	9.9%	90	44.6%	92	45.5%	202
Group C	42	12.4%	174	51.5%	122	36.1%	338
Total	141	20.2%	299	42.8%	258	37.0%	698

Turning now to the frequency with which the tourists visit the spa towns of their choice, a glance at Table 10 will reveal few significant differences between the behaviour of the three groups.

Table 10 Frequency of spa visits

	Once		2-5 times		6-10 times		> 10 times		Total
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No
Group A	30	19.0	58	36.7	18	11.4	52	32.9	158
Group B	36	17.8	66	32.7	52	25.7	48	23.8	202
Group C	60	17.6	107	31.5	64	18.8	109	32.1	340
Total	126	18.0	231	33.0	134	19.1	209	29.9	700

However, combining visit frequency with the type of services provided (hydrotherapy and/or wellness services) clearly reveals that, ultimately, the provision of wellness spa services plays a significant role in attracting new spa visitors (Table 11). Thus, one in three spa visitors who opt for modern wellness services were visiting the spa for the first time, a figure twice that for traditional spa visitors who usually opted for hydrotherapy services, while three in four spa visitors visiting a spa for the first time (the 36 individuals in Table 11) were young (between 20 and 50).

Rendering the above analysis still more specific by correlating visit frequency with how 'faithful' visitors are to one specific spa location (Table 12), we can see that visitor preferences differ significantly between groups. Although Group A appears relatively regular in its spa visits, it also displays the greatest degree of differentiation in its preferences with regard to the spas it visits. Specifically, almost half (45.6%) of Group A

have visited other spa towns in Greece and abroad, compared with the members of groups B and C, who are generally both frequent visitors to the spa town of their choice and completely faithful to that town, declaring it the only option they consider with regard to spa tourism.

Table 11 Frequency of spa visits by service selected

	Once		2-5 times		6-10 times		> 10 times		Total
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No
Wellness	36	33.0	29	26.6	14	12.8	30	27.5	109
Hydrotherapy	90	15.2	202	34.2	120	20.3	179	30.3	591
Total	126	18.0	231	33.0	134	19.1	209	29.9	700

$$(X^2 = 20.7 \text{ sig} = 0.000)$$

Table 12 Visits to other spa towns or locations

	Yes		No		Total
Group A	72	45.6%	86	54.4%	158
Group B	72	35.6%	130	64.4%	202
Group C	122	35.9%	218	64.1%	340
Total	266	38.0%	432	62.0%	700

$$(X^2 = 4.97 \text{ sig} = 0.080)$$

Now, turning to the extent to which spa visitors would like to engage in other (non-spa) activities during their stay, what emerges from Table 13 is a general lack of considerable interest in such activities. Thus, only Group A (approximately 68%) appears keen on engaging in other activities during their short stays in a spa town, contrasting with half or fewer of the visitors in groups B and C (50% and 44.7% respectively), for whom visiting the spa installations seems to constitute their sole activity despite their lengthy stays in the spa town. These results are entirely logical, however, when one considers that Group A consists of relatively young – and hence considerably more active – individuals than groups B and C, which consist of elderly individuals whose spa visits are motivated almost exclusively by the hydrotherapy they receive there, rather than by the search for new experiences.

Table 13 Choice of other (non-spa) activities

	Yes		No		Total
Group A	107	67.7%	51	32.3%	158
Group B	101	50.0%	101	50.0%	202
Group C	188	55.3%	152	44.7%	340
Total	396	56.6%	304	43.4%	700

Turning to those spa tourists who engage in additional non-spa activities, Table 14 reveals their most popular choices to have been: for Group A, sightseeing and seaside tourism; for groups B and C, sightseeing and pilgrimage / religious tourism. It can be therefore noted a general interest of all groups in activities which depart considerably, in spatial terms, from the bounds of the spa environment.

Table 14 Activities opted for by spa tourists who chose other, non-spa activities during their spa stay

	Percentage of spa visitors who engaged in other activities (by group)	Type of activities (as a % of the spa visitors who opted for other activities)				
		Sightseeing	Religious tourism	Seaside tourism	Cultural tourism	Other activities *
Group A	68%	67%	33%	48%	9%	9%
Group B	50%	63%	60%	25%	5%	5%
Group C	55%	66%	52%	30%	2%	3%
Total	57%	66%	50%	33%	5%	5%

* *gastronomic tourism, ecotourism, walking/rambling, fishing etc.*

However, the fact that the range of activities generally chosen by the spa tourists usually take place in the adjacent hinterland is explicable in the light of a further consideration: specifically, as Tables 15 and 16 reveal, spa tourists have little choice but to turn to the surrounding area for any additional activities they may care to engage in, since a large proportion of them appear to be barely or only moderately satisfied with both the natural and built environment of the spa town, and with the leisure services and facilities available there.

Thus, according to Tables 15 and 16, one in four (24.5%) of the visitors in Group A – the most active group – declare themselves to be dissatisfied or only mildly satisfied with the spa town’s natural and built environment, while one in two visitors (46.5%) declare themselves dissatisfied or only mildly satisfied with the available leisure services and facilities. Indeed, some 36% of the visitors in Group A refused to evaluate the spa town in this case, which can be interpreted as a comment on Greek spa towns’ inability to provide satisfactory and suitable leisure services to this group of (younger) visitors.

Table 15 Level of satisfactory with the spa town’s natural and built environment

	Dissatisfied		Fairly satisfied		Reasonably satisfied		Very satisfied		Total
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No
Group A	5	3.2	34	21.5	69	43.7	50	31.6	158
Group B	1	1.0	15	7.5	102	50.7	82	40.8	201
Group C	14	4.1	42	12.4	143	42.2	140	41.3	339
Total	21	3.0	91	13.0	314	45.0	272	39.0	698

Table 16 Level of satisfactory with leisure services and facilities

	Dissatisfied		Fairly satisfied		Reasonably satisfied		Very satisfied		Total
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No
Group A	11	10.9	36	35.6	37	36.6	17	16.8	101
Group B	5	5.0	23	23.0	46	46.0	26	26.0	100
Group C	10	5.5	47	26.0	82	45.3	42	23.2	181
Total	26	6.8	106	27.7	165	43.2	85	22.3	382

Turning to groups B and C, while they declare themselves considerably more satisfied than Group A, this is often due to their being suspicious about research and elderly people’s fear of expressing their real opinions. Moreover, elderly spa visitors are less likely to require anything more sophisticated –from a leisure point of view– than the requisite quality of the spa’s hydrotherapy services. However, there are two possible explanations for the degree of satisfaction they express with

the leisure services on offer and for the fact that one in two elderly spa visitors (48%) did not answer the relevant question: i) that, unlike their younger counterparts, the elderly are not yet at ease with the combining of recreational activities with the purely therapeutic nature of their stay, or ii) that there is a lack of recreational services and facilities in the spa towns adapted to the needs of the elderly and of low-income visitors.

Summarizing the above analysis, it emerges that Group A has the most potential for future growth for two main reasons: firstly, because, more than any other group, it represents young people who inevitably respond more rapidly to new trends in spa tourism, and secondly because one of the remaining two groups, both of which are representative of elderly people – specifically Group C, which consists of elderly urbanites – has begun to adopt behaviours and features predominant among Group A. It would thus seem reasonable to predict that the profiles and behaviours set to dominate Greek spa tourism in the years to come will largely be those currently associated with Group A.

Given that, one can conclude the following with regard to future trends in spa tourism:

- Spa tourism for therapy reasons will gradually lose ground to wellness spa services, though it will not disappear in the immediate future.
- Spa visitors will become less faithful to a specific spa town, while the search for new spa destinations will become a core feature of spa market demand.
- Average spa stays will grow gradually shorter.
- The steady fall in the average duration of spa visits, combined with a rise in the need for wellness services, will encourage spa visitors to choose spa towns as a year-round tourist destination. At the same time, it will lead them to choose hotel accommodation with on site spa services or one which is at least adjacent to spa facilities.
- The steady decline in the average duration of spa visits, combined with the search for new spas, will lead to even greater competition between spa destinations.
- Finally, change in spa visitors' requirements (from hydrotherapy to wellness services) means that the provision of reliable spa services will be no longer sufficient in itself, and will have to be combined with suitable alternative services and leisure activities.

CONCLUSIONS: NEW TRENDS IN SPATIAL ORGANIZATION AND PLANNING OF SPA TOURISM

Spa tourism is an activity with a long tradition which continues – and will continue – to attract a sizeable proportion of the population intent on benefiting from the beneficial properties of hot mineral springs.

Although spa tourism was oriented towards the provision of hydrotherapy services for prolonged periods in the past, this has changed in recent years. Spa tourism has expanded considerably to encompass more generally health-related services; in other words, tourists are now demanding different things from spa tourism destinations. This means, in terms of attractiveness, that a spa destination will have to adapt to the new developments and modify the planning of spa towns in order to cater for the needs and demands of both traditional older spa users and their younger visitors.

Given the above, if a spa is to keep up with these new developments and trends in spa tourism, its economic/business planning will need to focus on:

- the provision of facilities whose architectural creates an environment ideally suited to rejuvenation and well-being, which is to say an environment which keeps up with the contemporary wellness spa facilities which are constantly gaining ground as spas move away from the hospital-like aura which has dominated thus far;
- the provision of reliable spa tourism services and facilities oriented towards the provision of both hydrotherapy and wellness services which are in line with the new trends prominent in the sector and primarily geared towards the needs of the female spa visitors who will continue to dominate into the immediate future;
- expanding spa tourism's target group to include broader groups and categories of spa visitors, mostly younger individuals in the middle income bracket who will contribute even more vigorously to the local economy and to the development of the spa town and its surrounding area;
- on extending the spa season (year-round opening) to allow even more social, economic and age-groups to benefit from spa tourism all the year round, but also to keep the destination lively in every season.

At the same time, if a spa destination is to remain attractive and capable of responding to the needs of today', the spatial planning will also have to be adapted, focusing on:

- upgrading the built environment of the spa town and its surroundings by means of regeneration (Galdini 2007), pedestrianization, the imposition of building regulations etc., thereby allowing each spa destination both to retain its identity and individual attraction, and to allow it to compete with other similar destinations;
- the provision of high quality recreational services and facilities, but also leisure activities, to help the spa town remain competitive and thus both ensure greater numbers both of spa tourists and of repeat visitors;
- the provision of upgraded tourist services and facilities encompassing additional forms of tourism and alternative activities, thereby satisfying current visitors while simultaneously broadening the spa's target group as far as possible;
- the provision of adequate infrastructure and public service networks (e.g. rubbish collection, water supply etc.) to further upgrade the spa town's environment;
- dealing with traffic (one-way streets, pedestrianization, bicycle lanes etc.) combined with the provision of adequate parking spaces for motor vehicles, thus helping the destination to remain attractive, even during high season when visitor numbers are at their highest;
- highlighting cultural sights and sites in the vicinity (e.g. archaeological sites, monuments etc.), thereby helping to provide adequate alternative activities;
- facilitating access to the destination both through transportation and road networks.

In conclusion, what needs to be pinpointed is that a tourist activity – and especially a special form of tourism – can only remain attractive and competitive as a tourist product if its providers listen carefully to what their visitors want now and in the future and translate this knowledge into suitable spatial planning. In the case of Greece's spa towns, the planning for spa areas must aim to address a broader range of potential visitor profiles, and to increase the quantity and quality of the services and facilities it offers, as well as offering them over a longer season which may even extend to all four seasons. At the same time, spatial planning

should help draw attention to the destination's unique identity, to cater for the demands of visitors and, finally, to ensure the sustainability of the spa space and its waters, thereby keeping it attractive and allowing future generations to benefit from this unique form of tourism, as so many generations have done down the centuries.

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GRADUATES BETWEEN LEVEL OF THE TOURISM EDUCATION AND REQUIREMENTS OF THE TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY WORK FIELD

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This research aims to follow up the career progress of graduates of the faculty of tourism and hotels, Minia University. In addition, it seeks to investigate if there is a gap between the tourism education and the work market according to the experience of graduates. A survey was conducted of a convenient sample of graduates from the three different departments (tourist studies, hotel studies and tour guidance) of the faculty of tourism, Minia University. The results revealed that 76% of graduates are employed in general, and the majority (78%) among them is employed in the hospitality and tourism sector. Although a great number of graduates join the sector shortly after graduation, half of them faced difficulties in work which are represented in the most cases in the incompetence of foreign languages followed by the shortage of experience. More males than females intend to leave their work in the tourism field.

Keywords: graduate, tourism, hotels, education, human resources, training, turnover

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

According to Omran (2000) Egypt has always been one of the first countries which focuses on tourism education. It has introduced this branch of education since the beginning of sixties, and began to grow significantly in terms of number of tourism educational establishments.

One of these establishments is the faculty of Tourism and Hotels, Minia University. It was established based on the republican decree no. 419, issued in 27/12/1995. One of the main objectives of the faculty is to prepare graduates with high quality academic standards.



In the recent past, a large number of authors wrote articles about tourism management examining the issue of hospitality and tourism education (Christou, 1999).

Dolnicar (2001) stated that, few recommendations can be found on how a nation's education system could best possibly support the tourism industry.

A model proposed by Baume (1999) of tourism and hospitality education includes the following:

- The program should be capable of responding to industry needs at the same time as it produces graduates who can understand and manage the economic, social and cultural impacts of tourism on the residents of the host region.
- The program should balance the development of practical management skills with development of a more general understanding of various social science disciplines (Santich, 2004).

Atay and Yildirim (2010) asserted that, it is of great importance to train the students, who receive tourism education, in line with the needs of the industry.

This research is conducted to follow up the career progress of graduates of the faculty of tourism and hotels, Minia University by examining a number of issues like, employability; difficulties to get a job in the tourism and hospitality industry; their opinions about the academic courses; their motivations behind searching for a job in the hospitality and tourism field; the rate of turnover of graduates employed in the hospitality and tourism field. In addition, it seeks to investigate if there is a gap between the tourism education and the work market according to the experience of graduates.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Hospitality and Tourism Education

The main functions of the hospitality and tourism educational institutions

Stergiou *et al.* (2008) stated that education is not merely a matter of developing an optimum curriculum in some quasi-technical sense, but of the exercise of certain intellectual virtues.

Selvi and Demir (2007) found that there is a correlation between the education success level and career development of individuals,

individuals with high educational level makes progress within the organizational structure.

The benefit of tourism education and training is not only reluctant to graduate, but also to the industry itself (Omar *et al.*, 2006, Raj, 2008).

Any country competing in the international tourism market requires a well-developed tourism training and education strategy. The aim of such training strategy should provide an efficient and well-skilled workforce for the tourism industry (Mayaka and Akama, 2007, George, 2007).

Weak points in the tourism educational system and their application on the faculty of tourism and hotels, Minia University

Educational institutions are accused to provide tourism education and training being predominantly industry driven (or employability – driven) with narrow perspectives of either professionalism (i.e. responding to industry requirement for a skilled workforce) or service quality (i.e. meeting the tourists expectations) (Zagonari, 2008).

Being a graduate from the Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, the experience that the student gained whilst studying did not prepare him for the working environment. (Kelley-Patterson, and George, 2001).

Dolnicar (2001) claimed that the tourism field is ill-prepared to be the world's number one industry because it has relatively few innovative thinkers.

Purcell and Quinn (1996) argued that a mismatch between the skills and expectations of potential and actual recruits to the industry and trainee management opportunities offered is one of the key reasons of relatively poor retention rates of graduates in the industry.

Mayaka and Akama, (2007) argued that education in tourism is limited or lacking altogether in most of educational institutions.

1) Lack of practical training

Baum and Esichaikual (1998) stated that there is an awareness of the need for tourism education, there is a major problem represented in the lack of trained staff which is caused by the rapid expansion in the size of the tourism industry at a time when education and training are not sufficiently developed to satisfy the demand.

Zahran and Abdul Qader (2006) referred that institutional tourism education in most world countries doesn't provide the labour market with qualified graduates.

As for the points of weakness related to training in our case study, one could observe that there are many problems which are summarized in the following points:

- There is no system to follow-up the students during the summer training period (Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit, 2007 / 2008c). Therefore; the graduates generally lack the basic skills qualifying them to work in the field of tourism and hotels (Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit a, 2008a).
- The educational tourism office which was established for the goal of training students in the tourism studies department on computer reservations systems is closed and not equipped; in addition, there is not qualified staff to manage it (Source: Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit, 2008a).
- Although there are languages laboratories which are well-equipped, they are not exploited at all (Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit, 2008).
- The size of the Kitchen is not compatible with the number of students and therefore (Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit, 2007 / 2008).

2) The problem of tourism educators

Christou, (1999) explained that the responsibility of the hospitality educators is to combine industry priorities with student needs and significant contributions to research into socially responsive programmes of study.

Analoui (1995) argued that recently established teaching and learning development units in universities should adopt more realistic approach to promote high teaching standards. Since teaching constitutes only one aspect of teachers', lecturers' and trainers' activities to manage learning situations (Weheba, and Abd El Kader, 2007).

Mayaka and Akama (2007) stated that a good proportion of tourism educators are often not specialists, but are usually attracted from other fields of study which are perceived to be linked to tourism such as geography and sociology.

According to Karp and Yoels (1976), educational system is the biggest culprit for making students to think that instructors are uncrowned experts and that the student is listened passively (George, 2007).

As for the points of weakness related to educators in our case study, one can observe that there are many problems which are summarized in the following points:

- There is no system or program for the development of scientific skills of the staff members of the faculty.
- The performance of the lecturers who come from other different faculties and who are not specialized in the tourism and hospitality education is of poor quality.
- The numbers of faculty's staff members are not compatible with the numbers of students (Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit, 2008a).
- Many of the lecturers belong to other different disciplines not related to tourism and hospitality.
- The performance of lecturers of foreign language coming from the faculty of Alsun is very bad as they rarely come to give their lectures and in most cases they send their assistants to do their mission (Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit, 2007d).
- The lack of fund for scientific research carried out by staff members of the faculty, neither by the University nor by external institutions (Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit, 2008a).

3) Tourism academic courses

Raj (2008) stated that tourism-related degree programmes have been slow to acquire recognition as a truly academic discipline. This is particularly the case in countries, including developing countries.

Hospitality research indicates that students who participate in experiential education are better prepared for employment. Recruiters, too, view the experiential component as a valuable tool for students to preview the industry and gain leadership (Dickerson, 2009).

In terms of the actual content of tourism courses, there is a continued debate about what should be taught and which disciplines should underpin the content of tourism studies (Riley et al., 2002).

The quality of curricula can be further enhanced by what Umbreit (1992) described as six (major contents areas): leadership, human resources management, services marketing, financial analysis, total quality management, and communication skills (Christou, 1999).

Mayaka and Akama (2007) claimed that tourism studies are often tagged to unrelated departments and unconnected courses, and are housed in different fields including geography, sociology.

Regarding the points of weakness related to tourism academic courses in our case study, one could observe that there are many problems which are summarized in the following points:

- Some of the curricula do not cover the needs of the labour market.
- There are no clear academic standards, according to which the different programmes at the faculty are developed.
- Some of the contents of the curricula do not comply with their titles (Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit, 2008a).
- There are similarities in the contents of some curriculum, such as the management of tourist establishments, the principles of the management, management and organizational behaviour in tourism and human resource management in tourism) (Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit, 2007 / 2008c).
- The large size of some of the curricula, compared to the limited time and number of lectures per term (Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit, 2007d).
- Some curricula do not serve the program and must be cancelled (Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit, 2007e).
- There is no a committee to measure or evaluate ILOS (Quality Assurance and accreditation Unit, 2008 a).

Level of tourist graduates and work market

In tourism enterprises, quality of service is directly related to employees' performance. In its turn, employees' performance is a function of their skills and motivation. Therefore, successful tourism cannot be developed without the availability of qualified and motivated employees (Pizam, 1999).

Christou (1999) indicated that the starting point to increase the breadth and quality of hospitality management programs, curricula can be based on the pursuit of the continuous development of students' skills.

Raj (2008) asserted on the need for higher academic skills and increasing technological know-how to respond to the demands of this increasingly technology-driven world. There is also a need for more broad-based training, which helps develop a variety of skills.

According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2001) there are clearly two sets of skills that will become increasingly important (i.e., the ability to speak foreign languages and technology skills).

The central issue is one of matching the skills abilities and expectations of the graduate with the demands, requirements and expectations of first destination employer (Lee-Ross, 1999).

According to Richardson (2008) the tourism and hospitality industry worldwide has been confronted with the problem of attracting and retaining quality employees which has led to a shortage of skilled personnel to staff the ever-growing number of tourism and hospitality business.

According to Raj (2008) tourism education has to establish closer links with the industry in order to forecast the demand for specialized labour force and to develop special programmes based on these forecasts.

Dolnicar (2001) confirmed on the absolute necessity to strengthen the co-operation between tourism industry and educational organizations.

Problem of turnover of employees

Turnover is a seemingly age-of characteristic challenge of the hospitality industry (Dickerson, 2009).

Lundberg et al., (2009) revealed that one major characteristic of employment in the hospitality and tourism is its seasonal and part-time nature, which can result in seasonal employment.

Richardson (2008) Stated that there are many different reasons which could lead to this behaviour are low job satisfaction, poor employment conditions and absence of motivating factors resulting in high staff turnover and wastage of trained and experienced personnel.

Job satisfaction is employee's general attitude toward their jobs. A number of studies have shown that new employees' expectations of the job itself, whether met or unmet, influence their subsequent job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is found to be a significant predictor or organizational commitment and an important factor for turnover intentions among employees (Lam et al., 2002).

The image of tourism and hospitality is one that has two sides. On one side, the industry is seen as glamorous one; while on the other it is deemed as being one of low skill, low status and low pay. So, leads to dissatisfaction and lack of motivation and reduce workforce efficiency (Richardson, 2008; Lundberg et al, 2009; Selvi and Demir, 2007).

Previous studies have shown that certain personal job-related factors have crucial impacts on employee turnover and organizational commitment and that the social factor or subjective norm influences one's behavioural intentions (Lam et al, 2002; Richardson, 2008; Selvi and Demir, 2007).

Long working hours, shift duties and handling demanding and difficult customers in hotels has become taken for granted phenomenon in the hospitality industry. This stress creates a demand on an individual to

make a decision on the balance between work and family (Wong and Ko, 2009).

When employees leave an organization, either voluntarily or involuntarily, the impact can be substantial. Turnover has been directly linked to ever rising labour costs, which include not only the actual salary paid to new competent employees but also the costs of attracting and retaining them (Cho et al., 2008).

Stalcup and Pearson, (2001) clarified that high turnover can lead to serious service problems that can adversely affect the reputation and competitive position of service-oriented businesses such as hotels.

METHODOLOGY

This research is conducted to follow up the career progress of graduates of the faculty of tourism and hotel belonging to the three departments: tourist studies, hotel studies, tour guidance. In addition, it seeks to investigate if there is a gap between the tourism education and the work market according to the experience of graduates.

A survey was conducted of a convenient sample of graduates from the three different departments. The Sample was obtained from the data available in the office of graduates' affaires. All investigated graduates had at least very good notes.

Letters were sent to graduates according to their addresses obtained from the office of graduates' affaires, besides the direct interviews with graduates who frequented the faculty during the period (March, August, 2008). The percent of returned questionnaire of the total letters send was about 25 percent. Among 134 received questionnaires, only 121 questionnaires were valid and complete. Data extracted have been tabulated and analyzed using SPSS 11.0 statistical package. Correlation tests of the package were applied.

Questions of study

- 1) Does the faculty of tourism and hotels, Minia University prepare well its graduates to work in the tourism and hospitality field?
- 2) What are the difficulties facing graduates to work in the hospitality and tourism sector?
- 3) What are the main reasons leading to get a job easily in the hospitality and the tourism field?
- 4) What are the most important motivations to work in the hospitality and tourism sector?

- 5) What is the level of academic courses according to the professional experience of graduates?
- 6) What is the perception of graduates of their professional efficiency?
- 7) What are the main reasons leading to the turnover of employees in the hospitality and tourism field?

Hypothesizes

1. There is no statistically significant correlation between the three departments (tourist studies, hotel studies and tour guidance) and the field of work in the hospitality and tourism sector.
2. There is no statistically significant correlation between the different fields of work in the tourism and hospitality industry and the probability to leave work.
3. There is no statistically significant correlation between employees according to sex and the probability to leave work in the hospitality and tourism field.

RESULTS

The results revealed that more males (58%) than females (42%) have answered the questionnaire. Regarding age, 64% graduates are between 22-24 years old. Regarding to the academic departments, 43% of them belong to the tour guidance department, followed by 35% from the tourist studies department and 22% from the hotel studies department. It is revealed that 76% of graduates are employed in general, and the majority (78%) among them is employed in the hospitality in the hospitality and tourism sector.

Tables 1 Respondents according to Job Situation

Job Situation		
Employed	92	76
Unemployed	29	24
Total	121	
Numbers of Graduates who work actually in the field of tourism	72	78 from all employees

It is revealed that only 20 of the graduates work in another field rather than the hospitality and tourism field. These are distributed between salesmen, teachers, and coordinators in societies and in the information technology.

Table 2 Respondents according to Field of work

	Number	Percent
Number of graduates who work in other fields	20	
Field of work		
Teacher	3	15
salesman	6	30
Employee in governmental sector	5	25
Co-coordinator in a society	4	20
Superior studies student	1	5
In a cyber net	1	5
Total	20	100

Regarding their perception of the usefulness of academic courses to their non-tourist work, it was found that academic courses are useful to some extent and useful in the most cases. In fact, this result sheds light on the courses of business administration, marketing, sales promotion, and computer sciences which could be one of the main reasons for working in other fields rather than the tourism field.

Table 3 Respondents according to their perception of the usefulness of academic courses

How academic courses are useful Regarding their actual work		
Very not useful at all	3	15
Very not useful	3	15
useful to some extent	8	40
Useful	5	25
Very Useful	1	5
Total	20	100

As for investigating their intentions to try to search for a job in the hospitality and tourism sector, it seems that the majority (61%) of them (graduates either not working in the tourist sector or unemployed) who

answered the concerned question applied for jobs in the hospitality and tourism field.

Table 4 Respondents according to Job applications in the tourism and hospitality field

Job application for graduates either working in the non-tourist sector or unemployed		
Yes	30	61
No	19	39
Total	49	100
Number of times of tourist Job application		
Once	10	33
Twice	9	30
Three times	3	10
Four times	1	3
More than four times	7	23
Total	30	100
Reasons for the refusal of tourist and hospitality Employers		
Shortage of Experience	13	
Weak performance during the interview	3	
Weakness of academic results	-	
Incompetence in foreign languages skills	13	
Incompetence in Information technologies	3	
Other reasons	18	

Regarding the reasons for the refusal of hospitality and tourism employers of the applications of the unlucky graduates, the result revealed that other reasons not declared from the graduates came on the top of the list of reasons of refusal followed by the problems concerning to the incompetence in foreign languages.

According to tables 5, 6, 7 below nearly 86 percent got a job in the hospitality and tourism industry in the period between less than six months and one year.

Regarding the field of work, it seems that the results are very real as working in the hospitality industry came first with a percent of 40% of the total answers followed by working in others sectors with 30%.

Although a great number of graduates join the sector shortly after graduation, half of them faced difficulties in work which are represented in the most cases in the incompetence of foreign languages followed by the shortage of experience.

Tables 5.6.7 Descriptive statistics of respondents who obtained a job in the Tourism and hospitality industry

Table 5 Respondents according to the period taken from the graduation till Work and the field of work

	Number	Percent
The period taken from the graduation till getting work		
Less than six months	30	42
From six to one year	32	44
From one year to one year and half	3	4
From one year and half to two years	3	4
More than two years	4	6
Total	72	100
Field of Work		
Hotel	29	40
Travel agency	8	11
Tourist guidance	14	19
Other (Bazaar, Tourist organization , ETC)	21	30
Total	72	100

Tables 6 Respondents according to Job description

Job description	
Tour guide	14
Tour-Leader	7
Tourist programs organizer	1
Receptionist	21
Waiter, Captain and chef	6
Housekeeping	1
Steward	1
Salesman in a bazaar	7
Employee at the Egyptian general authority for promoting tourism	6
A public relation employee at a company of tourist development	1

Employee at the public administration of Tourism, at Minia	1
Demonstrator at the faculty of tourism and hotels	5
Teacher in hotel school	1
Total	72

Tables 7 Respondents according to difficulties to get a job in the tourism and hospitality field

Difficulties in obtaining a job in the tourism and hospitality field		
Yes	36	50
No	36	50
Total	72	100
Nature of the difficulties		
Mediation	11	
Lack of experience	21	
Incompetence in foreign languages	25	
Financial costs to prepare myself after graduation (private courses in foreign languages, information technologies)	1	
Appearance	1	
Courtesy	1	
Problem of contracts with employers in the reason of new laws	1	
Discrimination between graduates in terms of faculties	1	
Difficulty to enter in certain tourist zones for security reasons	1	
Inexistence of confidence in recent graduates	2	

The table below shows the main reasons for getting a job in the hospitality and tourism industry. The Punctuality was perceived as the most important skill required to join the tourist work market, followed by speaking more than one foreign language. Academic results were

perceived as the most not very important to get a job in the hospitality and tourism industry.

Table 8 The main reasons for getting a job in the tourism and hospitality industry according to employees in the hospitality and tourism field

Reasons	Very unimportant	Unimportant	Important to what extent	Important	Very important
Academic results	10	11	23	18	9
The ability to persuade	1	1	4	19	47
The spirit of initiative	2	4	12	24	30
Enthusiasm	-	2	18	27	25
Desire to learn	-	4	13	28	27
Performance during the interview	2		14	24	32
Speaking many foreign languages	-	1	10	12	49
Communication skills	-	1	4	20	47
Punctuality	-	-	6	14	52
Awareness of the nature of work in the tourism field	1	3	12	19	37
Competence in information technologies	-	5	14	28	25

As shown, the table below reveals that value for money is perceived as the most important reason for working in the hospitality and tourism fields.

Concerning the opinions of tourist graduates about academic courses regarding their professional experience. It is revealed that 50% of the graduates interviewed perceive them as compatible with the tourism work market to some extent, followed by 17% who perceive them as not compatible with the tourism work market. Only (10%) sees them as very compatible with the tourism work market.

Regarding the perception of tourist graduates of the level of their professional and practical efficiency after graduation directly. It seems

that the majority of them perceive their level as medium (58%) followed by (25%) who perceived their level as high.

It is revealed that more males (28) than females (2) intend to leave their work in the tourism field.

It seems that half of employees in the hospitality industry tend to leave the sector.

Table 9 The main motivations for working in the tourism or hospitality field

	Very not important	Not important	Important to what extent	Important	Very important
Value for money	2	2	5	23	40
One of the family members works in the tourism field	16	27	12	8	9
One of my friends works in the tourism field	8	18	23	14	9
I think that I will get a good position in this field in the future	2	12	12	27	19
There are no other jobs which are suitable to my abilities	16	19	13	12	8
The reputation of the travel agency or the hotel	3	5	6	27	31
A chance to recognize other people belonging to different nationalities	4	6	18	20	24
Just like to work in the tourism field	6	8	12	15	32

Regarding the main reasons for the turnover of employees in the hospitality and tourism field, the results revealed that the vulnerability of the tourism activity to crises (35.5%), followed by other reasons (33.5%) (Religious and moral reasons which could make them to search for other jobs in other fields, the desire to travel abroad and the unbalance between home and work life); the seasonality of tourism activity (24%) and the difficulty of work conditions (7%).

Regarding graduates working in the field of tour guidance, it seems that they are satisfied with their job as the majority of them tend to keep them.

Hypothesis no. 1: There is no statistically significant correlation between the three Departments and field of work in the hospitality and tourism sector

The table below shows the there is a weak correlation (.401) between department and field of work in the tourism sector. As one commented before that about half of the graduates work in the hospitality sector either they belong to the hotel studies department or to the departments of: tour guidance and tourist studies.

One could say that there a need to join the tourist studies department to the hotel studies department in a one mixed department in order to face to requirements of the tourism work market which tends to reduce the role of travel agencies. So, a section for tourist studies at our faculty is not practical from the professional viewpoint.

Table 10 The correlation between the three departments department and field of work in the hospitality and tourism sector

	Field of work
Department (Pearson correlation)	.401

Correlation is significant at the 0.01

Hypothesis no. 2: There is no statistically significant correlation between the different fields of work in the tourism and hospitality industry and the turnover rate.

The table below shows the there is a good correlation (.704) between the field of work and the turnover rate. As it was observed that about half of graduated interviewed working in the hospitality sector industry tends to leave their work.

Table 11 The correlation between field of work industry and the turnover rate in the hospitality and tourism field

	The probability to leave work
Field of work (Pearson correlation)	.704

Correlation is significant at the 0.01

Hypothesis no. 3: There is no statistically significant correlation between employees according to sex the probability to leave work in the hospitality and tourism field

It seems that there is no significant correlation (-, 359) between males and females and the turnover rate. It is revealed that more males than females intend to leave their work in the tourism and hospitality field.

Table 12 The correlation between employees according to sex and the probability to leave work in the hospitality and tourism field

	Turnover of Employees in the hospitality and tourism sector
Sex (Pearson correlation)	-,359

Correlation is significant at the 0. 01

DISCUSSION

Incompetence in foreign languages represents one of the main obstacles which could face the graduate to work in the hospitality and tourism field. In fact, the administration of the faculty has to revise the curricula of foreign languages and the performance of lecturers who are perceived as they don't do their work well.

Thus, designing courses to teach foreign languages not only the familiar ones like, English, French, German, but also teaching the other needed ones like, the Russian, Japanese and others with moderate prices, became an urgent necessity for the existence of its graduates in the work market. One is not surprised that the academic courses were perceived as null. Really, this reflects that the professional skills are considered as more important than the theoretical study which in the most cases is not compatible with the work market.

Lack of experience represents a great problem for our graduates. one could say that, it seems that there is a problem in practical training courses which are given in most cases particularly by staff that don't have a professional background and this problem is clear in the tourist studies department which doesn't have an educational tourism office.

The majority of graduates interviewed got jobs in the hospitality and tourism field quickly. This is considered as a good sign that our graduates join the work market strongly. This result matches with the results of

precedent studies which indicate that graduates in this sector of the economy get their jobs as quickly as possible.

Working in a travel agency came in the back of the list of fields of work. This is due to the problems to which travel agencies are exposed as a results of the growing tendency to reduce the role of the intermediary between the suppliers and consumers because of the use of internet, meaning that the direct contact between them is in progress in addition to the reduction of the value of the commission which represents one of the most important sources of income of the travel agencies.

Previous research has demonstrated that trying to segment the tourism industry in terms of employment sector and occupations is not an easy task (Airey & Nightingale, 1981).

According to Riley et al. (2002) the division of education into tourism and hospitality crudely represents the two major categories of jobs in the industry but it is not, and cannot be comprehensive.

McKercher et al. (1999) explained that tourism is an amorphous industry that is an amalgam of a diverse array of organizations. An almost limitless number of job opportunities exist for graduates. Providers of tourism management programs must be aware of that their students will scatter in all directions upon graduation

The punctuality was perceived as the most important skill required to join the tourist work market, followed by speaking more than one foreign language. Academic results were perceived as the most not very important to get a job in the hospitality and tourism industry.

As with previous recruitment issues in the sector, particularly surrounding students and young people, there is a large degree of confusion about what employees says they want, what they set out to recruit and who they actually end up employing (Mansfield and luck, not found)

Firms are to be intrinsically inclined to choose non-graduated employees, in particular the industry seeks personal skills such as communication, adaptability, and leadership and foreign language ability, as well as they accuse educational institutions of providing broad-based, generic knowledge linked with the learning of other disciplines (e.g., business studies and economics) and moulding tourism graduates with wrong qualifications (Zagonari, 2008).

Value for money is perceived as the most important reason for working in the hospitality and tourism fields.

Concerning the opinions of tourist graduates about academic courses with regard to their professional experience. It is revealed that 50% of the graduates interviewed perceive them as compatible with the tourism work

market to some extent, followed by 17% who perceive them as not compatible with the tourism work market. Only (10%) sees them as very compatible with the tourism work market.

Regarding the perception of tourist graduates about the level of their professional and practical efficiency after graduation directly. It seems that the majority of them perceive their level as medium followed by who perceived their level as high. In fact this result is good for the administration of the faculty and reveals that there is an effort exerted but needs to continue in order to have a very good graduate in the near future not only according to academic results but also according to the practical and professional experience. In fact, this comes through the effectiveness of practical training which needs to be reconsidered.

It is revealed that more males than females intend to leave their work in the tourism field.

In fact, this result could make us think that females are more motivated than males, although the difficult work conditions in the hospitality and tourism sector. One could say that females may obtain their jobs in the field with difficulty. So keeping their jobs is logical. Regarding males, one could say that they tend to search more for change.

It is revealed that a large percent of graduates working in the tourism and hospitality industry think not to continue in that field. This result conforms to the precedent researches that the hospitality sector is characterized by a high rate of turnover. In fact, this comes in most cases because of the work conditions which are perceived to be difficult, as employees work for long hours, inflexible times.

Guest and Conway (1998) suggest that graduates in HT sectors may experience difficulties with developing positive psychological contracts. In that many are likely to work for organizations which require employees to work relatively long hours, at times which make it difficult to find a good balance between home and work life and where pay may be lower than in other sectors (Kelly - Patterson and George, 2001).

Regarding graduates working in the field of tour guidance, it seems that they are satisfied with their job as the majority of them tend to keep them. One could say that tour guidance is a more specialized work which requires certain conditions like the competence of foreign language, communication skills. In general, regarding Egypt, in order to practise the tour guidance, there are strict procedures to get the license from the Egyptian ministry of tourism.

It seems that there is a weak correlation between the three departments (tourist studies, hotel studies and tourist guidance) and the fields of work in the tourism sector. About half of the graduates work in

the hospitality sector either they belong to the hotel studies department or to the departments of: tour guidance and tourist studies.

There is significant correlation between fields of work and turnover rate of employees. As it was observed that about half of graduated interviewed working in the hospitality sector industry tends to leave their work.

It seems that there is no significant correlation between employees according to sex and the turnover rate in the hospitality and tourism industry. It is revealed that more males than females intend to leave their work in the tourism and hospitality field.

Finally, one could say that there are a number of weaknesses, in the tourism education represented in our case study. So, one deduce that there is a gap between it and the work market.

There is an absolute necessity to strengthen the cooperation between tourism industry and educational organizations and the permanent effort to provide a well qualified graduate compatible with the work market. To sum it up: the tourism education system has to be monitored permanently in order to stay up to date and both motivate and enable young people to cope with tomorrows challenges of the tourism industry.

Although this research focused on the faculty of tourism and hotels, other tourism educational establishments could learn from its point of weakness.

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FINANCIALS MENU AT EUROPEAN RESTAURANTS

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This paper highlights the main profiles of SME's (small and medium enterprises) financial structures, focusing particularly on hospitality and tourism. A sample of European hotels and restaurants is empirically investigated. Financial and accounting statements are analysed through comparisons between several European countries. Tourism is known to experience two different management issues: real estate and industry-specific management. Although they are very similar, tourism property management is strongly related to seasonality. The business cycle impact on financial structure is significant, and so does the effect on risk. Therefore, this research also investigates both short and long-term financing. The former needs specific control of cash inflows and outflows. It is necessary to deal with specific financial needs to set up specialized financing facilities. Seasonality also impacts on the financing cycle. Operation management is smoothed during overloaded periods by using various strategies. Additionally, cash flow management benefits from better financial forecasts.

Keywords: *European tourism sector, financial structure, liquidity ratio, corporate finance, small medium enterprises*

JEL Classification: M1, G3, L83

INTRODUCTION

The present study investigates the financial structure of the tourism industry across different European countries. Many studies have been published regarding SMEs, especially in Europe, and numerous innovative research programs have been produced to permit a methodical development. However, despite the fact that tourism companies have an important role in many European countries, few analytical studies have explored the financial structure of these companies.



The fundamental idea that justifies this research starts from the need to understand the financial structure of tourism companies with regard to their assets and liabilities. The first part requires a comparison with other SMEs in order to understand similarities and differences in the financial structures. Other contributions on SMEs in Europe are linked to those described by Wagenvoort (2003).

Moreover, many specific contributions on French and Italian SMEs are those provided by Hommel and Schneider (2003), which are used as a term of comparison for the tourism industry. Considering Greece and Italy, we find a cost analysis investigation in Pavlatos and Paggios (2007) and Marino (2010). Similarly, analysis are conducted for Spain, (Such Devesa et al 2009).

In the second place, the analysis involves only tourism companies belonging to various European countries grouped into two main areas (EU¹ area and NEW EU a.k.a. Eastern European countries) and among the EU comparing Belgium, France, Greece, Italy, Spain, Sweden, and United Kingdom. This selection was made considering the sample specificity of companies extracted from AMADEUS database. Finally, a simple model describes the effects of country and relevant balance sheet entries on long-term debt.

SMES AND TOURISM INDUSTRY IN EUROPE

Financial overview

Using AMADEUS datasetⁱⁱ we select ‘Hotel and restaurants’ firms as a proxy of tourism companies. Starting with a comparison between H&Rs and all European companies (All_C) used in (Wagenvoort, 2003), we move to a specific analysis for H&Rs. Note that, for sake of conciseness, we identify the sample of firms used in Wagenvoort (2003) with the symbol All_C. To compare the capital structure of the firms, and for homogeneity reasons toward previous SMEs studies, we group European Hotel and Restaurants (H&Rs) into several classes (by size, by area, country, etc...).

Table 1 describes the structure of two samples considered in this section: the first includes all companies All_C used in Wagenvoort (2003) and the second represents the tourism industry (H&Rs). In the latter case, we change the last class upper limit from 5000 to 1000 employees. Hotel and restaurants with more than 1000 employees can be reasonably defined as very large companies. The purpose is to compare diverse industries and capital structure profiles. Although the emphasis is on the liabilities side,

it is also remarkable to consider the asset structure of firms with different dimensions. The number of employees is assumed as a proxy of company size. The same analysis is performed for H&Rs.

Table 1 Distribution of firm observations per size class

Hotel & restaurants H&Rs	XS	S	M	L	XL	Total
Number of employees	< 10	11-50	51-250	251-1000	>1000	
Number of firm observations	130	244	2383	1716	110	4583
Percentage of total observations	2,84%	5,32%	52,00%	37,44%	2,40%	100%

All companies All_C	XS	S	M	L	XL	Total
Number of employees	< 10	11-50	51-250	251-5000	>5000	
Number of firm observations	9152	84800	73359	25582	1315	194208
Percentage of total observations	4,71%	43,66%	37,77%	13,17%	0,68%	100%

In short, the asset side describes how the company runs its own operations and gives a synthetic overview of the specific business model. If there are important differences in the asset side, it is reasonable to expect divergences in liabilities as well.

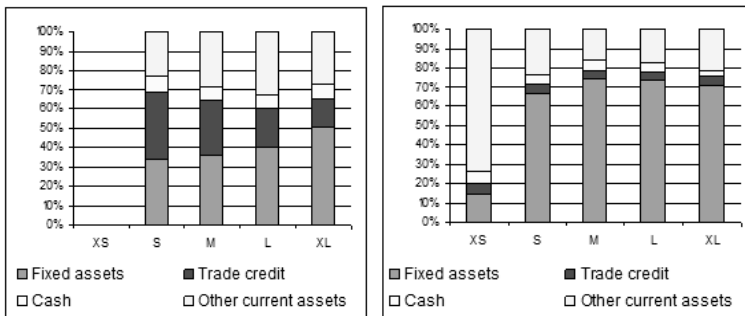
Assets are grouped into four categories: fixed assets, trade credit, other current assets, and cash. Fixed assets include tangible assets (e.g. machinery and buildings), intangible assets (e.g. patents, royalties), and other fixed assets such as investments in subsidiaries. Trade credit on the assets side represents a bill customers owe to the company. Cash includes cash equivalents such as bank accounts and liquid securities. Other current assets include stocks as an important component.

Figures 1 and 2 show differences in asset entries across size classes. All companies (All_C) and Hotel & Restaurants (H&Rs) exhibit very peculiar asset structures.

Table 2 Asset structure by size class, in %:
All companies vs. Hotel & Restaurants

All companies All_C	XS	S	M	L	XL
Fixed assets	- ⁱⁱⁱ	34%	34%	40%	50%
Trade credit	-	35%	28%	20%	15%
Cash	-	9%	7%	7%	8%
Other current assets	-	23%	29%	33%	27%
Hotel & Restaurants H&Rs					
Fixed assets	15%	66%	74%	73%	70%
Trade credit	5%	5%	5%	5%	5%
Cash	7%	6%	5%	5%	4%
Other current assets	74%	23%	16%	17%	22%

Figure 1-2 Asset structure by size, in %: All companies (Figure 1)
vs. Hotel & Restaurants (Figure 2)



In Figure 1, All_C, fixed assets are closely related to the number of employees (larger firms have a larger percentage of fixed assets). Fixed assets in small enterprises account for only one third of total assets, whereas large firms have fixed assets of more than 50%.

