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Volume 8, Number 1, Spring 2013

Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521



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ARC-ERA (Australian Research Council – Excellence in Research for Australia Initiative), <http://www.arc.gov.au/era/default.htm>

CIRET (Centre International de Recherches et d'Etudes Touristiques)

CAB Abstracts (CABI), <http://www.cabi.org>

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tourists to the southern region there were communicative problems among the tourists and community in terms of organizational party, except the existence of tourist police at the tourism sites continuously to protect the tourist from the abuse by community individuals. There were lingual problems among tourists and community besides psychological and social matters. But there were no problem for excuse in case of any mistake by the tourist. The study recommended that such organizational problems should be solved, where the state should increase the figures of tourist to the southern region. The psycho-social problems should find a solution in terms of sensitive and religious aspects which might lead to misunderstanding by community and harsh the feelings of tourists besides the difficulty of building friendship relations with tourists and treat them with respect.

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Olivier Dehoorne & Corina Tătar

The paper offers a reflection on tourism issues and development strategies relating to Caribbean destinations, and more particularly, insular destinations. When faced with intense competition from popular destinations around the region, the smaller islands have had to reaffirm their market position. Mass tourism development models have not created the expected knock-on effects for these territories of limited size and vulnerable resources. Any wish for alternative tourism practices, which for this region essentially revolve around the term ecotourism, falls under the scope of badly coordinated tourism development and its ensuing over-concentration of infrastructures, land conflicts and policies of entrenchment, etc. Sharing tourism revenue and accessing resources are key elements to the debate. Development strategies in relation to alternative tourism practices are better able to meet the expectations of host territories.

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Korstanje Maximiliano E.

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Choo Ling Suan & Aizzat Mohd. Nasurdin

In light of competitive pressures, organizations particularly service providers, need to unleash the talents of their employees in order to accomplish peak performance. Recent efforts have highlighted the importance of work engagement which focuses on human strengths and optimal functioning. Despite its potential beneficial outcomes, research on the prevalence and antecedents of work engagement has remained scarce. Therefore, the objective of this paper is to develop a model linking role clarity, supervisory support, and peer support as predictors of work engagement. A review of the literature to support the proposed model among customer-contact employees within the Malaysian hotel industry is provided.

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EDITORIAL

This is the fifteenth issue of TOURISMOS, starting its eighth year of publication. In the previous fourteen 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.

All research papers and case studies presented in this issue, address a number of topics namely tourism marketing, tourism planning and development, tourists' motivations and perceptions about tourism destinations, sustainable development, hotel management, the impact of country-specific macroeconomic factors on hotel chain expansion, social media in destination marketing, travel demand and economic growth, and management of special events.

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 autumn 2013!

Paris Tsartas
Editor-in-Chief

Evangelos Christou
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THE YOUNG TOURIST GUIDE TO PARADISE: UNDERSTANDING BEHAVIOURAL PATTERNS OF YOUNG BEACH-ORIENTED TOURISTS

Paolo Mura
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This paper seeks to advance knowledge of young beach-oriented tourists by employing a qualitative research method. The research was conducted in Ios, on the south of Athens, Greece. The location represented an extremely popular destination for young people from all over the world. After three months of observation and interviews with twenty five young tourists, the findings interestingly show that the young tourists' patterns of behaviour on holiday were often discussed by them in contrast to the patterns of behaviour in the home environment. This finding has important implications because it further expands our understanding of the relationship between the tourism experience and the leisure experience in the home environment.

Keywords: *Young tourists, Qualitative research, Tourist activities, Tourist behaviour*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

BACKGROUND

Deemed as a valid segment for research by Bywater (1993) and Ravon (1991), much has been published on youth tourism and young tourists. In particular, it has been noted that young tourists have specific interests and desires which distinguish them from the adult population (Furtwangler, 1991). In the same vein, Chadee and Cutler (1996) point out that the young tourist needs to be regarded as a separate market with its own characteristics while Stivala (1991) has warned scholars not to equate youth tourism to other forms of tourism. The consideration of youth

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tourism as a phenomenon with its specific characteristics leads to assert that it is necessary to explore in more detail this particular segment of the market.

THE YOUNG TOURIST ECONOMY

The importance of exploring the youth tourism market is further emphasised by its positive economic impact (Aramberri, 1991). Bywater (1993) reports that the five major companies that catered specifically to the young student tourism in 1992 (STA Travel, CIIE, Kilroy travels, USIT International and CTS Viaggi) earned around US\$800 million. Within the European context, Wheatcroft and Seekings (1995) indicate that in 1993 the youth tourism market represented 20% of the total expenditures by all tourists in Europe. The World Tourism Organization (2002) estimates that young people accounted for 17% of all international trips in 2000. Richards (2007) also claims that the total international youth spending was about 20% of total tourism spending in 2005, namely €109 billion (US\$136 billion). According to the data provided by Richards (2007:4), young tourists' '[a]verage spending on a main trip abroad increased by almost 40% between 2002 and 2007 to €1915, a higher rate of expenditure growth than the international travel market as a whole. As a proportion of their total income, young people spend more than any other group on international travel'. Prior to Richards (2007), Chadee and Cutler (1996) have already found that young tourists might not necessarily look for cheap accommodation - the findings of their study show that 'the student market is no different from other markets in demanding higher quality standards than in the past' (Chadee & Cutler, 1996: 77). In support of Chadee and Cutler (1996), Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995:836) argue that young backpackers may spend less than other types of tourists, yet 'their relatively low daily expenditures are more than compensated for by their extended length of stay and the fact that they distribute their spending further throughout the country they are visiting'. The literature reviewed seems to contrast the assumption that young tourists are 'price conscious' and prefer budget travel (Kreul, 1991). Rather, past studies stress the positive economic impact of the young tourist as well as the long-term potential of the youth market.

RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Besides its economic impact, youth tourism has also been regarded as a positive phenomenon from a socio-cultural point of view. According to

Richards and Wilson (2003:9), young people's tourism has the potential to 'build bridges between people and cultures'. Hence, it has been recognized that young tourists can contribute to promote ideals of peace and understanding among people from different cultures (Winter, 2004). Kelly (2006:7), for example, refers to the International Youth Hostels Federation (IYHF) as 'a body whose concerns now go well beyond the provision of inexpensive backpacker accommodation and incorporate the aim of fostering peace and understanding throughout the world'. European exchange student programs, such as 'Socrates/Erasmus' and 'Leonardo', represent another example through which youth tourism may promote understanding among people from different cultures. Indeed, it has been argued that one of the aims of these exchange student programs is 'to reach international understanding and to create a European consciousness' (Papatsiba, 2005:174).

The economic and socio-cultural significance of the youth tourism market highlights the importance of conducting research on the young tourist. More specifically, it has been noted that more research is needed on the young beach-oriented tourist, considering that 'up to 50% of all holidays taken by young people are located in beach-oriented resorts' (Carr, 1999: 223). Previous studies on young tourists in beach-oriented resorts reveal that the young tourists tend to behave in a more hedonistic manner on holiday than at home. Bellis, Hale, Bennett, Chaudry and Kilfoyle (2000), for example, found that young British visiting Ibiza have a higher propensity to use drugs and consume alcohol on holiday than at home. Similarly, Sonmez et al.'s (2006) findings show that North American students drink more alcohol and use more drugs in the tourism context. In her description of young tourists' behaviour on a Greek island, Wickens, (2002) refers to the 'Raver Type' as those who decide to travel to islands exclusively for its beaches and nightlife. Moreover, she labels most female tourists as 'Shirley Valentines', namely women who actively seek a romantic affair and sexual experiences with local Greek men or other tourists.

A number of studies have also focused on the causes of the 'disinhibiting' effect (Sonmez et al., 2006: 896) of beach-oriented vacations. Maticka-Tyndale, Herold and Mewhinney (1998) explored the sexual behaviour of Canadian university students on spring break. Their findings show that young tourists' increased sexual activity and substance use on holiday is influenced by a number of different components, such as previous expectations, peer group influences and personal attitudes. Similarly, Ford and Eiser (1995) found that social pressure from the peer group leads the young tourists to conform to more hedonistic patterns of behaviour on holiday. In addition, Carr (2002) highlights that young British tourists tend to behave in a more hedonist manner on international vacations than on domestic holidays.

Although numerous studies have been conducted on the young beach-oriented tourist, much research has mainly focus on the holiday experiences of British (Ford & Eiser, 1995; Bellis et al., 2000; Carr, 2002) and North American (Maticka-Tyndale et al., 1998; Sonmez et al., 2006) tourists. Furthermore, much research on North American young tourists has primarily focused on the holiday experiences of students on spring break. It needs to be emphasised that 'the student population cannot be automatically equated with the young persons' population' (Carr, 1998:314). This is because not all the young population has access to the education system (Vandycke, 2001). In addition, most of the studies on the beach-oriented tourists (Maticka-Tyndale et al. 1998; Carr, 2002; Sonmez et al., 2006) employ quantitative methods of data collection and analysis. Although they have provided a valuable insight into young tourists' behaviour on holiday, they also have limitations in terms of providing an in-depth exploration and understanding of young tourists' experiences on holiday.

In this respect, the use of quantitative methods, such as self-report questionnaires, does not allow the researcher to explore individual circumstances and the participants' free flow of ideas (Walle, 1997). Moreover, the relatively lack of depth of quantitative techniques can lead to a loss of understanding of people's experiences, motivations and interactions (Walle, 1997). Given that quantitative methods are not flexible, they are not suited for studying naturally occurring real-life situations (Punch, 2005). In contrast, the use of qualitative methods provides more detailed information regarding the context. As Mason (2002:3) points put, qualitative methods are 'both flexible and sensitive to the social context in which data are produced'. Patton (1990:24) confirms the value of qualitative data collection methods for 'revealing respondents' depth of emotion, the ways they have organized the world, their thoughts about what is happening, their experiences, and their basic perceptions'.

This study is in support of Patton's (1990) views hence the aim of this paper is to explore young beach-oriented tourists' behaviour on holiday by employing a qualitative method. More specifically, this paper focuses on the holiday experiences of young tourists in a specific beach-oriented resort, namely the island of Ios, Greece.

THE ISLAND OF IOS, GREECE

The island of Ios, Greece, is a part of the Cyclades, which are a group of 39 islands located in the Aegean Sea south of Athens and north of Crete (Ministry of the Interior, 2007). The island is about 18 km long and 10 km wide, it occupies an area of about 109 km² with a population of 1,838 in 2001 (Ministry

of the Interior, 2007). There are two main villages on Ios: Hora or Chora, namely the principal town of the island; Gialos, which is where the ferry port is; and Mylopotas, a beach situated a 15-minute walk from the main village and regarded as one of the most famous in the whole Greece (The Greek Travel, 1998).

Until the 1960's the local economy of the island was mainly based on agriculture, fishing, and animal farming (Dana, 1999). With the arrival of the first travellers in the 1960's, tourism began to develop and most of the inhabitants of the island turned away from the traditional occupations. Tourism on Ios started in the 1960's when the island was discovered by hippies from all over the world (Ministry of the Interior, 2007). However, it was only after 1965 that the island undertook a massive tourism development. A study conducted by Tsartas (1992) shows that in a relatively short period of time (1965-1975) Ios evolved from being an agricultural and fishing island to a mass tourism destination. Indeed, at the beginning of the 1980's Loukissas (1982) included Ios in the category of small islands with high tourist density. Similarly, in their study concerning the environmental impact of tourism on the Aegean Islands, Spilanis and Vayanni (2003) included Ios in the group of islands with a marked tourism pressure indicator (defined as beds/surface area and beds/inhabitants).

Today, Ios is particularly renowned among the young tourists for being the 'party island of Greece' (IosPartyIsland, 2007). In this respect, Styliadis, Terzidou and Terzidis (2008:181) claim that 'in recent years Ios has become an extremely popular destination for young people from all over the world, who come to Ios to enjoy the beautiful beaches and the frenzied nightlife'. The image of Ios as being a party island for the young tourists is also highly emphasised by the media. The Greek Travel, for example, reports that 'they [tourists] come to Ios because they are young and the island is the best party scene in Greece if not the world for people from every country' (The Greek Travel, nd).

Although Ios is highly promoted as a destination for the young tourists (Styliadis et al., 2008; Fritz & Spaneli, 2001), there is a lack of data concerning the number of young tourists visiting the island hence a scarcity of information about tourist flows and expenditures in Greece (Buhalis, 2001). There also exists a scarcity of information with regard to the type of tourists staying on Ios. Since statistical data does not offer information on tourist arrivals by age, it is difficult to estimate the approximate number of young tourists that visit the island during the summer. According to the data published by the National Statistical Service of Greece (NSSG) (2007), Ios was visited by around 8,000 people during the summer 2007. However, it is likely that the number of arrivals was higher than that provided by the NSSG due to the fact that the

statistics only refer to the nights spent in the hotels of the island and do not include data concerning campsites and other types of accommodation (NSSG, 2007). USA Today (2007), for example, estimates that Ios attracts 20,000 visitors daily during the summer.

In addition, very little is known about the young visitors' patterns of behaviour on the island. There are only a handful of studies published on foreign tourists' patterns of behaviour in Ios. One of such studies concerns the socio-cultural impact of tourism on Ios and Serifos (Tsartas, 1992), who highlights locals' scepticism towards foreign tourists' patterns of behaviour. Another, Dana (1999:63) describes Ios as an environment in which 'visiting tourists let their hair down – getting drunk, flirting, and sunbathing in the nude'. These studies however, mainly focus on the cultural changes that occurred on the island as a consequence of the development of tourism and do not provide an in-depth exploration of tourists' patterns of behaviour. This paper extends current knowledge on tourists in Ios with an aim to uncover new patterns of behaviour not yet identified in past research by employing a qualitative technique.

DATA AND METHODS

Study setting

The data for this study was collected during a three month period (May-August 2007) on the island of Ios, Greece. Age was the main criterion employed to identify a young tourist. More specifically, all the tourists aged between 16 and 35 were regarded as potential participants of the study. The choice of this age range, although somewhat arbitrary, has been already employed in previous studies on young tourists (Carr, 1999).

This study combines participant observation and in-depth interviews as its data collection methods. Participant observation was chosen as a data collection method because it requires direct involvement in the social world object of study. The possibility of firsthand contact with the population chosen for the study was of value to 'hear, see, and begin to experience reality as participants do' (Marshall & Rossman, 1989: 79). Indeed, it allowed the researchers to develop rapport and build a relationship of trust with the young tourists on Ios, which was crucial to collect valuable information concerning tourists' background, their emotions, expectations, perceptions and patterns of behaviour. Observational notes consisted of descriptions of the context in which interviews were carried out. The researchers also recorded notes on the participants'

patterns of behaviour on Ios as well as description of events and circumstances that were regarded as relevant for the study.

The young tourists were approached by the researchers in different locations, although the interviews and the observations were mainly conducted in three parts of the island, namely Chora (the main village), Mylopotas Beach (the main beach of the island) and Gialos (the port of the island). The reason of this choice were based on the fact that the young tourists tended to concentrate in these three locations and only occasionally moved to more remote parts of the island. More specifically, interviews and observations were conducted on Mylopotas Beach and Gialos during the day and in Chora at nighttime. This was due to the fact that, like in other beach oriented tourist destinations (Ford & Eiser, 1995; Carr, 1999), the young tourists on Ios tended to spend their time on the beach during daytime and in the bars and pubs of the main village at night.

Participants and data collection procedures

The exact number of people to be approached was not previously determined and interviews were carried out until the researchers believed that the amount of data collected was sufficient to address the research aims and to identify emergent themes (Patton, 1990; Mason, 2002). In the end, twenty-five in-depth interviews were conducted among the young tourists on the island. Each interview lasted 30-45 minutes on average, with each interview varying in length from 20 to 70 minutes. All the interviews were digitally audio-recorded and then transcribed verbatim. Pseudonyms were assigned to the various interviewees in order to guarantee anonymity and confidentiality. Similarly, the observational notes taken during the fieldwork were first read and examined in order to identify names and particulars that would have potentially compromised the anonymity of the participants. Following transcription, the transcripts and observational notes were read several times in order to identify themes and significant facts (Patton, 1990).

Data analysis

As Mason (2002:148) suggests, data was read 'literally, interpretively and reflexively'. Data was first read literally in order to assess whether there were particular words and expressions that the respondents tended to use during the interviews and observations. This also allowed the researchers to become familiar with the information collected, although it needs to be remembered that a provisional identification of emergent themes had

already occurred during the fieldwork. As Lofland and Lofland (1984:131) point out, ‘analysis and data collection run concurrently’. Data was then read ‘interpretatively’ in order to provide possible explanations ‘*through or beyond the data*’ (Mason, 2002:149 emphasis in the original). The interpretation of data was based on both the existing literature on young tourists and the researchers’ fieldwork experience. In particular, the researchers tried to understand and explore their roles in the data collection process. Therefore, the interpretative and reflexive reading of the data occurred concurrently.

Table 1 Phases of Thematic Analysis

Phase	Description of the process
1. Familiarizing yourself with your data	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas
2. Generating initial codes	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code
3. Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme
4. Reviewing themes	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis
5. Defining and naming themes	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme
6. Producing the report	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

Source: Braun and Clarke, (2006: 87).

A thematic analysis was used in order to identify emergent themes (Patton, 1990), which were explored and discussed in relation to the existing literature on fear as well as the aims of the study. Thematic

analysis was chosen due to the fact that 'it offers an accessible and theoretically flexible approach to analysing qualitative data' (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 77). In particular, the themes were identified based on six phases of analysis, which are summarised in Table 1. The themes were partly identified in an inductive manner. As Patton (1990) points out, an inductive analysis is a data-driven process, namely a process that identifies themes without referring to pre-existing theoretical assumptions. Despite this, it needs to be emphasised that 'researchers cannot free themselves of their theoretical and epistemological commitments, and data are not coded in an epistemological vacuum' (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 84). Therefore, the themes identified by the researchers were a result of both inductive (data-driven) and deductive (theory-driven) reasoning. More specifically, the analysis was conducted to explore young tourists' patterns of behaviour, yet emergent themes related to tourist behaviour which initially had not been considered were also explored.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Tourists in Ios

The interviews and observations conducted during the fieldwork for this study provide information on the type of tourists visiting Ios. In particular, they reveal that most people staying on the island were young tourists aged between 18 and 35. As on other Cycladic Islands, foreign tourists represented a significant source market for holiday travel to Ios (Spilanis & Vayanni, 2003; Tsartas, 1992), with Italians, Norwegians, Swedish, North Americans, British and Australians representing the majority of the tourist presence on the island. In addition, the island is also visited by a considerable number of Greek people travelling from mainland. The observations concerning the nationality of the respondents reflect the data provided by the NSSG (2007) with regard to the number of arrivals by country of residence.

Tales of sex, drugs and alcohol

There are two main findings from this study. The first finding is consistent with past studies on young tourists' patterns of behaviour (Maticka-Tyndale, Herold and Mewhinney, 1998; Carr, 2002; Wickens, 2002; Sonmez et al., 2006). In this respect, the excerpts from the interviews and observations showed that the holiday experience on Ios was perceived by many as an

occasion to 'let oneself go'. Typical patterns of behaviour on Ios included sleeping, relaxing, sex and substance abuse. Unregulated alcohol consumption was not uncommon as illustrated below:-

I wake up around 2pm...this is the earliest... I could sleep 'till 5pm. Then I go to Mylopotas Beach to relax. I need to relax because it is likely that I have to deal with a hangover. I may have a couple of beers anyway on the beach or even a couple of cocktails. Then I go back to my hotel at around 9pm, I have dinner and I go back to sleep till 12am. At 12am I wake up again and at 1am I go out. And I spend the whole night partying and drinking from bar to bar till 7am (Matt 21, Ireland)

I drink, I eat, sometimes I sleep, I drink again, I eat again and I never sleep! This is my holiday on Ios pretty much. I go out and I let myself go, without any constraint, no control, nobody who tells you what to do... (Jenny 25, Scotland)

The findings also revealed other forms of substance abuse such as ecstasy. The following participants confessed:-

I tried something new this time, it made me feel good, light, happy... At home I avoid drugs but here everybody seems to do it...I thought 'well, who cares? I am on holiday!' (Mark 27, Argentina)

It [ecstasy] helps me to have fun. Not that I need it, usually I don't do these things, actually I am against drugs...but I went to dance to this place and the atmosphere was cool and I tried ecstasy. I thought that trying it is normal when you are on holiday (Lisa 23, Sweden)

Although past studies have found that young tourists have sex while on holiday (Maticka-Tyndale, Herold and Mewhinney, 1998; Wickens, 2002), we were somewhat surprised when most participants admitted to having unprotected sex during their stay on the island. For example, Giulia (23, Italy) confessed that she "had sex on Ios... after all I'm on holiday! We didn't use any protection, we were too drunk to think about it...but I'm not too worry... he looked like a regular guy" while Alex (24, Argentina) said, "Well...in that moment we didn't think about it [protections]. We were too busy."

Undoubtedly, young tourists in Ios have indulged in alcohol and substance abuse as well as sex, often times unprotected. This might be explained by the way the mass media promote Greece and the Greek islands. Movies like Shirley Valentine, for example, create expectations and, subsequently, encourage certain patterns of behaviour, such as sexual intercourse with strangers while on holiday. Similarly, the Italian movie 'Ginger and Cinnamon' (*Dillo con Parole Mie*) may have played a role in promoting the party environment of Ios among young Italian tourists. In fact, many Italians interviewed in this study mentioned this movie in relation to their patterns of behaviour on Ios. A film distribution company

describes the movie as, "*A comedy-of-errors filled with small talk, sun, sea and music, broken diets, antihistamines, camping stoves, tents, sleeping bags and nervous girls, multiple orgasms, condoms, beers, teenage love making, ex-girlfriends, homework, octopuses, secret ingredients*" (Film Movement, nd; p. 7). This image of Ios is further created and promoted by several websites and blogs that describe a typical holiday on Ios as "*the ultimate party island, this is the paradise for youngsters from all over, eager to party all night and sleep half the day*" (www.in2greece.com); where "*times of lucidity were few and far between*" (About.com, nd).

Leisure versus tourism

Perhaps one of the more interesting findings is that majority of the young tourists observed and interviewed revealed that their patterns of behaviour were influenced by the fact that they were on holiday on a party island rather than at home. Getting drunk on Ios was conceived by many respondents as a different experience than getting drunk in a non-holiday context. As Matt (21, Ireland) pointed out, '*getting drunk on Ios is a different experience than at home, because back home you get drunk and you have to behave, here you can let yourself go*'. With regard to sexual activity, Leonardo (19, Italy) claimed that,

...it's not something new...I mean I can do this even at home if I want, I don't need to come to Ios to have this kind of experiences...I mean having sex...anyway I have to admit that on Ios it's different, it's more intense...yes I can feel a different intensity, a higher intensity...I'm looking for this kind of intensity.

Other respondents also reported increased sexual activity on Ios than at home:-

Well...here on Ios I am definitely more active, I mean, I am more active from a sexual point of view. Sure I have more sex here than at home...it's easier to find someone here, I guess everybody is looking for the same thing, I mean you meet someone and it's pretty much sure you end up doing it. I don't have a boyfriend and I think I am allowed to have occasional partners... Maybe at home I wouldn't have so many opportunities... (Johanna 27, South Africa)

Let's be honest, that's the main reason why people are here. And why not? I bought the ticket to Ios and I thought: 'I will have plenty of opportunities to have sex'. At home you can do it of course but when I'm on holiday in a place like this I think it's easier...everybody is more into that... (Carmen 23, Sweden)

Several young tourists perceived Ios as a context in which they felt free from the constraints of everyday life and without anybody's control:-

I think that on holiday you are in a different dimension...a dimension in which I have a different state of mind...for me it's different from all the things I do when I'm home...I feel like I have a different state of mind...on holiday you have more freedom to do what you like...at home I have to work and do always the same boring stuff (Mario 21, Italy)

Being on holiday is different...a different mindset anyway...you don't do the things you usually have to do in everyday life... Personally, I feel freer than at home and I let myself go...I do things I usually don't do at home (Mina 22, Greece)

Mario (21, Italy) and Mina (22, Greece) described 'holiday' as an experience different from 'home'. In this respect, young tourists' responses agreed with Graburn (2004:23) that 'tourism is best understood as a *kind of ritual*, one in which the special occasions of leisure and travel stand in opposition to everyday life at home and work' (emphasis in the original). More specifically, Mario and Mina both referred to 'holiday' as a context in which they felt like having a 'different state of mind' than the one at home, a mindset similar to Langer's (1993:44) 'mindfulness', namely 'a state of mind that results from drawing novel distinctions, examining information from new perspectives, and being sensitive to context'. Conversely, 'home' was often described as a boring and predictable context, one in which young tourists felt trapped in a 'mindless' mindset, namely a state of mind in which 'the individual gets locked into one predetermined version of information, even though alternative versions may better meet her or his needs in the future' (Langer, 1993:45). Furthermore, young tourists' high levels of perceived freedom on holiday could also be related to the notion of liminality (Turner 1986; Shields, 1990; Ryan & Kinder, 1996), a dimension in which 'people feel able to do things they really want to do freed from the constraints of responsibilities to employers and social roles they normally occupy' (Ryan & Kinder, 1996: 510).

Expectations of '*experiencing a liberating holiday*' (Demetra 20, Greece) were mainly influenced by the respondents' age and life stage. It needs to be emphasised that most of the interviewees were young tourists in their early 20's and had just completed their undergraduate studies. More interviewees confirms Demetra's sentiments. For example, Ali (22, Israel) perceived 'tourism' as a liberating experience due to the fact that they had recently terminated military service. He said, "*I just completed military service. It's compulsory in Israel; three years...three long years...It's common among young Israelis to go on holiday after three years of strict rules. It's kind of a liberating experience...I am free*

now...finally out of my parent's guard." Most of the young tourists interviewed echoed Ali's comments as they were on holiday in a foreign country for the first time without family members. Carl (23, New Zealand) for instance, observed that *"I think that sometime I'm anxious because I have been waiting for this moment all my life, finally I'm here, my first serious holiday experience, I mean without nobody's control. I can show I am not a child anymore. I can make it without mum and dad. I just want to enjoy it."* As Ali's (22, Israel) and Carl's (23, New Zealand) interviews show, the holiday experience was conceived by many as a 'rite of passage' (Van Gennep, 1960) between childhood and adulthood, namely the first experience out of their familiar environment.

On the whole, the second finding in this study would seem to indicate that there is a perceptual dichotomy between being on holiday as a tourist versus leisure holiday within the home country. Indeed, most respondents emphasised that their patterns of behaviour on Ios were influenced by the fact they were in a tourism context. In particular, the young tourists perceived higher levels of freedom on holiday than at home.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The main aim of this study was to understand the patterns of behaviour of young tourists visiting Ios, Greece. This study has shown that young tourists in Ios do engage in unprotected sex and substance abuse including alcohol and ecstasy. This result has implications for those involved in the development of risk-reduction initiatives that try to protect young people on holiday. A number of initiatives can be implemented to protect the sexual health of young tourists, such as campaigns that encourage the use of precautions against HIV infection while on holiday. Moreover, prevention measures may be of help to heighten awareness of the health-related and legal consequences of drug consumption in foreign countries. These initiatives should be based on programs that involve tourists' country of origin as well as young tourists' holiday destinations. Not only should they target young holidaymakers but local residents too, given that the latter did often participate in tourists' risky activities on Ios.

A further significant insight offered by this study is that patterns of behaviour on holiday were often discussed by the young tourists in relation to patterns of behaviour in the home environment. This finding has important implications because it further advances our understanding of the relationship between the tourism experience and the home environment. There has been a lack of agreement concerning the relationship between tourism experiences in the holiday environment and leisure experiences in the home environment. A

number of authors (e.g., Fedler, 1987; Pearce, 1987; Crouch, 1999) claim that tourism and leisure experiences are related, suggesting that studies on leisure behaviour conducted in the home environment can be used by tourism scholars to understand tourist behaviour. However, the results of this research highlight the existence of a perceptual dichotomy between 'holiday' and 'home'. Indeed, most respondents emphasised that their patterns of behaviour on Ios were influenced by the fact they were in a tourism context. In particular, the young tourists perceived higher levels of freedom on holiday than at home. This result suggests that studies on young people's behaviour conducted within leisure activities should not be automatically applied to a tourism context. Rather, the relationship between tourism and leisure should be further explored by tourism scholars in order to understand whether and how tourist behaviour can be related to leisure behaviour.

One of the distinctive features of this study concerns the data collection methods chosen to explore young tourists' patterns of behaviour on holiday. In contrast to previous research on the young tourists (Carr, 2001; Richards, 2007), in-depth interviews and observations were employed to investigate young holidaymakers' behavioural patterns. The fieldwork experience allowed the researchers to develop rapport and build a relationship of trust with the young tourists on Ios. This was crucial to collect valuable information concerning tourists' background, their emotions, expectations, perceptions and the context. Future research should employ qualitative interviews and observations in the investigation of holidaymakers' experiences. Indeed, a qualitative approach to research will allow tourism scholars to have a better understanding of tourists' experiences and, subsequently, a more in-depth comprehension of tourist behaviour.

Although more research is needed to verify the results obtained, the findings of this study shed light on young tourists' patterns of behaviour on holiday. It has been found that the specific social context of Ios played a significant role in influencing young tourists' patterns of behaviour. Finally, future research could determine whether and how different tourism contexts influence tourist behaviour. There is also a need for research to explore whether other factors, such as gender and culture, influence young tourists' behaviour on holiday.

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SUBMITTED: APR 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: OCT 2012

ACCEPTED: NOV 2012

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COMMUNICATION PROBLEMS AMONG TOURISTS AND COMMUNITY FORM THE TOURIST PERSPECTIVE "A CASE STUDY FORM KARAK GOVERNORATE"

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This study aimed at recognizing the problems of communication among the tourists and the local community in Karak Governorate forms the perspective of tourists. It determined the problems that might lead to a fault in the communicative process. This study is an explorative-analytical one, where it adopted the methodology of data collection and analysis to conclude findings. The researcher distributed 250 questionnaire forms, where he retrieved 220 and excluded 20 forms. This figure represented the population and sample of the study either. From the perspective of tourists to the southern region there were communicative problems among the tourists and community in terms of organizational party, except the existence of tourist police at the tourism sites continuously to protect the tourist from the abuse by community individuals. There were lingual problems among tourists and community besides psychological and social matters. But there were no problem for excuse in case of any mistake by the tourist. The study recommended that such organizational problems should be solved, where the state should increase the figures of tourist to the southern region. The psycho-social problems should find a solution in terms of sensitive and religious aspects which might lead to misunderstanding by community and harsh the feelings of tourists besides the difficulty of building friendship relations with tourists and treat them with respect.

Keywords: *Communication Problems, Tourists, tourism, Community*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*



INTRODUCTION

The communication represents an essential social need for any body that leads to interaction among individuals, groups, and countries around the world. The communication process by itself is a human activity that plays an important role in any setting individual, group, organization or else. The human activity needs communication to integrate people with each others so as to exchange information necessary to achieve their daily goals and tasks. Therefore the communication is a vital aspect of society, community, organization and individual setting so as to run the life smoothly. (Stephne, H.1996)

The study handled this subject which is considered a critical element in the settings of life aspects. The problems among tourists and community in terms of communication may affect various aspects of life. Therefore recognition of communication problems may determine the methods and procedures of communication required to reach and appropriate state to both parties. The proper use of body language may affect positively the communication process through gestures and signs that should be understood by both parties in a proper way.(Tawfiq, A.1998)

LITERATURE REVIEW

Gunilla Berglund & Per-Olow Sjöden (1987), Communication Problems with Medical Staff: A Correlate of Distress in Cancer Patients.

Forty cancer patients, mainly with small cell lung carcinoma or carcinoid tumors were interviewed with a Swedish version of the Cancer Inventory of Problem Situations (CIPS 1). Data from the following variables will be presented: Anxiety and control in medical situations, communication problems with medical staff, emotions, worry, pain, anticipatory and post-chemotherapy nausea and vomiting and other side effects of chemotherapy. The main finding was that communication problems with medical staff correlated positively with anxiety in medical situations and with anticipatory nausea and vomiting

David H. Moreby (1990), Communication problems inherent in a cross-cultural nursing environment.

The globalization of shipping means that the industry needs cosmopolitan managers who can negotiate with and manage people of different cultures. The causes and consequences of cultural differences are explained in the paper with particular reference to power differentials and role orientation. The dangers of stereotypes are high-lighted.

Communication problems are discussed in the context of transmitting values.

Stephne Herselman (1996), *Some Problems in Health Communication in a Multicultural Clinical Setting: A South African Experience*.

Because of their different perceptions and frames of reference regarding health care, it is unlikely that doctor and patient communicate with total accuracy. This situation is exacerbated if they do not share a sociocultural orientation, even though both doctor and patient apply specific strategies in attempts to overcome the barriers that prevent effective communication. This article deals with some problems that arise in a multicultural clinical setting involving a group of Xhosa-speaking patients and Western medical practitioners in South Africa, the source of the problems, and their implications for the communication process.

Jennifer L. Boothe & Joaquin Borrego Jr. (2004), *Parents' Acceptance of Behavioral Interventions for Children with Behavior and Communication Problems*.

The purpose of the study was to examine what parents find as acceptable treatment options for children with behavior problems in a communication disorders population. Parents' acceptability of seven treatment options, including positive reinforcement, time-out, and response cost, spanking, overcorrection, differential attention, and medication were assessed using hypothetical vignettes. Contrary to previous research which has consistently found positive reinforcement to be the most accepted treatment overall, the results indicate that response cost was the most accepted treatment for this parent population. Additionally, the results indicate that the co-existence of other clinical problems might influence the acceptability ratings of different treatment options. The implications of these findings are discussed and direction for future research is offered.

Khawaldih (2000) study aimed at revealing the obstacles against the communicative process among public schools master, teachers, students and parents at Jerash governorate from the perspective of the schools master. The study also aimed at determining the impact of each variable of gender, education level, and experience of schools masters. The study concluded that the most harsh obstacles were related to the receiving parties (teachers, students and parents) such as the lack of parents' participation in the school activities, low motivate of parents to participate and weak communicative skills of teacher. The obstacles of communicative methods obtained the second rank due to the clack of

material sources, unavailability of meeting auditorium besides the low activation of opinion and complaints process. The study also revealed the obstacles related to the sender (school master) with teachers, students and parents, and motivating them to participate which in turn affected negatively their participation in the process of decision taking. The study found no statistically significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among the responses of school master about the obstacles of communication attributed to gender, qualification and experiences.

A'ayid (2004) study aimed at recognizing the administrative communication among the section chiefs at the applied education sector, and the methods to overcome them. The study sample consisted of 60 individuals of chiefs, where the questionnaire included four parts (administrative and organizational obstacles, communication channels obstacles, personal and perceptive obstacles and socio-environmental and material obstacles). The study concluded that the most severe obstacles which precluded the efficiency of administrative communication were the weak communication channels among the colleges and external parties; adoption of vertical communicative process rather than the horizontal one. The study recommended the conduction of development courses for the chiefs.

PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

Due to the vital importance of communication problems, this study tried to investigate the problems of communication between tourists and local community at Karak governorate and determine the best methods to solve such problems. In this sense, the problems of the study were determining these problems within four aspects, the organizational, technical, socio-psychological, and material aspects.

QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

1. What is the degree of communication problems between tourists and Karak community from the perspective of tourists?
2. Are there essential differences in communication problems attributed to gender, age, and the origin country of tourist?

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. Recognize the communication problems among tourists and Karak local community by defining the problems which might

distort the communication process from the perspective of the tourist in the following dimensions :

- organizational dimension
- customs and traditions dimension
- socio-psychological dimension
- lingual dimension

IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Communication is important since it is the most effective method for interaction among individuals and group. Due to the increase rate of tourism and number of tourists to Jordan, the need arose to open channels of communication to strengthen the relations between tourists and community to the benefit of tourism and development. The importance of the study is based on:

1. It is the first study of its type-upon the knowledge of the researcher- where it recognized the problems on the communication process, therefore it presented some solutions that could reduce these problems which in turn would improve the personal, psychological and human relationship between both parties.
2. It investigated the impact of gender, age of the tourist and the period of time spent in Jordan on the problem of communication between both parties from the perspective of tourists
3. Other researchers would benefit the results to conduct more research's through recognizing the conduct conclusions and recommendation of the study

OBSTACLES OF THE STUDY

Lack of similar studies

TYPE AND METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

This study was an explorative-analytical one and adopted the methodology of data collection and analysis. The researcher distributed 250 forms of the questionnaire over tourists where he retrieved 220 forms and excluded 20 ones. This figure represented the population and the sample of the study alike.

Study Hypotheses

H1: There are no statistically significant differences among the communication problems among the tourists and community attributed to the gender variable of tourist.

H2: There are no statistically significant differences among the communication problems among the tourists and community attributed to the gender variable of tourist.

H3: There are no statistically significant differences among the communication problems among the tourists and community in terms of social and psychological aspect.

H4: There are no statistically significant differences among the communication problems among the tourists and community in terms of custom and traditions aspect.

H5: There are no statistically significant differences among the communication problems among the tourists and community in terms of lingual aspect.

H6: There are no statistically significant differences among the communication problems among the tourists and community organizational aspect.

Stability of Instrument

The stability of the instrument was tested by Chronbach-Alpha Coefficient where:

1. Alpha value for social and psychological aspect was 0.85
2. Alpha value for traditions and customs was 0.86
3. Alpha value for lingual aspect was 0.87
4. Alpha value for organizational aspect was 0.90
5. Alpha value for all items was 0.94

All these values were > 0.6 which means that the instrument was stable as shown in table 1

Table 1 Results of Chronbach-Alpha Test for all dimensions of the study

Dimension	Alpha value
The social and psychological dimension	0.85
The traditions and customs dimension	0.86
The lingual dimension	0.87
The organizational dimension	0.90
All items combined	0.94

Description of Personal and Job Characteristics of Respondents.

Table 2 describes the characteristics of tourist as follow:

- Gender

The table shows that 58% of respondents were female tourists

- Age

The table shows that 42% of respondents were between 36-42 years, 34% were between 18-25 while 18.5% were between 26-35 years and 5.5% of respondents were 46 years or more of age

- Monthly income

47% of respondents obtained income between \$501-1000, while 35.5% obtained \$1001 or more and 17.5% obtained income between \$ 200-500

- Education level:

The table shows that 35% of respondents earned Bachelor, 20% earned diploma, while 19.5% earned masters and 17.5% held secondary certificate.

Table 2 Frequency, % for personal variables

Factor	Element	Freq	%
Gender	Male	84	42%
	Female	116	58%
Age segments	18-25	68	34%
	26-35	37	18.5%
	36-45	84	42%
	46+	11	5.5%
Monthly income	200-500	35	17.5%
	501-1000	94	47%
	1000+	71	35.5%
Educational level	<secondary	16	8%
	Secondary	35	17.5%
	Diploma	40	20%
	Bachelors	70	35%
	Graduate	39	19.5%

Test and Analysis of Hypotheses

H1: There are no statistically significant differences among the communication problems among the tourists and community attributed to the gender

Table 3 shows that, except for the traditions dimension, the significance levels of differences were > 0.05 , which means insignificance of these dimensions; therefore no differences among such dimensions were attributed to gender. This means that both female and male respondents felt the same towards the psychological, social, lingual and organizational dimensions. The dimension of traditions and customs earned difference significance level of $0.03 < 0.05$ which means that there were differences among female and male respondents to the favor of male respondents. Therefore, the male respondents felt the problems related to the customs and traditions more than female respondents with significance level of zero.

Table 3 Results of one sample test related to gender

Dimension	Arith mean		Sig level of		T value for diff	Sig level for t value
	M	F	M	F		
Social-psychological	3.53	3.48	0.00	0.00	0.54	0.58
Traditions	3.71	3.51	0.00	0.00	2.20	0.03
Lingual	3.64	3.62	0.00	0.00	0.14	0.88
organizational	6.52	3.62	0.00	0.00	0.97	0.33

H2: There are no statistically significant differences among the communication problems among the tourists and community attributed to the gender variable

Table 4 ANOVA test result in terms of age

Dimension	F test	Sig. level for F test of diff
The social and psychological dimension	0.46	0.75
The traditions and customs dimension	2.63	0.06
The lingual dimension	0.29	0.83
The organizational dimension	5.54	0.001

Table 4 shows that, except the dimension of organizational problems, all significance levels were > 0.05 . therefore there were no significant difference among these problems

For the organizational dimension the observed significance level was 0.001 which means that there were differences among the feelings of age segments towards these problems. To detect the sources of differences table 5 shows that there were two statistical difference, the first was between the segment of (46+) and the segment of (18-25) to the favor of the first segment. The second difference was between (46+) segment and (26-35) segment to the favor of the first segment.

Table 5 Results of Tukey Test in terms of the organizational dimension

Age segment	18-25	26-35	36-45	46+
18-25	X	X	X	X
26-35	-0.09	X	X	X
36-45	-0.30	-0.22	X	X
46+	-0.87*	0.78*	-0.57	X

H3: There are no statistically significant differences among the communication problems among tourists and community

Table 6 shows that, except items 6 and 7, all items obtained means > 3.00 and significance levels < 0.05 . Therefore such items were significant. Item 1, which measured the misunderstanding between tourists and community due to the difference in traditions obtained the first rank with a mean of 4.47 while item 2, which measured the inappropriateness of tourists dress to the community renditions, obtained the second rank with a mean of 3.85 and item 4, which measured the unacceptance of community to the viewpoint of tourists towards the traditions in a flexible way, obtained the last rank with a mean of 3.26 among the statistically acceptable items. Item 6, which measured community unrespect of religious beliefs of tourists, obtained a mean of 3.03 but its significance was > 0.05 so it was not statically significant. Item 7, which measured the unrespect by tourists of the religious beliefs of community, obtained a mean > 3.00 but it significance was > 0.05 so that problem was not statistically significant. All items combined obtained an aggregated mean of 3.5 and significance level of zero. Therefore the second hypothesis was rejected which means that there were differences among the communication problems among tourists and community

Table 6 Arithmetic mean, std. dev., t value, and significance level of t value related to the traditions dimension

Item No	Item details	Arith mean	Std. dev	T value	Sig lev
1.	There is a misunderstanding between tourist and community as a result of difference in traditions	4.47	0.93	22.17	0.00
2.	My dress doesn't fit local traditions	3.85	1.30	9.22	0.00
3.	I feel the lack of respect to local traditions by tourists	3.27	1.64	2.28	0.02
4.	I see that community doesn't accept my viewpoint towards the traditions flexibly	3.26	1.74	2.11	0.04
5.	I feel the community doesn't respect the conditions and feelings of tourists	3.30	1.74	2.44	0.03
6.	I feel community doesn't respect the religious rituals of tourists	3.03	1.75	0.03	0.78
7.	The tourist doesn't respect the religious rituals of the community	3.16	1.73	1.30	0.19
8.	I feel the community ignores our viewpoints as tourists	3.73	1.66	6.21	0.00
All items		3.50	0.59	12.16	0.00

H4: There are no statistically significant differences among the communication problems in term of the organizational dimension.

Table 7 shows that, except item 13, all items obtained means > 3.00 and significance levels < 0.05, thus such items were statistically significant. Item 9, which measured whether the numbers of tourists outweighed the capacity of the city, obtained the first rank with a mean of 4.22. Item 11, which measured the misunderstanding between the community and tourist due to the bad behaviors of tourists such as love making and drugs, obtained the second rank with a mean of 3.72. Item 12, which measured the lack of sufficient control by authorities on the organizational procedures related to the tourism companies, obtained the

last rank with a mean of 3.34. Item 13, which measured the unexistence of tourist police at the site to protect the tourists, obtained a mean of > 3.00 but the significance level was > 0.05 which means that such problem was not existed

All items combined obtained a mean of 3.60 and significance level of 0.00, therefore the fourth hypothesis was rejected, which means that there was actually significance differences related to the organizational dimension.

Table 7 Mean, std. dev., t value, and significance level related to organizational dimension

Item No	Item details	Arith mean	Std. dev	T value	Sig lev
9.	I feel that the number of tourist to the city outweighs its capacity	4.22	1.36	12.67	0.00
10.	Tourists don't comply with the terms of travel companies to reserve the region	3.50	1.59	4.46	0.00
11.	I feel that there is a misunderstanding between tourists and community due to the bad behavior of tourists like drugs or sex	3.72	1.47	6.86	0.00
12.	There is no sufficient control by public authorities to follow up the organizational procedures that tourism companies should adopt	3.34	1.72	2.76	0.00
13.	No continuous existence of tourism police to protect tourists form abuse	3.23	1.72	1.85	0.07
14.	I feel that there is an abuse of tourist by guides	3.59	1.71	4.85	0.00
All items		3.60	0.65	12.91	0.00

H5: There are no statistically significant differences among the communication problems attributed to the lingual dimension.

Table 8 shows that all items of this dimension obtained means > 3.00 and significance levels < 0.05 . Therefore these items were statistically significant. Items 18, which measured whether the language was an obstacle against the communication among tourists and local community, obtained the first rank with a mean of 3.83. Item 15, which measured the efforts made to understand conversation, obtained the second rank with a mean of 3.43. All items combined obtained a mean of 3.63 and significance level of zero. Therefore the fifth hypothesis was rejected.

Table 8 Mean, std. dev., t value, and significance level of lingual problems

Item No	Item details	Arith mean	Std. dev	T value	Sig lev
15.	I make my ultimate efforts to understand the other party	3.81	1.55	7.35	0.00
16.	When I speak I try to make my vocabularies and sentences clear and short	3.56	1.65	4.76	0.00
17	I can't estimate and understand the signs of body language and face expressions by looking at the other party	3.65	1.64	5.60	0.00
18.	The language is an obstacle against my communication with community	3.83	1.73	6.79	0.00
19.	I try to know the simplest terminologies in Arabic through books and net to deal with local community	3.50	1.58	4.43	0.00
20.	I find difficulty in conversation and communication with elders than young people	3.43	1.70	0.00	
All items		3.63	0.80	11.09	0.00

H6: There are no statistically significant differences among the communication problems attributed to the psychological and social dimension.

Table 9 shows that, except item 24, all items of the dimension obtained means > 3.00 and significance levels < 0.05 , thus such items were statistically significant. Item 21, which measured whether the tourists suffered from tabooed and religious subject that might lead to psychological negative influence, obtained the first rank with a mean of 4.07. Item 25, which measured the uncared by tourists to their words impact on the other party, obtained the second rank with a mean of 3.65. Item 22, which measured the difficulty of expressing the inner feeling of tourists when they were obsessed by the other party, obtained the last rank with a mean of 3.50. Item 24, which measured the excuse in case of a mistake by a person, obtained a mean of 3.20 but the level of significance was > 0.05 thus this item was not statistically significant. All items combined obtained a mean of 3.58 and significance level of zero. Therefore the sixth hypothesis was rejected

Table 9 Mean, std. dev., t value, and significance level of psychological and social problems

Item No	Item details	Arith mean	Std. dev	T value	Sig lev
21.	I suffer from the sensitive and religious issues which obsess me	4.07	1.53	9.84	0.00
22.	It is difficult to express my inner feeling when I was harmed psychologically	3.50	1.56	4.50	0.00
23	I can't solve my problems with the harming person without losing my temper	3.54	1.65	4.59	0.00
24	If I committed a mistake I find it difficult to excuse	3.20	1.68	1.64	0.00
25	I don't care the impact of my words and actions on the other party	3.65	1.66	5.54	0.00
26	It is difficult for me to establish an amicable social relation with local community	3.60	1.67	5.08	0.00
27	I feel sometime that the community treat me with respect.	3.51	1.76	4.11	
All items		3.58	0.76	10.73	0.00

RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Results

1.1 There were no statistically significant differences among the lingual, psychological and organizational communication problems attributed to gender variable, but male tourist felt greater than female with the problems related to traditions.

1.2 There were no statistically significant differences among the psychological, lingual and traditions problems attributed to the age variable. There were two differences related to the organizational dimension between the segment of (46+) and both 18-25) and (26-35) segments, to the favor of the longer one.

1.3 In general there were problems related to the traditions at the south region, but there were neither problems related to the respect of tourist religious beliefs by the community nor respect of religious beliefs of the community by the tourist.

1.4 From the viewpoint of the tourists there were communication problems related to organizational dimension except for continuous existence of tourist police at the sites to protect tourists from greed.

1.5 There were lingual communication problems between tourists and community

1.6 There were social and psychological communication problems between both parties but there was no difficulty in excusing by the tourist in case of a mistake.