This is not the case for H&Rs: the proportion of fixed assets is not relatively monotonic to the firm size. There is a big gap between the very small enterprises (XS) and the larger ones. Buildings are often not owned by the very small firms and this can explain why the fixed assets are less than 15% of total assets. On the other hand, H&Rs with more than ten employees have fixed assets steady at 70%. It is possible to conjecture that the assets to employees ratio is stable for these H&Rs.

Trade credit, or receivables, is substantially lower for large firms than SMEs. The range is 15% - 35%, whereas for the H&Rs it is much lower, at 5% for all size classes. The considerable differences in receivables depend on the core business of the particular sort of service industry. Receivables (trade credit) and payables (trade debt) play a substantially different role between all industries and tourism (Hotel & Restaurants). In the next sections we analyse trade credit, trade debt and liquidity ratio.

Other current assets^{iv} are relevant for XS H&R companies. The inventory plays a significant function and, considering the low percentage of fixed assets, these firms are strongly based on human capital. With an increase in employee numbers, other current assets sharply decline from 73% (XS H&Rs) to 23% (S H&Rs). There is evidence that between those two firm sizes there is a significant difference in business structures. The complexity of the business certainly increases where the fixed assets level (plants, buildings, and machineries) is strongly significant.

In the case of small H&Rs, other current assets assume value greater than 70%. Larger H&Rs use this type of resource to deal with the flexibility required to pledge an effective real-time service. Sometimes cash may not be the fastest 'tool' to respond to unexpected peaks in demand or when specific productive inputs are required. For example, the inventory is a good flexibility source to cope with seasonality and unpredictable shortages.

The percentage of cash is higher for All_C than for H&Rs. Many companies report financial information only once a year. Therefore annual balance sheets are not able to completely recognize seasonality effects in the business, and in particular in the H&R industry. In any case, smaller firms show 6.8% of cash in total assets. The cash range for All_C is 4% - 7% whereas H&Rs have the highest level of cash (range 7% - 9%). The relatively high amount of cash (Figure 2) allows a necessary elasticity in operations and facilitates treasury management. In particular, this effect is crucial when the firm experiences a strong constraint in short-term funding.

In practice, the asset structure impacts on the liability side of financial statements^v. The fiscal benefit of debt is usually recognized in theory and in practice. A high percentage of fixed assets, in particular tangible assets, increases the debt capacity of the firms because of a large presence of collaterals. In other words, debt can provide a tax shield that increases the overall value of the firm. At the same time, the cost of financial distress can be lowered using fixed assets as collaterals as well.

Liabilities components are grouped into four wide classes: equity, financial debt, trade debt and other liabilities. Fixed assets also have an important and precise impact on the liabilities structure. Many studies assert a strong equivalence between fixed assets and debt levels.

However, that is not the case for All_Cs and H&Rs: large firms do not carry more debt than others (see Table 3 and Figures 3-4). The total debt^{vi} does not increase at the same rate of fixed assets for All_C classes. In H&R, it is more plausible as a consequence of a steady level of fixed assets across firm size (except for the XS class).

Table 3 Liabilities structure by size class, in %: All companies vs. Hotel & Restaurants

All companies All_C	XS	S	M	L	XL
Shareholders funds	-	36%	37%	38%	37%
Financial debt	-	26%	26%	28%	19%
Trade debt	-	22%	19%	14%	11%
Other liabilities	-	16%	19%	21%	22%

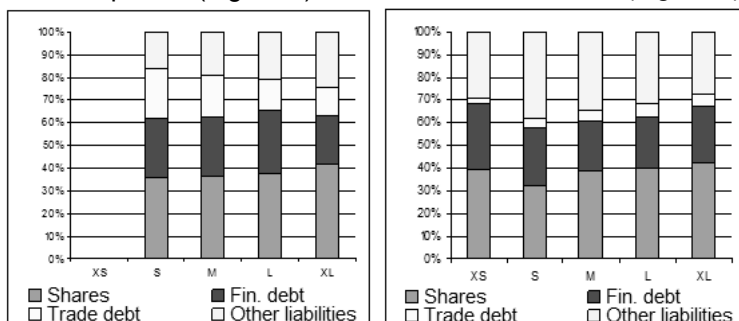
Hotel & Restaurants	XS	S	M	L	XL
Shareholders funds	40%	32%	39%	40%	42%
Financial debt	29%	25%	22%	22%	25%
Trade debt	2%	4%	4%	6%	5%
Other liabilities	30%	38%	35%	32%	28%

The smallest H&Rs require the highest proportion of financial debt, comparable to very large companies, although the smallest often have a single owner. In fact, the largest companies are able to raise equity from

different shareholders. In contrast, the smallest H&Rs often have a single owner who provides the whole equity.

“Other liabilities” is an entry used by companies to group together current liabilities that are not assigned to common liabilities such as debt obligations or account payables. Apart from XS H&Rs, they increase along All_C classes and decrease in H&Rs.

Figure 3-4 Liabilities structure by size, in%:
 All Companies (Figure 1)^{vii} vs. Hotel & Restaurants (Figure 2)



Extra-small H&Rs hold the highest total equity and financial debt (69% = 40% plus 29%). Bank financing and owner’s funds are the most relevant items in liabilities. In many cases they are bank dependent firms or, from a different point of view, the owner uses his personal wealth as firm obligation collaterals.

Liquidity

In this section we analyse how firms deal with the liquidity issue using trade credit, cash, and trade debt. Several studies argue that firms use trade debt for financing motives, while other explanations rely on the transaction motivation.

In the first case, the company has a list of funds sources sorted by effective costs. Retained earnings represent the cheapest source of financing. Next, the management explores other more costly sources of funds. In the long run, trade debt is considered as the most expensive way to acquire funds. Consistently with this view, firms with a high percentage of trade debt could have experienced significant financial constraints.

In the samples considered, and in clear accordance with the financing decisions, the amount of their trade debt decreases when the size of All_C rises. Small firms rely on abundant use of this 'last resort' debt, such as delayed payments to suppliers.

H&Rs trade debt does not confirm the expected trend. In any case, the percentage of trade debt is negligible (less than 6%) and it signals that these firms have a weak dependency on suppliers' financing source.

In Figure 1, L and XL firms use a decreasing amount of trade credit and this could be explained by the pressure of larger firms on market share and customers. To stay in business, small firms are not usually strong enough to require prompt payments. Therefore, they are obliged 'to finance' customers.

The H&Rs business behaves in a different manner compared to All_C. Trade credit, relevant in other industries, does not play any key role (Figure 2). Here, receivables are small and consistently stable regardless of the H&Rs size. The same phenomenon occurs for the trade debt (Figure 3). Among all the H&Rs, trade debt has its maximum value (4%) in small firm class.

Only XS H&Rs companies, with low negotiation strength towards suppliers, exhibit an insignificant trade debt (2%). In this case, they have to deal with the strongest unbalanced payables-receipts.

Figures 3 and 4 describe leverage and debt structure. In particular, Hotel & Restaurants use a low proportion of payables. Considering Figure 1 and Figure 5, trade debt is significantly high for small All_Cs. A possible explanation is the capacity of these large companies to have effective power over suppliers and over the entire business chain (i.e. vertical integration).

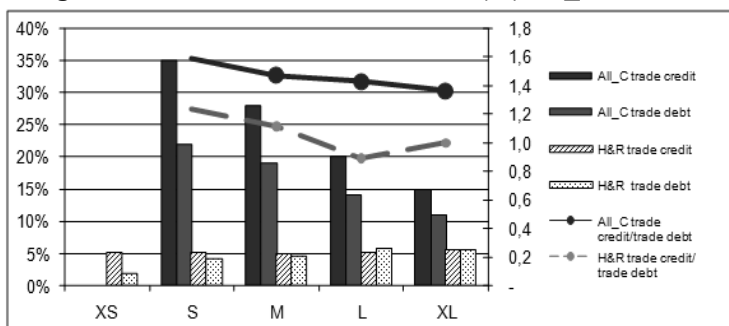
H&Rs are usually paid in a short period, and only in some circumstances do they receive part of the revenues in advance. The receivables do not perform a relevant role neither for transaction nor for finance motive.

Table 4 Trade credit/ trade debt

	S	M	L	XL
All_C trade credit/trade debt	1,59	1,47	1,43	1,36
H&R trade credit/ trade debt	1,23	1,11	0,88	0,99

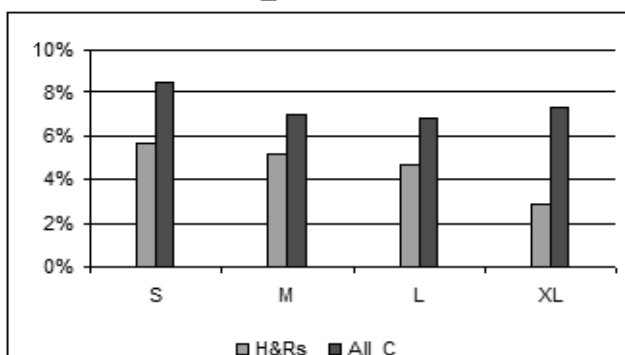
As reported in Table 4, each All_C size class extends more trade credit than their receivables. Therefore, they assume the role of net creditors to the rest of the 'economy'. The ratio is stable but the absolute value of factors decrease with size dimension.

Figure 5 Trade debt and trade credit, (%): All_C vs. H&Rs



H&Rs have a decreasing ratio although with low percentage. In other words, trade debt increases faster than trade credit. Larger H&Rs are able to redefine supplier credit settings while only small H&Rs are effective net credit suppliers. The aforementioned, cash and cash equivalents are related to the liabilities mixture. Besides, companies with a high percentage of fixed assets are generally more leveraged and keep a low level of cash.

Figure 6 Cash and cash equivalents (% of total assets): All_C vs. H&Rs



There is a trade-off between fixed asset and cash. Small All_C with a lower proportion of fixed assets have a large quantity of cash. In contrast, H&Rs show a different picture. The increase in size does not affect the level of fixed asset (excluding the gap between XS and S).

The level of cash decreases because larger firms are less constrained in financing opportunities. The cash works as insurance required by firms with restricted credit market access. The smallest H&Rs deal with severe short term financial conditions. Consequently, they have to tolerate high cash and high trade credit vs. low trade debt.

FINANCIAL RATIOS AROUND EUROPE

In this section, we focus our attention on financial ratios, considering different countries. H&R firms are grouped by size and by country to allow comparisons that are more significant. Cross-country specific effects are measured to investigate the possibility of government support programs, useful for improving specific financing conditions.

Considering the numbers of observations, we select only the first six countries (see Appendix A). It is well known that financial systems differ radically from one country to another. For instance, the Italian financial system is heavily based on the active role of banks, whereas in UK system relies more on the financial markets. Diverse importance of banks and markets generally impacts on the condition and availability of credit.

In any case, banks remain a main source of funds for industrial SMEs. In fact, loans are the best way to originate tailored financing for small, illiquid and opaque firms. Here, banks can exploit all competitive advantages resolving the issue of asymmetric information. In short, different domestic financial circumstances could also imply various capital structures in H&Rs.

There is a significant diversity across countries. Greek firms have the highest proportion of fixed assets. The greatest variability is in small firms, whereas the minimum value is in Swedish firms (60%). In these terms, Spanish firms are representative of average European H&R companies.

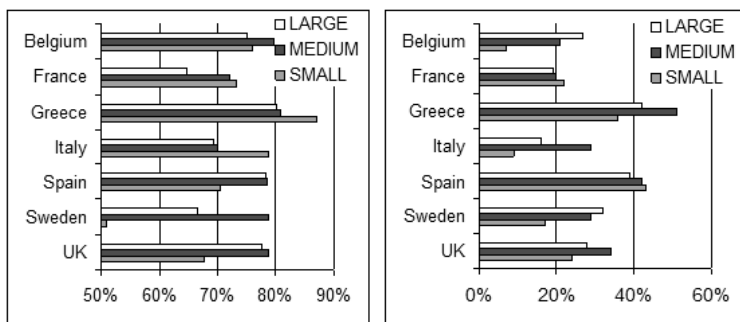
We recognize significant similarities in medium-size companies and partially in large ones. Country-specific contexts imply that any European proposal, (i.e. incentive program for acquiring and renovating buildings) aimed to improving H&R assets, should require a country-specific plan.

Table 5 Hotel & Restaurants Financial Ratios by size and country
(in%)^{viii}

	<u>Fixed assets</u> Total assets			<u>Shareholders funds</u> Total assets			<u>Fin Debt</u> Total assets		
	Small	Medium	Large	Small	Medium	Large	Small	Medium	Large
Belgium	76%	80%	75%	7%	21%	27%	30%	32%	31%
France	73%	72%	65%	22%	20%	19%	35%	38%	49%
Greece	87%	81%	80%	36%	51%	42%	20%	22%	19%
Italy	79%	70%	69%	9%	29%	16%	51%	28%	29%
Spain	70%	79%	78%	43%	42%	39%	24%	24%	25%
Sweden	51%	79%	67%	17%	29%	32%	24%	38%	32%
UK	68%	79%	78%	24%	34%	28%	44%	32%	35%

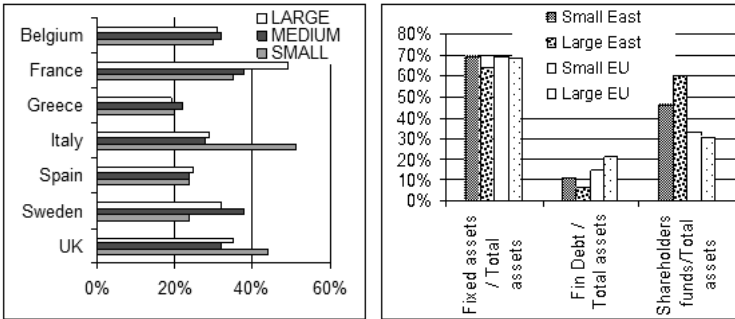
Moving to capital structure, we consider shareholders' funds divided by total assets (a.k.a. solvency ratio). Greek and Spanish firms work with the highest level of equity. In Greece, large H&R companies do not seem to take advantage of a high level of fixed assets as collateral for debt.

Figure 7-8 Fixed asset / Total assets and
Shareholders funds / Total assets



As in fixed assets scrutiny, greater variability is related to the smallest firms. From a financial structure point of view, UK H&R firms could be considered a benchmark: they are very similar to the average firm.

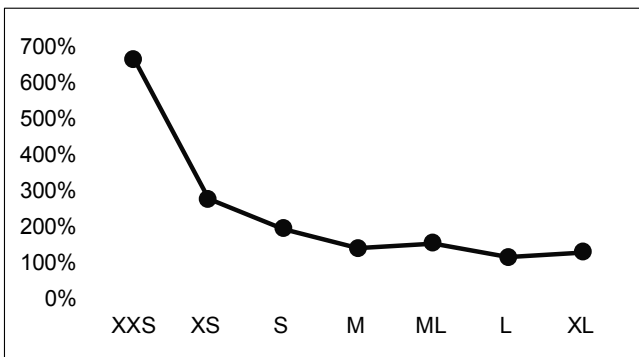
Figure 9-10 Financial debt / Total assets and EU-Eastern countries' financial ratios



Large firms are able to work with high leverage in Italy and the UK, as a consequence of fixed assets used as collaterals. In addition, Greece has the largest proportion of fixed assets as shown in Table 5 and Figure 7. At the same time, large Italian H&Rs rely on a high level of financial debt (Figure 9).

Figure 10 exploits larger range ratio values across different areas (see Appendix A). The disparity between small and large companies is more pronounced in financial debt percentage for EU companies and in equity ratio for those in Eastern Europe.

Figure 11 Current ratio and H&Rs Size

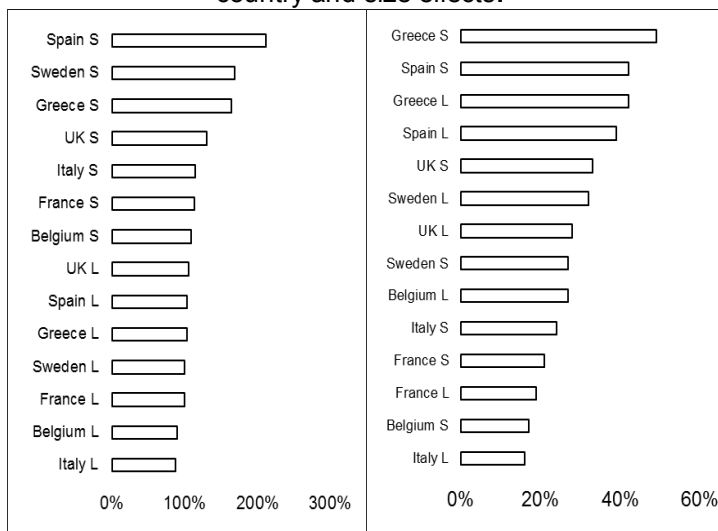


The core business, identified by the asset side, has roughly the same structure in both areas. Nevertheless, Eastern European firms utilize more equity, in particular the largest ones. The high solvency ratio for Eastern countries may be attributed to the fact that usually the State is still one of the major shareholders. Eastern local conditions reduce the credit availability as depicted by a low level of debt.

A study of Wagenwoort and Hurst (1999) shows that equity ratio varies considerably across industries, and also depend on the companies' legal form. Limited liability firms have a higher percentage of equity than others.

In a smaller area, Wagenwoort and Hurst (1999) demonstrate that companies in Eastern Germany have higher equity ratios than comparable firms in Western Germany. This could be explained by differences in age, privatisation stage, and the economic environment that followed the reunification process. A weak equity base often represents serious limitations in the credit approval process.

Figure 12-13 Current ratio and Shareholders funds / Total_assets: country and size effects:^{ix}



The current ratio is defined as current assets divided by current liabilities. This is an indication of a company's ability to meet short-term debt payouts: the higher the ratio is, the more liquid the company appears.

Moreover, high current ratios often reflect the equity shortage and high short-term debt level is the expected consequence (see Figure 11).

Seasonality requires a strong capacity to manage the yearly financial cycle. Generally, the smallest firms, with severe barriers to credit access, seem obliged to keep a large percentage of cash. The effect of ‘safety’ reason declines with size: larger firms are able to raise funds by activating various financial sources.

To better compare countries’ ratios, we group the H&R companies into two wide size classes, where ‘small’ indicates firms with less than 250 employees and ‘large’ firms that employ more than 250 people. In Figure 12, country and size are ordered by current ratio. In each country we can highlight how small firms have the highest currency ratio.

Figure 14-15 Financial debt/liabilities and Trade credit/liabilities: country and size specific effects



Small firms need a robust level of current assets in each country. We do not see any strong signal of ‘equity gap’^x and in the worst situation (large Italian companies), assets are greater than current liabilities. The equity ratio, depicted in Figure 13, exhibits a smooth trend across countries and sizes. Again, large Italian companies could suffer restrictions due to an equity gap.

Financial debt is more closely related to the country than the size of companies (see Figure 14). UK H&Rs use financial debt four times more than Italian firms and large firms in France.

Furthermore, UK firms do not allow heavy trade credit for their customers, (in contrast to the large Italian firms, yet the consistency of trade credit is not crucial in the H&R industry).

Finally, we investigate a relation between long-term financing (in percentage) and current assets, equity ratio, fixed assets, and tangible fixed assets. The relationship between financial values is statistically significant. In brief, an increase in fixed assets, tangible fixed assets, or current asset affects the long-term debt ratio. According to theory, long-term debt is considered a strong substitute for equity (see appendix B).

Last but not least, the country specific effects are always relevant and confirm a previous descriptive analysis.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper is a concise investigation of the differences between European H&Rs financial ratios and other types of companies. For this purpose, we used H&R financial data. Our findings suggest that H&R firms, on average, tend to have very low fixed assets only for very small firms (less than ten employees). Trade credit and trade debt do not play a relevant role overall. Equity ratios are similar across different sized firms. In cash analysis, we find a negative monotonic trend by firm size. Clearly, mortgages and loans represent the most relevant medium and long term financing instruments. Bank financing is reliable structured in the SME financial requirements. By definition, the bank has developed a strong ability to provide an adequate source of funds. On the other hand, when bank financing is the most relevant liability, it can penalize growth opportunities.

Current ratio is strongly and negatively related to size. In addition, the smallest firms need a higher level of cash and current assets to acquire strong flexibility. Typically, they deal with stronger financing constraints. The strong seasonality does not imply much riskier profiles. Several empirical analyses and interviews show how the whole tourism industry has a medium risk level. In addition, SMEs exhibit a lower credit risk profile, in particular when the number of employees is very small.

The solvency of Easter firms is on average higher than Western European firms: which could be due to the high number of companies with a significant degree of State ownership.

The country-specific effect is relevant in dummy variables, in particular on the liabilities side. Our findings may be particularly useful in light of the increased number of EU support programs for the SME and tourism industry: specific domestic financial conditions seem to require customized actions for each country.

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APPENDIX A: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE^{xi}

The Amadeus database contains over 130 variables of information for the companies within the data set. Company profile variables include geographical location, legal form, etc. In addition, industry codes are included. Because of differences across countries, there are more than 15 different industry codes and corresponding descriptions. In this study, we select a sample considering an ATECO code equal to 55. Therefore, the industry identified is 'Hotel and Restaurants'. The exact financial information captured can differ depending upon the data collected within the country.

Table A1

Country	Number of Obs	%	
United Kingdom	1727	32,8%	EU
Spain	1216	23,1%	EU
France	576	10,9%	EU
Greece	266	5,0%	EU
Italy	258	4,9%	EU
Belgium	181	3,4%	EU
Sweden	172	3,3%	EU
Romania	157	3,0%	EAST
Portugal	136	2,6%	EU
Poland	92	1,7%	EAST
Netherlands	82	1,6%	EU
Denmark	77	1,5%	EU
Czech Republic	76	1,4%	EAST
Ireland	51	1,0%	EU
Hungary	36	0,7%	EAST
Germany	34	0,6%	EU
Malta	31	0,6%	EAST
Bulgaria	24	0,5%	EAST
Estonia	22	0,4%	EAST
Latvia	19	0,4%	EAST
Slovak Republic	16	0,3%	EAST
Slovenia	10	0,2%	EAST
Austria	5	0,1%	EU
Cyprus	4	0,1%	EAST
Lithuania	1	0,0%	EAST
Total	5269		

The inclusion criteria used by Bureau van Dijk AMADEUS differ by country, relying on individual national filing requirements for the core data. State-owned companies as well as privately owned firms are included. Banks and insurance companies are not included.

Our analysis exploits industry level information in the data across countries. As such, we need to have common industry definitions within the data. All firms in the Amadeus data have an identifier used by the national body collecting the data. Typically, these codes are unique to each individual country. Table A1 describes the sample used in this study. The European comparison focuses on the first seven countries ordered by number of observations.

APPENDIX B

Table B1 - Model - Linear regression OLS. Dependent Variable:
Long Term Financing / Total Asset

Parameter Estimates				
Variable	Description		Parameter Estimate	Pr> t
Intercept	Intercept		0,35350	*** <,0001
Current_assets	Current_assets		0,00004	** 0,0284
Equity/Total asset	Equity ratio		-0,37951	*** <,0001
Fixed_assets	Fixed_assets		0,00006	*** 0,0001
Tangible_fixed_assets	Tangible_fixed_assets		0,00005	*** 0,0117
D_Belgium			0,09020	*** <,0001
D_France			-0,18530	*** <,0001
D_Greece			0,14600	*** <,0001
D_Italy			-0,21268	*** <,0001
D_Spain			0,07641	*** <,0001
D_Sweden			-0,09595	*** <,0001
D_UK			0,19816	*** <,0001
Analysis of Variance				
Origin	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Pr > F
Model	1	182,4	16,50	309,95 <,0001
Error	4519	241,8	0,05351	
Corrected Total	4530	424,7		
Root MSE		0,23	R-Square	0,43
Dependent Mean		0,31	Adj R-Sq	0,42
Coeff Var		73,88		

ENDNOTES

ⁱWestern European countries as indicated in Appendix A.

ⁱⁱWe report from Wagenvoort, 2003 for (All_C). Also in this research, the data source is AMADEUS DVD.

ⁱⁱⁱ Some studies do not consider very small enterprises for data quality reasons.

^{iv}Other current assets are calculated as a sum of inventory and other assets that could be converted to cash in less than one year. Current assets can be easily liquidated in case where the company goes bankrupt. Current assets are important to most companies as a source of funds for day-to-day operations.

^vThe propositions on capital structure made by Modigliani and Miller (M&M) (1958) are among the most important contributions in the theory of corporate finance. The theorems were first stated in the papers on the cost of capital, corporate valuation and capital structure.

^{vi} Total debt is defined as total assets minus equity.

^{vii} Wagenvoort, 2003.

^{viii} We merge the two extreme classes into two groups. Therefore, the previous five size classes, described in Table 1, create three wider classes.

^{ix} Desai et al. 2003.

^x Equity ratio is defined as equity divided by total assets, whereas equity gap indicates a low equity ratio. In brief, equity gap signals an equity shortage status.

^{xi} Desai et al. 2003.

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REFLECTIONS ON TOURISM, DEVELOPMENT AND SUSTAINABILITY

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This paper presents some reflections on the need to contribute to the construction of alternative paradigms for the relationship between tourism, local development and sustainability. These paradigms need to be constructed from an environmental perspective that integrates natural and cultural (social, political and economic) factors rather than analyzing them separately. The paper also exposes the need to include different sectors of society, communities and regions that have so far remained relegated, via community participation, preservation of the environmental, cultures, local identity and autonomy, and diversification of economic activities. Finally the paper presents four categories of analysis that incorporate the principles of sustainable development and responsible tourism: the hommoecosystem, rational-intuitive use, harmonious and ethical tourism, and integrative participatory planning.

Keywords: *harmonious tourism, sustainability, paradigm, environment, local development*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*



INTRODUCTION

In the last decades, concern about environmental issues has prompted countless studies and proposals to explain them and find solutions. All human activities generate some type of impact on the environment, and tourism is no exception. Tourism's concern with the search for solutions to its negative effects on the environment can be observed, for instance, in the preparation of plans for tourism development, in the curricula of tourism studies at schools and universities, and in scientific research; but also in the emergence of nature-oriented market segments and a general concern about minimizing the negative impact of tourism. Interest in developing more environmentally-sensitive tourism practice originated in the 1970s with the work of scholars such as Young (1973), which was later reflected in the 1980s in studies like that of Jost Krippendorff² (1989). Scholars concerned with the topic more recently include Escourrou (1993), Coriolanus (1998), Weaver (1998), Robinson and Boniface (1998), Brown (1998), Almeida (2000), Froehlich and Riedl (2000), Robinson et al. (2000), and Bartholo et al. (2009). Paradoxically, however, no integrative theoretical approaches have been developed that seek to explain or account for the tourism-environment relationship.³ In other cases, it is assumed that there is such a relationship and descriptions of specific areas are made or studies of the impacts of tourism on the environment produced. Another argument is that the relationship between tourism and the environment is interdependent but studies proceed to analyse them separately rather than investigating their effects on each other. This view could be approached from within the framework of the theories of complex systems (Rolando Garcia) and complex thinking (Edgar Morin). A new proposal is thus necessary that will enable us to understand the man-nature-environment relationship as part of one complex (or system) whose parts are linked in profound ways.⁴

BACKGROUND

Environmental issues “pose the need to internalize an emerging environmental knowledge across a range of disciplines, both in natural and social sciences, to build a knowledge capable of capturing the multi-causality and interdependence of processes of natural and social order” (Leff 1994:17), to form an environmental ideology based on sustainable development and rational-intuitive environmental use of the natural and cultural resources of a given community (Serrano-Barquín 2006).

Because environmental issues are issues of civilization and culture (Leff 1994; 2004), they must be tackled on several fronts.

In order to address these environmental issues the following are needed: a long-term perspective; environmental ethics; the generation of responsible attitudes and behaviour; and a culturally plural and environmentally harmonious viewpoint. To achieve this, anthropocentrism must be overcome in favour of biocentrism, which integrates the human with the ecosystem. Environmentally ethical principles are incompatible with the prevailing wasteful consumerist model with its simplistic explanations and competitiveness based on the failure of others. Sustainability is necessarily global in seeking benefits for the majority and common well-being. Success based on the failure of others is not valid here.

Based on the premise that “human and nonhuman systems are interdependent and, therefore, the challenges of conservation and development are inextricably linked” (Barrett and Arcese 1995:1073), sustainability requires the active participation of local communities to the degree of empowering local people to become the planners and executors of their own development (Bucheli 2008; Morrison 2010). This necessitates first avoiding the old model of exploitation in the name of development in which local communities saw their resources exploited and were unable to lead in or make decisions about their use; and second, local communities being able to generate and increase their own income. In contrast with old development models, local development pursues a shared responsibility for planning and using available natural, human, material and financial resources, and “provides an opportunity for society to actively confront the changes of environmental management and conservation in a meaningful way” (Barkin 1998:70; Tur 2009).

However, scientific knowledge of the tourism-development-environment relationship has not developed at the same speed, depth or extent as reality on the ground. While tourism is developing at a fantastic rate, scholars and scientific authors seem to be lagging behind, trying to understand and keep up with it. This has generated various views about the tourism-development-environment relationship. Since it should be a multidisciplinary effort, the situation presents the additional difficulty of attempting to bring together disciplines that have characteristically travelled on separate paths.

The way that scientific research has so far been approached in tourism studies has to do with an epistemological problem that has not been entirely resolved by either philosophers or scientists. The problem lies in finding a way to link two separate fields of study, the natural

sciences and the social sciences and humanities, to explain a situation that presents itself as unique, dynamic and flexible but by no means fragmented. A number of sciences are needed to study reality: each has its own research paradigm and they are often in conflict with one another. Therefore finding an analytical framework capable of linking them is a complicated task. How can phenomena whose scope transcends disciplinary boundaries and further, the frontier that has traditionally existed between “hard” and “soft” sciences, be explained? Hard sciences are generally considered the bastions of science, not allowing room for further analysis or the world views of new sciences being developed such as ecology or the human sciences. A more thorough and complete union among the sciences is needed, as pointed out by Prigogine (1998c:13): “[...] it is time for new partnerships, age-old partnerships that have been ignored for so long in the history of mankind, its society, its knowledge and the adventure of exploring nature: it is time to surrender to the evidence that nature no longer conforms to the classical paradigm at any level”.³ We agree with Lovelock’s (2007:27) statement that “The scientific community is a welcoming and friendly club of specialists who follow different paths; it is a proud club and wonderfully productive, but with few certainties and hindered by its incomplete visions of the world”.

Accordingly, the study of environmental issues and the pursuit of sustainability through tourism require an interdisciplinary perspective with integrative vision. That is, we need to construct new paradigms to explain them, for: “We are nearing the limits of conventional science, but we are also at a privileged point in time: the point at which a new perspective of nature is emerging” (Prigogine 1998: 40). But not only is a new vision of nature emerging: so too is a new vision of society. Addressing this, the Faculty of Tourism and Gastronomy at UAEMex has created a line of research that aims to contribute to the construction of an alternative paradigm for the existing relationship between tourism, local development and sustainability from an environmental perspective (Serrano-Barquín 2006; 2008).

Culture is important in this context, as it is the manifestation of all actions and behaviour by man and society. Understanding the culture of a people involves capturing their normal character without reducing their particularity. Culture consists of socially established structures of meaning. A people cannot exist without a culture and no particular culture is superior to another. The semiotic concept of culture accepts this precept: in it culture is understood as a system and interaction of interpretable signs, or symbols: “Culture is a context within which all those phenomena (social events, modes of behaviour, institutions or social

processes) can be described in an intelligible manner” (Geertz 1995:27). A human society is a permanently organized population that acts in accordance with its culture and ideology. Thus tourism cannot be analyzed separately from the culture of people involved in it since, as Robinson (1998) states, in tourism conflicts are inevitable. However, tourism planned and based on ethical principles could achieve respect and harmony among different peoples and cultures (Serrano-Barquín 2006; 2008; 2009).

There is no doubt that the field of tourism studies is still dominated by positivist research (see Botterill 2001; Panosso Netto 2005; Höngg and Stephen 2006; Castillo 2007; Castillo and Panosso Netto 2010). However contributions are emerging from interpretive paradigms (Apostolopoulos 2002; Panosso Netto 2005; Tribe 2009; Castillo and Panosso Netto 2010) and some critics (Osorio 2003) provide a richer explanation and understanding of this subject (Factor-UAEM 2009). In parallel, a great diversity of methodologies can be observed. There are already examples of qualitative research from more humanistic approaches (see Spilanis and Karayiannis 2009; Dodds 2010) using dialectics, hermeneutics, phenomenology and other tools derived from psychology, philosophy and various other social and human sciences. All this leads to consideration of the appropriateness of comprehensively combining dialectic and eclectic, quantitative and qualitative methods (Walle 1997; Riley 2000; Davies 2003; Mehmetoglu 2004) to create theoretical and methodological tools that are more suited to the diversity of the tourism phenomenon, which in turn must be linked to an ideological conception of sustainability and culture. For this, an alternative paradigm is required.

For these reasons, neither the liberal nor the critical paradigms have succeeded in penetrating the analysis of environmental processes in general and their relation to tourism in particular. So far various proposals for developing research on these topics have been put forward,⁴ but this document only refers to the integrative approach which, as it rests on more than one theoretical and disciplinary proposal, enters complex territory. Complex here is understood as that which involves the interdependent and presupposed relationship between at least two approaches, concepts, variables or phenomena. In fact, any perspective that seeks the integration of paradigms or approaches is linked to current concerns about postmodernism or the new modernity, in which the old paradigms and traditions are surpassed, broken, or overwhelmed. Reconstructions that are more extensive, flexible and inclusive are thus required, with an effort made at epistemological complexity and therefore complexity in their theoretical and methodological formulations.

This complexity implies the need for researchers to take a comprehensive and dialogical view similar to that of Morin (1999; 2001). It requires the researcher to address the study of the relationship between man and nature. In this integrative effort man is simultaneously a species, an individual, a society, and a maker of culture; and he is linked simultaneously to the phenomena that occur in nature at both the micro and the macro level.⁵

TOWARDS THE CONSTRUCTION OF A NEW ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Most tourism studies are performed from the administrative and economic fields and they most commonly address the quantification of tourists entering or exiting a location, the income generated by tourism and foreign exchange and/or the number of jobs created. In tourism marketing studies measurement and evaluation similarly predominate. Although in recent years cultural and environmental variables have been incorporated (Sotiropoulou 2007; Spanou 2007), in particular from the sustainability approach, the positivist perspective is still prioritized in studies. For us the overriding interest of the tourism market in increasing its economic gain, often overlooking or concealing its negative impacts, is incomprehensible.

In this proposal, sustainability is deemed a continuous process towards the higher stages of human development rather than a goal to be attained and maintained. But is not only sustainability that must be explained. Environmental issues transcend the limits of any discipline and require new approaches, methodologies and alternative or complementary theories to build a new discipline: a new environmental science.

For this it is important to reconsider the values and ethical principles that govern today's society, to redefine the type of development that characterizes "Western culture" and propose another, based on environmental ethics that re-evaluate nature and the individual. Respect for the former and the latter is where this new model should begin. Even the model of tourism developed around nature, ecotourism, is criticized by authors such as Butcher (2009), who states that "ecotourism" is only used to exploit the new needs of tourists and maximize profits for the enterprises involved. In this way a type of tourism that could be ethical develops into unethical tourism. Butcher proposes a theory of tourism counter to the types of tourism that have mainly become a means of maximizing profits. Innovative approaches have appeared in Latin America, for example in Mexico (Nieves 2003) and Brazil (Bartholo et.

al. 2009), and the World Tourism Organization, UNWTO, has released books such as *Sustainable Development of Ecotourism* (2004).

This paper proposes an environmental perspective underpinned by a holistic approach that regards the environment as a complex system consisting of both nature and society which together make a whole. It sees natural and social phenomena, each with its own dynamics, as inextricably linked with varying degrees of intensity. This view differs from the holistic approach considered by general systems theory and other positivist proposals which consider at best a partial subsystem as they conduct their analysis without taking into account the complex system that is the environment. That is, they try to maintain the equilibrium of the system through knowledge of the laws that govern its behaviour. The holistic view studies a phenomenon as part of the complex nature-society system, or environment. This is not about returning to traditional reductionism, but it must be acknowledged that it may not be possible to incorporate all elements, components, relationships and impacts that create a phenomenon. It is necessary to set limits to a complex system, from its scale to the elements considered basic to its analysis, incorporating both natural and social aspects. While this may be complex, it does not have to be complicated.

Thus we seek to understand the behaviour of the system to try to direct it towards the common goals set by communities themselves in the understanding that it is not possible to manipulate the environment because there are multiple possibilities for interference such as fluctuations and shocks that preclude the possibility of an absolute state of equilibrium or permanent stability. This is the point at which the real debate between the hard and other sciences lies. The complex system is constantly evolving in function of its flexibility and capacity for self-organization. These are open systems in which the processes are irreversible. Trying to assess and establish a universal methodology to prove that a system is sustainable, as the classical sciences would attempt, would be futile. And the complex system involved (macro, micro) will present different natural and cultural conditions, which preclude the positivist establishment of general laws and precise prognoses. By sustainability we mean not only nature but also the environment: i.e. the economy, society and culture (see also Baros and Dávid 2007). Given these considerations, as Prigogine (1998:412) argues, “we cannot hope to predict the future but we can influence it. The extent to which deterministic predictions are not possible makes it likely that visions of the future, and even utopias, play an important role in its construction.

The proposed methodology attempts to apply the concepts and theoretical aspects of complex systems and sustainability on the one hand, and on the other, to establish a basic model for local sustainable development planning, starting from a tourism project. The proposed categories of analysis have been derived from the principles presented below.

Principles

- Principle of sustainability: based on the ideology or assumed cultural understanding of environment. Activities carried out in a geographical area are conducive to conditions that improve the quality of the environment (natural and socio-cultural) in a permanent and irreversible process of evolution.
- Principle of complementarity: epistemologically seeks to promote complementarity of theories and methodologies as well as to promote the diversification of activities that stimulate self-sufficiency, based on local communities' self-determination.
- Principle of complex systems: society is an inseparable socio-cultural subsystem, interrelated to and interdependent of the natural subsystem. Together, they constitute a hommoecosystem.

These principles have been taken and redefined from scholars such as Enrique Leff (1990; 1994; 2000; 2002) and David Barkin (1998; 2000; 2001) (the principle of sustainability); Edgar Morin (1999; 2001; 2004) (complementarity) and Rolando Garcia (1986; 1988; 1994) (complex systems). From these principles we derive the proposed four categories for analysis, which are presented as symbolic, conceptual and contextual representations on which to continue working and building.

Categories

1. *Hommoecosystem*. As explained, society and nature cannot be seen as detached from one another as if nature were there only to be used or exploited. Since the sixteenth century mankind in general has placed itself at the centre of the universe (anthropocentrism) and in opposition to nature. However, indigenous communities believe that man and nature are part of the same world, or system. We have much to learn from these peoples, who are often regarded as “backward”. In this context we propose the hommoecosystem category as a complex system linking society and nature inextricably and composed of the natural and socio-

cultural subsystems that are interdependent and in an ongoing process of evolution and construction.

2. *Rational-intuitive environmental use.* This concept may sound simple and obvious. It refers to the way in which the environment should be approached. Its use should be based on the human perception of the importance of this natural and cultural heritage and on the human perception of the rational being, to understand and overcome the challenges s/he imposes with regard to nature and society. The use of the environment ceased to be rational-intuitive with the Industrial Revolution in the eighteenth century. Rational-intuitive environmental use of natural and cultural resources is therefore proposed. Such use would be in accordance with the characteristics of the resources and of the region concerned, based on scientific knowledge generated by research at institutions of higher education *and* traditional intuitive knowledge derived from the experience, senses and feelings of the local people according to their culture, for the benefit of the community, without endangering their existence and possibly even improving it. That is, resources can be used, restored, preserved and protected through the activities they support or promote, from a perspective of environmental rationality. In this context, tourism and other activities should be part of environmental planning programs and instruments in harmony with the environment.

3. *Harmonious and ethical tourism.* A model of tourism that values humankind and is based on a complex perspective should be promoted. In this context, harmonious tourism is proposed as a central activity to drive local development. It aims to rescue and protect natural and cultural resources, favouring the presence of ecosystems and their basic biological processes and generating social and economic benefits to promote better living standards for local communities and visitors based on the rational-intuitive environmental use of resources. At the same time it would seek to complement primary, secondary, service-oriented and trade activities. This complementarity is an advantage to exploit because it is thus possible to link the various economic activities of the population to respond to employment needs and thereby achieve better livelihoods. This is a common goal of local development, in which the organization and implementation of initiatives come from the communities and use their own resources.

4. *Integrative participatory planning* is proposed as a method by which to implement the above categories. It integrates the various economic sectors in the elaboration of a local sustainable development plan, with harmonious tourism its structuring axis. Such a development

plan calls for the participation of government agencies (federal, state, municipal, local) and representatives of the community or communities involved, so that, based on national and regional existing programs, local programs are developed to complement rather than oppose the principles of sustainability and of the various economic sectors. The involvement of multiple actors from local communities is crucial to the elaboration of these local sustainable development plans, which should take into account the regional micro and macro context in order to increase their chance of success.

The proposed activities are carried out in a geographical space as the material support on which man and his work operate. But integrative participatory planning goes beyond the deterministic idea of relying solely on such geographical space. Here it is combined with the concept of the environment as the complex system in which society and nature interact in a dialectic process of interdependence, as two interrelated subsystems that cannot be separated. The scale of analysis of this complex system is variable. The concept of region is taken as a theoretical resource that allows delimiting a macro or micro complex system as a space created by mankind that reflects its culture but is built on a natural space governed by its own laws, facts and phenomena, which are altered by people's actions. The organization of the regional space also reflects the social processes and hierarchy of the economic and political systems of each region, establishing relationships between the various elements of its structure. At the same time it maintains relations with the outside and is subject to the influences of its surroundings while, in turn, influencing them. Hence the difficulty of predicting the future of complex systems, as there are a myriad of factors and phenomena that can intervene in the functioning of the complex system: in the social subsystem – e.g. political, economic, social, cultural and technological – and in the natural subsystem – floods, drought, earthquakes and many more – which would call for mechanisms of resistance, recovery or adaptation of the system to be put in place. This would make it virtually impossible to predict with certainty how each system would react to similar interventions, whether external or internal.

FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

It should be noted that the concept of sustainable tourism is being overtaken by the concept of responsible tourism, and to the authors of this article by that of harmonious tourism. It is not enough for tourism to be sustainable: it must be responsible and in harmony with its environment.

This new concept comprises the proposal developed here, derived from an understanding of the hommoecosystem, rational-intuitive environmental use, ethical and harmonious tourism and integrative participatory planning. The predatory practices of tourism are being overcome, albeit in a modest way. However, new groups of researchers and planners emphasize the importance of developing responsible tourism with the participation of local communities, especially in poor and developing countries.

New practices of tourism are being created in various parts of the world that empower local people to make decisions, administer and regulate the action at the local level. As a result, communities living along river banks, in meadows, on beaches, in small inner cities and indigenous communities have the freedom and autonomy to say “yes” or “no” to tourism.

The authors believe that more decisive action must be taken towards creating harmonious tourism practices that are socially, culturally, ecologically, economically, politically, ethically and morally harmonious. The decision is up to every man and woman. There is still much to do, but we must ensure that action is taken.

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ENDNOTES

1. This article is derived from the research project “Harmonious tourism, an alternative to local sustainable development: Theoretical-methodological proposal from the Complex thinking”, financed by CONACyT.
2. The environment is understood as the complex system in which nature and society interact as two interrelated and interdependent subsystems in a dialectical process. Thus we perceive man and nature as inextricably linked elements of the same complex.
3. Most references cited here are in Spanish: the quotes presented here are authors’ translations.
4. Micro-subjective approaches from the individual internal perception of nature by men. Micro-objective approaches from man as social subjects (phenomenological-structurationist, comprehensive and culturally anthropological stances) versus nature. Macro-objective approaches, from

society as objective reality to man (structuralist stance, economic analysis, among others) and their impact on nature. Macro-subjective approaches, from the subjective constructions that form the society regarding nature (norms, culture and values). From the eclectic, integrationist perspectives of various approaches (postmodern and integrative proposals in social sciences). From any of these approaches, the priority lies with man, not nature, so it is valid and advisable to select methods supported by all the disciplines of the social sciences and its intra-disciplinary positions.

5. Various efforts have been made to build such complex approaches which can be grouped into two integrationist strategies: a) through the creation of multi- and interdisciplinary groups: the study of tourism and its relationship to nature by groups of specialists from various fields; b) creating new fields of analysis that transcend disciplinary boundaries: complex thinking (Luhmann, 1997; Morin, 1999, 2001, 2004; Leff, 1994, 2000, 2004; Garcia, 1986, 1994, 2000). This would involve viewing tourism and its relationship with nature as a field of study in itself, and although this has not been raised by tourism scholars in these terms it has been included in environmental studies in places where tourism appears as an economic activity.

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HOTEL MANAGERS' BEHAVIOUR TOWARDS CHANGE UNCERTAINTY IN GREECE

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"It is not necessary to change... Survival is not mandatory..." - W. E. Deming
Organizational change is an intrinsic attribute of nature that provokes emotional and psychological effects. However, today there is a rising concern about the pace, frequency and content of change. Consequently, employees' tolerance-of-ambiguity rises as a critical competitive advantage that facilitates organizations to react quickly and change successfully. The paper examines managers' emotional and cognitive attitudes in the workplace and their influence in tolerance of change ambiguity. The research sample consists of 180 Greek hotel managers. The results of the principal components analysis indicate that three factors characterize managers' emotions, namely pleasure, arousal and dominance; and two their involvement respectively, namely importance and interest. Further, regression results illustrate the influence of dominance, importance, job satisfaction and organizational commitment in managers' tolerance-of-ambiguity. Concluding, the paper suggests certain policies for increasing managers' tolerance-of-ambiguity and thus, their performance during change.

Keywords: *Tolerance of ambiguity, Change, Emotions, Attitudes, Hotel managers, Greece*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Constant and complex political, economic, social and technological changes have created a business environment unlike any in recent history. Thus, organizations' success, even survival, highly depends on the extent



to which they are able to unlearn, relearn and ultimately change. Organizational change is above all an emotional experience that stresses the importance of employee's adaptive abilities (Nicolaidis & Katsaros, 2010). Consequently, tolerance-of-ambiguity rises as a critical skill that may enable employees to react quickly and adjust successfully (Kriegel & Brandt, 1996).

In this respect, the main aim of this paper is to examine the influence of managers' emotional and cognitive attitudes in their tolerance of change ambiguity. We chose managers as a result of their vital role in an environment where the uncertainty and the complexity of change increase (Johnson & Scholes, 2002); and Tourism industry, as an extremely significant sector for the Greek economy with extremely high change rates in terms of novelty, competition, development and growth [1].

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Tolerance-of-ambiguity has received considerable attention from researchers who study organizational behavior, leadership, change management and decision making. Among else, it is defined as one's acceptance of confusing situations and absence of clear lines of differentiation (Ely, 1989); and an individual's range of reactions to stimuli that are considered unfamiliar, complex, uncertain, or subject to multiple interpretations (Mc Lain, 1993). Further, Budner (1962) suggests that there are typically three types of ambiguous situations: novelty (completely new situations); complexity (excessively complex situations); insolubility (opposing situations). Nevertheless, it should be mentioned that individual responses to change ambiguity are strongly associated with the related responses to uncertainty and vice versa (e.g. Lal & Hassel, 1998).

Tolerance-of-ambiguity concerns the way a particular individual perceives stimuli and processes information (Reisberg, 2006). A person with low tolerance-of-ambiguity experiences stress, reacts prematurely, avoids ambiguity and seeks for certainty (Kenny & Ginsberg, 1958). In contrast, a person with high tolerance-of-ambiguity perceives ambiguous situations as desirable, challenging and interesting; tends to think creatively; and approaches changes and problems from innovative perspectives (Kirtton, 1981).

Numerous attempts have been made to examine the relationship between tolerance-of-ambiguity and behavioural and working attitudes. Generally, people with high tolerance-of-ambiguity can better cope with unstructured and dynamic situations characterized by uncertainty and

ambiguity (Budner, 1962). In the fields of psychology and organizational behavior, tolerance-of-ambiguity is correlated with creativity (Tegano, 1990), decision making, critical thinking and diversity (Wilkinson, 2006), risk acceptance (Lauriola & Levin, 2001), emotional competences (George & Jones, 2001), effective performance in new and complex situations (Jonassen & Grabowski, 1993), and job satisfaction (Wittenburg & Norcross, 2001). Overall, tolerance-of-ambiguity plays a major role in individual's behavior during change. That is, people with high tolerance-of-ambiguity may approach change positively (Sawyer, 1990) by exhibiting higher levels of readiness-to-change (Kriegel & Brandt, 1996).

Attitudes in the workplace

Employees respond to perceived new, uncertain and ambiguous situations with a set of emotional and cognitive attitudes (Freeston et al., 1994) that determine whether they will support a proposed change or not and ultimately, whether it will succeed or fail (Huy, 1999). Relatively, authors suggest that positive attitudes towards change ambiguity/uncertainty are critical in accomplishing organizational transitions (Eby et al., 2000), have positive relationship with the change process (Fredrickson, 1998), and may provoke behaviours that are facilitative and supportive to the change implementation.

The literature suggests that almost all emotional attitudes can be examined along a number of bipolar and independent dimensions (e.g. Tiedens & Linton, 2001, Warr, 1994; Watson & Tellegen, 1985). According to Russel and Mehrabian (1974) there are three prevailing dimensions that may adequately capture all emotional attitudes namely, pleasure, arousal and dominance. Pleasure is defined as the feeling of happiness, enjoyment, or satisfaction that you get from an experience and is different from preference, liking and positive reinforcement (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003). Most important, pleasure is directly related to objectives' achievement (Lazarus, 1991); can increase individual's will to think, explore and expand personal limitations (Frijda 1986); and may support creativity (Fredrickson 1998). Arousal is a cause of personal motivation that may influence the degree of effort one puts into a task (Lazarus, 1991). It has an inverted U shaped relationship with performance during change (Kaufman, 1999). As authors suggest, excessive arousal may lead individuals to feel hesitant or become unwilling to react (Liu & Perrewé, 2005) and thus, reduce their effort regarding the proposed change (Kaufman, 1999). On the whole, a

moderate level of emotional arousal is likely to facilitate tolerance of change ambiguity (Kensinger et al., 2005). Dominance refers to the degree one feels unrestricted or free to act in a variety of ways during complex changes (Bearden et al., 1993). Thus, when dominance is low, change ambiguity may provoke stressful situations, turnover intentions (Spector, 1998), decreased job satisfaction, commitment and trust (Ashford et al., 1989). Overall, emotions may affect individuals' experience and judgment (Chatzigeorgiou et al., 2009) and thus, their level of ambiguity tolerance (Nicolaidis & Katsaros, 2011). Respectively, the first hypotheses of the paper arise:

Hypothesis 1: Managers' tolerance-of-ambiguity is related to their emotions of pleasure, arousal and dominance

Job satisfaction is one of the most important and frequently studied attitudinal variables and its analysis has become an integral part of micro economic analysis. It is mainly defined as an affective reaction towards one's job (Porac, 1987); and a positive emotional state resulting from the pleasure an employee experiences from his/her job (Spector, 1997). Research has identified a positive relationship between ambiguity tolerance and job satisfaction (Wittenburg & Norcross, 2001) and suggests that job satisfaction plays a critical role in employees' acceptance of change (Iverson, 1996). Relevantly, Wanberg and Banas' study (2000) showed that low levels of change tolerance were associated with decreased job satisfaction and stronger intentions to quit. On the whole, it is generally accepted that uncertainty, ambiguity, stress and lack of control provoked by an organizational change may lead to decreased levels of job satisfaction (e.g. Johnson et al., 1996). Overall, job satisfaction constitutes a significantly affecting factor of ambiguity tolerance. Consequently, the second hypothesis of the paper arises:

Hypothesis 2: Managers' tolerance-of-ambiguity is related to their job satisfaction

Organizational Commitment is mainly examined in terms of workers' identification with the organizational goals (May et al., 2002: 776), and in terms of attachment and loyalty (Armstrong, 2001: 171). Generally, it is defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al., 1979: 226). There is evidence that organizational commitment plays an important role in employee's acceptance of ambiguity in the workplace (Cordery et al., 1993). Relatively, Lau and Woodman (1995) argue that highly committed employees are more willing to accept organizational change ambiguity if it is perceived to be useful. That is, an individual committed to an organization accepts its values, is willing to exert effort on its behalf, and

wishes to remain in the organization (Mowday, et al., 1979). However, they note that a highly committed employee may resist to change ambiguity if he/she perceives it as a threat for his/her own benefit or harmful to the organization. Concluding, every organizational change requires management's commitment since management's role is considered pre-eminent, essential and/or fundamental (Savolainen, 1998). Therefore, it emerges the following hypothesis:

H3: Managers' tolerance-of-ambiguity is related to their organizational commitment

Involvement is an attitude towards the work role and its context (The Blackwell Encyclopedia of Management). It is mainly defined as the employee's willingness to support the organization even if additional time and effort are required (Madsen et al., 2005). Literature suggests that employees' involvement relates to their cognitive support during the change process (Oswald et al., 1994); may promote personal readiness for change (Armenakis et al., 1993) and thus, enhance tolerance of ambiguity. Scholars suggest that involvement can be examined along a number of bipolar dimensions that can be viewed as independent one from the other (e.g. Laurent & Kapferer, 1985; Peter & Olson, 2002). Relevantly, McQuarrie and Munson (1991) support that involvement, can be examined by two prevailing bipolar dimensions namely, importance and interest. Importance refers to an important event, decision or problem that has a big effect or influence on people's lives or on future incidents (Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, 2003). Relatively, Curren and Harich (1994) suggest that when individuals perceive an ambiguous situation as relatively important, they will transfer their own perceived feelings to the relevant event (i.e. managers will exhibit high involvement towards a change initiative). Interest concerns the personal interest that a person has in an event. Relatively, when someone is interested in an ambiguous situation, he/she will exhibit greater commitment, identification and involvement during its evaluation (McQuarrie & Munson, 1991). The above analysis signifies that managers' involvement may facilitate uncertain situations appraisal and influence ambiguity tolerance. Consequently two more hypotheses arise:

H4: Managers' tolerance-of-ambiguity is related to their involvement (importance and interest)

H5: The interaction of managers' demographical characteristics; emotions of pleasure, arousal and dominance; attitudes of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement; affect their ambiguity tolerance

GREEK TOURISM INDUSTRY

The tourism industry has proved to be one of the most resilient and dynamic sectors of the world economy in the last decades. According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC), tourism industry was responsible for 9.2% of the world GDP, 8.1% of the total employment (1 in 12.3 jobs) and 9.2% of the total investment. Further, it is forecasted that by 2020 its contribution will rise to 9.6% for the world GDP, 9.2%, for the total employment and 9.4% for the total investment respectively [2]. Similarly, Greek tourism plays a vital role in the Greek economy. It is ranked 21st in absolute size worldwide and 37th in relative contribution to national economies. In more details, it accounts nationally for about 15,5% of GDP (EUR33.9bn or US\$50.2 bn), 18,8% of total employment (785,000 jobs or 1 in every 5.3) and 14.2% of total investment [3]. Further, Greece is consistently ranked in the top 15 destinations for global travellers with more than 15 million tourists every year.

However, in 2009 the tourism industry came down to earth with a bump. Historically, the global economic environment was always subject to downturns, yet nowadays the severe downturn in the world economy meant for the travel and tourism industry, merely a sudden and unexpected pause in growth (Conrady & Buck, 2011; Yilmaz & Gunel, 2009). Relatively, a climate of uncertainty and insecurity is prevailing in the Greek tourism industry as a result of the severe national economic crisis. Greece is required to slash spending and restructure large parts of its economy, in exchange for the 110 billion euro rescue plan funded by the International Monetary Fund, the European Union and the European Central Bank. As a consequence, there are continuous strikes, rallies, work stoppages, protests and social conflicts that may have negative effects on tourism development. Relevantly, the Association of Greek Tourism Enterprises along with the Hellenic Chamber of Hotels suggest that in 2010 tourist arrivals might have fallen more than 20% and thus, provoked massive lay-offs particularly in hotels (about 50.000 new unemployed) [4].

To sum up, Greece will significantly depend on tourism industry during the forthcoming years, especially under the turbulent economic conditions caused by the rapid and sudden changes in the country's economic model. Further, in 2011 there seems to be a prospect of increase in touristic stream (10%) as a result of the internal deflation on one hand and the political and financial crisis in the north-African countries on the other. In any case, it should be noted that tourism organizations'

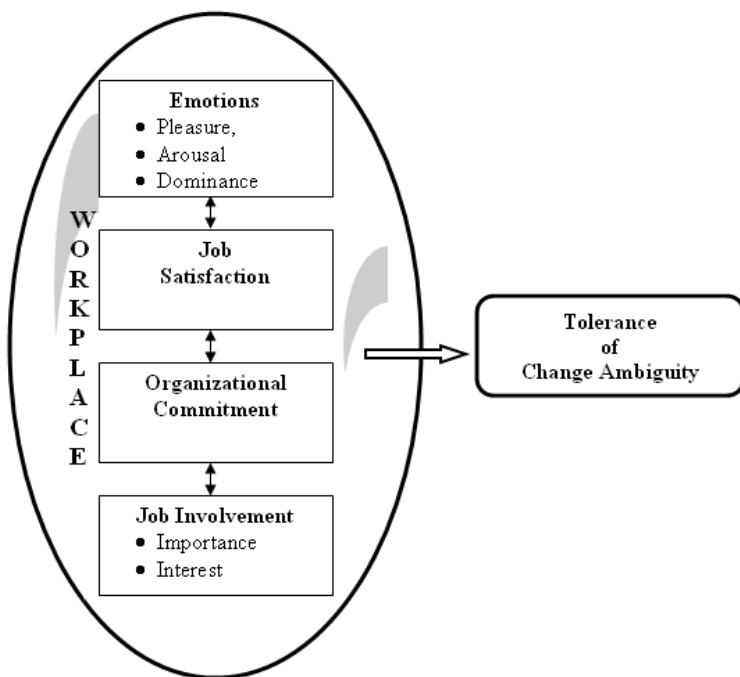
operational complexity increases uncertainty, which is further intensified by the current economic crisis (Bouzon & Devillard, 2011).

RESEARCH

Purpose

Taking into consideration the importance of the tourism industry to the Greek economy, the current difficulties that provoke intense changes, and the total absence of relevant researches in Greece; the purpose of the research was firstly, to examine managers' tolerance of change ambiguity and secondly, to investigate the influence of their emotional and cognitive attitudes. Hence, the following model aroused.

Figure 1 Research model



Methodology

The research was conducted during a 5-month period in 2009 and 2010. Survey data were collected from hotels established in Greece. The first two months a pilot test was conducted in order to examine the research's methodology functionality. Subsequently, the structured questionnaires were personally delivered by the members of the research team. Overall, a total of 180 hotel managers participated to the research (response rate 54,4 %). Table 1 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the participants in our research.

Table 1 Demographic characteristics of the sample

	N	Frequencies		N	Frequencies
Managers			Hotels		
Sex			Age (years)		
Male	99	55,00%	1-5	31	17,20%
Female	81	45,00%	6- 10	42	23,30%
Age (years)			11-15	55	30,60%
18-24	21	11,70%	16 +	52	28,90%
25-34	42	23,30%	Number of employees		
35-44	55	30,60%	1-11	74	41,10%
45 +	62	34,40%	11-50	99	55,00%
Marital Status			51-250	6	3,30%
Married	131	72,80%	250 +	1	0,60%
Single	49	27,20%	Firm life circle		
Education			Initial	31	17,20%
Secondary	61	33,90%	Growth	89	49,40%
University	64	35,60%	Mature	60	33,40%
Master	41	22,80%	Annual Turnover		
PHD	2	1,10%	<1 millions	72	41,00%
Other	12	6,60%	1-10 millions	67	37,20%
Working experience (pr. position)			10-100 millions	30	16,70%
1-5	39	21,70%	100 millions <	11	5,10%
6-10	96	53,30%			
11+	45	25,00%			
Total working experience					
1-5	25	13,90%			
6-10	46	25,60%			
11+	109	60,50%			

Measurement

Regarding the tolerance-of-ambiguity measurement, we used the Tolerance-Intolerance of Ambiguity questionnaire developed by Budner (1962). The questionnaire uses a 16-item scale and it follows a scale from 0 to 100. A score between 44 and 48 is considered relevantly neutral, while scores below 44 indicate high tolerance to ambiguity and scores above 48 indicate a low one. For the measurement of emotional attitudes towards change ambiguity, we used the Dimensions of Emotions PAD questionnaire of Havlena and Holbrook (1986) (originally developed by Russel & Mehrabian, 1974). The PAD questionnaire is composed of 12 semantic different items scored on a +4 to -4 scale, which capture three independent and bipolar dimensions namely, *pleasure*, *arousal* and *dominance*. For the measurement of job satisfaction, we used the 7-item scale Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire developed by Cammann *et al.*, (1979), which contains a three-item overall satisfaction subscale (Spector, 1997). Regarding the measurement of organizational commitment we used Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Mowday *et al.*, (1979) that is composed of 15 semantic different items, scored on a 1 to 7 scale. Finally, for the measurement of involvement, we used the McQuarrie and Munson's (1991) revised version of their Revised Personal Involvement Inventory (RPII). The questionnaire suggests that individual's involvement is based on the inherent needs, values and interests and it captures two independent and bipolar dimensions that appraise involvement namely, *importance* and *interest* (Bearden *et al.*, 1993).

RESULTS

The descriptive statistical results showed that tolerance-of-ambiguity index value is equal to 62,02. Thus, they reveal managers' hesitation and intolerance towards the ambiguity that every change engulfs. Further, managers are significant satisfied with (5,78, sd:1,02) and committed to (5,12, sd:0,89) their working environment.

The first principal component analysis results revealed three factors that describe managers' emotional attitudes: (i) pleasure (variance 37,98%), (ii) dominance (variance 16,65%) and (iii) arousal (variance 10,34%). High reliability also characterizes the three factors. The Cronbach coefficient alpha is 0,87 for the pleasure factor, 0,82 for the dominance factor, and 0,66 for the arousal factor (moderate but acceptable level $\alpha > 0,6$ – see: Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

Table 2 Descriptive statistical results

Index	Mean	SD	Scale	Managers
Tolerance Of Ambiguity	62,02	8,89	0-100 scale	Low ambiguity tolerance
Job Satisfaction	5,78	1,02	1-7 scale	Sufficiently satisfied
Organizational Commitment	5,12	0,89	1-7 scale	Adequately committed

On the whole, managers' emotional dimensions towards change ambiguity are quite positive. The pleasure factor, on a +4 to -4 scale, has a value equal to 1,23 (sd:1,61); the factor of dominance has a value equal to 1,40 (sd:1,54) and the factor of arousal has a value equal to 1,58 (sd:1,28). Finally, the correlations among the three factors that capture the emotional attitudes towards change ambiguity are in general medium to low degree (0,320 $\ast < r < 0,450 \ast \ast$, $\ast p < .05$, $\ast \ast p < .01$).

Table 3 Factor analysis results (emotions)

Questions	I. Pleasure	II. Dominance	III. Arousal
CQ1	1,85		
CQ2	2,05		
CQ3	1,29		
CQ4	1,39		
CQ9		1,45	
CQ10		1,54	
CQ11		1,49	
CQ12		1,77	
CQ5			1,64
CQ6			0,95
CQ8			1,03
Eigenvalue	17,04	7,47	4,64
% Variance	37,98	16,65	10,34
Cronbach α	0,87	0,82	0,66
Mean & SD	1,23+1,61	1,40+1,54	1,58+1,28

The second principal component analysis results revealed two factors that describe managers' job involvement: (i) *importance* (variance 40,24%), and (ii) *interest* (variance 21,22%). The two factors had eigenvalues greater than 1 and accounted for 61,46% of the total variance. Further, high reliability characterizes the two factors. The Cronbach coefficient alpha is 0,81 for the *importance* factor and 0,72 for the *interest*

factor. On the whole, managers' involvement factors are considerably positive. The factor of *importance*, on a 1 to 6 scale, has a value equal to 5,32 (sd:0,84) and the factor of *interest* has a value equal to 4,21 (sd:0,77). Finally, the correlations among the two factors are in general medium to low degree ($r < 0,440^{**}$, $^{**}p < .01$).

Table 4 Factor analysis results (involvement)

Questions	I. Importance	II. Interest
CQ3	,814	
CQ2	,777	
CQ1	,774	
CQ10	,749	
CQ6	,738	
CQ8		,825
CQ7		,779
CQ5		,744
CQ9		,712
CQ4		,701
Eigenvalue	5,212	2,184
% Variance	40,24	21,22
Cronbach α	0,81	0,72
Mean & SD	5,32 $\pm$ 0.84	4,21 $\pm$ 0,77

Regression analysis results

Ordinary regressions were run in order to assess the impact of managers' emotional attitudes to their tolerance-of-ambiguity (hereafter ToA). Regarding, the hypotheses of the paper:

H1: Only the dominance factor emerged as a significant predictor of managers' ToA. Managers with high level of dominance (i.e. influential, dominant, controlling, autonomous) appear to have increased level of ToA ($b = -1,49$, $p < .001$).

H2: Job satisfaction affects positively managers' ToA. That is, managers with high level of job satisfaction, appear to have significant ambiguity tolerance ($b = -4,67$, $p < .01$).

H3: Organizational commitment is negatively related to managers' ToA. Managers with high level of organizational commitment ($b = 2,142$, $p < .001$) exhibit intolerance towards change ambiguity.

H4: Only the importance factor emerged as a significant predictor of managers' ToA. Managers with high level of importance appear to have increased level of ambiguity tolerance in their working environment ($b = -1,295$, $p < .01$).

H5: One emotion (i.e. dominance), three attitudes (i.e. job satisfaction, organizational commitment and importance) emerged as significant predictors of managers' ToA. Further, managers aged 35-44, singles, with significant educational background (Master or PhD), tend to have higher ToA.

Table 5 Regression analysis results (method enter)

Variables	Dependent Var.: ToA				
(Constant)	61,73	52,56	54,36	61,85	52,89
Dominance	-1,49***				-1,24**
Pleasure	-,81				
Arousal	-,51				
Job satisfaction		-4,67**			-,880**
Organizational Commitment			2,142***		2,320***
Importance				-1,295**	-1,125***
Age 35-44					-1,314**
Mar. status: Single					-2,112**
Education: Master/PhD					-1,425**
F	2,70**	20,22**	8,22**	7,22**	10,33**
N	180	180	180	180	180
R²	,16	,24	,32	,17	,34

*Note: ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

Stepwise regression analysis also verifies the significant influence of managers' emotional and cognitive attitudes in their tolerance of change ambiguity. Table 6 summarizes the results.

Table 6 Regression analysis results (method stepwise)

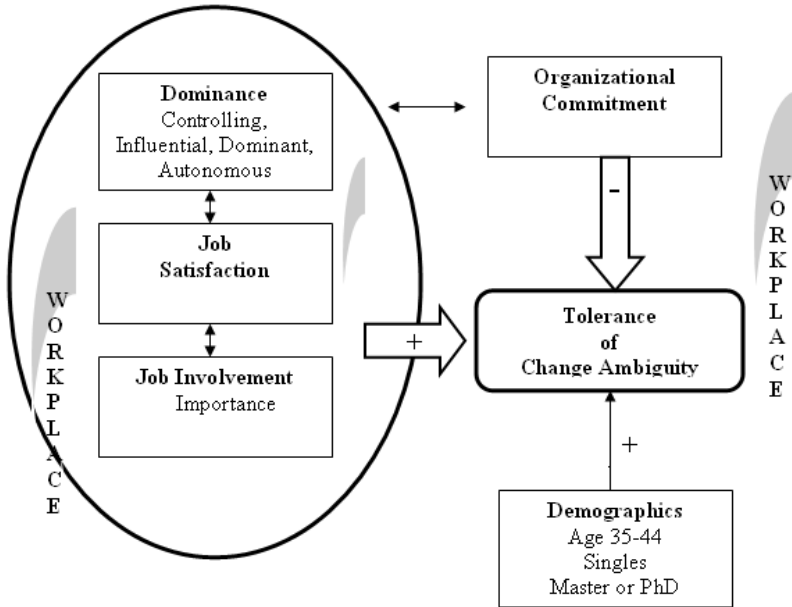
Variables	Dependent Var.: ToA
(Constant)	62,450
Organizational commitment	3,012***
Importance	-1,245***
Age 35-44	-2,082***
Education: Master/PhD	-2,011***
Mar. status: Single	-1,998**
Dominance	-,584**
Job satisfaction	-,957**
F	12,121***
N	180
R²	,294

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

The research findings indicate that although, Greek hotel managers' emotional and cognitive attitudes towards change are moderately positive; they appear to have low tolerance-of-ambiguity (ToA=62,02). Respectively, considering the radical changes in the international and national tourism industry, we suggest that the findings are quite unsatisfactory and worrying. That is, they reveal significant hesitation and intolerance towards the ambiguity/uncertainty that every change engulfs.

Consequently, we can assume that a possible reason for the relatively low Greek hotel managers' ToA is the Greek national and business environment. Relevant researches suggest that it is characterized by limited flexibility, high uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede (2001), significant uncertainty intolerance (Nicolaidis & Katsaros, 2011), and low readiness-to-change in terms of risk evasion and change avoidance (Nicolaidis, 1992). Figure 1 illustrates the factors that affect Greek hotels managers' tolerance of ambiguity.

Figure 2 Greek hotels managers' tolerance-of-ambiguity model



Finally, it is worth noting that the research is subject to a series of limitations. There are no such earlier studies in order to evaluate the research findings through time. Respectively, since the data were collected through the use of a single survey at a single point in time, the results may be influenced by temporal and/or distinctive and/or unique settings. Nonetheless, it should be noted that further investigation needs to be conducted for the Greek tourism industry, by examining concurrently other important perceptual, emotional and attitudinal variables.

IMPLICATIONS

Considering that the tourism industry will change to fit with the new external and internal environment (Leigh, 2011); and that managers' ToA is positively affected by the factors of dominance, importance and job satisfaction, the paper suggests three strategic policies that may facilitate

their performance during change uncertainty, namely: *personal control* (competence) development; *self-efficacy* (competence) increase, and *ambiguity* reduction.

In more details, Greek hotels' administrations should try to enhance their managers' *personal control* (competence) during ambiguous situations by employing the next two core practices: a) provide resources, which refers to the managers' technical and administrative support enhancement, and b) organize teams, which refers to the managers team working in order to accomplish tasks beyond their personal abilities (e.g. share information and experiences, diffuse knowledge, formulate solutions which they can either implement personally or in cooperation with others) (Nicolaidis & Michalopoulos, 2004). Further, Greek hotels' administrations should also try to develop their managers' *self-efficacy* (competence), in other words their self-belief in their ability to manage change ambiguity effectively and thus, their overall involvement. Thus, they should promote personal mastery experiences that were acquired by specific effective performances; model successful behaviours that need to be adopted; and try to acquire the proper information that may clarify all the ambiguous parameters (Whetten & Cameron, 1995). Concluding, managers should attempt to reduce the increased ambiguity during the unfreezing and changing period of change (Lewin, 1947). This may occur by employing participative strategies that may reduce change stress and promote job satisfaction, motivation, cooperation and control (Bolle de Bal, 1992); by seeking for timely, accurate and detailed information on areas of their personal concern; and by realizing the need for cognitive and emotional adaptation to the ambiguous and uncertain events (Huy, 1999).

Additionally, the research has revealed a negative relationship between managers' ToA and their organizational commitment. As literature suggests, highly committed employees with positive emotions towards their current jobs may face change ambiguity/uncertainty negatively, if they perceive them as a threat for their own benefit or harmful to the organization (Mowday, *et al.*, 1979; Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005). Consequently, we argue, that Greek hotels' administrations should try to influence their managers' emotional attitudes by delivering the right "message" to them (Armenakis *et al.*, 1999). This "message" may address managers' tolerance of ambiguity by emphasizing on changes' necessity, suitability and effective outcomes for them and the whole organization; as well as by concurrently noting the administrations' continuous support to face it effectively.

EPILOGUE

Tolerance-of-ambiguity represents a major personal skill that may promote emotional and cognitive adaptation during times of uncertainty, ambiguity and complexity. The paper findings reveal a worrying level of tolerance-of-ambiguity among Greek hotel managers. Therefore, it proposes four strategic policies (i.e. personal control development; self-efficacy increase, ambiguity reduction, right “message” delivery) that may effectively influence their emotional and cognitive attitudes and thus, their performance during environmental uncertainty and ambiguity. Finally, the paper suggests that further and deeper research is needed in the Greek tourism industry.

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RUSSIAN AND GERMAN TOURIST POTENTIAL AND SATISFACTION IN SUSTAINABLE COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE OF ALANYA DESTINATION

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The purpose of the present study is to investigate and compare the potential and the satisfaction levels of Russian and German tourists visiting Alanya in creating a sustainable competitive advantage in Alanya destination. It is a common point that Russian and Germans are two nationalities most frequently visited Alanya, town of Antalya in Turkey. Moreover, every year many Russians and Germans decide to live in Alanya. So we wonder that how global crisis effected Turkish tourism industry, especially Alanya, and Russian and German preferences. The findings from the present study help decision takers to create new marketing strategies for Russian and German tourists.

Keywords: Destination Competitiveness, Tourism, Alanya, Tourist Profile, Tourist Satisfaction.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

In the global tourism industry, increased competition for tourists has spurred many countries, cities and organizations to specialize in developments that will give them an edge over their competitors. One way to achieve this is to embark on a marketing image that depicts a destination as unique and distinctive (Pawitra and Tan, 2003). Tourist satisfaction is assumed as one of the crucial elements for a superior advantage or a distinctive image, as it influences the choice of destination and the decision to return (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). From both the



theoretical and the empirical perspectives, customer satisfaction is the key to companies' competitiveness and can be considered the essence of success in today's highly competitive world of business (Bitner and Hubbert, 1994). Therefore, enhancing customer satisfaction should be one of all destinations' primary functions and a prerequisite for the development of a strategy leading to a destination's enhanced attractiveness and its competitive positioning (Dmitrovic et al., 2009; Pearce, 1997).

In the literature, satisfaction is simply defined as the global evaluation that the consumer makes after a purchase (Campo and Yagüe, 2009). Churchill and Surprenant (1982) define satisfaction as an outcome of purchase and use resulting from the buyer's comparison of the rewards and costs of purchase in relation to the anticipated consequences. Maybe, "an evaluation of an emotion" is the shortest definition by Hunt (1977). Although different ones may be added to these definitions, consensus is sufficient regarding the key role of satisfaction for all industries from patient satisfactions in health industry to customer satisfaction in electronic retailing (e-tailing) industry and decision-makers as it leads to intention to (re)purchase, to willingness to pay more, and willingness to recommend goods/services to others (Yi and La, 2003; Yu and Dean, 2001; Abdel-Azim, 2010; Barutçu, 2010; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Soderlund, 1998; Fornell et al., 1996; Anderson et al., 1994; Fornell, 1992; Johnson and Fornell, 1991). Otherwise, dissatisfaction may occur and lead to negative behavior, such as customer complaining behavior which ultimately affects retention rates (Campo and Yagüe, 2009).

Customer satisfaction also is a vital issue to provide managerial guidance for tourism industry (Dmitrovic et al., 2009). Because satisfaction is not only an essential element for maintaining long-term relationships with tourists but also affects intentions to return, reputation (Ryan et al., 1999) and trust (Selnes, 1998). It is estimated that customer satisfaction leads to consumer loyalty and encourages the repetition of visits, while on the other hand low quality service discourages return customers (Chatzigeorgiou et al., 2009). Enhanced tourist satisfaction may lead to increased revenues and profits for service providers. Thus, recognizing and understanding the cognitive and behavioral consequences of satisfaction has important implications for destination management (Dmitrovic et al., 2009). In other words, tourist satisfaction has an important role in planning marketable tourism products and services for destinations and its assessment must be a basic parameter used to evaluate the performance of destination products and services (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). For almost all destinations, tourist satisfaction is considered as one

of the most important sources of competitive advantage (Fuchs and Weiermair, 2004; Buhalis, 2000). Therefore, tourist satisfaction monitoring may also help managers; to identify strategic objectives at the destination level, to prepare tactical and operational plans, and to increase the competitiveness of a given destination (Dmitrovic et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2008; LeHew and Wesley, 2007; Turner and Reisinger, 2001; Heung and Cheng, 2000; Soderlund, 1998; Lee et al., 2008; Hui et al., 2007; Pawitra and Tan, 2003; Huang and Xiao, 2000; Heung, 2000; Pizam et al., 1978; Christou and Saveriades, 2010). Furthermore, improvements in tourist satisfaction have come about better management for tourists, regarding better reservations, better signage, new customer care courses, and the installation of other information provision (Augustyn and Knowles, 2000).

Due to its key role of tourist satisfaction in sustainable competitive advantage of destinations, it is not so difficult to see numerous researches aimed to measure tourist satisfaction and its antecedents in the tourism literature (Serroto et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2008; Hui et al., 2007; Pawira and Tan, 2003; Kozak 2001a; Kozak, 2001b; Reisinger and Turner, 200; Huang and Xiao, 2000; Baker and Crompton, 2000; Heung, 2000; Soderlund, 1998; Tribe and Snaith, 1998; Pizam and Jeong, 1996; Hallowell, 1996). For example, Serrato and his friends (2009) stated about 12 potential variables that may influence the global satisfaction of tourists; hospitality and friendliness of people, quality of lodging facilities, environmental and cultural preservation, quality of the gastronomy, availability of fun and leisure activities, tourist information, public security, urban cleanness, noise in tourism areas, signs for tourism sites and services, infrastructure developed for tourism, and fair prices. Their regression analysis results for 1986 surveys indicated that the most important variable influencing global satisfaction of tourist was the hospitality and friendliness of people followed by fair prices. Gastronomy, the quality of lodging, and fun and leisure activities also showed some influence on global satisfaction, but a lower level. On the other hand, Cracolici and Nijkamp (2008) talks about two types of factors due to the results of their study for tourists evaluation of the quality of tourist facilities and attributes in a destination.

According to Cracoli and Nijkamp, variables including reception and sympathy of residents, artistic and cultural cities, landscape, environment and nature are "basic factors" as they characterize the comparative advantage of a tourist destination. But, the variables including information and tourist services, cultural events (concerts, festivals, art exhibitions, etc.), quality and variety of products in the shops, hotels and

other accommodation, level of prices and living costs, and tourist safety are “complementary factors”, because these factors stimulate tourists to have a higher tourist well-being. In Aktas and his friends’ study (2009) carried out in 2007 for satisfaction of tourist visiting Alanya, variables influencing tourists’ overall satisfaction with their holiday were grouped under three titles: destination facilities, accommodation services, and incoming travel agency services. Their research findings indicated that the model accounted for 22% of the variance in German tourists’ satisfaction whereas dimension of accommodation services was the strongest predictor, followed by incoming travel agency services, and destination facilities. For Russian tourists, the model accounted for 35 % of the variance in overall satisfaction, and accommodation services was also the strongest predictor, but followed by destination facilities and incoming travel agency services.

METHODS

In this study, data were collected through a questionnaire designed by the authors (Dropulić and Ružić, 2009; Pawitra and Tan, 2003; Kozak, 2001; Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Fuchs and Weiermair, 2003). Demographic survey part of the questionnaire is composed of 7 variables. And 15 variables exist on the second part of the questionnaire to measure the degree of tourist satisfaction and the factors, namely hotel, shopping, sales person, services and quality of goods, transportation, security, sea-sand-sun, night life-entertainment, etc. The instrument consisted of these 15 items answered on a five-point Likert with anchors strongly disagree (= 1) and strongly agree (=5). SPSS pc + version 15.0 was used for statistical analysis. Differences in the responses between the groups were tested by the T-Test Analysis.

FINDINGS

Alanya is a resort in Antalya, and it’s situated in the 135 km east coast of Antalya Gulf on the Anatolian Peninsula. Following the arrivals of Germans in the late 1950s, Alanya met with tourism (Aktas et al., 2007). Today, Alanya has become one of the most important tourism destinations of Turkey with its 6.5 % share in total, approximately 150.000 beds in 668 hotels and annual tourism receipts exceeding \$1 billion (Table 1 and 2).

Table 1 The Statistics About Tourism of Alanya, Antalya and Turkey

Year	Tourist Numbers			Alanya's Share (%) in		
	Turkey	Antalya	Alanya	Turkey	Antalya	Bed Capacity
2002	12.921.981	4.747.328	1.029.350	7,96	21,68	122.663
2003	13.701.418	4.681.951	988.785	7,21	21,11	127.663
2004	17.202.996	6.047.168	1.133.616	6,58	18,74	133.361
2005	20.522.621	6.884.024	1.464.686	7,13	21,27	146.302
2006	19.275.948	6.011.183	1.357.554	7,04	22,58	147.303
2007	23.017.081	7.291.356	1.510.000	6,56	20,70	154.199
2008	26.379.845	8.564.513	1.715.000	6,50	20,02	149.717
2009	27.077.114	8.260.399	1.654.975	6,11	20,03	160.844

Source: Directorate of Antalya Culture and Tourism, 2009; Economics Report of Alanya Chamber of Commerce and Industry, 2008

Table 2 The Statistics About Tourism of Alanya, Antalya and Turkey

Year	Numbers of Accommodation Firms	Average expenditure per tourist (dollar)	Total tourism receipts (dollar)
2002	768	697	717.456.950
2003	722	706	698.082.210
2004	748	705	799.199.280
2005	790	679	994.521.794
2006	669	651	883.767.654
2007	717	608	918.080.000
2008	668	635	1.089.025.000
2009	795	580	959.885.500

Source: Directorate of Antalya Culture and Tourism, 2009; Economics Report of Alanya Chamber of Commerce and Industry, 2008

Table 1-2 and Table 3 show that there is a steady increase in tourist number of Alanya, Antalya and Turkey, except 2006 and 2009. Due to global crisis, Antalya met wit a decrease of 3,55 % in tourist numbers in 2009. On the other hand, Table 2 shows that Germans and Russians are the largest two groups visited Antalya and Alanya. Contrary to Germans, there is a steady increase in the number of Russians visiting Antalya and Alanya for last five years. But, there is a decrease for both groups in 2009, 0,50% for Germans and 3,23% for Russians.

Table 3 Tourist Nations and Numbers Visited Antalya

	2008		2009		Comparison of last two years	
	January-December		January-December		2008/2009	
	Tourist number	Perc. %	Tourist number	Perc. %	Change in number	Change as a rate
Germany	2309762	26,97	2298231	27,82	-11531	-0,50
Russia	2183302	25,49	2112673	25,58	-70629	-3,23
Netherland	443316	5,18	425966	5,16	-17350	-3,91
Ukrain	452978	5,29	344233	4,17	-108745	-24,01
England	279093	3,26	319913	3,87	40820	14,63
Austria	230955	2,70	246547	2,98	15592	6,75
Poland	221471	2,59	219404	2,66	-2067	-0,93
France	214274	2,50	218636	2,65	4362	2,04
Sweden	233048	2,72	215747	2,61	-17301	-7,42
Belgium	217129	2,54	207231	2,51	-9,898	-4,56
Norway	174621	2,04	182192	2,21	7571	4,34
Israel	330153	3,85	182177	2,21	147976	-44,82
Denmark	137604	1,61	144246	1,75	6642	4,83
Others	1136807	13,26	1143203	13,82	6396	0,56
Total	8564513	100	8260399	100	-304114	-3,55

Source: Statistics of Directorate of Antalya Culture and Tourism, 2010.

Table 4 presents characteristics of the sample. First, German tourists are approximately two thirds of the sample (65.8%), and 34.2 percent are Russian tourists. Second, 58.9 percent of the Germans are female, and 41.1 percent are male. For the Russians, males are the largest group (62%), and followed by females (38%). Third, 58.9 percent of the Germans, and 57 percent of the Russians are married. Fourth, about 34 percent of German respondents report completing high school and approximately 33 percent report completing university. About 29 percent of the Germans have a master degree. On the other hand, about 76 percent of Russians respondents report completing university and approximately 18 percent report completing high school. About 4 percent of the Russians have a master degree. Fifth, the respondents who are in 42-53 year-olds make up the largest percentage of German respondents (31.4 percent), followed by those who in 18-29 year-olds (25.3 percent), those who in 30-41 year-olds (22.2 percent), those who in 54-65 year-olds (16.4 percent), and those who in above 66 year olds (4.7 percent). Russian respondents are primarily young, with 40.6 percent falling in the range of 18-29, followed by those who in 30-41 year-olds (33.4 percent), those who in 42-53 year-olds (18.8 percent), those who in 54-65 year-olds (6.6 percent), and those who in above 66 year olds (0.6 percent). About 74 percent of Russian respondents are under 41 year-olds. Sixth, the respondents who are employee in private-sector make up the largest

percentage of German respondents (55.0 percent), followed by retired (11.0 percent), student (9.1 percent), public employee (6.7 percent), the self-employed (5.6 percent), and others (12.5 percent, including unemployed and householder). Russian respondents are composed of public employee (14.4 percent), private-sector employee (26.3 percent), the self-employed (15.3 percent), retired (6.4 percent), student (9.8 percent), and others (27.8 percent, including unemployed and householder).

Table 4 Demographics Findings

Gender	German	Russian
Female	377 (58.9%)	126 (38.0%)
Male	263 (41.1%)	206 (62.0%)
Education	German	Russian
Elementary	23 (4.0%)	9 (2.7%)
High School	199 (34.3%)	59 (17.9%)
University	189 (32.5%)	249 (75.5%)
Master	170 (29.3%)	13 (3.9%)
Age	German	Russian
18-29	157 (25.3%)	130 (40.6%)
30-41	138 (22.2%)	107 (33.4%)
42-53	195 (31.4%)	60 (18.8%)
54-65	102 (16.4%)	21 (6.6%)
66 and over	29 (4.7%)	2 (0.6%)
Occupation	German	Russian
Public Employee	42 (6.7%)	47 (14.4%)
Private Sector Employee	344 (55.0%)	86 (26.3%)
Self-employment	35 (5.6%)	50 (15.3%)
Retired	69 (11.0%)	21 (6.4%)
Student	57 (9.1%)	32 (9.8%)
Other (unemployed, householder, etc)	78 (12.5%)	91 (27.8%)
Visit times	German	Russian
First visit	244 (38.1%)	216 (65.9%)
Second visit	139 (21.7%)	53 (16.2%)
Third visit	76 (11.9%)	28 (8.5%)
Fourth time and more	181 (28.3%)	31 (9.5%)
Marital Status	German	Russian
Married	371 (58.9%)	188 (57.0%)
Single	259 (41.1%)	142 (43.0%)
Monthly Personal Income	German	Russian

750 Euro and less	65 (14.3%)	147 (46.2%)
751-1500 Euro	157 (34.5%)	115 (36.2%)
1501-2250 Euro	139 (30.5%)	37 (11.6%)
2251 Euro and more	94 (20.7%)	19 (6.0%)
Type of Accommodation	German	Russian
Bed and Breakfast	4 (0.6%)	2 (0,6%)
Half Board	89 (13.9%)	1 (0.3%)
Full Board	16 (2.5%)	10 (3.0%)
All inclusive	527 (82.3%)	317 (95.5)
Other	4 (0.6%)	2 (0.6%)
Companion	German	Russian
Alone	11 (1.7%)	27 (8.2%)
Couples (wife and husband)	175 (27.6%)	79 (24.1%)
Family (children, husband/wife)	238 (37.5%)	52 (15.9%)
Children	40 (6.3%)	40 (12.2%)
Friend/classmate	154 (24.3%)	90 (27.4%)
Other (relatives, parents, dating couples)	17 (2.7%)	40 (12.2%)
Duration of Holiday	German	Russian
1-3 days	16 (2.5%)	2 (0.6%)
4-7 days	189 (29.4%)	72 (21.6%)
8 days and over	437 (68.1%)	259 (77.8%)

Seventh, for the Germans, 38.1 percent of respondents are first-time visitors, followed by who in second visit (21.7 percent), who in third visit (11.9 percent), and who in fourth and more (28.3). But, most Russian respondents are first-time visitors, occupying 65.9 percent of respondents, followed by who in second visit (16.2 percent), who in third visit (8.5 percent), and who in fourth and more (9.5). Eighth, about 34.5 percent of German respondents report having a salary between 750-1500 Euros and approximately 14.3 percent report earning less than 750 Euros in a month, followed by who in 1501-2500 Euros range (30.5 percent), and who earn more than 2250 Euros (20.7 percent). Most Russian respondents report earning less than 750 Euros in a month (46.2 percent) and 36.2 percent of Russian respondents are in 751-1500 Euros range, followed by who in 1501-2250 Euros range (11.6 percent) and who earn more than 2250 Euros (6.0 percent). Ninth, most German respondents report choosing “all-inclusive” from accommodation alternatives (82.3 percent). The next popular alternative is “half board” (13.9 percent) and then “full board” (2.5 percent) for German respondents. “bed and breakfast” alternative is preferred by only 0.6 percent of German respondents. Similarly, “all

inclusive” is preferred by most Russian respondents (95.5 percent), followed by “full board” (3.0 percent), “bed and breakfast” (0.6 percent), “half board” (0.3 percent), and others (0.6 percent). Tenth, most German respondents come with their families (37.5 percent). German respondents coming with wife/husband are next (27.6 percent), followed by those coming with classmates or friends (24.3 percent), those coming with children (6.3 percent), those coming alone (1.7 percent), and others (2.7 percent, including the dating couples, relatives, parents). Most Russian respondents come with their friends or classmates (27.4 percent). Russian respondents coming with wife/husband are next (24.1), followed by those coming with their families (15.9 percent), those coming with children (12.2 percent), those coming alone (8.2 percent), and others (12.2 percent, including the dating couples, relatives, parents).