Recommendations

2.1 Authorities should eliminate or reduce the impact of traditions problems between the community and tourists, such as the misunderstanding between both parties, inappropriateness of tourist dress to the traditions; the lack of tourist care to the local traditions, unacceptance of community to the viewpoint of tourist towards the local traditions, beside the uncared of community to the conditions and feelings of tourists, the uncared of tourist of the local beliefs of community and ignore of community to the viewpoints of tourists.

2.2 Encounter the organizational communication problems through increasing the capacity of the city to meet the increasing numbers of tourists besides imposing the terms set by travel companies to reserve the sites, and make efforts to eliminate the misunderstanding reasons

represented by some bad behavior by tourists (sex and drug) in addition to establish sufficient control by authorities to follow up the organizational procedures that companies should adopt and protect the tourist from greed.

2.3 Eliminate or reduce the lingual problems through increasing the mutual understanding, conduct training programs for the community in terms of language and focus on elders to encourage them deal with tourists.

2.4 Defend the social and psychological problems especially the sensitive and religious issues which may affect negatively the tourists, and encourage establishing amicable social relations and respect with tourists.

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SUBMITTED: OCT 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: FEB 2013

ACCEPTED: MAR 2013

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COMPARISON OF ATTRACTIVENESS OF TOURIST SITES FOR ECOTOURISM AND MASS TOURISM: THE CASE OF WATERS IN MOUNTAINOUS PROTECTED AREAS

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Evaluation of tourist attractions by different segments on 'mass-tourism' – 'eco-tourism' continuum for water-enhanced tourist sites in mountain and submontane areas in South Bohemia (Czech Republic) was tested. Students on three different study programmes were chosen as respondents for Q-sort with photos of 48 tourist sites. Principal components factor analysis of respondents sorting revealed three main factors of attractiveness perception: presence of dominant attractiveness, natural landscape versus cultural-historical site, harmony of landscape. Impact of tourist segments was revealed for the first two factors. Hierarchical clustering of cluster analysis was then used to obtain homogenous groups of photos. Nine types were revealed: (a) wetlands; (b) forest springs; (c) historical monuments rather of a marginal character; (d) perspective horizons of various content; (e) technical treatments; (f) historical dominants; (g) waterfalls; (h) alpine (wild) rivers; (i) harmonic landscape. Impact of tourist segments was revealed for clusters (a), (c), (e), (f), and (i).



Keywords: *attractiveness, tourism, perception, Q-sort, Czech Republic*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Tourism destinations are visited by visitors due to various motives (Bansal and Eiselt, 2004). They also differ in perception of the environment (Navrátil et al., 2011) and behave, thereafter, in the visited environment in a variety of ways (Horner and Swarbooke, 1996). Destinations of many tourists in urbanized areas are various types of protected areas (Bushell et al. 2007). Values, because of which those areas are protected, act, however, also as tourist attractions (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003). Consequently, it means that management of such environments must meet two contradictory requirements: to contribute to the limiting human impact on these environments and to make them accessible for tourists (Marion and Reid, 2007), which is an issue for both tourism management and nature/heritage conservation management (for detailed review please see Navrátil et al., 2011: 7-9). A detailed knowledge of the structure of tourists' relations to the partial elements of the mountain landscape enable sustainable management as it is advantageous for the landscape, nature, culture and tourism (Geneletti and Dawa, 2009).

Hence, we have chosen as the aim of this paper, identification of the specifics in evaluation of tourist attractions by different segments of visitors sharing the same environment. At the same time we suggest first two hypotheses:

H1: type of participation in tourism affects the perception of environment attractiveness.

H2: type of participation in tourism affects the perception of partial components of an environment.

Perception of environment and, thus, also the attractiveness of the target place is one of the factors of forming an image of a destination (Naoui et al., 2006), which is "formed through the consumer's rational and emotional interpretation" (Royo-Vela, 2009: 420). It manifests itself analogically through the evaluation in 'wants' which are a 'manifestation of need' (Naoui et al., 2006). They affect, also, the motivation to visit (Goossens, 2000).

In the study of perception of environment, a higher number of paradigms are accepted (Taylor et al., 1987; Uzzell, 1991). However, the

most relevant approaches in tourism are the following – psychophysical and cognitive (Fyhri et al., 2009).

Research within the cognitive paradigm was focused first on the finding out of the structure of elements participating in the evaluation of the environment, especially utilizing the information rate measure developed by Mehrabian and Russell (1974). In perception, novelty plays an important role and that in the cross-fade of two elements: preference-for-prototypes and preference-for-differences (Peron et al., 1998). Among other most common goals of studying perception of environment we find identification of factors of perceived aesthetical values (e.g. Real et al., 2000). Generally, considered to be more interesting or more beautiful are those places with attendance in natural or close-to-nature landscape elements (e.g. Fyhri et al., 2009), as well as the picturesque scenes with landmarks of any type, and the harmony between natural and cultural substances of environment (Gabr, 2004).

Thus our next two hypotheses are:

H3: There are several dimensions in the evaluation of an environment.

H4: Attractions could be grouped on the basis of evaluation.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Study area and investigated types of sites

The degree of attractiveness was assessed within the area comprising Šumava Mountains, Novohradské Mountains, Šumava foothills, Novohradské foothills and Třeboň Basin, having in terms of climate and landscape an expressively submontane character. It is of the matter of typical highland of the temperate climate zone situated in the southern part of the Czech Republic along the border with Germany and Austria. Located at approximately 48°33'–49°17'N, 13°04'–14°58'E, the total surface of the studied area is 6317.6 sq km and there are 10 large-area-protected territories representing approx. 50% of the study area.

Based on the previous experience of the authors and an extensive field survey, several types of water-enhanced tourist attractions were identified: mountain glacier lakes, springs, water-falls, alpine stony rivers in deep valleys, rivers in flat broad mountain valleys, canals, ponds, peat bogs, water closely linked with an historical monument, high situated point with a view on a water-course in deep timbered valleys, points with a wide view on a dominant water level and dams.

Research approach

The psychophysical paradigm was chosen in order to achieve the defined aims (Taylor et al., 1987) because “in this approach landscape is conceived as a stimulus which provokes a reaction in the subject, thus following a strong behaviorist perspective” (Real et al., 2000: 356). We decided to use the Q-sort questionnaire design as people find doing Q sorts interesting (Eden et al., 2005).

“What Q methodology attempts to elicit are the variety of accounts or discourses about or around a particular discourse domain, theme, issue or topic” (Barry and Proops, 1999: 399). In Q-method participants rank order a set of items under a specified condition of performance (Cruz et al., 2007) and one of the main strength of the Q-method is that it provides statistically significant results from a relatively small sample size (Doody et al., 2009). For detailed description of Q-method plea see e.g. Barry and Proops (1999) or Steelman and Maguire (1999).

The sorting of photographs was chosen as it is one of the basic tools of how to study perception of environment (Fairweather and Swaffield, 2001). Photographs serve to act as a stimulus for the respondent (Naoi et al., 2006). Q-sort methodology “appears to be as reliable and valid measure of visual quality as most other psychometric methods” (Pitt and Zube, 1979: 233) and was used previously in mountain research of preferences (Cruz et al., 2007), water surfaces preferences (Gabr, 2004), and tourist preferences (Fairweather and Swaffield, 2001).

48 photos of revealed types of tourism attractions from different places were exploited as representatives of tourism attractions and used as objects to sort. Respondents were asked to sort the photographs according to their perception of interestingness for a visit. The most common 9 pile system was adopted (Barry and Proops, 1999). Here +4 corresponded to ‘The site on the picture is, for me, extremely interesting to visit.’ and -4 to ‘The site on the picture is, for me, definitely not interesting to visit.’ The near-normal distribution for numbers of photographs in each column was used (1-2-5-9-14-9-5-2-1).

Selection of respondents

The first tested type of tourist are the potential contributors to the sustainable development of tourism in the naturally valuable areas (Epler Wood, 2002) – undermentioned as ‘eco-tourists’. The second tested type are tourists representing the basis of the visit rate and are the highest potential threat for such areas (Williams, 1998), undermentioned as

‘mass-tourists’. The cited types represent the poles of customer continuum (Horner and Swarbrooke, 1996). We have, therefore, found for research one more group, which should be situated within the results in between the poles, undermentioned as ‘neutral tourists’.

It is usual in analogical tests that students are exploited for the research – see e.g. analysis of Palmer and Hofmann (2001) – which is also the case for tourism (Chhetri et al., 2004; Navrátil et al., 2011). The correspondence of answers between students and other groups has been proven many times (Palmer, 2000). So we have chosen university students for our research: (1) students of business studies representing ‘mass-tourists’, (2) students of ecology representing ‘eco-tourists’ and (3) students of agriculture representing as ‘neutral tourists’. The research was done at three universities in the Czech Republic. With regard to the different numbers of students in the groups of particular study programmes, it was impossible to achieve numerously identical groups of students. For ‘mass tourist’ model 108 respondents were asked (in two groups: 55+53) and 77 responded, for ‘neutral tourists’ model 91 were asked (in two groups: 41+50) and 71 responded, for ‘eco-tourists’ model 47 were asked (in two groups 25+22) and 37 responded.

To verify validity of model segments, the behaviourist segmentation criteria were employed (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009) – environment protection in the lifestyle and typical recreation activities exercised when travelling. The tool for measuring the environmental awareness was based on the results presented by Ballantyne et al. (2008) asking respondents to rate how closely a list of attitudes and practices described them on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (does not describe me at all) to 5 (describes me perfectly). The tool for measuring participation on recreation activities was assumed from Navrátil et al. (2010). The implication in recreational tourism activities was measured on five point Likert-type scales where 1 = not participate, 5 = participate first of all.

Reliability and validity

Chosen for the test of reliability was: (1) the method of two separate measurements for each model segment, (2) the average correlation between those two groups within each model segment (Palmer and Hofmann, 2001), and (3) a test of average difference between those two groups using One way ANOVA with the Tukey unequal N HSD test for each photograph. Evidence of previous studies suggests that “respondents correctly interpret photographs presented to them as indicators of the

‘real’ landscape, and make their evaluation on that basis” (Fairweather and Swaffield, 2001: 220). Our research is focused only on the perceived degree of interestingness of partial tourist attractions (as in Fyhri et al., 2009 or Gabr, 2004). It was, thus, not necessary to realize a field survey. To obtain valid outcomes, selection of photos follows the methodology of (Green, 2005) and the selection of each photo was discussed with experts in landscape protection, landscape ecology and tourism planning (Gabr, 2004).

Questionnaire and data collection

The questionnaire was prepared electronically and accessible to respondents for 30 days during November 2009 on the web page of the workplace of the first author. Respondents were first called to look through the photographs. Only after the look-through were the respondents directed to the address of that part of the questionnaire with the Q-sort. For the Q-sort the code WebQ was appropriated (Schmolck, 1999) with the photographs sized approximately to 160 x 120 px. After its filling, another part with the scales of the behaviorist segmentation was opened to the respondents.

Data analysis

Differences in behaviourist segmentation among the model segments were investigated by One-way ANOVA and results were tested using the Tukey unequal N HSD test (Quinn and Keough, 2002).

The Q-sort data were analyzed using PQMethod 2.11 software using principal components factor analysis and selection of factor-defining sorts was based on pure cases only (Schmolck, 2002). In order to define important ‘dimensions’ the break in scree diagram was used, where eigenvalues for each components are plotted against the component number (Quinn and Keough, 2002).

The impact of the membership of a respondent in a model segment on the factors found was assessed based on the regression analysis (Robinson, 1998) of the dependence of the factor loads on the model segment of the respondent.

Components in assessment should be traceable in the structure of the analogically assessed attractions (Gabr, 2004). Cluster analysis is the most common technique used to produce homogeneous groups based on preferential judgments of Q-sort (Real et al., 2000; Gabr, 2004; Naoi et al., 2006; Fyhri et al., 2009). To create the homogenous groups, the usual

method of hierarchical clustering was employed with use of the complete linkage method of clustering (Robinson, 1998). The linkage distance of 50 % was chosen in order to rule the appropriate number of clusters (Real et al., 2000). The characteristic of the homogenous group was calculated as an average of answers to a group of photographs of a cluster. The differences in preferences for homogenous groups defined by the cluster analysis among model tourism segments were investigated by One-way ANOVA and results were tested using the Tukey unequal N HSD test (Quinn and Keough, 2002).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Sample

Use of the groups of students as representatives of particular model segments is justified, as there were found high and significant correlations of the average imputed values of interestingness of particular photographs between two groups of students within a model segment (Table 1). This result is also promoted by the unproof of the differences for particular locations among groups with the model segments - Tukey HSD for unequal N test reveals only one difference on the significance level $p < 0.01$ in case of the model segment 'eco-tourists'.

Table 1 Pearson's correlation coefficients and significance of correlation of average imputed values of interestingness of particular photographs between two groups of students within a model segments.

	correlation coefficient	significance level
mass-tourists	0.924	< 0.001
neutral tourists	0.888	< 0.001
eco-tourists	0.851	< 0.001

Conversely, there were proven differences among segments based on the relationship to the activities of the environmentally friendly lifestyle and exercise of recreational activities when travelling. 'Eco-tourists' dedicate more time to volunteer work for institutions taking care of the environment and to the active searching for information on environment protection than mass-tourists (Table 2). Also, they observe nature more

often when travelling (Table 3). In most cases, the average answers on activities of ‘neutral tourists’ is located between the average answers of the ‘mass-tourists’ and ‘eco-tourists’ (Table 2 and Table 3).

Table 2 Mean values ($\pm$ standard error, S.E.) of environmental awareness for model segments. Means with the same letter do not differ significantly (Tukey HSD for unequal N test, $p > 0.05$; N of ‘mass tourists’ = 77; N of ‘neutral tourists’ = 71; N of ‘eco-tourists’ = 37).

	mass-tourists		neutral tourists		eco-tourists	
	mean	S.E.	mean	S.E.	mean	S.E.
I use environmentally friendly products.	3.86 a	0.102	3.93 a	0.105	4.19 a	0.128
I actively search for information about environmental conservation	2.58 a	0.120	3.88 b	0.134	3.78 b	0.165
I do volunteer work for groups who help the environment.	1.49 a	0.097	2.31 b	0.149	2.24 b	0.199
I recycle at home.	4.53 a	0.092	4.42 a	0.100	4.49 a	0.143

Note to table: The measurement scale range from 1 (does not describe me at all) to 5 (describes me perfectly).

Table 3 Mean values ($\pm$ standard error, S.E.) of participation on recreational activities for model segments. Means with the same letter do not differ significantly (Tukey HSD for unequal N test, $p > 0.05$; N of ‘mass tourists’ = 77; N of ‘neutral tourists’ = 71; N of ‘eco-tourists’ = 37).

	mass-tourists		neutral tourists		eco-tourists	
	mean	S.E.	mean	S.E.	mean	S.E.
wellness or bath	2.13 a	0.107	1.47 b	0.084	1.19 b	0.065
sightseeing (castle, chateau, etc.)	3.05 a	0.118	3.21 a	0.095	2.62 a	0.131
visiting museums, art gallery, festivals, etc.	2.83 a	0.119	2.78 a	0.097	2.65 a	0.151
shopping	3.34 a	0.099	2.82 b	0.129	2.43 b	0.158
to enjoy myself	3.69 a	0.102	3.11 b	0.115	2.73 b	0.204
resting	3.79 a	0.097	3.72 ab	0.107	3.27 b	0.176
wildlife watching	3.43 a	0.100	4.11 b	0.094	4.24 b	0.131
recreational cycling	2.92 a	0.138	2.96 a	0.139	2.49 a	0.184

recreational sport activities	3.61	a	0.103	3.49	ab	0.105	3.03	b	0.167
walking	3.22	a	0.122	3.92	b	0.126	3.46	ab	0.214

Note to table: The measurement scale range from 1 (not participate) to 5 (participate first of all).

Factors of evaluation of the measure of an attractions' interestingness

Hypothesis 3 was confirmed as the factor analysis identified three important factors (Table 4).

The "natural" scenes of water without an explicit manifestation of an intensive human interventions (waterfalls, glacier lake with a rock basin, ponds), were perceived as interesting to visit, and were separated along first factor (items with value at least ± 2) from the photographs with an important human intervention or his physical presence (dam, waterman's camp, ameliorated watercourse, tourists on the pound lock), perceived as least interesting to visit. When assessing on this level it could appear that the first factor is the usual factor 'natural' – 'human-influenced' environment, which is the most often reported dimension in perception of environment (Kent and Elliot, 1995; Real et al., 2000), as well as in perception of environment directly linked with water (Gabr 2004). Here it is not fully the case, because on the level of the weakest expression of the perception of interestingness to visit (± 1), historical monuments stand on the side of interesting sites to visit and numerous wetlands on the side of non-interesting sites. This difference is analogous to findings of Naoi et al. (2006). The group of interesting places is characterized by the existence of a dominant standing as a by-respondents-identified tourist attraction (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003) and photographs have a 'postcard' character (Fairweather and Swaffield, 2001; Gabr, 2004). Decision making on the interestingness is, thus, given by the existence of an attraction, whereas the most important attraction in the mountain and submontane environment is the 'naturally-attractive environment'. Reversely, the decision making on the non-interestingness of an environment is given by the presence of visitors (Hunter, 2008) and a high degree of technical adaptations (Kent and Elliot, 1995). It is thus of matter, in view of the need for the structuring of premises for tourism development (Alhemoud and Armstrong, 1996) in that an area could dispose of its various premises in order to develop its tourism. The impact of membership of a respondent in a model segment was confirmed by the regression analysis. However, it is very weak ($R = 0.30$, Adjusted squared $R 0.08$, $p < 0.001$).

Table 4 Number of photos with scores on each of the three extracted Q-sort factors.

Nr. of photo	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Nr. of photo	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
01	0	-3	0	25	-3	2	1
02	-1	-1	0	26	0	-1	-4
03	0	-1	-2	27	-1	0	-2
04	-1	-4	0	28	0	3	-1
05	1	3	0	29	2	-1	3
06	4	1	1	30	1	0	1
07	-1	-2	1	31	-1	0	-1
08	0	-2	0	32	-3	1	-1
09	2	1	-2	33	-1	2	0
10	-1	1	2	34	-2	1	-2
11	0	-2	1	35	1	-1	1
12	-2	0	0	36	1	0	1
13	2	0	-1	37	-4	1	-3
14	2	1	-1	38	0	-2	0
15	1	0	2	39	-2	1	-1
16	-1	-3	-1	40	-2	1	0
17	1	-1	3	41	-1	2	0
18	3	2	0	42	-2	2	0
19	3	0	1	43	1	4	4
20	0	0	-3	44	0	0	1
21	0	-1	-1	45	0	-1	2
22	2	-1	-1	46	0	0	-2
23	1	0	2	47	0	0	2
24	1	0	0	48	0	-2	0

Note to table: Number of photo corresponds to number of photo in Figure 1.

Factor 2 respondents most strongly identified with cultural-historical monuments. The eight top-ranked photographs show a variety of historical attractions all across the study area, except the waterman's camp (it is presumed that it was identified by most respondents because it is the most important waterman's camp along headwaters of Vltava, situated under a historical monument of all-European importance – the gothic monastery Zlatá koruna). All eight bottom-ranked photographs for factor 2 show peat bogs of mountains, foothills as well as the Třeboň

Basin and the mountain plain, hence the places of a proper 'naturalness'. Factor 2 could, thus, be indicated as a factor of cultural-historical prerequisites of tourism (Alhemoud and Armstrong, 1996).

Regression analysis confirmed that an important impact on this factor is performed by a concrete type of tourist, which explains 1/3 of variability ($R = 0.57$, Adjusted squared $R = 0.32$, $p < 0.001$). This result supports the hypothesis 1, because different segments explicitly prefer different parts of 'natural' and cultural elements in the destination. Natural attractions are not present here, contrary to the factor 1, in terms of 'tourist attractions' but in terms of scientifically/landscape interesting (or valuable) areas.

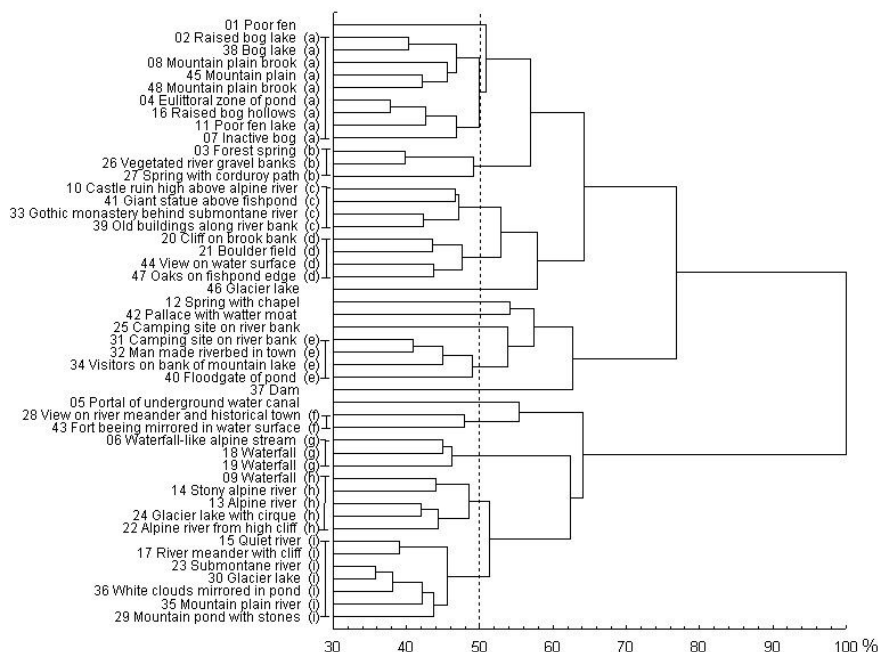
The eight top-ranked photographs for factor 3 show backlit scenes with brightly vanishing lines and freshly green riparian vegetation attended by blue sky with white clouds reflected by water-level. The eight bottom-ranked photographs show pictures of sites with variously disharmonic created landscape scenes, which is disturbed by e.g. unsymmetrical and by-dead-spruces-attended wall of the mountain glacier lake rock basin, by unsymmetrical falling wall of granite massif or by size of boulders in the by-spruce-closed through view of a mountain river. Factor 3 could thus be identified with the harmony of the creating of coastal landscapes, because elements, based on which the groups were differentiated one from the others, are analogical to findings of Gabr (2004). No impact of the model segment on this factor was proved.

Perceived types

Cluster analysis distributed the sites in 9 types (Figure 1): (a) wetlands comprising mountain raised bogs, mountain poor fens, poor fens of the Treboň Basin, eulittoral zone of pond and secondary mountain meadows in the mountain plains; (b) forest springs including analogically looking braided stream with surrounding woodland; (c) historical monuments of a rather marginal character; (d) perspective horizons of various content; (e) technical treatments; (f) historical dominants; (g) waterfalls; (h) alpine (wild) rivers; (i) harmonic landscape dominated by blue sky and lively greening growths. The hypothesis 2 was thus confirmed. In the dendrogram the existence of two groups of attractions is notable. The first groups comprise clusters (a) – (e) and the second one (f) – (i). It is, thus, evident, that on the basic level, the clusters separated analogically to the distribution of photographs based on the first factor of factor analysis. Within the group of clusters (a) – (e) the main scale principle is the degree of human intervention in the water environment –

from ‘natural’ sites through cultural-historical sites up to the dominance of techniques. In case of the second group of clusters (f) – (i), this impact is also evident, but the outstanding impact is that of harmony.

Figure 1 Dendrogram solution from cluster analysis. Letters in brackets after description of photo indicate the 9 selected clusters. The dashed vertical line indicates the lower limit of the similarity criteria employed (0.50).



At five defined groups of attraction was found a different perception of degree of interestingness between ‘mass-tourists’ and ‘eco-tourists’ ($p < 0.05$; Table 5). Also H4 was thus confirmed. This difference is most striking at wetlands, which are a strongly natural element in the mountain and submontane landscape of South Bohemia. For this type of attraction all three model segments are significantly separated – only for ‘eco-tourists’ are the wetlands an attractive type of tourist destination. A contrary difference was noted for cluster (c) – historical monuments of rather marginal character are perceived as interesting for visit only by ‘mass-tourists’. Also sites within cluster (e), technical treatments of

watercourses, are perceived as more attractive by mass tourists, but, even for them, such places are not perceived as interesting to visit. Per contra historical dominants are perceived as interesting to visit for all three clusters, although more significantly so for mass tourists. Harmonic landscapes of the cluster (i) are, likewise, perceived by all model segments as interesting to visit.

Table 5 Mean values ($\pm$ standard error, S.E.) of average attractiveness of clusters (see Figure 1) for model segments. Means with the same letter do not differ significantly (Tukey HSD for unequal N test, $p > 0.05$; N of 'mass tourists' = 77; N of 'neutral tourists' = 71; N of 'eco-tourists' = 37).

	mass-tourists		neutral tourists		eco-tourists	
	mean	S.E.	mean	S.E.	mean	S.E.
cluster a	-0.905 c	0.077	-0.245 b	0.091	0.207 a	0.145
cluster b	-0.437 a	0.099	-0.338 a	0.112	-0.207 a	0.145
cluster c	0.312 a	0.095	-0.344 b	0.084	-0.527 b	0.130
cluster d	-0.039 a	0.078	-0.069 a	0.080	-0.041 a	0.135
cluster e	-0.347 a	0.103	-1.021 b	0.113	-1.358 b	0.142
cluster f	1.429 a	0.144	0.424 b	0.151	0.162 b	0.221
cluster g	1.351 a	0.129	1.690 a	0.118	1.450 a	0.193
cluster h	0.470 a	0.082	0.686 a	0.079	0.595 a	0.113
cluster i	0.160 b	0.070	0.754 a	0.080	0.568 a	0.087

CONCLUSIONS

Different segments visit identical sites but, once there, prefer a different proportion of natural and cultural elements. Management of tourist attractions should meet conditions of sustainable visit rate, i.e. it should promote visits by people who are: informed, conscious of the importance of conservation of a good-class environment and demonstrably respecting of the environment. Promoting of such measures (focused particularly on enlargement of 'wild') is, however, counter to the perception of interestingness by the majority of visitors – in other words these measures decrease satisfaction for these visitors, which could lead to the decrease of visit rate or increase of anti-protection moods resulting in the unfriendly position of tourism activities and actions protecting mountain environment. This state becomes a political topic, particularly in the areas which were once so importantly touristic and so protection

demanding, which the studied area surely is. The organized nature protection is under a permanent pressure of the need for efforts to make accessible new attractive 'natural' areas. It seems to be impossible for the protection of the environment to resist this pressure supported by economic goals of the tourism development. As we have to envisage the future increase of mass tourists and simultaneously we are interested in the conservation of natural heritage and maintenance of a favorable environment in which to live, it is probably vital to seek for a compromise solution. A possible way could be the dissemination of the ideas of sustainable travel and tourism and promotion of journeys to the 'natural' environment. Further research should be dedicated to searching for compromises and also ways of how to change tourists' behavior, 'wants', and perceptions.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We thank Elizabeth George for language revision. We are also grateful to all who participated in this research. Field survey and preparation of this paper was supported from the Czech Science Foundation project GACR 403/09/P053 ‘The typology of tourist's attitudes towards environment, the case of waters in landscape.’

SUBMITTED: MAR 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: NOV 2012

ACCEPTED: DEC 2012

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THE COMPARISON OF SECONDARY AND PRIMARY TOURISM DESTINATION IMAGE: SERVING AS A BRIDGE BETWEEN EXPECTATION AND EXPERIENCE AND GUIDING EFFECTIVE MARKETING AND MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

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The importance of destination image in tourism is undeniable. Both aspects of destination image, secondary and primary, are very important in shaping the overall image. A comparison between them would bridge the tourists' expectations with experience by revealing the exact deviations from the original perception. According to the scientific literature there are scant researches that compare, directly, these two dimensions of the image, using a representative sample from first time visitors. Such a comparison would enrich the limited empirical research on this specific issue. This paper presents the direct comparison, based on empirical research and on representative sample of British first time visitors to the island of Corfu. The members of the sample were given two questionnaires, (total 752 questionnaires) one at the arrival and the other just before the departure. Both questionnaires were completed by the same person and this is an additional value of the study. The research revealed the pragmatic dimensions, indicated the priorities for marketing and management actions and suggested through this comparison a new kind of image.

Keywords: *Tourism destination image, secondary or naïve image, primary or reevaluated image, empirical research, marketing and management regional strategies*

JEL classification codes: M31, M37, R11



INTRODUCTION

Destination image has become a very important issue in the marketing research in the tourism industry, since many countries use promotion and global marketing to support their image and to compete with other destinations (Lin and Huang, 2008, in Kamenidou et al, 2009).

It is considered as a multidimensional concept (Ahmed, 1996, Chen and Tsai, 2007, Echtner and Ritchie, 1993, Gartner and Hunt, 1987, Gunn, 1972) which is related with several disciplines (Draper and Minca, 1997, Gunn, 1972, Meethan, 1996, Sternberg, 1997). Since, the importance of tourism destination image is widely acknowledged a lot of approaches have been presented during the past decades.

Numerous researchers have concentrated on image in relation to tourism marketing functions and aspects. Specifically, some of them relate destination image importance to its effect on demand-side aspects, such as tourism consumer behavior, destination choice and decision making, while others attribute destination image importance to its effect on supply-side aspects, namely, positioning and promotion. Also several researchers have studied tourism destination image as an independent variable and others as a dependent variable (Tasci and Gartner, 2007).

Actually, the majority of researchers focused on the impact on consumer buying behavior (Alhemoud and Armstrong, 1996, Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997, Chen and Hsu, 2000, Chen and Kerstetter, 1999, Crompton, 1979, Dadgostar and Isotalo, 1992, Dann, 1996, Fakeye and Crompton, 1991, Gartner, 1993, Goodrich, 1978, Hunt, 1975, MacKay and Fesenmaier, 1997, Mayo, 1973, Mayo and Jarvis, 1981, Tapachai and Waryszak, 2000, Walmsley and Young, 1998). By comparison, few researchers have underlined its impact on positioning and promotion (Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997, Baloglu and McCleary, 1999, Calantone et al, 1989, Chen and Kerstetter, 1999, Govers and Kumar, 2007, Walmsley and Young, 1998).

And can be concluded that, independently of the approach, image is considered as a vital marketing concept in the tourism industry and it is linked to the success of a tourism destination. Tourism literature, in general, indicates that what a prospective traveler believes or thinks about the natural environment, climate, people, infrastructure, quality of a place, may shape perceptions or images which will contribute, or not, to the selection of this place by the traveler (Vitouladiti, 2003).

Trying to define the term a lot of definitions can be used. Some of the most common definitions are:

Hunt, 1971: Impressions that a person or persons hold about a state in which they do not reside

Crompton, 1979: An image may be defined as the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination

Embacher & Buttle, 1989: Image is comprised of the ideas or conceptions held individually or collectively of the destination under investigation. Image may comprise both cognitive and evaluative components

Kotler & al, 1994: The image of a place is the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person holds of it

Gartner, 1993, 1996: Destination images are developed by three hierarchically interrelated components: cognitive, affective and conative

Parenteau, 1995: Is a favorable or unfavorable prejudice that the audience and distributors have of the product or destination

Moreover, certain studies (Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997, Baloglu and McCleary, 1999a, Baloglu and McCleary, 1999b, Gartner, 1993, Walmsley and Young, 1998) support that image incorporates two interrelated components, cognitive elements, referring to the individual's own knowledge and beliefs about the object and affective elements relating to an individual's feelings towards the object.

SECONDARY OR NAÏVE IMAGE – PRIMARY OR REEVALUATED IMAGE

There are also many typologies concerning the formation of the image. Gartner's (1993) typology is one of the most important and supports that the image is formed by organic, induced and autonomous sources of information. This is basically the image perceived before experiencing a destination, which is called secondary or naïve image (Phelps, 1986). In contrast, the primary or reevaluated image is formed by actually visiting the destination. It is believed that actual visitation creates an image more realistic than that existing prior to visitation (Tasci and Gartner, 2007).

The secondary sources of information play a vital role in forming images (naïve) of the alternative destinations to be considered in the decision making process. Specifically, Mansfeld (1992) underlines that there is a theoretical consensus that the secondary sources fulfill three basic functions in destination choice: minimize the risk of the decision, create the destination's image and serve as a mechanism for later justification of the decision.

At the same time this aspect of the image represents its static element, since it is already formed because is based on information sources. The primary image, in contrast, meaning the experience itself, is considered the most dynamic aspect of the image.

Also, Selby and Morgan (1996) have noted that the possibility of separating naïve from reevaluated images, allows integrated image studies to indicate the priorities for action to a tourism authority and has implications for destination marketing.

The degree of consumer satisfaction will depend on the assessment of the perceived overall experience of the destination versus anticipated expectations and perceptions.

In order to achieve that, a comparison between secondary and primary image must be attempted, which will offer the possibility of measurable deviations from the expectations (secondary image). A fact that will result in revealing the existence and the characteristics of the primary image.

Knowing the content and characteristics of the resulting primary image, leads to effective strategies for tourism destination marketing.

The content and characteristics of the primary image are the elements that:

- Integrate the study of the image
- Determine the action priorities for a tourism marketing and development organization, because they define the competitive advantage, the destination positioning in relation to competition
- Determine the target market's wants and needs concerning the improvement of the tourism supply and the benefits expected from their vacation
- Define the priorities concerning investments and subsidies
- Lead to more effective and successful promotional strategies, since these strategies will incorporate the suggestions and the impressions of the target market
- Feed the information sources of the perspective visitors, meaning the secondary image, with realistic, objective and differentiated pictures. Therefore, they contribute to the image formation circle in the most reliable way. Simultaneously, the secondary image, in this way, becomes much less static.

According to Chon (1991 in Stylidis et al, 2008) the construction of primary images is based on 'push' and 'pull' factors associated with the destination. More precisely, Chon (1989, in Stylidis et al, 2008) relates Maslow's hierarchy of needs with 'push' factors, while 'pull' factors are

described as the attractiveness of a region and its various elements. The 'pull factors' fall into three categories: 1) static factors, which include the natural landscape, the climate, historical and cultural attractions; 2) the dynamic factors, which include accommodation, catering, entertainment, access, political conditions and trends in tourism; and 3) current decision factors, which include the marketing of the region and prices in the destination, as well as in the country of the origin (Witt and Moutinho, 1995, in Styliadis et al, 2008)

From an extensive literature review, results that there are no empirical findings that focus on the results of such a comparison, which define primary image's characteristics and demonstrate possible differences and modifications from the secondary.

The statements expressed in the relative literature are, mostly, theoretical, concerning opinions and thoughts. Fakeye and Crompton, (1991) underline that there is no agreement among the researchers for the impact of the visit to the secondary image. Also, they supported that there must be some disconnect between what the destination projects in its promotional and marketing efforts and the actual delivery of products and services. This implies the importance of finding any measurable deviations from secondary in order to avoid in the long run unrealistic expectations and disappointment.

Additionally, Baloglu and McCleary, (1999) support that the primary image could differ from the secondary. Moreover, other authors (Gartner and Hunt, 1987, Pearce, 1982, Phelps, 1986) support that the primary image tends to be different from the secondary. But, Echtner and Ritchie (2003), are among those who support that the visit will affect and modify the secondary image through the "first hand" information and acquired experience.

Also, Beerli and Martin (2004) underline that despite the fact that there is no empirical evidence to demonstrate directly that the acquired experience affects the perceived image, this variable (experience) presents, till now, an extensive and growing research interest, since is considered a very good index of the tourist needs, motivation, satisfaction and tourism market segmentation.

A comparative study between the secondary and primary image's variables, by carrying out empirical research is the only way to test the existence of the primary image and to prove the benefits for tourism development and marketing.

However, the existence of a primary and modified image has a prerequisite, the impact of the visit and the experience over the already

formed secondary image. Specifically, the visit should be able to change and modify any preexisting image, already formed through promotional activities and without the interference of the actual visit.

The authorities responsible for tourism development should know the difference between those two images and must use marketing tools to “shape” the image which will have a positive effect on the purchasing behavior of the potential tourists (Vitouladiti, 2000).

PREVIOUS RESEARCH APPROACHES AND POSSIBILITIES FOR ADDITIONAL PERSPECTIVES

The previous studies, concerning tourism destination image, that have been presented in various journals are actually incorporated and listed in the very detailed study by Gallarza, Saura and Garcia (2002). From this study results that the existing approaches and the topics covered by various authors, include:

Conceptualization and dimensions, destination image formation process, assessment and measurement of destination image, influence of distance on destination image, destination image change over time, active and passive role of residents in image study, destination image management policies (positioning, promotion).

Later studies have covered additional approaches concerning tourism destination image as perceived by distribution channels, tour operators and travel agents, (Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001) and tourism destination image in relation to the buying behavior (Tapachai and Waryszak, 2000, Hyounggon and Richardson, 2003, Lee, Lee and Lee, 2005, Chi and Qu, 2007, Chen and Chai, 2007).

Through the extensive literature review results that researches which could give the primary image's characteristics and demonstrate possible modifications in relation to the secondary image, based on representative sample are very scarce. Specifically, there are no researches where the respondent who evaluates the secondary and the primary image is the same person. This points to insufficient research concerning the incorporation and the comparison of the two kinds of image. There are limited empirical findings showing if and where exist modifications and differences between the two kinds of image, or useful information for tourism supply improvements or guidance for tourism policy planning.

Therefore, the following research questions are raised:

- What are the characteristics of the primary image?
- Differ from those of the secondary? If yes where do these differ?

- If there are differences which attributes do these concern?
- Which attributes/variables are modified and in what way?
- Are these potential modifications significant?
- Which elements of the image are mostly modified? The cognitive or the affective ones?
- Which are modified positively or negatively?

Objectives of the research paper

Consequently, the objectives of the paper are to compare the two images, on the basis of several sets of variables, by capturing firstly, the naïve and secondly, the primary image, as perceived by the first time visitor, who is the same person that evaluates the two images. To correlate directly these two aspects through statistical analysis and study the results. Finally, to propose marketing and management implications.

Development of Hypotheses A, A1, A2, A3, B, B4, B5, B6, C, C7, C8, C9

In order to cover this lack in the field of image research the development and test of certain hypotheses is necessary. Based on the above the following hypotheses are set:

The visitors of the destinations are the several target markets with their demographic characteristics. The target markets are the people whose characteristics filter the information from the organic and induced sources (secondary image) and also, interpret the experience acquired in the destination (primary image). Therefore, their characteristics, such as gender, age, income and education level are taken into account (Tasci and Gartner, 2007). Nevertheless, Litvin and Kar (2003) discount the value of demographics. Additionally, Hunt (1975) supports the possible systematic exclusion of certain subgroups when selecting research sample populations. Dunn (1996), says that no two people see a destination in exactly the same way.

Therefore, in this study the analysis will be presented firstly, by taking into account the total sample size and secondly, the sub segments of the sample divided by their age, education and income level criteria.

So, the general statement of the hypothesis to test is: "The visit modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image regarding the total supply of the destination. The demographic characteristics of the

target market contribute to the modification of this image.” Analytically, the research hypotheses to test are presented below.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research design and survey sites

In order to achieve the targets of the study, it was necessary to carry out primary quantitative research. The complexity of the issue, the lack of integrated previous research, the comparison of the secondary image variables with the ones of the primary image, demanded the quantitative approach. The implementation of the research and the collection of the primary data was decided to take place in the tourism destination of Corfu island. This destination could be considered as a miniature of Greek tourism. Also, it is a traditional destination for the British target market. So, the nationality of the sampling population was decided to be British, since they represent one of the two basic target markets of Corfu and Greece in general.

Sampling and data collection

The study needed a representative sample from the population of its main tourism generating country. Therefore, it was essential that the sample should not be chosen by convenience.

The main subject of the research, namely the study of the primary image in relation to the secondary, demanded one prerequisite from the sampling population: that of the first time visit in the island. Therefore, all the members of the sample are first time visitors.

The sample was decided to be stratified, because is probability sample and more representative. The island is divided into three areas, North, Central and South. Each area has all categories of hotels and accommodation. Since the boundaries of the areas were known, they were defined as strata. In everyone of these strata, accommodation of every category was chosen by random sampling. The members of the sample (British first time visitors) were also chosen by random sampling in all the selected hotels and accommodation types.

Each member of the sample was given a questionnaire upon arrival in order to be completed at the first day of their stay, and at the same member of the sample was given a second questionnaire to be completed at the day of their departure. Therefore, both questionnaires were completed by the same member of the sample. The naïve or secondary

image was recorded through the first questionnaire, while the primary or reevaluated image was captured by the second questionnaire. Therefore, the comparison of the two images and the variables analysis could offer the answers to the questions, objectives and hypotheses of the research.

Sample size

The final sample size obtained was 376 British tourists/first time visitors. This sample size ($n=376$) gives a statistical error ($e \approx 5\%$).

Level of significance $\alpha=0,05$

Level of confidence 95%

This sample size and statistical error could permit the generalisation of the results.

Since the members of the sample completed two questionnaires from these respondents resulted 752 questionnaires (questionnaire A and questionnaire B with the same serial number) completed by the same person.

Questionnaire design and content

The questionnaires were structured and self administrated. Their content was decided after studying the most common attributes used in destination image research as displayed in detail by Gallarza, Saura and Garcia (2002). Through a careful observation of the most common attributes results that the most common variables are these which are related with the receptiveness of the local population, cultural and natural attractions, entertainment, landscape, prices, cuisine, accommodation, nature, climate, access, safety, transportation, various activities, social interaction and service quality.

All these variables, analyzed and adapted to the specific destination, were the basis for the analytical formation of the hypotheses, as well as, the construction of the questionnaire. Great efforts were made to formulate a survey instrument which would help to eliminate any possible bias resulting from the wording, the layout, the sequence of questions or the intervention of the interviewer.

The questionnaires comprise closed-end and open-end questions. The closed-end questions had a five-point rating scale. All the rating scales were labeled. It was thought that in the interest of the questionnaires length and understanding the five-point label scales would be the appropriate choice. For the statistical analysis and the interpretation of the

results the five-point scale of the questions was coded from 5 to 1, considering 5 the best and 1 the worse rating, meaning the higher the better (5=very good, 4=good, 3=neither good nor bad, 2= poor, 1=very poor).

Questionnaire A, contains the introductory part that is about the name and the category of the accommodation, the filter question which checks that the respondent is a first time visitor, the duration of stay, frequency of travel during the last five years.

Also, contains the main part which incorporates all the variables that, through the extensive literature review, were indicated as the most common in measuring the tourism destination image, so it contains questions about variables dealing with local population receptiveness, impressiveness of landscape, physical and historical environment and recreational attractions. Moreover, a list of variables (19) were used in order to assess the perceived degree of their possession by the specific destination. These variables concern almost all the attributes which are listed in the relative studies.

The final part was designed to obtain demographic data from the respondents in order to be used in the interpretation of the results and provide background information on these respondents.

The questionnaire B comprises two parts. Since it is completed by the same respondent does not contain again the introductory part nor the demographic questions. Therefore, it incorporates the main part with the identical questions, in order to be used for the comparison between secondary and primary image.

This paper apart from the introductory and the demographic questions focuses on the identical parts of both questionnaires in order to present, in the following section, the comparison and the test for the hypotheses.

Profile and description of the sample

Female respondents represented 57%, or 216 persons, male respondents represented 43%, or 160 persons out of a total of 376.

Concerning age categories, 44% of the sample is between the ages of 35 and 54 years. These ages have increased opportunities for tourist mobility and therefore increased travel experience. The other age categories have a balanced representation with 27% for the 18 - 34 age group and 29% for the 55+ group.

The income brackets “>£20.000” and “£20.000 - £40.000” represent 36% and 41% respectively. Their percentages are elevated compared to

the income bracket of “£40.000+”. This reassures the reliability of the sampling method, since it is known that the British visitors to Corfu belong to the average incomes.

The duration of stay for the 50, 5% of the sample is at least one week. While the duration of stay for the 39, 4% is two weeks. This is a positive element in relation to the subject of the study, because it proves that the sample population had considerable experience of the destination.

The 62, 2% of the respondents have traveled from 5 to 10 times during the last 5 years. This element indicates that the sample consists of experienced tourists that can recognize and judge the characteristics of a destination. Another positive element in relation to the subject of this research paper.

Research Hypotheses A, A1, A2, A3, B, B4, B5, B6, C, C7, C8, C9. Analytical statistical test

For the test of the following hypotheses the study focused on the comparison of the means, t-test, p-value, CI 95% (Confidence Interval), 2-tailed test.

A. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the attractions of the tourism destination.

The image of the attractions consists of 9 variables, therefore the above hypothesis is divided at an equal number of partial hypotheses. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences, the level of significance, α , is 0,05. The general form of hypotheses is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 H_0 : \mu_{D_i} = 0 & \mu_{D_i} = \mu_{iS} - \mu_{iP} \\
 \text{vs} & , \text{where } i=1, \dots, 9 \text{ attractions} \\
 H_1 : \mu_{D_i} \neq 0 &
 \end{array}$$

S: Secondary image, P:Primary image

Statistically important modification of at least one of the 9 variables means statistically important modification of the secondary image for the attractions.

A1. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the attractions of the tourism destination. The age contributes to the modification of this image.

There are hypotheses for every age category. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences, the level of significance, α , is 0,05. The general form of hypotheses is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} H_0 : & \mu_{D_{ij}} = 0 \\ & \text{vs} \\ H_1 : & \mu_{D_{ij}} \neq 0 \end{array} \quad , \text{where} \quad \begin{array}{l} \mu_{D_{ij}} = \mu_{ijS} - \mu_{ijP} \\ i=1,...,9 \text{ attractions} \\ j=1: \text{under } 34, 2: 35 - 54 \\ 3: 55+ \end{array}$$

S: Secondary image, P:Primary image

A2. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the attractions of the tourism destination. The income contributes to the modification of this image.

There are hypotheses for every income category. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences, the level of significance, α , is 0,05. The general form of hypotheses is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} H_0 : & \mu_{D_{ij}} = 0 \\ & \text{vs} \\ H_1 : & \mu_{D_{ij}} \neq 0 \end{array} \quad , \text{where} \quad \begin{array}{l} \mu_{D_{ij}} = \mu_{ijS} - \mu_{ijP} \\ i=1,...,9 \text{ attractions} \\ j=1: \text{under } 20.000 \text{ GBP}, \\ 2: 20.000 - 40.000\text{GBP}, \\ 3: 40.001 + \text{ GBP} \end{array}$$

S: Secondary image, P:Primary image

A3. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the attractions of the tourism destination. The education level contributes to the modification of this image.

There are hypotheses for every income category. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences, the level of significance, α , is 0,05. The general form of hypotheses is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} H_0 : & \mu_{D_{ij}} = 0 \\ & \text{vs} \\ H_1 : & \mu_{D_{ij}} \neq 0 \end{array} \quad , \text{where} \quad \begin{array}{l} \mu_{D_{ij}} = \mu_{ijS} - \mu_{ijP} \\ i=1,...,9 \text{ attractions} \end{array}$$

$$H_1: \mu_{D_j} \neq 0$$

*j=1:Secondary/Technical,
 2:Higher technical
 3: University*

S: Secondary image, P:Primary image

B. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the local population of the tourism destination.

The image for the local population consists of one variable. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences, the level of significance, α , is 0,05. The general form of hypothesis is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} H_0: \mu_{D_i} = 0 & \mu_D = \mu_S - \mu_P \\ \text{vs} & , \text{where} \\ H_1: \mu_{D_i} \neq 0 & \end{array}$$

S: Secondary image, P:Primary image

B4. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the local population of the tourism destination. The age contributes to the modification of this image.

There are hypotheses for every age category. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences, the level of significance, α , is 0,05. The general form of hypotheses is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} H_0: \mu_{D_j} = 0 & \mu_{D_j} = \mu_{jS} - \mu_{jP} \\ \text{vs} & , \text{where } j=1: \text{under } 34, 2: 35 - 54, \\ & 3: 55+ \\ H_1: \mu_{D_j} \neq 0 & \end{array}$$

S: Secondary image, P:Primary image

B5. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the local population of the tourism destination. The income contributes to the modification of this image.

There are hypotheses for every income category. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences, the level of significance, α , is 0,05. The general form of hypotheses is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 : \mu_{D_j} &= 0 & \mu_{D_j} &= \mu_{jS} - \mu_{jP} \\ \text{vs} & & \text{,where} & \\ H_1 : \mu_{D_j} &\neq 0 & j=1: \text{under 20.000 GBP,} \\ & & 2: 20.000- 40.000 \text{ GBP,} \\ & & 3: 40.001 + \text{ GBP} \end{aligned}$$

S: Secondary image, P:Primary image

B6. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the local population of the tourism destination. The education level contributes to the modification of this image.