Table 5 Comparison of German and Russian Tourist Information Sources for Alanya: Chi-Square Test Results

Getting Information About Alanya	German	Russian	Pearson Chi-Square	Sig.
Internet	323 (50,0%)	113 (33,6%)	23,991	,000 *
TV-Radio	12 (1,9%)	5 (1,5%)	,177	,446
Journal-Magazine	32 (5,0%)	8 (2,4%)	3,744	,035 *
Travel Agency	346 (53,6%)	206 (61,3%)	5,392	,012 *
Friend's Advice	152 (23,5%)	113 (33,6%)	11,447	,001 *
Others	48 (7,4%)	19 (5,7%)	1,096	,181

According to the Chi-square test results seen from Table 5, there are significant differences between the information sources used by German and Russian tourists for their decisions to visit Alanya. Chi-square test results indicate that German tourists use internet and journal-magazines more frequently than Russian tourists for vacation decisions: internet, with a percentage of 50.0 for German tourists and 33.6 for Russian tourists; and journals-magazines, with a percentage of 5.0 for German tourists and 2.4 for Russian tourists.

Table 6 Comparison of German and Russian Tourist Expenditure Items in Alanya: T-Test Results

Expenditures	Nationality	n	Mean	t	p
Food & Beverage	German	646	2,786	6,549	,000*
	Russian	336	2,267		
Excursions	German	646	3,140	-5,473	,000*
	Russian	336	3,604		
City transportation	German	646	2,593	-,791	,429
	Russian	336	2,655		
Entertainment	German	646	2,134	-9,399	,000*
	Russian	336	2,863		
Textile goods	German	646	3,335	2,902	,004*
	Russian	336	3,091		
Jewellery	German	646	2,305	3,455	,001*
	Russian	336	2,039		
Souvenir	German	646	2,862	-6,389	,000*
	Russian	336	3,380		
Others	German	646	2,870	-,832	,406
	Russian	336	2,909		

Test results indicate that Russian tourists use travel agency and friend's advice more frequently than German tourists for vacation decisions: travel agency, with a percentage of 61.3 for Russian tourists and 53.6 for German tourists; friend's advice, with a percentage of 33.6 for Russian tourists and 23.5 for German tourists. No significant difference in tv-radio preferences of Russian and German tourists for vacation decisions is found.

As seen from Table 6, t-test results indicate that there are significant differences in the expenditure preferences of German and Russian tourists. According to the test results, Russian tourists spend more than German tourists for three items. These are: excursions, with a mean of 3.60 for Russian tourists and 3.14 for German tourists; entertainment, with a mean of 2.86 for Russian tourists and 2.13 for German tourists; souvenir, with a mean of 3.38 for Russian tourists and 2.86 for German tourists. On the other hand, test results indicate that German tourists spend more than Russian tourists for other three items: food and beverage, with a mean of 2.78 for German tourists and 2.26 for Russian tourists; textile goods, with a mean of 3.33 for German tourists and 3.09 for Russian tourists; jewellery, with a mean of 2.30 for German tourists

and 2.03 for Russian tourists. There is no significant difference between the expenditures of the two groups for city transportation.

Table 7 Comparison of German and Russian Tourist Expenditures in Alanya: Chi-Square Test Results

Amount of expenditure in Alanya	German	Russian
None	22 (%3,6)	5 (%1,6)
1-250 Euro	246 (%40,5)	95 (%29,9)
251-500 Euro	181 (%29,8)	86 (%27,0)
501-750 Euro	72 (%11,8)	57 (%17,9)
751-1000 Euro	56 (%9,2)	33 (%10,4)
1001 Euro and more	31 (%5,1)	42 (%13,2)
Pearson Chi-Square	33,317	
Sig.	,000	

Chi-Square test results do show a significant difference in the amount of money that German and Russian tourist spend in Alanya (Table 7). According to the test results, Russian tourists spend more than German tourists as a percentage in three expenditure ranges. These are: 501-750 Euros, with a percentage of 17.9 for the Russians and 11.8 for the Germans; 751-1000 Euros, with a percentage of 10.4 for the Russians and 9.2 for the Germans; 1001 Euros and more, with a percentage of 13.2 for the Russians and 5.1 for the Germans. Test results indicate that German tourists spend more than Russian tourists as a percentage in first two expenditure ranges: 1-250 Euros, with a percentage of 40.5 for the Germans and 29.9 for the Russian;, 251-500 Euros, with a percentage of 29.8 for the Germans and 27.0 for the Russians. The percentage of the tourists who do not spend any Euros in Alanya is 1.6 for the Russians and 3.6 for the Germans.

T-test results, seen from Table 8, indicate that there are significant differences between the evaluations of Russian and German tourists with determinative variables in their Alanya preferences. Three out of six variables are evaluated as significantly more effective in Alanya preferences by German tourists than by Russian tourists. These variables are: sea-sand-sun, with a mean of 4.53 by German tourists and 4.35 by Russian tourists; reasonable price range, with a mean of 4.03 by German tourists, compared to 3.57 by Russian tourists; safety of destination, with a mean of 4.09 for German tourists, and 3.70 for Russian tourists. Additionally, t-test results indicate that Russian tourists find only one

variable to be more effective in Alanya preferences than German tourists. This is lively nightlife, which is given a mean of 2.61 by Russian tourists, as opposed to 2.40 by German tourists. No significant difference between the evaluations of the two groups with the effective role of Alanya's cultural and heritage attraction is found.

Table 8 Comparison of German and Russian Tourist Evaluations with Reasons for Visiting Alanya: T-Test Results (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree)

Variable	Nationality	n	Mean	t	p
Sea-sand-sun	German	646	4,535	2,605	,009*
	Russian	336	4,359		
Cultural and heritage attraction	German	646	3,222	1,531	,126
	Russian	336	3,108		
Reasonable price range	German	646	4,038	7,078	,000*
	Russian	336	3,571		
Lively nightlife	German	646	2,404	-2,762	,006*
	Russian	336	2,617		
Safety of destination	German	646	4,094	5,746	,000*
	Russian	336	3,706		
Other	German	646	3,847	1,301	,194
	Russian	336	3,802		

T-test results, seen from Table 9, suggest that Russian tourists are more satisfied than German tourists with three variables of Alanya facilities: sufficient recreation facilities, with a mean of 4.0 by Russian tourists and 3.77 by German tourists; cleanliness of city, with a mean of 3.85 by Russian tourists and 3.54 by German tourists; modernity of city, with a mean of 3.76 by Russian tourists and 3.61 by German tourists. T-test results, placed in table 8, indicate that German tourists are more satisfied than Russian tourists with the cheapness of the city, with a mean of 3.41 by German tourists and 3.07 by Russian tourists. On the other hand, no significant difference between the satisfactions of the two groups with other four variables; safety of city, sufficient shopping opportunities, people's hospitality, and transportation facilities of Alanya destination is found.

Table 9 Comparison of German and Russian Tourist Satisfaction with Alanya Destination: T-Test Results (1=dissatisfied, 5=satisfied)

Variable	Nationality	n	Mean	t	p
Cheapness of city	German	646	3,4175	4,968	,000*
	Russian	336	3,0747		
Safety of city	German	646	3,7454	-,667	,505
	Russian	336	3,7890		
Sufficient recreation facilities	German	646	3,7706	-3,626	,000*
	Russian	336	4,0014		
Cleanliness of city	German	646	3,5465	-4,594	,000*
	Russian	336	3,8556		
Modernity of city	German	646	3,6139	-2,327	,020*
	Russian	336	3,7630		
Sufficient shopping opportunities	German	646	4,1721	,054	,957
	Russian	336	4,1688		
People's hospitality	German	646	4,1784	1,929	,054
	Russian	336	4,0452		
Transportation facilities	German	646	4,2237	1,556	,120
	Russian	336	4,1271		

Table 10 Comparison of German and Russian Tourist Satisfaction with Accommodation Services: T-Test Results (1=dissatisfied, 5=satisfied)

Variable	Nationality	n	Mean	t	p
Cleanliness of Hotel	German	646	4,1250	-4,734	,000*
	Russian	336	4,4070		
Hospitality of the Staff	German	646	4,3667	-,949	,343
	Russian	336	4,4265		
Service quality	German	646	4,2390	1,945	,052
	Russian	336	4,1092		
Comfortableness of Hotel	German	646	3,9476	-5,082	,000*
	Russian	336	4,2661		
Quality of Food and Beverage	German	646	4,1373	2,046	,041*
	Russian	336	3,9938		
Animation-sports facilities	German	646	3,3857	-7,087	,000*
	Russian	336	3,9468		

T-test results indicate that Russian tourists are more satisfied than German tourists with three variables of accommodation services (Table 10): cleanliness of hotel, with a mean 4.12 by German tourists, as opposed to 4.40 by Russian tourists; comfortableness of hotel, with a mean of 3.94 by German tourists and 4.26 by Russian tourists; animation-sports facilities, with a mean of 3.38 by German tourists and 3.94 by Russian tourists. As seen from Table 9, German tourists are more satisfied than Russian tourists with the quality of food and beverage, with a mean of 4.13 by German tourists and 3.99 by Russian tourists. On the other hand, no significant difference in service quality and staff hospitality satisfactions of the two groups is found. Moreover, T-test results do not indicate a significant difference between the evaluations of Russian and German tourists with other variables.

Table 11 Comparison of German and Russian Tourist Satisfaction with Holiday: T-Test Results (1=dissatisfied, 5=satisfied)

Variable	Nationality	n	Mean	T	p
Overall holiday satisfaction	German	646	4,4165	-2,245	,025*
	Russian	336	4,5461		
Intent to recommend Alanya for holiday	German	646	4,4038	-,177	,860
	Russian	336	4,4145		
Intent to come again	German	646	4,2377	-,294	,769
	Russian	336	4,2584		
Intent to live in Alanya	German	646	2,4709	-1,467	,143
	Russian	336	2,6028		

T-test results indicate that Russian tourists are more satisfied than German tourists with holiday satisfaction, with a mean of 4.54 by the Russians, compared to 4.41 by the Germans (Table 11). T-test results do not indicate a significant difference between the evaluations of Russian and German tourists with other variables: intent to recommend Alanya for holiday, with a mean of 4.40 for the Germans and 4.41 for the Russians; and intent to come again, with a mean of 4.23 for the Germans and 4.25 for the Russians; and intent to live in Alanya, with a mean of 2.47 for the Germans and 2.60 for the Russians. Test results indicate that both German and Russian tourists are more satisfied with their holiday in Alanya, and they want to recommend this town to their friends/relatives, and to visit Alanya again. But, according to the test results, German and Russian tourists are not so eager to live in Alanya.

CONCLUSION

Germans and Russians are the largest two groups visited Alanya. There is a steady increase in the number of Russians visiting Alanya for last five years. But, there is a small decrease in number of both groups in 2009 due to Global crisis. On the other hand, research results indicate that some differences exist between the preferences, perceptions and evaluations of German and Russian tourists about Alanya. For example, German tourists use internet and journal-magazines more frequently than Russian tourists for vacation decisions. But, Russian tourists frequently use travel agency and friend's advice for their vacation decisions for Alanya. On the other hand, research results indicate that Russian tourists spend more for excursions, entertainment, and souvenir, whereas German tourists spend more for food and beverage, textile goods and jewellery. Sea-sand-sun, reasonable price range and safety of destination are first three critical elements for Germans to prefer Alanya. Lively nightlife of Alanya is a determinative element for Russians. These are similar to the findings of Aktas and his friends' research (2009) applied in Alanya in 2007.

Also research results indicate that Russian tourists are more satisfied than German tourists with Alanya's recreation facilities, cleanliness and modernity. But, German tourists are more satisfied than Russian tourists with the cheapness of the city. Furthermore, Russian tourists are more satisfied than German tourists with cleanliness, comfortableness, and animation-sports facilities of hotels. But, German tourists were more satisfied than Russian tourists with the quality of food and beverage. According to the research results, Russian tourists were more satisfied than German tourists with overall holiday satisfaction. As a result, these two groups are half of the tourist potential of Alanya and similar researches should be implemented periodically to determine their satisfaction to create a sustainable competitive advantage in tourism industry.

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ARGUMENTS IN FAVOR OF TAXING TOURISM: THE LANZAROTE CASE STUDY

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This work discuss the theoretical foundation for the introduction of a taxation mechanism capable of collecting the necessary and indispensable financial resources to carry out public policies aimed at planning and managing tourism development. The research focus on some dynamics observable in Lanzarote (Spain), where different aspects and impacts of tourism development are identified and analyzed to demonstrate the existence of external costs. The ascertainment of external costs in Lanzarote leads the research to examine the theory of the "rent capture" as Hartwick proposes to reach some conclusions as the use of tax revenues for the enlargement of the carrying capacity of physical facilities or the funding of research for improving destination management strategies. The originality of this article is to delve into the theoretical justification for the implementation of a taxation mechanism at tourism destinations.

Keywords: *Tourism destination management, external costs, taxation mechanism*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Environmental degradation generated by tourism development along with a lack of specific and integrated management for the preservation of natural resources has brought about economic decline to many tourism destinations (Hall, 1998; Boyra, 2009; Dodds & Butler, 2010). In particular, the progressive depletion of natural resources generated by the impact of mass tourism in coastal areas have shown limits, which confirm



what is stated in the theory of the cycle of life of the tourist area (Butler, 1980).

To avoid economic decline in tourist areas is necessary therefore to develop an efficient and sustainable planning of territorial resources based on a coordinated management strategy.

This article focuses on the theoretical foundation for the introduction of a taxation mechanism to develop appropriate policies and procedures for a more sustainable use and consumption of local tourism services and assets. Tourists, who are generally considered large users of local resources, consistently generate external costs for the local host communities. In fact, the latter often bear financial expenditures aimed at organizing their territories for adequate tourism reception, while normally very little contribution comes from the tourism sector. The capturing rent is the impact that tourists have on the local resources and specifically on those related to the natural environment. If we consider the natural environment as a non-renewable resource, then the rules set by natural resource economics theory should be followed if the sustainable management of the local economy is to be pursued.

We may fairly state that where governmental obligations in maintaining and providing public goods and services to satisfy tourists public authorities should naturally call for their contribution. There is therefore a justification for tourism taxation. However, when environmental goods are also taken into account further considerations must be made. In fact, taxation is not only a tool that aims to recover costs generated by the presence of tourists. It can also represent a sort of pricing mechanism through which it is possible to assign an economic value to normally common environmental goods. In this way, it would be possible to rationalize their accessibility to avoid their overexploitation.

Open access resource exploitation drives resource rents to zero and leads to the overuse of the resource (Barbier, et al., 1994). The lack of resource rents constrains investment opportunities to somehow rejuvenate or substitute the exploited resource. In this way, once the resource has been thoroughly depleted, the community whose existence it was based on, finds itself impoverished and with no other possibilities of productively exploiting that resource or finding other alternatives.

It is generally recognized that tourism generates economic rents that are much higher than the marginal social cost of the locally provided services (Bird, 1992). Furthermore, it is also quite normal for private suppliers of tourist services to try to maximize these rents above normal level. As a result, a policy aimed at drawing out much of the rent by taxing economic agents involved in tourism activities could generate a

flow of money from the tourism sector to the local government in order to meet the local community needs.

LANZAROTE CASE STUDY

The Canary Archipelago is one of the most popular Spanish tourist destinations. During 2007 around 9.4 million foreign arrivals were registered. Likewise the Canary Islands represent, in terms of accommodation capacity supply, the fourth Spanish tourist destination with more than 150.000 hotel beds. These figures show the importance of tourism in the Canary Archipelago economy.

An almost ideal year round climate has contributed to transform the "Fortunate Islands" in an affordable and popular subtropical tourist destination. The volcanic origin of the archipelago explains the attractiveness of its landscape. The particular isolation of this insular system explains the preservation of a series of major and unique ecosystems within its borders.

The magnificence of these natural assets has been recognized both by the Spanish and local government since the 1970 decade with the declaration of an important number of protected areas. The Canary Archipelago is an autonomous region, which enjoys a decentralized system of government and has its own parliament. Its legislative effort tends to preserve the biodiversity value of its territory. Nevertheless some areas have already been overdeveloped.

Lanzarote is the easterly and northernmost island of the seven major ones that constitute the Canary Archipelago. The island lies in the Atlantic Ocean at only 100 km distance from the coast of Africa and 1000 km distance from the Iberian Peninsula. It runs 60 km from north to south and only 20 km at its widest point from west to east, covering an area of 846 km square with an altitude rising from 0 to 670 m above sea level at its highest point. Meteorological data for 2001 (see table 1) give an idea of weather conditions and its remarkable suitability for tourism development.

With almost 100 sand beaches Lanzarote became a main tourist destination from the decade of 1970. The Timanfaya National Park declaration in 1974 implied the recognition to preserve a share of the unique and pristine natural environment of Lanzarote. During the decades of 1980 and 1990 tourism growth consolidated and brought economic welfare to the islanders as well as revolutionary changes in their social, cultural and consumption patterns. Urbanization developed fast and a series of major tourist resorts were built while an increasing influx of

people both foreign and national began to settle permanently on the island mainly attracted by job opportunities directly or indirectly generated by tourism development.

Table 1 Meteorological Data of Lanzarote in 2001.

Month	Wind speed (km/h)	Humidity %	Rain (mm)	Rain (days)	Temp. C°
January	19	73	0.9	4	17.9
February	19	71	0.0	0	17.9
March	22	75	0.1	1	19.4
April	30	73	0.3	3	19.7
May	22	74	0.0	3	20.2
June	30	69	0.0	0	22.5
July	34	65	0.0	1	23.2
August	29	67	0.0	0	26.2
September	19	67	0.5	3	25.3
October	18	68	0.2	1	23.7
November	21	66	32.2	10	20.6
December	15	73	3.8	5	19.4
Average	23.2	70	3.2	2.6	21.3

Source: Instituto Nacional de Meteorología (2002).

In October 1993 the whole island of Lanzarote was declared Reserve of the Biosphere by UNESCO at the request of the local government called Cabildo. Its aim is to mitigate the negative environmental impact due mass tourism on the island. A year later, in 1994, the Cabildo modified the Nature Protected Areas Law to enable the preservation of over 40% of the insular territory from further urban development (UNESCO, 2002). Despite the planning efforts of the local government, the gradual growth of residents and tourist flows towards Lanzarote increases day to day the pressure upon its natural resources (Spilanis & Karayiannis, 2009; Brida, 2011). Throughout the decade of 1990 a fast growing foreign tourist demand partially switched into a demand for permanent second residence on the island. At present, more than 3,641 houses in Lanzarote are owned by foreigners most of them (57.4%) are located in the municipality of Tias. Demographic figures registered a spectacular growth of the population between 1988 and 2008 (see table 2). The island is visited annually by almost 2 million tourists, mainly coming from United Kingdom, Germany and Spain. The accommodation

offer, basically concentrated in hotel units, exceeds the number of 65.000 beds, located basically in 3 major tourist areas, Puerto del Carmen, Costa Teguise and Playa Blanca (see chart 1).

Table 2 Population of Lanzarote (1988-2008).

Year	Population	Daily tourist average	Total population
1988	65.503	17.182	82.685
1993	72.755	36.188	108.943
1998	84.849	45.539	130.388
2003	114.715	48.798	163.513
2008	139.506	48.026	187.532

Source: Cabildo de Lanzarote (2009a).

During the period 1986-2008 tourist flows grew spectacularly multiplying by four the total number of arrivals to the island. The number of holidaymakers in 1986 was below half a million, in 1991 tourists were over one million, in 1997 over one million and a half, whereas in 2008 almost 2 million tourists visited the island (Cabildo de Lanzarote, 2009b).

This trend implies a major challenge for the management of Lanzarote natural resources since tourists and non-official residents are not directly subject to a taxation mechanism.

In addition, foreign population growth implies an integration challenge for the local community as well as an increasing demand on goods and services like public health, education, among others. A survey carried out in 2007 about local population opinion in relation to tourism development in the island obtained the following results; more than 50% of the respondents believed that the situation of tourism in the island had gone to worse whereas about 32% answered that any substantial improvement was been achieved.

Taking into account the result of this survey it seems even more crucial for the future development of tourism in the island to strengthen the practice of a taxation mechanism. This practice should improve funds redistribution towards local population needs including the protection of its fragile insular system. Despite local government efforts to regulate land uses through its Insular Plan for Land Planning and its successive adjustments, tourist growth is still difficult to manage due tourist accommodation facilities development.

Figure 1 Map of Lanzarote



Source: <http://www.turismolanzarote.com> (2009).

In fact, the tourist moratorium 2000-2010 was meant to establish limits to the increase of new tourist accommodation facilities for the following ten years, nevertheless about 8000 tourist beds have been built outside legal framework and 4000 have been stopped before construction during this period. Still, another major threat persists this is the recovery of previously granted building rights that require compensative payments.

An ecological reform of the tax system could generate extraordinary funds with which to meet the expenditure necessities to restrain environmental impoverishment and, in particular, to curb the trend towards increasing urbanization as a result of tourist growth (González Morales & Hernández, 2005).

THE NON-RENEWABLE RESOURCES DEPLETION THEORY AND THE HARTWICK RULE FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF TOURISM ECONOMIC SUSTAINABILITY

From an economic analysis, the non-renewability condition brings some problems to the management of resources. These are mainly seen in

aspects such as how quickly the resource is depleted. Indeed, reasoning in terms of the exploitation of a mine, a unit of resource extracted today implies that a smaller amount of that resource will be available tomorrow.

For this reason, an efficient resource exploitation path this is the amount extracted or exploited in each period of the resource lifetime must be identified.

The theory on non-renewable resource use basically refers to an analysis drafted by Gray in 1914 (Hartwick & Olewiler, 1998) where the hypothetical manager of a non-renewable resource – a mine is his specific example – decides the quantity of resource to extract and for how long, on the basis of certain assumptions.

The result of his analysis showed that a company, in deciding how to extract a certain resource stock, must choose an extraction path represented by $(q^*_t, q^*_{t+1}, \dots, q^*_T)$, that is quantity q at each point of the resource lifetime $(t, t+1, \dots, T)$ which maximizes its profits.

Since extraction takes place over more than one period of time, then what has to be maximized is the present value of profits, which can be expressed as follows:

$$\pi = pq_0 - TC(q_0) + \frac{[pq_1 - TC(q_1)]}{(1+r)} + \dots + \frac{[pq_T - TC(q_T)]}{(1+r)^T}$$

where p is the market price of a resource unit extracted; TC represents the total costs of extracting a quantity q_t of resource.

The problem finds its solution in correspondence of the condition for which the extraction rate $[(q_{t+1} - q_t)/q_t]$ must satisfy the r percent extraction rule on $[p - MC(q_t)]$ which is given by:

$$\frac{[p - MC(q_{t+1})] - [p - MC(q_t)]}{[p - MC(q_t)]} = r$$

where the new notation MC is the marginal cost of extraction. The value decline of the resource, $[p - MC(q_t)]$ is the rent at time t which corresponds to any gap between price and marginal cost. In other words, on the basis of marginal profits equality across periods, the r percent rule tells us that across two periods the rent $[p - MC(q_t)]$ increases at a r percent rate.

Hence, the extraction problem finds its solution in correspondence with that extraction rate $[(q_{t+1} - q_t)/q_t]$ so that $[p - MC(q_t)]$ increases at r percent.

This can be represented in the following figures 3 and 4:

Figure 3 Period t

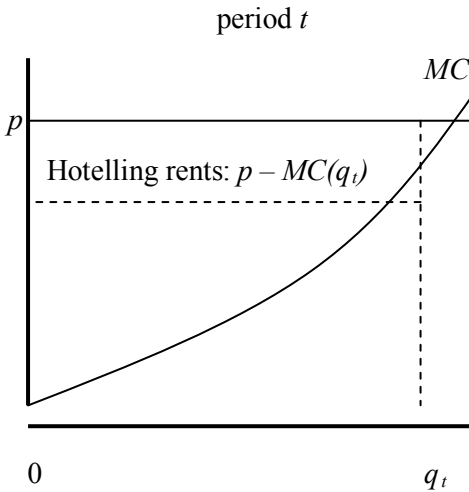
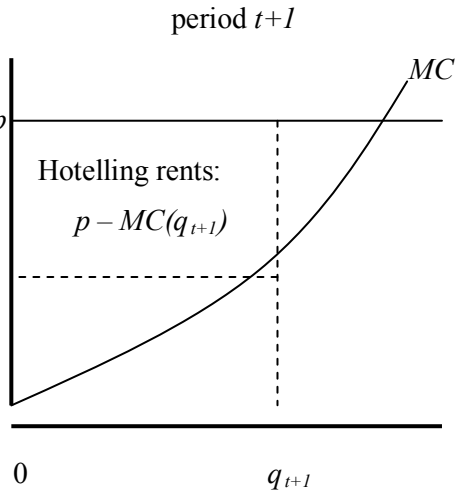


Figure 4 Period $t+1$



The r percent rule can also be interpreted as rent on the marginal resource quantity extracted in period t which equals the discounted rent extracted in the next period. The rent issue is strictly related to the value of the non-renewable resource. From what we have said, the use of a non-renewable resource stock is managed on the basis of a profit maximizing reasoning which is based on an agreed upon extraction program, which in turn implies an agreed current value of the resource.

In green accounting studies, which have focused on computing values associated with natural capital stocks, such as mineral deposits and timber stocks, there is a general agreement on how to define the value of such natural assets. In fact, the current value (or selling price) V_t is given by the discounted future profit along a maximizing extraction path $(q^*_t, q^*_{t+1}, \dots, q^*_T)$, which can be formally written in the following way:

$$V_t \equiv [pq_t^* - TC(q_t^*)] + \frac{[pq_{t+1}^* - TC(q_{t+1}^*)]}{(1+r)} + \dots + \frac{[pq_T^* - TC(q_T^*)]}{(1+r)^{T-t}}$$

where again p is the market price of a unit of extracted resource, q^* is the optimal quantity extracted at each point in time, TC is the total extraction cost and r is the discount rate. From this expression, and on the basis of the consideration that the resource value in the next period V_{t+1} is less because a certain quantity q_t has been removed, it follows that a change in the value of the natural asset is given by:

$$\Delta V_t \equiv V_{t+1} - V_t = \frac{rV_{t+1}}{(1+r)} - [pq_t^* - TC(q_t^*)]$$

where $V_{t+1} - V_t$ is the capital decreasing variation due to the extraction of quantity q_t^* (which is negative since $V_t > V_{t+1}$), $rV_{t+1}/(1+r)$ is the discounted interest on the resource value, and $[pq_t^* - TC(q_t^*)]$ represents the current income achieved by the actual resource use. Following the “net price method” for valuing non renewable resources, a consequence of the above expression representing the “correct” extraction is the following:

$$\Delta V_t = -(p_t - MC_t)q_t^*$$

where MC is the marginal cost. What is expressed by this last equation is the fundamental relation between the decline in value of a non renewable resource and the rent associated with the current extraction level. Indeed, the decline in the resource value, this is its economic depreciation, is equal to the rent associated with q_t^* .

The intuitive explanation between economic depreciation and rent lies in Hartwick rule playing an enforcing role in the argument for tax implementation. Under certain conditions, an economy which extracts a non renewable resource can pursue a non declining consumption over time. Supposing that a non renewable resource stock is not addressed to direct consumption, it can be used as an input factor in a production process together with physical capital and the output of this process can be either consumed or accumulated as capital, a positive amount of consumption over time can be maintained (Hartwick, 1977).

Hartwick rule states that if the owner of a non-renewable resource, for example a mine or a tourism resource, invests each year the rents obtained from the resource use in an interest bearing account, then by the time the resource is completely exhausted he will have accumulated enough money to acquire another equally valuable mine and sustain his mining business.

Acting in this way he will be able to guarantee his economic sustainability although facing resource depletion. To achieve the result provided by Hartwick theory, three basic conditions must occur. The first two are strictly linked to each other. At each point in time the extraction of an exhaustible resource should be based on an efficient and non wasteful program.

When this first condition is satisfied, then the second one can take place: all generated rents should be saved and reinvested in man-made or physical capital. Finally, although the third condition has not been expressly reported it lives implicitly in the model since it represents the basic theoretical assumption for the existence of Hartwick idea.

This condition is based on a very weak idea of sustainability, as referring to the high substitutability degree between the exhaustible resource this is the natural resource and the man-made capital since these are thought to be perfect substitutes for one another. In other terms, this condition requires that while the exhaustible resource is depleted a compensating increase of the man-made capital must take place and that the latter substitutes the former in the production processes so that the output does not decrease.

As is easy to see Hartwick rule is based on assumptions that are difficult to support. In particular, the third condition which refers to the perfect substitution between natural and man-made capital cannot be considered true in the real world. For this reason, Hartwick was subject to criticism (Barbier & Markandya, 1990; Common & Perrings, 1992; Hanley et al., 1997).

CONCLUSION

Despite that Lanzarote has been protected as a Biosphere Reserve by UNESCO its evolution does not differ much from those registered in other mass model tourist destinations and therefore tourism overdevelopment is threatening its own socioeconomic future.

That is why effective management, offered by legal and urban bodies and powered by the Insular Plan for Land Planning with the support of the

Guidelines of General and Tourist Planning Canaries Authority is fundamental to mitigate environmental and tourist experience decline.

Tourism has brought hitherto higher incomes and increasing consumption patterns among its population. However islander consciousness and participation in decision-making is also a fundamental requirement to achieve long-term environmental and socioeconomic benefits (Skanavis & Sakellari, 2011).

Taxation mechanisms for planning and managing tourism development are necessary to avoid risks like gradual natural resources degradation or vice versa to enhance the environmental quality of destinations (Fennell & Ebert, 2004; Brida & Pereyra, 2009).

According to the theoretical analysis discussed a taxation mechanism needs to be implemented and its funds used to promote environmental and social plans that can guarantee more sustainable practices on the destination. However, tourism taxation is not easy to implement.

Although an appropriate way of taxing tourism should be based on the daily spending capacity of tourists, it is difficult to identify each stage of tourist spending activity on a tax basis. Basically, tourism can be taxed in two different ways: either indirectly through the general tax system – particularly profits and sales taxes – or directly through the introduction of special taxes imposed on tourism activities, in particular arrival and departure taxes and hotel taxes.

Among the many forms of taxation, relevant attention in literature is paid to the hotel tax – or bed-night tax – because it best responds to some good taxation principles. In fact, the hotel tax is important because it is roughly proportional to the use of tourism resources, since it is related to length of stay, and has a discriminatory nature, in that it falls on visitors and not on residents.

Furthermore, it generates various other advantages, such as that – if taxation is considered within certain percentage (i.e. 5%) – of showing no statistically significant negative impact on tourist arrivals with the result of not harming the competitiveness of the travel industry (Bonham, 1991; Bird, 1992; Wicks et al., 1994; Bonham & Byron, 1996). Hotel room tax is widely applied (World Travel and Tourism Council, 1999) and is often nominated as the best tool for tourism taxation.

The application of a hotel room tax in Lanzarote can be supported for the reasons we have discussed, however due to the features of local tourism, which is characterized not only by hotel accommodation but also by non hotel facilities we need to consider a bed night tax rather than a hotel room one including, this way, all categories of tourism accommodation facilities.

Another important aspect is represented by the assignment of the financial resources arising from the tax application. The form and level of taxation are sensibly dependent on how the tax revenues are spent. The specific literature refers to strong evidence suggesting that in particular activities, like tourism, it may be possible to levy higher tax levels if a portion of the obtained revenues are employed to benefit the taxpayers (Bird, 1990).

The introduction of a tax on tourism can be more generally accepted by both the industry and tourists if there is tangible evidence that a consistent proportion of its revenue is used for the improvement of tourism facilities, human resources and preservation of the intrinsic quality of the natural environment of the area.

There is an unequivocal conflict between the maintenance of a natural system and the exploitation of that system for tourism purposes. As we have extensively discussed above, such conflict is clearly mirrored in a wider context and also have negative impacts on the well-being of the local population in time (Bird, 1992). As a consequence, it is worth compensating the local population for the loss of unrestricted access to the resource, and for the unavoidable discomfort and sense of deprivation arising from the mix of people and lifestyles. In other words, tourism tax revenue should be redistributed on a basis that ensures local tourism industry benefits while at the same time guarantees the provision of the local community; investments for the enlargement of the carrying capacity of physical facilities could be financed as well as research to improve and modernize destination planning and management strategies to guarantee the success of the tourism destination in the long term.

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PATRIMONY, SUSTAINABILITY AND DEVELOPMENT RECONSIDERED: A CRITICAL REVIEW

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Development and sustainability are terms under a hot debate in anthropology academy today and for a long time more. For one hand, the anthropology for development will argue that societies are located in a continuum in search for rationalization and social evolution; for the other hand, neo-Marxist anthropologists (known as well as anthropology of development) will emphasize the idea that some countries monopolize a major grade of capital with the aim to dominate politically to others weaker counties. By utilizing the ideology in educating undeveloped countries for an efficient economic resources administration, First World deploys a combination of financial assistance and ideological discourses enrooted in the paradigm of development, heritage, cultural tourism and sustainability to keep the control in a changing world. Likewise, the development not only is a troublesome concept -in part very difficult to grasp- but also comprises a mechanism to create a bridge between material exploitation and human's necessities. The present paper insists in the importance of development critical in these types of issues.

Keywords: *Development, Patrimony, Sustainability, Tourism, Hegemony.*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Popular wisdom valorizes the patrimony as one of factors that help alleviating poverty and protecting the environment in developing countries. It is important to note that *Ecological economics* published in Europe by Martinez Alier was of course the pioneer work in these types of issues. Taking its cue from Polanyi, Kapp and Roegen, Martinez Alier traces the history of ecological publications since 1880 to 1950 (Alier, 1987). The protection and sustainability have been expanded to the four corners of globe in last years. For further understanding, let clarify



readers that between 1975 and 1985 two well-known senior researchers introduce patrimony as a neologism in the study of tourism. J. Heytens, in 1978, argued that tourist patrimony should be the essence for the development of tourist resources in order for residents to enhance local destinations. Shaped by a broader articulation of human and material resources, the patrimony roomed in the specialized literature to the development of other no lesser polemic term, *Tourist Capital* (Heytens, 1978:115). A couple of years later, to be exact in 1982, P. Gray contended that tourist patrimony was a pre-condition for the enhancement of tourism in zones with needs of betterness (Gray, 1982: 32).

In tourism and hospitality fields the concept of patrimony has been currently developed accompanied of other two terms: development and sustainability (Goodwin, 2002). Now, even if countless studies devoted considerable attention in sustainability in the process of touristification (Boullon, 1985; Vitry, 2003; Silva Santo, 2003; Schluter, 2008) (Nadeau et al, 2008; Alvarez and Korzay, 2008; Franch et al, 2008; Dwyer, 2008; Dos Santos and Antonini Oliveira, 2004; Blake et al, 2008; Altman and Finlayson, 2003; Santana Talavera, 2006; Moscardo, 2007; Sdrali and Chazapi, 2007; Blake et at, 2008; Gronau and Kaufman, 2009; Pearce, 2008; Alves and Hilal, 2009; Singal and Uysal, 2009; Bagri, Gupta and Babu, 2009; Lade, 2010; Lacher and Nepal, 2010), less attention was given to the influence exerted by colonialism in the configuration of idea of protection. Our thesis is colonialism that characterized the European expansion thru XIXth century paved the pathways in conjunction with academic disciplines such as philosophy, ethnology and anthropology to create a pervasive image of colonized folks. For one hand, concerns related to disappearance of non-western cultures have been contrasted with a sentiment of paternalism enrooted in a much broader sentiment of superiority based in civilization and rationality. Similar thoughts endured the passing of years. Concepts as patrimony, development, heritage and sustainability seem to be more than forms of alienation, they play a pivotal role not only to drawing the boundaries between self-hood and otherness but also by perpetuating the spirit of colonialism.

DEVELOPMENT AND HEGEMONY

The problems of patrimony and development have been broadly examined by many studies in tourism fields. For instance, G. Moscardo explains that numerous evaluations have stressed out the negative consequences of development in tourism considering the following fourth aspects: a) modest or no profitability of residents (Kiss, 2004), b) negative

impacts on culture (Forstner, 2004), c) Real-Estate speculation that leads resident to an inaccessibility to lands (Vail and Hultkrantz, 2000) and d) damage to natural heritage and patrimony (Briassoulis, 2002). In addition, M. Nihalani certainly argues that development based on the paradigm of sustainability seems to be fruitful for involving community because it revitalizes the renewable and non-renewable resources to enlarge the threshold of economic benefits and reducing costs (Mihalani, 2008). Gronau and Kaufmann repeatedly discussed to what extent the tourism industry can be considered a sustainable activity instead of sustainable development. These scholars consider that earlier paradigm predicting how more sustainable tourism evolves, seems to be at least debatable. The process of globalization where dissimilar markets are rushed to compete in unequal conditions should be other premise that proponents of sustainability and development have very tough to explain. The overdependence of destinations as well as the hegemony of few tourist wholesalers in the market places the question of development and sustainability in serious problems (Gronau and Kaufmann, 2009). As this argument given, Moscardo realizes it is strongly necessary to have a sufficient understanding about the effects of development in communities (Moscardo, 2007). Nonetheless, the whole of these studies do not follow the historiography and evolution of development in the threshold of time. Afterwards Truman discourse in 1949 two antagonist waves surfaced by discussing about potentialities of development in underdeveloped societies in social Science and even in Anthropology.

Anthropology and Ethnology have been in a quandary very hard to resolve. For one hand, some anthropologists contended that technological facets of societies follow a linear evolution wherein communities pass to next phase of industrialization only adapting the basic assumptions of neo-liberal economy. The exchange of thoughts and knowledge would promote development and of course improve the condition of life of lay-people. Rather, other scholars convincingly warned there are societies with greater and lesser degree of capital. Those countries characterized by a high concentration of capital are aimed at dominating other weaker countries (to sustain their own survival) by means of financial control of loans that encourages the neo-liberalism (Escobar, 1995; Escobar, 1997; Grillo, 1985; Hobart, 1993; Viola, 2000; Esteva, 2000; Isla, 2005; Zamora and Garcia, 2008). Assumptions of this nature still are being discussed critically in anthropological literature over 40 years. One of the characteristics of ideology is not related in such to false consciousness or the dissemination of certain message, but in the scripted discourse which creates a situation of continuous necessity. Following this wave, the needs

of being a developed country are not only an illusion but also the platform to soliciting loans in international organism as IMF (Rist, 1996).

The higher rates under peripheral countries should be subject at time of soliciting a financial aid as well as the lack of control of international banking system in the loans play a pivotal role to create a linkage of dependence between developed and developing or undeveloped countries. The ongoing indebtedness in combination with lack of control by International Financial Organisms contributes to solidify the previous economic imbalances that ushered solicitants to their current conditions. Whenever a program of development or sustainability has not success enough, the involving experts reply this happens because non-developed countries have social pathologies associated to political instability, cultural corruption and lack of rational thought to administrate their own resources. A discourse of this caliber seems to be nourished highlighting all cultural deficiencies of solicitant country as a prerequisite to justify the complete failure of applied program (Cardelli and Rosenfeld, 1998). Many other scholars like Schnapper denounces this moot point are of course triggered by the doctrine of rationalization which highlight the process of development should be based on an efficient administration of resources. The exacerbation of rationalization and efficiency in administrative issues is often associated to the needs for centralizing a considerable degree of material resources at the time others less important may be privatized. Nonetheless, one of the points the anthropology for development is unable to explain is why in spite of the more and more money invested, countries in Third World are worse.

For European and American ethnocentrism, "Being developed seems not to be criteria enough to be in better conditions", a country should deserve to be developed (Schnapper, 1988). Similarly, Corbalan (2004) brings into question how United States duplicated between 1980 and 1990 the financial assistance to Latin America and Africa without any type of control. That way, United States not only changed the ideology of conquest but also replaced the old discourse of race and evolution by other newer intended to emphasize on governability. The concept of governability plays similar hegemonic role than rationality in former century. The thesis here is who manages the interest rates of loans can surely control the world. This begs a more than interesting question which is the role played by tourism in this process?

TOURISM: A WAY OF DEVELOPMENT OR A MECHANISM OF ALIENATION

As previously explained, Caton and Almeida Santos showed that modern tourist's experiences are in-depth embedded in certain depictions which are of course created during the colonialism. The image of third world as pristine, savage, fascinating but dangerous determine the presence of discursive strategies related to the exoticization of hosts that were found to be so prevalent in qualitative-related assessments of pictures took by visitors at destination. Triggered by racial and cultural constructions, students represent to "the other" following a specific binary combination associated with: traditional/modern, subject/object, master/servant, center/periphery and devious/lazy (Caton and Almeida Santos, 2008: 23). After all, this work evidenced how the old stereotypes coined in XIXth not only have been lasted in the threshold of time but also reinforced the logic of hegemony between center and periphery.

These last remarks lead us to a classical work authored by Turner and Ash who found that tourism very well replicates and of course continues the ideology of slavery and imperialism. The continuous concentration of capital in few hands rushes implicitly people traveling towards scarcely populated areas with the end of satisfying all their repressed necessities. Basically, tourist consumption not only allows "golden hordes" to consume all available resources at destinations but predispose peripheral societies into a vicious circle enrooted into poverty (Turner and Ash, 1975). Following this, R. Bianchi warns about the current tendency to envisage the cultural practice of tourism as a place wherein individuals create their own identities prioritizing a false hope of independence and self-actualization facilitated thanks to tourism consumption. This utopia determines a freedom to consume and of course the odds to be consumed; anyway, this freedom entails a cost. What neoliberal theories do not explicitly admit is whenever one group gains a huge profitability other is substantially deprived (Bianchi, 2009).

Up to day, scholars have agreed tourism plays a pervasive role in the revitalization of local resources. Like nationalism, tourism exploits commercially the heritage in order for residents to experience a pride for their local and national customs. The exclusiveness of the commercialized relic and staged authenticity boosts a sentiment of belonging. However, negative effects emerged associated to the speculation of lands and real estate, inflations, conflicts between hosts and guest and rise local resentment against tourists (Kala, 2008: 66). Certainly, E. De Kadt considered that not always development leads hosts to improve the life of

their communities. In accordance partially to Marxian scholars, De Kadt (1992) was convinced that countries where colonialism had a strong presence show less chances to achieve a real economic liberty than others where colonialism had been absent. To cut the long story short, one of problems of this critical perspective, it is hitherto has not be continued by other scholars. Tourism academy seems to remain reluctant to accept the current problems of sustainability and development's theories and their detractors have not drawn the sufficient attention from other academicians.

THE TROUBLING CONCEPT OF PATRIMONY

The relationship between patrimony, sustainability and development have been a wide-spread paradigms present in the whole part of specialized literature. Like anthropology many years back, in tourism and hospitality fields the scholarship currently deems that patrimony can be comprehended as an effective measure to save the resources of a community which are in danger. Ethimologically, the term patrimony derives from the Latin Patrimonium which signifies what one might be inherited by lineage of father. This word was originally applied on disputes related to heritage and rights of offspring in receiving goods and households from father or grand-father. Let us reminds readers that economy and hierarchal administration in Ancient Rome follows a model based on the patriarchal archetype (Lima-Paul, 2003) wherein term patrimony was not linked to the protection, at least in a direct way.