There are hypotheses for every education level category. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences, the level of significance, α , is 0,05. The general form of hypotheses is as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 : \mu_{D_j} &= 0 & \mu_{D_j} &= \mu_{jS} - \mu_{jP} \\ \text{vs} & & \text{,where} & j=1:\text{Secondary/Technical,} \\ & & & 2:\text{Higher technical} \\ & & & 3: \text{University} \\ H_1 : \mu_{D_j} &\neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

S: Secondary image, P:Primary image

C. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the infrastructure and superstructure, facilities and total supply of the tourism destination.

The image for the infrastructure and superstructure, facilities and total supply consists of 19 variables. Therefore the above hypothesis is divided to equal number of partial hypotheses. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences and the level of significance, α , is 0,05. The general form of hypotheses is:

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 H_0 : & \mu_{D_i} = 0 \\
 \text{vs} & \mu_{D_i} = \mu_{iS} - \mu_{iP} \\
 & , \text{where } i=1, \dots, 19 \text{ infrastructure-} \\
 & \text{superstructure} \\
 H_1 : & \mu_{D_i} \neq 0
 \end{array}$$

S: Secondary image, P:Primary image

C7. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the infrastructure and superstructure, facilities and total supply of the tourism destination. The age contributes to the modification of this image.

There are hypotheses for every age category. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences, the level of significance, α , is 0,05. The general form of hypotheses is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 H_0 : & \mu_{D_{ij}} = 0 \\
 \text{vs} & \mu_{D_{ij}} = \mu_{ijS} - \mu_{ijP} \\
 & , \text{where } i=1, \dots, 19 \text{ infrastructure-} \\
 & \text{superstructure} \\
 H_1 : & \mu_{D_{ij}} \neq 0
 \end{array}$$

S: Secondary image, P:Primary image

C8. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the infrastructure and superstructure, facilities and total supply of the tourism destination. The income contributes to the modification of this image.

There are hypotheses for every income category. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences, the level of significance, α , is 0,05. The general form of hypotheses is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 H_0 : & \mu_{D_{ij}} = 0 \\
 \text{vs} & \mu_{D_{ij}} = \mu_{ijS} - \mu_{ijP} \\
 & , \text{where } i=1, \dots, 19 \text{ infrastructure-} \\
 & \text{superstructure}
 \end{array}$$

$$H_1: \mu_{D_{ij}} \neq 0 \quad \begin{array}{l} j=1: \text{under 20.000 GBP,} \\ 2: 20.000- 40.000 \text{ GBP,} \\ 3: 40.001 + \text{ GBP} \end{array}$$

S: Secondary image, P:Primary image

C9. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the infrastructure and superstructure, facilities and total supply of the tourism destination. The education level contributes to the modification of this image.

There are hypotheses for every education level category. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences, the level of significance, α , is 0,05. The general form of hypotheses is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ll} H_0: \mu_{D_{ij}} = 0 & \mu_{D_{ij}} = \mu_{ijS} - \mu_{ijP} \\ \text{vs} & , \text{where } i=1,...,19 \text{ infrastructure -} \\ & \text{superstructure} \\ H_1: \mu_{D_{ij}} \neq 0 & \begin{array}{l} j=1: \text{Secondary/Technical,} \\ 2: \text{Higher technical} \\ 3: \text{University} \end{array} \end{array}$$

S: Secondary image, P:Primary image

Hypotheses test A to C9. Application of statistical analysis

Table 1 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis A

	secondary	primary	primary - secondary	
	mean	mean	Mean Diff	<i>p-value</i>
Corfu town	3,78	4,03	0,24	0,00
Villages	3,73	3,81	0,08	0,05
Historical areas	3,69	3,79	0,10	0,02
Beaches	3,78	3,73	-0,05	0,23
Physical environment	3,84	3,87	0,03	0,47
The sea	4,25	4,35	0,10	0,01
Mountains and Hills	4,23	4,35	0,12	0,00
Corfu countryside	3,91	3,98	0,07	0,11
Fields	3,27	3,24	-0,02	0,55

Table 2 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis A1

			Corfu town	Villages	Historical areas	Beaches	Physical environment	The sea	Mountains and Hills	Corfu countryside	Fields
under 34	second ary	Mean	3,77	3,63	3,51	3,79	3,93	4,25	4,27	3,85	3,37
	primary	Mean	4,02	3,75	3,64	3,74	4,03	4,29	4,37	3,94	3,19
	diff	Mean	0,26	0,11	0,13	-0,05	0,10	0,04	0,10	0,09	-0,18
		p-value	0,00	0,12	0,12	0,54	0,21	0,55	0,21	0,34	0,02
35 - 54	second ary	Mean	3,69	3,69	3,75	3,81	3,81	4,25	4,23	3,91	3,23
	primary	Mean	3,93	3,78	3,77	3,75	3,83	4,39	4,31	3,96	3,26
	diff	Mean	0,22	0,08	0,02	-0,06	0,02	0,14	0,07	0,05	0,03
		p-value	0,00	0,24	0,77	0,42	0,81	0,02	0,23	0,41	0,61
55+	second ary	Mean	3,93	3,87	3,78	3,73	3,81	4,25	4,19	3,97	3,23
	primary	Mean	4,19	3,90	3,96	3,68	3,80	4,33	4,41	4,05	3,25
	diff	Mean	0,28	0,06	0,20	-0,05	-0,01	0,07	0,22	0,07	0,04
		p-value	0,00	0,46	0,01	0,54	0,90	0,28	0,00	0,28	0,64

Table 3 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis A2

			Corfu town	Villages	Historical areas	Beaches	Physical environment	The sea	Mountains and Hills	Corfu countryside	Fields
under 20000	secondary	Mean	3,87	3,83	3,79	3,96	3,93	4,31	4,35	3,98	3,31
	primary	Mean	4,19	3,93	3,88	3,94	4,00	4,41	4,43	4,07	3,33
	diff	Mean	0,31	0,10	0,10	-0,02	0,07	0,10	0,08	0,09	0,01
		p-value	0,00	0,15	0,17	0,74	0,29	0,08	0,21	0,21	0,82
20000-40000	secondary	Mean	3,70	3,63	3,68	3,64	3,78	4,19	4,18	3,85	3,21
	primary	Mean	3,92	3,73	3,78	3,55	3,81	4,32	4,28	3,90	3,11
	diff	Mean	0,22	0,10	0,10	-0,09	0,03	0,13	0,10	0,05	-0,10
		p-value	0,00	0,12	0,13	0,20	0,60	0,01	0,08	0,39	0,07
40000+	secondary	Mean	3,78	3,76	3,55	3,73	3,81	4,28	4,13	3,92	3,29
	primary	Mean	3,96	3,73	3,67	3,70	3,78	4,29	4,37	3,98	3,34
	diff	Mean	0,18	0,01	0,12	-0,04	-0,02	0,01	0,24	0,06	0,06
		p-value	0,08	0,89	0,21	0,74	0,85	0,91	0,01	0,56	0,56

Table 4 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis B

	secondary	primary	primary - secondary	
	mean	mean	Mean Diff	p-value
receptiveness	4,36	4,50	0,15	0,00

Table 5 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis B4

Receptiveness			
under 34	secondary	Mean	4,29
	primary	Mean	4,51
	diff	Mean	0,21
		p-value	0,01
35 - 54	secondary	Mean	4,31
	primary	Mean	4,51
	diff	Mean	0,21
		p-value	0,00
55+	secondary	Mean	4,49
	primary	Mean	4,48
	diff	Mean	-0,01
		p-value	0,91

Table 6 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis B5

Receptiveness			
under 20000	secondary	Mean	4,35
	primary	Mean	4,53
	diff	Mean	0,18
		p-value	0,01
20000-40000	secondary	Mean	4,37
	primary	Mean	4,49
	diff	Mean	0,12
		p-value	0,07
40000+	secondary	Mean	4,35
	primary	Mean	4,49
	diff	Mean	0,14
		p-value	0,12

Table 7 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis B6

Receptiveness			
Secondary/ Technical	secondary	Mean	4,30
	primary	Mean	4,40
	diff	Mean p-value	0,10 0,14
Higher technical//	secondary	Mean	4,44
	primary	Mean	4,52
	diff	Mean p-value	0,08 0,25
University	secondary	Mean	4,33
	primary	Mean	4,61
	diff	Mean p-value	0,28 0,00

Table 8 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis C

	secondary	primary	primary - secondary	
	mean	mean	Mean Diff	<i>p-value</i>
accommodation	4,27	4,22	-0,05	0,25
prestige	3,64	3,66	0,02	0,61
cuisine	4,22	4,22	0,01	0,89
friendships	3,48	3,77	0,28	0,00
personnel	4,30	4,31	0,00	0,95
cleanliness	4,34	4,01	-0,33	0,00
new/different	4,13	4,04	-0,09	0,03
sport facilities	3,70	3,78	0,08	0,08
entertainment	3,92	3,82	-0,11	0,03
safety	4,21	3,80	-0,41	0,00
unspoiled environment	4,06	3,88	-0,18	0,00
fun	3,82	3,72	-0,10	0,03
historical attractions	3,92	3,82	-0,10	0,01
natural beauty	4,26	4,27	0,02	0,70
relaxing	4,49	4,50	0,01	0,77
prices	4,24	4,02	-0,22	0,00
adventure	3,61	3,62	0,01	0,75
escape routine	4,49	4,51	0,02	0,56
sunbathing	4,22	4,35	0,13	0,00

Table 9 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis C7

			Accommodation	Prestige	Cuisine	Friendships	Personnel	Cleanliness	New/different	Sport facilities	Entertainment	Safety	Unspoiled environment	Fun	Historical attractions	natural beauty	Relaxing	Prices	Adventure	Escape routine	Sunbathing
under 34	secondary	Mean	4,20	3,59	4,26	3,55	4,23	4,34	4,09	3,84	4,23	4,26	4,11	4,07	3,86	4,22	4,49	4,24	3,76	4,48	4,40
	primary	Mean	4,28	3,64	4,34	3,76	4,32	3,94	3,98	3,84	4,06	3,90	3,97	3,95	3,74	4,19	4,48	4,12	3,69	4,58	4,59
	diff	Mean	0,08	0,05	0,08	0,21	0,09	-0,40	-0,11	0,00	-0,17	-0,36	-0,14	-0,12	-0,12	-0,03	-0,01	-0,12	-0,07	0,09	0,18
		p-value	0,25	0,49	0,28	0,01	0,22	0,00	0,23	1,00	0,08	0,00	0,07	0,13	0,13	0,72	0,89	0,24	0,43	0,19	0,02
35 - 54	secondary	Mean	4,25	3,68	4,25	3,43	4,32	4,36	4,10	3,66	3,86	4,20	4,02	3,81	3,86	4,21	4,46	4,23	3,63	4,51	4,20
	primary	Mean	4,20	3,75	4,17	3,80	4,28	4,07	4,05	3,78	3,78	3,90	3,85	3,74	3,83	4,24	4,53	3,97	3,64	4,53	4,36
	diff	Mean	-0,05	0,07	-0,07	0,37	-0,05	-0,29	-0,05	0,11	-0,08	-0,31	-0,17	-0,07	-0,03	0,03	0,07	-0,26	0,01	0,02	0,16
		p-value	0,40	0,29	0,21	0,00	0,43	0,00	0,47	0,08	0,29	0,00	0,03	0,30	0,65	0,62	0,16	0,00	0,85	0,76	0,02
55+	secondary	Mean	4,35	3,62	4,13	3,52	4,34	4,31	4,23	3,63	3,74	4,17	4,07	3,62	4,06	4,36	4,53	4,26	3,45	4,47	4,08
	primary	Mean	4,20	3,55	4,18	3,73	4,34	3,99	4,08	3,72	3,65	3,55	3,83	3,50	3,87	4,40	4,46	4,01	3,54	4,44	4,12
	diff	Mean	-0,15	-0,07	0,05	0,21	0,00	-0,32	-0,15	0,10	-0,09	-0,63	-0,25	-0,12	-0,19	0,04	-0,06	-0,25	0,09	-0,04	0,04
		p-value	0,06	0,37	0,51	0,01	1,00	0,00	0,05	0,21	0,29	0,00	0,01	0,18	0,00	0,62	0,39	0,01	0,23	0,55	0,63

Table 10 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis C8

			acomodation	prestige	cuisine	friendships	persomel	cleanliness	new/different	sport facilities	entertainment	safety	unspoiled environment	fun	historical attractions	natural beauty	relaxing	prices	adventure	escape routine	sunbathing	
under 20000	seconda ry	Mean	4,29	3,76	4,30	3,68	4,34	4,38	4,18	3,72	4,09	4,41	4,20	4,02	3,99	4,23	4,56	4,39	3,73	4,49	4,31	
	primary	Mean	4,29	3,82	4,35	3,85	4,41	4,06	4,15	3,80	3,99	3,91	3,99	3,97	3,92	4,36	4,54	4,22	3,74	4,53	4,45	
	diff	Mean	0,00	0,07	0,05	0,18	0,07	-0,32	-0,02	0,08	-0,10	-0,50	-0,21	-0,05	-0,07	0,12	-0,02	-0,17	0,01	0,04	0,14	
		p-value	1,00	0,27	0,44	0,02	0,31	0,00	0,76	0,30	0,21	0,00	0,00	0,45	0,28	0,08	0,69	0,03	0,84	0,46	0,03	
	20000-40000	seconda ry	Mean	4,28	3,54	4,19	3,40	4,26	4,39	4,06	3,67	3,83	4,17	4,03	3,78	3,92	4,31	4,51	4,19	3,54	4,56	4,22
primary		Mean	4,24	3,54	4,13	3,75	4,22	3,99	4,04	3,76	3,71	3,79	3,80	3,58	3,80	4,26	4,49	3,92	3,53	4,52	4,33	
diff		Mean	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		p-value	0,03	0,01	-0,06	0,35	-0,04	-0,40	-0,03	0,08	-0,13	-0,38	-0,23	-0,19	-0,12	-0,04	-0,02	-0,26	-0,01	-0,04	0,10	
40000+		seconda ry	Mean	4,22	3,61	4,13	3,33	4,31	4,18	4,19	3,72	3,81	3,95	3,87	3,58	3,80	4,20	4,33	4,11	3,53	4,36	4,07
	primary	Mean	4,07	3,61	4,18	3,65	4,29	3,99	3,86	3,79	3,73	3,60	3,82	3,58	3,69	4,16	4,45	3,88	3,59	4,47	4,23	
	diff	Mean	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		p-value	0,14	0,00	0,05	0,33	-0,02	-0,19	-0,34	0,07	-0,07	-0,35	-0,05	0,00	-0,11	-0,05	0,12	-0,23	0,06	0,11	0,16	
				0,08	1,00	0,57	0,00	0,77	0,07	0,00	0,45	0,48	0,00	0,67	1,00	0,27	0,58	0,18	0,04	0,51	0,17	0,09

Table 11 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis C9

			acco mod atio n	prest ige	cuisi ne	frien dshi ps	pers onne l	clean lines s	new/ diffe rent	sport facili ties	enter tain ment	safet y	unsp oiled envir onment	fun	histo rical attra ction s	natu ral beau ty	relax ing	price s	adve nture	esca pe routi ne	sunb athin g
Secondary/ Technical	secon dary	Mean	4,31	3,78	4,18	3,61	4,33	4,36	4,07	3,62	3,88	4,38	4,14	3,84	3,87	4,17	4,50	4,31	3,55	4,48	4,17
	prima ry	Mean	4,25	3,72	4,18	3,92	4,31	3,96	4,02	3,78	3,87	3,86	3,93	3,77	3,89	4,29	4,49	4,09	3,69	4,47	4,28
	diff	Mean	0,06	-0,06	0,00	0,31	-0,01	-0,40	-0,05	0,16	-0,01	-0,52	-0,21	-0,07	0,02	0,11	-0,01	-0,22	0,14	-0,01	0,11
		p- value	0,38	0,36	1,00	0,00	0,83	0,00	0,47	0,03	0,93	0,00	0,01	0,36	0,73	0,08	0,88	0,01	0,05	0,90	0,16
Higher technical/	secon dary	Mean	4,20	3,60	4,24	3,43	4,29	4,28	4,16	3,70	3,96	4,17	3,98	3,78	3,93	4,21	4,48	4,27	3,65	4,48	4,29
	prima ry	Mean	4,10	3,63	4,17	3,79	4,23	3,98	3,98	3,74	3,77	3,70	3,75	3,65	3,78	4,20	4,45	3,90	3,56	4,46	4,38
	diff	Mean	0,10	0,04	-0,07	0,37	-0,06	-0,30	-0,18	0,04	-0,19	-0,47	-0,22	-0,13	-0,15	-0,02	-0,02	-0,37	-0,10	-0,02	0,09
		p- value	0,14	0,60	0,30	0,00	0,45	0,00	0,02	0,62	0,02	0,00	0,01	0,11	0,05	0,84	0,75	0,00	0,22	0,81	0,18
University	secon dary	Mean	4,30	3,51	4,24	3,39	4,29	4,38	4,18	3,80	3,94	4,05	4,05	3,85	3,97	4,42	4,48	4,13	3,64	4,53	4,20
	prima ry	Mean	4,34	3,61	4,34	3,54	4,38	4,12	4,13	3,83	3,80	3,83	3,95	3,75	3,77	4,35	4,55	4,08	3,62	4,63	4,40
		Mean	0,72	0,96	0,76	0,88	0,64	0,86	0,84	0,87	0,92	0,98	0,95	0,81	0,81	0,73	0,60	0,91	0,74	0,57	0,88
	diff	Mean	0,04	0,10	0,10	0,15	0,09	-0,26	-0,05	0,03	-0,14	-0,22	-0,10	-0,10	-0,20	-0,07	0,07	-0,05	-0,02	0,10	0,20
		p- value	0,61	0,21	0,15	0,09	0,20	0,00	0,52	0,75	0,12	0,02	0,26	0,21	0,01	0,27	0,30	0,61	0,80	0,14	0,01

Remarks

A careful observation of the above tables reveals that there are modifications, without exception, in all variables of the image. The relative numbers in the tables display the difference of all the means between the secondary and the primary image. However, for research reliability purposes and accuracy of the findings we will analyse the statistically important modifications ($p < 0,05$) of various variables. Important modification of at least one variable among all, means an important modification for the secondary overall image. The above modifications, positive or negative, are presented in the following section.

Findings

Attractions

Table 12 Findings – Hypothesis A

Total size of sample	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
• Corfu Town • Villages • Historical areas • The sea • Mountains and Hills	

Table 13 Findings – Hypothesis A1

According to the demographic characteristic: age	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
<i>Under 34</i>	
• Corfu Town	• Fields
<i>35 – 54</i>	
• Corfu Town • The sea	

55 + • Corfu Town • Historical areas • Mountains and Hills	
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Table 14 Findings - Hypothesis A2

According to the demographic characteristic: income	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
<i>Under 20.000€</i> • Corfu Town	
<i>20.000 – 40.000€</i> • Corfu Town • The sea	
<i>40.000€ +</i> • Corfu Town • Mountains and Hills	

Table 15 Findings - Hypothesis A3

According to the demographic characteristic: education level	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
<i>Secondary/Technical</i> • Corfu Town	
<i>Higher technical</i> • Corfu Town • Villages • Historical areas • The sea • Mountains and Hills	
<i>University</i> • Corfu Town	

Support of hypotheses A, A1, A2, A3 - Conclusions

The analysis of the data proved that the visit, for the first time visitors, modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for the attractions. Important modifications are observed at the total size of the sample as well as at the categories of age, income and education.

Specifically, concerning the total size of the sample, important positive modification is observed in 5 attractions and not one negative modification. Regarding the modifications in the categories of age, income and education level the number of the variables which have important modifications varies. For example, more modifications are observed among higher age groups, while the most of the modifications are observed in the educational category “higher technical”. Moreover, it is underlined that the majority of the variables presents several important modifications within the frame of the hypothesis A, A1, A2 and A3, while the physical environment and Corfu countryside remain unchanged. Finally, the visit affects positively several elements of the attractions image and negatively just one element.

Local population

Table 16 Findings - Hypothesis B

Total size of the sample	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
• Receptiveness	

Table 17 Findings - Hypothesis B4

According to the demographic characteristic: age	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
Under 34	
• Receptiveness	
35 – 54	
• Receptiveness	
55 +	
No modification	

Table 18 Findings - Hypothesis B5

According to the demographic characteristic: income	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
<i>Under 20.000£</i> • Receptiveness	
<i>20.000 – 40.000£</i> • Receptiveness	
<i>40.000£ +</i> No modification	

Table 19 Findings - Hypothesis B6

According to the demographic characteristic: education level	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
<i>Secondary/ Technical</i> No modification	
<i>Higher technical</i> No modification	
<i>University</i> • Receptiveness	

Support of hypotheses B, B4, B5, B6 - Conclusions

The analysis of the data proved that the visit, for the first time visitors modifies significantly the variables of the secondary image concerning the receptiveness of the local population.

Significant modifications are observed at the total size of the sample as well as at the demographic categories of age, income and education. In all cases the modification is positive.

Infrastructure-superstructure, facilities, tourism supply

Table 20 Findings – Hypothesis C

Total size of the sample	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
• Developing friendships • Sunbathing in the beach and doing nothing	• Cleanliness of sea and beaches • New place/different culture

	• Availability of entertainment • Safety • Unspoiled physical environment • Having fun being entertained • Historical and cultural attractions • Prices
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Table 21 Findings – Hypothesis C7

According to the demographic characteristic: age	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
<i>Under 34</i> • Developing friendships • Sunbathing in the beach and doing nothing	• Cleanliness of sea and beaches • Safety
<i>35 – 54</i> • Developing friendships • Sunbathing in the beach and doing nothing	• Cleanliness of sea and beaches • Safety • Unspoiled physical environment • Prices
<i>55 +</i> • Developing friendships	• Accommodation • Cleanliness of sea and beaches • New place/different culture • Safety • Unspoiled physical environment • Historical and cultural attractions • Prices

Table 22 Findings – Hypothesis C8

According to the demographic characteristic: income	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
<i>Under 20.000£</i> • Developing friendships • Sunbathing in the beach and doing nothing	• Cleanliness of sea and beaches • Safety • Unspoiled physical environment • Prices
<i>20.000 – 40.000£</i> • Developing friendships	• Cleanliness of sea and beaches • Safety • Unspoiled physical environment • Having fun being entertained • Historical and cultural attractions
<i>40.000£ +</i> • Developing friendships	• New place/different culture • Safety • Prices

Table 23 Findings – Hypothesis C9

According to the demographic characteristic: education level	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
<i>Secondary/Technical</i> • Developing friendships • Availability of facilities for sports and activities • Being adventurous/being active	• Cleanliness of sea and beaches • Safety • Unspoiled physical environment • Prices
<i>Higher technical</i> • Developing friendships	• Cleanliness of sea and beaches • New place/different culture • Availability of entertainment • Safety • Unspoiled physical environment

	environment • Historical and cultural attractions • Prices
<i>University</i> • Developing friendships • Sunbathing in the beach and doing nothing	• Cleanliness of sea and beaches • Safety • Historical and cultural attractions

CONCLUSIONS

Support of hypotheses C, C7, C8, C9 - Conclusions

The analysis of the data proved that the visit, for the first time visitors, modifies significantly the elements of the secondary image for infrastructure-superstructure, facilities, tourism supply.

Important modifications are observed at the total size of the sample as well as at the categories of age, income and education.

Specifically, concerning the total size of the sample important modifications are observed into 10 out of 19 variables. 2 of them have positive modification while 8 have negative modifications. Regarding the changes into the categories of age, income and education level there are differentiations among the variables that have significant modifications. In the categories of age changes are detected for 2 variables, but in the categories of income and education level, changes concern more variables. The most important remarks are:

- For every variable the changes in the partial categories are in accordance with the change in the total size of the sample. There are 2 exceptions, a) the variable “prices” has no significant modification in the education level “university” while at the other 2 educational levels the modification does exist and is negative, b) negative modification is observed for the variable “new place/different culture” concerning the higher level of income, while at the other income categories there is no significant modification.
- The modification for the variable “safety” is much more negative concerning the higher ages (55+) and the lower level of education. In general, this is the variable that demonstrates the

more intense negative modification. It must be commented that this is the only variable where the negative modification is significant for all the demographic categories, without exception. At this point it is important to underline that the variable safety in this particular research was associated with the roads' condition and the lack of pavements.

- The age category "under 34" displays the less negative modifications compared with higher ages. Similar observation is noted at the "university" education level (compared to lower education levels) as well as the higher income levels.
- The variable "developing friendships" has significant modifications in all demographic categories,
- Significant positive modification at the variable "sunbathing in the beach and doing nothing" is connected with ages under 55, university education level and low income (under 20.000£)

Conclusions, comments, marketing and management implications

From a scientific approach the findings of this research paper provided empirical evidence of the direct comparison between primary and secondary image and covered the lack of research in this specific issue. The comparison verifies the modification of the secondary image and reveals the strengths and weaknesses which arise from the impact of the visit.

As a result, the study findings offered substantial support, based on empirical research with probability sample, to the statements of several scholars (Gartner and Hunt, 1987, Pearce, 1982, Phelps, 1986, Fakeye and Crompton, 1991, Baloglu and McCleary, 1999, Beerli and Martin, 2004) regarding the possible, but now verified, impact of the experience (visit) to the secondary image.

A careful observation of the findings reveals an important general ascertainment. The negative modifications are related, mostly, to cognitive elements of the image while the positive ones are related to the affective ones.

From a methodological perspective the design of this research (identical double questionnaires, the homogenous population, the comparison of the two images by the same respondent, the choice of a representative Mediterranean destination, the stratified sample and the possibility of

generalisation of results) was shown to be an effective method to contribute and enrich the empirical research on this issue.

From a practical perspective the study offered several implications, firstly for a series of actions which concern targeted investments in infrastructure, projects and policies that enhance the natural environment and the cultural resources. Secondly, the study offered guidelines for product differentiation, creation of identity and design of advertising campaigns focused on specific characteristics which are considered “strong elements” such as the attractions of the island, the uniqueness of Corfu city, the receptiveness of the local population and the opportunity for socialising and relaxation.

These strengths and affective elements can differentiate a destination, are difficult for competitors to replicate and may provide a significant competitive advantage (Kozak and Tasci, 2005) capable of creating customer loyalty. In particular the element which concerns the local residents and their friendliness and also the element concerning the opportunities the island offers for socializing, fall in the destination’s opportunities to create emotional connection with customers. Customer’s emotions have been proved to be a key determinant to turn a satisfied customer into a repeated one (Chatzigeorgiou et al, 2009).

Also the findings show the immediate target market for an advertising campaign, namely young people, with good educational level and higher incomes. A new target market which proved to be the “less strict” and has a future perspective and spending ability.

Finally, the findings offer the knowledge for the next promotional campaigns, which will incorporate the corrective actions indicated by the desired target markets.

Future studies could use additional segmentation criteria such as behavioural and psychographic in order to provide information beyond the traditional variables.

The concept and methodology of this study provided answers to questions about a comprehensive study of a tourism destination image. Also offered insights to the perception of several target markets. A knowledge that gives the privilege to emphasize the right attributes to the respected target group and by this way to generate repeat visitation.

The negative or positive measurable deviations from the expectations reveal both salient and inferior attributes and create a modified new image, the realistic one, resulting from the direct comparison of the two images, which could be named “**orientation and guidance image**”.

- An “orientation and guidance image” for the marketers which will help them to bridge the gap between expectations and experience and therefore to induce customer loyalty, to diminish the competition and to demand “more money for more value”.
- An “orientation and guidance image” for the tourists which will help them choose, through the information sources, a destination that will incorporate the desired characteristics and offer the consumer “value for money”.

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SUBMITTED: APR 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: AUG 2012

2nd REVISION SUBMITTED: DEC 2012

ACCEPTED: JAN 2013

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THE EFFECTS OF SALES PROMOTION ON POST PROMOTION BEHAVIORS AND BRAND PREFERENCES IN FAST FOOD RESTAURANTS

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Sales promotions work to stimulate and induce choice of customers in restaurants. However, the benefits of the sales promotion may be offset by undermining sales power and preferences of products being displayed when they are no longer promoted. The sales promotions have been long employed in marketing practices for attracting customers and researched academically, but a clear understanding of the impacts of sales promotion on products' sales power and preferences post the promotion, has not been clearly obtained. The current study aims to explore the effects of sales promotion on post promotion behavior such as customer loyalty and purchase behavior in fast food in Egypt. Further the study also investigated the products' preferences in fast food restaurants after terminating the promotion period. A semi structured questionnaire has been developed and distributed over patrons in fast food outlets. The empirical results revealed that sales promotion can be very effective marketing techniques in creating traffic in restaurants and affect on quantity purchase. Despite the sales promotion considered a successful strategy to encourage frequent visits to fast food outlets, it affect negatively on products preferences' especially post the promotion.

Keywords: Sales promotion, Product preference, Fast food restaurants.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Sales promotions are typically viewed as temporary incentives that encourage the trial of a product or service (Kotler, 1988 ; Blattberg and Neslin, 1993). Sales promotions have one of the strongest impacts on short-term consumption behavior. Kotler and Armstrong (2006) agreed



and added that sales promotions are beneficial to retailers in several aspects: First, promotional variables such as in-store display and “two-for-one” are often used to trigger unplanned purchases. Second, sales promotions encourage consumers to purchase non promoted merchandise (Mulhern and Padgett, 1995). Finally, sales promotions accelerate number of visits to the outlets. In addition, it has been argued that sales promotions encourage consumers to stockpile, leading to a reduction of the retailer’s inventory costs (Shimp and Kavas, 1984; Lichtenstein et al., 1997). Not surprisingly, most researches on their investigation explore the effect of promotions at the time in which they are offered (Blattberg and Neslin 1989; Gönül and Srinivasan 1996). Relatively less attention has been devoted to investigating the consequences of sales promotions for product sales power and preference after the promotion has ended. Furthermore, scholastic opinion on whether promotions help or hinder a brand in subsequent choice periods is mixed. Some researchers assert that sales promotions can undermine brand preference. Aaker (1996) states that promotions have the potential to damage brand equity by focusing the consumer’s attention too heavily on price. Keller (1998) and Jørgensen, et al., (2003) alike warn of a number of disadvantages of sales promotions such as decreased brand loyalty, increased brand switching, decreased quality perceptions and increased price sensitivity. Conversely, other researchers contend that sales promotions can increase brand preference (e.g., Davis et al. 1992). Thus, the extant literature is unclear as to whether sales promotions detract from or enhance brand preference. Despite the widespread use of promotions in marketing practice such as food and beverage settings, retail stores, manufacturing and the equivocal research findings, there has been no systematic attempt to integrate extant research to determine the consequences of promotions on the promoted products once the promotion is rescinded. To address this, a combination of both qualitative and quantitative researches has been conducted to explore the effects of sales promotion on post promotion behavior and preferences post-promotion.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This research builds on important themes in the sales promotions and fast food restaurants literature: the different promotional tools used in fast food restaurants, international fast food chains and local fast food chains. The researcher briefly describes each of these themes below, and describes the methodology framework and provides a detailed

presentation of the obtained results. Eventually the researcher concludes with discussion of the implication emanating from this research.

Sales Promotion

Sales promotion encompasses all promotional activities other than advertising, personal selling and public relations. Laroche et al., (2002), consider sales promotion as “an action-focused marketing event whose purpose is to have an impact on the behavior of the firm’s customers.” Several important aspects of sales promotions should be highlighted to complete this definition. First, sales promotions involve some type of inducement that provides an extra incentive to buy and this represents the key element in a promotional program. Kotler et al., (2003) further added that those incentives are additional to the basic benefits provided by the brand and temporarily changes its perceived price or value. It is also primarily seen as an acceleration tool designed to speed up the selling process and maximize sales volume (Srinivasan et al., 2004). Schneider and Currim (1991) classify sales promotions as active or passive promotions, such as coupons require active search on the part of consumers, whereas in-store promotions such as “two-for-one” involve a limited search, restricted to the store environment. Sales promotions have also been dichotomized into price- and non price-oriented categories (Schneider and Currim, 1991; Lichtenstein et al., 1995). The end benefit of price promotions for the consumer is a lower purchase price (e.g., coupons), whereas other promotions focus on other benefits (e.g., value for money, like “two-for-one” promotions).

Different Promotional Tools Used in Fast Food Restaurants

Samples are offers of a trial amount of a product. Some samples are free. For others, the company charges a small amount to off-set its cost (Kotler et al., 2003). For example McDonald’s offered a cup of coffee and an apple-bran for \$1. Normally the coffee the offered for 95 cents but the promotion was designed to get customer to try the muffin. Another common example product sample which used frequently in fast food restaurant is (buy one get one free). *Coupons* are certificates that offer buyers savings when they purchase specific products. As a means of increasing sales, fast food restaurants rely on coupons to draw new customers, stimulate, repeat business from existing patrons and to appeal the price conscious segments of the society (Taylor and Long-Tolbert,

2002). Many studies suggest that coupon incentives positively influence consumers' attitude and behaviors toward consumer goods (Bawa and Srinivasan, 1997). **Premiums** are goods offered either free or at low cost as incentives to buy a product. For example fast food restaurants often offer promotional items such as glasses carrying the name and the logo of the restaurants, T-shirts, caps (Kotler et al., 2006). Another type of premiums is the kids' toys which are always incorporated with a meal prepared for children. The cost of the toys is charged over the cost of the meal (Abdelhamied, 2001). **Price –off** promotion, refers to offering the products lower than its regular price during the promotion period. Since the early 1970s, price promotions have accounted for the main share of the marketing budget in most consumer packaged good categories (Srinivasan, et al., 2004). During the past two decades, a substantial academic literature has established the nature of short-term (immediate) sales response to temporary price reductions, including an assessment of consumer heterogeneity in the effects of a temporary price reduction on sales. A key finding of this literature is that the immediate effect of temporary price reductions, as reflected in short-term (contemporaneous) changes in sales, is consistently found to be high (Neslin, 2002) and to vary substantially across consumer segments. For example, heavy users are found to be more price elastic than light users (e.g., Neslin, et al., 1985), and non-loyal consumers are found to have higher price elasticity than loyal consumers (e.g., Krishnamurthi and Raj, 1991). Such information on how the short-term sales response to temporary price reductions varies across segments of customers is useful in designing and targeting temporary price reductions. Because the profitability of a promotion depends on longer-term as well as short-term effects, another important literature has emerged on examining the longer-term effects of price promotions; in particular, examining enduring effects through persistence modeling that does not assume mean reversion of the dependent variable (Nijs et al., 2001; Srinivasan et al., 2004). Abdelhamied (2001) proved that price-off promotion is very effective tool influencing patrons and attract them to fast food restaurant more than any other type of promotional tools. **Contest and sweepstakes** gives the consumer a chance to win something, such as cash or a trip. Contests call consumers to submit an entry – a jingle, guess, or suggestion to be judged by a panel. A sweepstake calls for consumers to submit their names for a drawing (Blattberg and Neslin, 1993; Kotler et al., 2003). Major international fast food restaurants in Egypt adopted the contests and sweepstake tool in terms of number of purchases or visits to the restaurant. Customers are required to provide an evidence of purchase

form the fast food outlets to submit his/her name for a drawing. This way is quite effective in creating customers traffic in restaurants during slack period of the season and it can attract different segments of patrons.

The Fast Food Industry in Egypt

According to worldwatch.org, the Middle East-fast food industry is growing by 52 percent a year and supposed to generate over a billion dollar in sales in 2015 as per their estimates. The entry of the multinational and international fast food chains have helped in flourishing the industry in the Middle East especially in Egypt and the United Arab of Emirates. In Cairo, Egypt Wimpy was the first international fast food restaurant to be opened in 1973, and since that time many international chains have expanded in Egypt by opening many restaurants such as McDonald's, Burger king, Pizza Hut, Hardee's and KFC. American and European companies have played the central role in the development of fast food restaurants in Egypt. American food franchises are dominant and are estimated to have about 63% of the domestic market in Egypt. Local chains have about one-third of the market and the rest belongs to a European chain, namely Burger King. Traditional Egyptian restaurants serve traditional food, such as Falafel, Beans, Koshary, Chicken, Beef and Kebabs (World watch, 2002). Table 1 shows both the international and the local fast food chains operating in Egypt.

The fast food industry in Egypt is a highly competitive industry; the battle for the market share in the fast food industry is intensified. Today the fast food market is more fully developed, leaving less room for expansion. Instead of competing against the other types of operations, they now compete against each other. Basically, each offers the same products – a cheap snack, cleanliness and fast efficient service. Thus, it becomes difficult for any restaurant to achieve a decisive advantage over another; therefore they adopt the promotional tools to acquire more market segment (Bryant and Dundes, 2008).

Many definitions have emerged for fast foods in the literature. A few of these are mentioned below:

Definition 1. Fast food have been defined by Bender (1995) and Hiemstra and Kim (1995) as a “general term used for a limited menu of foods that lend themselves to production-line techniques; suppliers tend to specialize in products such as hamburgers, pizzas, chicken, or sandwiches”

Table 1 International and local fast food chains operating in Egypt

International chains	Local chains
McDonald's	Mo'Men
Burger Kind	Bon Appetite
Hardee's	Quick
K.F.C	Grand Café
Pizza Hut	Radwan
Little Caesar's	Pizza King
Domino's Pizza	Pizza Plus
Subway	
A & W restaurants	
T.G.I Friday's	
Taco Bell	

Source: Tourism chamber, 2010

Definition 2. Fast food market is defined as the sale of food and drinks for immediate consumption either on the premises or in designated eating areas shared with other foodservice operators, or for consumption elsewhere (Park, 2004 ; Law et al., 2004). Although the price of fast food is not cheap, when compared with the traditional local fast food, many young Egyptians consider fast food restaurants as social and proper places of meeting and eating out. The growing number of fast food chains and restaurants in newly established shopping centers and hypermarket complexes are evidence of this newly emerging demand. Nowadays international fast food restaurants existed in major cities of Egypt.

Several factors can explain the changes in consumers' fast food consumption in Egypt: the increasing participation of women in the labor force, longer workdays, growing number of households living on at least two-income sources, decreasing household sizes, urbanization, growth in tourism, increasing of foreigners living in Egypt, longer life expectation, increasing education level of consumers, increasing per capita income, and increasing number of fast food restaurants, such as McDonald's, Burger King, KFC, Pizza Hut and the others. In addition, the younger generation, who are influenced by western lifestyles portrayed through television and advertisements, exhibit a preference for fast food restaurants. Not only Egyptian adolescents are becoming increasingly

more westernized and have greater convenience when they eat out, But also older generation prefer fast food restaurants (Abdelhamied, 2001).

Despite its growing importance, fast food restaurants have received little detailed attention in the academic literature, being considered in promotion and its effects on food consumption in fast food restaurants, but few studies have discussed different topics related to the fast food. Jekanowski et al., 2001; Nayga and Capps, 1994; Park, 2004; Stewart, et al., 2004). According to these literatures, customer profiles for those who consume food away from home are more educated, younger, and have higher-paying jobs and household incomes. While this view is generally sufficient for food away from home as a whole, it is somewhat limited in the specific case of fast food. Byrne et al. (1998) identified household income, household size and composition as important determinants of total household expenditures on restaurants, fast food facilities, and other food away from home facilities. Ekelund and Watson (1991) also found that fast food consumption was empirically related to opportunity costs of the household. Nayga and Capps (1994) analyzed the impact of socio-economic and demographic factors on individual intake of saturated fat and cholesterol from fast food and food at home markets. Jekanowski et al., (2001) examined the effect of price, income and demographic characteristics on fast food consumption. Fanning et al., (2002) investigated the different socio-economic determinants of the likelihood of consuming fast food using the logit model. Although all these studies overlooked the impact of socio-economic characteristics of households on fast food expenditures, little is known about the characteristics of consumers who prefer to consume food at fast food restaurants, their attitudes towards price, health, and the effects of child preference on fast food consumption.

Park, (2004) investigated the relationship between consumer values of eating-out and the importance of fast food restaurant attributes in Korea and showed that consumers choose fast food restaurants more for hedonic reason, not utilitarian, values of eating out. When consumer considered the convenience and price of an eating-place, the utilitarian value of eating out plays an important role in restaurant evaluation and selection (Johns and Pine, 2002; Park, 2004).

The researcher selected the international fast food restaurants in order to conduct the research, because they are one of the fastest growing segments in the foodservice industry in Egypt, and they develop and offer diverse promotions constantly to attract customers. Local fast food

restaurants also offer promotions but they are not sufficient and/or constantly.

STUDY HYPOTHESES

The current research aims firstly: to shed the light on the effects of sales promotion on products' sales power in international fast food restaurants in Egypt. The following hypotheses are suggested:

H1. The frequency of restaurants' visitations will be increased during promotion periods more than non promotion periods.

H2. The sales promotion has a positive effect on quantity purchase intention.

The second objective of the study is to explore the impact of sales promotion techniques on customer loyalty in fast food restaurants. The suggested hypotheses states as follows:

H3. Different sales promotion techniques offered by fast food restaurants (premiums, coupons, sampling, discounts and contests and sweepstakes') will have a significant and a positive influence on customer loyalty.

The third objective of this study is to examine the effects of sales promotion on brand preferences and sales power after terminating the promotion periods, therefore the following hypothesis were proposed

H4. The influences of sales promotion on products' preferences post the promotion period will be significantly different.

METHODOLOGY

Sampling and data collection

A purposeful sampling technique was utilized to conduct the current study. Self administrated questionnaire were distributed to 530 diners at 28 international fast food restaurants in Cairo, the capital of Egypt, and Alexandria which is the second major governorate in Egypt. The participating international fast food chains include (McDonald's, Burger King, Hardee's, KFC, Pizza Hut, Demon's Pizza, TGI Fridays and Subway.

Ethical considerations and negotiation of access.

Before questionnaire administration the ethical approval was gained from the sampled international fast food chains after visiting the operational directors in those chains. The purpose of the research and the reasons for selecting the sampled chains has been explained by the researcher to the directors to get their approval. The researcher agreed with the restaurants' directors to distribute the questionnaire during the promotion period and post the promotion immediately in order to fulfill the research aim. The directors allowed the researcher to conduct his research in the specified and convenient time for both the staff and the researcher.

518 forms were distributed over the sampled restaurants and only 376 valid questionnaires were obtained at a response rate of 72.58%. Before questionnaire distribution, the questionnaire was tested by a jury of industry experts and hospitality scholars to assess its validity and the clearance of the used scales and questions.

Questionnaire design and administration

The questionnaire was encompasses five sections. The first one explores the demographic variables of respondents and their frequency in general to fast food outlets. The second section had two parts, the first; asked respondents to state whether they visit the restaurant during the promotion period or post the promotion. The second part reveals respondents' viewpoints regarding some attributes of the fast food restaurants using a five-point likert scale (1: extremely not agree and 5: extremely agree). The third section investigates the level of customer loyalty to fast food restaurants. Customer loyalty scale for this study was devised and modified from Dick and Basu (1994) and Mols (1998). The modified items concerned with attitudinal loyalty were as follows: I consider fast food as my first choice when deciding to eat out; I prefer to visit fast food outlets even if another type of restaurants runs promotions and I believe I'm loyal to fast food restaurants. Another two items related to behavioral loyalty: I will keep visiting fast food restaurants and I would recommend fast food restaurants to others. All the five items in scale were measured by the same five point-Likert scale used in the second section.

Purchase quantity patterns were described in the fourth part. Customer quantity purchase behaviors included two items the

respondents' frequencies to the fast food restaurants during the promotion and after the promotions periods which was prescribed previously in part one and expenditure per customer.

The remaining section contained two parts the first reveals respondents' perceptions regarding products preferences and image during and post promotion periods. The second concerned with the behavioral intention towards the promoted products hence customers were asked about their intention to buy the same products being promoted post the promotion at their regular prices before the promotion. Two items were stated as follows: I would pay the same regular price for the products being promoted post the promotion and I will certainly recommend the promoted products to friends and relatives. All the items in this part were measured by using the same five-point likert scale used in part four (1: extremely not agree and 5: extremely agree).

Questionnaire administration

The questionnaire forms were handed to staff working in the fast food restaurants to give them to guests visiting the sampled restaurants during the promotional period. Whenever the promotion period terminates, the staff were asked to distribute the questionnaire form just for five days after terminating the promotion period. This process lasted for more than three months in different outlets in both Cairo and Alexandria. Normally the promotion period lasts for a week and in sometimes for 10 days in one restaurant. Customers were asked to give the forms back to the staff after filling them.

DATA ANALYSIS

The questionnaires were optically scanned and data were entered into the SPSS version 20.0. Frequencies, simple percentage, means, independent t-test, factor analyses and multiple regression analyses were utilized to analyze the data. ANOVA and cross tabulation were also used. Independent t-test and ANOVA were utilized to detect significant differences in post promotion behaviors. Factors analysis was conducted in order to examine the construct validity of the loyalty scale. A multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the explanatory power of the independent variables (benefits of sales promotion for customers) and dependent variable (customer loyalty). Eventually, data were spilt into two groups, the first customers patronize the fast food restaurants during promotion period and customers come post the promotion. Using each

sample, two additional multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine differential effects of sales promotion on products preferences in fast food restaurants.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The sample was evenly divided along gender lines with 37.2% of respondents being female and 62.8% being male. 58% of respondents were from the age category ranging from 21-35 years and 25% were from the age category ranging from 36-50 years, while 17% were less than 20 years. This result agrees with the finding of Abdelhamied (2001), hence the youth represents the biggest segments of fast food patrons in Egypt. The sample was skewed toward singles 7.7%. While married with children and married without children represent the remaining percentage respectively. Most respondents approximately 74 % had a family income more than 1200 LEs per month.

Results also indicated that A great proportion of the respondents (67.9%) increase their visits to fast food outlets during promotional days three times a week or more. Surprisingly, given the relatively low income, 59.6% of the sample was composed of heavy (i.e., once a week or more) or moderate (i.e., two to four times a month) consumers of fast food during promotional periods. This finding support the first hypothesis which concluded that the frequency of fast food restaurants' visitations will be increased during promotion periods more than non promotion periods.

A cross tab correlation was used to determine the relationship between marital status and frequency to fast food restaurants during promotion days. Married with children were found to be the more to visit fast food outlets during promotion days than married with out children and singles. The correlation coefficient was (-0.64) and it was significant at the 0.05 level. This implies the importance of the promotion for family groups hence sales promotion encourage family members to eat in those outlets which will result in purchasing big quantities.

Table 2 Marital status * Frequency to fast food outlets during promotion* Cross tabulation

frequency to fast food outlets During promotion						Total
Marital Status.	Once a week	Three times a week or more	Once a month	Twice a month	Rarely	
Singles	3	12	1	3	0	19
Married with out children	19	36	9	6	2	72
Married with children	49	71	14	8	1	143

In order to examine the consumers' perceptions regarding fast food attributes during and post promotion, ANOVA was conducted on some of these attributes as illustrated in table 3.

Table 3 Fast food attributes

Attributes	During promotion		Post promotion	
	Mean Scores	S.D.	Mean Scores	S.D.
Menu variety	3.93	0.84	4.16	0.72
Quality of food	3.90	0.88	4.23	0.68
Convenience	4.00	0.70	4.09	0.96
Quality of service	1.46	1.28	2.83	1.01
Suitableness for children	4.13	0.71	4.17	0.91
Store facilities	4.11	0.72	3.91	0.93

Results indicate that most of these attributes were satisfactory during and after promotion to a great extent, except quality of service. The findings indicate a significant difference in regards to the quality of service especially during promotion ($F_{2,432} = 29.1$ $P < 0.02$). It could be inferred from the obtained findings that the high traffic in restaurants during promotion leads to slow service and this finding also support H2.

Post-consumption behaviors between patrons during promotion days and patrons during non-promotion days

In order to validate the scale used to measure the customer loyalty in fast food restaurants, the number of factors was extracted by principal component analysis. Factors were rotated using the *Varimax* method. The analysis resulted based on one-factor (eigenvalue greater than 1.0), which accounted for 70.3% of total variability of customer loyalty. All five loyalty variables satisfied the factor loading criteria (0.42 or greater). The results also indicated that the variables were loaded very high on the customer loyalty construct with the loading value ranging from .732 to .898 (see Table 4). The reliability coefficient was calculated to access the internal consistency of the items. The alpha value for the loyalty instrument was 0.784. All the above results supported that the modified scale has solid construct validity and the five variables are reliable measures of the underlying attribute of customer loyalty in the fast food restaurants.