The unfettered expansion of Roman Empire promptly disseminated throughout the known world as well as the smuggling of statues and other relics. The collection of pieces innate to other lands was being intensified meanwhile Rome expanded its own hegemony. After all, in II century (B.C) craftsmen ceased to create handicrafts because they were imported from Eastern cities. For example, the Conquest of minor Asia contributed with golden and silver pieces for an amount of 18 millions of denarius (Robert, 1992:246). To the best of our knowledge, through the regency of Constantine (312 DC), the jurisprudence began to ban expressly the mass-commercialization of master-pieces (González-Varas, 2003:45-65; Ballart-Hernández, 2001:80). For other hand, the Renascence will play a crucial role in the onset of the current meaning of patrimony and European ethnocentrism (Burckhardt, 1985: 149-159). Renaissance seemed to be the prerequisite for the Grand-Tour surfacing during XVII and XVIII respectively (Enlightment); associated to a hierarchal order that emulated the hegemony of an feudal aristocracy the Grand Tour as

well as painting or architecture represented the power of nobility over the rest of peasants and of course the rights of lords to possess such territories (Sigaux, 1965: 27; Khatchikian, 2000: 70) (De la Torre, 1980: 13). With the advent of tourism as a mass-activity, the patrimony has been recycled in its original sense according to the social scaffolding of our societies and ephemeral ways of production.

CONCLUSION

In current specialized literature one might speculate that patrimony is associated to other new neologism as sustainability. The latter term has been coined as a result of the ecological aftermaths of late-capitalism in earth and non-renewable resources (Vitry, 2003; Aguirre, 2004; Dos-Santos and Antonini, 2004; Mondino, 2004; Espeitx, 2004; Toselli, 2006; NanThakumar et al, 2008; Gronau and Kaufmann, 2009). In addition, some scholars emphasize on the paramount importance of culture in the process of heritage's preservation to the extent to suggest the concept of sustainability revitalizes the natural assets of landscapes threatened by the advance of capitalism. Starting from the premise that tourism helps hosts appreciating their own patrimony, this industry paves the pathways towards a much broader understanding of what does heritage and sustainability mean (Esposito and Calvezani, 2006)

Basically, expansion of US hegemony in the world has been accompanied with the promise of development as a cure for all problems of Third World. The tergiversation of some words played a pivotal role in this process. This happened for example with patrimony and heritage, two concepts originally created in Ancient times and finally developed by anthropology amidst of XXth century. What surely proponents of theory of development have not taken in consideration are the following points: a) the needs of a territories wherein converges ethnicity and blood-hood, both preconditions for the advent of Nation-States and consequent colonialism in XIXth, b) after the process of decolonialism (from 1960 to 1970) many peripheral countries were of course bereft in a difficult economic situation, c) notion of development has been expanded to the world by scholars and experts as a cynic solution of problems peripheral countries come across with, d) an uncontrolled issuance of loans of IMF and other financial institutions not only did not improve the poverty in periphery but also created a stronger dependence. The highest accumulated rates of loans generated a vicious circle where developing countries ended to soliciting new credits to pay the rate of older ones. Ultimately, the tourism echoed of this discourse emphasizing the needs of

pour countries for implementing a process of touristification to better their economies. Of course, whenever criticisms of development pointed out on inefficacy of theory of development to improve the conditions of non-western civilizations, some anthropologists and scholars replied that failures in the financial aids have been a consequence of structural and cultural glitches such as politic inestability, politic corruption and cultural backwardness.

The existent cultural typology of heritage allows residents revitalizing the expectances of visitors who are anxious to meet with aborigines and know further about their habits. In fact, tourists seek the authenticity they suppose not to find in their homelands. A speech of this nature points out that sustainable tourism is feasible whether every part accepts their liabilities and honor the participations of other by means of appropriate plans for development (Silva-Santos, 2003). This shows as if terms as patrimony, cultural heritage, development and sustainability are inextricably intertwined for politic purposes. Under such a context, one might realize that the lack or paucity of critical studies along with the macro-sociological role of development and patrimony in creating material dependence (hegemony) between North and South should be one of the priorities of scholars in next years.

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CHANGES ON CAPITAL STRUCTURE OF THE FIRMS ON THE OCCASION CRISIS AND SITUATION OF TOURISM COMPANIES TRADED ON ISE

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The capital structures of the enterprises and the factors that affect these structures have been dealt with extensively in literature. The experimental studies of Modigliani-Miller conducted within the context of developed countries' economic and institutional structures showed that capital structure does not affect the enterprise value. On the other hand, other studies revealed that the changes in the market affected the enterprises' finance structure and their finance preferences. In this study, the factors that determine the structure of the tourism enterprises are studied in an environment where market deficiencies abound. The study also looks at the changes that are caused by these factors especially during the crisis of during crisis period of 1998 – 2006.

Keyword: Financial structure, ratios, crisis, tourism enterprises

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1, G010, G300, G320

INTRODUCTION

Capital structure of the firms and determination of the factors affecting those structures have been discussed and tackled in the literature and empirical studies. However, it is known that, capital structures change during the periods before and after the crises. Firms revise their capital structures according to their debt and risk positions and change their decisions depending on this.



Furthermore, it is known that partnership structures of the firms affect the investment decisions and preferences; some decisions are guided by not all the partners but by the ones with higher shares. Also the preferences of the top management become more important.

In this study, the factors affecting financial structures of the tourism companies during market failures have been investigated, and the changes in the effects of the factors are discussed and tried to be determined for the certain periods of the crisis between 1998-2006

THE OBJECTIVE AND THE CONTENT OF THE STUDY

In this study first it is aimed to identify the course of the financial structure of the companies traded on ISE (The Istanbul Stock Exchange) by years. In this context, financial ratios are calculated using the data of 12 months balance sheets and income statements of the companies in question between the years of 1998-2006.

Financial ratios have been analyzed in three groups as liquidity ratios, financial structure ratios and profitability ratios in the study.

In the study, figures from the published balance sheets and income statements of the companies, whose shares are traded on The Istanbul Stock Exchange (ISE), for the years of 1998-2006 have been used. The data set used is formed using two systems for the periods of 1998-2003 and 2004-2006 due to the amendments of the balance sheet items. Also the number of the companies analyzed differs by the periods mentioned.

In this study, the factors determining the financial structure of the Turkish firms during market failures have been studied by the analysis of panel data method performed on 8 tourism companies traded on ISE. Also the changes on the effects of the factors in question are tried to be determined in respect of certain crisis periods.

CAPITAL STRUCTURE IN THE LITERATURE

Capital structure of the firms and the factors affecting those structures have been discussed extensively in the literature. Theoretical works have brought three main classes of models to test: The trade-off, the agency, and the pecking order hypotheses. Since the capital structure irrelevance proposition of Modigliani & Miller (Modigliani; Miller, 1958), hundreds of papers have focused on financial policy. But the subsequent studies presented that the changes coming about in the market had affected the financial structure and preferences of the enterprises (Carpenter, 1993).

Few studies focus on international samples to test capital structure models. They are two noticeable exceptions (Rajan & Zingales, 1995; Booth & Aivazian & Demirgüç & Kunt & Maksimovic, 2001). Rajan & Zingales find similar levels of leverage across the G7 countries, thus refuting the idea that firms in bank-oriented countries are more leveraged than those in market-oriented ones (Rajan & Zingales, 1995). They also find that the determinants of capital structure that have been reported for the U.S. (size, growth, profitability, and importance of tangible assets) are important in other countries as well. However, new technologies and innovation that is also profitable to the tourism firm in a competitive market, must increase the value of the whole tourism product (Korres, 2008).

They explored the determinants of the financial structure by analyzing the financial decisions of the public enterprises in big industrial countries (Rajan, 1995). Rajan and Zingales concluded that there are similar behaviors in the companies of United Nations and other countries. Lelond, found that the liabilities of the Joint Stock Company and optimal leverage power for the company risk were obviously related (Lelond, 1994).

Effects of financial crisis are reflected primarily on working capital and cause alterations in the composition and sudden increases in the need of this capital. Indeed Fazzari and Petersen, who examined the composition of working capital investments during the recession years of 1975 and 1982 put forward that the working capital investments was three times more flexible than fixed capital investments (Fazzari & Petersen, 1993).

Also, Lelond explained that bonds, cases of dividend substitution, repurchases of debt and bad debts displayed different behaviors depending on the level of investments. A model examine the interaction between company adjustment and repeating capital costs and investment activity and financial decisions of a company in a model (Monuer & Triontis, 1994). Monuer and Triontis found that high levels of production that increase the debt capacity, financial flexibility and the effect of debt financing on the company investment and company decisions was economically unimportant for the firm in order to perform some phases.

One other study found that marketing via the Internet has larger advantages than other means. it reduces the costs of divulgation and publicity activities; it eases the brochures and pamphlets update; it eases and turns its procedure more economical comparing (Rocha & Victor, 2010).

FINANCIAL DIMENSION OF THE ESTABLISHMENT IN GENERAL AND FEATURES

Common economic fluctuations are the most important risk element other than internal and sectoral factors. External shocks and monetary and fiscal policies of the governments, tax adjustments, transfer payments and other factors boost the economy or causes economic downturn. All those factors affect the firms, consumers and investors change their decisions, especially the breakdown of the economic boost affects the firms negatively (Pinche, 1990).

In terms of partnership structure of the Turkish companies, the big partners are generally Latin American companies. Also, since the companies are relatively young, compared to the companies of many of the countries, mostly the founder himself or second generation founders are in the administration. As a result, generally big partners that do not want to lose control make the decisions in the firms. Fear to lose control coupled with underdevelopment of the financial markets make the companies prefer internal sources for business finance.

Structural financial problems of Turkish establishments may be listed as follows:

- Currency crises are transferred to the firms via financial markets. During crisis periods, the increase in local value of the fixed liabilities in foreign currency and interest rates of the credits affect the balance sheets negatively.
- Receivables, stock, working capital and assets turnovers are slow in general, as an efficiency measure in resource usage. Decreasing turnovers both increase the need for resource and affect the profitability negatively.
- Establishments see increase in profits in increasing the profit margins, in other words in increasing the prices, rather than efficiency and effectiveness in resource usage. However, external financing becomes costly increase in prices leads to slowing down the turnovers and restricting the increase in sales. It is ignored that as long as it is possible to increase the turnovers by lower profit margins, it is possible to increase the profitability.
- Establishments may aim to have more profit using incentives. It is possible to increase the accounting profit by incentives, but economic profitability of the firms will be low.

- Another structural problem of the establishments in our country is the existence of an effective common group in business management. As a limited number of partners hold most of the capital, they determine the decisions.

As the firms traded at ISE consistently by the year 2000 is examined, it is seen that stocks have been acquired by some certain entities. However, the gathered data led us to the conclusion that the majority of the hotels use traditional cost accounting systems(Pavlatos;Paggios,2007). A single partner controls more than 50% of the business capital in 45% of the 243 establishments in ISE (Sak; Ersel, 1995).

THE DATA SET AND THE VARIABLES USED IN THE STUDY

The general approach applied in empirical studies about the capital structure of the companies has been how capital structure (the relation between debt and owner's equity) of the firm is affected from different a priori affecting factors. In regression equations a leverage statement takes place as a dependent variable. Generally, some common factors are handled as explanatory variables. In our study too, the effects of some of the factors that we have been used on the capital structure and a brief explanation about their calculation methods is presented.

In order to understand whether the financial performance of an establishment is good and compare the measured performance with the rivals, reference values called benchmarks are needed. Usually ratios are used rather than absolute financial indicators as reference values. Ratios relate two absolute financial indicators, in other words are indicators that compare financial figures.

Information about how the data were collected, calculations were made and comparisons needed for the financial performance analysis is presented below. Financial tables and reports which consist of exact data that is used for the calculations of ratio analysis is also given.

Indebtedness, profitability, economic size and financial structure have been used as variables in the study. Assessment of the effective factors is handled in two different ways. First one is by comparing the value of stocks and sector averages using stock exchange prices and second one is by presenting the change in financial structure of the firms during crisis periods by means of some ratios exploiting financial table figures of the firms in the sector. Therefore the ratios have been used are; liquidity ratios (current, liquidity, cash ratio), financial structure ratios (Financial Liabilities/Assets Ratio, Financial Liabilities/Total Liabilities Ratio, Short- Trade Payables /Assets Ratio, Owner's Equity/Total

Liabilities Ratio, Leverage Ratio), profitability ratios (Profitability of Owner's Equity, Net Profit Margin, Gross Profit Margin, Operational Profitability).

The statistical assessments showed that;

- A low positive correlation was observed between ISE price-earnings ratio and tourism sector price-earnings ratio. However the correlation was higher in 2004-2006 period than 2000-2003 period. In other words, tourism sector was not affected much during crisis period in terms of securities market.
- A low positive correlation was found between the securities market of developing countries and tourism companies included in the study.
- If we look at the relationship between the figures used in the analysis by in terms of ratios, a low relationship was present between the ratios; however, the relationship a high between liquidity ratio and cash ratio was high.

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Analysis of the Sector Using Stock Exchange and Global Market Values

Economic value added is used for determining the firm value beginning from the 1980s. Although in some studies, it was found that there was no relationship between the economic added value, market value of the firm and stock prices (Fernandez 2001; Bernstein (1998), in some studies, the relationship between the economic added value, market value of the firm and stock prices was high (Teleranta, 1998; Dodd and Chen, 1996). There are studies conducted in Turkey examining the relationship between economic value added, net profit and stock prices (Gürbüz and Erzincan, 2004).

The table 1 shows the stock exchange data of 8 firms including hospitality and transportation companies traded on the stock exchange market.

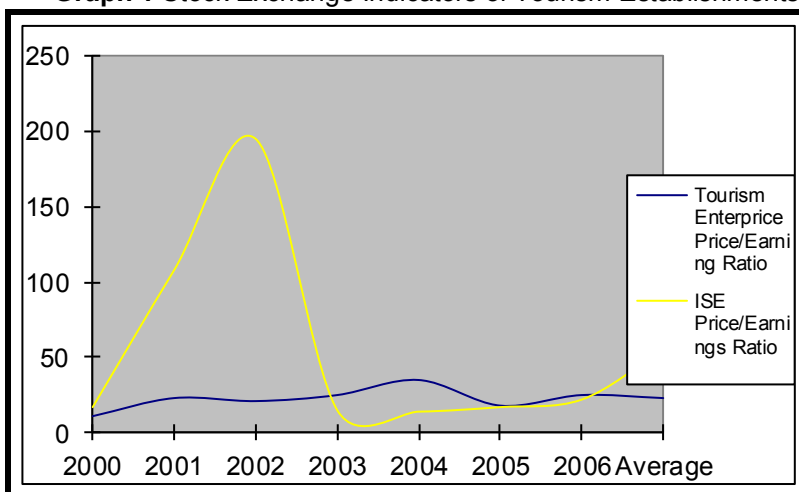
According to the market indicators presented above, price/earnings ratio of tourism enterprises has been generally close to the price/earnings ratio based on ISE 100 Index for research period. Even according to ISE 100 index, it increased in very high ratios in two years period after 2001 crisis: 108% for 2001 and 195% for 2002.

Table 1 Stock Exchange Indicators of Tourism Companies

Ratios	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	Average
Tourism Comp. Price/ /Earnings Ratio	11	23	21	25	35	18	25	23
ISE price/Earnings ratio	17	108	195	15	14	17	22	55

(Calculations are based on the financial tables of the tourism companies traded on ISE.)

Graph 1 Stock Exchange Indicators of Tourism Establishments



No increase was found in tourism sector parallel to this. In other words, tourism sector was not affected from the increase in other sectors. However, it should be noted that the weight of tourism companies in ISE 100 index was very low (only 11% in 2002) and the stocks of tourism companies were traded poorly, which shows that the demand of investors for the sector is low.

2001 crisis created a deep uncertainty environment. The existence of an increase in all stock markets after the crisis period shows that there

was a global recovery. However, the global setbacks in the two years prior to the 2001 crisis were partially signals of a crisis.

Analysis of the Sector Using the Ratios

In order to explain the change in the financial structure of the tourism companies during the crisis periods, some ratios from the financial table figures were used. The ratios used were; liquidity ratios (current, liquidity, cash ratio), financial structure ratios (Financial Liabilities/Assets Ratio, Financial Liabilities/ Total Liabilities Ratio, Short-term Trade Payables /Assets Ratio, Owner's Equity/Total Liabilities Ratio, Leverage Ratio), profitability ratios (Profitability of Owner's Equity, net profit margin, gross profit margin, operational profitability).

Before analyzing the tourism sector in Turkey, some ratios of developing countries and European Countries are presented below in order to put forward the level of the changes in the global arena.

Table 2 Average Financial Structure and Profitability ratios of selected Countries (2006)

Ratios	Developing Countries (%)	Europe (%)
Total Liabilities /Total Assets Ratio	47.12	74.93
Owner's Equity/Total Asses Ratio	52.88	25.07
Total Liabilities / Owner's Equity Ratio	89.10	298.83
Net Profit/ Owner's Equity Ratio	14.76	18.36
Net Profit/ Total Assets Ratio	7.81	4.60

<http://pages.stern.nyu.edu/~adamodar/>

If we look at the 2006 averages of the selected countries, it can be seen that tourism sector averages are close to the averages of those countries.

In a study based on the average values of the period 1995-2005 depending on the data from sectoral balance sheets of CBRT, concerning the financial structure of some companies grouped in several criteria, it was found that companies used short term sources in financing and owner's equity and commercial debt was dominant in financing sources.

It is seen that a significant progress has been made in liquidity ratios after 2002, such that average of current ratio reached to 2.10, while it was 2.0 in 1998.

Especially in 2001-2003 period, credit usage decreased to the levels below previous years. While in 2002 45% of total assets was financed through borrowing, in 2006 total assets financed through borrowing decreased to 43%, of which 46% were financial credits.

Table 4 Financial Structure and Profitability of the Companies:
 1998-2006

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
LIQUIDITY RATOS									
Current Ratio	2.00	1.80	1.58	1.65	1.63	1.80	2.10	2.00	2.10
Liquidity Ratio	1.20	1.15	1.13	1.25	1.35	1.25	1.40	1.60	1.55
Cash Ratio	0.45	0.62	0.56	0.42	0.38	0.34	0.32	0.56	0.53
FINANCIAL STRUCTURE RATIOS									
Long Term Liabilities /Assets Ratio	0.10	0.13	0.17	0.15	0.19	0.22	0.25	0.19	0.20
Financial Liabilities /Assets Ratio	0.23	0.22	0.18	0.25	0.28	0.22	0.24	0.20	0.23
Financial Liabilities /Total Liabilities Ratio	0.45	0.56	0.52	0.67	0.63	0.58	0.68	0.64	0.58
Short Term Trade Payables /Assets Ratio	0.11	0.14	0.12	0.11	0.12	0.13	0.16	0.15	0.18
Short Term Trade Payables/ Total Liabilities Ratio	0.22	0.26	0.21	0.25	0.23	0.24	0.28	0.26	0.25
Owner's Equity/Assets Ratio	0.38	0.46	0.49	0.38	0.48	0.46	0.53	0.56	0.52
Leverage Ratio	0.65	0.56	0.54	0.52	0.51	0.58	0.67	0.63	0.66
ASSETS PROFITABILITY									
Return on Equity	0.18	0.23	0.11	0.26	-0.10	-0.26	0.17	0.18	0.17
Net Profit Margin	0.32	0.23	- 0.08	- 0.02	- 0.15	0.12	0.15	0.22	0.15
Gross Profit Margin	0.38	0.35	0.20	0.12	0.22	0.36	0.18	0.34	0.25
Operating Profit	0.12	0.08	0.01	0.07	0.10	0.12	0.13	0.18	0.12

After the general setback in profitability ratios in 1999-2003 period, a recovery period is seen as the assets profitability rose to 4% in 2006 from -12% in 2001 and return on equity reached to 17% in 2006, from -10% in 2002 with a big take off. On the other hand, the inexistence of a significant recovery in operating profitability may be explained by the income of the tourism companies being in foreign currency while the costs accrued in TL after 2003. It may be said that in this period depreciation of foreign currencies against TL may also be a reason. Another point emphasized frequently, especially recently within the framework of financial liabilities of the companies has been the amount of the liabilities in foreign currency.

In the period of post 2001 crisis, it is seen that the ratio of long term, short term and financial liabilities to assets increased. The assets of those firms grew faster than their liabilities. In other words, liabilities increased or short term liabilities decreased.

It is seen that in the period 1998-2006, short term trade payables/total assets ratio increased again to the level of 18% due to the effects of Asian crisis and following 2000 and 2001 economic crisis. Anyhow, in last three years the weight of short term liabilities in company finance decreased compared with the previous period and the ratio of it in total assets is accrued around 12%.

If the consolidated balance sheets formed from six months financial tables of the 172 industrial companies traded on ISE during 2000 and 2001 crisis of Turkey are analyzed, it will be seen that while the establishments have turned over the money they used 1.51 times in 2000, in the year 2001 they turned it over 1.37 times. The situation is the same for tourism sector.

Foreign exchange position rate is used to analyze the foreign currency risks of the companies based on assets and liabilities in foreign currency. Foreign Currency Position Rate may be calculated as $(\text{Assets in Foreign Currency} - \text{Liabilities in Foreign Currency}) / \text{Assets Total}$. According to the analysis depending on this, foreign currency position rate of tourism sector in the year 2000 was -2%. This ratio is considerably more than the other sectors. For instance, it is - 24% in construction sector.

While the liquid assets of the sector increased 15% in real values during the period of 2001 crisis, their share in circulating assets increased from 15.6% to 17.3%.

Net working capital of the establishments shows an increase comparing with the previous year. Also no significant change took place during 2001 crisis period. This can not be commented as the

establishments in tourism sector were not affected, because the share of circulating assets was low while the share of short term liabilities was high, which had always been risky for the sector. All the improvements in the net working capital are crucial because they show the ability and capacity of the firm to pay all its short term debts.

- The firms increased the risk more by taking out new loans in order to compensate the problems in the assets and liabilities of their balance sheets and to improve the financial structure by increasing the profit ratios via focusing on traditional activities and to solve the problems in liquid debts. The changes observed and the precautions are summarized below; The scarcity of the working capital leads to cuts on the growth budgets (like postponement of the repair and maintenance programs, delaying the modernization and expansion activities) and decrease the performance and productivity in the end.
- Current ratios are generally high during crisis periods. This stems from the firms not being able to collect their receivables.
- Bris, in his study on 3617 establishments of 17 countries including Turkey between 1985-2000, found that the current ratio, which has been the most important parameter to measure the financial vulnerability of a firm, decreased to 1.33 from 1.38 over three years before the crisis Bris and Others (2001). This suggests the existence of a gap in the net working capital of the firms before the financial crisis.
- During the crisis periods the amount of overdrafts, which were used the most widely by the Turkish firms as a credit type, decreased. On the other hand, the cost of credits became higher by the reason of flexible interest rates.
- It is seen that firms avoid postdated checks during 1998 and 2001 crisis and a high amount of decrease of 30% -40% is recorded in the volume of checks.
- Profitability ratios of tourism firms were lower than the other industrial and service sectors. The yield from owner's equity should be emphasized. Each of those criteria of profitability was another criterion of the operational success of the firm.

- The tendency of mergers and takeovers of companies increased after 1980. This is also seen in tourism sector even in low figures.

RESULT

After 1980s, financial yield of the firms was greater than the yield from real sector. This encourages the firms to invest on non-productive assets. At the same time, an increase was observed in the number of financial companies. Besides, the share of tourism sector in the whole economy has increased.

The increase of the activities of financial companies also increased globally forced all the financial and non-financial companies invest in financial assets. This transforms the potential crisis to global level. Turkey was the country most affected during the global crises. This is observed obviously in the crisis of 1998, 2001 and subsequent crises.

One of the reasons that the firms in Turkey are more vulnerable during crisis periods was the inadequacy of capital stock equity and carrying on the activities mainly by short term debts. Even in big establishments, average owner's equity ratio is 30% of the total assets.

The tendency of investment during the expansion periods before the crisis, leads the firms to external financing in order to adjust the lack of capital due to the scarcity of retained profits.

The periods before and after the crisis has been significant to understand the changes in capital structure during the crisis periods. It was found that capital structure has been on the behalf of credits and credits have been mostly commercial credits and borrowings during pre-crisis periods. During crisis and post-crisis periods the cost of borrowing increased and the terms become shorter. This as well puts the firms in a difficult position.

The incomes being mostly in foreign currency decreases the foreign currency risk to some extent in tourism sector. However, the foreign currency position has been -2% during the period in question. Despite the low risk in foreign currency position, incomes in local currency have been decreased and on the other hand costs have increased due to the appreciation of local currency against foreign currency. This also decreased the profitability of the firms.

During crisis periods, current ratio of the firms increases, collection of the receivables are delayed, accordingly borrowing increases. This increases the liability ratio in financial structure.

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[Http://www.spk.gov.tr](http://www.spk.gov.tr)

ENDNOTES

Areas of study Destinations Tourism Companies

Company Names	
Altinyunus Çeşme	
Marmaris Martı	
Çelebi Havayolları	
Favori Dinlenme Tesisleri	
Marmaris altinyunus	
Net turizm	
Petrokent turizm	
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VOLGA RIVER AS CULTURAL-AESTHETIC TOPOS OF TOURISM AND TRAVELLING

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Today the role of cultural heritage in the process of creation of the images of national identity becomes the sphere of intent research interest. In the focus of this interest there are the following matters: participation of tourists in the processes of globalization and cultural exchange. Touristic world is structured according to aesthetic criteria. In the pictures of the artists of the XIX century who took off to travel down Volga, to observe and to work in the open air we can trace artistic evolution of landscape painting. The largest European river is a spatial object regularly recalled in academic and artistic discourses, which is also scenery and a place of observation for many generations of aborigines and tourists. Volga River serves a certain highlighter of construction of national identity, symbolizes historical succession of cultural heritage, is a cultural-aesthetic topos of tourism and travelling filled with personal images.

Keywords: Volga, tourism, travelling, cultural-aesthetic topos, painter.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Modern tourism reflects historically determined and anthropologically endless multiplicity of ways to construct own local experience and identity. Modern practices of tourism mean thoughtful and constructive message of organization of the whole travel. Today “an intent look of a tourist” becomes a universal notion. Analysis of modern sociological theories allows to determine the concept of posttourist, co-tourist and classify the practices of consumption of characteristics, symbols, destinations which become more and more unified (Harvey, 2006). In the age of global instability the role of cultural heritage in the process of creation of the images of national identity becomes the sphere



of intent research interest. In the focus of this interest there are the following matters: tourists' participation in the processes of globalization and cultural exchange, consumption and construction of cultural identities by means of tourism practices, production and construction of images and symbols of "your own" and "other" cultures. According to J. Urry metaphor "tourist" appoints to an organized movement of people, inclined to impose own meanings to strange places (Urry, 2000: 27).

The collective team project of 2000-2002 aimed at investigation of cultural diversity in the modern world and realized with the support of Boston University had summed up massive research work in China, Taiwan, Japan, India, Germany, Hungary, the SAR, Chile, Turkey, the USA which allowed to make a number of conclusions. First, today we are watching the incipient global culture as the search of the identity "between global homogeneity and provincial isolation". Second, global culture is accompanied by the elements of modernization and locality such as local alteration. Third, cultural globalization may be considered as a process of "creating an appropriate platform for reviving tradition, not only as a political or economic movement, but also a cultural movement with its driving forces and theoretical construct". Fourth, varied tourism intended for representatives of all groups is an important means of cognition of cultural multiplicity of the modern world (Many Globalizations, 2002: 17, 336).

Close interconnection of tourism and culture in the modern variable world is traced by J. Urry: contact of cultures occurs as the result of different mobility including touristic one. National identity is more often defined in terms of not only local but also global scene (Urry, 2002: 146). Z. Bauman believes that touristic world is entirely structured according to aesthetic criteria: what tourist wants may be defined by "the right not to be bored" and "freedom from everything but aesthetic measurement" (Bauman, 1996: 30).

TO THEME HISTORY

V. O. Klyuchevsky studied the Russian history and national unique identity and singled out three elements which had influenced the genesis of Russian soul. They are forest, steppe and river. According to this historian Russian soul is close to river with its not rough stream and cyclic recurrence of spring floods which teaches to order and gives the feeling of peace. C. Ely addresses to analysis of genesis of Russian landscape with regard of content of tourism in the Volga region and Russian landscape aesthetics. The main idea of landscape is visual

aesthetic perception of scenery as a characteristic feature of the modern history connected with urbanization and mass tourism. He believes that a unique approach to the environment in which a very important place belongs to Volga has been developed in Russia. When in the end of the XIX century steamship tourism appeared the river got the main role in articulation of the new aesthetic principles. The following representations of Volga in tourist guide-books, films about journeys and visual mass media became attempts to coordinate a tourist's look which is able to appreciate the beauty of the scenery with an adopted concept of Russian nature which addressed to its moderate picturesqueness (Ely, 2003).

CULTURAL-AESTHETIC TOPOS AS A COMPONENT OF TOURISTS' SPACE

Distinctive highlighters of the modern tourism and travelling are spatial mobility and temporality. Unlike time which is steadily turning "away", space is always fixed "here". It is something that can be seen or imagine. Looking at spatial and temporal components in practices of tourism and travelling we base on the following points.

First, space is anthropological. It presents the field for actions; constructed place for inhabitation of people – «home», «world», «country». Space is a concept, it embraces a look of a human being (Urry, 2002: 31) – an aborigine and tourist. Cultural-aesthetic topos is constructed by means of emotionally filled personal meanings as the result of impressions acquired in trips, places visited, literature, and artistic images. Some components of topos are real and clear, some are diffused, others are imaginary, all together they make fragmentary and at the same time broad picture of individually constructed space of our motherland (Chernjavskaya, 2006: 41).

Second, space is existential. It forms interrelated images which allow creating long-term and steady personal and group living strategies. Potential of space is in creating existential-geographic images as the system of signs, symbols, archetypes, stereotypes characterizing a certain territory from the point of view of living significance and strategies (Josiam, 2008). Cognitive source for construction of new existential-geographic images is interference of topos of inner mental spaces with a certain geographic route (Zamyatin, 2009: 61).

Third, presenting itself in time and space cultures suggest that they are eternal and potentially cannot be destroyed. Cultures fix their uniqueness in a certain "mirror" which is the image of nature. By means of image-symbolic interaction directed to imaginary here-and-now past

the image of place is enlarged and symbolic appropriation of space happens through its imaginary expansion. Image-symbolic transformations of the modern space transfer past into future, while present acquires its own valuable cultural coordinates “tied” to a certain territory (Zamyatin, 2008: 44).

Fourth, informational support of a cultural landscape is formed due to literature and artistic process (Dritsas, 2006). Cultural-aesthetic topos is constructed in the process of the co-authorship of the artist with natural and socio-cultural processes.

THE RIVER VOLGA IN RUSSIAN PAINTING OF A XIX-TH CENTURY

Panoramic landscapes and anthropogenic elements of Volga scenery are reflected in the works of art of Russian painters of the second half of the XIX century. Artists took river trips by boats and motor ships, moved from one Volga town to another, made drafts, sketches and studies. Travels and artistic studies resulted in creating unique authentic landscapes, showing the smallest details of the Volga scenery. In 1838 N. G. Chernetsov and his brother took a trip down Volga and made the panorama of its banks. He created a canvas “Zhigouli on Volga” (figure 1). In 1860s A. P. Bogolyubov had been travelling along Volga for a long time. As a result appeared landscapes “Ipatiev monastery near Kostroma” (1861), «Religious procession with cross and banners in Yaroslavl» (figure 2), “Winter in Borisoglebsk”, “Nizhniy Novgorod” (1877). Thanks to common trip of I. E. Repin and F. A. Vasiliev appeared drawings and canvases among which the most colorful is “View on Volga. Barges” (figure 3). “Barge haulers near Volga” created by I. E. Repin (figure 4) after travelling over Volga towns showed that the 29-year-old painter was able to raise the genre of landscape to epic one. The picture was sent to the World exhibition in Vienna where the audience and the experts unanimously recognized it to be the best piece of the Russian section of the exhibition. In 1887-1890 I. I. Levitan used to take trips to Volga and during them he created canvases “Evening. Golden reach of river” (1889), “After rain. Reach of river” (1889), “Village on the river’s bank” (1890), “Evening bells” (1892), “Over the eternal rest” (figure 5), “Refreshing breeze. Volga” (1895). In 1888 A. E. Arkchipov and his friends from Moscow school of Art, Sculpture and Architecture took off to a travel down Volga where he got the plot of picture “Near Volga” (figure 6) which depicts emotional experience of the

character by means of landscape painting. In 1900 Saratov artists P. S. Utkin and P. V. Kuznetsov started travel by boat down Volga from Simbirsk to Saratov, which resulted in creating canvas "Near Volga" by P. S. Utkin (figure 7). The beauty and uniqueness of Volga scenery was depicted in their canvases by such painters as G. Soroka "Fishermen" (the second half of the 1840s); A. K. Savrasov "Volga" (figure 8), "High water of Volga near Yaroslavl" (1871), "By the end of summer on Volga" (1873), "Spring of a big river" (1880s), "Spring" (1883); L. L. Kamnev "View to Kazanka river (1875); F. A. Vasiliev "View near Volga"; M. K. Klodt "Volga near Simbirsk" (1881); V. E. Borisiv-Mousatov "In the boat" (1892); N. N. Doubovskoy "Near the Volga" (figure 9); A. I. Savinov "The Volga sketch" (1904); J. Weber (collection of Volga landscapes in the local lore museum of Engels). In the pictures of the artists of the second half of the XIX century who took off to travel down Volga and Volga towns, to observe and to work in the open air we can trace artistic evolution of landscape painting. Travelling down Volga becomes a sacral way for artists finding an existential sense of their life in it.

OPINIONS OF TOURISTS ON TRAVEL ON THE RIVER VOLGA

During June 2009 we carried out an empiric research in the form of a half-structured interview among tourists such as passengers of cruise motor ships travelling back and forth Volga. Particularly, opinions of 22 cruisers travelling on board of motor ship "Alexander Nevsky" from Volgograd to Kazan and back were summarized. As a motivational factor of travelling down and up Volga, cruisers mentioned aesthetic pleasure of looking at natural landscapes and cultural places of interest. They admit that they are charmed by the Volga scenery viewed from the spacious deck.

"In this journey we visually percept beautiful landscapes, just delight for the sight!" [I6]¹. "Here, on the water, the magnificence of the view opens itself... One thing – to follow a map, and quite another is observing ships, banks" [I17] "Positive impressions from the journey: get aesthetic pleasure, in each town there is something unique" [I14].

The interviewees are unanimous in that Volga is an inexhaustible source of spiritual and physical health.

"Travelling down Volga for me is rest for mind, life motivation, new impressions, plenty of fresh air, joy of life" [I3]. "I thought – it'd be nice to see Volga, Volga region, the heart of Russia, I want to get new impressions. How can one travel abroad without knowing your native

land?" (15). *"Trip down Volga gives you positive emotions – things we see, hear, and take part in, how it feels. For my granddaughter this journey is an impact for the future to broaden her view, to become more easy-going, more alive, joyful"* [I15].

Many tourists emphasize their wish to find balance during this river trip which is also taken as the aim of the trip and as a condition for feeling well. *"Water gives peace to soul and body. For me this is valuable rest"* [I22]. *"Travelling means new impressions. I love water very much. The nature is beautiful"* [I16]. Tourists travelling up and down Volga possess the feeling of harmony between motion and rest.

CONCLUSIONS

So, river trips and observation Volga scenery are impulse for artistic activity. Cultural-aesthetic topos is constructed in the process of co-authorship of a painter with natural and socio-cultural processes. Painters come to understanding their need in spatial mobility along Volga and Volga towns, they become travelers themselves. From our point of view representation of attractive artistic images of Volga scenery serves as an important informative-excursionist component of tourism in the Volga region. The largest European and Russian river is a spatial object regularly recalled in academic and artistic discourses, which is also scenery and a place of observation for many generations of aborigines and tourists. Volga serves a certain highlighter of construction of national identity, symbolizes historical succession of cultural heritage, is a cultural-aesthetic topos of tourism and travelling filled with personal images as the result of trips, places visited and artistic images. It is important to be proud, to enjoy, to make popular Volga and Volga landscapes which surround us.

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ENDNOTES

1. Interview is taken from author's archive. I6: here and forth letter-numeric sign addresses to a number of interview

Figure 1 N. G. Chernetsov “Zhigouli on Volga”, 1866.



Saratov State Artistic Museum named after A. N. Radischev.

Figure 2. A. P. Bogolyubov «Religious procession with cross and banners in Yaroslavl”, 1863.



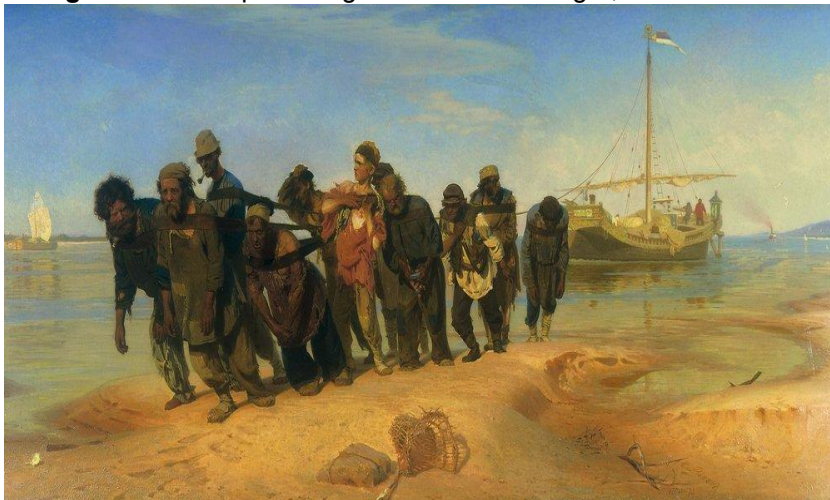
Saratov State Artistic Museum named after A. N. Radischev.

Figure 3 F. A. Vasiliev “View on Volga. Barges”, 1870.



State Russian Museum, S-Petersburg.

Figure 4 I. E. Repin. “Barge haulers near Volga”, 1870-1873.



State Russian Museum, S-Petersburg.

Figure 5 I. I. Levitan “Over the eternal rest”, 1894.



State Tretyakov Gallery, Moscow.

Figure 6 A. E. Arkchipov “Near Volga”, 1889.



State Russian Museum, S-Petersburg.

Figure 7 P. S. Utkin, “Near Volga”, 1901.



Saratov State Artistic Museum named after A. N. Radischev.

Figure 8 A. K. Savrasov, “Volga”, 1870s.



Saratov State Artistic Museum named after A. N. Radischev.

Figure 9 N. N. Doubovskoy "Near the Volga", 1892.



Saratov State Artistic Museum named after A. N. Radischev.

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THE CULTURAL CONSTRUCTION OF LANDSCAPE THROUGH PHOTOGRAPHY: TOURISM PHOTOGRAPHY IN NAMIBIA

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This essay discusses the cultural construction of the Namibian landscape by tourism advertising material, treating landscape photography as a language which can be analysed through signs. Nevertheless, since signs require a consensus of communication, a contextualisation of the pictures will also be made. Therefore, below I will attempt firstly, to discuss the theoretical context in which the pictures will be analyzed, secondly, to present the geographical context in which the pictures were born and thirdly to discuss the pictures as signs by locating the points de capiton within them.

Keywords: *Landscape, Photography, Semiotics, Cultural Construction, Sign*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Robert Gordon (1999:111) maintains that “If there is one thing, which characterises contemporary tourism, it is its visual aspect. Tourism is photography” (see also Sontag, 1977). After all as Christina Bonarou (2009) claims, citing Larsen, tourism and photography appeared simultaneously¹. Images of places are very common in tourism advertising material and as John Urry (2002) reminds us, historically in the development of tourism, *places* were replaced by *landscapes*. Following this, the present article will attempt an analysis of landscape as pictured in tourism brochures in the context of which landscape is being “emphasized in its socio-symbolic dimension: as an entity that exists by virtue of its being perceived, experienced, and contextualised by people” (Ashmore and Knapp, 1999:1)². Based on the above, the aim of this



article is to discuss the cultural construction of the Namibian landscape by tourism advertising material. .

This kind of material is produced by policy makers, such as state ministries and tourism organisations, as well as travel agencies, commercial companies, and local communities a fact suggesting that between them there is a consensus about the choice of images. Thus, it can be claimed that landscape advertisement is a common ‘language’ between them and since they are using it to communicate with tourists, it can also be claimed that it is a common language between them and the tourists. Umberto Eco (1974a) argues that in language there is a signification system in the context of which there is, on the one hand, a socially conventionalised generation of sign-functions and that, on the other hand, there is “an exploitation of meanings in order to produce expressions for many practical purposes” (Eco, 1974b: 4). Undoubtedly these characteristics can be attributed to an advertising attempt. The manipulation of specific signs in order to convince consumers is a common technique in advertising.

In order to find such signs the employment of what Jacques Lacan (1977) calls keywords (*points de capiton*), which represent key meanings in a discourse could be helpful. Nevertheless, since signs require a consensus of communication, a contextualisation of the pictures seems in order. Therefore, below I will attempt firstly, to discuss the theoretical context in which the pictures will be analyzed, secondly, to present the geographical context in which the pictures were born and thirdly to discuss the pictures as signs by locating the *points de capiton* within them.

THE CULTURAL CONSTRUCTION OF LANDSCAPE

The term ‘landscape’ was coined in the 16th century and was used as a technical term by painters, aesthetes, and antiquarians (Bender, 1993; Hirsch and O’ Hanlon 1995; Abramson 2000). As Hirsch and O’ Hanlon point out, landscape as a concept emerges during the same historical period that mapping and picturing took on increasing significance as a reliable way of representation. Macnaghten and Urry (2001: 6) claim that landscape involves the appearance of look or leisure, relaxation and visual consumption of visitors, and Cosgrove and Daniels (1998:1) define landscape as a pictorial way of representing, structuring or symbolising surroundings.

Nevertheless, nowadays in contemporary Western terms, landscape is not considered solely as being a way of picturing. Tilley (1994:25) for

example refers to 'landscape' as the physical and visual form of the earth as an environment and as a setting in which locales occur and in dialectical relation to which meanings are created, reproduced and transformed. In his approach the emphasis is on processes; landscape is not a static concept that represents only ways of seeing; it is not a passive way of understanding the surrounding world; it constitutes action as well as being constituted by it through a process of 'structuration'.

Similarly Hirsch and O' Hanlon (1995) theorise 'landscape' as a cultural process between a 'foreground' of everyday experience and a 'background' of social potentiality, taking the standpoint that the investigation of landscape as a pictorial method of representation excludes particular aspects of it, which would appear to be of considerable significance and interest. In their analysis the notion of 'foreground reality' represents everyday crystallised forms of experience whereas the notion of 'background potentiality' refers to the potential forms that everyday experience may be shaped from. The interaction between these two forms of experience shape and reshape the notion of landscape in a way that the latter emerges as a cultural process. As such, landscape can be analysed in various ways which stress the cultural and historical specificity of the notion. As Abramson put it (2000:2) "the constricted interior of a prisoner's cell, the entire universe of surrounding space suggested by any cosmology, or the cellular view through a microscope are only landscapes to us in a figurative or metaphorical sense. However, precisely because of the existence of all these human settings, land appears both as an object with use-value and a symbol with meaning".

Furthermore, Bender (2001:3) claims that even within the Western-elitist notion of landscape, which suggests that the observer stands back from the thing observed, stasis is an illusion. Whether painting or viewing, movement is required before the correct vantage point is achieved. And even when the body is stationary, the eye moves from foreground to background and back again. Furthermore, landscape is perceived according to the cultural context in which the prevalence of sight over the other senses is not given in other worlds like the occidental. Other times and/or places give prominence to different aspects of landscape.

Bourdieu's notion of habitus embraces all the above approaches, by defining it as

"The conditionings associated with a particular class of conditions of existence. Systems of durable, transposable dispositions, structured structures

predisposed to function as structuring structures, that is, as principles which generate and organise practices and representations that can be objectively adapted to their outcomes without presupposing a conscious aiming at ends or an express mastery of the operations necessary in order to attain them” (Bourdieu, 1989:53).

In this sense Bourdieu proposes a continuous interaction between individual, social and non – social factors, which determine our practice and consequently our interpretations of the world and the landscape. As Abramson (2000:1) suggests “looks, maps narratives, experiences, contestations and memories: all these features of human land relations come into sharper focus with the theoretical promotion of land as landscape”. All these compose an image of landscape drawn with individual, social, and cultural parameters. Landscapes are first and foremost cultural products (Bonarou, 2009)

Consequently, the ‘reality’ known as ‘landscape’ has a very complicated existence. What makes it complicated are the different interpretations that can be attributed to it when seen from different perspectives. “All landscapes are bearers of meanings in the sense that they represent cultural values, social behaviours and individual actions within a certain time and geographical space” (Terkenli in Bonarou, 2009). In other words, landscape is a sign, which seems differently from different points of view. As far as pictures of landscapes are concerned, the way people look at them is historically, socially, and culturally defined (Bonarou, 2009) and the same applies for those who produce such pictures. Particularly, in the context of tourism “the gaze is constructed through signs and tourism involves the collection of signs” (Urry, 2002:3). Thus not only landscape but also photography is a sign and this is what the next section is going to discuss.

PHOTOGRAPHY AS A SIGN

Ferdinand de Saussure (1974) wrote that signifieds as mental concepts are interpreted differently in different contexts. This difference according to Eco (1974a) depends on cultural conventions, which determine the system of signification. Therefore Eco proposes a theory of language which studies the sign and as sign he defines:

“...everything that, on the grounds of a previously established social convention, can be taken as something standing for something else. In other terms

I would like to accept the definition proposed by Morris (1938) according to which "something is a sign only because it is interpreted as a sign of something by some interpreter" (Eco, 1974b: 16).

According to the above a sign is the product of a convention every time it is recognised as the vehicle for something else. Thus "semiotics iv, is not concerned with the study of a particular kind of objects, but with ordinary objects insofar (and only insofar) as they participate in semiosis" (ibid: 16). In this sense, culture itself can be studied by semiotics since it is signification and communication. All cultural processes are processes of communication and as such they are underlined by a system of signification. Consequently "the laws of signification are the laws of culture. Thus culture can be studied completely under a semiotic profile" (ibid: 28). Therefore, the meaning of a term is a cultural unit, which can be everything; a person, a place, a thing, a feeling. This is why Eco argues that visual communication is also part of the semiotic analysis. He claims that an iconic sign is not a word but it represents words or phrases or whole stories and this is why they can be analyzed like verbal signs. "Thus a general semiotics is simply a philosophy of language, which stresses the comparative and systematic approach to languages (and not only to verbal language) by exploiting the result of different more local inquiries" (ibid: 8).

But why is this approach relevant in the study of tourist pictures? Following Urry (2002:13) who claims that "tourists are in a way semioticians, reading the landscape for signifiers of certain pre-established notions or signs derived from various discourses of travel and tourism" and drawing on Jacques Lacan's (1977) theory of dominant key words (points de capiton translating into quilting or anchoring point) or the symbolic indexes (MacCannell, 1999), students of photography can simply look for those key words (Eco would call them iconic signs). Nevertheless, semiotics cannot explain how certain iconographic elements develop into consensus unless historic aspects are taken into account (Albers and James, 1988) and this in turn can only be achieved through the contextualisation of the pictures which will be attempted in the following section by presenting a brief account of Namibia's recent history.

NAMIBIA: THE COUNTRY

Namibia, which was named after the Namib Desert is a country in the south-west part of Africa, bounded in the west by the Atlantic Ocean, in

the east by Botswana and the Kalahari Desert, in the north by Angola, and in the south through the Orange river by South Africa. It is divided into four main regions: the Okavango and Ovambo – land in the north, the Kaoko – veldt and Damara – land in the centre and the Nama – land in the south. A big part of the central country consists of rocky mountains and sandy plains (see Knappert, 1981). Namibia has a population of 2 million people, divided into four main linguistic groups: the Bantu language speakers, the Hoteentonts, the Bushmen (Gordon, 1992) and the Afrikaans. Bushmen are considered to be the group with the oldest history. They were expanded all across the south of the Rainforest when nomadic Hottentots and agricultural Bantu forced them to return to the Namib and Kalahari deserts (Knappert, *ibid.*).

The first towns were established by the Dutch settlers; the most important of these towns were Windhoek, which now is the capital of the country and Grootfontein. The first brick house was built by the German missionaries – the Albrecht brothers in 1806 who upon arrival complained about the country's poverty and the natives' lack of civilization (Knappert, 1981).

The land of San or Bushmen, was subject to a series of invasions for more than 130 years (Skotnes, 1996; Gordon, 1992). The first Western 'visitors' were Portuguese navigators, who were sent to discover a seaway to India. Their king, John II, hoped that the inhabitants of these regions would soon learn Portuguese and adopt the Portuguese customs. Ever since a lot of Europeans, settled in Namibia. From 1884, it was a German colony. Later on, after the World War I Namibia was administered by South Africa and after World War II it came under UN control as all former German Colonies. After many wars the Namibian land was declared open to settlers (Gordon, 1992) and this, in some areas, caused resistance from the part of the natives. Many of them were killed and their lands were sold to European and South African settlers. Indigenous groups of Namibia survived into the twentieth century and have been the subject of research by anthropologists, psychologists and other scientists. The destruction of their culture and language resulted in the homogenisation of different San groups, who came from different traditions, spoke different languages and had had different histories, into a single unit which is identified as Bushmen (Skotnes, 1996); "a specific physical who lived a primitive life outside of history and supposed to offer a view into a deep human past" (Skotnes, 1996:17).

During the apartheid period, national parks, game reserves and resorts were established serving, in many cases, as border lines between black and white territories (Silvester, 1999). This fact led to eviction and

dispossession of the majority of the indigenous groups from land and natural resources (Gordon, 1992), white settlers were given freehold tenure over land by a 1967 Ordinance. Ever since, they began to use their land for economic profit related to tourism. The leading settlers of Namibia sought to place the country on the map through the promotion of tourism and this is why they began to encourage exploration expeditions (Gordon, 1997; Haarhoff, 1991). What they wished to promote is an image of the country, not completely uncivilized in order to make it seem attractive to the tourists. In addition, the administration encouraged tourism through articles published in the South African Railways and Harbours Magazine. Thus, "Namibia waited to be a place where the upwardly mobile bourgeoisie could collect trophies in emulation of and eventually in competition with that thriving industry in East Africa – the great White Hunter Safari" (Gordon, 1997:103).

Namibia became independent in March 1990, following the war of independence and the new government recognised that Bushmen were a disadvantaged group and as such they had been given priority to development and preservation (Gordon, 1997). However this was not the only goal. Since the 1980s there was already a movement by NGOs such as IRDNC (Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation), which intended to empower local communities in order to benefit from the link of wildlife and tourism (<http://www.newafrica.com/ecotourism>). In 1999 the Namibian government stated that in order to raise the national income and alleviate poverty there had to be projects regarding the sustaining of wildlife and environmental resources (Tourism White Paper, 1999). This would help towards the development of rural communities. In addition tourism industry through the idea of sustainable development vi could also contribute towards this direction (Ashley and LaFranchi, 1997). Thus there have been community based resource management (CBNRM) projects with the aim to preserve wildlife. Such initiatives were believed that it would lead to tourism attraction and consequently to rural development (<http://www.newafrica.com/ecotourism>). Today, tourism is a major industry in Namibia (<http://www.namibiaturism.com.na/tourism.php>) a fact that places it amongst one of the country's most important economic resources.

The First Images

One of the first people who popularised Bushmen was Laurens van der Post. In his book "The Lost World of the Kalahari" Van der Post describes Bushmen as people who were in complete harmony with their

physical environment. Other explorers or settlers have pictured Bushmen as “the world’s most primitive people” (Gordon et al, 1996) or “Last Wild Bushmen” (Gordon, 1999; see also Buntman, 1996 and Gordon, 1997).

What is important to point out here is that photography for the settlers in Namibia began to play a major role in the construction of their private and public histories (Hayes et al, 1999). This means that settlers tried to construct an identity by mediating between the West and the South (Darian-Smith, Gunner and Nuttall, 1996). The symbolic aspect of those early pictures lies here since “they are devices that allude to meanings and understandings outside the picture”^{vii} (Albers and James, 1988:141). Thus, if we accept, as Robert Gordon argues, that “the legacy of the Denver expedition^{viii} is still very much with us” (Gordon, 1999:117), then this is something that one must pay attention to, while trying to read more recent pictures of this area.

METHODOLOGY

During the time of the research I was living in London. Therefore, the material analyzed was collected from the Namibian embassy in London and from the World Wide Web. A second thought was to talk to some NGOs, which work on community based tourism in Namibia, in order to receive some information about the native’s point of view. The attempt to get in touch with some of these NGOs resulted in the response of WMSA (Working Group of Indigenous Minorities in Southern Africa) and thus the data was enriched with information given from this organisation.

Initially there was a selection of photographs which was relevant to the subject that was followed by a classification according to their content: those presenting (a) picturesque landscapes, (b) animals, (c) historical landscapes, (d) a combination between wild nature and technology, (e) places familiar to Western eye, (f) those that in combination with the wild nature present the possible situation in which a tourist could be found, and finally (g) those of people working on preservation projects. The division followed the rules of the repetition of the images that were represented. The logic of these divisions is based on what Albers and James (1988:145) define as content analysis: “In the study of tourist photography, content analysis provides an empirical foundation for contrasting and comparing appearances within large data-sets”.

Another approach has been a semiotic analysis of the pictures. That is “treating each picture as a totality – marking the patterned relationships in

its contents, connecting these to parallel and contrasting structures in other pictures, and relating both to the written narratives that accompany them” (ibid:147). The semiotic analysis of the pictures was based - following Barthes ix - on the content of the photographs in combination with their ‘anchorage’ x.

‘READING’ THE PICTURES

Picturesque Landscapes: The Romantic Gaze^{xi}

In this category the main image of the picture is an idyllic landscape such as a sunrise or a sunset, a vast valley, a big mountain, a big tree that cannot be found in the West, the desert, a cloudy sky, the ocean, big rocks, lagoons, huts and cabins almost invisible from the plants and the trees, and plants and bushes. Some pictures contain a combination between sky and land. There are also pictures in which there is an alteration between desert and less arid landscapes, desert and ocean and one of the photos shows a human skull in the desert. Some of the above photographs present just the Namibian landscape while others the landscape in combination with something else (the skull, the huts). However, the most dominant image it is that of nature, or better that of the undisturbed nature. Narratives such as the following accompany them:

Here on Impalila Island, where the mighty Azmbezi joins the graceful Chobe River you’ll find the wildlife experience of a lifetime.

A place so unspoilt that while you are there you will experience nature as it was first created.

The wonder of nature.

We will welcome you in a true wilderness atmosphere...

Relax in the African wilderness.

Enjoy the vastness and manifold of our beautiful landscape.

At night you can enjoy the clear African sky with its ever changing carpet of stars so typical of the southern hemisphere.

Spectacular by nature.

Experience the wild... Experience blue skies, open spaces... Experience unimaginable forces of nature as nature intended... Experience ancient sand dunes... Experience lingering sunsets...

Expansive sand and gravel plains and endless stretches of grass savannah alternate with majestic mountain ranges and dune belts of deep red sand partially covered with vegetation.

Exclusively with us: fossilised game tracks and underground water cave explorations.

The mythical baobab...

This region is the largest mountain desert area in South Africa...

If Wambo had a signature tree it would be the graceful makalani...

Walvis Bay: Nature's haven... older than mankind... well worth a visit.

The name Oropoko speaks for itself and is taken from the Herero language, where it means "beautiful cave between the mountains".

In the peaceful land of the Bushmen, the direct descendants of stone - age man, you will find a sense of freedom and a clear African sky.

Your own piece of Africa in the heart of this unspoilt beauty, a place of harsh landscape, open spaces and

vast panoramas, rugged mountains, canyons and wildlife-rich savannas.

Animals

The second category is comprised of animal pictures. It is interesting to point out the repetition of certain kinds of animals. While pictures of small animals are to be found, most of the pictures present lions, tigers, deers, elephants, snakes, large birds, rhinoceroses, zebras, giraffes, horses, sharks, and dolphins.

Some brochures use these animals as their logotypes. In some of them the animals are pictured alone in the wild nature and in others they are pictured with people, either natives or tourists. In the rest, the anchors on the brochures read:

Hunting is your ultimate holiday destination...

Guests can view the feeding of cheetahs, ensuring superb photographic opportunities.

A place so unspoilt that you can experience nature the way it was created. That place - nest of the fish Eagle – tucked away amongst the lush riverine vegetation on the banks of the mighty Okavango river.

Rarely seen but common throughout Namibia – the cunning and elusive leopard, *Panthera pardus*.

Namibia's arid north-western wilderness areas are inhabited by several game species, including the stately giraffe.

Nature is waiting to welcome you back.

The eland, *Taurotragus oryx*, the largest antelope and popular with hunters, is generally found in the northern regions of Namibia.

The return of the Whales.

We offer close contact with animals such as leopard, cheetah, caracals, aardwolves etc.

Historical Landscapes

On these brochures there are pictures showing some archaeological and historical landscapes. These images present ruins, caves, western - type churches, western – type buildings, and monuments. However, the number of these photographs is not big and the images of such landscapes do not vary as in the other categories. The narratives in this case are as following:

A walk to the ruins of an old police station...

Our castle is known for its 19th century charm.

You can see the impressive cave on the Farm Mooigoek. As well as “Fossilised” tracks of the modern game like lion, kudu, zebra, spingbok as well as a bushman foot print in the dolomite sedimentary stones.

The fort was historically used as a police station and veterinary checkpoint.

Nature and Technology

In this category the most common picture is that of a wild landscape, such as the desert or the mountains above with the addition of an airplane. In addition there are photographs that present a train in the middle of the desert, vans or sport vehicles in the desert with people intending to do a desert sport, safari jeeps between rocks or in the middle of the desert. The photographs presenting modern vehicles and motorhomes fully equipped in a wild landscape are the most common in this category while you can find pictures with fast boats in the ocean. In this category we also find photographs that present a swimming pool or a modern building in the middle of wild trees.

Thus wilderness in combination with technology can also be traced to those pictures, which present a wild animal in a non-wild landscape like the one in which a rhinoceros is walking on an asphalt road surface. We can find these photographs quite often on the brochures. The metaphors

used in the narratives accompanying this category of pictures are of significant interest:

Where nature meets luxury.

We carry you on our trunk

Namibia's unique rail experience

The pool area is a sparkling blue oasis amongst palm trees, fountain and furniture made to laze on in unadulterated comfort...

EXPLORE THE NAMIBIAN HORIZONS

The first explorers trekked across the majestic African landscapes on foot – the labour of a lifetime. Today, our wings fly you across the length and breadth of Namibia - and beyond - in a few relaxing hours.

Let us take you to exciting natural environments

Your dreams will grow wings...

Adventure for Hire...

The Kunene Region is a remote wilderness area that presents many challenges to the serious 4x4 adventurer.

Places Familiar to the Western eye

In the fifth category we find photographs presenting places familiar to Western culture. These places contain buildings of western architecture, restaurants, hotels and bars in the middle of a wild landscape or a totally urban landscape. Also warfs in the ocean and, as in the previous category, we find swimming pools amongst trees and rocks, western churches, and western monuments. In this category we can also find palm-trees landscapes, undoubtedly a kind of tree familiar to the West and typical of an exotic environment. Narratives accompanying them are as follows:

We live on a farm in Africa...

Luxury safari lodge

As is the trend worldwide, many former residences in Windhoek are renovated and modernised to serve as office buildings and complexes.

This upmarket hotel offers all the sophisticated elegance and features that have made us one of the leading hotel groups in the world today.

Offering guests an unforgettable holiday in the African wilderness with modern accommodation.

Enjoy the ambience of the city, the beauty of nature, and the comfort of home

Within the Landscape

The sixth category of the photographs depicts ways in which a tourist can enjoy the nature of Namibia. These pictures present for example friends under the trees or in the desert, around a bonfire having fun, people doing sports in the nature, swimming, going on a ride with horses, fishing, boating, walking, playing with wild animals, diving, climbing, hunting, and camping. This category is the most common and this is why the narratives here vary:

Nature drives, conducted in open 4x4 vehicles, guided nature walks, boat excursions and sunset cruises on the Kwando river.

Both morning and evening game drives, horseback excursions or horse carriage rides are a journey into the Africa of legend – where the leopard still hunts and the tension of its activities is felt by everyone.

Every visitor has the opportunity to experience the unspoilt nature on horseback, under the African sun.

Here you can enjoy the silence of the bush, relax next to the swimming pool or just enjoy the view of the contrasting African landscape.

Experience camping with a Difference in a rest camp run as a community enterprise by San (Bushmen) in Western Bushmanland.

Taking indigenous people and their environment seriously and adapting to local circumstances without feeling isolated or lost.

Sunrise walks accompanied by bushman trackers give you a new perspective on how little is needed to survive in the desert.

Quests can see Cheetah, Leopard and Caracal.

The Swakopmund environs make for spectacular paragliding and skydiving.

Experience the thrift of dolphins leaping out of the water alongside your boat, seals fed by hand...

The angling potential of Namibia's coast is regarded as one of the best in the world.

Conservation

Finally, the last pictorial category presents wild animals, people protecting endangered species, examining wild animals, participating in preservation projects, students conducting research, and people collecting garbage. They also present ecotourists having their holidays. This category of pictures is not very common and the narratives are specific and descriptive:

Lions are important to the ecology of the Etosha National Park.

The black – faced impala: One of Namibia's conservation success stories.

The Anmire Cultural Village is a community – based tourism enterprise that is locally owned and managed by the Khowarib community. Profits from the enterprise go to members of the community, to encourage them to care for and utilise their natural resources responsibly.

Examining an eagle...

Rehabilitation is an effort to release healthy animals back into their natural environment.

An increase in sightings suggests that there is a slow but steady growth in the black rhino population of north – western Namibia.

Students building gabions as a soil – conservation measure.

CONCLUSIONS: THE KEYWORDS THAT CREATE THE MYTH OF NAMIBIA

Both landscape as concept and photography as object are constructed ways of seeing (Sontag, 1977). Namibia's landscape has been culturally constructed as wild and unspoiled both by the host society and the sending societies; one of the ways to do that is photography. The dominant signs of the pictures can be interpreted through the national myth of Namibiaxii, which stands between Western symbols (modern hotels, historical remains of colonialism) and symbols associated with nature as unspoiled. In addition, these two groups of symbols are connected through technology which seems to provide tourists with the opportunity to admire the country's unspoiled beauty. Cars, motorhomes, swimming pools do not seem to disturb nature; tourists can enjoy nice places and technology gives them the means to do so. Thus the signs of the pictures can be divided into two categories. Firstly, those, which bring this exotic reality to the Western 'language game' in Wittgensteinian terms, and to the Western system of vision (see Bonarou, 2009). Palm trees, swimming pools, and European buildings bring the Other's reality closer to ours. Secondly, the photographs and keywords which refer to the true wild nature. The above description of the photographs and the narratives that accompany them, illustrate that the Namibian landscape is

presented as wild, unspoilt and therefore beautiful landscape. 'Natures as it was first created', 'true wilderness', 'clear African sky', 'the direct descendants of stone – age man'; these phrases are very common in the brochures as are the pictures of such landscapes. Wild, strong animals in the unspoilt nature is a picture that strengthens the argument that nature in Namibia is undisturbed while old building and monuments are pictured in a way that show that they are absolutely in harmony, and they blend with the environment.

These signs constitute an established tradition since the first pictures of Laurence van der Post and the consecutive pictures of the first travelers and settlers were taken. As Bonarou (2009) claims, in the case of Greece, tourism brochures picture Greece as historical and authentic destination of the romantic gaze and the case of Namibia doesn't seem to be much different as far as the 'myth of the unchanged' is concerned (ibid). This myth was cultivated all through the colonisation era and the apartheid period, it survived the independence of the country and is evident until today. As mentioned in the official website of the Namibia Tourism Board

"Namibia is a gem for those in search of the wilderness... The perfect choice for nature lovers and amateur photographers alike"

(http://www.namibiatourism.com.na/country_pro.php). The lions, the cheetahs, the elephants the exotic and wild places are symbols. They are the stereotyped images repeated in almost all the brochures and the reason they are accompanied with anchors as the one above 'nature the way it was created'. On the other end the historical landscape pictures represent the familiarity of the place. "Germanic influence can still be found in the country's good road infrastructure, well-equipped rest camps throughout the country and most cities' architecture" (ibid). They represent the advertising codes, which give the sign the universality it needs in order to be understood.

In this sense, it seems that Namibian landscapes assume different meanings according to the employment of the keywords. The cultural significations of the signs in the pictures are not arbitrary meanings. They inscribe symbolic relations, embedded in culturally constructed systems of vision. The tourism brochures as produced by the publishers based on professional, aesthetic and ideological criteria in order to represent meanings (Bonarou, 2009) create and project an identity of place to be consumed by the tourists (Galani – Moutafi, 2002).

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ENDNOTES

ⁱ A tourist picture is defined as the pictures taken by tourists as well as the pictures produced and distributed to tourists by host societies and the tourism industry (Chalfen 1979:437).

ⁱⁱ Similarly, Westland (1998:1) claims that “Beyond the materiality of rocks and weather, plantlife and population, the landscapes we are now trying to understand are made in our minds”.

ⁱⁱⁱ According to Saussurian analysis, language is a system containing signs. These signs are composed of signifiers, which are the ‘sound words’, and signifieds, which are the mental concepts, which the sound words describe. Their relationship is fluid because signifieds, as mental constructions, are differently interpreted (Saussure 1974).

^{iv} The term semiotics was first used in English by Henry Stubbes in a very precise sense to denote the branch of medical science relating to the interpretation of signs. It was Saussure however that viewed semiotics as a realm in the social sciences.

^v For Lacan (1977:303), the *points de capiton* are points at which the “signified and signifier are knotted together”. In other words it is “the point in the signifying chain at which the signifier stops the otherwise endless movement of the signification and produces the necessary illusion of a fixed meaning”.

^{vi} The concept of ‘sustainable development’ was coined in 1987 in the Brundtland Commissions report “Our Common future” and it was defined as “meeting the needs of the present generation without compromising the needs of the future generations” (Serageldin 1994).

^{vii} Albers and James (1988) argue that a photograph can be seen as a symbol when it uses the analogy, it stands for something other than itself.

^{viii} In 1926 the University of Denver sent out an expedition in order to make a cinematographic record of the Kalahari Bushmen (Gordon 1997).

^{ix} According to Barthes (1973) in photography there is a coexistence of two messages: the message that has no code and is related to the object of the picture and the message which has a code and is related to the rhetoric of the picture.

^x ‘Anchorage’ is a term used by Barthes (*ibid*) in order to describe the words used to accompany the pictures in order to excluded certain meanings and include

other, urging thus the consumer to adopt the meanings chosen by the creator of the picture.

^{xi} As Urry (2002) claims, the tourist gaze can be divided into two categories, the *romantic gaze* which refers to virgin unspoiled landscapes and the *collective gaze* which refers to collective events occupied by people who participate in the event. In addition as Galani-Moutafi (in Bonarou 2009) claims, the collective gaze refers to popular pleasures and requires high levels of popular participation; a tendency of the post-modern condition that influences the public through immediate lust rather than aesthetics.

^{xii} According to Barthes (1973) a *myth* is a locus where two systems meet: the language and the meta-language system. The latter is the one that after having assimilated the first evolves in a separate and sometimes autonomous system. In the case of photography this can be seen in the 'reality' manufactured and consequently imposed by the pictures.

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TOURISM PLANNING AND POLICY IN SELECTED MOUNTAINOUS AREAS OF GREECE

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Mountains occupy approximately one/fifth of the total surface of the earth and have been progressively transformed into important tourist destinations. Many developed countries have traced and implemented remarkable state interventions to promote tourism development in their mountain areas. State planning, fundamentally, intervenes in a compensating and balancing way, creating the necessary terms and conditions for the smooth formation of the necessary tourist capital at national, regional and local level. This paper evaluates the effectiveness of the state tourism policy in selected mountain prefectures of Greece (Ioannina, Evritania and Kastoria), according to the mountain zone typology used by UNEP-WCMC. The evaluation of the three entirely mountain prefectures according to selected aspects of the tourism policy implemented and the hotel evolutionary geographical distribution highlights a policy gap as regards tourism development in the Greek mountain areas; such tourism development has been progressively incorporated in the general regionalisation policy adopted of Greek tourism.

Keywords: mountainous, incentives policy, hotel investments.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Greece is the most mountainous country in the Mediterranean and the Balkans with 65% of its surface covered by mountainous areas (according to EU Directive 268/75). These areas are mainly characterised by their



intense spatial fragmentation and lack of uniformity in the landscapes they form. The development of mountainous areas during the post-war period has been left to its fate, thus provoking a remarkable shrinkage in their population. In 1950 the latter accounted for 14.5% of the total population of the country, while in 2001 it amounted to just 7.6% of the total population.

Since the 1970s tourist development policy in mountainous areas has been incorporated in the general policy for the country's regional development. In that perspective the Greek mountainous areas with complex environmental resources have been gradually promoted as tourist destinations on the basis of three essential motivations: countryside, sports and the environment.

PLANNING & IMPLEMENTATION OF TOURIST POLICY IN MOUNTAINOUS AREAS

Mountains are among the few areas of the world marked by unrivalled beauty, rich biodiversity and a diversity in human civilisations, traditions and lifestyles. However mountainous areas have a common characteristic, namely that of isolation. Since the 1950s they have become problematic and marginal rural zones, labelled as the least-favoured areas due to global economic and social changes (Jansky, et.al., 2002).

Tourism has always been used as a "fundamental tool" for local development, since tourist consumption in the production area is linked in multifaceted ways to all local economic activities (agriculture, fishing, crafts and so on) and has significant effects on the production and social structure. Christaller (1964) is one of the first researchers to have considered tourism an important pole of development describing it as a regional activity. Soon after Freedmann (1966) argued that tourism may be an alternative method of development, particularly for remote areas, such as mountainous areas, which would otherwise face limited prospects of development due to the specialised nature of their resources or location.

The gradual development of tourist incentives has contributed to the activation and later to the accessibility of mountainous tourism for increasing tourist groups (Godde et.al., 2000). Tourism in mountainous areas accounts for a considerable part of the world's tourism industry, as a result of which the current international debate on sustainable development attaches great importance to mountains. Chapter 13 in particular ("Managing Fragile Ecosystems: Sustainable Mountain

Development”) is an important step to promoting the vital role of mountainous areas at global level. Furthermore, 2002 was designated by the United Nations as both “International Year of Ecotourism” and “International Year of Mountains”, which aroused awareness concerning mountain ecosystems and the link between development in the mountainous areas and environment-friendly tourism.

The greatest problem in the development of tourist facilities in remote and particularly mountainous areas remains the high initial investment costs, the thorough knowledge and experience demanded for construction and operation of tourist enterprises and for the consolidation of a particular location as an attractive destination in the world tourism market in general. The state, without detracting from the tourism market and the private sector, offers various development incentives in an effort to develop private tourism investments to a satisfactory level, achieve their suitable distribution at a local level and upgrade the quality of the tourist product.

The interventionist incentive-based spatial planning policy is based on arguments concerning the market’s failure in accordance with which the shaping of tourism development through the market mechanism fails to be compatible with the accomplishment of far-reaching aims, such as environmental protection, safeguard of public goods and the elimination of unfair competition (Wanhill, 1999). The selection of location establishment is a question of paramount importance for a tourist enterprise, since it has an impact not only on the economic stability of the investment plan, but on the natural and human-geographical resources of the area itself. To this effect the state is interventionist in a desire to compensate for the market’s weaknesses and at the same time reinforce the leading role of private enterprises in tourism and general development of the country. Simultaneously the power and success of the incentive policy is directly connected to the increase in efficiency of the tourist enterprises assisted, in order to produce positive effects of expansion within the local society and economy, which is challenging within such a highly competitive market. Therefore investment redistribution initially presupposes the existence of available investments and then the possibility of influencing trends within the various regions and areas by means of the incentive policy. Such trends are independent to a large extent of the specific incentive policy and are shaped according to the various conditions that reign in national and international markets.

METHODOLOGY

This paper examines the efficiency of tourism planning and policy in selected areas of Greek territory, defined according to the mountainous criteria and particularly the mountain typology adopted by UNEP-WCMC. The aforementioned typology has been formulated by Copus and Price (2002), who attempted to classify the mountainous areas of the EU (and the candidate countries before the enlargement), taking into consideration the common geo-morphological, economic and social characteristics, as follows: partly mountainous regions (areas in which 40-60% of land area is mountainous), predominantly mountainous regions (in which 60-95% of the area is mountainous) and completely mountainous regions (95% or more of land area is mountainous).

In Greece (NUTS III Regions), there are 13 prefectures defined as predominantly mountainous areas, whereas three prefectures are defined as completely mountainous: Ioannina, Evritania and Kastoria. These three human-geographic units are marked by complex resources (in terms of natural and constructed environment) and similarities as to their socioeconomic characteristics. The main hindrance to development of these prefectures is the low population, mainly in terms of active population, due to the existence of mountainous and infertile land, geographic isolation and insufficiency of productive resources (Filippou et.al, 2009).

In the aforementioned areas tourism seems to play an outstanding role in their development, but tourists usually make short visits (usually two-day trips). These areas have organised tourism enclaves and their clients are mainly Greek citizens who make short trips in seasons other than the summer. More specifically the prefecture of Ioannina attracts an increasing number of tourists interested in getting to know its cultural and natural heritage. Tourist traffic and consequently the hotel capacity of the prefecture is concentrated in the city of Ioannina and to a lesser extent in Metsovo, Konitsa and Zagorohoria. As regards the prefecture of Kastoria, domestic tourism is reported as being the main market of tourist influx and is marked by intense seasonality (from October to May). There is low traffic of organised tourist groups and the limited hotel capacity of the prefecture is highly concentrated within or in the environs of the provincial capital. Furthermore the prefecture of Evritania has a limited number of small hotels, most of which are located in Karpenisi.

In an effort to provide an approach and interpretation of the system of financial state intervention for tourism development in these mountainous prefectures, a group of competent bodies collaborated to carry out related

combined empirical research (the Ministry of Economy, the Greek Tourism Organisation, the Hellenic Chamber of Hotels, etc.). The group correlated and analysed various factors such as: (a) the incentive zones shaped under development laws, (b) the data regarding private financially assisted hotel investments and (c) the data concerning the functional formation and generation of hotel capital in the prefectures under consideration spatially and time wise.

THE INCENTIVE POLICY FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN GREEK MOUNTAINOUS AREAS

Momentum of Tourism Development and Mountainous Areas

In the mid 1970s, both in view of the general regional problems faced in Greece and the land-planning and functional problems of tourism development itself, the first significant state intervention was enacted concerning the regionalisation of tourism (Developmental Law 1313/72). This intervention divided national territory into three incentive zones. It also laid the foundations for the development of winter tourism in the years 1972-1978. In particular efforts were made to identify suitable mountainous areas for the development of winter tourism through the establishment of more favourable financial incentives. However the label "mountainous area" was attributed to Greek inland destinations with a medium percentage of mountains that were already quite developed in terms of tourism. At the same time increasing investment activity in the Greek hotel industry developed in the two major urban centres of the country due to the continuous demand for hotel enterprises and the value of land that could cover the guarantees demanded by banks in order to grant long-term loans.

The accession of Greece into the European Union in 1981 and the exercise of the Common Agricultural Policy enabled the implementation of directive 268/75 on "mountainous and less-favoured areas" in the country, in an effort to support agricultural income. However, the development policy for mountainous areas continued to be part of the country's general regional policy. After 1981 the extent of regionalisation of tourism was a direct result of the incentives policy as reflected in the successive development laws.

Law 1262/1982 was the most integrated development policy in tourism with a decisive impact on the provision of the country's tourist services. The main objective of this law and those that followed was the country's regional development by means of the division of the territory

into high, medium and low incentive zones. This move aimed to eliminate territorial inequalities, increase employment through the investment activity in rural areas and so forth. In that perspective, the mountainous prefectures were viewed as areas in decline and the majority were included in the C zone. The exceptions were the border mountainous prefectures on which special emphasis was placed (D zone). This Law provided a favourable framework for the reinforcement of the hotel industry in the three prefectures, which received some of the highest percentages of grants (45%–47%) in the country (Table I).

Table I Private Hotel Investments Granted by L. 1262/1982

Geographical Determination	Incentive Zones	Average Grant (%)	Private Hotel Investments Realised					Average Growth Rate of Hotel Capacity 1981-1989
			Establishment of Hotel		Modernisation of Hotel		New Job Positions	
			Units	Beds	Units	Beds		
Ioannina	D	47.56	13	361	4	414	48	1,22
Evritania	C	45.25	2	146	0	0	39	4,35
Kastoria	D	45.59	1	39	1	66	29	1,70
Total Country		33.80	1260	102080	181	18371	10797	4.43

Source: Vlami, 2008

This incentive policy contributed to the establishment of 3* and 2* hotel units in Ioannina. It is remarkable that in Evritania the high grant awarded – raised by 15% – to the Velouchi Ski Centre SA for the two investments made led to a very high average bed cost. Nevertheless a limited number of investments were reported in the majority of the inland prefectures, including the prefectures under study and the sole objective of these investments was to establish small hotels operating all year round. This policy led to the uncontrolled establishment of small hotel units in the coastal and insular zones. Consequently, a new state intervention of a spatial nature was called for, with the introduction of the concept of “saturated areas” which aimed at the increased turnover in hotel rooms in developed areas. The measures taken during this period aroused severe criticism of the summer holiday mass tourism model and the gradual promotion of certain areas (mountainous and semi-mountainous) as tourist destinations for domestic visitors and tourists with special interests.

Stability of Tourism Development and Reorientation of Tourism Policy

The policy exercised in the 1990s discouraged, or rather prevented, investments into the set up of medium and low class hotels, by focusing on investments for the modernisation of the existing ones, the conversion of old buildings into hotels and the creation of a specialised tourism infrastructure. Moreover, the foundation or expansion of hotel units used for winter tourism and located in Areas B and C enjoyed the grants earmarked for Area D (as Evritania) (Table II).

Table II Private Hotel Investments Granted by L. 1892/1990

Geographical Determination	Incentive Zones	Average Grant (%)	Private Hotel Investments Realised					Average Growth Rate of Hotel Capacity 1990-1997
			Establishment of Hotel		Modernisation of Hotel		New Job Positions	
			Units	Beds	Units	Beds		
Ioannina	D	27.47	10	623	0	0	98	2,12
Evritania	D	27.47	2	136	3	380	55	1,06
Kastoria	D	30.86	5	194	1	77	32	2,36
Total Country		28.57	239	21214	303	53895	5102	4,08

Source: Vlami, 2008

The impact of L. 1892/1990 on the geographical restructuring of the productive potential of Greek tourism was limited due to the low number of investments made into the establishment of hotel units (mainly A and B class). Furthermore those that were made concentrated mainly in the insular regions of the Southern Aegean and Crete. Therefore, very few investments targeted the three mountainous prefectures in question during said period (Table III). On the other hand it is worth mentioning that although minimal investment plans were implemented for the setting up of new hotels in the prefectures of Evritania and Kastoria, these areas recorded some of the highest average bed costs as the investments made concerned high-class units. Two hotel units were set up in Evritania in the municipalities of Karpenisi and Megalo Horio with wide-ranging services. Furthermore, Evritania presented the second highest average cost per modernised bed and three existing hotels in the area upgraded their services. On the other hand 10 hotel building investment plans were carried out in the prefecture of Ioannina for an overall capacity of 623 beds at an extremely low cost per bed.

The incentive policy adopted during the period 1998-2004, in accordance with Law 2601/1998, further reduced grants, providing

financial assistance only to new bodies. The geographical diversification of incentives was considered secondary. The four designated incentive-zones remained albeit not very clearly defined: zone C was redefined every two years absorbing parts of zone B which showed a decline in development, while zone D included the border zone of 20 km and small islands. However, inclusion criteria for zone C did not take effect and most mountainous prefectures were included in zone C for the entire validity period of the law.

This policy mainly activated investments for the modernisation of hotels (68.2% of total investments, Table IV), which, as expected, were carried out in regions with a high hotel potential. It also promoted a substantial number of plans for the conversion of listed buildings into hotels (24.5%). These investment plans created a small hotel unit network in the traditional settlements of the country, which attract an ever increasing number of domestic tourists for short trips.

Table IV Private Hotel Investments Granted by L. 2601/1998

Geographical Determination	Incentive Zones	Average Grant (%)	Private Hotel Investments Realised							Average Growth Rate of Hotel Capacity 1998 - 2004
			Establishment of Hotel		Modernisation of Hotel		Conversion of Traditional Buildings into Hotels		New Job Positions	
			Units	Beds	Units	Beds	Units	Beds		
Ioannina	C	41.61	1	39	2	60	25	375	100	3,19
Evritania	C	38.08	0	0	1	0	2	10	5	1,89
Kastoria	C	25.00	1	68	1	85	0	0	21	4,83
Total Country		26.99	63	5043	649	80649	231	4849	5556	2,48

Source: Vlami, 2008

The majority of such investments and resources were absorbed by the prefecture of Ioannina, which attracted a substantial grant (41%). Thus the rate of increase as regards the prefecture's hotel units was considerably accelerated (7%), while that related to beds remained low (3.2%), since the hotel units had an average capacity of 15 beds. As a consequence the prefecture's participation in the country's annual tourism consumption was not enhanced (indeed it accounted for just 1.62%).

Necessary Changes in Tourism Development in Mountainous Areas

The rationale of the incentive policy in the five-year period 2005-2010 changed, as dictated by Law 3299/2004. Unlike the policy adopted for the past fifteen years which encouraged investments for the modernisation of existing units, the new policy is expansionist and aims at accelerating the rate of creation of new hotel beds. As a result, significantly more investment plans have been submitted for the reduction of capital cost. Specifically 1,784 investments have been approved within this incentive system, by which: 142,022 hotel beds have been modernised, 64,100 new beds created, 4,515 new beds resulted from the conversion of traditional buildings and 14,742 new jobs have emerged.

The implementation of this development law has lead to a substantial number of investments in the creation of new hotel beds. Due to the significant financial support and the increasing domestic tourist flow in the territory, mainly during winter, some prefectures of mainland Greece that have traditionally lagged behind in terms of investment plans report intense investment activity. The investment plans for new hotels that are being carried out in mainland Greece mainly concern new small to medium size hotel units. Considerable resources have been earmarked in the territory of the prefecture of Ioannina for the construction of 42 mainly 3* (B Class) units with an average capacity of 46 beds. A relative enhancement of investments is apparent in Evritania and Kastoria, where the setting up of 9 and 6 mainly 4* and 3* small and medium sized hotel units respectively has been approved (Table IV). There is also marked interest in investments aiming at converting traditional and listed buildings into hotels in the developing domestic tourism destinations with rich cultural and architectural heritage. The prefecture of Ioannina in particular has attracted 15% of such approved plans at national level. These hotel units are mainly very small size 4* hotels, most of which are located in the capital city of the prefecture. Likewise in Kastoria, and particularly in the urban centre, the conversion of 7 old buildings into 4* hotels with an average capacity of 18 beds has been approved.

Table IV Private Hotel Investments Granted by L. 3299/2004

Geographical Determination	Incentive Zones	Average Grant (%)	Private Hotel Investments Realised							Average Growth Rate of Hotel Capacity 1998 - 2004
			Establishment of Hotel		Modernisation of Hotel		Conversion of Traditional Buildings into Hotels		New Job Positions	
			Units	Beds	Units	Beds	Units	Beds		
Ioannina	C	50.24	42	1965	9	759	40	632	334	21,34
Evritania	B	38.22	9	238	0	0	1	18	43	5,13
Kastoria	B	50.59	6	263	3	315	7	124	67	13,23
Total Country		43.28	704	64100	813	142022	267	4515	14742	3,62

Source: Vlami, 2008

It should be noted that during the validity term of the law Ioannina, Kastoria and Evritania present increasing rates of enhancement of their hotel potential (21.34%, 13.23% and 5.13% respectively). Assuming that all 3,240 new beds (2,466 new ones and 774 following alteration) belonging to the grant regime in accordance with Law 3299/04 are to be created, the hotel potential of the three prefectures above will be further augmented. In particular hotel beds in the prefecture of Ioannina are expected to increase by 35.52%, in Kastoria by 16.96% and in Evritania by 12.61%. Obviously such an assumption carries an element of uncertainty, since it is possible that not all investment plans will be carried out due to the difficult economic situation. Yet substantial amounts have already been earmarked for environmental, architectural studies, time has been spent for the necessary approvals (more than 6 months at least) and investors have guaranteed their participation in capital for the implementation. As a consequence a large part of those investments will be delivered, maybe to a lesser extent and at a reduced budget, since the most appropriate solution in the current circumstances is to invest the available capital, as long as it concerns deposits and not shares, rather than to deposit it in bank.

However such investment activity does not seem to significantly contribute to the upgrading and enrichment of the hotel product in the prefectures under study, since priority is given to particularly low cost investments for hotel modernisation. In general only 90 hotel units which receive financial assistance will be upgraded to a higher star category after being modernised at a national level, none of which are located in these three prefectures (the grant increment of 5% for such investments is not taken into consideration). This is attributable largely to the demanding and costly procedures of upgrading a hotel to a higher category which

involves environmental licensing through the submission of supplementary plans to be approved by the Greek Tourism Organisation Regional Tourism Services, relevant engineer studies and so on. This procedure remains cumbersome and time consuming despite the modification of the specifications provided for by Presidential Decree 32/02 establishing more flexible upgrading requirements.

Furthermore private investors' interest in investment plans for the addition of complementary facilities in existing hotel units has decreased, along with the interest in building or modernising specialised tourist infrastructure facilities both in the prefectures in question and at national level (in general just 45 and 22 plans respectively have been submitted to the law incentives, despite the high average grants which exceed 35% and 45% respectively). Such a reduced private interest shows the investors' preference for plans concerning building and extension of hotel units and therefore their preference for plans dealing with the creation of new bedrooms, rather than the creation of shared spaces, that would upgrade the services provided: in the case of visitors' overnight stays the income derives essentially from the number of beds. Moreover investors seem to show a preference for the creation of specialised spaces to be used for the supply of additional services as part of the hotel building and extension plans, rather than for the construction of single conference and spa centres, considering such an investment decision more suitable in terms of time, procedure and supporting documents.

CONCLUSIONS

The evaluation of the three completely mountainous prefectures of Greece on a basis of selected aspects of the tourism policy adopted and the evolving geographical distribution of hotels reveals that mountainous areas, having been excluded from the tourism planning policy in the 1970s and 1980s, have progressively become part of a fragmentary policy for the development of alternative forms of tourism from the 1990s to date. The concept of territorial diversification of incentives for tourism development in Greece has required much time be spent on consolidating and implementing as firm practice in the bills passed. However the difference in the volume of incentives offered has not solved the problem of lack of investments in given local units, such as mountainous areas; rather it has slowed down the regional problem. Greek state interventions have further reinforced the existing tourism development poles, although legislative documents and regional development programmes aimed at the opposite outcome. At the same time local bodies and the various interest

groups that have fervently supported the importance of tourism in local development failed to play an essential role in defining and implementing tourism policy.

Even the incentive policy for regional development during the period 1990-2004, which actually discouraged or rather excluded the creation of new hotel beds, did not manage to reverse such a trend. Inland prefectures with significant potential for the development of sightseeing, mountain and winter tourism activities and so on face a lack or shortage of hotel beds. Such prefectures work according to the “small scale” organised mass tourism model and the majority have no particular promotion or advertisement abroad addressing groups of tourists with special interests.

The results of the expansionist incentive policy of the past five-year period in the mountainous prefectures under study, and apparently in mountainous Greece at large, constitute just one dimension of the myth of sustainable development. There are growing concerns that many of the new hotel units which have received financial support are the result of a favourable entrepreneurial opportunity to penetrate a profitable sector, to a large extent supported by the state, rather than the achievement of a targeted policy for the development of a tourism superstructure adapted to meet market demands and the needs of mountainous areas.

The state is called upon to guarantee a basic level of general and special infrastructures (e.g. water supply, sewerage, electric power supply and distribution networks, telecommunications, transport network, recreational services, organised cultural and entertainment activities and so forth) within a clearly outlined tourism and general development policy for mountainous areas, in order to create the necessary conditions to attract private initiatives. Without an integrated framework for tourism and general development of such areas based on the principles of sustainability, all efforts are doomed to be fragmentary and subject to the interpretation provided each time by the interested and participating parties.

Financing and development of small scale superstructure must always be planned based upon detailed market research, respectful of the natural environment and local tradition of mountainous areas and compatible with the needs of domestic tourism, which constitutes an essential part of the Greek mountainous area tourist product. A change in the centralised decision making tradition is needed through the definition of a coordinated policy that shall support the transfer of resources and competences to local authorities. The latter in cooperation with production and scientific bodies shall outline and execute tourism development plans. Moreover regular information campaigns are

necessary at local level with reference to Agenda 21 and the importance of its implementation for the destinations' sustainable development through participatory procedures and consensus.