Table 4 Dimension of customer loyalty Variables

Customer loyalty	Facto loadings
I consider fast food as my first choice when deciding to eat out	.757
I prefer to visit fast food outlets even if another type of restaurants runs promotions	.737
I believe I'm loyal to fast food restaurants	.732
I will keep visiting fast food restaurants	.898
I would recommend fast food restaurants to others	.782
	3.846
Eigenvalue	70.3 %
Variance explained	0.784
Cronbach's α	

Two independent t-tests were conducted to detect any significant differences in post consumption behaviors between patrons visiting fast food restaurants during promotion days and patrons visiting the restaurants post-promotion days. The first independent t-tests were used to detect any significant difference in both attitudinal and behavioral customer loyalty between the two groups of beneficiary of the promotion and non- beneficiary of the promotion. The results of the independent t-tests are displayed in Table 5. The mean scores of promotion beneficiaries are significantly higher than non-promotion beneficiaries in all five variables, which imply that the promotion beneficiaries are much more loyal to the fast food restaurants than the non beneficiaries of promotion.

Consequently, Hypothesis 3 concerning a significant difference in customer loyalty between patrons during promotion days and patrons during non-promotion days is supported.

Table 5 Customer loyalty between promotion beneficiaries and non- beneficiaries of promotion

Customer loyalty / Behavioral loyalty	Mean (Standard deviation)		t-value (p-value)
	Promotion beneficiaries (n =234)	Non promotion beneficiaries (n = 142)	
I consider fast food as my first choice when deciding to eat out	4.009 (0.689)	2.146 (0.671)	12.097 (0.000)
I prefer to visit fast food outlets even if another type of restaurants runs promotions	3.968 (0.724)	2.504 (0.691)	10.988 (0.000)
I believe I'm loyal to fast food restaurants.	3.963 (0.849)	2.689 (0.642)	11.952 (0.000)
I will keep visiting fast food restaurants.	3.711 (0.654)	1.989 (0.571)	7.963 (0.000)
I would recommend fast food restaurants to others	3.083 (0.812)	2.103 (0.741)	8.812 (0.000)

Next, differences in patrons purchase behavior (number of visits during promotion and post promotion, expenditure per person during and post promotion as well). The results of independent t-tests are shown in Table 6. Between the two groups, there was a significant difference in the number of visits the customers made during promotion. The mean scores of frequency of visits for the customers who patronize the restaurants during promotion was higher than those who patronize the restaurants post promotion Therefore, Hypothesis 1 regarding a positive relationship between sales promotion and frequency of visits to fast food restaurants, is supported.

Table 6 Quantity purchase behavior between patrons during promotion and patrons post promotion

Customer loyalty / Behavioral loyalty	Mean / (Standard deviation)		<i>t</i> -value (<i>p</i> -value)
	During promotions (n =234)	Post promotions (n = 142)	
Number of visits	4.009 (0.689)	2.146 (0.671)	3.084 (0.002)
Expenditure per patron	LEs 350	LEs 100	0.342 (0.003)

Additionally, quantity purchase has been affected by the sales promotion and increased during the promotion period than post promotion and this was very obvious in patrons' expenditure during promotion, which support Hypothesis 2 as well. To sum up, sales promotion appear to be an effective marketing tool to stimulate the frequency of visits, and to increase the intention of customers to purchase more quantities. The obtained results accords with (Manning and Sprott, 2007) who found multiple unit prices affect positively on quantities purchased in retail stores. Also Gijsbrechts et al. (2003) proved that store flyers that reduce prices improve store performance and create traffic in stores.

Impact of sales promotion tools on products preferences in fast food restaurants

In order to investigate the differential effects of the different sales promotion tools on products preferences, two multiple regression analyses were carried. Data were spilt into two groups; the first group customers visiting the fast food restaurants post promotion and the second group; customers patronizing during the promotion periods.

The SPSS output for the multiple regression analysis is shown in table 7 (model summary) where the *R-square* for the model is .608. This means that 60.8 percent of the variation in products' preferences (dependent variable) can be explained from the five independent variables. The results also indicate that the overall model is significantly different from zero (*F*-ratio = 109.987; probability level "Sig." *P* = .000.), this probability level means that the regression model is solid with reasonable explanatory power. To determine if one or more of the independents variables is a significant predictor of the dependent variable (products preferences), the provided information in table 7 (the coefficients) has been checked. The results of (*t* statistics) column revealed that three out of five variables are significant variables at the 0.05 level.

Table 7 Impacts of sales promotion on products' preferences post promotion period Coefficients ^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard ized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	-.055	.287		-.148	.069		
Price-off	.522	.029	.722	13.405	.000	.910	1.188
Coupons	.389	.044	.431	12.094	.001	.842	1.099
Sampling	.239	.071	.678	9.747	.000	.822	1.185
Premiums	.149	.091	.138	2.767	.083	.763	1.236
Contest and Sweepstake	-.003	.128	-.027	-.023	.998	.772	1.298
R Square: .608, Adjusted R Square: .539, F-ratio = 109.987, P-value = .000, Std. Error of the Estimate= .635							

a. Dependent Variable: Products preferences

The standardized coefficient Beta column in table 7 reveals that price-off has a beta coefficient of .722 which is significant (.000). Similarly coupons and sampling are significant and have a beta coefficient of .431 and .678 respectively and they are significant (.000). On the other hand variables like premiums and contests and sweepstakes were found not significant, the two variables have a coefficient beta (.138, -.027) respectively and their *P* value were (.083) and (.998).

Price-off was the most essential factor affecting on products' preferences in fast food restaurants, because its highest coefficient value ($b=.722$) and this result indicates that the price-off has a negative influence on the product image and preferences post the promotion. Sampling ($b=.678$) and coupons ($b=.431$) followed price off in descending order. These findings indicate that the sales promotion tools have a great impact on products' preferences post promotion at fast food restaurants and therefore hypothesis 4 is supported.

A common problem associated with the regression analysis is when the independent variables are highly correlated among themselves, referred to as multicollinearity. High level of multicollinearity makes it difficult for the regression equation to identify the separate contributions of each independent (predictor) variable, thus the presence of multicollinearity was assessed by using the tolerance value (see table 7). Tolerance and VIS (variance inflation factor) show the degree to which each independent variable is explained by the other independent variable and used to assess whether multicollinearity is causing problem in regression. For tolerance values smaller than .75 generally indicate multicollinearity is likely a problem, in contrast if the tolerance values is larger than .75, indicate multicollinearity is likely not a problem (Hair et al., 2006). All the variables in the current research had a high tolerance value showing no significant multicollinearity among the investigated variables.

The second regression was carried out during promotion period, the obtained results revealed that the R^2 for this regression model is .102 and it is not significant at the .000 level. Additionally, the coefficients indicated that all the sales promotion variables were not significant at the .000 level, and therefore not interpreted. These findings indicate that the null hypothesis can be rejected where the independent variables are not related to the dependent variable (product preferences) during promotion period.

Table 8 products preferences post the promotion and during the promotion

Variables (Products' preferences)	Mean / (Standard deviation)		<i>t</i> -value (<i>p</i> -value)
	During promotions (n =234)	Post promotions (n = 142)	
I would pay the same regular price for the products being promoted post the promotion	4.102 (0.589)	1.493 (0.671)	2.714 (0.002)
I will certainly recommend fast food products to friends and relatives	3.861 (0.759)	2.36 (1.037)	0.342 (0.003)

In order to ensure the results of the conducted two multiple regression analyses, independent t-tests were performed to test the mean differences in products' preferences post promotion and during promotion periods. Table 8 indicates that there is a statistical significance between the two groups at the level .05, which supports and powers the conducted regressions.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATION

The current research examines firstly; the impacts of the different sales promotion tools used in fast food restaurants on post-promotion behaviors such as customer loyalty quantity purchase and frequencies to the fast food restaurants. Secondly; it also investigates the effects of sales promotion on brand preferences in fast food restaurants.

The main themes emerged from the study showed some essential implications; hence the sales promotion tools were found to be very effective marketing tool that can be used by the fast food managers to increase patrons' frequencies to the restaurants during slack periods. Sales promotion also boosts the quantity purchase intention.

The empirical results illustrated that, all the beneficiaries of the sales promotion were found to be very loyal to the fast food restaurants than non beneficiaries of the promotion.

The findings also indicated that the type of sales promotion determine the effect on brand preferences. The different sales promotion has no impacts on products preferences during promotion time, and this is a very logical finding. On the other hand, some of the tested sales promotion has negative impact on products preferences post the promotion. Price-off, coupons and sampling respectively have negative impacts on products preferences post the promotion; but post promotion brand preference was relatively more favourable when using premiums or contests and sweepstakes'. This implies that both of premiums and contests and sweepstakes' can be used for long time promotion with out any effects on the products being promoted them.

Finally, this study indicated that the use of sales promotion in fast food restaurants may create traffic in stores and increase customers' frequency, nonetheless they are not necessarily generate high profits for the restaurants and they also diminish the product preferences post the promotion. Managers may resort to reduce the food cost percentage of promoted items during the promotion which will lead to reducing the regular quality of those items and resulting in a negative customer

perception of the promoted products and rejection of these items post the promotion.

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SUBMITTED: MAR 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: SEP 2012

ACCEPTED: OCT 2012

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VISITORS' PERCEPTION OF A TOURISM DESTINATION: THE CASE OF PAMUKKALE

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This study's goal is to examine perceptions of tourists visiting the destination Pamukkale (Denizli-Turkey). For this purpose, a field survey has been undertaken in Pamukkale as a thermal tourism center. Surveys were received from 515 participants, but 207 of them were not filled out as required for this survey; thus, the analysis was made of 308 survey forms. Following the analysis of demographic variables of tourists, an assessment was made about perceptions of visitors in the area. One way in which variance analysis was used was to research the effects of age, education, and income status on the visitor attitude regarding Pamukkale as a tourist destination. Research findings reveal that there are significant levels of differences regarding certain visitor attitudes in terms of age, education level, and income level.

Keywords: *Destination, Perception, Visitors' Perceptions, Pamukkale, Denizli, Turkey*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Pamukkale plays an important role in tourism in Turkey and has placed in the top rankings among thermal bath tourism centers especially in recent years. This study was conducted in order to uncover perceptions of tourists visiting Pamukkale destination. Efforts to determine perceptions towards Pamukkale and to make these perceptions positive will increase the number of tourists visiting the region. This study aims primarily to determine visitors' perceptions towards Pamukkale

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destination and to reveal which measures should be taken to increase the number of visitors by taking these perceptions into account.

The perceptions of visitors coming to any tourist attraction may be quite different depending on their demographic situations (Chi et al., 2009; Rittichainuwat et al., 2001; Beerli and Martin, 2003; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Chen and Kerstetter, 1999). In this study, the goal was to reveal the effects of education, age and income levels of domestic tourists visiting Pamukkale on their perceptions towards this natural site and also to form concrete suggestions for local administrations, regional inhabitants and tourism facilities of the region regarding necessary steps to increase the number of tourists visiting the area.

One way variance analysis was applied to research this effect on perceptions towards Pamukkale destination. In the variance analysis the Scheffe test was made in case the result turned out meaningful. In this study, brief information was actually given about Pamukkale destination and the destination perceptions. In the field research, the application of the survey form used as the data collection method was mentioned, and in the findings section the data obtained with the survey method was evaluated. Demographic findings were primarily revealed and the data was evaluated by making one way variance analysis. In the results and suggestions section, findings were interpreted and concrete suggestions were formed.

LITERATURE SCAN

The Tourism Strategy of Turkey aims to extend the tourism season throughout the whole year. This idea was based on a variety of tourist attractions, and in this context particularly health tourism and thermal tourism were handled. The Southern Aegean region (Aydın, Denizli, Manisa, İzmir) was also accepted as a thermal tourism center (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2007). “Aphrodisia Culture and Thermal Tourism Development Region”, composed of over 20 geothermal sources including Pamukkale, has formed among regions which will be developed primarily within the “Thermal Tourism Cities Project”: this project will start taking geothermal potential in Turkey into account to develop thermal tourism (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2007).

Pamukkale, which plays a key role among thermal tourism centers, hasn't reached its desired tourism potential yet although it has unique travertine terraces, historic relics and thermal water sources. In 2009, a total of 1,323,961 people visited Pamukkale: 141,165 free of charge,

134,968 with museum card, 15,224 domestic tourists and 1,032,604 foreign tourists. (Denizli Special Provincial Administration, 2010).

To know how a region is perceived is especially important to be able to attract visitors to that region. Image perception is not solely a result of media tools since it develops out of a combination of several personal experiences (Horrigan, 2009). For example, events such as winter games play a significant role in improving the image of a location (Monge and Brandimarte, 2011). The image perception of tourists is considered a crucial dimension of general country image (Abd El Jalil, 2010). Studies in the 1990s suggest that image is an important element of destination choice for tourists (Kamenidou et al., 2009). Perceived images of hospitality and travel enterprises create a basis for tourism development of a given area (Meliou and Maroudas, 2010). In the image creation process, brochures, tour operators, and travel agencies also play significant roles (Abd El Jalil, 2010).

In the 1990s, the number of various research concerning the destination image increased (Taşçı et al., 2007) and image has clearly emerged as an important factor in selecting a tourist destination (Baloğlu and McCleary, 1999). Because the analysis and evaluation of the destination image is a conspicuous topic in the literature, it has had a positive effect in understanding tourist behaviour (Beerli and Martin, 2004). In tourism research, the visitor's perception of the destination name rather than visibility of the destination has been focused upon (MacKay and Fesenmaier, 2000). Destination image can be defined as environmental characteristics having an impact on consumer behaviors and choices (Kamenidou et al., 2009). In tourism, destination image is important at all times if branding strategies and brand development is set as a goal (Horrigan, 2009). Numerous research has been recorded about destination images of tourists (Kamenidou et al., 2009), and a continuous interest can be observed to this topic among tourism scholars (Shin, 2009).

When the literature about factors affecting the destination image has been examined, main factors have been revealed as previous experiences, tourism motivation, socio-demographic characteristics and various information sources (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). Because of rapid change in demographic structures in tourism, the importance of research based on demographic structure has increased. In most of the studies, the effect of demographic situations has been researched in the destination selection and image perception, and in some research meaningful differences have been found between image perceptions of visitors and their demographic structures like age, marital status and education (Chi et

al., 2009:1; Rittichainuwat et al., 2001; Beerli and Martin, 2003; Baloğlu and McCleary, 1999; Chen and Kerstetter, 1999). However, in other research, meaningful differences haven't been found between image perceptions of visitors and demographic factors (Chi et al., 2009).

In most research, the relation between perceived image and demographic factors such as gender, age, education, occupation, income and marital status has been examined (Chi et al., 2009) and the relation between image components and tourists' socio-demographic characteristics has emerged as a meaningful factor in terms of social class, education, age and gender (Beerli and Martin, 2003). Although many variables such as age, education, income, occupation and marital status have been stated as elements affecting image and perceptions, it is important to note that specifically age and education have been shown to be the most important factors affecting image among demographic variables (Baloğlu and McCleary, 1999). It is accepted that the importance of research concerning age being one of demographic factors has increased in travel literature, and there isn't any meaningful difference among under and over 50 year old tourists in terms of the destination image (Chi et al., 2009). It is seen that visitors without a four year education have perceived the destination image more positively than those having undergraduate and postgraduate education and that visitors have got different income situations has created a significant difference in evaluating the destination image (Chi et al., 2009). There isn't a significant difference among ages in perceiving pictorial memory performance (Smith and Mackay, 2001). Differences have been found between image perception and genders and education (Chen and Kerstetter, 1999).

RESEARCH METHOD

In this study, the demographic situations of visitors visiting Pamukkale were examined and the effect of education, age and income levels of domestic tourists visiting Pamukkale destination on their perception towards the Pamukkale site was researched. Primarily the survey study was conducted in the Pamukkale region as a part of thermal tourism and demographic situations of tourists coming to Pamukkale were inspected. Later, these aforementioned factors were considered and the visitors' attitudes were revealed. The research was implemented in two steps. In the first step secondary data was examined, and in the second step the data was collected through field research. In the field research, the survey method was used as the data collection method. After the aim

of the study was briefly explained in the front page of the survey form, it was specifically stated that the study would only be made for scientific aim and results would certainly be kept private.

The survey form is composed of two basic sections. In forming the first section of the survey form, research handling the topic scientifically was primarily examined and there were questions concerning perceptions towards Pamukkale destination; in the second section there were demographic questions aimed at local people taking the survey. Demographic questions were placed at the end of the survey form. In this study, in order to evaluate opinions of people included in the sample, the Likert attitude scale--extensively used in research based on quantitative data--was used. Likert type scale items are used as 3, 5 or 7 options. In this study, a Likert five-point scale (Tezbaşaran, 1997) was preferred in its original form. In determining perceptions towards the destination, survey takers were asked to assign each attitude statement according to agreement level by giving statements "absolutely agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, never agree".

The pre-application was primarily conducted to come up with valid results in the survey study forming the key point of the research. The pre-application of the study was realized by interviewing tourists. In reciprocal interviews, tourists' reaction to questions was observed. Notes were made if the person hesitated, or if there were inarticulate questions being asked. In addition, the tourists' ability to perceive questions easily was taken into account. After the pre-application, the final draft of the survey form was created, and this survey was used on tourists coming to Pamukkale by interviewing them face-to-face.

In this study--with the aim of revealing visitors' perceptions towards Pamukkale as a tourist destination--a total of 308 surveys taken by tourists visiting Pamukkale were analyzed according to various demographic variables. The data collected through the survey was analyzed with the SPSS statistical program developed for social sciences. First of all, surveys were checked to see if they had been filled out completely and if answers continued in a certain way were primarily examined. Frequency distributions of demographic data were handled and extrapolated. Finally, one-way variance analysis was applied in order to research the effect of education, age and income situations on visitors' perception criteria towards Pamukkale. When the result came out as meaningful in variance analysis, the Scheffe test was done.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Demographic findings being in descriptive, statistical base are stated in Table 1.

Table 1 Demographic Findings

Demographic Factors	Number	Percent (%)	Demographic Factors	Number	Percent (%)
Gender			Age		
Woman	134	44	25 and below	82	27
Man	174	56	26-30	65	22
Education			31-35	39	13
Primary	48	16	36-40	29	10
High School	72	24	41-45	43	14
Two-year degree	53	18	46 and above	42	14
Graduate	103	34	Income		
Postgraduate	24	9	500 and below	64	22
			501-999	83	28
			1.000-1499	64	21
			1500-1999	41	14
			2.000 and above	47	16

44% of the survey attendants are women and 56% are men. In this situation, 134 of attendants are women and 174 are men. When the educational background of the survey pool are examined, it is understood that 48 of these have primary education, 72 high school, 53 two-year degree, 103 graduate and 24 postgraduate diploma. Based on this data, 16% of attendants are primary education graduate, 24% high school, 18% two-year degree, 34% 4-year degree and 9% postgraduate. When ages of attendants are taken into account, it is seen that 65 people are between 26-30 years old, 39 people between 31-35 years old, 29 people between 36-40 years old, 43 people between 41-45 years old, and the remaining 42 people over 46 years old. When attendants are evaluated as percentage, 27% of them are 25 and below years old, 22% 26-30 years old, 13% 31-35 years old, 10% 36-40 years old, 14% 41-45 years old and 14% 46 and above years old. When incomes of survey takers are taken into account, 64 of them have income less than 500 TL, 83 have between 500-999 TL, 64 have between 1,000-1499, 41 have between 1,500-1,999 and 47 have income more than 2,000 TL. Monthly income of attendants in percentage:

22% of them have 500 and below, 28% between 501-999, 21% between 1000-1499, 14% between 1500-1999 TL and 16% 2,000 TL and above.

One-way variance analysis was applied to research the effect of the education of attendants visiting Pamukkale on their perception of this destination. Results of this analysis are shown in the table below.

Table 2 Education of Attendants and Statements

	F	p	Scheffe
Local transportation service is comfortable.	2.849	.024	3-5, 4-5
Traveling through the tour is possible.	4.279	.002	1-2,1-3
Service quality of accommodation facilities is high.	3.504	.008	1-3,1-5
Cost of holiday is higher than that of alternative regions.	2.586	.037	2-4
Pool entry fees are high.	2.865	.024	1-5

The difference between those having postgraduate education and those with 4-year and two-year degrees was determined to be meaningful regarding the comfort of the local transportation service ($F= 2,849$, $p<.024$). People with two-year and 4-year degrees are more likely to think local transportation service is comfortable than those with postgraduate education. In comments concerning the availability of the opportunity of traveling with the tour, the difference between those with primary education and those having high school and two-year degree education is significant ($F= 4,279$, $p<.002$). Questionees with only primary education regard the availability of the opportunity of traveling with the tour more positively than those with high school and 2-year degree education. Also in the statement “service quality of accommodation facilities is high”, those with primary education exhibit different attitudes than those with two-year degrees and postgraduate education ($F= 3,504$, $p<.008$). While those people with primary education think view the service quality of accommodation facilities in Pamukkale region as high, attendants possessing two-year degrees and postgraduate education perceive service quality as inadequate. In the statement “the cost of holiday is higher than that of alternative regions”, there is also a difference according to the education of attendants ($F= 2,586$, $p<.037$). Those with a high school education are more likely to regard the cost of holiday in Pamukkale as high as compared to those with 4-year degrees. Further, there is a difference observed between the agreement levels

regarding the statement “the pool entry fees are high” based upon education background. ($F=2.865$, $p<.024$). While attendants with a primary education regard the pool fees as very high, those with postgraduate education do not regard the pool fees as high.

One-way variance analysis was applied to research the effect of ages of attendants visiting Pamukkale destination on their perceptions towards this site. Findings are given in the table below.

Table 3 Ages of Attendants and Statements

	F	p	Scheffe
It has a unique?? atmosphere.	2.429	.035	2-4
It is a safe place.	2.849	.016	1-6
There is a large variety of foods and drinks in accommodation facilities.	3.428	.005	2-6
In accommodation facilities I feel at home.	2.898	.014	1-6,2-6
Health service is adequate.	2.526	.029	1-5
The cost of holiday in Pamukkale is generally higher than that of alternative regions.	2.285	.046	1-5
Accommodation prices are high.	2.700	.021	1-5, 2-5
Gift prices are high.	3.620	.003	1-5, 2-5
Prices of entertainment services are high.	5.173	.000	1-3,1-5
Museum entry fee is high.	2.561	.027	1-6

A significant difference is seen between ages of attendants and their attitudes toward the statement that Pamukkale has a unique?? atmosphere ($F=2.429$, $p<.035$). It is clear that attendants in the 26-30 age group regard Pamukkale as a unique?? atmosphere more than those in the 36-40 age group. The attitude sentence “Pamukkale is a safe place” shows a significant difference when it is examined according to ages of people surveyed ($F=2.849$, $p<.016$). Those visitors 25 and under years more highly perceive Pamukkale as a safe place than 46 years and over age group. When examining the opinion statement that there is a large variety of foods and drinks in accommodation facilities, a difference among age groups has also been detected ($F=3.428$, $p<.005$). Indeed, attendants between 26-30 years old regard the variety of foods and drinks in the Pamukkale accommodation facilities as adequate more than 46 and over

years old attendants. Attendants in 25 years old and under, and those between 26-30 years old give more points to the attitude sentence "In accommodation facilities I feel at home" than the 46 years and over age group ($F=2.898$, $p<.014$). When it is taken into account that people become more attached to their own houses as they become older, it is no surprise that younger attendants were more apt to feel at home during a trip. In the statement "Health service is adequate", 25 and under years old attendants also exhibit a different attitude than those between 41-45 years old ($F=2.526$, $p<.029$). While 25 and under years old attendants think health service is adequate in Pamukkale destination, those between 41-45 years old do not agree that this is the case. This result can be interpreted as showing that the importance of health services gains as one ages.

In terms of expense, significant differences can also be found among different age groups. For example, age was an important factor among attendants and their corresponding attitudes to the statement "The cost of holiday is generally higher than that of alternative regions," ($F=2.285$, $p<.046$). Those participants 25 and under more often regard the cost of holiday as high compared to those between 41-45 years old. A significant difference has also been detected between attendants' attitudes to the statement "Accommodation fees are high" and their ages ($F=2.700$, $p<.021$). 25 and under years old participants and participants between 26-30 years old regard accommodation prices as high more than those between 41-45 years old. The difference between attendants' attitudes to the statement "gift prices are high" and their ages has also been found to be meaningful ($F=3.620$, $p<.003$). It can be argued that 25 and under year old participants and participants between 26-30 years old regard gift prices in Pamukkale as high more than those between 41-45 years old. Further, the difference between attendants' attitudes to the statement "Prices of entertainment services are high" and their ages is meaningful ($F=5.173$, $p<.000$). 25 and under year old participants more often regard the prices of entertainment services in the Pamukkale region as high than those between 31-35 and 41-45 years old. Finally, not surprisingly, in the statement "museum entry fee is high", 25 and under years old participants exhibit a different attitude from 46 and over years old participants ($F=2.561$, $p<.027$). 25 and under years old participants think the museum entry fees are high more than 46 and over years old participants.

One-way variance analysis was applied to research the effect of income situations of attendants visiting Pamukkale towards this tourist destination. Findings are given in the table below.

Table 4 Income of participants and statements

	F	p	Scheffe
It is a safe place.	3.854	.004	1-4,1-5
There is quality service in accommodation facilities.	4.269	.002	1-4
Accommodation facilities are clean.	3.510	.008	1-2,2-3
Health service is adequate.	5082	.001	1-2,1-3,1-4,1-5
Prices of foods and drinks are high.	3.126	.015	1-3
Gift prices are high.	4.817	.001	1-2,1-3,1-4,1-5
Prices of entertainment services are high.	4.255	.002	1-4,1-5

The difference between incomes of attendants and their attitudes towards the statement that Pamukkale is a safe place has been found to be meaningful ($F=3.854$, $p<.004$). Attendants earning 500 TL and under regard Pamukkale as a safe place more than those having a 1500-1999 TL income and those having 2000 TL and over income. In the statement “There is quality service in accommodation facilities.”, attendants also exhibit a different attitude according to their income levels ($F=5.173$, $p<.000$). While attendants with a 500 TL and under income regard service in accommodation facilities as higher quality, those having income between 1500-1999 TL state that the quality of service in accommodation facilities is low. This result can be interpreted to mean that service quality in accommodation facilities in Pamukkale region is not at a satisfactory level to please visitors of a higher income group. In addition, a difference according to income levels of participants has been detected in the statement “accommodation facilities are clean” ($F=3.510$, $p<.008$). While attendants with a 500 TL and under income see accommodation facilities as clean more than those with an income between 501-999 TL, attendants having income between 501-999 TL think accommodation facilities are clean more than those having 1000-1499 TL. The difference between the approval of the statement “Health service is adequate” and income situations has also proven meaningful ($F=5.082$, $p<.001$). Attendants with a 500 TL and under income regard health service as adequate more than attendants in all other income groups, and attendants of other income groups state that they don’t regard health service as adequate. Incomes of participants and their attitudes to the statement “prices of foods and drinks are high” show a difference ($F=3.126$, $p<.015$). While attendants having

500 TL and under income regard prices of foods and drinks as high, those having income between 1000-1499 TL regard prices of foods and drinks as normal. The difference between the approval of the attitude statement "gift prices are high" and income situations is meaningful ($F=4.817$, $p<.001$). Attendants having 500 TL and under income regard gift prices as high more than those in all other income groups. In the statement "prices of entertainment services are high", attendants exhibit a different attitude depending on their income situations ($F=4.255$, $p<.002$). Attendants from the 500 TL and under income group regard prices of entertainment services as high more than those having income between 1500-1999 TL and those having 2000 TL and over income. When looked at prices of foods and drinks, gifts and entertainment services, it can be said that attendants having 500 TL and under income generally regard prices in these three groups as high.

RESULTS AND SUGGESTIONS

In this study, the destination perceptions of domestic tourists visiting Pamukkale destination were examined. In this study, one-way variance analysis was applied to research the effect of education, age and income situations of domestic tourists visiting Pamukkale destination on their perception criteria. When visitors' perception towards the destination were examined according to their education, age and income situations, significant differences have come out.

The data collected through the survey was analyzed by the SPSS statistical package program developed for social sciences. Frequency distributions of demographic data were primarily handled and evaluated. One-way variance analysis was applied to research the effect of visitors' education, age and income situations on their attitude criteria towards the destination perception. In the variance analysis, the Scheffe test was conducted in case the result was proven meaningful.

The difference between those having postgraduate education and those having 4-year and two-year degrees education was determined to be meaningful when it came to the comfort of local transportation service. Attendants possessing 2-year and 4-year degrees education view local transportation service as comfortable more often than those with postgraduate education. Therefore, it can be assumed that the comfort level of local transportation service is not adequate for visitors with a high level of education and should be improved. In this context, it should be noted specifically that firms providing the transportation service should do so using more comfortable vehicles. In comments concerning the

availability of opportunities to travel with a tour, the difference between visitors with a primary education and those with high school and two-year degree education is significant. Those with a primary education regard the availability of opportunities to travel with a tour more positively than those with high school and two-year degree education. However the arrangement of enough high-quality tours to satisfy tourists in Pamukkale will certainly make this destination more interesting and increase the number of tourists. It should also be taken into consideration that the role of the tour vehicles is important: they should be uniquely designed to be suitable for visitors' photographing and filming. They could also be decorated with local eye-catching motifs, which visitors would likely respond to positively.

In the statement of the service quality of accommodation facilities, those participants with a primary education exhibit different attitudes than those with two-year (and four-year??) degrees and postgraduate education. While attendants possessing only a primary education perceive the service quality of accommodation facilities in Pamukkale region as high, attendants with two-year (and four-year??) degrees and postgraduate education perceive the service quality as low. This result indicates that the service quality of accommodation facilities is yet at the desired level. In terms of the accommodation facilities, tourists expecting higher quality service should not be ignored: here, a great deal of responsibility falls directly to managers of these accommodation facilities.

In order to increase the service quality, it is particularly important to focus on in-service education of employees and to place emphasis on details in the design of, rooms, service areas and facilities. Also in the statement "the cost of holiday is higher than that of alternative regions", there are differences depending on education levels of attendants. Those with a high school education regard holiday costs in Pamukkale as high more than those having a four-year degree education. For this reason, we can conclude that the expected holiday cost should be brought to the average level according to alternative regions. The difference between attendants' approval for the statement "pool entry fees are high" and their education situations has also been found to be significant. While attendants taking primary education regard the pool fees as very high, in contrast, those with a postgraduate education do not view the pool fees as high.

Attendants' ages and their attitudes to the statement that "Pamukkale has a unique?? Atmosphere" show a significant difference. It is clear that attendants between 26-30 years old regard Pamukkale as a unique atmosphere more than those in the 36-40 age group. When examined

according to ages of attendants, a significant difference has been found in the attitude sentence "Pamukkale is a safe place". 25 and under years old participants think Pamukkale is a safe place more than 46 years and over participants. Pamukkale's image as "a safe place" can be considered a key factor being used to perceive the destination positively. A significant difference between the attitude sentence "there is a great variety of food and drinks in accommodation facilities" and ages of participants has been detected. It can be said that participants between 26-30 years old regard the variety of foods and drinks in accommodation facilities as adequate more often those in the 46 and over age group. This result can be interpreted to mean that 46 years and over old participants have a greater expectation of various food and drink options, perhaps due to varied health problems. Moreover, for visitors, local foods and drinks of the destination where they take place may be different. For this reason, in the accommodation facilities the presentation of foods and drinks specific to that region can be made. Therefore both the diversity will have been provided for visitors who have become bored at the sameness and also the introduction of local tastes will have been made.

Attendants in 25 and under years old and between 26-30 years old give more points to the attitude sentence "In accommodation facilities I feel at home" than 46 and over years old participants. Given that people become attached to their own houses as they become older, it can be said that the result that in the accommodation facilities younger participants feel at home is an expected result. 25 and under years old participants also exhibit different attitude towards the statement "health service is adequate" than those between 41-45 years old. While 25 and under years old participants think health service in Pamukkale region is adequate, those between 41-45 years old don't agree with that statement. This result can be interpreted that the importance of adequate health service carries more weight as a person ages. Moreover, to mention Pamukkale especially in health tourism causes expectations to increase. The difference between attendants' ages and their attitudes to the statement "the cost of holiday in Pamukkale is higher than that of alternative regions" has been found to be meaningful. Participants who are 25 years and under regard the cost of holiday in Pamukkale as high more often than those between 41-45 years old. Younger tourists look for more different alternatives in Pamukkale and regard the holiday costs, which are sourced from less touristic activities than other regions, as high. The diversifying of touristic activities is a subject that should be focused upon. Increasing the current limited offering of activities such as paragliding and horse riding and diversifying the recreation activities will especially

attract the interest of young visitors. The attendants' attitudes to the statement "accommodation prices are high" and their ages has been found to be significantly different. 25 and under year old participants and participants between 26-30 years old regard accommodation prices as high more than those between 41-45 years old. It can be presumed that the reason that accommodation prices are regarded as high is due to the unavailability of transportation options?? or various animations in the accommodation facilities. Creative activities offered by the accommodation facilities will both prevent visitors from regarding prices as high and also increase the commitment to the destination.

Continuing the same trend, the difference between attitudes regarding the statement "gift prices are high" and ages of participants has been proven noteworthy. It is clear that tourists in the 25 and under age group as well as those in the 26-30 year old age group perceive gift prices in Pamukkale as high more than those guests between 41-45 years old. Some ideas to overcome this problem would be to open up more shops or locations where tourists can purchase gifts, prices should overall be reduced, and there should be gifts unique to the region available. Regarding the issue of local items, the local Pamukkale government and business community should work together to support area inhabitants--especially women--to produce and sell their own local handicrafts. The could sell from their own stands or from common stands organized by the municipality. In addition to handicrafts, local foods could also be sold. Another related issue are visitors' attitudes regarding the statement "prices of entertainment services are high." Clearly here, age is also a considerable factor. 25 and under year old attendants regard prices of entertainment services in Pamukkale region as high more than attendants between 41-45 years old. Those in the 25 and under age group are seeking more entertainment opportunities at a more affordable price. Also when examining the statement "museum entry fee is high", 25 and under year old participants exhibit a different attitude from 46 and over year old attendants. Againh, those participants 25 years and under view the museum entry fees as being high more than those 46 years and over.

Moving now to the impact of income levels on attitudes, it has been proven that indeed income plays a role when it comes to the perception of Pamukkale as a safe place. Guests earning 500 TL and less see Pamukkale as a safe place more than often than those guests with an income between 1500-1999 TL 2000 TL and over. Further, when looking at the statement "There is quality service in the accommodation facilities", attendants also exhibit different attitudes according to their income situations. While visitors at the 500 TL and less income level

regard the service in the accommodation facilities as high, in contrast, visitors with an income between 1500-1999 TL state that the quality of the service in the accommodation facilities is low. This result can be interpreted to mean that the service quality in the accommodation facilities in the Pamukkale region is not adequate for those guests at a higher income levels. Not surprisingly, differences were also apparent when reacting to the statement “the accommodation facilities are clean”, depending on income levels. It is clear that the higher one’s income level is, the less they perceive the accommodation facilities as clean. Tourists in the 500 TL and less income group regard the accommodation facilities as clean more than those having income between 501-999 TL. As expected, visitors with an income between 501-999 TL think the accommodation facilities are clean more than those having income between 1000-1499 TL. In a similar pattern, the difference between their approval of the statement “health service is adequate” and their income situations was also found to be important. Attendants with a 500 TL and less income regard health service as adequate more than attendants in all other income groups. Notably, attendants in all other income groups do not believe that health service in the area is adequate.

Examining now the impact of income level on perceptions of price, it is worthy to note that attitudes vary when it comes to the statement “prices of foods and drinks are high” depending upon income level. While visitors in the 500 TL and less income group regard prices of foods and drinks as high, in contrast, those with an income between 1000-1499 TL regard prices of foods and drinks as normal. The difference between the approval of the attitude statement “gift prices are high” and income situations is also meaningful. Attendants with a 500 TL and less income regard gift prices as high more often than those in all other income groups. Certainly it is a fact that one’s income level affects the purchase of gifts and souvenirs. Opening various giftware stands suitable for every budget would be a useful step. In a related topic, visitors also view the statement “entertainment prices are high”, differently according to their income situations. Guests with a 500 TL and less income regard entertainment prices as high more than those with incomes between 1500-1999 TL and 2000 TL and above. When looking at prices of foods and drinks, gifts, and entertainment, it can be concluded that attendants at the 500 TL and less income level generally regard prices in these three areas as high.

The research results indicate that great value should be placed on the perceptions of visitors in order to increase the number of visitors coming to the Pamukkale region. In evaluating these results, it is clear how

important it is to train the local people and employees of the tourism facilities to help assist tourists in having an enjoyable and memorable time during their stay. This in turn will increase the visitors' perceptions in a positive way and will lead to important developments and the growth of the tourism industry in the region.

Since this research was done in a limited region, some problems were faced in obtaining sufficient, completely-filled out surveys. In addition, the research couldn't be conducted over a very wide sample. Regarding this issue, it is assumed that if this study is made over a wider sample, the generalization level of the research results may increase and give better results. One of the subjects which should be focused on in later research concerning Pamukkale are the factors which determine the destination image. The scope of research in the future can be widened in this direction, and key components forming Pamukkale's image as a tourist destination vis- à-vis independent variables can be examined.

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SUBMITTED: MAR 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: OCT 2012

ACCEPTED: JAN 2013

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ATTITUDES TOWARDS TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS IN THE ISLANDS OF LEMNOS AND HYDRA

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Many Greek islands, like Crete, Rhodes, Corfu, Santorini and Mykonos, are included among the most popular tourist destinations worldwide. For Greece and especially for its small islands, tourism constitutes a vital factor of development and prosperity. Our study is concentrated on two, not so popular, Greek islands (Hydra and Lemnos) with different characteristics and focuses on residents' attitudes and perceptions about tourism development. Based on a sample of 400 residents of Hydra and Lemnos, we find that the economic parameters contribute significant on the perceptions' formation about tourism development. We also find that there is a reduced perception about the negative affect of tourism on society and environment, especially when the income is directly depended from tourism.

Keywords: *Hydra, Lemnos, Tourism growth, Attitude, Perception*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is one of the most dynamically developing sectors in the world economy and plays a very important role in the development and sustainability of Greek economy. In 2009 it composed 15,2 % of GNP and 18,5% of total employment (A.G.T.E, 2010). The economic situation in smaller Greek islands is not prosperous, consequently tourism,



constitutes an important source of income. Tsartas (2009) reports that it has been observed a progressive but constant and in many cases with fast rhythm "tourismization" (main economic orientation to the tourism) in the anthropography of the majority of the Greek islands. The growth of tourism, causes important impacts worldwide both positive and negative (Gürsoy et al., 2000; Haley et al., 2004) which are particularly sensitive in small islands, because of their unique characteristics, such as the limited space, the small amounts of natural goods and raw material, as well as the limited number of manpower (Kokkosis and Tsartas, 2001).

Among the positives of tourism are included the increase of income (Dwyer *et al.*, 2000; Karamanidis, 2006; Mavrodontis, 2006), the increase of employment opportunities (Milman and Pizam, 1988), the reduction of unemployment (Dimitriadis et al., 2007; Chacko and Schaffer, 1993), the entrepreneurial opportunities (Štuhec et al., 2009), the preservation and resurgence of the culture (Mavrodontis, 2006; Mpenetatos et al., 2004; Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999), the improvement of infrastructures and services (Gyimothi, 1999), the increase of recreational installations (Lankford et al., 1997; Williams and Lawson 2001), the increase of the amusement options (Davis et al., 1988), the improvement of the police and fire safety (Lankford et al., 1997; Williams and Lawson 2001) and many others. Moreover, tourism indirectly affects a lot of other productive sectors such as building activity, technical projects, trade and recreation activities. Meliou & Maroudas (2010), found that "money" is considered amongst the most important contributions of tourism.

However, although the increase of tourism offers many positives, it can also be the cause of a lot of problems in the local societies. It has been accused for negative environmental impacts (Newsome, et al., 2004), for increase of land's value (Mpenetatos, et al., 2004), for being a threat of alteration of the local traditional culture (Andriotis and Vaughan, 2003; Kokkosis and Tsartas, 2001), for undesirable changes in the family values (Ap and Crompton 1993; Henthorne et al., 2010), for the increase of criminality, pollution and traffic congestion (Jeong and Faulkner, 1996), for uncontrolled building (Spilanis and Karayiannis, 2009). Also there has been an increase of prices (Haley et al., 2004), taxes (Dimitriadis et al., 2007), inflation (Pearce, 1980) and others.

The attitude of the residents towards tourism is very important in order to create a hospitable and attractive environment (Var et al., 1977). According to **Przeclawski (1986)**, when the reception community makes tourists feel welcome, it is more likely for them to visit it again and also to recommend it to others. The social exchange theory has often been used to interpret the effect of the material and psychological transactions

on the attitudes of the residents of tourist destinations (Ap, 1992; Gursoy et al., 2002; Jurowski et al., 1997; Yoon et al., 1999). Many studies (Haralambopoulos and Pizam, 1996; Johnson et al., 1994; Weaver and Lawton, 2001) refer to an important relationship between the perceptions of tourism and the economic dependence from it, which implies that the residents that enjoy more economical profits, that come from tourism, have more positive attitudes in the tourist industry. Thus, the balance of perception of the residents for the cost and the benefits of tourism are considered to be an important factor for the visitor's satisfaction and it is of vital importance for the tourist growth (Allen *et al.*, 1988; Andriotis and Vaughan, 2003; Lankford and Howard, 1994).

The demographic characteristics of the residents are also considered as significant factors that shape their attitudes and perceptions towards tourism. Harrill and Potts (2003) argue that women are more opposed to tourism than men. Zhang (2008) points out that older person are more aware of the profits of tourism, because they have seen the improvement of the quality of life and the economy in their community, compared to the past. In contrast, Rastegar (2010) argues that younger residents of tourist destinations show high expectations of tourism, while older residents look at it with more doubt because of the cultural changes that may tourism bring to the area. As far as the level of education is concerned, it was determined that in the Greek island environment, the individuals with higher level of education had more positive attitude towards tourism (Haralambopoulos and Pizam, 1996).

Hydra and Limnos are the 2 islands in which the present research study was performed. Hydra is a small island, very close to Athens, with a population that does not exceed 3 thousands residents. The tourism development of Hydra began in the 50's. The island is distinguished for its natural beauties, for maintaining the local heritage, for its authentic town planning and architecture and it is famous for his intense life and every year it accepts a big number of tourists. Consequently, almost all the residents of the island are engaged with tourism (Hristodoulou, 2007). In a research which took place in 2007, Hydra occupied the 9th out of 111 selected classified tourism island destinations worldwide. However, the last few years it faces economic crisis. (Hristodoulou, 2009).

Limnos is found in the north-eastern Aegean and it is inhabited by 18 thousand permanent residents. The main activities of the residents are agriculture, livestock-farming, fishing and trade. In the last decades, Limnos gradually developed in a place of holiday, without however having a balanced strategy of tourism growth. The intense building activity, with rather negative consequences for the natural environment

and the traditional character of the island, gave job opportunities in a big part of the population, stopping the domestic immigration. However, apart from the development of similar activities, as well as the demand in the tourist sector services, the residents remain attached to the traditional agricultural and livestock-farming activities (Plantzos et al., 2005).

The purpose of the present study was to develop a valid and reliable instrument in order to be used in measuring Greek islands' residents' perceptions towards the effect of tourism. Moreover, it aims to explore the effect of the perceptions' related factors in forming the attitudes of the local residents.

METHODOLOGY

Sample and Measurement Instrument

The sample of the present study is constituted by 400 residents living on the islands of Hydra and Lemnos islands who randomly were selected. The sample size is representative for a 5% error margin (Saunders et al., 2000). Males and females are equally presented in the sample, while the mean age is about 38 years old.

As measurement instrument a questionnaire was used, which is consisted of 49 statements or questions divided in three sections. In the first section there is only one statement which determines the attitude of the residents towards tourism development in their island. This statement is rated on a 7-point Likert scale from absolutely negative attitude (1), to absolutely positive attitude (7). The second section consists of 42 statements which measure the positive and negative perceptions of residents about the different parameter of tourist influence. For the construction of the second section we have used 10 previous instruments (Oviedo-Garcia *et al.*, 2008; Koa & Stewart, 2002; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Yoon et al., 2001; Zhang, 2008; Huh & Vogt, 2008; Mason & Cheyne, 2000; Törn, *et al.*, 2007). These statements are rated on a 7- point Likert scale from absolutely untruth (1), to absolutely truth (7). Finally, the third section is constituted by 5 questions referring to the demographic data of the respondents such as gender, age, income, education and relation of the occupation with the tourism. Furthermore, there is a statement about the improvement of family's income due to the tourism growth, which is measured as the statements of the second section.

Scale Validation

The validation of the research instrument consists of two tests. The first one refers to the content validity and the second one to the construct validity. Content Validity is based on the extent to which a measurement reflects the specific intended domain of content (Carmines & Zeller, 1991) and is realized by a review of the literature on the subject of the study, and pilot test in a panel of experts (academics and professionals). In order to examine the factor structure of the instrument, the data was subjected to factor analysis and reliability analysis for each of the emerged factors.

The extraction of factors was performed with Principal Component Analysis method, using the Varimax Orthogonal rotation of the axis which is one of the most popular methods of Orthogonal rotation according to Sharma (1996) and Haier *et al.* (1995). As Measure of Sampling Adequacy (M.S.A) the index of Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (K.M.O) was used. This is the most popular diagnostic measure and it includes the degree to which some items belong to the same factor (Sharma, 1996). Sharma (1996) suggests that K.M.O has to be greater than 0,8. Furthermore, the Bartlett's test of sphericity for the overall significance of all correlations within the correlation matrix was performed. The criterion of Eigenvalue in order to determine the number of factors was used. Factors whose Eigenvalue is over one are selected. Finally, the factor loadings of the items were checked. In a sample of more than 350 individuals, a loading greater than 0,30 is considered as significant (Haier *et al.*, 1995).

We have run a first factor analysis with the 42 initial items of the second section. Seven items were eliminated because their loadings were low or they load onto two factors equally. After the elimination of the 7 items, we have run again factor analysis and the final factorial model is constituted by 8 distinctive factors which are related with the perceptions of the residents. Four of them determined positive perceptions, while three negative perceptions. The positive perceptions are named: Improvement of finances (F2), Protection of environment and improvement of public infrastructures (F4), Increase of opportunities of amusement and choices of local market (F5), Conservation of monuments and maintenance of cultural heritage (F6) and Reduction of xenophobia (F8). The negative perceptions are named: Increase of delinquency and affects on ethos (F1), Negative impacts on Society, Tradition and Environment (F3) and Increase of life's cost (F7).

The results in table 1, are very satisfying as they cover the restrictions which were mentioned earlier.

Table 1 Results of Factor Analysis

a/a	Items	Factors	Loadings
The tourism causes:			
1	...increase of criminality	F1 <i>Increase of Delinquency and affects on ethos</i> Eigenvalue=6,723	0,783
2	...increase of alcoholism		0,778
3	...increase of prostitution		0,858
4	...increase of drug trafficking		0,773
5	...negative effects in the ethos		0,552
6	...increase of gambling		0,690
7	...transmission of diseases		0,670
8	...improvement of the economic status of the island	F2 <i>Improvement of finances</i> Eigenvalue=5,622	0,741
9	...improvement of the purchasing power		0,839
10	...creation of jobs		0,824
11	...attraction of investments		0,681
12	...improvement of the economic status of the residents		0,836
13	...improvement of the tax income of the local authorities (municipality)		0,528
14	...increase of labour exploitation of local population	F3 <i>Negative impacts on Society, Tradition and Environment</i> Eigenvalue =2,830	0,481
15	...negative influence in the lifestyle of locals		0,602
16	...negative effect in the natural environment		0,765
17	...increase of the pollution of the environment		0,602
18	...difficulty in accessing the beaches		0,540
19	...negative effect in the cultural heritage		0,746
20	...reduction of the number of small businesses		0,480
21	...protection of the environment	F4 <i>Protection of environment and improvement of public</i>	0,822
22	...improvement of the general picture of environment		0,839
23	...creation of protected regions of natural beauty		0,821

24	...improvement of public infrastructures	<i>infrastructures</i> Eigenvalue=2,064	0,648
25	...increase of occasions of amusement	F5 <i>Increase of opportunities of amusement and choices of local market</i> Eigenvalue=1,776	0,703
26	...increase of infrastructures of recreation		0,827
27	...increase of choices within the local market		0,684
28	...conservation and restoration of historical places and monuments	F6 <i>Conservation of monuments and maintenance of cultural heritage</i> Eigenvalue=1,578	0,757
29	...maintenance of cultural heritage		0,744
30	...maintenance of the cultural identity		0,603
31	...increase of the price of goods and services	F7 <i>Increase of life's cost</i> Eigenvalue=1,294	0,823
32	...increase of the cost of real estates		0,807
33	...increase in property rents		0,742
34	...improvement of the behaviour of the locals towards the foreigners	F8 <i>Reduction of xenophobia</i> Eigenvalue=1,090	0,806
35	...reduction of xenophobia of the locals		0,812

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0,842.
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square=6626,35, df=595,
Sig. = 0,001
Total Variance Explained = 65,647%.

After the factor analysis, the eight new variables were created from the mean scores of the variables which explain each factor.

For testing the reliability of resulting factors Cronbach's *alpha* index was used. The concept of reliability refers to the extent at which a group of items is consistent and what intends to measure (Hair *et al.*, 1995). Nunally (1978) suggests that Cronbach's *alpha* should be more than 0,7 so as to be characterized a construct reliable. From the results, which are presented on table 2, we can conclude that all factors are reliable.

Table 2 Reliability Analysis

Factors	Cronbach's α
F1. <i>Increase of Delinquency and affects on ethos</i>	0,890
F2. <i>Improvement of finances</i>	0,864
F3. <i>Negative impacts on Society, Tradition and Environment</i>	0,796
F4. <i>Protection of environment and improvement of public infrastructures</i>	0,856
F5. <i>Increase of occasions of amusement and choices of local market</i>	0,750
F6. <i>Conservation of monuments and maintenance of cultural heritage</i>	0,823
F7. <i>Increase of life's cost</i>	0,729
F8. <i>Reduction of xenophobia</i>	0,791

RESULTS

The two most important factors of perceptions are “Increase of life's cost” which expresses a negative perception and “Improvement of finances” which expresses a positive perception of the residents. There is an overstressing perception about the positive effects of tourism and degradation about the negative perception, except for “Increase of life's cost”. The attitude of the residents towards the tourism growth is positive. However, the coefficient of variation for all the factors is very high and thus we can conclude that there are differences between the perceptions of the residents of the two islands.

Table 3 Basic Statistics

Factors	Mean	Std. Deviation	Coefficient of Variation
F1. <i>Increase of Delinquency and affects on ethos</i>	3,14	1,49	47,45%
F2. <i>Improvement of finances</i>	4,92	1,32	26,82%
F3. <i>Negative impacts on Society, Tradition and Environment</i>	3,16	1,21	38,29%
F4. <i>Protection of environment and improvement of public infrastructures</i>	3,77	1,45	38,46%
F5. <i>Increase of occasions of amusement and choices of local market</i>	4,41	1,37	31,06%
F6. <i>Conservation of monuments</i>	4,62	1,54	33,33%

<i>and maintenance of cultural heritage</i>			
F7. Increase of the cost of life	5,91	1,06	17,93%
F8. Reduction of xenophobia	4,66	1,54	33,04%
<i>Attitude towards tourism growth</i>	5,59	1,54	27,54%

Effect of the Place of Residence on Perceptions' related Factors

In order to determine the differences both in the attitude and the perceptions of the residents of the two islands towards the tourism growth a t-test was performed. From the results, presented in the table 4, arises that there are significant differences in the five out of eight factors of perception.

The residents of Hydra Island have better perceptions than the inhabitants of Lemnos towards the impact of tourism on "Improvement of finances" and "Reduction of xenophobia". They exaggerate the impact of tourism in the "increase of the cost of life". On the other hand, the inhabitants of Lemnos give more emphasis on the negative effects of tourism in the "Increase Delinquency and affect on ethos" and in the "Negative impacts on Society, Tradition and Environment". The attitude towards tourism between the residents of the two islands is about the same.

Table 4 t- test of equality of means

	Lemnos		Hydra		Sig. 2-tailed
	Mean	Std.D	Mean	Std.D	
Attitude towards tourism growth	5,49	1,66	5,69	1,42	0,198
F1. Increase of Delinquency and affects on ethos	3,73	1,47	2,53	1,26	0,000
F2. Improvement of finances	4,73	1,28	5,11	1,33	0,004
F3. Negative impacts on Society, Tradition and Eenvironment	3,44	1,23	2,88	1,13	0,000

F4. <i>Protection of environment and improvement of public infrastructures</i>	3,82	1,36	3,73	1,53	0,541
F5. <i>Increase of occasions of amusement and choices of local market</i>	4,49	1,36	4,32	1,38	0,215
F6. <i>Conservation of monuments and maintenance of cultural heritage</i>	4,63	1,46	4,60	1,62	0,880
F7. <i>Increase of life's cost</i>	5,63	0,99	6,20	1,04	0,000
F8. <i>Reduction of xenophobia</i>	4,50	1,35	4,81	1,69	0,046

Effect of Demographic Data in Attitude and Perceptions' related Factors

The demographic characteristics were examined in relation to their impact on attitude and perceptions of the residents. Two ANOVA tests were conducted (one for Lemnos and one for Hydra), with each characteristic as the independent variable, and attitude and each perception's related factor as the dependent variables. The relation of occupation with tourism makes more positive the attitude ($\text{Sig.}=0,000<0,05$) and improves the perception, ($\text{Sig.}=0,046<0,05$) of the inhabitants of Hydra, towards the improvement of finances due to tourism. The attitude and the perceptions of the inhabitants of Lemnos do not depend on the relation of their occupation with tourism. The gender of inhabitants, for both islands, does not constitute a characteristic which differentiates their attitude and perceptions.

The age of Hydra's residence is positively related with the "*Increase of the cost of life*" (Pearson correlation =0,193 - Sig.=0,006) and the "*Increase of Delinquency and the affect on ethos*" (Pearson correlation =0,153 - Sig.=0,031). The age of Lemno's residence is positively related with the attitude (Pearson correlation =0,147 - Sig.=0,040) and the "*Increase of occasions of amusement and choices of local market*" (Pearson correlation =0,167 - Sig.=0,018).

The increase of the family's income due to tourism, for Lemno's residence, is positively related with the «Attitude towards the growth of tourism» (Pearson Correlation=0,235- Sig.=0,001) as well as with the perceptions «Improvement of finances» (Pearson Correlation=0,217-

Sig.=0,002) and «Reduction of xenophobia» (*Pearson Correlation=0,174- Sig.=0,014*).

Table 5 Correlation Matrix

Μεταβλητές		Lemnos		Hydra	
Improvement family's income due to tourism		<i>Pearson Correlation</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Pearson Correlation</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
	Attitude towards tourism growth	0,235	0,001	0,335	0,000
	F1. <i>Increase Delinquency and affect on ethos</i>	-0,022	0,760	-0,003	0,965
	F2. <i>Improvement of finances</i>	0,217	0,002	0,202	0,004
	F3. <i>Negative impacts on Society, Tradition and Environment</i>	0,065	0,359	-0,098	0,169
	F4. <i>Protection of environment and improvement of public infrastructures</i>	0,084	0,238	0,256	0,002
	F5. <i>Increase of occasions of amusement and choices of local market</i>	0,007	0,295	-0,031	0,663
	F6. <i>Conservation of monuments and maintenance of cultural heritage</i>	-0,110	0,221	0,195	0,005
	F7. <i>Increase of life's cost</i>	-0,010	0,886	-0,175	0,013
	F8. <i>Reduction of xenophobia</i>	0,174	0,014	0,076	0,284

For residents of Hydra, the results show that the increase of family's income due to tourism, is positively related with the «Attitude towards tourism growth» (*Pearson Correlation=0,335- Sig.=0,001*) and moreover with the perceptions «Improvement of finances» (*Pearson Correlation=0,202- Sig.=0,004*), «Protection of environment and improvement of public infrastructures» (*Pearson Correlation=0,256- Sig.=0,002*) and «Conservation of monuments and maintenance of cultural heritage» (*Pearson Correlation=0,195- Sig.=0,005*). In parallel

the increase of family's income due to tourism is negatively related, with the «Increase of the cost of life» (*Pearson Correlation*=-0,175-*Sig.*=0,013).

Effect of Perceptions' related Factors on Attitude

In order to determine which of the perceptions influence residents' attitudes towards the tourism growth, two multiple regressions were performed. The first refers to Lemnos island and the second one to Hydra island. In both cases the stepwise method was used and the "attitude towards the tourism growth" was the dependent variable, while the eight factors of perception were the independent variables. The results of two regression analyses are presented in table 5.

Table 5 Regression Analyses

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	Lemnos		Hydra	
		<i>Beta</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Attitude towards the tourism growth	F1	-0,131	0,040		
	F2	0,491	0,000	0,505	0,000
	F3			-0,276	0,000
	F8			0,154	0,005
		R²=0,243		R²=0,445	

In the first regression analysis (Lemnos) only two factors are significant (F1 and F2) while the variance explained by these factors is 24,3% of the total variance. In the second regression analysis (Hydra) there are three factors (F2, F3, F8) significant and the variance explained is 44,5%. The common factor for the two islands is the second factor "improvement of finances". This means that the attitude, towards tourism, of the residents of both islands is positively affected principally by the improvement of their finances. Moreover, the attitude of the residents of Lemnos is negatively affected by the factor "Increase of delinquency and affects on ethos". On the other hand, the attitude of the residents of Hydra is negatively affected by the factor "Negative impacts on Society, Tradition and Environment" and positively by the factor "Reduction of xenophobia".

CONCLUSIONS – DISCUSSION

In this study has been developed a valid and reliable instrument to measure the perceptions of the residents for the positive and negative effects of tourism in Greek islands. The research results show that the residents of both islands have from positive to very positive attitude concerning the tourist growth of their islands. The perceptions for the positive effects of tourism are highly emphasized, while the negative effects are relatively downgraded, except of the increase of cost of life. Although the results do not show any important differences in the attitude of the residents of the two islands, towards the tourism growth, nevertheless only the residents of Hydra conceive that the positive effect of tourism in the improvement of the economic parameters are higher and at the same time they believe that the negative effect in the cost of life is also higher. The residents of Lemnos more than the residents of Hydra, from the negative effects of tourism for example violence emphasize the morals, the social life, the traditions and the environment.

The long-lasting mingling of the residents of Hydra with tourism, concerning the residents of Hydra brings the results of the present study in contrast with the other precedents, that are based on the life-cycle theory of tourism (Butler 's life - cycle theory) and which claim that the residents that present smaller exposure to tourism have more positive attitude towards it, than the residents that have an extensive experience (Akis et al., 1996). The exact opposition is also observed to the discoveries of Allen *et al.* (1988), whose searching based on the “tourism carrying capacity theory”, determined that the perceptions of the residents deteriorate when there is an increase of tourist growth. Although Hydra has a tourist tradition for over 50 years, its residents do not present more negative attitude towards the tourist growth, compared to the residents of Limnos. On the contrary, the residents of the "developing" Limnos are those that point out, more than the residents of Hydra, the negative effects of tourism to the society, the traditions, the culture and the environment.

The attitudes of the residents of both islands concerning the tourism growth are influenced, in decisive degree, from their perception of the positive effect of tourism in the improvement of the economic parameters, with the residents of Hydra giving in this factor bigger importance. The consequences that tourism has on the society, the traditions and the environment influence negatively the configuration of the attitude of the residents of Hydra, while they also influence negatively the attitude of the residents of Lemnos the increase of delinquency and the negative effect of

tourism to the morals. However, both effects are very weak and they affect the least in the configuration of the attitudes, particularly if they are lined up against the positive perceptions for the effect of the economic parameters.

From the results it is rendered obvious that the more important perception, that determines the positiveness of the attitude of the residents towards the tourism growth, is the one related to the improvement of the economic parameters, individual and social, because of tourism. Previous studies, in the frame of the theory of social transaction, support that the residents that conceive the economic profits that arise from tourism, are very likely to have more positive attitudes and perceptions and support the tourism growth (Jurowski et al., 1997; King et al., 1993).

The improvement of revenue due to tourism was found to make the attitudes of residents more positive, in both islands, towards the tourism growth and stronger in their perception for the positive effect of tourism in the improvement of their finance. This discovery aligns absolutely to the theory of social transaction and the arising opinion that the residents conceive that their personal profits from tourism are increasing will express more positive attitude to the tourist growth (Ap, 1992).

There is an interest in the discoveries that concern the residents of Hydra which indicate its positive cross-correlation in the improvement of the family income due to tourism, not only with the perception for the improvement of the economic parameters, but also with the increase of the perception in maintaining the monuments, the cultural heritage, the protection of the environment and the improvement of the public infrastructures due to tourism. At the same time the negative cross-correlation in improvement of the family income was recorded with the perception in the increase of the cost of life. Although the perceptions for these effects, except of the improvement of the economical parameters, are very weak, they may indicate that the higher the dependence of family income is in tourism, in a period of tourist crisis, the less objective the residents perception for the positive and negative effects of tourism are. These results are in agreement with those of Gursoy and Rutherford (2004), who states that the more the inhabitants understand that the local economy needs improvement the better they evaluate the economic profits and minimize the social cost and this leads the residents to support tourism development.

However, it has already been pointed out that the growth of the tourism activity although it is economically desirable, it can simultaneously be socially and environmentally detrimental (Igoymenakis et al., 1998). The over-estimation of the positive repercussions of tourism,

but mainly the ignorance or the neglect of its negative effects upon the local societies and the environment, can finally downgrade the tourism destination, turn the tourists to other destinations and finally bring about dramatic reduction in the economic prosperity of the residents (Holder, 1988).

The results of this study indicate that the decision making only from professionals of tourist sector, who usually constitute the members of organizations with weighty and decisive opinion (Chambers, Councils e.t.c.), may include risks for the tourism sustainability. Many theorists recommend the participation of the local community in decision making for the tourism development (Ap & Crompton, 1993; Williams & Lawson, 2001).

The differentiation of the perceptions of the residents of Limnos and about the Hydra effects of tourism indicates that the conclusions of the present study are very difficult to be generalized. It appears that the diversity in the tourism growth and in the economic dependence of the residents from tourism can influence their perceptions regarding its effects. Consequently, for the precise estimation of the attitudes and perceptions of the residents of every Greek island concerning tourism may require separate studies.

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SUBMITTED: AUG 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: DEC 2012

ACCEPTED: JAN 2013

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ANALYSING THE INFLUENCE OF LOW-COST AIRLINES ON TOURISTS' PERCEPTION OF SERVICE QUALITY

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This paper aims to explore the characteristics of low-cost airlines and evaluate their influence on tourists' perception of service quality. Several aspects related to the low-cost business model are highlighted within this paper and they are all interpreted according to their relationship with tourists' perception of airline service quality. A survey was conducted on a sample of tourists frequently flying on low-cost airlines with an aim to interpret the correlation between factors influencing respondents' perception of different airline service quality elements. The research also dealt with numerous factors affecting the marketing of low-cost airline such as: passenger's nationality, annual income, frequency of air travel, airline service level and air ticket prices. The essential research results confirmed that the price factor has a primary influence on tourists' perception of quality when compared to many other factors attributed to low-cost airline services.

Keywords: *Airline economics, low-cost airlines, service quality, air ticket prices, tourism*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

No doubt that air transport is considered among the leading industries that have a great economical and social impact upon different nations of the world. The industry's growth and technical achievements contributed enormously to the advance of modern societies. Aviation provided the best worldwide transport network capable of handling international trade and tourism. In the beginning of the new millennium, experts predicted that the 21st century will be the century of the service industries which encompasses numerous sectors such as transport, tourism, telecommunications, insurance and banks. Although these forecasts are



very promising for the travel sector, the early years of the new millennium brought many challenges and threats to the industry. These challenges were mainly responsible for the failure of many airlines in making the necessary balance between their supply of air services and the necessary level of passenger demand. Most of the negative factors affecting airline operations were generated from the external environment, such as the 11th of September attacks, the Iraq war, the SARS / A (H1N1) epidemics, a series of natural disasters in the US, Indonesia and Japan, in addition to a number of terrorist attacks, the world economic recession, not to forget the rise of fuel prices for a number of consecutive years due to economical and worldwide political instability. Other internal factors were due to the incapability of airline managers to cope with the fast changing business environment. This deteriorating situation was accompanied by a wave of structural changes in the industry which was shaped in the adoption of cost-cutting policies that aimed to improve productivity levels and minimize labor power. This new environment created radical changes in the strategies of legacy airlines. Although the political and economical environments of the international market were instable, a group of creative airline models succeeded in gaining a significant level of profit during the last decade. These airlines have a lot of common characteristics as they rely upon effective strategic plans, use successful management techniques and provide a satisfactory level of service quality to their customers. These types of airlines are described as: 'low-cost airlines'. They succeeded in achieving what traditional / legacy airlines failed to achieve in terms of operation efficiency and economic stability. Even though world leading traditional airlines tried to abolish these carriers out of the competition, they still managed to create strong brands in the world market. It's important to mention that these airlines are also on their way to establish a strong presence in the tourism industry during the upcoming years.

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

Low-cost airline defined

Krishan (2005) defines the term 'no frills airline' as:

"A service, as an airline flight, providing only the basics, with no additional amenities."

Najda (2003) defines this model as: "An airline that operates a point-to-point network, pays employees below the industry average wage, and offers no frills service". Another more detailed definition demonstrates a

number of synonyms to the term: ‘A low-cost airline, also known as low-cost carrier or budget airline or no frills airline or discounted carrier or low-fare airline is an airline that offers low-price tickets in exchange for eliminating a number of traditional air passenger services’

The economics of low-cost airlines

The economical characteristics of low-cost airlines include the following:

1. No complimentary in-flight service (no frills), which lowers the operating costs by 6-7 per cent and eventually the crew staffing costs. Flexibility in staff working schedule, a lack of overnight stays for the airline staff at non-base locations and streamlined operations (e.g. on some airlines toilets on domestic flights are only emptied at cabin crew requests rather than at each turnaround to lower costs).
2. One class cabins (in most cases)
3. No pre-assigned seating (in most cases).
4. Ticket-less travel (in most cases)
5. High frequency routes to compete with other airlines on high density (popular) routes and up to three flights a day on low-density routes.
6. Short turn around, often less than half an hour, with a high level of aircraft rotations (e.g. the level of aircraft utilization is higher than other airlines) and less time charged on the airport and runway.
7. The use of secondary airports where it is feasible to operate point-to-point flights.
8. A large number of the carrier’s fleet is leased, reducing the level of depreciation and standardizing costs.
9. Numerous airline operations are outsourced such as ground staff and check-in. These procedures are responsible for minimizing overheads and reducing overhead costs by 11-15 per cent.
10. Relying upon standardized aircraft types (e.g. Boeing 737s) to reduce the cost of maintenance and the range of spare parts that need to be held for repairs.
11. Limited office space at the airports (Combe, 2004).
12. Heavy emphasis on advertising, especially billboards, to offset the declining use of travel agents as the main source of bookings.
13. Heavy dependence upon the Internet and the telephone for bookings.
14. A small administrative staff with several sales-related staff on

commission to improve the level of performance (as well as pilots in some cases) (Page 2005).

Table 1 Low-cost airlines' techniques to reduce units costs

Cost category	Cost item	Techniques for reducing costs
Aircraft ownership costs	-Ownership structure -Fleet structure -Aircraft utilization	-Anti-cyclical purchasing -Optimize owned/leased mix -Fleet harmonization -Optimize mix of older and new aircraft -Reduce turn around times. -Reduce maintenance down-time.
Fuel costs	-Route efficiency -Purchasing costs -Weight reduction	-Shorter en-route and approach times -Reduce delays, use smaller airports -Reduction in service fees -Use of fuel hedging strategy. -Calculation of 'no show' passengers -Through product innovation (e.g. seats)
Maintenance costs	-Fleet -service costs	-Fleet harmonization -Reduce average fleet age -Optimize maintenance activities -joint purchasing of some work
Crew costs	-Productivity -Wage-related costs -Crew costs	-Improved planning of crew logistics -Lower block hour restrictions -Fewer and/or less senior cabin crew -Reduction of extra-wage allowances -Reduce the need for overnight stays. -Reduce allowances for overnight stays
Catering costs	-Reduce unit costs -Reduce volumes	-Simplification of meal choice -reduce logistics costs for delivery -Monitor passengers vs. available meals -Improve waste management
Distribution	-Ticketing -Sales channels -Sales commissions	-Development of e-ticketing -Self-service check-ins -Divert customers to on-line channels -Efficient customer service call centre -Target driven contracts with agents -Reduce commissions

Source: International Air Transport Association (2006)

In the following table, the international passenger traffic volume indicates the superiority of low-cost airlines over traditional carriers

Table 2 Scheduled passengers carried internationally by airlines
2010

Rank	Airline	Passengers (000)
1	Ryanair *	71.229
2	Lufthansa	41.660
3	Easyjet *	37.665
4	Air France	30.882
5	Emirates	30.848
6	British Airways	26.320
7	KLM	22.787
8	Delta Air Lines	21.029
9	American Airlines	20.356
10	Cathay Pacific Airways	19.723

Note: *= Low-cost airline

Source: International air transport association (2011)

The service quality of low-cost airlines

There has been some criticism about the quality of low-cost airlines regarding their customer services. It's important to point out that the majority of travellers are currently satisfied by their level of services. The fares offered by low-cost airlines are always lower than scheduled airlines, which makes millions of carried passengers satisfied with their quality of service given in consideration the value for money offered to them. Not to forget that scheduled airlines do not receive high satisfactory rates by passengers comparing to low-cost operators nowadays. It is evident that the low-cost cost airline model altered the way people think about travelling (Horner and Swarbrooke, 2004). Although low-cost airlines had a negative reputation about their level of airline service quality for some time, it's now agreed upon that they are reshaping the airline industry by offering a highly satisfactory air travel experience. They are capable of competing with traditional carriers in high-density / lucrative markets. US based airlines, like Southwest Airlines and Jet blue Airways, received high service quality rankings throughout the years by

Skytrax. It is expected that low-cost airlines will continue to perform better than other traditional airlines for the following reasons:

-1- Low-cost airlines do not have high operating costs like them. Traditional airlines invest much of its costs in maintaining hubs in addition to high labour costs.

-2- The low price strategy of low-cost airlines enabled them to penetrate highly profitable markets and compete with traditional airlines.

Recently, low-cost airlines are performing very well in at least two of the three most important airline quality factors (cancellations- on-time departure / arrival- delays) (Rupp, 2008). A number of low-cost airlines emerged in recent years and proved that other models can co-exist in the industry. Low-cost airlines are having a deep effect on the efficiency, competition and shape of the industry. Bowen and Headly (2010) airline quality rating survey (AQR) indicated the high quality performance of low-cost airlines in the US comparing with many legacy airlines which confirms the evolution of the low-cost model in terms of service quality.

Table 3 Airline quality ratings of US based airlines 2010

Airline	Airline quality ranking
Air Tran *	1
Hawaiian	2
Jet Blue *	3
Alaska	4
Southwest *	5
US airways	6
Delta	7
Continental	8
Frontier *	9
Skywest	10
American	11
United	12
Mesa	13
Comair	14
Atlantic Southeast	15
American eagle	16

*Note: * = Low-cost airline*

Source: Bowen and Headly (2011)

It is interesting to know that low-cost services are responsible for creating a market of their own. The U.K., for example, is considered as a very good model for this theory where Easyjet proved to be a strong market player in the presence of British Airways (Horner and Swarbrooke, 2004).

The impact of low-cost airlines on tourism

The low-cost airline model succeeded with its point-to-point network, often involving secondary airports and very low-fare levels, to attract significant traffic volume. New forms of tourism, such as short-stay city tourism (city breaks) and residential / second home tourism have emerged given in consideration that the visiting friends and relatives segment (VFR) has fed this new type of service. Low-cost airlines were capable of replacing the charter services on many short haul origin-destination pairs in many markets. Modern tourism research analyses the interrelation of various spheres of tourism and embraces the study of important issues such as demand, supply and transport simultaneously within the same relevant environment. The following figure reveals the connections and interactions between air transport and tourism (Bieger and Wittmer, 2006).

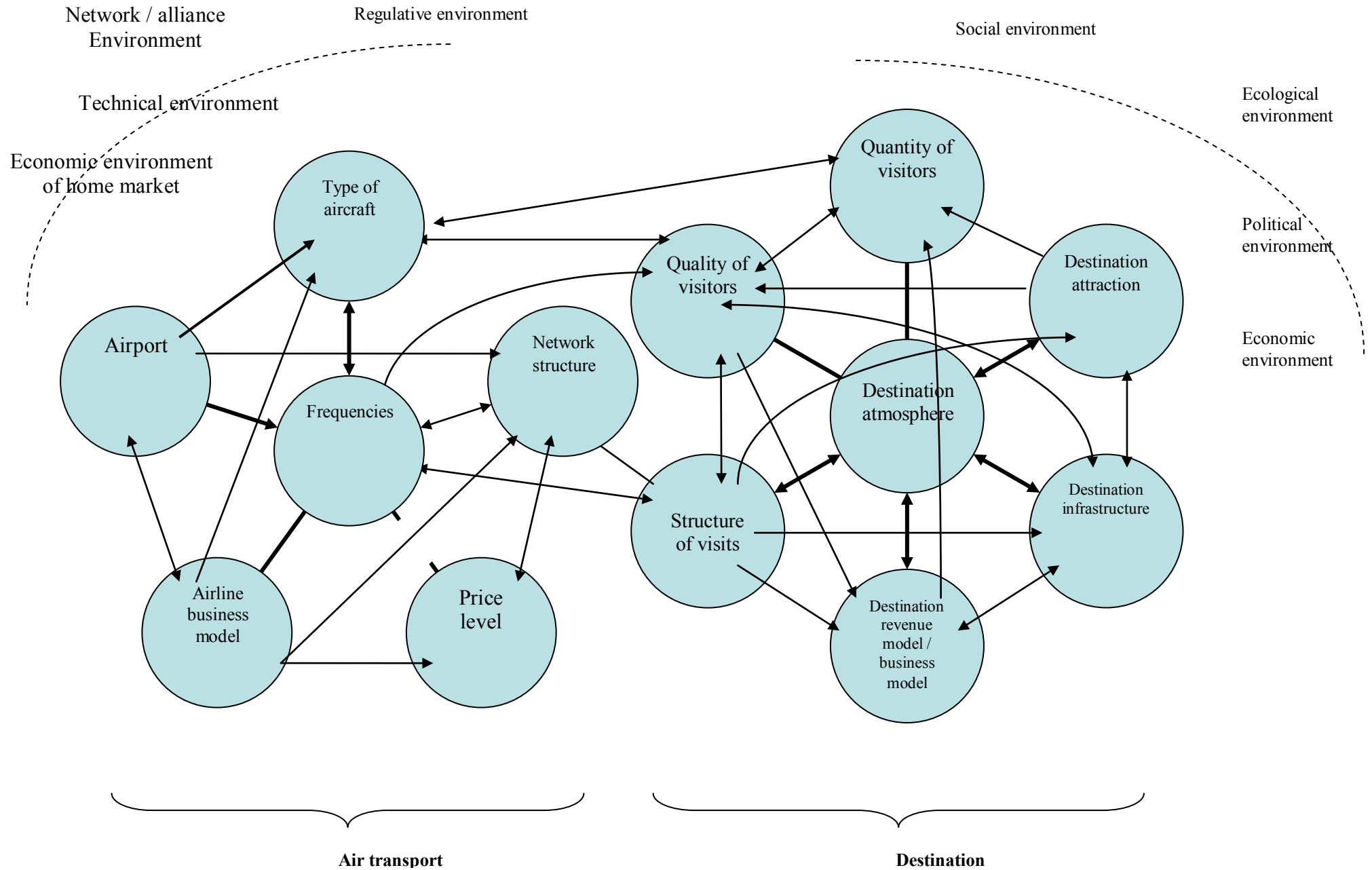


Figure 1 System model for airlines and tourism
 Source: Bieger and Wittmer (2006)

There is a strong correlation between tourist infrastructure and the presence of new types of air carriers, such as low-cost airlines. The presence of new airline business models will eventually increase the volume of visitors. The inter-connection between elements of the supply side is very clear in terms of improvement. In other words, an improvement of an attraction at a destination stimulates multiplier effects that attract more air services. The airport may develop into a hub for traditional airlines or a base for low-cost airlines. Consequently, as the multiplier develops, the additional tourists can generate more local revenues for further tourist infrastructure. This means that this is an inter-related and continuous cycle. This cycle can be affected negatively if any decline occurred to the quality of tourist destinations. This can be described as a downward spiral.

The term business model applies to airline companies and tourist destinations as well. It's important to note that both business models are interlinked within the broad scope of the tourism industry. It is logic to assume that not all business models of destinations and airlines can perfectly fit together. The following figure provides an overview of the most significant inter-relations. Destinations that are offering important natural or man-made attractions (e.g. historic cities) are usually served by traditional airline models that equally cater mixed traffic streams.

As for low-cost airlines, they are in synergic with destinations with are associated with large number of decentralized managed second homes, and thus a strange need for flexible air traffic connections. Traditional hotel destinations are no doubt very convenient for charter services especially that they often cater exclusive segments.

From the previous overview of the inter-relation between tourism and air transport; it is clear that each sector rely heavily on the other which can lead to both positive and negative results. This correlation is taken into consideration in adopting a certain business model. Both parties must study different models from both sides. In some cases airlines get involved in the planning process and development of tourist destinations (e.g. advertising and planning airport access facilities. The tourist destinations are often concerned about investing in local airports that can permit for larger size aircrafts to land in all-weather conditions (Bieger and Wittmer, 2006)

Figure 2 Matching business models of airlines and tourist destinations

Source: Bieger and Wittmer (2006)

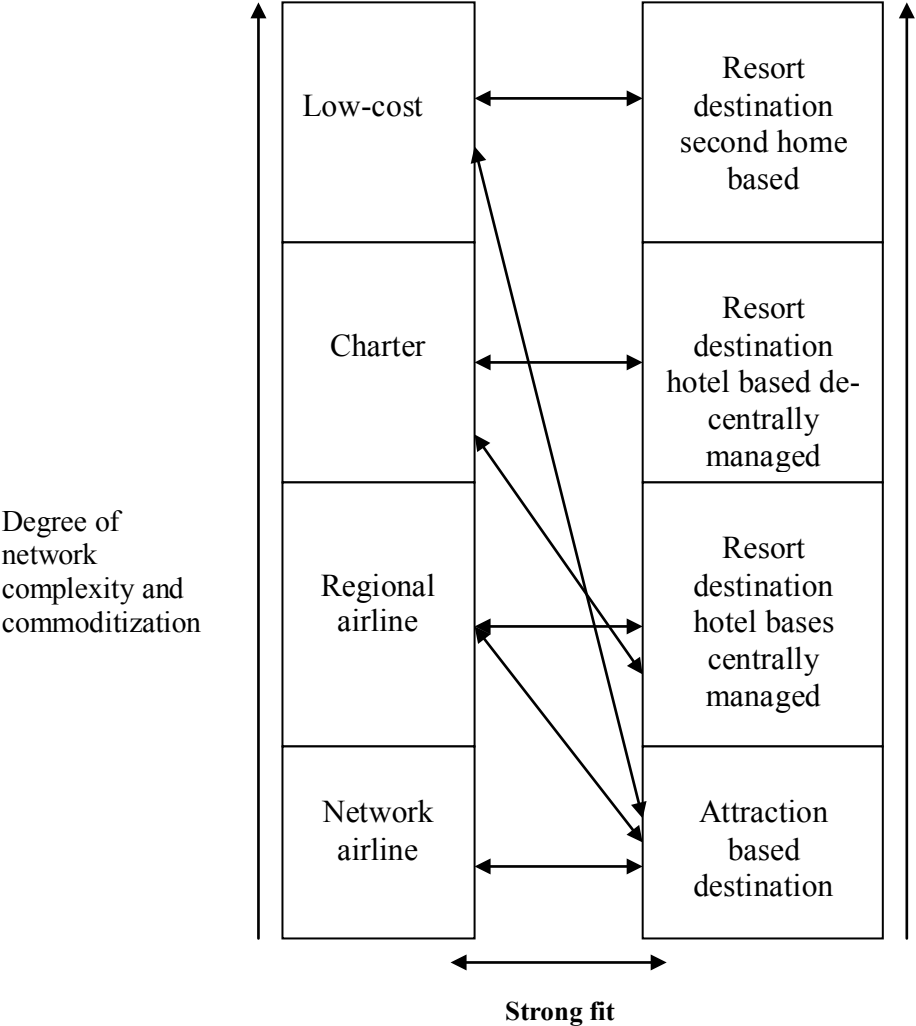


Table 4 Business models of airlines and their impact on tourism

Business model	Network / hub airlines	flows		
		Regional airlines	Low-cost airlines	Charter airlines
Success factors	Extensive market coverage / market share and growth (due to network effects) Alliances	Serving niches Flexibility cooperation with alliances	Simple processes Cost efficiency	Tour operation relation / integration Cost effectiveness
Driving factors of the movement	Ability to adopt good and homogenous processes and quality search for markets and market share	Cost efficiency Domination of regional markets Search for niches	Strong traffic flows driven by search for routes with self-generating, strong traffic flows.	Integrated capacity management driven by tour operators interest in markets and integration of the value chain.
Weight of tourism	Tourist flows as a secondary product to get market share and size	Regional tourism flow (in the upscale segment) as important part of the business	Tourism just a part of general traffic flows, no special attendance.	Tourism flows (mass tourism) as main and often only product concentration on strong tourist destinations
Perspective of business model	Consolidation, division of markets leads to a reduction of services to peripheral destinations Concentration on best paying segments Better fit of capacities to well-paying segments (smaller planes, more frequency)	Concentration of business to niches closer cooperation with alliances	Own structures of airport, routes and markets	Concentration on strong tourist destinations

Source: Bieger and Wittmer (2006)

METHODOLOGY

Hypothesis

H. "The air ticket price factor has a primary influence on tourists' preferences to travel on a specific airline comparing to the service quality factor." This hypothesis presumes that the air ticket price has a primary influence upon tourists' choice to travel on a specific airline given the fact it has an overriding influence on the perception of the air travel experience comparing to the service quality level.

Passenger survey

The questionnaire mainly aims to test the relationship between price levels and service quality elements. There are also several questions that were included in the survey with an aim to investigate the preferences of tourists regarding numerous air travel **elements**. At the end of the questionnaire form, an open-ended space was consecrated for respondents to express themselves about their travel experience with low-cost airlines.

Sampling and data collection

In determining the sample frame of the passenger survey, the following criterion was taken into consideration:

A-The survey included tourists who were frequently flying on low-cost airlines.

B-Cairo International Airport holds the highest rank as a main point of foreign entry of air travelers

C-The survey should cover the widest range possible of responses.

Therefore, tourists arriving to Egypt via Cairo International Airport were chosen to form the population of the study (N).

Given the fact that characteristics of respondents will vary from one destination to another according to nationality, flight route, the quality of service received and also their exposure to different variables such as price levels; the random sampling technique was chosen for this survey. In order to determine the expected average size of the population an arithmetic mean was calculated on the number of tourist arrivals via Cairo International Airport during the past 5 years using the following equation $X = \Sigma X/n$ (Hendy and El-Kady, 1997) where X = no. of air passenger arrivals and n = years). The sample size was determined according to the following criteria:

1-The size of the population is very large $N > 500000$

2-The level of reliability/standard error is 5% which is commonly used in this type of research. The same standard error was used in a previous survey conducted on a similar subject (Samy, 2005).

3-A published table of sample sizes (Bazra'a, 1996) was used at a confidence level of 95% and for a reliability of 5% with a characteristic of interest in population assumed to be 50%. A 50-50 split would provide for the maximum sample size (Ritchie and Goeldner, 1994). Therefore, the sample size was determined to be 384 passengers and the size was increased to 400 to compensate for non-responses, thus $n = 400$. A total of 208 valid replies were received. There was an effective overall response rate of 52%.

Field study analysis

Data coding and processing

- The data were revised and then coded on several sheets.
- The data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).
- The descriptive statistics and correlations for the aggregated variables were computed to elicit results.

Data analysis and testing

- Data were tabulated to show the frequencies and percentages of different variables (Descriptive statistics).
- The 'Kruskal-Wallis' test was used to identify significant differences between the nationality of respondents and the amount of travel via low-cost airlines – the perception of fare levels – the importance of air travel factors – the 'value for money' factor. The Chi-square test was also used to identify significant differences between the annual income of respondents and the amount of travel via low-cost airlines.
- Weighted averages were calculated to rank both respondents' preferences to spend money during their trip and the importance of different air travel factors as well.
- Non-parametric correlations (Spearman) were used to identify significant relationships between the perception of air ticket prices and the level of satisfaction with low-cost airlines, and also to identify significant relationships between the "value for

money” factor (The quality perception equals the fare paid) and the level of satisfaction with the actual service they receive.

- A content analysis was conducted to analyze the negative comments or in other words the complaints of respondents about their experiences with low-cost airlines (the analysis comprised six different categories). Content analysis is a form of observational inventorying of the properties of texts. The verbal text is scientifically analyzed by isolating particular categories of content and then quantifying it in order to elicit results from the respondents’ different opinions.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Passenger survey results

- The passenger survey included 14 different low-cost airlines: Air Berlin (Germany) – Transavia (Belarus) – Ryanair (Ireland) – Easyjet (Britain) – EgyptAir Express (Egypt) – Zoom (Canada) – BMI baby (Britain) – Corsair (France) – Westjet (Canada) – LTU airlines (Austria) – Mat airlines (Macedonia) – Monarch airlines (Britain) – Aeorsvit (Ukraine) - Condor (Germany). Low-cost airlines were categorized into 3 groups according to the responses: 1- Europeans (92.3%) 2- Arabian (4.3%) 3- North American (3.4%)
- The majority of respondents were males (69.2%) and most of them were Europeans (91.8%) and the rest of the sample was divided between the Americans (5.8%) and the Arabs (2.4%).
- Most of the passengers were under the age category 18-29 (39.4%) and the annual incomes varied between respondents, but it is clear that a relatively high category of earnings topped the ranking: 1- 70000 (36.5%) 2- Less than 25000 (26.9%) 3- 25000 (12.5%) 4- 35000 (11.1%) 5- More than 70000 (10.6%) 6- 28000 (2.4%).
- The majority of flight routes were regional (40.9%) followed by the domestic (31.7%) and the international routes (27.4%). Given the fact that this survey was conducted on a sample of tourists, 76.4% of respondents were traveling for leisure.
- More than half of respondents tend to fly for leisure purposes (61.1%) and the majority of the sample (67.3%) did not fly for business purposes during the past 12 months (2006/2007).

- Short-haul intercontinental flights earned the highest share of air traveling (65.9%). Only a minority of respondents flew less than 2 times on low-cost airlines (1.9%) while 42.3% flew more than 12 times on this type of service
- The level of satisfaction with different aspects of the low-cost airline service varied between various elements but the overall level of satisfaction was described as being 'good' (66.3%) by the majority.
- The perception of air ticket prices was in favor of low-cost airlines as the majority of respondents (43.8%) described the fare level as being 'Low' compared to traditional airlines.
- As much as the respondent rates a service element as being extremely important as much as he expects a high standard service that can be ranked as excellent. This means that any airline seeking to achieve high level of satisfaction with its customers must explore highly important services with aim to deliver them with excellence.
- Other service elements that are of a less importance like free food and beverage for instance can be cancelled or substituted by a pre-paid service.
- 66.3% of respondents agree that low-cost airlines provide 'value for money' services.
- Although the replies regarding different aspects of the low-cost airline experience varied between being positive or negative, still nearly all of them (95.2%) are willing to repeat the service.
- It is confirmed that the web is the best medium to reach passengers for low-cost airlines. The useful information sources were ranked as follows: 1- The internet (86.5%) 2- Friends and relatives (21.6%) 3- Travel agencies (17.8%) 4- Newspaper ads (17.3%) 5- TV (9.1%) 6-Guidebooks (7.2%) 7-Brochures (6.3%) 8- The carrier's web sites (4.8%).
- Low-cost airlines are distinguished from traditional carriers by a set of aspects that were assessed by respondents with an aim to categorize each one of them as an advantage or a disadvantage. The replies classified the following aspects in the advantages category:
 - 1-Direct flights (97.6%) 2- Ticket-less travel (93.8%) 3- One-class cabins (82.2%) 4- Depending heavily on the telephone and the internet for flight reservation (69.7%).
- The disadvantages category, it comprised the following: 1-The use of secondary

airports (70.2%) 2-No free food and beverage (61.5%) 3-No-pre-assigned seats (56.3%)

- The Kruskal -Wallis test calculated in the following tables 5, 6, 7 and 8 indicate that the nationality of tourists influences numerous aspects related to air travel. These aspects include:
- The amount of travel via low-cost airlines (Chi-square = 7.311/significant).
- The perception of air ticket prices (Chi-square = 12.054/Highly significant).
- The test also indicated that the nationality also impacts respondents' evaluation of the service quality associated with the price paid (the 'value for money' factor) (Chi-square = 32.818/Highly significant)
- The correlation between the nationality and the importance of these elements:
 - o 'The value for money' factor (Chi-square = 16.117/Highly significant)
 - o The punctuality (Chi-square = 40.70/significant)
 - o Free-food and beverage (Chi-square = 7.543/significant)

Table 5 The relationship between the nationality and the amount of travel via low-cost airlines

Nationality	European	American	Arab	Chi-square	Significance
Mean Rank	103.12	98.42	171.90	7.311 DF:2	Sig. at 0.05

Table 6 The relationship between the nationality and the perception of fare levels

Nationality	European	American	Arab	Chi-square	Significance
Mean Rank	101.93	156.88	77	12.054 DF:2	Sig. at 0.01

Table 7 The relationship between the nationality and the" Value for money factor"

Nationality	European	American	Arab	Chi-square	Significance
Mean Rank	110.45	42.71	25.70	32.818 DF:2	Sig. at 0.01

Table 8 The relationship between the nationality and the importance of air travel factors

Nationality Travel Factors	Mean Rank(s)			Chi-square	Significance
	European	American	Arab		
Value for money	108.53	75.63	20	161.117 DF:2	Sig. at 0.01
Ticket price	105.84	95.96	73.80	1.903 DF:2	Not Sig.
Punctuality	106.20	104	40.70	7.419 DF:2	Sig. at 0.05
Free food and beverage	107.60	77.17	51.70	7.543 DF:2	Sig. at 0.05
A direct flight	104.63	113.17	78.60	1.380 DF:2	Not Sig.
Easy Reservation	102.70	117.92	141.10	3.011 DF:2	Not Sig.
In-flight services	105.42	105.75	66.20	2.939 DF:2	Not Sig.
Free-in-flight Entertainment	106.48	70.58	110.10	4.575 DF:2	Not Sig.
Customer service	106.43	84.92	77.90	2.933 DF: 2	Not Sig.
Airport services	102.82	121	128.90	2.201 DF:2	Not Sig.

Table 9 The relationship between the annual incomes and the amount of travel via low-cost airlines

Parson Chi-square	DF	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Significance
111.569	10	Sig. at 0.000	Sig. at 0.01

-Pearson Chi-square test indicated that the annual income influences the amount of travel via low-cost airlines (Chi-square = 111.569/Highly significant).

Table 10 Weighted averages of respondent's preferences to spend money during their trip by nationality

Nationality Items	European			American			Arab		
	Mean	C.V.%	Rank	Mean	C.V.%	Rank	Mean	C.V.%	Rank
Transport	4.03	46.4	3	3.50	71.4	2	3.99	47.3	3
Accommodation	2.28	72.8	1	4.33	49.4	5	2.37	73.4	1
Restaurants	2.96	38.1	2	4.66	22.9	7	3.04	38.8	2
Shopping	4.52	46.6	5	3.91	20.2	4	4.51	45.4	6
Sports activities	4.19	47.9	4	4.41	36.7	6	4.27	47	5
Visiting historical sites	5.13	30.9	7	3.50	63.7	1	5.01	33.1	7
Attending Events	4.85	36.4	6	3.66	80.8	3	4.20	39.2	4

Table 11 Ranking of respondent's preferences to spend money during their trip by nationality

European	American	Arab
1-Accommodation	1-Visiting historical sites	1-Accommodation
2-Restaurants	2-Transport	2-Restaurants
3-Transport	3-Attending events	3-Transport
4-Sport activities	4-Shopping	4-Attending events
5-Shopping	5-Accommodation	5-Sports activities
6-Attending events	6-Sports activities	6-Shopping
7-Visting historical sites	7-Restaurants	7-Visitinghistorical sites

- It is clear that transport is surpassed by other travel-related elements in all three categories of nationality. These results confirm that tourists are willing to save the money spent on transport for other travel related items. The weighted averages

also indicated that the degree of importance of air travel factors that are ranked by nationality as shown in table 12.

In table 12, the top air travel factors (1-5) are considered as the crucial elements that can influence respondents' choice to fly on a particular airline.

- The content analysis of the open-ended questions indicate that the negative comments (complaints) about low-cost airline services can be summarized into the following 6 categories: 1-The use of secondary airports (44.5%) 2-Punctuality (21%) 3-Seating comfort (11%) 4-Customer service (13.5%) 5-Timing of the flight (%) 6-In-flight services (4.05%)

Table 12 Weighted averages of the importance of air travel factors by nationality

Nationality Items	European			American			Arab		
	Mean	C.V (%)	Rank	Mean	C.V. (%)	Rank	Mean	C.V (%)	Rank
Value for money	2.40	30.83	3	1.83	55.73	1	2.34	33.33	3
Ticket price	2.24	36.16	1	2.808	31.73	2	2.22	36.03	1
Punctuality	2.34	29.48	2	2.25	33.33	3	2.31	30.7	2
Free food and beverage	3.81	28.87	9	3.33	26.42	9	3.75	29.33	9
A direct flight	2.45	30.20	4	2.66	46.24	7	2.45	32.24	4
Easy reservation	2.53	33.59	6	2.66	28.94	6	2.56	33.20	6
In-flight services	3.17	21.13	8	3.16	12.02	8	3.16	21.20	8
Free-in-flight entertainment	3.96	27.02	10	3.96	14.24	10	3.96	26.90	10
Customer service	2.63	36.12	7	2.63	21.16	5	2.66	36.01	7
Airport services	2.50	32	5	2.50	16.36	4	2.50	33.07	5

Note: Ranking: 1-5 represents the top crucial elements that influence passengers' choice to fly on a particular airline

HYPOTHESIS TESTING

H. The air ticket price factor has a primary influence on tourists' preferences to travel on a specific airline comparing to the service quality factor."

Table 13 The relationship between the perceptions of air ticket prices and the level of satisfaction

Item	Correlation coefficient	Significance
Airline website	-0.125	Not sign.
Reservation efficiency	0.107	Not sign.
The timing of the flight	0.172*	Sign.
Punctuality	-0.181**	Highly sign.
Airport services	-0.137*	Sign.
Seating comfort	-0.003	Not sign.
Cabin appearance/maintenance	-0.046	Not sign.
Cabin staff service	-0.113	Not sign.
Reading materials	-0.015	Not sign.
Food and beverage	0.121	Not sign.
In-flight entertainment	0.197**	Highly sign.
Convenient airport	0.086	Sign.
Baggage handling	0.016	Sign.
Customer service	0.055	Sign.
Overall level of satisfaction	0.133	Sign.

- The correlation coefficient indicate that there is a negative significant relationship between the perception of air ticket prices and the level of satisfaction with the following items of low-cost airline service :
 - Punctuality (Spearman = -0.181 / highly significant)
 - Airport services (Spearman = -0.137 / significant)
- This result implies that the air ticket price has an inverse relationship with the level of satisfaction of respondents regarding two major quality elements. Punctuality and airport services are among the crucial elements that influence passengers preferences to fly on an airline (see Table 12). This result also confirms that as much as the low-cost airline lowers

its ticket prices as much as tourists are more satisfied with the crucial elements of their air travel experience.

Table 14 The relationship between the “value for money factor” and the level of satisfaction

Item	Correlation coefficient	Significance
Airline website	-0.068	Not sign.
Reservation efficiency	0.202**	Highly sign.
The timing of the flight	-0.301**	Highly sign.
Punctuality	0.201**	Highly sign.
Airport services (check-in and boarding)	0.384**	Highly sign.
Seating comfort	0.472**	Highly sign.
Cabin appearance/maintenance	0.198**	Highly sign.
Cabin staff service	0.166*	Sign.
Reading material	0.176*	Sign.
Food and beverage	-0.166*	Sign
In-flight entertainment	-0.194**	Highly sign
Convenient airport	-0.50	Not sign.
Baggage handling	0.93	Not sign.
Customer service	-0.125	Not sign.
Overall level of satisfaction	0.042	Not sign.