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COMPETITIVENESS OF TOURISM REGIONS IN HUNGARY

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JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

A study into the competitiveness of tourism regions raises a rather high number of questions (Lengyel 2000, Nemes Nagy 2005.). One such matter is the basis of comparison by which a region is considered to be competitive or non-competitive? An issue raised during the calculation of competitiveness was the estimation of the tourism regions' level of development, as it depended upon which factors of competitiveness we were attempting to define. Number of studies has identified the attributes of competitiveness for tourism destinations (Ritchie and Crouch 2003., Dwyer and Kim 2003.), but relatively few methods exist with regard to the measurement of tourism competitiveness; however amongst those the following are highlighted:

- On this basis, some authors have built models which will help to understand the competitiveness (Dwyer and Kim 2003., Ritchie and Crouch 2003.) of tourism destination. However Crouch and Ritchie (2003) acknowledge that 'there is a need also to investigate the relative importance of attributes as they apply to particular segments of the tourism market'.

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- The 'Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index' (WEF, 2008), based on fourteen indicators, measures the tourism competitiveness of 130 countries. The index categorises the indicators in three broad thematic areas: regulatory framework, business environment and infrastructure, human, cultural, and natural resources.

- The Competitiveness Monitor (Gooroochurn-Sugiyarto, 2004) measures the competitiveness of tourism by way of eight quantitative indicators (price, trade openness, technological development, state of infrastructure, human resources of tourism, social development, environmental conditions and general human resources). Since the ranking of countries varies from year to year, it hinders the ability to present the trends (Jancsik – Madarász 2009).

- The 'Destination Performance Index', developed by Ritchie (2003), allows the comparison of the performance of destinations by the evaluation of about one hundred and sixty indicators on economic performance, sustainability, visitor satisfaction and management-related activities.

- According to Go-Govers (2000), the relative competitive position of the destination depends on facilities, accessibility, service quality, image, climate, environment and attractions.

Theoretically, it is possible to define the level of development by applying one of the complex development indicators. Alternatively, an estimation based on the most widespread indicator, i.e. on GDP of the tourism regions, might also be performed. For this analysis, we found the second method to be more appropriate, and the results of those calculations are presented.

RESULTS

Firstly, we estimated the GDP of the tourism regions in Hungary and, using this data and its specific value, the respective levels of their development were compared. The highest GDP among the tourism regions of Hungary is produced in the Budapest–Central Danube Region. Basically, there a continuous increase was experienced between 2000 and 2005 with regard to its share, whilst all of the other regions either stagnated or indicated a decline. The significant differences in the level of development are indicated by the fact that the gross domestic product in one of the regions approximates to half of the national value, and compared to this region, all the others fail to function as counter-poles.

Compared to 2000, the rate of increase of the national GDP by 2005 was 63%. A more rapid growth is witnessed only for the Budapest–Central Danube Tourism Region (+77%). For all other regions, with the exception of the Northern Hungary Tourism Region (+63%), an increase lower than the national average is observed (Figure 1), the lowest being for the Western Transdanubia Tourism Region (+42%).

National tourism GDP was divided into tourism regions by way of an estimation procedure, with which the turnover of each region's accommodation was taken into account using an evaluation method based on the type of accommodation. As concluded, tourism GDP during the period between 2000 and 2005, at national level, and calculated upon a basic price, increased by 67%. The most significant growth is indicated for the Central Transdanubia Tourism Region, while the lowest is experienced in the Southern Transdanubia Tourism Region. An increase lower than the national level is indicated for only two regions, those being Lake Balaton and Southern Transdanubia Tourism Regions.

Between 2000 and 2005, the ranking of regions for tourism GDP underwent only minor changes. Practically no changes were indicated within the first four places as the Budapest–Central Danube Tourism Region is followed by the Lake Balaton, the Western Transdanubia and the Northern Great Plain Tourism Regions. In 2000 the fifth place was attained by the Southern Transdanubia Tourism Region, but it fell back to the eighth position by 2005. In 2000 the Southern Transdanubia Tourism Region was followed by the Northern Hungary Tourism Region, the Southern Great Plain and the Central Transdanubia Tourism Regions, but all three of these had advanced one place by 2005. The lowest value of tourism GDP during the entire study period was produced in the Lake Tisza Tourism Region.

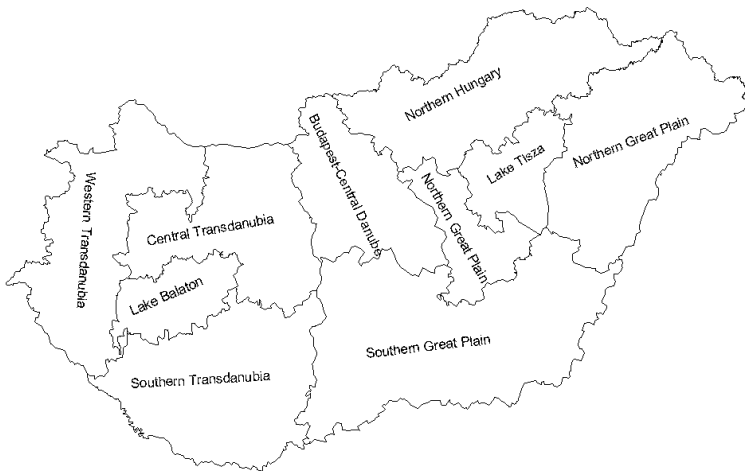
Based upon the studies, it can be concluded that the spatial concentration of tourism GDP in Hungary is significantly higher at the regional level compared to the total GDP, with the concentration becoming ever stronger for both.

Spatial disparities in the tourism GDP per capita are far more significant than that of GDP. It may be concluded that, despite the remission of differences between the most and least developed regions in the field of tourism, the level of spatial disparities in the development level of tourism in Hungary is still significant.

In order to compare regions, having varying areas and population, from the point of view of tourism, (regional) tourism GDP per capita was

calculated and was taken into consideration as an index of the level of tourism development. With regard to tourism GDP per capita, the ranking of tourism regions did not change significantly during the period of the six years studied, with the Lake Balaton, Budapest-Central Danube and Western Transdanubia Tourism Regions being the first three.

Figure 1 Tourism regions in Hungary



Applying the method of de-aggregation, we intended to study tourism competitiveness and its components in the tourism regions of Hungary. In the first general economic approach the development (GDP per capita), productivity (GDP per employee), employment (an active age per employee) and the age structure (active age per capita) were taken into consideration as the factors of competitiveness.

After some mathematical modifications conducted (logarithms of values will have to be applied), the product is transformed into a more

easily manageable sum as according to the formula below (DCF=Destination Competitiveness Formula):

$$\log\left(\frac{GDP}{Number\ of\ population}\right) = \log\left(\frac{GDP}{Number\ of\ employed}\right) + \log\left(\frac{Number\ of\ employed}{Number\ of\ active\ aged}\right) + \log\left(\frac{Number\ of\ active\ aged}{Number\ of\ population}\right)$$

In a static competitiveness analysis of general economic approach, only the Budapest–Central Danube Tourism Region may be regarded as competitive in Hungary. However, due to the factor of age structure, only multi-factorial competitive advantage can be observed here. Contrary to this, in all other tourism regions some type of competitive disadvantage is represented.

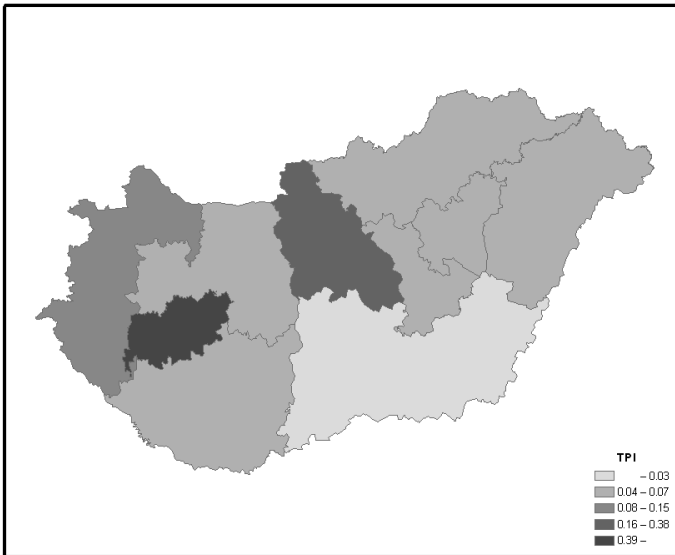
In a dynamic analysis, taking the processes of the period between 2000 and 2005 into consideration, a complex competitive advantage is seen in the Northern Hungary Tourism Region. A competitive advantage is also present in the Budapest–Central Danube Tourism Region, but this is the result of advantageous changes in productivity. On the other hand, the Lake Tisza Tourism Region, despite also being competitive, due to the disadvantageous productivity processes can be characterised as of multi-factorial competitive advantage. In all other regions, a type of competitive disadvantage can be observed.

Hereafter, in addition to a competitiveness study of general economic approach, a specific tourism approach competitiveness study is conducted with a methodology very similar to the previous ones. Tourism competitiveness has been analysed by way of two approaches: based on tourism factors, as well as on the situation of tourism and its adjustment to the economic structure. In this approach, the tourism competitiveness is modelled by the tourism factors (tourism development/tourism GDP per capita in the county/; tourism efficiency/one overnight per capita GDP of county tourism/; coverage/per capita commercial accommodations/; capacity utilization/space per overnight stay).

Following the static study of tourism factors, the Budapest-Central Danube and Lake Balaton Tourism Regions can be considered as competitive. In the case of the former, a multi-factorial competitive advantage and a value lower than the national average are seen only for specific supply. Regarding the Lake Balaton Tourism Region, it is the opposite, with a value exceeding the national average indicated only for this factor, while there are lower values for efficiency and exploitation. For all other regions, a type of competitive disadvantage is represented.

In the dynamic context, taking the processes of the period between 2000 and 2005 into account, in the Lake Tisza and Central Transdanubia Tourism Regions a complex competitive advantage is evident. The Northern Hungary and Western Transdanubia Tourism Regions display a multi-factorial competitive advantage, whereas in the Budapest–Central Danube and the Southern Great Plain Tourism Regions, a single-factorial competitive advantage can be seen. Unfortunately, in the Lake Balaton and Southern Transdanubia Tourism Regions, a complex competitive disadvantage is present.

Figure 2 TPI indices of the tourism regions in Hungary



Tourism is a complex, multi-dimensional phenomenon, thus it is expedient to conduct the analysis of its impacts by applying a multi-dimensional indicator. In order for this, the TPI index (Tourism Penetration Index), basically a complex impact indicator of tourism (McElroy-de Albuquerque 1998; Sütő 2007), was developed for this reason by researchers.

In our second approach, tourism competitiveness does not solely derive from tourism factors alone, but also examines the general level of development and, within that, the share of tourism in a given county. Thus tourism competitiveness depends not only on the income per person produced by tourism, but also on the role of tourism in the economy and regional development. Somewhat similar results are obtained in this case too, and therefore it can be concluded that changes taking place in tourism processes can also be observed in the impact of tourism on the economic structure. Tourism competitiveness was analysed from two points of view and finally the tourism penetration of each region was studied by applying the tourism penetration index (Figure 2).

CONCLUSIONS

The results presented in this research note are our first attempt to measure the competitiveness of regions. Having compared the current results to the previous studies of competitiveness, we can say that Hungary's second most important tourist destination is more affected than is justified by the situation of in-country tourism competitiveness. Consequently a different tourism development strategy should be adopted by the decision-makers. While in Budapest and Central Danube Tourism Region, in some cases – taking into consideration the conservation of environmental values - the improvements in many areas may still be green-field and new investments, as opposed to Lake Balaton Tourism Region, where primarily the development of the existing infrastructure and quality improvement are the main focus. With regard to the first region mentioned above, for some areas it may be more desirable to increase the volume of tourists. For the Lake Balaton Tourism Region a quality development program, of current services, is needed.

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SUSTAINABILITY OF YOUTH TOURISTS IN EVENT TOURISM: THE MALAYSIAN EXPERIENCES

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Youth tourists are becoming more influential as one of the market potentials in both developed and developing countries. Besides their conventional characters of being individuals, travels with tight budget and preferred non guided tours or on backpackers, youth tourists also play significant roles in event tourism which are more specific in term of schedules and themes. However, youth sustainability of event tourism is hardly discussed in tourism studies in Malaysia. Based on a case study of Visit Malaysia Year 2007 and a convenient sampling of 130 respondents, this article draws the perspective of youth tourists in event tourism. The findings showed that the clarity of youth tourists in event tourism, form of participation and event suitability act as the mediating factors that encouraged youths' participation in event tourism. Sustainability of youth tourists in event tourism also depends on the promotional campaigns and knowing the youth tourists' desires and capabilities.

Keywords: Youth tourist, sustainability, event tourism, Visit Malaysia Year 2007, suitability, participation.

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Sustainability of tourism industry in Malaysia has been argued in many perspectives especially in environmental, economic, cultural and



social sustainability. While these perspectives are very important in terms of sustainable tourism development as well as in terms of resources and assets for future generation be they the locals or international tourists, tourism industry is also subjected to sustainability of tourist demands or tourist markets. In this matter, one of the untapped tourists segment is youth tourists. Nevertheless as pointed by many scholars that youth tourism is limited in terms of research, there exist several questioned pertaining to the extent of its contribution to the sustainability of tourism industry as a whole and also specific tourism sector such as event tourism.

On the other hand, special thematic event has also been emphasized by many of the destinations. In fact, as of recent era of globalization, event tourism is one of the niche products for expanding both the tourism sector in developed and developing countries. Event tourism, whether of international or national standard, is capable to generate economic growth, increase employment, increase international arrivals and at the same time, strengthen local culture and promote domestic tourism (Vogt 1976; Ritchie, 1984; Getz, 1997, 2008). Like other tourism products, event tourism is currently aiming to attracting crowds of special segments, of which youth seems to becoming one of the most familiar 'fans', 'audience' and 'participants' for both market, domestic and international. In fact, youth tourist is growing rapidly due to changes of global socio-demography, low cost travel and widespread of backpacker's culture including dance culture (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2002; Firth & Hing, 1999; Ryan & Mohsin, 2001; Sellars, 1998).

Although there are substantial literature in event tourism and youth tourism, both hardly provide the perspective of the relationship between youth roles in event tourism. Event tourism, as deliberated by many renowned scholars, involves a variety of issues and research locality (Getz, 1997, 2002, 2008; Riley, 1988). There exist four major themes in event tourism, namely the economic impact, behavioral studies of large and world event including motivations of attendees, marketing, place identity and promotional as well as planning issues (Stokes, 2008; Williams et al., 1995, Buch, 2006; Scott, 1996; Baum & Lockstone, 2007; Bramwell, 1997). Nevertheless, little work is done to elaborate youth involvement in event tourism particularly in dealing with the year-round event in developing countries. On the other hand, youth tourism studies of recent years tend to explore specific international sport events, small scale sports, backpackers and youth at national level (World Tourism Organization, 2008; Tourism Australia, 2010; Firth & Hing, 1999). However, being one of the infancy in tourism sector in most developing countries, youth tourism, provides a limited understanding on the

demand and travel pattern, putting aside their exploration in the event tourism, particularly in thematic events of the country or destination. Hence empirical studies in developing countries provide real evidence for event planning and development and this gap of knowledge need to be attempted.

As for Malaysia, event tourism is becoming a priority, regardless of various new product development initiatives being taken in each state. The Visit Malaysia Year 2007 is a 'peak of a travel events' during the celebration of the 50 years the country achieves an independence and nationhood. It is reported that the Malaysian government expected to woo 20 million foreign tourists and earn 44.5 billion ringgit (12.36 billion U.S. dollars) worth of tourist receipts, giving a boost to the growth of national economy and the development of tourism-related industries (Lihua, 2007). In terms of tourism products, the country continues to promote its traditional advantages, its cultural and natural heritage, and leverage on the tag line "Malaysia Truly Asia", introduced in 1999. During the VMY 2007, a total of 50 major events were showcased throughout the country, enabling visitors to witness a unique multi-racial and multi-cultural tourism activities and lifestyles of this country. Among the events are the Floral Fest in Kuala Lumpur, Dragon Boat Racing in Penang, and Rainforest Musical Festival in Sarawak and Eco-challenge in Pahang National Parks. Most importantly, VMY 2007 demonstrates the government's determination to tap the great potential of the tourism industry, which stands as the third economic pillar and the second largest source of foreign revenue of the country.

However, efforts to encourage young people to actively participate in event tourism in the country have not been proven successful, because segment of youth tourist is difficult to verify with a complete and comprehensive statistics. Based on the youth development index, the domain of leisure time used is low, and surprisingly, the measurement is mostly for leisure time not associated with tourism activities (Ministry of Youth and Sport Malaysia, 2006). The index also showed that leisure time is only a 'fair measure' of youth involvement in tourism, as it included only three aspects of leisure, leaving doubts of what constitutes their real involvement. This is because, significant involvement of youth in developed countries was found to be ranging from an ordinary tourist to a successful businessmen, organizers and volunteer workers.

In fact, the literature of tourism in Malaysia only touches a limited aspect of event tourism and youth tourism. As for youth tourism, a study carried out by Badaruddin et al. (2009) focused on the trend of youth tourists in general, while Taiyab (2005) pointed out the underlying factors

that limit the spread and growth of youth tourism and of recent, Simanjuntak & Haliza (2009) explored on the interest of youth in responsible tourism. Meanwhile studies in event tourism is growing gradually, and topics of research include the small scale sport event (Yusof et al, 2009) and Habibah et al. (2008) explored on the hosting of Visit Malaysia Year 2007 with special attention of youth participation and family markets.

Based on the changing scenario of tourism competitiveness as well as sustainable tourism development and more importantly the limitation of youth study in event tourism, this untapped segment need to be explored, developed and managed in a sustainable manner. As youth tourism is limited in the body of knowledge of tourism studies, a further understanding of appreciating and developing 'youth as tourist' should not be left without guidance, planning and developmental perspectives of sustainable development. In fact detailing who youth tourists' are, their roles in event tourism and environmental knowledge tourists behaviours. It is the intention of this paper to look into the sustainability of tourist tourism in event tourism, with the special emphasis on the Malaysian experiences.

With an opinion that event tourism is a growing sector in the country, yet its body of knowledge is fragmented and limited, a study of sustainability of youth participation in event tourism is crucial. Therefore, this paper attempts to delineate the trend of youth travel and sustainability of youth tourists in event tourism in Malaysia, with special attempt of a case study of Visit Malaysia 2007. Thus, this paper is presented in three major sections especially to discuss the question posed here: Can youth tourists be sustained in event tourism? Is the event tourism, particularly the Visit Malaysia 2007 has been able to meet the needs of the youth segment? What are their needs when visiting or getting involved in event tourism? What are their suggestions to strengthen youth involvement in event tourism in the country? Overall this article hopes to provide an empirical contribution on how youth market can also be part of sustainable event tourism.

DEFINING YOUTH TOURIST AND THEIR SUSTAINABILITY IN EVENT TOURISM

Although many stakeholders have long recognized youth market as a catalyst for tourism development (Adler, 1985; Clarke, 1992; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2002; Getz, 2002; Clark, 1992), there are mutually contradictory views about the potentials of this segment. On one hand,

youth travel is considered one sector that is less useful because young people expenditure is low (Firth & Hing, 1999). Nevertheless, the Australian Tourist Commission (ATC) found that youth travellers stayed in a destination far longer than the average tourists. Thus, their contribution in the overall expenditure is high. This explains why ATC invested heavily on two key sectors of youth market that is the backpackers and language learners.

There are several views on how large the size of youth travel is. This segment is ideally capable to strengthening the tourist market, domestic and international. However, it is difficult to determine the true potential because the size is not easily determined due to lack of systematic data support. This is the main reason this market has been overlooked and underestimated. However, UK-based consulting group, Aviation and Tourism International (ATI), found that Asia Pacific has shown the highest growth for the inclusion of youth in the 1990s from around the world. In fact, youth tourism currently represents the fastest growing sector of the travel industry, accounting for 20% of international arrivals (World Tourism Organization, 2008).

In search of clarity and knowledge of young travelers, there is no typology of youth travel that can be applied uniformly in all countries or destinations. In fact many tourist typologies have raised issues of clarity, validity and simplicity of usage, especially from the event managers. However, within the framework of market strength, dimension of youth travellers cannot avoid the following characteristics:

- Young tourists consist of active youth between the ages of 15 to 25 years. They often have similar hedonistic tastes in the context of attraction, being at a destination and the freedom to travel.
- Travel expenses of young travelers provide more benefits for the local in each destination because they are more frequently at purchasing local goods and engross little leakage.
- Patterns of consumption and expenditure by economic are of potential to promote small youth group travel.
- Youths can be the first to visit new places and attractions. As such, they play a major role in the development of a destination and in expanding local employment.
- Finally, when the young is satisfied, they are not acting as 'potentials' of buying more goods but also becoming the 'target' of the sale easier.

Meanwhile Tourism Australia defines youth segment as males and females, aged between 18 and 30 years. This group is commonly called

Generation Y with alternative labels such as 'Millennial' and the 'Dot.Com'. Their characters included that; they are experiencing, enjoy the Arts and events from music to adrenaline activities; most trips taken are motivated by goals such as desire to explore, experience, work or study abroad (Tourism Australia 2010). Working on the same work, Youth Travel Market analyst categorizes young tourist as those in age group of 15 to 30 years old. They found that youths loved travelling to unusual and remote locations to experience a variety of culture. They created their own itinerary and prefer travelling by bus or train, as this allows them to interact with the local community. In terms of overnight and hotel choice, they usually stayed at the low cost accommodation, especially hostel and budget hotel. They even stay longer in a destination, and are generally more tolerant and less concerned with threats such as terrorism, disease, environmental and political unrest (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2002; Elsrud, 2001).

The World Youth Student and Educational Travel Confederation (WYSE) also proposed that young travellers' aged between 16 to 24 years is a growing sector in tourism industry. For WYSE Amsterdam, adventurous young backpackers often seek a different and challenging destination, stay longer in visited places and take part in local activities and are more comprehensive than the ordinary tourist. The World Tourism Organization (2008) suggests that young travellers have three roles to play, namely as a 'growing market', an 'industry' as well as an 'opportunity' to generate positive values.

In terms of economic contribution, the WTO estimates that youth tourism accounted for 20% and 5% of youth from the global tourist trips in 2001 and 2005 respectively. With an estimated of 160 million international traveler, youth segment contributed over 20% of the total arrivals and income of about US\$136 million, or 18% of total tourist expenditure (World Tourism Organization 2008). According to STAY WISE, growth rates in the youth accommodation sector continue to be above the average for the tourism market as a whole in most regions. Total youth tourism accommodation bed nights are forecast to grow from 289 million in 2005 to almost 500 million by 2020. Total market value is also forecast to reach at least US\$12 billion by 2020, an increase of 58% compared with 2005 (Richards, 2007).

While the first part of this section provides a spectrum of youth tourism, the subsequent part of this section explores what does event tourism mean and how do they support event tourism at large. According to the tourism perspective; the term 'event tourism' is not widely used until the year 1987 when The New Zealand Tourist and Publicity

Department reported: 'tourism is one segment of an important event and is developing rapidly in the international An article written by Getz (1997) in "Tourism Management Special Events: Defining The Product" has developed a framework for event tourism. At that time, event tourism is referred as special events, hallmark, mega and specific event. Event tourism is now commonly known as events that are planned in an integrated whole (Getz, 2007).

Like other tourism products, event tourism provides positive enhancement for youth. This involves the strengthening of identity, widening of employment opportunities and opening their mind to love own culture and building of self-esteem, especially when event tourism involves competition, individual performance and the nation's pride. Event tourism is often related to the theme of travel, lively and full of various events to attract tourists and residents to going places. In the context of a city, tourism is one of the creativity that crafts a vibrant living. Here, the youths, whether they are made up of young professionals, or still studying, visiting or experiencing, an event will provide them a venue for 'being a creative mind' and 'fans' of spectacular events. This initiative will also allow the general goals of national development that is to improve self-esteem and national identity be realized among youth.

The third aspect that needs further explanation is the sustainability of youth tourist in event tourism. From the market demand perspective, the existence of youth tourist is dependent on the macro environments which include the changing demography, quality of life, climate change and the cheap flight facilities. Sustainability of youth tourist also depends on the viability of market expansion efforts implemented and adopted by the national and local stakeholders as well as the international tourism bodies. This includes a smart partnership of WYSE with the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO). However, only one third of the world tourism bodies currently have a specific policy on youth tourist or youth tourism. As for Malaysia, the Ministry of Youth and Sports Malaysia defines youth as that age between 15 and 40 years. This group consists of 10.1 million, or 45 percent of the total 25 million populations. The main focus of youth development programs and activities in the country is the young people age 18 to 25 years. They also travel individually or in a group.

Based on the literature of youth tourist, event tourism and sustainability of youth tourists in event tourism, it is important to note that the clarity of youth market, their need, motivation and capabilities of participating in event do play important roles. Youth, as tourist can

actually function or perform as active and passive involvement, the youth plays an important role in strengthening the country's image through an active participation or a passive participation, be they as a spectator; volunteer or organizer. In response to the event's appropriateness as an indication to show that the knowledge of youth had also increased, study on youth awareness and involvement in event tourism is indeed vital. However, lack of concern and misinterpretation of what was shown and experienced; infer that events have not been blending the taste, need and abilities of youth. Thus, this paper provides a profiling of youth tourists in event tourism, particularly a year round event of Visit Malaysia Year 2007. It is hope through an empirical case of VMY 2007, one of the major initiatives in translating event tourism in Malaysia, the potentials of youth tourists will be carefully transformed in the planning, development and hosting future events.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study was conducted in three phases. The first phase used the secondary data to assist in search of concept and understanding of both event and youth tourism. The second stage involved the detailing of events in VMY 2007, especially the spatial distribution, types and orientation of events. Data collected from the website as well as from other secondary sources were analysed into the spatial-temporal of events. The third phase involved a field survey of a convenient sampling of 130 respondents in selected area of Kuala Lumpur, the capital city. A questionnaire was developed to solicit the youth's involvement in in event tourism and their knowledge of VMY2007, including the suitability of events and recommendations to ensure the event's sustainability. The study area, Kuala Lumpur is chosen as it is the central venue for VMY 2007. As many event of VMY2007 were held in the capital city, convenient sampling in selected location of the event tourism calendar had made possible this study.

VISIT MALAYSIA YEAR 2007 AS THE MALAYSIAN EXPERIENCES IN MANAGING THEMATIC EVENT TOURISM

Visit Malaysia Year 2007 (VMY2007) is one of the thematic event tourism held in the country. The VMY2007 was implemented in conjunction with the country's celebration of the independence anniversary of 50 years, aimed at fulfilling various tourist segments demand, locals and internationals. The country has successfully

organized this event as it has contributed for 45.7 billion of national income and 20.7 million of tourist arrivals (Sunday Times, February 20, 2008).

Table 1 Month, Sponsorship and Event Tourism and Cultural Orientation of VMY2007

Aspect VMY 2007	Type	Number	Percentage
Event on spatial-	Central zone	23	46
	Northern zone	7	14
	Southern zone	6	12
	East Coast zone	5	10
	Sabah and Sarawak	7	14
	Nationwide	6	12
Events by month	Jan - April	24	24
	May-August	44	44
	September-	32	32
	Total	100	
The organizers	Government	25	50.0
	Private	18	36.0
	The combination of government & private	7	14.0
Cultural orientation	Local Culture	15	30.0
	Global culture	17	34.0
	Mix of local and global culture	18	36.0

Source: Analysis of the study, 2007.

Being a national agenda in tourism development, events held were spatially distributed. It was understood that a total of 50 events were planned, and six major tourist zones were set up and hosted the event. This includes the central zone of Kuala Lumpur, Putrajaya, Selangor and Negeri Sembilan. The central zone represented a 46 percent of the total events. And this is followed by the northern zone; Perlis, Pulau Pinang, Kedah and Perak and Sabah and Sarawak zone of 14 percent. Meanwhile

the East zone consisting of Pahang, Terengganu and Kelantan contributed 10 percent of activities. The southern zone of Johor and Melaka however, contributed the least, only 4 percent of event. Events held throughout the nation nevertheless contributed quite a small percentage, 12 percent of the total, and these events include the Chinese New Year, Hari Raya and Deepavali celebrations.

Table 1 shows several aspects of event, including the organizers and influences of local and global culture in the organization of VMY2007. For the success of VMY in 2007, the cooperation with various stakeholders is vital, especially involving the government and private sector. However, from this study, the organization of VMY events was dominated by the government bodies, which amounted to 50 percent, followed by 36 percent and 14 percent of private sector and co-operation of both the government and private sector respectively. Most events were arranged by the Ministry of Tourism in collaboration with the promotional body, Tourism Malaysia. If examined in the context of product classification, VMY 2007 was a combination of various products including eco-tourism, recreation and sports-themed events and Mega Sales Carnival. Another distinct character is the cultural events especially the Colours of Malaysia, as it promotes cultural diversity of the various ethnic groups in Malaysia.

PROFILES OF YOUTH TOURISTS DURING VISIT MALAYSIA YEAR 2007

Like other travellers, youths exhibit distinct behaviour when they consume event tourism. Based on a case study carried out on 130 young tourists at various locations around Kuala Lumpur, this section delineates the behaviour of youth tourist during the VMY 2007. This includes age group; capability in travel, their views of event suitability and recommendation, which directly and indirectly have some bearing of influences on the demand and supply of event tourism, especially VMY in 2007.

WHO ARE THE YOUTH TOURISTS?

Generally youth tourists are usually single, young, educated and males. Based on the respondents' socio-demographic background shown in Table 2, youth tourists exhibit similar characters. Majority of the respondents was from the age group of 20 to 24 years old. Most respondents were single and still studying, 95% and 82% respectively.

The respondents however consist of 68% females and 32% males. In terms of ethnics, 61% and 92% of the respondents were Malay and Muslim, compared to other ethnic, Chinese and Indian, which comprised of less than 10 percent of the total respondents.

Table 2 Profiles of Respondents' Socio-demography

		Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Males	42	32.31
	Females	88	67.69
Age	15-19 years	38	29.23
	20-24 years	79	60.77
	25-29 years	12	9.23
	30-34 years	1	0.77
Race	Malay	119	91.54
	Chinese	7	5.38
	Indian	3	2.31
	Others	1	0.77
Religion	Islam	119	91.54
	Buddha	6	4.62
	Hindu	3	2.31
	Christian	2	1.54
Marital Status	Single	123	94.62
	Married	7	5.38
Occupation	Own work	2	1.54
	Government	16	12.31
	Private	5	3.85
	Others (including studying)	107	82.31
Origin	In Kuala Lumpur	9	6.92
	Not in Kuala Lumpur	121	93.08
Level of education	Diploma/First Degree	84	64.62
	Secondary School	39	30.00
	No schooling	1	0.77
	Others	6	4.62

N = 130 respondents; Source: Fieldwork, 2007

A total of 65% of respondents have their educational attainment at the Diploma/ Degree level, followed by 30% of the secondary school level. The respondents came from various origins, whereby 38% were from Bangi, 22% from Penang, 18% from Perak, 6% from Kedah, 5% from Kuala Lumpur and Shah Alam, 3% from Selangor and 1% from Klang. Basically they were from outside Kuala Lumpur rather than being the locals of the capital city.

FORMS OF PARTICIPATION, EVENT SELECTION AND REASON FOR PARTICIPATION

Sustainability of event from youth perspectives definitely need their recognition of whether those event provides choices for active or passive participation. In this matter, form of participations, event selection and reasons underlying should be supportive and encouraging. From the fieldwork, two forms of youth participation in event tourism were identified, namely the active and passive participation. For youths, active participation refers to 'an active travelling to a destination', 'stayed at destination', 'being a spectator' and also as 'a participant of an event'. While passive participation is referring to only being a 'visitor', 'day tripper', 'spectators' and to some extent enjoyed showcased of events aired in the television'. Based on Table 3, a total of 30.8% said they are passively involved while over 60% of the respondents mentioned that they are active participants of event tourism.

There are tendencies among the respondents to choose particular events. This is because each respondent has a distinctive taste. From the many responses obtained, the youths were more fascinated to events in the form of entertainment and shopping, each contributing 55.38% and 41.54%. Educational events, family activities and ICT exhibitions are also their choices, whereby these activities range around 35% to 15% of the total visits. These trends are associated with many of the respondent's reasons to engage in events. Among dominant reasons are interesting entertainments to experience, reduce stress, provide enjoyment and eliminate fatigue from everyday working or studying. Shopping activity is associated with youth's favourite 'wandering', especially during the season of shopping sales.

The respondents were also asked whether the VMY programs suited the family segment or otherwise. Many of them agreed that generally, VMY is suitable for families. Among the respondents, a total of 53.0 percent has been with their families for companions. Nevertheless they

still preferred to spend leisure time with their companions, and the percentage ranked the first as the choice of preferred companion.

Table 3 Multiple Responses for Youth Tourist VMY 2007

Aspects	Answers	Numbers	Percentage
VMY generally compatible with youth taste and needs	Yes	105	80.8
	Not	25	9.2
	No response		
Form of participation in TMM07	Active participation	84	64.6
	Passive participation	40	30.8
	No response	6	4.6
Types of Events (various responses)	Entertainment	72	55.38
	Shopping	54	41.54
	Education	20	15.38
	Family Activities	46	35.38
	Exhibitions and festivals	30	23.08
	Other	4	3.08
Companion when attending events during VMY (multiple answers)	Friends	78	60
	Couple	18	13
	Family	69	53.1
	Others	6	3.4
Satisfied with the program organized	Yes	90	69.2
	No	40	30.8
Cost per visit	Less than RM500	87	66.9
	RM501-RM1000	25	21.9
	RM1001-RM1500	4	3.1
	RM1501-RM2000	4	3.1
	More than RM2000	10	7.7
Mode of transport (multiple answers)	Private cars	63	48.5
	Taxi	12	9.2
	Bus	31	23.8
	LRT / commuter	83	63.8

N = 130 respondents; Source: Fieldwork, 2007

Among the events the respondents shared with their family members are the Month of Golden Celebration, shopping and visiting trade and thematic fairs. On the other hand, the shared events with their friends included the nation celebration and shopping, besides more adventure and fun-based events. From the research findings, young tourists are found to be a 'minimalist spender'. In a simple word, they did not spend a lot of money to enjoy activities presented to them and to the tourists in general. They were more common in the use of public transports, and stayed at the destination within their spending capability. This is consistent with the trend of international young travellers normally known as backpackers. However, when asked the question whether they took a long-haul travel for an event, the majority did not agree to the fact of this initiatives and advantages. In fact, as many events were held in the capital city, they took the chances to experience spectacular and vibrant moment within their budget, time, leisure and routine of their life.

EVENT SUITABILITY

Organizing events throughout the year is regarded as a 'stimulus' for an active participation among youth tourists. This is because they can choose activities according to their preferences. In fact, organization of events in large scale and in a variety of places has enhanced access for youth to travel, hence become the spectators of events of their own choices. This study tried to include as many events that have been offered in 2007, and their views on the event appropriateness are shown in Table 4. This table reveals the youths' responses on events that are most popular and are the least acceptable, followed by the reasons associated with their preferences shown in Table 5.

Among the youths, information and the accuracy of an event do not parallel with each other, or there is a misunderstanding about the content and purpose of the event. Notably, the majority of respondents said that tattoos were not appropriate to showcase youth interest in tourism activities. For them, the tattoos were associated with the 'practice of tattoos' contrary to the religion of Islam; instead, the show is actually one of the military art performances. However, their responds of what makes a perfect event for youth, showed that the majority agreed upon the Month of the country's independence celebrations as the most attractive to youth. They were pleased that the celebration contains a variety of events, in almost all states or in the capital of each state. The youths tend to be the major audience to the most prestigious sports and outdoor activities. In fact, their willingness to pay and be part of the spectacular events such

as Formula One was at the expense of spending their pocket money to achieve satisfaction.

Table 4 Views of Youth Tourists about Events Most Suitable and Not Suitable to Them

Best event	Number	Percentage	Most appropriate event	Number	Percentage
Eye On Malaysia	5	3.85	Flora Fest	3	2:31
Flora Fest	1	0.77	Malaysian Open Golf Championship	10	7.69
Le Tour De Langkawi	5	3.85	Petronas Malaysian F1 Grand Prix	2	1:54
Petronas Malaysian F1 Grand Prix	11	8:46	Samaya International Arts Festival	2	1:54
Colours of Malaysia	3	2:31	Colours of Malaysia	3	2:31
Malaysia Mega Sale Carnival	4	3:08	Malaysian Motorcycle Grand Prix	1	0.77
Malaysia International Fireworks Competition	1	0.77	KL International Tattoo show	14	10.77
Merdeka Month Celebration	13	10:00	KL International Fashion Week	1	0.77
Malaysian Motorcycle	4	3:08	KL International Gourmet Festival	1	0.77

Grand Prix					
KL International Fashion Week	2	1:54	International Street Artists Festival Samaya	4	3:08
Malaysia Year End Sale Carnival	2	1:54			
International Street Artists Festival Samaya	1	0.77			
No response	78	60.00	No response	89	68.46
Total	130	100.00	Total	130	100.00

N = 130 respondents; Source: Fieldwork, 2007

Table 5 Reasons for Suitability of Event

Events	Reason for Suitability of event
Merdeka Month Celebration	Create awareness This time I know the history of my country Adore for the country Cultivate the spirit of patriotism among the youth Because it can instil patriotism among young Educating the nature of patriotism in the hearts of youth Thinking of independence to better Love the country so that more youth and encourage youth to serve country
Petronas Malaysian F1 Grand Prix	Motor event Teenagers nowadays are fond of this sport The most prestigious sports Interest in motoring Because the motoring world is tough and challenging, thereby draw young people attention. 'Racing' is fun. GP has its own class. Helping young to experience and feel real international racing
Colours of Malaysia	This event requires the cooperation and relations for social cohesion Because many cultural performances

Source: Fieldwork, 2007

YOUTH SUPPORT AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EVENT TOURISM

This study also gauges youths' views in seeking their support for event tourism enhancement. Furthermore, they were asked whether they were ready to contribute actively in the future event tourism. They were asked whether they would go to the states that organized similar event tourism at state level or otherwise.

During this study, it was found that the publicity for holding the state promotional year for both Kelantan and Terengganu were already made nationally. For particular event of VMY08 organized at the state level, Kelantan and Terengganu as shown in Table 6. For an organization of Visit Malaysia Year (VMY), the majority of supports were very encouraging. However, knowledge about VMY at the state level was less prominent. Only 30% of respondents said that they knew this programme.

Table 6 Support for Future Event Tourism

Aspects	Response	Number	Percentage
VMY program should be held again	Yes	117	90.0
	No	13	10.0
Aware of VMY 08 programme and promotion in Kelantan and Terengganu	Yes	39	30.0
	No	91	70.0
Intention of visiting VMY08 programme in Kelantan and Terengganu	Yes	70	53.8
	No	60	46.2

N = 130 respondents in each aspect; Source: Fieldwork, 2007

Despite little knowledge, they were quite positive when asked on decision making to visit those particular destination or otherwise. Among the respondents, nearly one third mentioned they have the intention to do so. Perhaps the answers were coincident with their background, especially

when many of them were originated from both states and taking vacation at this juncture will widen their spectrum of their activities back home.

PROPOSAL TO INCREASE YOUTH INVOLVEMENT IN EVENT TOURISM

As an untapped market that has the potentials to be developed and sustained in the country, the respondents were also responsive to the future of event held every year. They also provide feedback on measures that should be taken by all stakeholders. Based on their recommendations, it is clearly not the only event tourism to meet the basic demand of travel, the assurance of organizing events that provides special incentives to youth is also crucial. Initiatives such as fiscal incentive, entertainment, educational campaigns and promotions would definitely impact the volume of youth to destination that hosted the thematic events. Some of their views are as follows:

'Promote other states besides Kuala Lumpur as KL often has traffic jams.'

'Organize more events involving young people, world-class competition events'

'Organize more activities involving the youth in every event held '

'Add more advertisements of places to be visited in conjunction with the TMM'

'Organize more events that may be accompanied by the youth and young adults.'

'Organize more events in other states to develop an area, for example in Kelantan '

'Organize more great promotions and discounts to attract visitors as well as festivals and fairs KL Penang for example.'

'Insert the traditional elements that youth now know about'

'Give discounts for youths and local residents'

'Clean and decorate KL first'

'Create a unique place in terms of scenery and building structures that are strange and unique'

'Create more recreational activities, increase entertainment, dangdut, especially in the vicinity of the Bangi; Zouk and La Queen are boring.'

'Create a 20-50% subsidy for youth who are still learning'

If the recommendations are associated with efforts to enhance the role of youth travel, there are many aspects and task remains to be done by the tour operators. The basic, it is timely for young travellers to be the segment niche in larger scale. If we are capable of promoting large-scale

international travel segments, then, initiatives to promote youth tourism is also capable of meeting the target. Through an array of recreational programmes been offered at institutions of higher learning, youth travel programmes can be strengthened further. Steps to reproduce exhibition of adventure programmes and improve access to information should be complementary to the youth development agenda and the tourism sector.

SUSTAINABILITY OF YOUTH TOURIST: LESSON LEARNT FROM VISIT MALAYSIA YEAR 2007

Even though this paper is basically written on a purposive study on the total of 130 respondents, the results of study presented empirically 'what is understood and desired by youth tourists in event tourism. Event tourism, has successfully captured the hearts of international tourists cannot be considered too 'successful' because the potential of domestic tourists, especially youth tourists have not been fully maximized. Therefore, to increase youth tourism and to strengthen the role of youth as players or spectators, integrated event tourism management should be the approach undertaken by stakeholders or tourism providers. Efforts to promote youth tourism as prompted by the most active tourism state, particularly the Melaka state government showed that 'knowledge and creativity of youth' in tourism is not strong at both state and national level.

In this regard, several issues identified at the each level of planning, development and hosting of youth tourism as one of the major themes of event tourism should be addressed. Firstly, deploying a youth tourist typology should become the pioneering initiative at planning level. As of now, 'youth as tourist' is based on the stakeholders' understanding and initiatives. The awareness of whether the youth had knowledge to travel or vice versa should be investigated at this stage more holistically. Youth tourist had their distinct characteristics and differences exhibit between youth according to their status of work or studying, spatial of urban or rural and also taste of adventurous or passive. Their nature of touring and involving in event tourism are bound to factors especially 'limited money but without time constraints' and with 'high esteem to involvement', need some intervention in terms of fiscal incentives, special events and sponsored programmes. In fact, enhancing pro-poor tourism or social tourism in handling event tourism for youth segment is realistic as this event can be tailored with their co-curriculum at the higher-learning or working environment.

Secondly, while the involvement of youth tourists in event tourism is promising, the promotional campaigns and programmes have to ensure that it fulfil the youths' desire and wants more pragmatically. Often, youths have high contact with media and internet sources, thus, the promotional campaigns should optimize these approaches. Youths have the potential to draw crowds for outdoor and adventure tours. On the other hand, events such as urban park, clean and green tourism and art tourism which at this juncture emphasizes on the high end tourist and internationals, should also look in proactive initiatives on how to get youth engagement.

Thirdly, youth tourists are easily attached to popular culture. Even though this factor may be considered negative in terms of bringing changes into society, yet it may also foster a local popular culture if such influences were promoted widely.. Involving music, local art and leisure into event tourism, especially to cater youth market in both areas, urban and rural, may generate more interests among youths. Moreover, providing incentives such as cheap tickets and transportation coupons help youth to enhance thematic event tourism.

Fourthly, youth plays important position in urban and rural localities. As there exist in several spatial-temporal zones in tourism development in the country, involving youth in diverse scale of event tourism should consider easing their accessibility according to similar zoning and this ensure the youth sustainability in event tourism. The central zones, which include the urban localities, especially city such as Kuala Lumpur, Melaka and Shah Alam, youth tourists' profiling may exhibit differently from the east coast zones. This is due to their active roles as students who are still pursuing their studies in various higher learning institutions. Eventually this trend is favourable in creating event tourism that involves higher learning youths. In this regards, thematic events will therefore be in line with the formation of 'knowledge tourist' among youths.