*Note: *significant / **highly significant*

- The correlation coefficient also indicated that there is a positive significant relationship between the 'value for money' factor and the level of satisfaction with the following items:
 - Punctuality (Spearman = 0.201/Highly significant)
 - Airport services (Spearman = 0.384/Highly significant)
 - Seating comfort (Spearman = 0.472/Highly significant)
 - Cabin appearance/maintenance (Spearman = 0.198/Highly significant).
 - Cabin staff service (Spearman = 0.166/significant)

- Reading materials (Spearman = 0.176/significant)

The previously cited results indicate that as much as low-cost airlines offer a price that equals the level of service quality perceived by respondents, as much as they are satisfied with most of the elements of their flight. The results in table 14 indicate that both the ticket price and the 'value for money' factor are on top of the list of passengers importance scale regarding air travel items.

HYPOTHESIS: ACCEPTED

- he formerly cited results (tables: 12-13-14) confirm the validity of the hypothesis as it justifies the primary effect of the price element as a fundamental factor that influences tourists' evaluation and expectations of air transport services. This fact makes the price the overriding factor that affects the perception of quality and eventually the choice of tourists regarding the airline they will fly on.
- This fact highlights the increasing importance of low-cost airline services, as a business model that relies mainly on low-fare strategies for achieving a high level of tourist satisfaction.

CONCLUSIONS

- The materialistic factors (the air ticket price and the value for money aspect) have an overriding influence upon tourists' level of satisfaction with the quality of low-cost airline services comparing to other service quality elements.
- Aside from quality related issues, other factors influence passenger satisfaction such as scheduling (the availability of the destination in the airline's network) and the level of air fares. The latter factor became an overriding factor in choosing to fly on a particular airline. The success of low-cost airlines is strongly correlated with these two factors in addition to quality related issues. Low-cost airlines offer an air transport service with no additional free amenities and still they succeed in competing with legacy airlines through low-fares.
- It is confirmed that the price element is highly significant in influencing tourism demand comparing with many other factors attributed to the product quality, distribution or even the promotional campaigns. Low-cost airlines are highly centralized

around the price level as their core strategy which makes them capable of having a high influence on tourists' choices.

- Low-cost airlines represent the perfect solution for promoting tourism in a time where numerous countries suffer from a sharp economic downturn. Tourism demand is continuously growing but changes are occurring in tourist preferences as numerous tourists are preferring low-budget travel. No doubt those low-cost airlines participate effectively in what is so-called the low-budget phenomenon.
- Tourists today are more concerned with the basic elements of transport such as schedule and punctuality, and less concerned with supplementary services. Consumers today are more rational than ever before and highly price sensitive too. This means that they are favouring no frills services all the way. Only a small proportion of travellers are still seeking to consume luxury tourism services. The shrinking of the business classes is a living proof of this fact.
- Tourists are willing to save the money spent on transport for other travel related items. This means that tourists are seeking to travel on low-cost airline with aim to allocate their expenses in other travel-related categories in the tourist destination itself.
- It is confirmed that as much as low-cost airline lower their ticket prices as much as the passengers are more satisfied with the crucial elements of their air travel experience.

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SUBMITTED: MAR 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: NOV 2012

ACCEPTED: DEC 2012

REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

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INVESTIGATING E-BUSINESS PRACTICES IN TOURISM: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THREE COUNTRIES

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This study examined the behaviour of tourist companies in relation to the adoption of e-business technologies and applications. The study aimed to identify groups of companies with homogenous behaviour among three European countries (Greece, Portugal and Norway). Based on data from a European survey, the study employed two-step cluster analysis which revealed 14 clusters of common behaviour (five clusters in Greece, five in Portugal and four in Norway). These clusters were named as: Leaders' 'Technology Experts', 'Fast Adopters' 'Beginners', 'Late Adopters'. In Norway, the group 'Late Adopters' also included companies characterised as 'Beginners' in the other two countries. We suggest further investigation among European countries in order to reveal more groups of similar behaviour toward e-business adoption.

Keywords: *E-business, tourism sector, cluster analysis*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

During the last decades, the developments in information communication technologies (ICTs) have changed dramatically the 'business as usual' way in the tourism sector: (a) transactions are becoming cheaper and faster due to the inexpensive information processing and exchange, and (b) business processes are re-engineered to achieve integration and seamless co-ordination of activities of a company's value chain. Doing business electronically reduces administration costs, improves the accuracy and quality of information for decision making, and facilitates strategic co-operation between trading



partners. E-business has become a strategic decision, yet it remains unclear what are the strategies that companies adopt when they deal with e-business (Sanders, 2007; Lasch et al. 2007; Rudall and Mann, 2006; Iansiti, 2005; Didascalou et al. 2009; Lekakou et al. 2009; Soteriades et al. 2009; Psillakis et al. 2009).

Different schools of thought uncover different business strategies and policies dealing with e-business implementations to operational level. For example, Porter's theory implied that each company is obligated to apply a technological strategy in order to "stay alive" in turbulent competition (Porter, 2001; Porter and Millar, 1985). However, some companies seem to take the lead and be more innovative than other companies that find the following the leaders are more cost-effective and efficient, and less risk-taking. For example, tourism agents that provide suitable services and holiday packages to their customers, by imitating practices from their competitors, do not apply an innovative strategy (Niininen et al. 2007). A drawback of being a follower is that consumers may have become loyal to other companies that offer similar products and services (Valos et al. 2007). This approach could be mostly applicable and successful for numerous tourism agents who want achievable goals with low-risk.

We examined the behaviour of tourist companies in relation to the adoption of e-business technologies and applications in three European countries, Greece, Portugal and Norway.

PATTERNS OF ORGANISATIONAL BEHAVIOUR REGARDING E-BUSINESS ADOPTION BY TOURISM COMPANIES

The influence of e-business on company's performance on tourism sector has been researched in an extensive way (Yilmaz and Clark, 2006; and Vafiropoulos, 2006; Morrison and Teixeira, 2004; Vrana and Zafiropoulos, 2006; Christou and Saveriades, 2010). Most studies advocated that e-business technologies have a relative advantage of operational efficiency with overtly competitive advantages in other parts of the value chain. For example, Yilmaz and Butici (2006a) measured performance variables on value chain from customers' perspective related to technological adoption. Poon and Lau (2000) tried to analyse the value chain of tourism industry using Michael Porter's theory. Grangsjö (2003) investigated the relation between competition and co-operation and how this notion could be supported by managerial tasks in order to improve competitive attitude related to synergy with competitors. Additionally, Dabas and Manaktola (2007) emphasised the electronic distribution strategies of tourism companies.

Various studies investigated the impact of e-business on tourism sectors at national level. Williams et al. (2004) measured the factors that contributed to web site accessibility by comparing UK and German tourism organizations and suggested an array of e-business applications that create a better effective online environment. Sigala (2003) measured the impacts of e-business on productivity in tourism hospitality in UK and found that factors such as payroll systems, ICT infrastructure and distribution channels were related to firm performance. Sahadev and Islam (2005) investigated hospitality in Thailand and found that e-business adoption can create marketing and sales prospects. Dabas and Manaktola (2007) evaluated the impacts of ICTs adoption on reservations systems in hospitality sector in India, while Braun and Hollick (2006) investigated the relation between knowledge management and online delivering skills. Therefore, we hypothesise:

Hypothesis 1: There are different patterns of behaviour of tourism companies regarding e-business systems and applications

COUNTRY INFLUENCES ON PATTERNS OF E-BUSINESS ADOPTION

Niininen et al. (2007) tried to measure the impacts of online marketing through ICTs usage on tourism, travel and hospitality industry. For this purpose, they adopted a three-step model based on customer centric marketing (CCM) investigating customer and business performance variables. They concluded that CCM is a strategic tool, which can increase accessibility on web site services, provide better e-mail feedback communication, increase profitability and created value-added to the end-product or service. In a qualitative research of Martin (2004), hospitality companies were interviewed (n=128) in order to measure that impact of the Internet on decision making process. Researcher found that ICTs could influence the relation between suppliers and individuals by creating add-value to business web-site services through peer-to-peer communication via e-mail or telephone contact. Additionally, the researchers stated that tourism companies should continuously enhance their operational process by adopting state-of-the-art equipment such as virtual interactivity and high speed connectivity especially with suppliers and partners. Lebe and Milfelner (2006) researched the impact of ICTs at hotel sector in the rural areas of Slovenia. Monitoring all tangible and intangible relevant infrastructures and examining which are the needs of hotel sector, they noticed that online services were absent and tourist performance was drawn back.

Hypothesis 2: Patterns of E-business adoption will not differ across different countries

THE STUDY

The data collection of this study was based on the research project of European e-Business Market Watch 2006 (www.ebusiness-watch.org) in the European Union (EU) between May and April of 2006. The questions of this survey covered a set of tasks related to ICTs adoption on tourism sector interrelated to e-Business W@tch observatory. We concerned these issues critical to monitor the tourism industry. Particularly, our study evaluated the critical issues as presented above:

- (a) ICT infrastructure and Internet accessibility,
- (b) Internal business process automation,
- (c) Procurement and supply chain integration, and
- (d) Marketing and sales processes

The sample of this research was based on the European e-Business Market W@tch survey in tourism industry. A total of 399 questionnaires were used from the tourism industry sector.

TWO-STEP CLUSTER ANALYSIS

Cluster Analysis is an exploratory tool designed to reveal natural groupings (or clusters) within a data set, which can be a mix of interval and nominal data. Two-step clustering generates pre-clusters and finally it clusters the pre-clusters. By using Principal Components Analysis (PCA), a researcher can get information from the variance related to the set of variables that we initially posed (Table 1).

The first step in cluster analysis was to define the pre-cluster method, set the log-likelihood function and then measure the variables distributions and maximise the distance among clusters. Then, using the Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion (BIC) as the most suitable clustering criterion avoiding alias, the number of clusters that fit better in the data was calculated. The above procedure concluded with 15 clusters in total, which are presented in Table 2. Specifically, five clusters were revealed for Greece (n=119) five for Portugal (n=140), and four clusters for Norway (n=140).

Table 1 Auto-clustering Method

Cluster s	Greece(n=119)		Portugal (n=140)		Norway (n=140)	
	BIC Change(a)	Ratio of BIC Changes(b)	BIC Change(a)	Ratio of BIC Changes(b)	BIC Change(a)	Ratio of BIC Changes(b)
1						
2	-52.410	1.000	-121.213	1.000	-45.142	1.000
3	-29.658	.566	-43.426	.358	-21.358	.473
4	-13.504	.258	-24.425	.202	-16.051	.356
5	-10.183	.194	-2.918	.024	10.091	-.224
6	33.387	-.637	29.678	-.245	24.713	-.547
7	38.909	-.742	42.109	-.347	47.499	-1.052
8	47.749	-.911	42.174	-.348	50.151	-1.111
9	54.951	-1.048	48.079	-.397	52.260	-1.158
10	56.028	-1.069	56.386	-.465	58.009	-1.285

Notes: a The changes are from the previous number of clusters in the table.

b The ratios of changes are relative to the change for the two cluster solution.

Table 2 Cluster Distribution

	Greece		Portugal		Norway	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Cluster 1	36	30.3%	34	24.3%	28	20%
Cluster 2	29	24.4%	35	25%	46	32.9%
Cluster 3	6	5%	14	10%	17	12.1%
Cluster 4	29	24.4%	32	22.9%	49	35%
Cluster 5	19	16%	25	17.9%		
Combined	119	100%	140	100%	140	100%
Total	119	100%	140	100%	140	100%

DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS

Demographic analysis may reveal important aspects of organisational behaviour especially when researchers targeting to uncover groups with distinct attributes (Cuervo and Menendez 2006; Falk, 2005).

Table 3 presents the demographic and e-business profile analysis. Regarding firm size, measured by the number of employees, most

companies were small and medium enterprises and only 4.1% had more than 250 employees. A significant part of companies in the sample were small ones (38.4%), with less than 10 employees. Additionally, firm sizes matters when it relates to Internet access: The percentage of companies with Internet access gradually increases with the increase of firm size. This was also found to stand true for all EU member-states, including the sample-ones (Greece, Portugal). Regarding the year of foundation, the 38.2% of companies were established between 1981 and 1996, a 25.8% before 1980 and only 8.9% between 2003 and 2006.

Table 3 Demographic and e-business applications profiling

	Greece-Portugal-Norway (n=399)	EU-19 (n=1701)*
Size (number of employees)		
<i>1-9</i>	38.4%	34.4%
<i>10-49</i>	41.3%	31%
<i>50-249</i>	16.2%	18.8%
<i>250+</i>	4.1%	3.1%
Number of employees with Internet access		
<i>1-9</i>	16.4%	16.9%
<i>10-49</i>	27.5%	34%
<i>50-249</i>	50.5%	41.7%
<i>250+</i>	-	-
Year of Foundation		
<i>Before 1980</i>	25.8%	21.1%
<i>1981-1996</i>	38.2%	38.5%
<i>1997-2002</i>	18.4%	22.3%
<i>2003-2006</i>	8.9%	9.6%
E-Applications		
<i>Intranet</i>	35.3%	34.1%
<i>ERP</i>	18.4%	9.6%
<i>Knowledge Management</i>	18.6%	14.9%
<i>EDM</i>	18.1%	14.3%
<i>Accounting Software</i>	50.7%	51.9%
<i>SCM</i>	17.4%	12.5%
<i>CRM</i>	24.2%	15.6%
E-Skills		
<i>ICT experts</i>	26.1%	21.7%
<i>E-Learning</i>	18.6%	18%
Marketing and Sales		

<i>Website Construction</i>	75.6%	74.4%
<i>E-Orders</i>		
0%-4%	11.8%	16.6%
5% -9%	10.1%	10.5%
10% - 25%	8.5%	8.1%
26% - 50%	11.6%	6.8%
51%-100%	18.1%	9.4%
E-Procurement (E-Invoices send)		
1%-4%	4.6%	4.1%
5%-9%	3.6%	3.4%
10%-49%	4.6%	5%
50%-100%	1.9%	2.9%
E-collaboration – (E-Invoices received)		
1%-4%	9.4%	6%
5%-9%	2.9%	3.2%
10%-49%	5.8%	5.1%
50%-100%	2.4%	2.3%
ICT infrastructure – (Internet Access)		
Internet	95.2%	94%
56K (analogue)	4.6%	7.2%
ISDN	7.7%	14.7%
Broadband via DSL	53.9%	47.5%
Broadband via Cable	22.7%	15.5%
Direct fibre connection	4.1%	5.2%
Wireless broadband connection	8.7%	8.5%
Other access	4.1%	3.5%
Remote Access	33.3%	30.3%
ICT Budget		
0%	11.4%	9.8%
1%-4%	33.8%	28.7%
5%-9%	10.9%	11.5%
10%-49%	8.9%	11.1%
50%-100%	0.2%	1.1%

(*) Source: Analysis of data from e-business-watch, (www.ebusiness-watch.org, 2007).

Regarding e-business profile, the analysis showed that tourism companies in three countries have the following usage: Intranet (35.3%), Enterprise Resource Planning – ERP (18.4%), Electronic Document Management EDM (18.1%), and accounting software (50.7%). More

sophisticated e-business applications have lower adoption rates, and specifically: Customer Relationship Management CRM (24.2%), Knowledge Management Applications (18.6%), and Supply Chain Management - SCM (17.4%). E-skills capacity, measured by the percentage of personnel with e-skills (ICT experts) and the percentage of e-learning of personnel, was relatively low (26.1% and 18.6% respectively) but at the average of EU-19. In general, the levels of electronic capacity of internal operations were higher than the EU average across all sectors.

Regarding marketing and sales ICT applications, the analysis indicated that the majority of companies (75.6%) had a website and used the Internet (95.2%), only few of them used the Internet to send or receive invoices electronically. For connecting to the Internet, tourism companies show a preference for DSL access (53.9%) followed by broadband access via cable (22.7%) and wireless (8.7%).

Tourism companies spend a small percentage of their budget for information and technologies and systems. A significant percentage of companies (11.4%) reported a nil budget for ICTs and only 9.1% of companies spend more than 10% of their budgetary monies for ICTs.

ATTITUDINAL PROFILING

Table 4 presents the composition of demographic profiles among three countries within clusters while Table 5 presents the composition of demographic profile across clusters.

i. Greece attitudinal profiling

The attitudinal profiling of Cluster 1 ('Beginners') includes businesses with number of employees (business size) between 10 and 49 individuals (55.6%) and businesses with workforce between 50 and 249 individuals related to Internet accessibility (50%), while the majority of those businesses (50%) were established between 1981 and 1996. Similarly, business size for Clusters 2 ('Late Adopters'), 4 ('Technology experts') and 5 ('Fast Adopters') is between 10 and 49 individuals with percentages 65.5%, 55.2% and 57.9% respectively. Cluster 3 ('Leaders') is consisted of businesses with unit's size larger than 250+ individuals. Furthermore, Clusters 2, 3 and 5 include businesses with Internet access between 10 and 49 individuals with percentages 44.8%, 50% and 47.4% respectively. Cluster 4 is associated with workforce with Internet accessibility more than 250 individuals. Finally, the year of foundation

for businesses of Clusters 2 and 4 is estimated between 1981 and 1996 (37.9% equally), while Clusters 3 and 5 before 1981 (50% and 42.1% respectively).

ii. Portugal attitudinal profiling

The attitudinal profiling of Cluster 1 ('Technology Experts') is consisted of businesses with number of employees (business size) between 1 and 9 individuals (38.2%) and businesses with workforce between 10 and 49 individuals related to Internet accessibility (26.5%), while the majority of those businesses (50%) were established between 1981 and 1996. In continuation, business size for Clusters 2 ('Beginners') and 4 ('Late Adopters') is between 10 and 49 individuals with percentages 42.9% and 46.9% respectively, while Cluster 3 ('Fast Adopters') includes businesses with unit's size larger than 250+ individuals (35.7%) and Cluster 5 ('Leaders') businesses with size between 50 and 249 individuals (60%). Furthermore, Clusters 2 and 4 include businesses with Internet access between 10 and 49 individuals with percentages 42.9% and 59.4% respectively, while Clusters 3 and 5 is associated with workforce with Internet accessibility more than 250 individuals (50% and 52% respectively). Finally, the year of foundation for business units of Clusters 2, 4 and 5 is estimated between 1981 and 1996 (54.3%, 46.9% and 44% respectively), while the year of foundation for businesses of Cluster 3 was before 1981 (57.1%).

iii. Norway attitudinal profiling

Cluster 1 ('Technology Experts') is consisted of businesses with number of employees (business size) between 1 and 9 individuals (71.4%) and businesses with workforce between 50 and 249 individuals related to Internet accessibility (78.6%), while the majority of those businesses (50%) were established between 1981 and 1996. Firm size for Clusters 3 ('Fast Adopters') and 4 ('Leaders') is between 10 and 49 individuals with percentages 42.9% and 46.9% respectively, while Cluster 2 ('Late Adopters') includes businesses with size between 1 and 9 individuals (54.3%). Finally, the year of foundation for business units of Clusters 3 and 4 was before 1981 (52.9% and 36.7% respectively), while the year of foundation for businesses of Cluster 2 was between 1981 and 1996 (50%).

Table 4. Composition of Demographic profiles in Greece within clusters (n=399)

	Greece (n=119)					Portugal (n=140)					Norway (n=140)			
	Beginners	Late Adopters	Leaders	Technology Experts	Fast Adopters	Technology Experts	Beginners	Fast Adopters	Late Adopters	Leaders	Technology Experts	Late Adopters	Fast Adopters	Leaders
<i>Clusters</i>	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4
<i>Size</i>	(n=36)	(n=29)	(n=6)	(n=29)	(n=19)	(n=34)	(n=35)	(n=14)	(n=32)	(n=25)	(n=28)	(n=46)	(n=17)	(n=49)
<i>Percentage</i>	30%	24%	5%	24%	16%	24%	25%	10%	23%	18%	20%	33%	12%	35%
Size (Number of Employees)														
<i>1-9</i>	27.8%	31%	-	20.7%	10.5%	38.2%	34.3%	21.4%	28.1%	12%	71.4%	54.3%	29.4%	44.9%
<i>10-49</i>	55.6%	65.5%	-	55.2%	57.9%	32.4%	42.9%	14.3%	46.9%	12%	21.4%	43.5%	52.9%	49%
<i>50-249</i>	16.7%	3.4%	33.3%	24.1%	26.3%	26.5%	22.9%	28.6%	25%	60%	7.1%	2.2%	11.8%	6.1%
<i>250+</i>	-	-	66.7%	-	5.3%	2.9%	-	35.7%	-	16%	-	-	5.9%	-
Employees with Internet access														
<i>1-9</i>	25%	20.7%	16.7%	20.7%	26.3%	23.5%	42.9%	21.4%	59.4%	16%	10.7%	4.3%	-	10.2%
<i>10-49</i>	25%	44.8%	50%	34.5%	47.4%	26.5%	28.6%	28.6%	18.8%	32%	10.7%	17.4%	11.8%	26.5%
<i>50-249</i>	50%	34.5%	33.3%	44.8%	26.3%	17.6%	28.6%	50%	6.3%	52%	78.6%	78.3%	88.2%	63.3%
<i>250+</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Foundation Year														
<i>Before1980</i>	27.8%	34.5%	50%	34.5%	42.1%	20.6%	22.9%	57.1%	28.1%	28%	17.9%	30.4%	52.9%	36.7%
<i>1981-1996</i>	50%	37.9%	33.3%	37.9%	36.8%	50%	54.3%	35.7%	46.9%	44%	50%	50%	23.5%	30.6%
<i>1997-2002</i>	16.7%	24.1%	-	24.1%	10.5%	17.6%	14.3%	-	18.8%	28%	17.9%	13%	17.6%	18.4%
<i>2003-2006</i>	5.6%	3.4%	16.7%	3.4%	10.5%	11.8%	8.6%	7.1%	6.3%	-	14.3%	6.5%	5.9%	14.3%

Table 5 ICT and e-business profile within clusters (n=399)

Greece (n=119)							Portugal (n=140)					Norway (n=140)			
		Beginn	Late	Leader	Techno	Fast	Beginn	Late	Leader	Techno	Fast	Beginn	Late	Leader	Techno
<i>Clusters</i>		<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
Techno logy for Manag. Inform ation(e)		(n=36)	(n=29)	(n=6)	(n=29)	(n=19)	(n=34)	(n=35)	(n=14)	(n=32)	(n=25)	(n=28)	(n=46)	(n=17)	(n=49)
	<i>We</i>	80.6%	69%	100%	100%	100%	55.9%	68.6%	78.6%	31.3%	68%	85.7%	87%	88.2%	91.8%
	<i>Int</i>	100%	96.6%	100%	100%	100%	67.6%	100%	100%	84.4%	100%	100%	97.8%	100%	100%
	<i>Re</i>	58.3%	20.7%	83.3%	41.4%	52.6%	12%	9%	10%	17%	40%	39.3%	39.1%	41.2%	44.9%
	<i>Intr</i>	50%	10.3%	50%	51.7%	42.1%	38.2%	25.7%	71.4%	21.9%	48%	42.9%	34.8%	64.7%	30.6%
	<i>Kn</i>	2.8%	-	16.7%	20.7%	-	23.5%	11.4%	50%	9.4%	32%	17.9%	19.6%	41.2%	12.2%
	<i>ED</i>	12%	9%	10%	17%	15.8%	14.7%	20%	21.4%	18.8%	40%	28.6%	21.7%	35.3%	20.4%
	<i>ER</i>	27.8%	10.3%	83.3%	24.1%	26.3%	20.6%	14.3%	50%	18.8%	44%	10.7%	10.9%	17.6%	18.4%
	<i>Acc</i>	55.6%	51.7%	-	62.1%	47.4%	47.1%	54.3%	35.7%	37.5%		75%	60.9%	47.1%	61.2%
e-Skills	<i>SC</i>	19.4%	3.4%	16.7%	24.1%	31.6%	14.7%	17.1%	35.7%	21.9%	44%	28.6%	17.4%	41.2%	18.4%
	<i>CR</i>	25%	6.9%	50%	41.4%	26.3%	20.6%	8.6%	42.9%	3.1%	12%	12%	9%	10%	17%
	<i>ICT</i>	47.2%	31%	83.3%	51.7%	68.4%	12%	9%	10%	17%	24%	32.1%	50%	47.1%	36.7%
E- Orders	<i>E-</i>	25%	10.3%	33.3%	10.3%	15.8%	12%	9%	10%	17%	16%	21.4%	21.7%	41.2%	24.5%
	<i>0%</i>	44.4%	6.9%	-	20.7%	5.3%	-	11.4%	35.7%	-	40%	-	4.3%	-	8.2%
	<i>5%</i>	-	-	66.7%	41.4%	-	-	5.7%	28.6%	-	40%	17.9%	23.9%	-	14.3%
	<i>11</i>	55.6%	89.7%	16.7%	-	94.7%	97.1%	82.9%	28.6%	90.6%	-	32.1%	17.4%	-	28.6%
	<i>26</i>	-	-	-	13.8%	-	2.9%	-	-	3.1%	12%	21.4%	54.3%	-	10.2%
E- Invoice	<i>51</i>	-	3.4%	16.7%	24.1%	-	-	-	7.1%	6.3%	8%	28.6%	-	100%	38.8%
	<i>0%-4%</i>	5.6%	-	50%	-	5.3%	-	-	50%	-	-	14.3%	-	-	-
	<i>5%-9%</i>	5.6%	-	16.7%	-	-	-	-	42.9%	3.1%	-	3.6%	-	-	2%
	<i>10%-</i>	88.9%	100%	33.3%	100%	94.7%	100%	97.1%	-	96.9%	100%	71.4%	100%	100%	98%

Ilias P. Vlachos

s	50%-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2.9%	7.1%	-	-	10.7%	-	-	-
E-Invoice s receive	0%-4%	5.6%	3.4%	50%	-	5.3%	11.8%	-	35.7%	-	-	82.1%	-	-	-
	5%-9%	5.6%	-	16.7%	-	5.3%	-	-	35.7%	-	-	-	6.5%	-	2%
	10%-	88.9%	96.6%	33.3%	96.6%	89.5%	88.2%	100%	28.6%	100%	100%	-	91.3	100%	98%
	50%-	-	-	-	3.4%	-	-	-	-	-	-	17.9%	2.2%	-	-
Interne t Access (d)	56K	-	24.1%	-	3.4%	-	2.9%	-	-	6.3%	-	3.6%	2.2%	-	-
	ISDN	-	55.2%	-	34.5%	26.3%	-	-	-	-	-	10.7%	17.4%	-	8.2%
	Broadb	94.4%	-	-	44.8%	57.9%	41.2%	82.9%	71.4%	50%	60%	42.9%	21.7%	29.4%	38.8%
	Broadb	-	6.9%	33.3%	-	10.5%	11.8%	17.1%	14.3%	15.6%	36%	25%	28.3%	47.1%	30.6%
	Direct	-	-	16.7%	-	5.3%	8.8%	-	-	-	-	7.1%	8.7%	-	6.1%
	Wireles	5.6%	-	33.3%	17.2%	-	-	-	-	-	4%	10.7%	19.6%	5.9%	14.3%
ICT budget(a)	Other	-	13.8%	16.7%	-	-	35.3%	-	14.3%	28.1%	-	-	2.2%	17.6%	2%
	0%	-	-	-	6.9%	15.8%	26.5%	65.7%	-	-	-	-	17.4%	5.9%	-
	1%-4%	100%	100%	100%	51.7%	-	-	-	21.4%	96.9%	32%	42.9%	23.9%	-	85.7%
	5%-9%	-	-	-	41.4%	84.2%	73.5%	-	57.1%	-	68%	46.4%	56.5%	94.1%	-
	10%-	-	-	-	-	-	-	34.3%	21.4%	3.1%	-	10.7%	2.2%	-	14.3%
	50%-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

In particular, in Greece, Cluster 1, named as 'Beginner' is consisted of companies characterised by website existence (80.6%), Internet Access (100%), Remote Access (58.3%), Intranet (50%), Knowledge Management Applications (2.8%), EDM (12%), ERP (27.8%), Accounting Software (55.6%), SCM (19.4%) and CRM (25%).

Cluster 2, named as 'Late Adopters' consists of companies with the following characteristics: Website Construction (69%), Internet Access (96.6%), Remote Access (20.7%), Intranet (10.3%), EDM (9%), ERP (10.3%), Accounting Software (51.7%), SCM (3.4%) and CRM (6.9%). It is impressed the lack of Knowledge Management Applications.

Regarding Cluster 3, named as 'Leader', Website Construction and Internet Access are totally adopted by business units, followed by Remote Access (83.3%), Intranet (50%), EDM (10%), ERP (83.3%), SCM (16.7%) and CRM (50%). It is impressed the lack of Accounting Software Applications such as Office.

Cluster 4, named as 'Technology Experts' includes business units have totally adopted Website Construction and Internet Access, followed by Remote Access (41.7%), Intranet (51.7%), Knowledge Management (20.7%), EDM (20.7%), ERP (17%), SCM (24.1%), Accounting Software (62.1%) and CRM (41.4%). Related to e-skills, Cluster 4, the ICT experts' recruitment is estimated (51.7%) and online learning applications (10.3%).

Cluster 5, named as 'Adopter' is consisted of business units with Website and Internet Access applications, followed by Remote Access (52.6%), Intranet (42.1%), EDM (15.8%), ERP (26.3%), Accounting Software (47.4%), SCM (31.6%) and CRM (26.3%). Related to e-skills, in Cluster 4, the ICT experts' recruitment had high adoption rates (68.4%). In sharp contrast, online learning applications had low adoption rates (15.8%). Regarding the type of Internet access, tourism companies preferred aDSL and ISDN access (57.8% and 26.3% respectively), most of them (84.2%), keeping ICT budget low, between 5% and 9% of total budget.

In Portugal, Cluster 1, named as 'Technology Experts' consists of those companies with relatively high e-business adoption, and in particular: Website Construction (55.9%), Internet Access (67.6%), Remote Access (12%), Intranet (38.2%), Knowledge Management Applications (23.5%), EDM (14.7%), ERP (20.6%), Accounting Software (47.1%), SCM (14.7%) and CRM (20.6%). Related to e-skills, the ICT experts' recruitment and online learning applications were also low (12%). Companies in Cluster 1 preferred DSL to connect to the Internet (41.2%).

Cluster 2, named as ‘Beginners’ grouped together companies with similar e-business adoption rates to Cluster 1, ‘Technology Experts’, and in particular: Website Construction (68.9%), Remote Access (9%), Intranet (25.7%), Knowledge Management (11.4%), EDM (20%), ERP (14.3%), Accounting Software Applications (54.3%), SCM (17.1%) and CRM (8.6%). Related to e-skills, the ICT experts’ recruitment is estimated (9%) and online learning applications (9%) as well. regarding the type of Internet access, ‘Beginners’ preferred DSL access (82.9%), and most of them (65.7%) had no plans to invest on information and communication technologies and the rest 34.3% invest 10-49% of their budget for ICTs.

Cluster 3, named as ‘Fast Adopters’ consists of those companies with relatively high growth rates of e-business adoption, and in particular: Website Construction (78.9%), Internet Access (100%), Remote Access (10%), Intranet (71.4%), Knowledge Management Applications (50%), EDM (21.4%), ERP (50%), Accounting Software (35.7%), SCM (35.7%) and CRM (42.9%). Related to e-skills, Cluster 3 is consisted of companies employing ICT experts (31%) and using online learning applications (10.3%). Cluster 4, named as ‘Late Adopters’ includes tourism companies with the following adoption rates: Website Construction (31.3%), Internet Access (84.4%), Remote Access (17%), Intranet (21.9%), Knowledge Management Applications (9.4%), EDM (18.8%), ERP (18.8%), Accounting Software (37.5%), SCM (21.9%) and CRM (3.1%). Related to e-skills, the ICT experts’ recruitment and online learning applications are estimated at similar levels (17%).

Lastly, Cluster 5, named as ‘Leaders’ is consisted of companies with high e-business usage rates: Website Construction (68%), Internet Access applications (100%), Remote Access (40%), and Intranet (48%). In contrast to other clusters, tourism companies in Cluster 5 ‘Leaders’ spend more monies in ICTs (5%-9% of total budget) than other companies do.

In Norway, Cluster 1, named as ‘Technology Experts’ consists of companies with the following characteristics: Website Construction (85.7%), Internet Access (100%), Remote Access (39.3%), Intranet (42.9%), Knowledge Management Applications (17.9%).

Cluster 2 includes business units with Website Construction (87%), Internet Access (97.8%), Remote Access (39.1%), Intranet (34.8%), Knowledge Management (19.6%), EDM (21.7%), ERP (10.9%), Accounting Software (60.9%), SCM (17.4%) and CRM (9%).

Cluster 3, named as ‘Adopter’ includes business units which have totally adopted Internet Access, followed by Website Construction (88.2%), Remote Access (41.2%), Intranet (64.7%), Knowledge

Management (41.2%), EDM (35.3%), ERP (17.6%), Accounting Software Applications (47.1%), SCM (41.2%) and CRM (10%). Related to e-skills, the ICT experts' recruitment is estimated (47.1%) and online learning applications (41.2%).

Regarding Cluster 4, named as 'Leader' includes business units which have totally adopted Internet Access, Website Construction (91.8%), Remote Access (44.9%), Intranet (30.6%), Knowledge Management Applications (12.2%), EDM (20.4%), ERP (18.4%), Accounting Software Applications (61.2%), SCM (18.4%) and CRM (17%).

CONCLUSIONS

This study investigated tourism business behaviour regarding e-business adoption in three European countries. The main objective was to uncover hidden patterns of behaviours that would constitute clusters of companies with similar behaviour and attitudes. It is evidenced that companies in the same sector have different adoption behaviour. It is common to found 'leaders' and 'followers' and 'late adopters'. However, this adoption behaviour has not well documented in tourism sector and more particular with e-business technologies and applications. Choosing three different European countries, all members of the European Economic Area, with different tourism profiles, helps compare tourism companies' behaviour and test whether or not there are solid patterns dealing with e-business.

Five patterns of behaviour were revealed in Greece and Portugal and four in Norway. Those groups were named as: 'Leaders' 'Technology Experts', 'Fast Adopters' 'Beginners', 'Late Adopters'. In Norway, the group 'Late Adopters' also included companies characterised as 'Beginners' in the other two countries.

'Leaders' can be regarded as the most technological advanced group among tourism companies. Leaders have high rates of adopting of advanced e-business applications SCM, CRM e-orders, e-invoices. Leaders spend the more monies than all other companies for ICT and e-business applications. The demographic profile of 'Leaders' was as expected for all three countries. Specifically, Leaders are large companies in Greece (66.7% of companies having more than 250 employees) and Portugal. It was striking to find that half of the Leaders in Norway were small enterprises with 1-9 employees. Furthermore, it is expectable that few companies will be Leaders in a specific sector. Indeed, in Greece, Leaders were the 5% of the population, in Portugal the 10% but in

Norway 35% were characterised as leaders. This can be explained taking into account the fact that Norway is a more developed country than Greece and Portugal are. The structure of the sector also takes a significant role. Results indicate that in Norway small tourism companies lead the e-business development but in South Europe, the sector waits the large companies to take the lead and smaller companies then follow.

‘Technology Experts’, represent 24% of companies in Greece, 24% in Portugal and 20% in Norway. There is no clear demographic profile for this group of companies. However, it seems that most companies are medium-sized with more than 20 years of operations. One characteristic of Technology Experts is that the use advanced e-business applications in a large percentage, sometime more than simpler e-business applications. This indicates that these companies are aware of the full spectrum of e-business applications and have chosen the most beneficial to them. Also, this finding indicates that these companies have the necessary info-structure to operate these advanced applications.

‘Fast Adopters’ represent 16%, 10% and 12% of Greek, Portuguese, and Norwegian tourism companies respectively. All companies in Fast Adopters have 100% Internet Access and most characteristics are similar to ‘Technology Experts’ group of companies. Findings indicate that are companies that invest a significant part of monies in order not to lag technologically behind and become, like Technology Experts, the second to Leaders companies. For example, in Greece, Fast Adopters use Accounting Software (47.4%) less than Technology Experts (62.1%). The same stands true for CRM (41.4% and 26.3% respectively). However, Fast Adopters try to catch up by investing more e-skills (i.e. comparing ICT experts in Fast Adopters and Technology Experts were: 68.4% over 51.7% in Greece, and 24% over 17% in Portugal, respectively).

‘Beginners’ as well as ‘Late Adopters’ are the most disadvantaged companies regarding the adopting of e-business technologies and applications. Together, they represent 54%, 48% and 33% in Greece, Portugal and Norway respectively. The figures for Late Adopters are: 24%, 23% and 33% for Greece, Portugal and Norway respectively. Companies belonging to ‘Beginners’ as well as ‘Late Adopters’ are mostly small companies (i.e. for Greece, 96.5% of Late Adopters occupy less than 50 employees). These two groups of companies spend the less budget of all tourism companies for ICT technologies. Most figures indicate a low involvement with e-business: for example, technologies such as wireless broadband and direct fibre are almost absent from these two groups, except some usage from the more technologically advance Norwegian companies. The figures of Late Adopters are less favoured

than Beginners. For example, Late Adopters use CRM applications as low as 6.9%, 3.1% and 9% for Greece, Portugal, and Norway. However, the same figures for Beginners are: 25% and 8.6% for Greece and Portugal, respectively.

The above evidence suggests that there are different patterns of behaviour among tourist companies regarding e-business, but there are strong indications that the partners are indifferent. Indeed, all patterns of behaviour are found in all countries. For example, there are differences between leaders in Norway and Greece or Portugal. This is a significant finding that requires further research.

There are certain methodological limitations that require attention when interpreting the findings of the research. Due to the fact that this study was based on secondary data of e-business market watch, there was little control over the reliability and validity of the instrument used. The questionnaire was a generic one, applying to many sectors. The sample the survey of E-Business included only companies with computer usage, thus the percentages does not necessarily reflects the whole population, although computer usage was almost absolute when survey was conducted.

Despite the above limitations, this study uncovered important patterns of behaviour in tourism sector. Future research should shed more light on the characteristics of every cluster of companies and investigate country and sector-effects.

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SUBMITTED: JUL 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: NOV 2012

ACCEPTED: DEC 2012

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ESTIMATING TOURISM DEMAND: THE CASE OF FYROM

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The paper underlines the importance of applying forecasting methods in estimation of tourism trends. In this respect, two quantitative methods were used: (1) the method of exponential smoothing, through two of its variants: Double Exponential Smoothing and the Holt-Winters Smoothing; and (2) the Box-Jenkins methodology, through several alternative specifications. The result of the research is a medium-term estimation of foreign tourism demand for destinations in the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM) by the end of 2014. Despite the fact that all applied methods are not capable of explaining the driving factors behind the results, the estimated values can serve as a base for identifying measures and activities necessary for creating comprehensive tourism policy.

Keywords: *Estimating; Quantitative methods; Tourism demand; FYROM.*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

There is an evident relationship between the tourism planning and the forecasting process. Without reliable estimates of future demand, it is difficult to formulate adequate tourism development plan (Vanhove, 1978). The tourism policy may ensure that visitors are hosted in a way which maximizes the benefits to stakeholders, while minimizing the negative effects, costs, and impacts associated with ensuring the success of the destination (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2006).

However, all efforts to consider and understand the interrelated nature of tourism industry require monitoring and evaluation when tourism policy issues are involved (Edgell *et al.*, 2008). Hence, tourism policy may be viewed as simple process by those whose job is to create



and implement it (Wilkinson, 1997). At the same time many case studies on planning provide indications that the policy-making issue is not a trouble-free process (Mason, 2003). Moreover, planning decisions in tourism is an issue of great challenge for each national government (Brida *et al.*, 2011) since they view tourism as a catalyst for economic growth, which means they take active participation in tourism industry (Cheang, 2009). Due to the fact that tourism is generated by demand, the possibility arises that tourism demand may assist in providing in-depth analysis about tourist flows. This is of great help in decision-making process and drawing up tourism policies (Claveria & Datzira, 2009).

There is a wide range of factors which can influence tourism demand. These factors are normally found within the tourist-generating countries (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997). So, tourism demand affects all sectors of an economy - individuals and households, private businesses and public sector as well (Sinclair & Stabler, 1997).

In principle, estimation of tourism demand can be done either by processing quantitative data by strict mathematical rules, or by pooled opinions of experts regarding the past and future of the events. This paper fully addresses only the quantitative methods.

NECESSITY OF ESTIMATING TOURISM DEMAND

Tourism researchers and practitioners are interested in estimating tourism demand for many reasons because it is a key determinant of business profitability as a very important element in all planning activities (Song & Turner, 2006). On the other hand, estimation of tourism demand can be helpful to economic planners in reducing the risk of decisions regarding the future (Frechtling, 2001). In the same line, predicting the tourism demand is important to the tourism managers because more accurate estimations reduce the risks of decisions. So, the accuracy is one of the most important forecast evaluation criteria (Witt & Witt, 1992). Consequently, there is a wide range of techniques and procedures available for tourism policy analysis (Chowdhury & Kirkpatrick, 1994). Furthermore, estimating can serve as means to deal with the alternative future not as a single inevitable state, but a change which can evolve in strikingly different ways (Coates & Jarratt, 1989). Anticipating tourism flows considers the historical facts as well as the scientific knowledge in order to create images of what may happen in future (Cornish, 1977).

METHODS FOR ESTIMATING TOURISM DEMAND

There is a large body of literature regarding application of methods for estimating tourism demand. Namely, numerous researchers have been involved and a wide variety of techniques has been used. In principle, all methods are generally categorized in two-categories: qualitative and quantitative (Song & Li, 2008). The qualitative methods use pooled opinions of experts to organize the past information of the variable and often are recommended as methods which seldom generate better predictions (Hall, 2005). On the other hand, the quantitative methods organize past information about a phenomenon by strict mathematical rules and assume that at least some elements of past patterns will continue into the future (Makridakis *et al.*, 1998).

In estimating tourism demand, it is expected that the final model would produce projections which are as accurate as possible. However, it is not always the case because of many problems like: lack of sufficient time series data in terms of number of observations on tourism demand variables, measurement errors, unclear picture for the system of tourism demand etc. (Song & Witt, 2000). Thus, certain evaluation criteria are used in order to select potential starting methods, as well as to identify an adequate model. However, no individual model consistently performs well in all situations (Witt & Song, 2002) meaning that no single forecasting model is the best for all situations under all circumstances (Makridakis *et al.*, 1982).

Tourism demand can be expressed in a various ways. Some of them explained it by consumer expenditure or receipts (Grouch, 1992; Li *et al.*, 2004) as the only applicable variable which can be directly translated into economic impact (Sheldon, 1993). Others employed tourist expenditure on certain tourism product categories, such as meal expenditure (Au & Law, 2002) and sightseeing expenditure (Au & Law, 2000). Moreover, others made their focus on tourist typologies, motivation, determinants of choice of activities and demand (Johnson & Thomas, 1992). Even more, tourism demand can be measured by visitors' use of good or a service (Frechtling, 2001), tourism revenues (Akal, 2004), tourism employment (Witt *et al.*, 2004) and tourism import and export (Smeral, 2004). However, the tourist arrivals variable is the most popular measurement of tourism demand (Crouch, 1994). This variable may be further decomposed into holiday tourist arrivals, business tourist arrivals, tourist arrivals for visiting friends and relatives purposes (Turner & Witt, 2001a, 2001b; Kulendran & Wong, 2005), and tourist arrivals by air (Coshall, 2005; Rosselló, 2001). Hence, while reviewing eighty-five international

tourism demand forecasting models, Crouch (1994) found that nearly two-thirds of them defined demand in terms of arrivals or departures. Furthermore, the number of arrivals, the tourist expenditures, and the tourist receipts are utilized as dependent variables, while the national income, the exchange rate, the total number of population or the price, as for explicative variables (Botti *et al.*, 2007).

Similarly, the visitor expenditure is often identified as only applicable variable which can be directly translated into economic impact (Sheldon, 1993). Additionally, tourism can promote and cause long-term economic growth, known as tourism-led growth hypothesis (Brida, 2010).

Furthermore, the performance of the estimating models varies according to the length of the forecasting horizons (Li *et al.*, 2005). Estimating domestic tourist flows is considerably easier than international tourist flows' over a one-year horizon (Witt *et al.*, 1992).

Application of Exponential Smoothing Method

We estimate tourism demand in the FYROM, quantified by the number of foreign tourists, for the period 2009-2014 employing the method of exponential smoothing. This method can be applied in many variants, but for the aim of this research, the following two are used: the Double Exponential Smoothing model (DES) and the Holt-Winters Smoothing model (HWS). Both models can be used when dealing with short time series with linear trend and no seasonality. In this respect, we do the modelling with short time series with an upward trend in the period 2001-2008.

Table 1 Number of foreign tourists in FYROM, 2000-2008

Year	Arrivals
2001	98 946
2002	122 861
2003	157 692
2004	165 306
2005	197 216
2006	202 357
2007	230 080
2008	254 957

Source: State Statistical Office, 2008 and 2009.

The equations for the DES model are:

$$\text{Level: } L_t = \alpha A_t + (1 - \alpha)(L_{t-1} + b_{t-1}) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Trend: } b_t = \alpha (L_t - L_{t-1}) + (1 - \alpha)b_{t-1}$$

(2)

$$\text{Forecast: } F_{t+h} = L_t + hb_t \quad (3)$$

It is commonly used that the constant has value of 0.2 or less. Despite the fact that the choice of the value of the constant is pretty much limited, it can be used in obtaining more accurate forecasting results. The calculations are:

Constanta value = 0.182

Trend = 22 636

The HWS model is very similar to the DES model, because it can be applied in series with linear trend in the movement with no seasonality. The difference is that the HWS model is based on two smoothing constants, while the DES model uses only one because of its simplicity.

The HWS model uses the following equations:

$$\text{Level: } L_t = \alpha A_t + (1 - \alpha)(L_{t-1} + b_{t-1}) \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Trend: } b_t = \beta (L_t - L_{t-1}) + (1 - \beta)b_{t-1}$$

(5)

$$\text{Forecast: } F_{t+h} = L_t + hb_t \quad (6)$$

The calculations are:

First smoothing constant (α) = 0.48

Second smoothing constant (β) = 0.23

Trend = 21 887

Table 2 Estimating tourism demand with DES and HWS model, 2009-2014

Model	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
DES	278 927	301 565	324 203	346 840	369 478	392 116
HWS	276 374	298 261	320 148	342 035	363 922	385 809

From Table 2 it can be concluded that both models have similar estimating results. According to the DES model, the number of foreign tourists in the FYROM for the period 2009-2014 is projected to be within the interval of 279 000 - 390 000 tourists. Based on this model, the number of foreign tourists in the following six years will increase for approximately 120 000.

The HWS model estimates that the number of foreign tourists in the 6-year period will be within the interval of 276 000 - 386 000 tourists. So, based on this projection the number of foreign tourists in the FYROM will increase for 100 000.

Both models are very often used mainly because of their accuracy and simplicity. Respectively, their advantage is the ability to follow the linear trend of the original time series as well as to be used in medium-term projections. However, the biggest disadvantage is their inappropriateness in estimating time series with seasonality components or without linear trend. In such cases, other models of exponential smoothing are used, like: simple exponential smoothing, Holt-Winters multiple smoothing (with three parameters) etc.

Application of Box-Jenkins Methodology

In order to estimate tourism demand in the FYROM, we model the original time series - the number of foreign tourists, in the period 1956-2008 (State Statistical Office, 2008 and 2009), by means of the Box-Jenkins methodology (Box & Jenkins, 1976). It is one of the quantitative methods commonly applied in estimating, known as autoregressive integrated moving averages (ARIMA) models. It is the most popular linear model for estimating time series and enjoys great success in academic research (Qu & Zhang, 1996; Law, 2000 and 2004; Goh & Law, 2002; Kulendran & Shan, 2002; Huang & Min, 2002; Lim & McAleer, 2002; Coshall, 2005).

Taking into consideration that the basic assumption for applying this methodology is obtaining stationary of the time series, the first step in the analysis is to perform the stationary test. So, the correlogram of the series is used and the statistical significance of the calculated autocorrelation coefficients is checked. As stated in the statistical theory, if dealing with a random process, then the autocorrelation coefficients are approximately characterized by the normal distribution, with a zero mean and variance of $1/n$, where n is the sample size (Gujarati, 1995).

In this respect, the standard error of the autocorrelation coefficient is calculated: $\sqrt{1/53} = 0.137$. According to the table for normal distribution, we can calculate the 95% confidence interval for the autocorrelation coefficients:

$$\text{Confidence interval} = \pm 1.96 \times 0.137 = \pm 0.269.$$

However, considering the problems with individual testing of the significance of autocorrelation coefficients, the joint hypothesis that all autocorrelation coefficients are equal to zero is tested. This test is usually made with Ljung-Box statistic (LB). The LB-statistics tests the null hypothesis that there is no autocorrelation for all coefficients at certain number of time lags. In this case, it is known that the LB-statistics has low power, because the significant coefficients can be neutralised by the

insignificant ones. Hence, the evidence gained by the LB-statistics is additionally tested by employing two unit root tests: the Augmented Dickey-Fuller - ADF (Dickey & Fuller, 1979) and the Phillips-Perron test - PP (Phillips & Perron, 1988).

Table 3 Stationary tests of number of foreign tourists

Test	constant	constant + trend	none
ADF	-1.547875 (0.5016)	-1.498094 (0.8174)	-0.511774 (0.4899)
PP	-1.599661 (0.4756)	-1.496664 (0.8182)	-0.557843 (0.4708)

In the first row of Table 3, the values of the ADF-test are shown in its three variants. In all cases, the null hypothesis for the presence of unit root cannot be rejected. Consequently, this test suggests that the series is non-stationary. However, in the beginning of the 1990s, there was a presence of a structural break in the series. In that case, it is known that the ADF-test has low power so the results are checked with the PP-test. As shown in the second row of Table 4, all the variants of the PP-test show that the null hypothesis of a unit root cannot be rejected. Hence, this test, too, suggests that the series is non-stationary.

Table 4 Stationary tests of number of foreign tourists
(First Differences: 1956-2008)

Test	constant	constant + trend	none
ADF	-5.376144 (0.0000)	-5.445010 (0.0002)	-5.415973 (0.0000)
PP	-5.466517 (0.0000)	-5.529348 (0.0002)	-5.503297 (0.0000)

After performing the additional tests, it can be concluded that the Box-Jenkins methodology can be applied. The first step is to identify the appropriate model which will explain the time series movement. Here, crucial instruments are the sample autocorrelation (ACF) and partial autocorrelation (PACF) functions. The detailed analysis of both functions did not show any regularity in the movement of the autocorrelation coefficients (slow decay, sharp picks at certain lags etc.), from which, the model could be identified. What the correlogram suggested is that we have a mixed process, i.e. combination of autoregressive (AR) and moving average (MA) processes.

Due to the unclear character of the time series, several alternative specifications were used to model the original series: ARIMA(1.1.1) with dummy, ARIMA(2.1.2) and restricted ARIMA(1.1.10) with dummy. All models represent the original time series in an adequate manner.

The ARIMA(2.1.2) model has a slightly higher coefficient of determination compared to the previous model, but the second MA is marginally insignificant at 5%. Also, the inverted MA root is 1, which makes the process inappropriate for forecasting.

The restricted ARIMA(1.1.10) with dummy has some positive statistical characteristics: high coefficient of determination, no problems with the inverted AR and MA roots and results in favour of the Akaike and the Schwarz information criteria. Yet, this model is discarded due to the problems with the interpretation of the MA term. Once again, we emphasise that the inclusion of the MA term with a time lag of 10 periods ensures good approximation of the time series in the past, but not in the future.

Accordingly, only the results of the ARIMA(1.1.1) with a dummy are presented here, as the most appropriate model for estimating tourism demand.

Table 5 ARIMA(1.1.1) model of number of foreign tourists

Dependent Variable: Foreign tourists (First differences)				
Method: Least Squares				
Sample: 1958 - 2008 (51 observations)				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Probability
DUMMY	-191192.4	21341.93	-8.958533	0.0000
AR(1)	0.787363	0.165950	4.744591	0.0000
MA(1)	-0.423157	0.241562	-1.751749	0.0862
R ²	0.650544	Akaike info criterion		23.66973
Adjusted R ²	0.635984	Schwarz criterion		23.78337
S.E. of regression	32448.72	Durbin-Watson stat		2.089552
Inverted AR roots	0.79			
Inverted MA roots	0.42			

From Table 5 it can be concluded that the AR term is highly significant with value 0.8, which suggests a high level of persistence in the series. The second term is not significant at the level of 5%, but having in mind the relatively small sample, we decided to work with the model, because of its significance at 10%. In the same line, the coefficient before the dummy is highly significant. The adjusted R² is satisfactorily

high (0.64) due to the fact that we have modelled the first difference of the series. The values of the inverted roots of the AR and MA terms are within the unit root, which, once again, confirms that the chosen model is appropriate.

The good performances of the chosen model allow its application in estimation of tourism demand. The forecasted values are presented in Table 6.

Table 6 Estimating tourism demand with ARIMA(1.1.1) model, 2009-2014

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Arrivals	269 897	281 660	290 922	298 214	303 956	308 477

The results of the dynamic forecasts of the number of foreign tourists using ARIMA(1.1.1) with a dummy, point out that in the period 2009-2014, the number of foreign tourists will increase for about 10 000 tourists in the first years, and then a moderate growth can be expected, leading to the forecast of 308 477 foreign tourists in 2014. Although the projections obtained by the Box-Jenkins methodology cannot explain the factors behind these trends, they can serve as a base for the preparation of tourism development plan in the FYROM.

EVALUATION OF MODELS

Due to the fact that the primary purpose of creating a forecasting model is to clearly discern the future of a phenomenon, the most important criterion is how accurately a model does this. Moreover, it is extremely important to identify how closely the estimations provided by the model conform to the actual events being forecasted. Consequently, in order to define which of implemented models is the most accurate in estimation of tourism demand in the FYROM, the forecasts are evaluated by means of standard indicators: the Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE), the Mean Absolute Error (MAE), the Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) and the Theil Inequality Coefficient (TIC).

Table 7 Evaluation of applied models

	RMSE	MAE	MAPE	TIC
DES	6 090.83	9 986.78	4.79	0.0134
HWS	9 920.87	13 150.95	5.94	0.0217
ARIMA(1.1.1)	16 305.65	15 675.99	7.23	0.0375

Table 7 presents very defeating results of the ARIMA(1.1.1) model in consideration of its forecasting procedure complexity as well as the usage of considerably longest time series (starting from 1956). Despite the fact that the Box-Jenkins methodology is commonly applied on regular basis when dealing with tourism demand estimation, the evaluated results perform its poorest accuracy among the implemented models.

Comparing the values of calculated errors of the DES and the HWS model, it can easily be concluded that the DES model is more accurate model of exponential smoothing. Having in mind that the DES model is very simple for implementation, leads us to additional advantage for its choice as a leading model for estimating tourism demand in the FYROM. According to the DES model, the number of foreign tourists for 2009-2014 will be in the interval from 280 000 - 390 000 tourists. Put side by side to 2008 when 255 000 foreign tourists visited the FYROM, it means 10-50% expected increase. Furthermore, it should be pointed out that the anticipated values must be taken in consideration with a large doze of precaution, because the model does not indicate the reasons which affect the estimated results. This is very important, as these indicators have great influence on identifying and implementing measures and activities in order to create appropriate tourism policy of the country.

CONCLUSION

Estimating tourism demand is important as it is the base for creating achievable tourism policy, creating adequate regional development policy, formulating and implementing tourism strategy etc. Forecasting accuracy depends on characteristics of applied methods and models. The projected results from different models may be compared to the realistic data, thus ensuring retrospective measurement of accuracy of the applied model.

This paper provided a medium-term estimation of foreign tourism demand for tourist destinations in the FYROM. From the variety of quantitative methods, the paper addressed the possibility, but at the same time, the precondition of practical appliance of two methods: the exponential smoothing method (through DES and HWS model) and the Box-Jenkins method (through ARIMA (1.1.1) as the most appropriate alternative specification). The number of foreign tourists was the basic variable for estimating tourism demand in the FYROM for the period 2009-2014.

On the basis of the evaluated results from the dynamic forecast, the study found that the DES model is the most accurate and because of the

simplicity in its implementation is recommended for estimating tourism demand in the FYROM. Additionally, the paper explains that the recommended model does not indicate the reasons which may affect the projected results, which on the other hand, have high influence on identifying measures and activities necessary for creating tourism policy.

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SUBMITTED: JUL 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: DEC 2012

ACCEPTED: JAN 2013

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ECOTOURISM AT THE HEART OF DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES: ELEMENTS FOR REFLECTIONS BASED ON THE CARIBBEAN EXPERIENCE

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The paper offers a reflection on the tourism issues and development strategies relating to Caribbean destinations, and more particularly, island destinations. When faced with intense competition from the popular destinations around the region, the smaller islands have had to reaffirm their market position. Mass tourism development models have not created the expected knock-on effects for these territories of limited size and vulnerable resources. Any wish for alternative tourism practices, which for this region essentially revolve around the term ecotourism, falls under the scope of badly coordinated tourism development and its ensuing over-concentration of infrastructures, land conflicts and policies of entrenchment, etc. Sharing tourism revenue and accessing resources are key elements to the debate. Development strategies in relation to alternative tourism practices are better able to meet the expectations of host territories.

Keywords: *tourism, ecotourism, resources, development, territorial strategies, Caribbean*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

The tourism and services sector has established itself as a powerhouse for the island economies in the Caribbean¹ over the last twenty years. Tourism has continued to gain importance in economies where traditional activities are in crisis, notably in the agricultural plantation sector. Competition is intense between destinations that offer a similar tourism product, i.e. sandy beaches lined with palm trees, coral



reefs and a tropical festival atmosphere where carnivals and other musical events abound. Away from the stereotypes, this sector is mainly known for mass tourism concentrated in specialised tourism areas organised around large hotel complexes. This is undeniably important in terms of employment, but the advantages to the host societies and territories are deemed to be inadequate. Despite the magnitude of the flows of people and finance brought to the region by tourism, the existing development programmes are not without certain limitations when we consider the limited benefits to local economies, the impact of consumption levels and the environmental issues (Dehoorne, 2006).

It is only by keeping this context in mind that any reflection on ecotourism can make absolute sense. It is also proving vital that we contemplate new specific complementary approaches, properly integrated into the host environments and societies, and capable of providing alternatives to the classic coastal resort tourism along with a commitment to sustainable development. Indeed the advent of ecotourism in the Caribbean area at the beginning of the 1980s (Costa Rica's experience being the region's point of reference) (Weaver, 1994), has called for a fresh examination of local resources; this examination has brought a new dimension to the Caribbean, beyond the '4 Ss' (Pattulo, 1996; Sheller, 2003; Duval, 2004). The wealth of the coral reefs and the forests, the biodiversity, the Caribbean cultures are all seen in a new light; the tourist experience can then surpass that of the postcard paradise available in such standardised international locations as Cancun, Samaná, Varadero, etc. In truth the above aspects force us to reconsider tourism systems and development strategies for the Caribbean region.

As part of the reflection, our objective will be to study the issues and strategies that form around ecotourism. The analysis of the tourism phenomenon and its recent evolution at a regional level will enable us to describe the context from which this renewed interest in ecotourism, and more generally in alternative tourism practices, can be defined, and to then envisage a strategy typology which is formulated on a territory wide basis.

TOURISM IN THE CARIBBEAN AREA: THE DEVELOPMENT CHOICES IN QUESTION

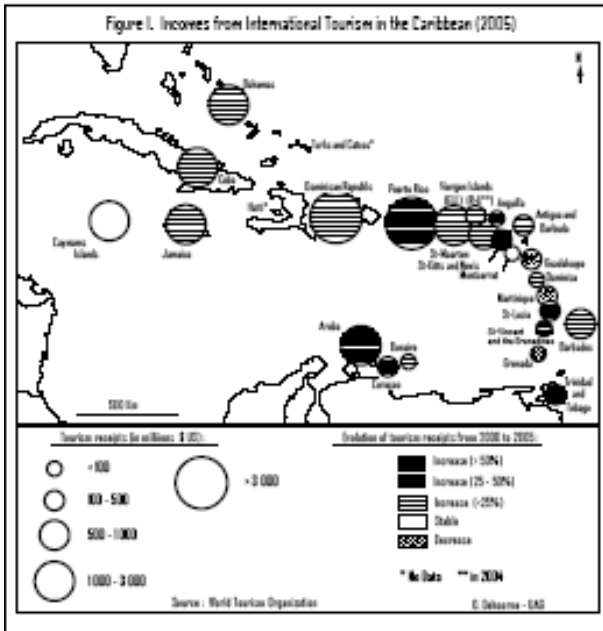
The importance of the tourism phenomenon

Tourism is the main source of foreign currency for the Caribbean and is a vital sector of activity in the region's development. Tourism revenue

was at 20,400 million US dollars for the insular Caribbean in 2005 (WTO, 2006) and the level of employment in this sector has now risen above 2.5 million (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2001). Tourism therefore directly and indirectly contributes 15.5 % of jobs in the region compared to a contribution of 6.3 % for jobs worldwide. Tourism, or in other words, internationalisation, creates jobs, stimulates the economy and supports diversification. Its earnings can easily amount to more than half of the GNP, for example, in Saint Lucia (64 %), Antigua and Barbuda (74 %) and the British Virgin Islands (82 %), and reach a record level of 91 % of GNP in the Turks and Caicos Islands. From the end of the 1980s tourism revenue in the Caribbean began to replace revenue earned from the traditional plantation economies and its dominance continues to hold fast. In the extreme situations of specialisation it provides two thirds of all jobs (US Virgin Islands) and its revenue can come close to being the equivalent of 20,000 US dollars per inhabitant (Cayman Islands).

Within two decades, Caribbean destinations which had previously been distant, expensive and reserved for elite groups, have become accessible to mass tourism. The number of visitors to the insular Caribbean has grown from 8.7 million in 1990 to over 19 million in 2004. Tourism from cruise ships (around 20 million) and pleasure boat sailing can be added to short break tourism. Overall, the islands and shores of the Caribbean (outside of the United States) received more than 40 million tourists in 2004 (Caribbean Tourism Organisation, WTO 2005). The dramatic growth in tourism is prevalent in a number of known international spots such as the resorts of Cancun and Costa Maya (Yucatán Peninsula), Montego Bay and Ocho Rios (Jamaica), Cayo Largo (Cuba) and Puerto Plata (Dominican Republic). The Caribbean Islands are at the heart of the system, with Puerto Rico and the Dominican Republic (approximately 3.5 million international tourists each in 2004), Cuba (more than 2 million) and Jamaica (1.4 million) (cf. Figure 1.) If throughout the whole region the volume of activity seems quite modest (notably in comparison to the numbers of visitors to the northern shores of the Mediterranean), the former should be re-examined in the light of the small stature of the host territories and their demographic burdens (Dehoorne, 2007). The Caribbean destinations that dominate the marketplace have opted for mass tourism strategies; they have organised themselves around impressive coastal resorts that offer relatively cheap breaks.

Figure 1 Incomes from international tourism in the Caribbean (2005)



Limitations of the current means of development

From an economic point of view there are several limitations that need to be highlighted. Poorly diversified tourism offers are based on cost driven commercial strategies and the advent of mass tourism in the tropics cannot be separated from these commercial realities. With reference to the importance of financial flows through the territories, the revenue share that actually promotes the development of these nations could be considered inadequate. Varying factors have helped to explain the limited knock-on effect, such as the significance of all-inclusive packages; these have been essentially put together from provider cities where tourism companies control the marketplace. The importance of international capital must also be emphasised. Capital external to the Caribbean controls more than 60 % of the region's receiving capacity and smaller island states have then been obliged to adopt attractive tax systems to entice investors. All the difficulties involved in supplying provisions to tourism facilities also fall within the overall logic that denies

local companies 'a look in'. Packed and frozen food imports are equivalent to a 50 % loss in declared tourism revenue, as in Saint Lucia (Wilkinson, 2004).

Indeed, the economic development of the region has been influenced by a long line of external control. Tourism has come to the rescue of traditional hard-pressed economies and island economies that bear the scars of their plantation history. It has led to a new phase of development opening up for these islands, but the mechanisms involved are continuing to follow the plantation cycle, hence the term 'plantation tourism' (Weaver 1988). This extraverted development can be characterised by an increased competition in the provision of a single product aimed at a marketplace controlled by a number of large transnational groups. The dependence of these states on tourism and their considerable economic vulnerability in general, can be explained by the fact that their economies are young, that their institutional capabilities are limited and that their financial and technical capabilities are minimal (Brigulio et al. 1996; Lockhart & Drakakis-Smith 1997). Short term economic imperatives prevail when these underemployment and debt-ridden states have to make choices. An example is the balance of payments for Barbados which showed a deficit of 145 million US dollars in 2000 for an external debt of 30 % of the GDP; Antigua's external debt (425 million US dollars in 2000) now amounts to 69 % of its GDP. The top priority for these countries is to boost their employment markets. Although these markets are unstable and precarious they help reduce the impact of economic and social crises.

The decision to give priority to stays that are born from a policy of enclosing tourism locations has reinforced the above economic limitations. The idea of having enclosed holiday sites fulfils a dual purpose within an entrenchment rationale: on the one hand it recognises the importance of security because it is a matter of protecting people from the risks of international terrorism and local petty crime in general, whereas on the other hand it has an economic advantage in that visitors' spending is easier to control because it takes place in standardised sites which are cut off from the outside world. This way of working, i.e. minimising contact with local people, is very disappointing for many visitors in search of more intense and reality based experiences of the host territory. If the vast majority of tourists are happy with this type of break, for others, choosing a holiday in an enclosed location is only a first step towards an anxiety-provoking, but appealing faraway land that will guide the tourist to other individualised experiences, more integrated into the host societies.

The third aspect to be highlighted in regard to the limitations of current development is that involving ecological issues. The wealth of these shores comes from both tangible and intangible resources (especially biophysical) that have a high added value (the coral reefs). Tourism consumption modes cause damage locally which adds to that engendered by urbanisation and demographic pressures (Island Resources Foundation 1996; Saffache 2000). We need to reflect on the impact of mass tourism, may it be from cruise ships (Wilkinson, 1999), the increased mooring of pleasure boats on the coral reefs (the Grenadines), the problems of waste management (Aruba, Jamaica) or untreated and partially treated waste water (Aruba, Cayman Islands, Grenada, Dominican Republic, etc). Coastal districts are deteriorating rapidly on these smaller islands and the non replacement of resources raises concerns about development choices; at the moment these choices come under particular requirements for economic growth (Daly 1990; Goodland 1992) and do not work in favour of a well thought out diversification or a real development strategy.

Too often, Caribbean territories are faced with the situation of being simple reception providers within an international tourism system where there are limited prospects for local participation (problems of capital or access to provider markets). It is therefore with this context in mind, where the importance of tourism flows contrasts with the limited revenue and where key questions need to be asked about management choices and resource enhancement, that consideration must be given to finding alternative forms of tourism, firmly rooted in the host territories and populations so as to achieve a genuine developmentally sustainable tourism plan of action. Ecotourism is thus at the centre of these new discussions (Breton 2001; Dehoorne 2006).

THE NEED TO DEVELOP ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES: ECOTOURISM AT THE HEART OF THE DISCUSSION

Ecotourism - from theory to practice

Ecotourism can either provide an alternative approach to development that assists in the preservation of protected natural areas, it can be a tool against poverty or it can be an instrument for sustainable development at the centre of new governance models (World Tourism Organisation 2003 and 1992). It also offers a new conceptual framework that can be used to implement revitalised development procedures based on revenue from a better thought out and organised tourism consumption

(Blamey, 2001). Ecotourism, as a gentler variant on tourism, covers the realms of nature tourism, cultural tourism, and outdoor scientific or sporting activities.

In contrast to mass tourism, ecotourism is associated with activities that have a limited impact on the physical and cultural environment (Lequin, 2001). It therefore represents a form of tourism that has a marginal impact on host areas and societies. Derived revenue helps finance the protection of the relevant milieu, and the activities involving small groups of visitors demand very little of the natural resources. Particular attention is paid to the nature of these visitors' consumption and to the need to recycle; discussions on water resources, energy and waste are essential. Ecotourism goes beyond the simple preoccupation of preserving a milieu; it includes the human dimension, placing an emphasis on the respect and understanding of host societies, themselves participants in the development programmes.

The main principles of ecotourism are as follows: respect for environments and natural/cultural resources, making visitors more responsible and involving the local population in activities that promote themes of 'coming together'. Immersion into the local culture plays an important role in the intensity of the tourism experience (cf. Table 1).

A sense of responsibility, participation, local governance and sustainability are some of the necessary elements linking the ecotourism experience to models of ethical tourism, fair tourism and solidarity tourism. The above relatively conceptual terms, defined by charter, attempt to explain an alternative view of travel and tourism, one more sensitive to the needs of the host societies. "Ecotourism offers a different type of holiday; it embodies new trends of thinking on tourism development and on the tourism experience that sit well with the principles of sustainable tourism, i.e. a form of tourism that is respectful towards the environment, and in a wider sense, that represents resource protection, respect for cultural identities and responsible stakeholders" (Lequib, 2002).

Ecotourism advertising, along with its pretensions and the abundance of labels, has appeared under various guises in the move from theory to practice, the aim being to capture a very profitable segment of the tourism market, i.e. the rather wealthy niche groups who are in search of unique experiences (WTO 2003). These new opportunities explain the blurring that surrounds ecotourism in commercial practices where the manifold increase in the sometimes incoherent marketing schemes have been accompanied by many types of 'self-labelling'.

Table 1 The ecotourism concept

Nature and culture	Preservation of milieux and regard for the cultural dimension. Financial support in the protection of the above milieux, limited impact from activities.
Well-being of the receiving societies	Improvements in living conditions, and diversification of economic activities. New revenue, improvements in infrastructure.
Tourist responsibilities	Informed clientele, respectful towards the milieux and the visited sites, sensitive to different cultures. Educated about the environment.
Involvement of the receiving societies	Given responsibility and opportunity to participate in the decision-making process, ownership of the activity (entertainment, goods and services). Move towards local governance.
Sustainability	Control of the volume of tourism consumption, development of the receiving societies and conservation of resources.
The art of coming together	A tourist experience that includes the opportunity for people to come together and that contributes to a more equal and supportive relationship building process.

Source: Lequin (2001), Couture (2002), Dehoorne et al. (2007)

Economic reasons

The concept of ecotourism is synonymous with locally controlled products, modest investments and community involvement, and has particularly appealed to international bodies (United Nations, World Bank). The ecotourism alternative could push isolated and/or disadvantaged regions with little tourism towards a new form of development that international tourism in the hands of the large international tour operators is incapable of delivering.

Ecotourism is organised around flows that are modest and diffuse, and only involves limited amounts of finance. From a strictly tourist point of view it comes across as being part of a diversification process in what the nation has to offer - a complementary approach. The relevant flows are not enough to interest the established international airlines, in

contrast, at a regional development level, this well targeted financial input in relation to isolated and poverty-stricken territories can have a noticeable effect on people's well-being. Our surveys on the smaller islands of Dominica and Saint Lucia confirm the 60 % share of expenditure that directly profits the local economy as well as the distribution of the main expenditure items (Dehoorne et al 2007; Murat 2007).

Table 2 Economic benefits from ecotourism

For a budget of 1,000 US dollars (excluding international transport)	
Share remaining in the local economy	60%
1. Accommodation and catering (small family owned or community facilities where provisions are sourced locally)	30%
2. Transport and local journeys (private or public transport which is either for specific groups or available to the whole community, locally owned)	10-20%
3. Variety of services (from local people: guides, taster sessions with craftspeople, organisation of fun activities)	10-12%
4. Support for local development projects (community projects designed to reinforce the organisation of education and medical services, to support environmental programmes or to introduce new tourist facilities)	6-10%
Share invested from outside the local economy (administration, communication and commercial intermediaries, partnership with national guides who do not live in the host area)	40 %

Source: Dehoorne et al. (2007), from *The Ecotourism Society* (2004, *Fundación Programa Andes Tropicales – Venezuela, Bioplaneta – Mexico*).

At the very core of the endogenous development strategies, ecotourism is an “opportunity for native populations to ‘reappropriate’ their own milieux” (Breton, 2001). It helps in the creation of local family or community based micro businesses, in the provision of specific jobs (guide, artisan) in the community and in the improvement of local tourism residences by way of small scale accommodation units that raise the status of women. These activities bring in new revenue that circulates within the community and promotes local projects, especially in the field of medicine (building and coordinating health clinics) and education (helping the village school). These micro projects sometimes benefit from financial incentives, supportive government measures (for example, Dominica, Saint Lucia and Venezuela) and help from NGOs.

Development projects that revolve around ecotourism and alternative approaches in general are particularly interesting in the case of rural communities facing deconstruction, impoverishment and depopulation, and whose culture is often scorned by societies in search of the urban dream. Let us remind ourselves that in the Caribbean region private individuals and small businesses have a very reduced role. The boom in the tourism sector has come about through complex systems that too often elude the local populations who are left experiencing bitterness and impotence in the face of inflation, the dollarization of their economies and the privatisation of their living space. In this way, reflecting on the diversification of tourism interests and their positive impact on other natural and cultural resources responds to the real concerns of these countries. It is about seeing to what extent new endogenous development initiatives would better position tourism within the host territory, away from the shorelines and the enclosed resorts, and open to other 'treasures'.

If it is easy to agree on the theoretical principles behind ecotourism, the investigation into some examples of the Caribbean experience has enabled us to highlight the complexity of the reasoning and the issues, especially economic and political that drive these strategies.

ECOTOURISM WITHIN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES IN CARIBBEAN TERRITORIES

Territories that have the advantage of ecotourism

Regional initiatives involving ecotourism place the emphasis on the wealth of natural resources, more notably, protected natural areas, especially those areas that are classed as being UNESCO world heritage sites, such as the Morne Trois Pitons National Park (Dominica), and the many national parks like the Culebra National Wildlife Refuge (Puerto Rico, 1909), the J. Armando Bermúdez and the J. del Carmen Ramirez parks (Dominican Republic), and the Virgin Islands National Park (US Virgin Islands). As stressed during the First Caribbean Conference on Ecotourism, organised by the Caribbean Tourism Organisation in 1991 at Belize City (cf. Figure 2), these spaces are fundamental in ensuring the success of ecotourism policies. This aspect of ecotourism is often very close to nature tourism where the notions of well being and local participation are not addressed.

Land given over to ecotourism is either interior, volcanic (northern Martinique, Basse-Terre Island at Guadeloupe), coastal though little used by resort tourism (particularly the volcanic islands and their black sandy

beaches) or carefully preserved, for example, mangroves (cf. Table 3). Certain islands intend to profit from the new opportunities made available by their magnificent forests and wildlife.

Table 3 Types of location given over to ecotourism activities

<i>Type of location</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Interior mountainous areas	Sparsely populated area with resources that are naturally preserved	Cordillera Central (Dominican Rep.), El Yunque (Puerto Rico)
Peripheral islands	Small outlying and isolated islands, state dependent, limited development for tourism, capable of being oriented towards an exclusive alternative tourism	Barbuda, Exuma Cays and Great Inagua (Bahamas), Tobago, Saba and Bonaire, Bird of Paradise Island (Trinidad et Tobago), the Grenadines
Non-exploited coastal zones	Barely accessible beaches, mangroves, dunes, swamps, cliffs, wealth of resources	Northern coasts of Curaçao and Aruba, south west Jamaica, northern coast of Trinidad, Paria Peninsula (Venezuela)
Offshore reefs	Diving sites with a reputation for the wealth of their marine biodiversity, presence of shipwrecks	Cuban archipelago of Los Colorados, Saba Bahamas, Bonaire and the Cayman Islands

Source: Dehoorne et al. (2007), from David B. Weaver (1994)

Ecotourism experiences are still in their infancy, but some interesting endeavours need to be pointed out, for example, on Dominica where the focus has been on 'forest ecotourism' and on the Dutch island of Saba with its 'marine ecotourism'.

Dominica is situated between the French islands of Guadeloupe (to the north) and Martinique (to the south), and is the more mountainous of the Leeward Islands. There are fewer than 80,000 inhabitants over an area of 754 square kilometres. Running against the current of the

dominant resort tourism model, Dominica intends to position itself as 'the island of 365 rivers' (as opposed to the Island of Antigua which is 'the island of 365 beaches'). The inland resources, the best of which are the mountains, the forests and biodiversity, all fall under the umbrella of ecotourism.

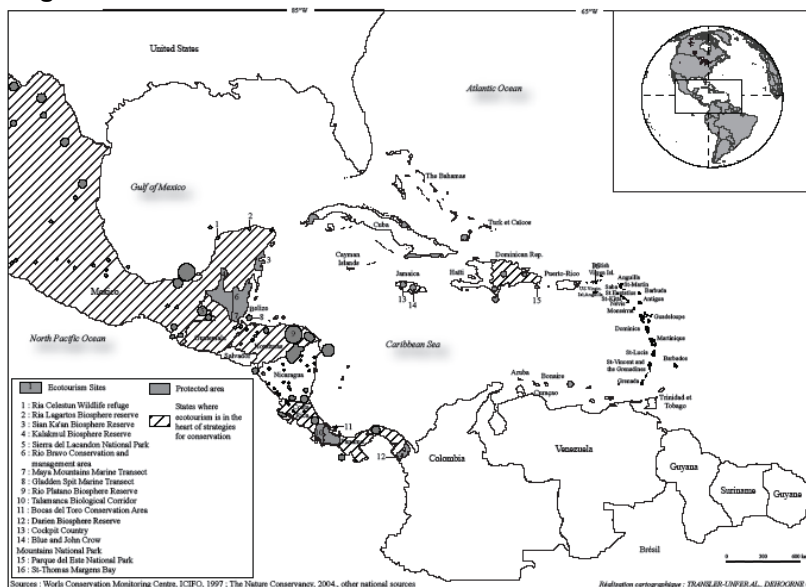
Some decades earlier, the government of Dominica had unsuccessfully tried to develop a resort-style tourism, but on this volcanic island, the absence of white sandy beaches and the long rainy season did not encourage investment. The three 'handicaps' of yesteryear: the mountains, the rivers and the waterfalls, along with the significant forest cover have now been favourably exploited as an opportunity for ecotourism. The environment on this island, sparsely populated and lacking in noteworthy infrastructures, is quite well protected. Dominica therefore makes a good case in persuading people to visit it and tourism campaigns insist on its virginal nature, the luxuriance of its forests (that cover 62 % of the island), the smoking volcanoes, and the omnipresence of its rivers and waterfalls. Ecotourism relies on a network of nature parks, micro businesses and modest accommodation units (eco-lodge style) that are endorsed by the government.

Saba provides an example of a promising economic recovery by a protected island micro territory. This small island of 8 square kilometres is dominated by a dormant volcano, Mount Scenery (888 metres high), and is located 45 kilometres south of Saint Martin. The absence of beaches has limited the tourism growth for this islet which specializes in marine ecotourism and diving. The Marine Park on Saba surrounds the island (from the high water level to a depth of 60 metres) and is at the centre of the scheme. The Saba Conservation Foundation (private non-profit earning foundation) was set up in 1987 to coincide with the opening of the first protected area; it manages the spaces and counsels the authorities.

The Marine Park at Saba counts around thirty of the best diving spots in the Lesser Antilles. A system of zoning divides the park into pleasure and commercial zones, and a network of buoys (must be used for the purposes of mooring) facilitates the management of the diving areas and prevents the coral being damaged. It is one of the rare autonomous marine parks in the world, earning income from visitors and authorised diving companies which have to pay for the right of access, the sale of souvenirs and from donations. The regulations oblige the diver to be accompanied by an approved professional (as required on the islands of Dominica and Saint Lucia) and the cost of a three day diving stint is from 250 to 300 euros. The island has one small airport with the only regular

flights coming from Saint Martin (where the cost of 15 minutes of flying time is equivalent to 20 % of that for a transatlantic flight between Saint Martin and Europe). Saba is also accessible by boat, again from Saint Martin, in about thirty minutes. The island has some small scale accommodation units such as guest houses and eco-lodges; catamarans complete the accommodation.

Figure 2 Ecotourism and Protected Areas in the Caribbean Basin



Ecotourism: positioning and development strategies

Several types of positioning can be identified within the current craze for ecotourism in the Caribbean. First we need to distinguish between two distinct systems: one operated by less visited destinations which hope to impose their uniqueness (nature, conservation, authenticity) on the ecotourism market and thereby break into the world market, the other operated by mass tourism destinations that use ecotourism to diversify their offer and expand it across their territories.

The investigation should also focus on the issue of site accessibility; ecotourism can be used as a means to open up peripheral territories that have been isolated for a long time, and conversely, it can be used as a

pretext to close off locations and retain them as a resource for a privileged clientele.

Ecotourism as a tourism development strategy

For territories that are devoid of the classic threefold resources: white sand, palm trees and lagoons, ecotourism provides an opportunity to offer something original. Underdeveloped and underpopulated islands have opted for this alternative; the stigma of being underdeveloped can then be turned to their advantage (limited urbanisation and infrastructure, relatively well-protected natural spaces). Destinations like Panama and Dominica have now followed the approach which was begun by Coast Rica some decades earlier.

Inevitably, the question of revenue becomes crucial. Even though ecotourism revenue generates substantial benefits for local people, the amount of revenue remains modest, if not insufficient. Thus, in Dominica ecotourism based on natural resources appears to be a perfectly adapted instrument to meet local needs and to initiate tourism development in the country, but when taking economic imperatives into account, authorities will be obliged to define their strategy from the following alternatives: an elite tourism for a small number of ecology conscious well-to-do clients or a mixed formula that combines mass tourism practices at certain coastal sectors (for example, from cruise ships) with practices at more protected inland sectors.

Ecotourism for economic recovery, free from mass tourism

Confronted by the progress of mass tourism, ecotourism strategies have served to restrict the use of locations that are endowed with the most popular attractions (smaller islands and their lagoons). Bearing in mind the huge vulnerability of these resources and the risk of disastrous consequences that an uncontrolled access to the public at large would bring, ecotourism is a key element in the debate for a regulated and payable access to a protected resource. This is evident in the example of the marine parks where new regulations have led to the gradual disappearance of traditional practices. Following Saba's experience, small territories are choosing to focus on specific activities, such as diving.

Limited access and often the absence of regular flights have meant that visits to certain locations can be restricted to those rich enough to own their own planes. Conserving resources and controlling the flows

contribute jointly to the preservation of locations for an upmarket tourism, similar to that found on the smaller islands of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (in the southern half of the Antilles arc) or on the coastal archipelagos in the Gulf of Honduras.

From ecotourism to mass tourism

The dilemma for destinations like Dominica which opt for tourism development via ecotourism, means choosing between maintaining low level flows (whether wealthy clientele or not) and accepting greater numbers. The knock-on effects for the country's economy will not be the same, for example, Dominica has only two minor airports which offer small scale regional flights, and yet the inherent issues of building a proper international airport in the territory's overall development are fundamental for the future of this young nation.

This is how a gradual shift towards mass tourism has come about. Tourists' interests have been changing progressively: from inland nature parks to the coasts and the beaches (artificial if necessary), and activities have become more sport-oriented: 'tree top walks', mountain bike trails and trips on quads, 4x4s, etc. Ecotourism is moving away from its initial principles; it has entered the international tourism marketplace and as it becomes more lucrative, the more important private funding becomes. Organisations are officially transferring from ecotourism to nature tourism or adventure tourism, but the 'ecotourism' labels have not been removed. The experience of Costa Rica illustrates this point entirely: the country received 1,453,000 international tourists in 2004 (compared to 435,000 in 1990) and more than 200,000 cruise ship passengers. Its ecotourism renown and its pioneering role have continued to earn it a certain reputation; the tourism sector is now the biggest source of foreign currency, making up more than 25 % of exports (Raymond 2007).

From mass tourism to the quest for diversification

For those Caribbean destinations whose tourism that relies on the traditional resources of tropical beaches, ecotourism has become unavoidable. It is about individualising what is on offer by giving it a unique flavour in an increasingly competitive world market where clichés of tropical tourism have been popularized. The commitment to the environment is often superficial. Ecotourism is a simple strategy to adopt in diversifying the tourism offer. Initially the product is available as a one day excursion for a resort or cruise ship clientele, for example, on the

Dominican Republic the Punta Cana Resort and Club created a natural reserve of 400 hectares within the perimeter of its coastal enclave. This reserve is in fact a 'study centre' that brings students to its own biodiversity laboratory and that has its own artificial reef for divers. In the same sector, the Coral Canoa Beach Hotel and Spa decided on a protection programme for iguanas.

When tourism has been well established on the coast, authorities go along with the idea of making ecotourism available further inland. The redistribution of flows answers concerns about the economy and land use planning. So often this alternative tourism can play a part in underprivileged areas through local development projects that fight poverty. The larger Caribbean destinations (like the Dominican Republic, Cuba and Jamaica) have settled on this approach as have the smaller islands with a well developed resort tourism (Barbados, Guadeloupe, Saint Lucia).

CONCLUSION

The rationale beyond ecotourism makes perfect sense in the Caribbean where a system of mass tourism has imposed a rigid extraverted development. It is a question of driving new alternative approaches that are both complementary and original, and that are better integrated into the host milieux and societies, thereby actively involving local communities and maximising benefits. This can happen by way of ecotourism projects based on activities that are more appropriate and viable for the overall functioning of these societies, as much economically, as ecologically or politically (Hall and Lew 1998; Weaver 2001). However, when we take into account the financial limitations encountered by these programmes, the relationship between development and conservation is uneven, often leaning towards what is cost effective. Their stability then depends on the different public and private stakeholders being able to work jointly with the local communities; new projects are put together within an atmosphere of complex and unbalanced confrontations, and funded by international donors and NGOs.

In its conceptualisation, ecotourism acts as a basis for compromise between a well thought-out plan of access to resources and the sustainability of ecosystems; it also contributes to the development and to the well-being of the host society. The model is fragile and the local reasoning behind these strategies is uncertain: ecotourism can help countries move away from underdevelopment or it can also be used by

policy makers as an excuse to close sites and therefore exclude certain population categories (local or tourist).

Resource problems are many in the Caribbean area where the potential of each island, large or small, has been assessed and future uses have been planned. Outside of simple ecotourism practices, as of now, the pivotal issue concerns the management of, the access to and the control of resources, especially vulnerable resources.

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SUBMITTED: APR 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: OCT 2012

ACCEPTED: NOV 2012

REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

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ⁱ The Caribbean area describes the islands and shores that are in contact with the Caribbean Sea, i.e. a region with a population of more than 300 million spread over approximately 4 million square kilometres and consisting of countries with differing political regimes and very contrasting living standards (the difference in revenue per inhabitant goes from 1 to 42)

IMPACTS OF TOURISM PROJECTS OF DEVELOPMENT AGENCIES ON SOCIAL PEACE IN TURKEY

Naci Polat
Dumlupınar University

Tourism and peace are two important concepts which are influencing each other. These concepts are mostly tackled separately at tourism and peace platforms which are isolated. Since international security issues gain more importance, significance of both concepts are more underlined. Tourism is one of the most employment generator sectors of the world economy. Conflicts and tensions in different regions of the world could diminish number of tourists and tourism workers. Even if tourism can rehabilitate itself rapidly after such problems, scientific researches' are getting more interested in crises management (Laws, E., B. Prideaux and K. Chon, 2007). In this study, Do's and Don'ts of tourism projects in less developed regions will be extensively searched with qualitative methods, not after such crises but during the social crises and problems. At the main focus of this study, tourism projects of South Eastern and Eastern Regions of Turkey with high economical and social problem zones will be evaluated. These projects will be especially evaluated in the terms of establishing social peace. Results which are delivered with this study will be used for recommendations for the other problem zones of the world.

Keywords: Tourism Projects, Development Agencies, Eastern and South Eastern Anatolia

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Tourism related projects in South Eastern and Eastern Anatolia regions could increase the living standards of locals, diminish the poverty and bring social peace to people (Kosan, 2006). At this point, projects must be evaluated according how realistic they are. Increasing number of such projects, high level of financial supports, variety of local participation and increase of NGOs are highly expected. Especially, it



must be observed whether these projects are evaluated or not. Private sector's support is less than expected. Some NGO projects which have different supporters than public sources will be also mentioned.

METHODOLOGY

First of all, tourism projects of these regions will be searched and then these will be outlined. The border of the study will be constricted. Especially, 3 development regions will be evaluated with 8 cities of high social tensions. Every city's project performances which are mostly financed by development agencies will be introduced by the help of tables in details. For each city, there will be critical approaches in order to understand the situation. At the end, comparison will be made. A special approach for tourism and peace relation will be created where qualitative research methods are extensively used.

At this stage of study, projects of 8 different cities with high level of social tensions Bitlis, Hakkari and Van (under the supervision of Eastern Anatolian Development Agency); Batman, Şırnak and Mardin (under the supervision of South Eastern Anatolian Development Agency); Diyarbakır (under the supervision of Karadağ Development Agency) and expected results will be discussed.

PROBLEM AND GOALS

There is not standard social and economic development level among South Eastern and Eastern region cities. Expectations about economical and social development are getting also more differentiated. Hence, delays by dealing with problems have negative effects on social peace. Different incentives and development projects have been implemented since many years. During last 3-4 years, regional supports for sector with priorities have been given by regional development agencies and international agencies. Practical solutions such as preparation of projects, application with projects are very useful but this is not enough. These projects can be also prepared only for financial reasons. This could bring one danger: Participation of local people can be sometimes ignored and they could be alienated.

CITIES AND PROJECT SUPPORTS OF DEVELOPMENT AGENCIES

Under this title, cities and project supports of Eastern and Southern Anatolian Development Agencies will be introduced. Some not-agency related projects will be also mentioned.

Eastern Anatolian Development Agency

This agency is responsible of Bitlis, Hakkari, Van cities. Only tourism related projects will be shown.

Tourism Projects at Bitlis

Table 1 Tourism projects of Bitlis

Project Name	Operator
Training project with focus on sector capability in tourism at Tatvan and Surroundings	Tatvan Municipality
Promotion of tourism potential of Bitlis	Bitlis Tourism and Culture Directory
Increasing of tourism income with the help carpet and rug weaving and handcraft	Development Foundation of Bitlis and its Small Towns
Woman-hand project (Financed by EU and Turkish Ministry of Labor and Social Security)	Bitlis Woman-hand Cooperative Woman-hand Project

Source: DPT, 2005

If we look above, there is a balance between project operators: 2 public organizations and 1 NGO. Proposed and accepted project topics show concrete initiatives and steps toward solving problems. Firstly, practical abilities of local people in tourism are tried to be increased, secondly concrete carpet and rug production techniques of people are developed, products are supplied to tourism sector and finally this brings them higher income. On the other hand, there is an attempt to give a new shape to promotion efforts for the city by the public organization. It is very interesting that not only state tries to initiate civil initiative but also there is a strong connection between local NGOs and public institutions.

Tourism Projects at Hakkari

Table 2 Tourism Projects at Hakkari

Project Name	Operator
Diversification of Hakkari rug weaving products and their promotion	Hakkari Culture and Tourism Directory
Promotion of Cilo mountains and Sat lakes with Plateau tourism	Cilo Nature Society
Increasing of tourism income and making profession for women in Kirköy	Kirköy Municipality
Handcraft training for physically handicapped women	Hakkari, Education, Art, development and Research Society

Source: DPT, 2005

Projects which are supported in Hakkari show diverse characters. On the one hand, women are trained to have their own professions; on the other hand, handicapped women are supported. One of the projects is done by an NGO. This makes people easier to join such projects.

Hakkari rugs belong to the best examples of the world rugs. Number of product types will be increased in order to attract the interest of different buyers. It is possible to make cooperation with Bitlis which has similar project. This project has very serious stakeholder attendance. Last but not least, geographically Cilo Mountains are highest mountains of Turkey when volcanoes are not counted. This project is implemented by an NGO. Generally speaking, economical, geographical and social projects have the right balance in this city.

Tourism Projects at Van

Van is one of the most project maker's cities of this region when it is compared with other cities. Project topics are found on a larger scale. On the one hand, geographical and cultural amenities are gaining importance; on the other hand there are managerial skill trainings. Total quality management project in tourism, training of middle level personal in tourism sector and Van tourism training project are some of these examples. Especially, other project topics try to create awareness in certain subjects. Configuration and adaptation of folkloric activities are not new facts in Turkish tourism sector. There will be some researches on

folkloric heritage, diversification will be realized and young people will be directed to folkloric activities. These are mostly hobby activities but that could be a ground stone for entertainment sector of tourism. Projects which are emphasized by natural and historical beauties can also be found here. An Armenian Church renovation is supported by the development agency. This aid aims not only to support tourism but it also gives a good will message for problematic Turkish-Armenian relationships. It is believed that this could give a small momentum to both countries relationships.

Table 3 Tourism Projects at Van

Project Name	Operator
Promotion of natural beauties and historical values of Van and its surroundings in Eastern region	Life, Woman, Environment, Culture and Management Cooperative
Total quality management project in tourism	Van City Special Administration
Van tourism training project	Anatolian Sustainable Development Agency Society
Training of middle level personal in tourism sector	Van Chamber of Industry and Commerce
Development and protection of local culture and art: Preparation of entertainment basement in tourism sector.	Van Lake Folklore Tourism Sport Club Society
Uncovering of Van's touristic values	Van Chamber of Industry and Commerce
Edremit Church restoration project	Turkish Service and Education Foundation

Source: DPT, 2005

South Eastern Development Agency

This agency is responsible of Batman, Siirt, Sırnak and Mardin cities. Only tourism related projects will be shown.

Tourism Projects of Batman

Table 4 Tourism Projects of Batman

Project Name	Operator
Lobbying for 4. International Health Congress in order to be organized in Batman	Batman Tourism and Promotion Society (NGO)
Telkari ‘Silver filigree’ project	Batman Culture and Tourism Directory

Source: DPT, 2010

This society planned to organize congress and got financial aid from the agency. But this congress was planned to organize in Istanbul before the financial aid decision. That means this aid was useless and unrealistic. There are not too many projects in Batman and project topics are not so relevant with tourism.

Silver handcraft works project is not related with tourism directly. This project will give chance young people to have their own profession independently. It is supported by State Planning Institute, Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Batman University and private sector.

Tourism Projects of Siirt

Table 5 Tourism Projects of Siirt

Project Name	Operator
Organic Bee Keeping Training	Aydınlar Town Governorship
Telkari ‘Silver Filigree’ Project	Siirt Governorship

Source: DPT, 2010

Silver filigree is supported here same as in Batman. There is organic bee keeping training in Aydınlar town. Products can be introduced to tourism market in the long term. Generally and specifically, there are problems with tourism project support work in the city. People cannot integrate themselves to such kind project works. Economical and social problems do not let them to be part of project preparation and implementation.

Tourism Projects of Sırnak

Sırnak proposed vast variety of projects without tourism. City has lack of tourism sense. Tourism can be introduced to local people with

some training. This will lead them to prepare some projects within some NGOs. Especially, there are some projects about handicrafts development projects with in small scale NGO works (DPT, 2010).

Tourism Projects of Mardin

Mardin cannot be counted in the group of above cities. There are many concrete private sector projects in the city. There is sufficient bed capacity with the natural architecture of the city. This attracts tourists gradually. It is not realistic to put this city under supervision of south eastern development agency because of different characteristics of neighbor cities. Especially, less developed cities with security problems could not be compared with more secured and slightly developed cities. This could have negative effects on project implementation when there is no differentiated approach to the cities with different characters. But this problem can also be seen under the responsibility of different development agencies.

Mardin Artuklu University has a project which is supported by the agency: Improvement of personal performance in tourism sector. This is radically different from other cities tourism projects which is mainly dealing at the management level of tourism sector (DPT, 2010).

Karacadağ Development Agency

This agency is responsible of Diyarbakir and Sanliurfa cities. Sanliurfa has also social and economical problems. But this does not create social tension in the city. Diyarbakir will be evaluated from the perspective of tourism projects because of its social and economic problems.

Tourism Projects of Diyarbakir

Government and all state agencies give full support to tourism and social projects of Diyarbakir as it can be seen above. Its projects compete with Van. NGO initiatives are really rare. This has no real function for integrating local people to their problems. Local people must be encouraged for planning projects.

Thermal, ecological and cave tourism are supported in 3 different small cities. These destinations can be combined after project completion in certain tour programs. Tourists could visit these places and have an idea about before and after project implementation.