Finally, as the event tourism seems becoming one of the niche products of the country, youths should be the one of the segments that get the opportunities to experience and play active roles in organising and showcasing varieties of programmes at national, regional and local level. In line with the new economic model that recognizes tourism is one of the 12 major sectors to uplift the country's position as developed nation, Visit Malaysia Year will therefore be continued in near future. Therefore, it is crucial that at every level of planning, development and hosting event tourism in the country, youths should be one of the key players.

CONCLUSION

Event tourism is gradually increasing and favouring the youth tourists. In a developing country like Malaysia, event tourism also inhibits youth involvement, be they active or passive players. Based on the country's Visit Malaysia Year 2007, youth involvement in event tourism is gradually increasing, yet unexploited by many of the tourism providers as well as the youth themselves. They are capable of creating and sustaining the market size, especially when events are held in areas of their easy access, within their capability to spend and most importantly, being able to be the spectators of the events.

As youth tourists are dynamic yet untapped by most of the developing countries, the typology of youth tourists in event tourism may advance some of the familiar typology created by scholars such as Cohen, Nash and others. They provide an in-depth study to draw who dominates the youth tourists. Though their involvements have marked some understandings of the events that they favoured, the suitability of taste in event has yet to be ventured more pragmatic.

This study also provides a profile of youth behaviour during event tourism. Youth tourists did not maximize and did not take the bulk of advantage to travel throughout the nations due to several constraints. Their sporadic movement at the national level is quite limited. However, being at the central venue of VMY, youth in capital city have the advantages of being able to be at the easy access of the totality of the events held. Long stays at events were not practiced due to their obligation to studies and working.

Based on the issues of suitability of events, this study found that there is generally accepted understanding of event tourism. Their tendencies of going to events are favouring fun, play and relax compared to the highly-seeking knowledge, experience and role-play. However, what is rather contrasting with general youth tourists is that their preferences to travel with families are increasing. In fact they urged that event tourism do offer multi-destination incentives to widen the opportunities of being able for youth to be with the families as well as be with their friends.

As a conclusion, youth tourists do take part in year round events. Nevertheless their roles should be mould toward being a knowledge tourist who seeks opportunities while enduring the programmes held during the events. Perhaps, in-depth national studies should be initiated to underpinning the youth tourist market in thematic event.

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BOOK REVIEW

The tourist gaze 3.0

John Urry and Jonas Larsen, editors (2011). Sage publications

This version of Urry's classic 'Tourist Gaze' is fresher, possibly because of the co-authorship of a younger scholar, and it is difficult to review in a mere 1,000 words. The book has been restructured and it includes interesting analyses of visuality, performances and the explosion of the digital world, all aspects undeniably linked to tourism. A third edition of any book, especially if the original unquestionably broadened the horizons of tourism studies is a major challenge. The volume has an appealing and ambitious goal: "This book is about how in different societies and especially within different social groups in diverse historical periods the tourist gaze changes and develops. We elaborate on processes by which the gaze is constructed and reinforced, and consider who or what (sic) authorises it, what its consequences are for the 'places' which are its object and how it interrelates with other social practices" (p.2). This objective is very welcome but, alas, it did not fulfil all my expectations. The book is structured into nine chapters, each of them having their own conclusions. However, the book has neither an introduction nor an epilogue. Either of these would have helped the reader to better understand the thread of the argument and given more coherence to the valuable content of the book.

In **chapter one**, 'theories', the book has a very useful summary of some of the well-known cast of tourism theories and theorists. Yet, it is questionable how the *objects* to be gazed upon (p.15-16) are arranged in the book. The categorization reminds me of Borges' *Celestial Emporium of Benevolent Knowledge*: there are objects "famous for being famous", they are unique such as the Forbidden City of Beijing or Ground Zero in New York; there are "particular signs" that responds to tourist "pre-established notions" such as the typical French *château*; there are "unfamiliar aspects of what previously been thought as familiar" such as museums where cultural artefacts of ordinary people are displayed; there are "ordinary aspects of social life being undertaken by people in unusual contexts" such as in "poor countries"; and,



finally, there are particular signs that mark objects as distinctive. However, it is not clear which are the ethnographic or theoretical foundations of this classification or what it might be useful for. This lack leads one to conclude that Cubans are using pre-communist American cars in a “reflexive process” to enter the global order as tourist destinations, without mentioning the merciless United States embargo against the island or any further ethnographic description to support this statement.

The **second chapter** is, I argue, typical of England-based scholarly production on tourism. In its eighteen pages it examines, for the thousandth time and lacking any comparison to other parts of the world, the development of tourism in Blackpool, Brighton and Scarborough because “this was the first mass tourism to occur” (p.32). For an updated edition it does not seem enough to state that “one precondition, then, for the rapid growth of seaside resorts in the later eighteenth and especially in the nineteenth century was space” (p. 33) or that a “further precondition for the growth of mass tourism was greatly improved transportation” (p. 36). For a third edition of such a brilliant and path breaking book as the 1990 edition of the *Tourist Gaze*, any scholar would have expected something other than all-purpose references to the increase in the economic welfare of ‘substantial parts of the working-class population’, the new patterns of work and the regularisation of the days of leisure in industrial England, the emergence of new railways companies or the Romantic shift towards emotions and intensity. Still, there is a short but very recommendable discussion on Perkins’ explanation of the emergence of tourism destinations. Strangely there is not a single reference to Thorstein Veblen (1899) in the whole book though his concept of “conspicuous consumption” is used. The concepts of the carnivalesque, penetration through orifices, and the grotesque body are presented as Shields’ ideas (p. 46-47) when they were thoroughly discussed by Mikhail Bakhtin in his 1940 doctoral thesis *The work of François Rabelais and the Popular Culture of the Middle Ages and the Renaissance* (published in 1965) yet no mention is made to him. Moreover, there is no reference to Pierre Bourdieu in a chapter about ‘social tone’, ‘distinction’ and ‘hierarchies’ of destinations, though this author is brought up later on. Some readings on other early coastal tourism developments in other parts of the world would surely have enlightened the discussion and helped the authors to further develop this central issue. I certainly doubt that the case of the 18th and 19th English tourism coastal development could be helpful at all to understand how Tourism, as the most sophisticated creation of capitalism, is currently moving to North-eastern Brazil, burning out the Croatian coast, promoting urbanising dynamics in Morocco, mixing historical memories in the hinterlands of the Spanish Costa del Sol, or blurring the edges between what belongs to Balinese culture and

what to tourist practices. I hope not to be misunderstood, but we must remember that in tourism development England is also an island and few generalizable scientific conclusions can be drawn from it.

The most interesting part of the **third chapter**, 'economies', might be the one related to the Web 2.0 and how the involvement of surfers in processes of production and consumption has changed the political economy of tourism flows. A more critical stance on this extended notion would have been most appreciated. And, as an anthropology-biased university teacher, I find it regrettably weak that the analysis of 'social relations' had been reduced to a mere subheading within this chapter. When such a fundamental topic is reduced to two pages, scholars tend to offer tokens as "the social impact of tourism practices thus depends upon the intersection of many processes [and] that distinctions between hosts and guests are increasingly fluid in mobile societies" (p. 64), or that one of the differences between tourism in the Mediterranean basin and North America is that in the latter case the car, the highway and the view through the windscreen and the commercial strip are central (p. 66). For a highly promoted third edition of a ground-breaking book the most important sociological variables deserve much more analysis. Besides, after so many studies on tourism it has been demonstrated that mass tourism is not an agent but a product of how capital uses contemporary technologies. Moreover, at least in those societies/destinations/cultures where tourism practices have been present for more than a generation, Tourism does not 'impact' and, consequently, such traditional theoretical models are no longer pertinent.

I like very much the **fourth chapter**, 'working under the gaze'. It analyses many interesting aspects of the hospitality industry and how workers cope with tourists' behaviours in different contexts. And **chapter five**, 'changing tourist cultures', faces the problem of definitions in the social sciences, especially, when dealing with such a phenomenon as tourism in the contemporary world. It is a very good chapter. The clear reference to Bourdieu here offers theoretical strength to the analysis. I wonder why the authors did not have recourse to this frame in their social analysis in previous chapters. **Chapter six**, 'places, buildings and design', is well structured around the notion of heritage. I do not agree very much with the sort of essentialism that emerges in some sentences but, still, is quite coherent with the general focus of the book on gaze and, consequently, on *objects*. It is interesting to see here how authors dodge the problem of defining tourism.

Chapters seven, 'vision and photography', and **chapter eight**, 'performance', are well developed. Merging both issues the authors have gone beyond the usual semiotic approach. Unfortunately the publisher did not pay

enough attention to the quality of the pictures. In a book centred on visuality, illustrations should be vivid and most but not all of them, lack density, brightness and contrast: the three main features that make a black & white picture worth looking at. Besides some weak framing (see figure 1.1 or 7.1), the pictures are plain and full of noise. Thanks to the potentialities of new software the pictures should have been treated accordingly. Nevertheless, authors should also have made detailed descriptions and refined the analysis if the original approach of this third version is on merging gazing, visuality, embodiments and performances, and the relationship between bodily sensations and technologies. I miss some form of kinetic analysis in some pictures, but I am aware that this is my very personal opinion. And **chapter nine**, ‘risk’, gives me the impression that it is the tribute social science must pay to look useful for the industry. Still, more attention should have been paid to the structure and general connections of this chapter with the others.

Regarding the bibliography it should be stressed that though the authors are capable of reading other languages there is not a single non-English reference. There is nothing I can do about this impoverishing scientific practice, but the lack of references in other languages in a ‘fresher’ third edition, is disappointingly noticeable.

Finally, I would like to add that the book does not clarify the social and cultural relationship between what is directly gazed upon and what it signifies. How do all these different ways of gazing on *objects* influence people’s practices, how do they use those objects being gazed upon: are they touched, are they considered to be mythical wishing dwells and for this reason coins are thrown in every single receptacle full of water, or are these *objects* ‘tourist objects’ because they are promoted as such or because they are gazed on by people who are away from home during their leisure time? Nevertheless this third edition is still a good starting point to enter the field of tourism studies.

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BOOK REVIEW

PROJECT MANAGEMENT

Kontić Ljiljana, editor (2009). MTS Gajić Belgrade

Project management (2009.), by author Ljiljana Kontić, young and talented scientist and assistant professor at the Faculty of Legal and Business Studies dr Lazar Vrkić, represents a unique work which deals with project managing from the organizational aspect. Apart from being a good educational work – a textbook for the students of economics and management, this book can also serve as a methodological guide for the organizations, project managers and financial institutions. Projects represent a time-limited effort to create a unique result and they enable managing changes and the implementation of the strategies in organizations. Primary goal of this book is to enable students of management to master the basic terminology, methods and techniques of project management and to get them introduced with the main phases of a project's life cycle and the basic challenges in each phase.

The book consists of seven parts and it is 220 pages long. At the end of each part there is a résumé and questions in order to check what has been learned. In addition, there are 13 contemporary case studies which illustrate the theoretical conceptions which have previously been explained.

The first part, titled **The basic notions and concepts** defines the basic notions, characteristics and concepts of project management. In this part the difference between traditional and project management is being analyzed. The dimensions of the project are being defined, as well as a project's life cycle. The chapter titled *Evolution of project management* deals with the review of the origin and development of this scientific discipline. Special attention has been devoted to the situations where project management needs to be used but also the situations where it is not used.



The second part of the book, titled **Project management – strategic resource**, explains the strategic resources of the organization and the mechanisms of the creation of competitive advantages in project management. The project strategies are being defined and the types of project strategy are being listed. The elements of project management which need to coordinate with the business strategy are being analyzed: project strategy, organization, processes, methods, performance criteria and project culture.

The third part titled **Project selection and initiation** deals with describing the process of project selection and the types of selection by using financial and un-financial models. In this part, various organizational structures are being compared and the elements of organizational culture are being described, which can affect the success of the project. A chapter has been devoted to the key actors in a project. The last chapter deals with the writing of project proposal. A part of the book has been devoted to the tasks which help students understand the process of selection better by using the methods for project selection.

The next part of the book, titled **Project planning**, identifies the project users and their needs, after which a communication plan with the key stakeholders is being defined. The project volume is then being defined, as well as a review of the possible organizational and technical project structures. In the planning phase, numerous methods and techniques are at the managers' disposal. Gantt chart, the method of critical path and the PERT method have been analyzed. Different chapters deal with the resource evaluation and the formulation of the project budget. In project planning, a special attention has been brought to management and the project quality.

Project implementation is the fifth part of the book, in which the chain of project value is being described. The chapter titled *Leadership* deals with the roles of a leader and his/her influence on the other members of the project team. The next chapter describes the key functions of project management, which are progress monitoring, problem identification and solving and finally risk and change management.

The sixth part, titled **Project completion** is devoted to the performance management, project's final report, knowledge management and the importance of celebrating the success. A distinction has been drawn between project performances and the project management performances. A different chapter defines the final report and analyzes the process of its making. Projects are a unique possibility for organizational

learning, which is why a different chapter is being devoted to the knowledge management. At the end of this part the importance of celebrating the success is being pointed out, as well as rewarding the participants of the project.

The last part of the book titled **Perspectives of the project management development** analyzes three important tendencies: the development of a profession, introducing the standards and the changing of paradigms. In this part the primary characteristics of a profession are being listed and the importance of introducing the standards is being explained. This is followed by a chapter which shows the project management paradigms. The last chapter deals with the challenges in project management and the guidelines for future research.

Considering that there are a small number of books in Serbia which deal with project management, this book, which is unique and written in crystal clear and scientifically clean language is welcome to the world of economics and management, but also in field of tourism.

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BOOK REVIEW

The Challenges of Managing Tourism (Izazovi upravljanja turizmom)

Sanda Čorak, editor (2011). Institute for Tourism Zagreb

“The Challenges of Managing Tourism” is a new book in the Scientific Edition series of the Institute for Tourism, Zagreb. It interprets the special aspects of tourism management in the destination in the conditions when many limiting factors in the environment, as well as problems that are hereditary for years, complicate and slow down the development of tourism in Croatia. In their papers, sixteen authors focused on some aspects of tourism, bearing in the center of their interest destination as a basic unit and the key factor of the tourism experience. In ten papers authors have argued their thesis based on the results of the research, gave the international and domestic experiences, following which they express their ideas by explanations, bringing the conclusions and recommendations on which ways to deal with the challenges of managing modern tourism.

The first two papers deal with specific aspects of tourism destination management. In the paper “**Tourism Destination Management in Croatia – Threats and Opportunities**” I. Kunst critically explains the prevailing practice of development of Croatian destinations which is insufficiently transparent, socially irresponsible and, in long-term, dangerous. Consequently, he stresses the necessity of introducing strategic management at destination level, which would be a qualitative leap in terms of resource use, providing the necessary infra and superstructure, and encourage cooperation between public and private sectors. Specifically, more efficient and socially responsible management of tourism development in the majority of Croatian tourist destinations will be possible only if previously create the necessary level of tourism development process understanding and establish a critical mass of destination supporters of tourism development. They should, as the author thinks, be able to start a series of changes in the so far dominant way of thinking and destination development management. These changes, and in



particular their practical use in the short term, could significantly improve the traditional procedures for creating development decisions in the majority of Croatian tourist destinations.

Inadequate cooperation of stakeholders at the destination level confirmed research discussed in the paper **“Cooperation Between Stakeholders in Tourism Destinations”**. The authors, S. Boranić Živoder, R. Tomljenović and S. Čorak, bring experiences of international research and confirm the assumption of a positive correlation between the level of cooperation and development planning. For the quality of tourist products and long-term competitiveness of the tourist destination it is necessary to develop cooperation between public and private sectors, and the local population, but also to know characteristics of modern tourists, because in this way the offer could better adapt to a highly segmented tourism market. The conducted research showed positive interrelations of cooperation between stakeholders and development planning in destinations, marketing activities, monitoring the effectiveness and adoption of new knowledge. In conclusion it was emphasized that destinations which develop management models and realize good communication and cooperation between interest groups, have better conditions for achieving successful management of tourism development and thus will achieve long term success at tourist market.

The next three papers discuss the managerial and marketing tools that can help Croatian destinations. The authors B. Vrdoljak-Šalamon and S. Čorak in the paper **“Benchmarking – Methods and Application in Tourism”**, with emphasizing the numerous positive international experiences of using benchmarking in tourism, refers to the need for more intensive use of this management tool in the function of better growth of Croatian tourist destinations, especially with regard to several existing research and available data bases that provide a foundation for the benchmarking study. This paper gives an overview of the application of benchmarking in Croatian tourism and examines whether it is conducted and which characteristic has destination benchmarking. The paper demonstrated the usefulness of applying benchmarking for destinations in terms of distinct competitiveness, which characterize the market position of many tourist destinations in Croatia. N. Telišman-Košuta in the paper **“Tourism Destination Branding”**, the relatively new field of destination marketing which attract great attention of researchers and practitioners in tourism, offers insights into topics, discussion and challenges of branding tourist destinations, now actual in the professional and scientific literature, and indicates some of the areas that still need to investigate. The need to strengthen e-marketing are processed D. Krešić, K. Miličević

and S. Boranić Živoder in the paper **“The Influence of Information and Communication Technologies on Tourism Destination Marketing”**. The examples shown insufficient use of new technologies in the Croatian tourist destinations, despite proven positive effects of interactivity, flexibility and rapid access to information in attracting many market segments. The authors conclude that, because of the unquestionable importance of the Internet in destination marketing, strengthen e-marketing activities will become one of the main tasks of the overall activities of tourist destinations.

Sustainable tourism development and its capabilities and limitations are discussed in the next three papers. **“Tourism and the Environment – Theory and Practice of Sustainable Development”** by I. Kunst examines possibilities for the coexistence of accelerated tourism development and socially responsible environmental management in the Croatian context. The conducted analysis suggests that it is important to raise awareness of various social groups and stakeholders at the local level, because it will create a critical mass that will be able to make appropriate development decisions. H. Carić and Z. Klarić in the paper **“Carrying Capacity Research – International and Croatian Experiences”** describe trends in the methodology of carrying capacity. In this way they tried to give a clearer picture of the trends and their use at the international level, as well as in Croatia. Based on these findings, the authors offer guidelines for improvement and possible future use of this methodology. H. Carić and I. Marković in paper **“Integrated Tourism Planning as a Basis of Sustainable Development”** discussed the possibilities of implementation of sustainable tourism using practical marketing and management tools. They are interpreted in a way that explains the fundamental necessity of integrating tourism with three key topics: environmental protection from pollution, spatial planning, and nature (biodiversity) protection. Consequently, the destination management must be based on explicit information and data, and marketing of ecotourism on credible guarantees. Because, as in the final section of the paper points out, tourism must be environmentally sustainable and profitable if it is to provide long-term benefits that can be achieved only by a different approach to tourism planning and development, which must be based on integrated planning.

“Transport in tourism destinations” is paper by D. Krasić, D. Milojević and S. Horak which stressed that there are strong mutual influence of tourism on transport and vice versa. However, there is a lack of knowledge about the impact of traffic quality on the competitiveness of tourism destinations and therefore very few actions are actually

undertaken in improving transport systems with destination themselves. The authors explain the interdependence of tourism and transport in general, with aim to analyze the problems created by traffic for Croatian tourism and destination development. Finally, the authors offer a series of recommendations for alleviating the perceived traffic problems in tourist destinations.

The last paper in respective book is „**Assessment of Tourism Product Competitiveness – Case of Cruise Tourism and City of Dubrovnik**“ by N. Ivandić, Z. Marušić and S. Horak. This paper presents a model of Mediterranean cruise destination competitiveness from the perspective of the specific product and relevant competitive circle of destinations that offer similar products to similar markets. The model is based on „value for money“ indicator of cruise destinations derived from the attractiveness of cruise destinations and costs of call, and on general level emphasizes the prospects for tourism destination management.

Considering the state of tourism in Croatia, which is characterized by different social and economic trends, numerous long-standing and inherited problems and, in particular, the competitive environment, there is a need to create more complex tourism products. They are, however, very important for further tourist development of destinations. This means a large number of different stakeholders who can have the same but often different views on the future of tourism development in particular destination. Managing the tourist destination, at all levels, becoming increasingly complex. Valuable impetus for future considerations about ways of tourist destination development provide papers in the book “The Challenges of Managing Tourism”, based on conducted research and analysis, experiences of others, arguments and results, which represent an appropriate basis for active thinking on the future quality development of tourist destinations, especially those in Croatia. Written understandable and interesting, supported by number of concrete research results and relevant data, the papers in the presented book provide the impetus for efforts to find solutions for efficient management of Croatian tourist destinations and they are valuable contribution to interdisciplinary research of tourism.

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BOOK REVIEW

Tourism and Sustainable Development: Reconsidering a Concept of Vague Policies

Jörn W. Mundt, editor (2011). Erich Schmidr Verlag

This is yet another book to add to the current corpus of knowledge on tourism and sustainable development. Hence, the question I asked myself when reviewing this book is how different can this book be in trying to move us away from today's political rhetoric in the use of the term "sustainability". The book is mainly targeted at seasoned researchers and also policy makers that has always struggled in operationalizing the model of sustainability due to the vagueness of the concept. Hence, the premise behind the book is simply that the concept of sustainable tourism has been used superficially by all stakeholders including researchers and practioners. The author, J.W. Mundt, has been critical and contemptuous is his view of the concept of sustainability.

The tourism industry's interest in appearing to be "green" or "sustainable" has increased in exponential proportions over the past few year. After the failed climate summit in Copenhagen in 2009, the hopeful Cancun conference in 2010 and the more successful Durban summit recently in 2011, Mankind has to face the following reality that the concept of sustainability has no significance if the following crisis cannot be resolved by the very reason why such concept was introduced in the first place:

1. Feeding a global population predicted to be half as big again as at the turn of this century.
2. Eliminating poverty and inequality whilst providing an acceptable quality of life for all.
3. Harnessing sufficient energy to power our economies without damaging environmental consequences.
4. Halting the decline in biodiversity and learning to leave in harmony with other species.



J.W. Mundt attempts to contribute to a deeper understanding of the concept of sustainability by providing a closer look at the original definition and reviewing its conceptual history which helps to untangle the terminological confusion that are used by many to their advantage or sometimes disadvantage. Nonetheless, this book gives us a fresh perspective in the sense it is little eclectic and certainly not the usual standard text in the area of tourism and sustainability. Thus, it is indeed a good read for all.

A multidisciplinary and inter-disciplinary approach is adopted by the author in discussing the complex interactions that surround sustainability. Only three out of the eight chapters elaborated in detail the links, in relation to tourism. Due to this, readers are exposed to the wider areas around the topic. Eight chapters are laid out with two “Excursus” in Chapter 3 and 5 [Note: *Ex-cur-sus* (*k-skûr s s*). n. pl. *ex-cur-sus-es* is a lengthy, appended exposition of a topic or point].

Chapter 1 acts to give an overview of the current state as an introduction or preface (which is visibly mission in this book). The evolution and interpretation across history is explored. Nonetheless, the chapter lacks discussion on the evolution of sustainability in the context of tourism. Interestingly, the chapter ends with a discussion on the academic market for sustainable tourism. In the ‘publish or perish’ paradigm that rules much of the academic world, the attractiveness of ‘sustainability’ related research topics appears to be fashionable rather than a manifestation of the perceived overall importance of the issue especially the on-going global debate on climate change.

Chapter 2 elaborates in detail the concept of sustainability successfully. This include discussions on the original concept of sustainability defined in the Brundtland Report (1987) in comparison with the modern understanding of the term, ‘weak and strong sustainability rules’ and the most interesting part of the chapter on ‘development is not growth’. This discussion is continued into chapter 3 (Excursus 1) where a digression of the discussion is outlined on topics such as ‘markets of violence’, ‘the dubious character of aid’, ‘pillarisation of society’, and the end of the section with topics such as the popularised ‘pro-poor tourism’ which is seen as another ‘green-washing’ or marketing tool for development agencies and non-governmental organisation in order to gain more money using the issue of ‘alleviating poverty via tourism’.

Moving on to the very academic chapter 4, sound discussion on the ‘three pillars’ approach of sustainability is well outlined in figures to

show the relationship between environment, society and economy. Nonetheless, the chapter appears to further focus on 'social sustainability' with lacking in discussion on the other two dimensions of sustainability (environment and economy). The understanding of the social sustainability concept is further debated here as it appears the term may or may not denote, "the social preconditions for sustainable development or the need to sustain specific social structures and customs". Against this background, the chapter make a plea for a more accurate utilisation of terms by going back to the basics to avoid the whole concept of sustainability in danger to be discredited and maybe even abandoned.

The second digression (Excuses II) of chapter 5 focusses the discussion to another popular terminology that has evolved from sustainability, 'corporate social responsibility (CSR)' and 'non-government organisation (NGO)'. The author has been critical on this two under researched areas. For NGOs, CSR is the means by which to demand higher standards of corporate behaviour with the fundamental of sustainability at the backdrop. At a glance, the plethora of NGOs actively promoting sustainability issues and demanding CSR give an impression of plurality of concepts and opinion. However, a closer look reveals pretty much the same rhetoric.

Chapter 6 highlights the current global debate in the very complex issue of 'climate change'. This is followed by Chapter 7 and 8 which provide us with some empirical and descriptive dialogue on the tourism industry and sustainability, which should have been the core of the book rather than "leaving the best (the essential) for the last". In these two chapters, the author has well contextualised the issues of sustainability that was well elaborated in the previous six chapters, to the tourism industry. As quoted, indeed "tourism is probably the most visible symbol of both globalisation and pollution". Chapter 7 also interesting discussed thought provoking topics such as, 'culture is culture because of change' and 'the same is different', where tourism is often seen as a "dynamic force homogenizing societies and commodifying cultures across the globe", with cultures generally open to continuous change.

Finally, an interesting way to conclude the book (Chapter 9) with rationalisation of the book structure and the sub-section on "Taylorisation" of Academia' where the focus of the discussion was on the German-speaking countries, seem out of place in the discussion of the book.

In summing up, the book is interesting but not what you expect to get looking at just the title, “Reconsidering a Concept of Vague Policies”. The book only focusses on the tourism scene in two chapters towards the end and lack projection of what to expect in the years to come. Nonetheless, the book is worth reading as it is written in not a typical book that you expect on ‘sustainability’. Indeed it is an interdisciplinary and overarching critique of the modern concept of sustainability and its application in the globalised tourism industry.

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BOOK REVIEW

The Study of Tourism: foundations from psychology

Philip L. Pearce, editor (2011). Emerald

One of the typical signs of the maturity of a discipline, such as tourism studies, is the publication of memoirs written by the "founding fathers", who reflect on the evolution of their academic field, as well as their own long and productive careers. Indeed, *The Study of Tourism: foundations from psychology* is a second collection of autobiographies authored by prominent tourism scholars, following *The Study of Tourism: anthropological and sociological beginnings* (2007, edited by Dennison Nash). As implied from the titles, while the former book focused on the contribution of anthropology and sociology scholars who played a momentous role in the formation and progress of the multidisciplinary tourism social science, the current book presents the personal account of scholars whose academic perspective originated from psychology and other related fields. Specifically, ten selected researchers from North America (John D. Hunt, Stanley C. Plog, Abraham Pizam, Seppo E. Iso-Ahola, Joseph T. O'Leary and John C. Crofts), Europe (Josef A. Mazanec and Ton van Egmond) and Australasia (Philip L. Pearce and Chris Ryan) outline their career histories, from their early days as young students to their current established and prestigious status as influential figures in tourism scholarship.

The captivating autobiographies presented in the book are rich in detail regarding the scholars' long academic journey, as well as the lessons which each contributor derived from his experience. Many of these accounts include highly personal tales and anecdotes, which stress the dominant factors leading to a successful academic career, such as the vital role of mentors and the support from significant others and colleagues. In addition, the autobiographies consist of numerous insights with regards to the design of a successful tourism academic career. For instance, sabbaticals turned out as making a notable contribution to many of the scholars, as it provided them with opportunities to be exposed to other academic institutions and scholars, thereby broadening their perspective on tourism and allowing them to gain an interest in unfamiliar



areas of inquiry within the realm of tourism. More broadly, it appears from the accounts that in order to sustain a high level of productivity and creativity throughout a prolonged career, a tourism scholar must remain curious and enthusiastic about tourism: the scholar ought to see him/herself as an "eternal student"; i.e. to constantly learn and educate him/herself about the field of study, including understanding innovative research methodologies and familiarizing him/herself with recent developments in the industry.

First and foremost, the paper is likely to attract the attention of researchers who wish to track the career history of well-known scholars who have made unique contributions to their field of study. In this regard, the autobiographies help humanizing "names" (as was accurately phrased by the editor) that appeared on so many groundbreaking academic articles and books within the tourism literature. There is a natural curiosity to learn about the long, challenging and often circuitous route taken by the scholars who were among the few who founded the rising field of tourism studies. It is particularly intriguing for "Generation T" scholars (i.e., those who graduated from tourism programs or other related fields) to hear the stories of those whose academic journey originated in traditional disciplines, such as psychology. Understanding the many pitfalls and barriers those early founders encountered in their pioneering pathway as tourism scholars, especially in their efforts to establish tourism studies as a legitimate academic field of study, is likely to arouse feelings of appreciation among those who are growing as part of the current respectful state of the discipline of tourism.

Another interest group that might find this book useful is graduate students, who are considering an academic career as tourism scholars. The detailed autobiographies and the unique perspective of their authors allow students to reflect about the suitability of such a career, with all its advantages and drawbacks, to their personal aspirations and prospects for the future. Those who wish to pursue such a distinctive career will find in the book numerous valuable suggestions on how to become an effective tourism researcher. To name a few examples, nurturing professional relationships with other researchers around the world, as well as creating tight cooperation with the tourism industry and governmental agencies in research and consulting projects, clearly emerged from the autobiographies as playing critical roles towards accomplishing academic career goals. Interestingly, being a devoted tourist yourself – constantly becoming familiar with diverse geographical regions, people and cultures – was also pointed out in some accounts as an essential source of intellectual inspiration and "replenishment".

Overall, the editor designed an effective collection of autobiographical chapters that provide the readers with the opportunity to take an unusual look at the academic (an in many cases also the private) life of some of the prominent founders of the discipline of tourism studies. As one would expect, despite its merits the book has its limitations. For instance, as was openly acknowledged by the editor, the absence of women scholars in the current compilation is a shortcoming that prevents the readers from gaining a possibly unique female perspective on having a tourism academic career. Nonetheless, the autobiographies stimulate great interest, and in many cases constitute a valuable source of practical wisdom for tourism scholars at different stages of their academic careers.

As a final note, it should be pointed out that the book raises some fundamental questions as to the future of the field of tourism studies: are the present "Generation T" scholars, who hold a growing number of positions in academic tourism departments, likely to have a similar impact and reach similar achievements in tourism scholarship as those whose academic career originated in long established disciplines, such as psychology? Or could it be that their lack of educational experience in a deep-rooted traditional field of study might prevent them from significantly advancing tourism studies further by developing innovative concepts and ideas? Perhaps these questions can be satisfactorily examined once "Generation T" scholars contribute their own accounts in a future compilation of autobiographical stories. In any case, as noted by Abe Pizam in his chapter, the ultimate contemporary challenge faced by tourism scholars from all backgrounds, is to establish a respectful independent discipline in which innovative theories, concepts and methodologies are developed within, rather than borrowed from traditional disciplines and simply applied to tourism settings. Owing to the pathway paved by the pioneering tourism scholars, this task seems within reach today more than ever.

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An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism

AIMS & SCOPE

TOURISMOS is an international, multi-disciplinary, refereed (peer-reviewed) journal aiming to promote and enhance research in all fields of tourism, including travel, hospitality and leisure. The journal is published by the University of the Aegean (in Greece), and is intended for readers in the scholarly community who deal with different tourism sectors, both at macro and at micro level, as well as professionals in the industry. *TOURISMOS* provides a platform for debate and dissemination of research findings, new research areas and techniques, conceptual developments, and articles with practical application to any tourism segment. Besides research papers, the journal welcomes book reviews, conference reports, case studies, research notes and commentaries. *TOURISMOS* aims at:

- Disseminating and promoting research, good practice and innovation in all aspects of tourism to its prime audience including educators, researchers, post-graduate students, policy makers, and industry practitioners.
- Encouraging international scientific cooperation and understanding, and enhancing multi-disciplinary research across all tourism sectors.

The scope of the journal is international and all papers submitted are subject to strict blind peer review by its Editorial Board and by other anonymous international reviewers. The journal features conceptual and empirical papers, and editorial policy is to invite the submission of manuscripts from academics, researchers, post-graduate students, policy-makers and industry practitioners. The Editorial Board will be looking particularly for articles about new trends and developments within different sectors of tourism, and the application of new ideas and developments that are likely to affect tourism, travel, hospitality and leisure in the future. *TOURISMOS* also welcomes submission of manuscripts in areas that may not be directly tourism-related but cover a

topic that is of interest to researchers, educators, policy-makers and practitioners in various fields of tourism.

The material published in *TOURISMOS* covers all scientific, conceptual and applied disciplines related to tourism, travel, hospitality and leisure, including: economics, management, planning and development, marketing, human resources, sociology, psychology, geography, information and communication technologies, transportation, service quality, finance, food and beverage, and education. Manuscripts published in *TOURISMOS* should not have been published previously in any copyright form (print or electronic/online). The general criteria for the acceptance of articles are:

- Contribution to the promotion of scientific knowledge in the greater multi-disciplinary field of tourism.
- Adequate and relevant literature review.
- Scientifically valid and reliable methodology.
- Clarity of writing.
- Acceptable quality of English language.

TOURISMOS is published twice per year (in Spring and in Autumn). Each issue includes the following sections: editorial, research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events.

JOURNAL SECTIONS

Editorial

The Editorial addresses issues of contemporary interest and provides a detailed introduction and commentary to the articles in the current issue. The editorial may be written by the Editor, or by any other member(s) of the Editorial Board. When appropriate, a “Guest Editorial” may be presented. However, *TOURISMOS* does not accept unsolicited editorials.

Research Papers

For the Research Papers section, *TOURISMOS* invites full-length manuscripts (not longer than 6000 words and not shorter than 4000 words) from a variety of disciplines; these papers may be either empirical or conceptual, and will be subject to strict blind peer review (by at least three anonymous referees). The decision for the final acceptance of the paper will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate

Editors. The manuscripts submitted should provide original and/or innovative ideas or approaches or findings that eventually push the frontiers of knowledge. Purely descriptive accounts are not considered suitable for this section. Each paper should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an overall presentation of the issue to be examined and the aims and objectives of the paper), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the development of hypotheses and/or models, research methodology, presentation of findings, and analysis and discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices.

Case Studies

Case Studies should be not longer than 3500 words and not shorter than 2500; these articles should be focusing on the detailed and critical presentation/review of real-life cases from the greater tourism sector, and must include - where appropriate - relevant references and bibliography. Case Studies should aim at disseminating information and/or good practices, combined with critical analysis of real examples. Purely descriptive accounts may be considered suitable for this section, provided that are well-justified and of interest to the readers of *TOURISMOS*. Each article should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an overall presentation of the case to be examined and the aims and objectives of the article), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the presentation of the case study, the critical review of the case and relevant discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, and suggestions for further study), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices. All Case Studies are subject to blind peer review (by at least one anonymous referee). The decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editor.

Research Notes

Research Notes should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000; these papers may be either empirical or conceptual, and will be subject to blind peer review (by at least two anonymous referees). The decision for the final acceptance of the paper will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editors. The manuscripts submitted may present research-in-progress or my focus on the conceptual

development of models and approaches that have not been proven yet through primary research. In all cases, the papers should provide original ideas, approaches or preliminary findings that are open to discussion. Purely descriptive accounts may be considered suitable for this section, provided that are well-justified and of interest to the readers of *TOURISMOS*. Each paper should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an overall presentation of the issue to be examined and the aims and objectives of the paper), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the development of hypotheses and/or models, research methodology, presentation of findings, and analysis and discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices.

Book Reviews

Book Reviews should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 1000; these articles aim at presenting and critically reviewing books from the greater field of tourism. Most reviews should focus on new publications, but older books are also welcome for presentation. Book Reviews are not subject to blind peer review; the decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Book Reviews Editor. Where appropriate, these articles may include references and bibliography. Books to be reviewed may be assigned to potential authors by the Book Reviews Editor, though *TOURISMOS* is also open to unsolicited suggestions for book reviews from interested parties.

Conference Reports

Conference Reports should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000; these articles aim at presenting and critically reviewing conferences from the greater field of tourism. Most reports should focus on recent conferences (i.e., conferences that took place not before than three months from the date of manuscript submission), but older conferences are also welcome for presentation if appropriate. Conference Reports are not subject to blind peer review; the decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Conference Reports Editor. Where appropriate, these articles may include references and bibliography. Conference reports may be assigned to potential authors by the Conference Reports Editor, though

TOURISMOS is also open to unsolicited suggestions for reports from interested parties.

Industry Viewpoints

Industry Viewpoints should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 500; these articles may have a “commentary” form, and aim at presenting and discussing ideas, views and suggestions by practitioners (industry professionals, tourism planners, policy makers, other tourism stakeholders, etc.). Through these articles, *TOURISMOS* provides a platform for the exchange of ideas and for developing closer links between academics and practitioners. Most viewpoints should focus on contemporary issues, but other issues are also welcome for presentation if appropriate. Industry Viewpoints are not subject to blind peer review; the decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editors. These articles may be assigned to potential authors by the editor, though *TOURISMOS* is also open to unsolicited contributions from interested parties.

Forthcoming Events

Forthcoming Events should be not longer than 500 words; these articles may have the form of a “call of papers”, related to a forthcoming conference or a special issue of a journal. Alternatively, forthcoming events may have the form of a press release informing readers of *TOURISMOS* about an event (conference or other) related to the tourism, travel, hospitality or leisure sectors. These articles should not aim at promoting sales of any products or services. The decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken by the Editor.

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NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Manuscript Submission Procedure

Manuscripts should be written as understandably and concisely as possible with clarity and meaningfulness. Submission of a manuscript to *TOURISMOS* represents a certification on the part of the author(s) that it is an original work and has not been copyrighted elsewhere; manuscripts that are eventually published may not be reproduced in any other publication (print or electronic), as their copyright has been transferred to *TOURISMOS*. Submissions are accepted only in electronic form; authors are requested to submit one copy of each manuscript by email attachment. All manuscripts should be emailed to the Editor-in-Chief (Prof. Paris Tsartas, at ptsar@aegean.gr) and to the Editor (Prof. Evangelos Christou, at e.christou@aegean.gr), and depending on the nature of the manuscript submissions should also be emailed as follows:

- Conference reports should be emailed directly to the Conference Reports Editor (Dr. Vasiliki Galani-Moutafi), at v.moutafi@sa.aegean.gr.
- Book reviews should be emailed directly to the Book Reviews Editor (Dr. Marianna Sigala), at m.sigala@aegean.gr.
- Full papers and all other types of manuscripts should be emailed directly to the Editor (Prof. Evangelos Christou), at e.christou@aegean.gr.

Feedback regarding the submission of a manuscript (including the reviewers' comments) will be provided to the author(s) within six weeks of the receipt of the manuscript. Submission of a manuscript will be held to imply that it contains original unpublished work not being considered for publication elsewhere at the same time. Each author of a manuscript accepted for publication will receive three complimentary copies of the issue, and will also have to sign a "transfer of copyright" form. If appropriate, author(s) can correct first proofs. Manuscripts submitted to *TOURISMOS*, accepted for publication or not, cannot be returned to the author(s).

Manuscript Length

Research Papers should be not longer than 6000 words and not shorter than 4000. Research Notes should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000. Case Studies should be not longer than 3500 words and not shorter than 2500. Book Reviews should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 1000. Conference Reports should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000. Industry Viewpoints should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 500. Forthcoming Events should be not longer than 500 words. Manuscripts that do not fully conform to the above word limits (according to the type of the article) will be automatically rejected and should not be entered into the reviewing process.

Manuscript Style & Preparation

- All submissions (research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events) must have a title of no more than 12 words.
- Manuscripts should be double-line spaced, and have at least 2,5 cm (one-inch) margin on all four sides. Pages should be numbered consecutively.
- The use of footnotes within the text is discouraged – use endnotes instead. Endnotes should be kept to a minimum, be used to provide additional comments and discussion, and should be numbered consecutively in the text and typed on a separate page at the end of the article.
- Quotations must be taken accurately from the original source. Alterations to the quotations must be noted. Quotation marks (“ ”) are to be used to denote direct quotes. Inverted commas (‘ ’) should denote a quote within a quotation. If the quotation is less than 3 lines, then it should be included in the main text enclosed in quotation marks. If the quotation is more than 3 lines, then it should be separated from the main text and indented.
- The name(s) of any sponsor(s) of the research contained in the manuscript, or any other acknowledgements, should appear at the very end of the manuscript.
- Tables, figures and illustrations are to be included in the text and to be numbered consecutively (in Arabic numbers). Each table, figure or illustration must have a title.

- The text should be organized under appropriate section headings, which, ideally, should not be more than 500-700 words apart.
- The main body of the text should be written in Times New Roman letters, font size 12.
- Section headings should be written in Arial letters, font size 12, and should be marked as follows: primary headings should be centred and typed in bold capitals and underlined; secondary headings should be typed with italic bold capital letters; other headings should be typed in capital letters. Authors are urged to write as concisely as possible, but not at the expense of clarity.
- The preferred software for submission is Microsoft Word.
- Authors submitting papers for publication should specify which section of the journal they wish their paper to be considered for: research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events.
- Author(s) are responsible for preparing manuscripts which are clearly written in acceptable, scholarly English, and which contain no errors of spelling, grammar, or punctuation. Neither the Editorial Board nor the Publisher is responsible for correcting errors of spelling or grammar.
- Where acronyms are used, their full expression should be given initially.
- Authors are asked to ensure that there are no libellous implications in their work.

Manuscript Presentation

For submission, manuscripts of research papers, research notes and case studies should be arranged in the following order of presentation:

- *First page*: title, subtitle (if required), author's name and surname, affiliation, full postal address, telephone and fax numbers, and e-mail address. Respective names, affiliations and addresses of co-author(s) should be clearly indicated. Also, include an abstract of not more than 150 words and up to 6 keywords that identify article content. Also include a short biography of the author (about 50 words); in the case of co-author(s), the same details should also be included. All correspondence will be sent to the first named author, unless otherwise indicated.

- *Second page*: title, an abstract of not more than 150 words and up to 6 keywords that identify article content. Do not include the author(s) details, affiliation(s), and biographies in this page.
- *Subsequent pages*: the paper should begin on the third page and should not subsequently reveal the title or authors. In these pages should be included the main body of text (including tables, figures and illustrations); list of references; appendixes; and endnotes (numbered consecutively).
- The author(s) should ensure that their names cannot be identified anywhere in the text.

Referencing Style

In the text, references should be cited with parentheses using the “author, date” style - for example for single citations (Ford, 2004), or for multiple citations (Isaac, 1998; Jackson, 2003). Page numbers for specific points or direct quotations must be given (i.e., Ford, 2004: 312-313). The Reference list, placed at the end of the manuscript, must be typed in alphabetical order of authors. The specific format is:

- *For journal papers*: Tribe, J. (2002). The philosophic practitioner. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.29, No.2, pp.338-357.
- *For books and monographs*: Teare, R. & Ingram, H. (1993). *Strategic Management: A Resource-Based Approach for the Hospitality and Tourism Industries*. London, Cassell.
- *For chapters in edited books*: Sigala, M. and Christou, E. (2002). Use of Internet for enhancing tourism and hospitality education: lessons from Europe. In K.W. Wober, A.J. Frew and M. Hitz (Eds.) *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism*, Wien: Springer-Verlag.
- *For papers presented in conferences*: Ford, B. (2004). Adoption of innovations on hospitality. *Paper presented at the 22nd EuroCHRIE Conference*. Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey: 3-7 November 2004.
- *For unpublished works*: Gregoriades, M. (2004). The impact of trust in brand loyalty, *Unpublished PhD Tourismos*. Chios, Greece: University of the Aegean.
- *For Internet sources (if you know the author)*: Johns, D. (2003) The power of branding in tourism. [Http://www.tourismabstracts.org/marketing/papers-authors/id3456](http://www.tourismabstracts.org/marketing/papers-authors/id3456).

Accessed the 12th of January 2005, at 14:55. (note: always state clearly the full URL of your source).

- *For Internet sources (if you do not know the author):* Tourism supply and demand. [Http://www.tourismabstracts.org/marketing/papers-authors/id3456](http://www.tourismabstracts.org/marketing/papers-authors/id3456). Accessed the 30th of January 2004, at 12:35. (note: always state clearly the full URL of your source).
- *For reports:* Edelstein, L. G. & Benini, C. (1994). *Meetings and Conventions*. Meetings market report (August), 60-82.