Table 6 Tourism Projects of Diyarbakır

Project Names	Operators
Smiling face of thermal tourism	Cermik Municipality
Historical direction signings project	Diyarbakir Municipality
Museum projects for old two important writers from Diyarbakir	Diyarbakir Museum Directory
Ecological tourism and tourism infrastructure development project	Egil Governorship Society of Service for Villages
Protection of Hasuni caves and opening for tourism	Silvan Governorship, Villages Service Society
Diyarbakir fairs and congress center capacity development project	Diyarbakir Trade and Industry Chamber

Source: DIKA, 2010

There are still many places in South Eastern Anatolia that locals and tourists cannot find right way to historical places because of inappropriate signings. This is going to be solved by a project. Diyarbakir is at junction of four different countries. This city can play a frontier role about meetings and congress tourism. The capacity of congress center could be increased with the help of Trade and Industry Chamber.

RESULTS

Results can be introduced by the help of table. Projects are named, collected and counted under certain topics. Evaluation is made in the terms of income generation projects (Bee keeping, silver filigree, carpet and rug weaving), woman projects, tourism capacity, promotion of cultural, geographical and historical attractiveness projects, tourism management projects, tourism training projects, protection of local culture projects, restoration projects and ecological tourism projects.

1. *Income generating projects*: They can be found in 5 cities. Income generating projects have totally to do with handcraft activities. They have indirect relation with tourism. They will be evaluated with women related projects.

2. *Women Projects*: Women have still problems with archaic family relationships especially in Eastern and Southeastern Anatolia. In some cities, women are being forced to commit suicide or died because of so called 'honor killings'. This is mostly because of man dominated family understanding. In the first six months of 2011, 105 women have been

killed in Turkey. Women are not really free even if they have their democratic rights. Most of the time, they do not know how they use their democratic rights. Only two women-tourism related projects are supported. Carpet and rug weaving is very dominant activity. But this production type is very time consuming. Products are not easily sold. When then, they are sold by little prices. That means there are not newly developed projects. Women have been weaving carpet and rugs since centuries. Income generation is very acceptable results of projects. But do women get their money without any claim of their husbands, brothers or fathers? These projects must be secured women rights in these regions. Real social peace can exist when women can practice their rights. Men dominated areas with high unemployment rates can see a positive change in economic and social life when women do have more freedom of speech and have more materialistic rights in the family. Tourism and other social projects must push these rights forward. But projects which are implemented in these regions are not touching real problems of people. Financial aids are given in order to color the reality. Some projects are prepared by private companies which take commissions from project stakeholders. This is something a silent bargain between local agents and private firms. Everybody knows it and everybody keeps silence.

Table 7 Comparison of Results

	Income	Woman	Tourism Capacity	Promotion	Management	Training	Protection	Restoration	Ecologic
B	X	X	X	X					
H	X	X		X					
V				X	X	X	X	X	
B	X			X					
S	X								
Ş	X								
M					X				
D				X			X	X	X

Source: Own comparison

3. *Tourism Capacity*: Projects about development of tourism capacity are only 2. Such kind of projects must be encouraged. Weak awareness about tourism sector must be changed to strong awareness. This capacity

can only be increased by awareness trainings of local people. Once, they know the positive and negative characteristics of this sector, they can start to be part of some tourism projects. They can not be pushed to be part of these activities. There is only in Bitlis such kind of projects.

4. *Promotion of Cultural, Geographical and Historical Attractiveness:* Under this title, there are many projects. But these are mostly projects of state authorities. Promotion of attractiveness is thought mostly for tourists. But there is very crucial point here. Especially local people must have more information about such places. If they do not have awareness about these values, they do not want take responsibility of their surroundings. They become alienated in places where they live. In some historical places, children do work as tourist guides which we see this in various parts of the world as well. Nearly 10 years ago, there were some projects for these children in these regions. They were trained as volunteer guides. They got certificates after their trainings and they were officially recognized. In summer months, they earned their pocket money. They gained awareness of touristic places where they lived. They had contacts with national and international tourists. This created ways to a new world. Author of this paper worked also as a volunteer guide in this region. This helped him very much to understand his own culture and culture of different nationalities. But such activities are now nearly finished. Children are pushed to the hands of social tension.

5. *Tourism Management:* Tourism management projects could be implemented where the real tourism infrastructure more or less exists. Van and Mardin try their best. Alone, hotels are not enough to serve tourists without managerial skills. Service personal must be trained in effective manner. Especially, universities of this region do not really show interest in such tourism project preparations. Mardin Artuklu University shows here a real exception: Implementation of a project for increasing performance of personal at tourism sector.

6. *Tourism Training:* This is one of the most important but least supported topic same as at tourism capacity development. Without such trainings, there will be less chance to have tourism in these less developed regions. Tourism high schools must take more initiatives for training local people in order to give them more sense of tourism.

7. *Protection of Local Culture:* Protection of local culture is not possible with two projects. Folkloric values could be preserved at Van example if it is not going to be much commercialized. Literature museums of two famous poets and authors could have more effect bring people together. Local culture must be protected but at the same time

there must be new researches on them. This could help people understand their own culture.

8. *Restoration*: These projects are very important. It has very special meanings for local people. There are also positive messages for people who lived here before a long time. These renovated holly and cultural places attract people from outside of the region. They come and visit birth places of their ancestors. As tourists, they leave money. This brings welfare to local people. As mentioned before, renovation projects can have also positive effects on border countries relations such as between Turkey and Armenia if there is a mutual understanding. Tourism can play a very crucial role in such conflicts. At least, small steps can start with the help of tourism. People of both countries can visit each region, try to understand each other. This is still problematic but hopefully it will be changed in the future.

9. *Ecological Tourism*: It is one of the most attractive types of tourism in especially economical less developed regions. It is small but it has healing effect on local communities. Infrastructure for ecological tourism must be developed in different regions of the Eastern and South Eastern Anatolian region.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Women rights und women income generated projects must be encouraged, number of them must be increased in these regions.

2. Local people must gain sense of tourism. This can be done with the help of tourism awareness trainings.

3. Local people must take tourism initiatives. Therefore, they have to know culture, history and geography of their living places.

4. Children have to be trained as volunteer guides. This will open their eyes to the world of opportunities.

5. Universities must take over more responsibility for project planning with local agents.

6. Tourism management courses must be implemented for places with better tourism infrastructure.

7. More researches must be undertaken about tourism and social tensions. Researches on folkloric heritage have to be done in order to adapt them to tourism. But commercialization must be abandoned.

8. More restoration projects must be taken place. This admires local people. They will be proud of their living places. More tourists will come and visit their places. This will create more income.

9. Development agencies supporting projects must be evaluated whether they are useful for the people of the region. If there are wrong projects, these must be stopped in order to stop empty financial aids.

10. Development agency's responsible cities must be renewed. Less developed cities can not be put on the same list with slightly more developed cities. Otherwise, this will bring wrong solutions to regions. As a matter of fact, working and organizational structures of development agencies must be changed.

These recommendations are not only for a better tourism understanding but also for a peaceful living of different cultures which are eager to live together. Social peace has many facets. It is really difficult to find solutions for regions where there have been many social and economical problems since many years. These must be searched and new findings have to be shared with international community.

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SUBMITTED: FEB 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: AUG 2012

ACCEPTED: SEP 2012

REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

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ANALYSIS OF RURAL TOURISM WEBSITES: THE CASE OF CENTRAL MACEDONIA

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Our study of rural tourism enterprises in Central Macedonia uses the functional and technical factors posted on Greek official websites during the year 2009 to explore typical guest expectations based on those posted factors and the perceptions of enterprise owners and/or managers in light of those factors. The evaluation of the hotel 74 rural enterprises in Central Macedonia was based on the examination of the importance of functional and technical quality in rural tourism services. The analysis includes all the rural recorded hotel units in Central Macedonia of Greece. We build our research hypothesis upon the literature and we make the following hypothesis: the functional and technical dimensions can also be applied as important factors for the level of quality the customer perceives from a related web site. Our study contributes to the inference of objective conclusions of the actual quality of the rural tourism hotel units in Central Macedonia.

Keywords: *Rural tourism hotels, Website analysis, functional and technical dimensions, Service Quality.*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

There are about 400,000 hotel lodgings and approximately 3.6 million beds available to tourists in Europe today. The economic impacts of those activities are the creation of about 900,000 jobs and income creation for rural areas that has been estimated at the level of 150,000 million Euros (Myncke & Nuñez, 2009). Recently in the European Union



there has been development of models for the growth of the agricultural sector and rural income, and also for the protection of the environment and quality of life. These frameworks incorporate rural tourism which includes activities based on the exploitation of the natural, cultural and human resources, contributing to the maintenance of traditional rural activities, rural entrepreneurship and cultural monuments. The membership of Greece in the European Financial Community, gender equality, and the upgrading of living conditions have promoted the development of countryside tourism, with the parallel technical and financial support by public and private offices (Mihalik, 1992). From 2001 until 2009, Agrotouristiki S.A. and Guest Inn contributed to the promotion of rural tourism in Greece and tried to inform and protect the citizens who are involved in countryside tourism. Today their actions are planned for inclusion in the new Rural Tourism Organization (O.T.Y.) of the Ministry of Economic Development or the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, with more orientation to the management of public business policy.

QUALITY, INFORMATION AND THE AGRO-TOURISM LODGING SECTOR

While it is relatively easy to define the quality of a product, the process of defining the quality of a service is a challenge. The products are discernible and relatively easy to count. On the other hand, the services are characterised by indistinct elements of separation (as they are produced and consumed at the same time); they are perishable (they can not be stored) and they have high level of variety (Kotler, 1997).

According to the definition of rural tourism, the quality of the services includes the attitude of the entrepreneur towards the guests, the competence of the booking system, the cleanness of the rooms, their furniture, as well as the attitude of the local residents towards the guests (Fleischer, et al., 1993). Grönroos (1990) suggests a differentiation between the technical and the functional quality of the services and, as it has been mentioned before, the technical quality refers to “what”, while the functional quality refers to “how”. Sharpley (2002) reports that there is an observed lack of essential knowledge and skills in the agro-tourism lodging sector, so there is a need for quality analysis and improvement. ¶ In the related literature, quality of provided services and information for the customers are essential factors for the purchasing decision that concerns the choice of agro-tourism lodgings by the customers. Those

factors can be constituting elements for competitive advantage creation (Pazek, et al., 2005; Potocnik, 2006; EUAB, 2011).

THE INTERNET TECHNOLOGY

Internet technology supports the process of the description of customer behaviour (EUAB, 2011; Aaker et al., 2001; Siegel, 1997). The significance of electronic consumers and e-markets in the day-to-day praxis no longer constitutes an unknown parameter for the agro-tourism business sector. Websites are rapidly becoming a must for both promoting and selling agro-rural enterprise products (Beus, 2011). Utilities also result for the customer as he/she can strengthen his/her briefing via the Internet with regard to interesting product characteristics as well as combine this digital service with the services that are provided in the conventional market by the points of sale. ¶This alternative it is particularly important for customers that conceive that the growth of transactions via the Internet includes a high risk of failure (Bailey & Bakos, 1997, p.18). Those utilities can contribute to the building of longer-lasting relations between enterprises and customers (Kumar & Reinartz, 2006, p.302; Sviokla & Rayport, 2011). Finally, the information retrieved by customers from the Internet is viewed by them as useful and adding value as per their perception of benefits received and manifested in their chosen activities.

Today we have access to numerous website evaluation tools. Most of them are the result of theoretical and empirical research (e.g., Quality Criteria for Website Excellence, 2011; Law et al., 2010; Parasuraman et al, 2005). Based on Reichel et al., (2000), we make the following hypothesis: the two basic dimensions, functional and technical, can also be applied as important factors for the level of quality the customer perceives from a related web site.

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the present study was to evaluate the hotels in Central Macedonia region of Greece based on the expected degree of satisfaction by the expectant guest and the specification of weaknesses in the examined sectors of the rural tourism units. The evaluation of the functional and technical factors was conducted on the basis of the data posted in the websites of Agrotouristiki S.A. and Guest Inn during the year 2009 for each tourism unit in Central Macedonia. The evaluation was objective, as much as possible, since the personal, subjective judgment

inevitably affects the final grading. However, the present study investigates the evaluation of the expected quality, which definitely results from the personal judgment of each possible guest.

METHODOLOGY

The evaluation of the hotel enterprises in Central Macedonia was based on the study of Reichel, et al (2000), who examined the importance of quality in rural tourism services. They studied the difference between the level of expected customer satisfaction by the provider of services and the level the customers actually experienced. They also investigated the perceptions of the entrepreneurs about rural tourism services and management tactics for the elimination of differences between the rural tourism entrepreneurs' perceptions and those of the regular administrators in order to eliminate disparities. The survey was conducted with tourists and business administrators in rural Israel, via questionnaires and personal interviews. To gain useful information for our study we applied the definition of Gronroos, (1990). This type of information was created by a list of criteria for rural tourism services and we created two sub-categories (Table 1). In rural tourism, the functional quality is determined mostly by the owners or managers as they have the most consistent contact with the staff providing services to guests and will base their assessment on perceived satisfaction or dissatisfaction of guests.

The data used by the present study were collected exclusively from the websites of Agrotouristiki S.A. and Guest Inn during 2009. The data reflects the hotels of Central Macedonia recorded in Agrotouristiki S.A., which operates under the supervision of the Ministry of Tourism Development, and Guest Inn, which is the Greek network of rural accommodation and a member of the EuroCites. Thus, the data analysis concerns the entire population, not only a sample of hotels, which reinforces the reliability of the final observations. Specifically, this census concerns the population of the rural tourism hotels in the seven prefectures of Central Macedonia: Thessaloniki, Halkidiki, Kilkis, Imathia, Pella, Pieria and Serres. The data provided for each hotel are its name, its location (in or out of the settlement), the altitude of the region, the date of its establishment (if it is mentioned), the number of rooms available, and the provided services and activities which can be developed in or out of the rural tourism unit. All the above mentioned data are taken into consideration and affect the evaluation of the rural tourism units, as the average grading is figured for each unit. We should note that the provided services which are not recorded in the tables are 100% available

in all units. Such services are TV and telephone in the room, room services and cleaning services. In cases where a fireplace is mentioned among the services, it is in the room, not in a place of common use. In Table 1, fifteen criteria, technical and functional, are presented, on which the evaluation of the rural tourism units was based in relation to the satisfaction that the potential guest expects to experience during his/her stay in one of the hotels.

Table 1 Evaluation criteria for the hotel units based on Grönroos theory, (1990) as used by Reichel *et al*, (2000).

Factors of expected satisfaction
Functional factors:
Booking system
Behaviour of the locals
Behaviour of the owners/staff
Service quality
Technical Factors :
Printed information about the activities in the region
Room size
Room cleanliness
Air conditioning
Level of prices
Room and region aesthetics
Activities for children
Bathroom
Food facilities
Room furniture
Activities in the unit

A rating of “1” implies the lowest quality, while “5” implies the highest level of service quality. For the evaluation of the “booking system” factor, we had to take into account the existence or not of a website or e-mail address and the potential of booking through an agency or electronically, for the best possible facilitation of the possible guests. We should note that the evaluation of the “service quality” was greatly affected by the access to the units by persons with special needs, the

acceptance of pets and the existence of washing machines. The “size of the room” was mainly evaluated by the photos of the rooms available in the websites of Agrotouristiki S.A. (www.agrotour.gr, 2009; today available at <http://www.agrotourism.gr>, 2011) and Guest Inn (www.guestinn.com), and also by the availability (or not) of suites. As far as “air conditioning” is concerned, we should mention that many of the units are located in mountainous regions of quite high altitude. This means that they constitute winter destinations and the lack of air conditioning did not greatly affect the grading. On the other hand, the existence of a fireplace in the room did influence grading. The evaluation of the criterion of “level of prices” resulted from the recorded prices, in cases where they were available, as well as the services each unit provides and its general image. It is important to note that for the evaluation of the price, the rating scale was reversed, with a grade of “5” indicating that the expected price is very high, while a grade of “1” indicated the price as very cheap. The rating of the criteria “aesthetics of the room and region” and “room furniture” was determined by the photographs posted in the websites of Agrotouristiki S.A. and Guest Inn for each hotel unit. The technical factor of “activities for children” had the highest grading wherever the availability of children’s facilities was mentioned, and the potential of children’s participation in other activities, e.g. cycling, was also taken into consideration. The criterion of “bathroom” was evaluated with the highest grading in cases where the services of sauna/Jacuzzi/hydro massage were available. Moreover, the evaluation of the “food facilities” was positive especially in cases where the potential to use the kitchen was mentioned and also wherever there was a restaurant/tavern in the rural tourism unit. Finally, the factor “activities in the unit” was evaluated as providing high quality even in cases of cooperation of the unit with external organizers, while the evaluation was harsher in cases of various activities only out of the unit.

Data analysis

In the prefecture of Thessaloniki only two units with 70 beds are recorded. The total amount of hotels in the prefecture is 132, with 13,386 total provided beds (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2007). This small number of rural tourism units can be explained by the fact that the provincial regions of the prefecture are close to the capital of the prefecture which is one of the country’s commercial centers. Naturally, the economic support comes from other sources and the residents do not

fulfil the preconditions to be financed for the development of rural tourism units. Both of the units in the prefecture of Thessaloniki provide accommodation, breakfast and parking. One of them provides activities such as horse riding, archery, canoe and shooting, while another one has a swimming pool and sauna. We notice that only one unit is accessible by persons with special needs.

The average expected satisfaction grading for the quality of the provided services in the rural tourism units in the prefecture of Thessaloniki is 3.37, which is 0.48 units lower than the average of the whole Central Macedonia (Table 2). Additionally, the expected quality of the booking system is lower than the general average, with 1.5, as is the printed information about the activities in the region. On the other hand, the expectation for the development of activities in the unit was evaluated much higher, with a grade of 4, as were the activities for children, which are crucial factors in rural tourism. Hoyle stated that “weekends are more likely the most marketable option for family activities” (Hoyle, 2002, p.25, 58, see also Beus, 2011).

In the prefecture of Halkidiki, 16 units are recorded, with 289 beds. The total number of hotels is 521, with 44,764 beds (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2007). Six of the units (37.5%) are located in the region of Taxiarchis, 3 units (18.75%) in Arnea, 2 units in Parthenonas (12.5%) and 2 in Megali Panagia (12.5%). The remainder of 18.75% are located in various provincial regions, such as Vrastana, Vavdos and Paleohori. All of these units provide accommodation and breakfast. Three out of 16 units (18%), are characterized as “traditional” or scheduled buildings, and only one unit (6%) is a farm, which includes tennis courts and a football field, archery and also the opportunity to walk around it. We should note that a farm can include infrastructure for the development of various activities within the unit, which is a competitive and attractive advantage for the choice of the potential guest. In total, 31% provide the potential for physical exercise and development of the previously mentioned activities, with 12% through external cooperation. Additionally, 37% have children’s facilities, 62% have a fireplace in the room and 31% mention that they offers traditional or/and homemade treats to the guests. Moreover, 25% of the units allow pets, while only 12% are accessible by persons with special needs.

The average expected grade of satisfaction was found to be 3.59, which is only 0.26 units lower than the general average in Central Macedonia. The range of the average expected grades for all the hotels in the prefecture of Halkidiki is quite high (1.54 units) and ranges from 2.73 to 4.27. For the hotels in this prefecture there is also a low expectation for

the high quality booking system, as well as for the existence of printed information about the activities in the region and the activities in the unit. On the contrary, there is a high expectation for the qualitative aesthetics of the room and of the region. Moreover, the expected level of prices was evaluated with 3.63, which shows relatively expensive prices for the rural tourism hotels of the prefecture.

In the prefecture of Kilkis there are 3 units recorded, one of which is characterized as a traditional or/and scheduled building. The total amount of beds, within the frame of rural tourism is 107, while the total hotel units are 14 with 612 beds (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2007). All of the units provide breakfast and accommodation. Concerning the other services, 2/3 of the units are accessible by the persons with special needs and 1/3 allows pets. All of the units, in combination with the natural environment where they are built, provide the opportunity for ecological excursions and activities, while 1/3 of the units, within their collaboration with local units provide the guest with the opportunity to visit the botanical garden of the region and the winery and to participate in related local events.

The prefecture of Kilkis displays differences in relation to the other prefectures. There, the average grade of satisfaction is 4.31, which is 0.46 units higher than the ones of Central Macedonia. We should highlight that the elements which seem to be weak in the hotels of Central Macedonia in general, excel in the prefecture of Kilkis. In particular, the expectation for high quality in the booking system was graded with 4, as opposed to 3.28 in Central Macedonia. Additionally, there seems to be a high expectation for printed information about the activities of the region, as well as for the development of children's activities and other activities in the unit. Finally, we should note that the prefecture has only three recorded rural tourism units, which have all been evaluated with the highest expected grade in comparison with those of central Macedonia in general.

In the prefecture of Imathia 12 units were recorded in Agrotouristiki S.A. and Guest inn with 257 beds in total. According to the 2007 data by the Hellenic Statistical Authority, the hotels of the prefecture number 27 with 1,284 beds. Four of them (33%) are characterized as traditional or/and scheduled buildings. On the other hand, 16%, or two units, are in a farm and one unit shares its roof with the ski center, while 66.6%, or 8 out of 12 hotels are located in regions of altitude higher than 500m. All the units provide breakfast and accommodation, while 66% offer homemade or/and traditional treats, either for breakfast or at the restaurant, wherever there is one. Moreover, 25% of the units allow pets, and 33% are accessible by persons with special Needs. In combination with the natural

environment, 66% of the units mention the opportunity for ecological excursions, while 16% provide outdoor activities, such as hiking, climbing and skiing, in collaboration with an external partner. In only one of the units (8%) and more specifically in one of the farms, the guests can watch, or even participate in rural activities.

The image of the prefecture of Imathia is similar to the one of Central Macedonia in general, as the average of expected satisfaction is 3.81. As presented in Table 2, there is a low expectation for the hotels in the prefecture of Imathia regarding the booking system, the printed information about the activities of the region, and also for the activities for children and others, within the unit. On the other hand, the behavior of the residents and the owners/employees is expected to be high, as well as the cleanliness of the room. In addition, we should mention that in this prefecture we find the hotel with the lowest expected degree of satisfaction in Central Macedonia, displaying only 2.67 units. The average grades for the evaluation of the hotels in the prefecture of Imathia display a relatively wide range of 1.86 units.

As far as the prefecture of Pella is concerned, there are 17 rural tourism hotels with 403 beds. The total number of the hotels in this prefecture is 57 with 2,137 beds (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2007). All of them provide accommodation and breakfast, while 76.4% offer homemade or/and traditional treats. The majority of the hotels, 64.7%, or 11 out of 17, are located in old Agios Athanasios, which is a recently developed region in high altitude. It is a traditional settlement of natural beauty suitable for the development of rural tourism. The second location is in the prefecture of Pella with the most rural tourism hotel units, where we find 17.64% or 3 out of the 17 units in Loutraki where there are well-known spas. In these units the visitors are mainly older people and we should note that three of them are accessible for persons with special needs. The total number of rural tourism hotels in the prefecture of Pella which are accessible for persons with special needs is 6 (35.3%). In 23.5% of the hotels in the prefecture, pets are allowed. Moreover, there is no unit mentioning the availability of children's facilities, as well as the possibility to develop various activities within the unit, except for only one unit which provides esthetician services or "beauty therapies." All of the units provide the opportunity for ecological excursions and the development of activities and sports in the region, while only one unit mentions its collaboration with a climbing club. Finally, the majority of the hotels in the prefecture (58.8%) are characterized as traditional/scheduled buildings.

The prefecture of Pella is one of the prefectures with the lowest expected satisfaction by the provision of services and its grade is 3.72. There is a low expectation for the existence of children's facilities, as well as for the development of activities in the unit. However, the behavior of the locals and the owners/employees is estimated as excellent, as is the cleanliness of the room. In addition, the range of the average grading for the hotels in the prefecture of Pella is 1.07 units, while the lowest value is 3.13 units and the highest expected satisfaction is 4.20 units.

In Agrotouristiki S.A. and Guest Inn website listings at the year 2009 for Pieria, there were listed 15 rural tourism enterprises with 366 beds. In the prefecture of Pieria there were 373 units and 17,839 beds (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2007). All of the units provide accommodation and breakfast, while 66.6% provide homemade or/and traditional treats. Eight of 15 units or 53.3% are located in the area of Elatohori, a mountainous village which has attracted winter visitors during the last few years. In 6 out of 15 (40%) units the guest is able to participate in activities within the unit, such as watch or even take part in rural activities or visit the exhibition of traditional art. Moreover, all of the units mention the chance for ecological excursions and environmental education in the surrounding natural environment. Forty percent of the units are accessible for persons with special needs, while 20% offer children's facilities. The expected satisfaction from the services in the hotels of the prefecture was evaluated with 3.89 units, which is almost equal to that of Central Macedonia. The sectors with the lowest expected satisfaction are the same as those of the other prefectures. We should highlight that in the prefecture of Pieria we find one of the two rural tourism hotels with the highest expected satisfaction at 4.73 units. The range of the evaluation grading is 1.93 units.

Finally, in the prefecture of Serres, nine rural tourism units are recorded, which provide 259 beds, while the total number of hotels in the prefecture is 31 with 1,659 beds (Hellenic Statistical Authority, 2007). In Serres, 33.3% of the rural tourism units are located in Ano or Kato Poroia and 33.3% in the area of Kerkini. All of the units promote the opportunity for ecological excursions; 3 out of 9 units mention participation in activities such as horse riding and hiking out of the unit; 2 of the units are able to organize or arrange outdoors activities; and only one unit enables the guests to exercise and take part in activities in the rural tourism unit. We should highlight the fact that 77.7% or 7 out of 9 hotels are accessible by persons with special needs, while 22.2% of them allow pets. Moreover, only one unit is characterized as a

traditional/scheduled building and one is characterised as an Activities Park, without being mentioned as a farm.

Table 2 Average expected grade of satisfaction.

Prefecture:	Central Macedonia	Thessaloniki	Halkidiki	Kilkis	Imathia	Pella	Pieria	Serres
Functional Factors :								
Booking	3.28	1.50	2.38	4.00	3.67	3.12	3.73	4.56
Local	4.36	3.00	3.94	4.33	4.42	5.00	4.87	5.00
Owners/empl	4.54	3.00	4.31	5.00	4.58	5.00	4.87	5.00
Service	4.24	3.00	4.31	5.00	4.00	4.35	4.47	4.56
Technical Factors :								
Printed information about activities in the region	2.86	2.50	2.38	4.33	2.67	2.00	2.47	3.67
Room size	3.78	3.00	3.56	4.33	3.42	3.82	3.87	4.44
Room	4.58	4.00	4.06	5.00	4.58	4.71	4.73	5.00
Air	3.81	3.00	3.67	4.00	3.92	3.76	3.87	4.44
Level of	3.66	4.50	3.63	3.33	4.00	4.12	3.47	2.56
Room and	4.37	3.00	4.44	4.33	4.25	4.82	4.73	5.00
Activities for	3.12	4.50	3.06	4.33	3.00	1.18	2.20	3.56
Bathroom	4.49	5.00	4.31	4.67	4.08	4.47	4.33	4.56
Food facilities	3.70	3.50	3.44	4.00	3.83	3.82	4.00	3.33
Room	4.07	3.00	4.00	4.33	4.00	4.18	4.20	4.78
Activities in	2.84	4.00	2.44	3.67	2.67	1.41	2.60	3.11
TOTAL AVERAGE	3.85	3.37	3.59	4.31	3.81	3.72	3.89	4.24
Rural Hotel Units :	74	2	16	3	12	17	15	9

Finally, the image of the prefecture of Serres is slightly different, with the expected satisfaction being graded with 4.24 units. The expected satisfaction with the booking system of the hotels in this prefecture is quite high (4.56 units), 1.28 units higher than the average of the whole central Macedonia. In addition, the expected level of prices is estimated to

be relatively high, while there are no crucial differences in the other criteria from the general data.

CONCLUSIONS – DISCUSSION

In general, we conclude that there are positive expectations about the functional factors of the rural tourism hotels in Central Macedonia. The potential guest expects to experience a friendly and warm attitude from the local residents in addition to a high quality of services from the owners/ employees of the hotel. Meanwhile, the positive expectation is lower for a reliable and modernized booking system. This may be explained by the fact that Agrotouristiki S.A. and Guest Inn provides the exact information for booking, and subsequently this factor can be evaluated more objectively by potential guests. We should mention at this point that for the inference of conclusions and the evaluation of units, there must be a clear distinction between functional and technical services. In other words, the distinction between the objective and the subjective dimensions of the services is essential, as it will help to comprehend the viewpoint of the client. More specifically, knowledge of the differences in the clients' viewpoints regarding the various dimensions of the services can contribute to the development of an effective marketing strategy, as well as demonstrate the crucial aspects which need improvement. Therefore, we divided the provided services into two groups, based upon the subjective and objective nature of those factors.

The first group includes the factors which are viewed as “sensitive” by the client. These are “subjective” functional factors such as “The entrepreneurs of rural tourism hotels should be very careful in avoiding disappointment on the part of the clients when they visit his/her unit”. It should be noted that these “sensitive” factors which are rated quite subjectively are difficult for the entrepreneurs to change and for the marketers to promote, as they require a special study during the planning of the marketing strategy.

In general, the expected satisfaction ratings for technical factors are lower than the ratings for functional factors. Specifically, the expectation for printed information about the activities of the region seems to be rather low. There are also lower ratings for the factors of “activities in the unit” and “activities for children”. Moreover, the level of prices is expected to be medium to high. The food facilities are expected to be satisfactory. The expected satisfaction for the room cleanliness is very high, along with the aesthetics of the room and the region, and the

furniture. The above mentioned factors can and have been evaluated more objectively and most of these factors can be changed by the owner more easily than the functional factors. Agrotouristiki S.A. and Guest Inn provide adequate data for the (as much as possible) more objective evaluation of the technical criteria, such as photographs of the region, the hotel and the rooms, prices for some units and other information, as registered in the databases of the hotels. Beyond these particulars, the entrepreneurs can adopt methods for the prevention of negative impressions by the guests who expected higher service quality.

As previously mentioned, the perception of the technical factors can change. In particular, factors such the room size, the level of prices, children's activities, room furniture and activities in the unit can be presented in a brochure, or they can even be mentioned to the potential customers during the booking process. In addition, these factors can be presented via advertisements in order to convey the level of the prices. Other factors, such as the cleanliness of the room, air-conditioning, food facilities and bathroom can be improved in order to satisfy the needs and fulfil the expectations of the guests. We should note, however, that despite the fact that some of these elements can be changed, either through marketing communication or through other small changes, some of them are not suitable for every customer. We can also conclude that rural tourism is more appropriate for a low to medium range of prices, which, however, requires additional research. We should also add that it is rather difficult to change the perception of the customer regarding operational factors. These types of services constitute undetermined factors which have been classified on the basis of the perception and the evaluation by the customers. This fact, in combination with the concept of rural tourism, means that they should be examined from a different point of view. As we will discuss later, we suggest educational programs for new and older rural tourism entrepreneurs, in order for them to become familiar with the tourism sector.

At this point we need to comment on the administrative skills of the rural tourism entrepreneurs. Taking into consideration the prerequisites for the development of a rural tourism unit e.g., the importance of quality in rural tourism services criteria sated by Gronroos (1990) and Reichel's, et al. (2000), work, as they have been mentioned at the first part of the present study (see table 1), most of the entrepreneurs may not have the appropriate skills such as to develop a interactive web-site with just in time booking facilities, or to analyse and improve with questionnaires their service quality to customers, in order to develop an independent and effective enterprise, since most of them are farmers of relatively small

scale who simply seek a complementary income. The majority of the rural tourism entrepreneurs were motivated to engage in this sort of enterprise because of the decline in agriculture, not because of their interest in developing a new business strategy.

According to the global literature about rural tourism, the lack of appropriate administrative education is a serious problem faced by the entrepreneurs worldwide. Certainly, the lack of education can be one of the greatest threats against the development of rural tourism (Davies & Gilbert, 1992). The crucial need for education is highlighted by Page and Getz (1997) and Alexander and McKenna (1998), who suggest a list of various educational issues ranging from small enterprise marketing to client service and in-house communication. The present study has examined and evaluated the expected quality of the provided services in the rural tourism units of Central Macedonia, emphasizing fifteen operational and technical factors of service evaluation. The result of this evaluation has been the specification of weaknesses the hotels display regarding expected satisfaction; these weak points can affect the decision of the possible customers in their choice for hotel. Thus, the present study can be examined and used by interested entrepreneurs in order to amend their weak points. It can become the basis for the prevention or reduction of a gap between the expected satisfaction and the actual satisfaction experienced by the guests during their stay at any hotel.

CONCLUSIONS

Our study has comprised a recording of the total population of rural tourism hotels in Central Macedonia in a database, with the further objective of evaluating the units depending on the expected level of satisfaction, according to 15 technical and operational factors, as proposed by Grönroos (1990). Before the recording and the evaluation, we conducted a literature and theoretical review of the concept of rural tourism. Tables provided refer to each of the seven prefectures of Central Macedonia, with the average grade of each examined factor, and also the total average which will characterize the expected quality of services in the rural tourism hotels of Central Macedonia.

The average expected grade for the quality of services in the rural tourism hotels in Central Macedonia is 3.58. According to the data, the lowest quality of services is found in the expectation for activities in the unit with an average rating of 2.84. Next is the expectation for printed information about the activities of the region with 2.86, as well as the possibility for children's activities with 3.12. Moreover, the expectation

for a qualitative booking system was evaluated with a relatively low grade of 3.28. In contrast, the potential guest expects to meet with high quality service (a rating of 4.24 units) in the rural tourism hotels of Central Macedonia, as well as a high quality of behavior from the owners/employees (4.54 units) and the local residents (4.36 units). He/She expects the same regarding the cleanliness of the room with a rating of 4.58 units (Table 2).

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Firstly, the evaluation of the expected quality of the provided services through another method is suggested. There is an extended relevant literature and a researcher can depend on various criteria and evaluation methods. Thus, a comparison is possible between the conclusions and the general picture displayed by the rural tourism units in Central Macedonia. Another suggestion is the complementary study of the degree of satisfaction experienced by the guests from the provided services during their visit or/and stay in one of the hotels. The method for the suggested study can be either a personal interview with a sample of customers, or the filling of a questionnaire.

The study and analysis of the actual degree of satisfaction will fulfill the present study of the expected degree of satisfaction. It will contribute to the inference of objective conclusions and to the depiction of the actual quality of the rural tourism hotel units in Central Macedonia. In other words, it will confirm or not the weak points recorded at the expected level and additionally it will contribute to the effort to improve the quality provided by the rural tourism units in Central Macedonia. Finally, we consider as significant the contribution of the geographical extension of the present study, in order to include Northern Greece and gradually the whole population of rural tourism units throughout Greece.

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SUBMITTED: MAR 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: OCT 2012

ACCEPTED: NOV 2012

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WHEN CAN THE SLEEPING ASIAN TIGER AWAKEN? INTERNATIONAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN MALAYSIA

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The international market is very important for Malaysia's tourism industry. In the World Tourism rankings from 2005 till 2010, Malaysia was always ranked in the second place for international tourist arrivals in Asia and the Pacific region. However, in terms of the average tourism consumption of international tourist, Malaysia was in the last place. Nevertheless, if the average tourism consumption in Malaysia reaches 1862.20 USD, Malaysia could lead other nations in Asia and the Pacific region. Based on the experiences of international tourism development in Australia, India and Macao, this paper constructs a development pattern of international tourism for Malaysia based on existing conditions and the foundation of international tourism development.

Keywords: *International tourism, Malaysia, average tourism consumption, Asia and the Pacific Region*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

International tourism is an important earner of foreign exchange in many countries. According to Mak & White (1992), international tourism makes up 25% of the services trade in the world and almost 7% of the total value of world exports even with the exclusion of international transportation. In 2010, international tourist arrivals increased nearly 7% to 935 million and are expected to continue to grow at 4% to 5% in 2011 (UNWTO, 2011). Meanwhile, Asia has become the fastest growing region in international tourist arrivals with a new arrival record of 203.84 million in 2010, up from 181 million in 2009, which is about 21.8% of the



global international tourism market in 2010 compared to 12.6% in 2009 (Panakera et al., 2011; UNWTO, 2011). According to the World Tourism ranking compiled by UNWTO, 13 Asian countries were listed in the top 50, both by international tourist arrivals and international tourism receipts in 2010.

Therefore, due to the progress of international tourism in Asia, this article aims to explore the growth of international tourism in Malaysia. As one of the fastest growing economies in South East Asia (ASEAN), the tourism industry has significantly become an important sector in Malaysia and has surpassed other traditional commodities as well as the petroleum related industries. Thus, it is interesting to understand the significance of international tourism to the growth of the tourism industry in Malaysia.

RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Malaysia, situated in the central part of South East Asia, borders Thailand on the north, Indonesia on the west and Brunei on the east. Malaysia also shares maritime boundaries with Singapore, Vietnam and the Philippines. Malaysia consists of 13 states and 3 federal territories and has a total landmass of 329,847 square kilometres separated by the South China Sea into two regions, Peninsular Malaysia and Malaysian Borneo (Sabah and Sarawak) (Wikipedia, 2011). Since Malaysia is located in the tropical region zone, the climate is hot and humid throughout the year without distinct seasons (Khalifah & Tahir, 1997). In 2010, the population of Malaysia had reached 27.5 million and in purchasing power parity, Malaysia was ranked as the 3rd largest economy in the ASEAN region and also placed as the 29th largest economy in the world.

The history of international tourism in Malaysia can be dated back to the early 1970s, when it had become an important source of earning foreign exchange. At the initial stage, the Tourist Development Corporation of Malaysia (TDC), existing from 1972 to 1992, played an important role in promoting international tourism and developing basic infrastructures (Jenkins, 1994). Nowadays, after 40 years of development, international tourism in Malaysia has achieved great progress. For example, in 2006 and 2007, Malaysia was voted as the 'Best International Tourism Destination' by Global Traveller, a US-based travel magazine. Today, tourism has become the third largest income source from foreign exchange in Malaysia. However, Malaysia's tourism industry relies heavily on the international market. The arrival ratio between domestic tourists and international tourists in Malaysia is very low, just about 1 to

3. Therefore, the development of international tourism plays a crucial part for the growth of the tourism industry in Malaysia.

Figure 1 The Location of Malaysia



THE GROWTH OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM IN MALAYSIA

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) regularly releases the “World Tourism Barometer” report, regarded as the most authoritative barometer for international tourism in the world. This report includes tourism ranking by both international tourism arrivals and international tourism receipts, which is an important official evidence to compare the relative tourism competitiveness among country and region. Previously, European countries absolutely monopolized the highest positions in both tourist arrivals and tourism receipts. Currently, European countries are gradually losing their domination in international tourism with the rapid growth of other regions. Among them is the Asia and Pacific region, which has become the fastest-growing region. In 2010, tourist arrivals to Asia and the Pacific region accounted for 21.8% of the total international tourist arrivals in the world compared to only 0.8% in 1990. This region’s share of tourism receipts has also increased to 27.06% in 2010 compared to 0.9% in 1990 (UNWTO, 2011).

Significantly, Malaysia has become one of the important countries in international tourism in Asia and the Pacific region. In the UNWTO

rankings from 2005 till 2010, Malaysia was ranked in second place by international tourist arrivals in this region with a growth rate of 4.2% in 2010, 7.2% in 2009 and 5.1% in 2008 (Table 1).

Table 1 International Tourist Arrivals (unit: million)

Rank Country	2010		2009		2008		2007		2006		2005	
	arrival s	rank	arrival s	rank	arrival s	rank	arrival s	rank	arrival s	rank	arrival s	rank
China	55.98	1	50.9	1	53	1	54.7	1	49.9	1	46.8	1
Malaysia	24.6	2	23.6	2	22.1	2	21	2	17.5	2	16.4	2
Hong Kong	20.09	3	16.9	3	17.3	3	17.2	3	15.8	3	14.8	3
Thailand	15.84	4	14.1	4	14.6	4	14.5	4	13.8	4	11.6	4
Macao	11.93	5	10.4	5	10.6	5	12.9	5	10.7	5	9.0	5
Singapore	9.16	6	7.5	7	7.8	7	8.0	7	7.6	6	7.1	6
South Korea	8.80	7	7.8	6	6.9	8	6.4	8	6.2	8	6.0	8
Japan	8.61	8	6.8	8	8.4	6	8.3	6	7.3	7	6.7	7
Indonesia	7.00	9	6.3	9	6.2	9	5.5	10	4.9	10	5.0	10
Australia	5.89	10	5.6	10	5.6	10	5.6	9	5.5	9	5.5	9
India	5.58	11	5.1	11	5.3	11	5.1	11	4.4	11	3.9	11
Taiwan	5.57	12	4.4	12	3.8	12	3.7	12	3.5	12	3.4	12
Vietnam	5.05	13	3.75	-	4.24	-	4.23	-	-	-	3.48	-

However, Malaysia was just ranked fourth, fifth and even sixth among the 13 top Asian countries in terms of international tourism receipts for the last 6 years (Table 2), which contradicted the large number of tourist arrivals as shown in Table 1.

The average tourism consumption of international tourist (ATCIT) in Malaysia is far lower than other Asia-Pacific countries. In the tourism industry, the average tourism consumption directly determines the tourism revenues especially on the condition that tourist arrivals do not change too much. Therefore, the question is how to increase the average consumption of international tourists in Malaysia in order to increase international tourism receipts. The average tourism consumption can be calculated by the formula below,

$$ATC = TR_i / TA_i \quad (1)$$

Where, ATC is the abbreviation of the average tourism consumption; TR_i is the tourism receipts of country i ; TA_i is the tourist arrivals of country i . The formula (1) could be applied to calculate the average tourism consumption of international tourists for the top 13 countries, as listed in Table 3.

Table 2 International Tourism Receipts (unit: billion USD)

Rank	2010		2009		2008		2007		2006		2005	
Country	receipt	rank	receipt	rank	receipt	rank	receipt	rank	receipt	rank	receipt	rank
China	45.81	1	39.7	1	40.8	1	37.2	1	33.9	1	29.3	1
Australia	30.10	2	25.6	2	24.8	2	22.3	2	17.8	2	16.8	2
Macao	23.62 ¹	3	19.16 ¹	3	16.8	4	13.1	6	9.4	6	7.8	6
Hong Kong	22.91	4	16.6	4	15.3	5	13.8	5	11.6	4	10.3	3
Thailand	19.76	5	15.9	5	18.2	3	16.7	3	13.4	3	9.6	4
Malaysia	17.82	6	15.8	6	15.3	5	14.0	4	10.4	5	8.8	5
India	14.16	7	10.6	7	11.3	6	10.7	7	8.6	8	7.5	7
Singapore	14.12	8	9.2	10	10.7	8	9.1	9	7.5	9	6.2	9
Japan	13.20	9	10.3	8	10.8	7	9.3	8	8.5	7	6.6	8
South Korea	9.77	10	9.4	9	9.8	9	6.1	10	5.8	10	5.8	10
Taiwan	8.65	11	7.0	11	5.9	11	5.2	12	5.1	11	5.0	11
Indonesia	6.98	12	6.3	12	7.4	10	5.3	11	4.4	12	4.5	12
New Zealand ²	4.86	13	4.59	13	5.0	-	5.4	-	4.8	-	5.2	-
Vietnam	4.45	14	3.05	-	3.93	-	3.75	-	-	-	2.3	-

Notes:

1. The figure is calculated according to the average growth rate of the past years' average in Macao and the overall current average in the North-East Asia region (respectively 50% significance), as there is no the statistical figure in the UNWTO report.

2. New Zealand is excluded in the research because it is not listed in the top 50 by international tourist arrivals in spite of its relatively high international tourism receipts.

Table 3 Average Tourism Consumption (billion USD)

Rank	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005
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Country						
Australia	5110.36	4571.43	4428.571	3982.14	3236.36	3054.55
India	2537.634	2078.43	2132.08	2098.04	1954.55	1923.08
Macao	1979.97	1842.31	1584.91	1015.50	878.50	866.67
Singapore	1541.485	1226.67	1371.80	1137.5	986.84	873.24
Japan	1533.10	1514.71	1285.71	1120.48	1164.38	985.07
Taiwan	1552.96	1590.91	1552.63	1405.41	1457.14	1470.59
Thailand	1247.48	1127.66	1246.58	1151.72	971.01	827.59
Hong Kong	1140.37	982.25	884.39	802.33	734.18	695.955
South Korea	1110.23	1205.13	1420.29	953.13	935.48	966.67
Indonesia	997.14	1000	1193.55	963.64	897.96	900
Vietnam	881.19	813.33	926.89	886.52	-	660.92
China	818.33	779.96	769.81	680.07	679.36	626.07
Malaysia	724.39	669.49	692.31	666.67	594.29	536.59

Table 4 International Tourism of Malaysia in Asia and the Pacific Region

Rank Country	Tourist arrivals		Tourism receipts		Average tourist consumption	
	arrivals (million)	rank	receipt (billion USD)	rank	average	rank
2010	24.6	2	17.82	6	724.39	13
2009	23.6	2	15.8	6	669.49	13
2008	22.1	2	15.3	5	692.31	13
2007	21	2	14	4	666.67	13
2006	17.5	2	10.4	5	594.291	12
2005	16.4	2	8.8	5	536.59	13

As shown in Table 3, Malaysia was ranked in the last place among 13 countries in Asia and the Pacific Region in terms of ATCIT from 2005 to 2010. In 2010, Malaysia's ATCIT was just 724.39 USD, which was far below the average level of the Asia-Pacific countries (1220 USD). Table 4 compares Malaysia's ranking in tourist arrivals, tourism receipts and average tourist consumption. It is obvious that the excellent performance in tourist arrivals sharply contrast the very poor ATCIT (Table 4).

THE POTENTIAL OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM IN MALAYSIA

Nevertheless, from a different perspective, the low performance of ATCIT actually reflects a huge potential for international tourism in Malaysia. Since the growth of tourist arrivals in Malaysia is lower than other countries in Asia and the Pacific region in 2010 (3.9 % < 12.7%), the practical and effective way to improve tourism receipts in Malaysia is by increasing the ATCIT.

The expected ATC (average tourism consumption) can be calculated by putting the 2010 data into the formula below,

$$ATC^E = TR_j / TA_i \quad (2)$$

Where ATC^E is the expected ATC ; TR_j is the tourism receipts of country j , which it expects to reach; TA_i is the tourist arrivals of country i .

As China was ranked in the first place for international tourism receipts in 2010, the $ATC^E_{Malaysia}$ can be calculated based on formula (2),

$$ATC^E_{Malaysia} = TR_{China} / TA_{Malaysia} = 4581000000 / 24600000 \approx 1862.20$$

This means, if Malaysia's ATCIT could reach 1862.20 USD in 2010, it would surpass China in terms of international tourism receipts, making it the highest earning country in Asia and the Pacific region. This can be used to positively argue about the potential of international tourism in Malaysia. However, this potential can only be materialised if effective measures are taken to increase the ATCIT of Malaysia.

DEVELOPMENT EXPERIENCES OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM

International tourism is an integrated system that includes dining, accommodation, travel, shopping, amusement, investment, marketing and management. To improve the ATCIT, Malaysia should systematically adopt the development experiences in international tourism from the relatively developed countries and regions (Australia, India and Macao were chosen for the purpose of this research), rather than just take measures to extend the residence time of international tourists.

Australia

Tourism is already the second largest source of foreign exchange earning in Australia from 2007 till 2010, after the mining industry. The ATCIT in Australia is the highest in Asia and the Pacific region since 2005 until 2010, where it reached 5110.36 USD. The rapid development of international tourism in Australia mainly resulted from 11 positive factors (Table 5). These experiences are widely distributed in many aspects, specifically including festivals, catering, souvenirs, investment, marketing, promotion, pricing, infrastructure, management, policy, supervision, public participation and sustainable ideas.

Table 5 Development Experience of International Tourism in Australia

Experience	Aspect
Lots of international tournaments and festivals	Festivals
Multicultural cuisine	Catering
Tourism souvenirs of local culture	Souvenirs
Multiple sources of investment	Investment
Penetrating old markets and developing new markets	Marketing
Systematic tourism promotion and marketing	Promotion
Cheap or free entrance tickets	Pricing
Humanized tourist services and infrastructure	Infrastructure
Government support at both state and federal levels	Management
The wide involvement of the public and other associations	Public participation
Sustainable development principles	Sustainable ideas

Note: These experiences were summarized from the related literature of Platt et al. (1991), Griffin & Darcy (1997), HPPCOD (2009), Isacson et al. (2009); Song (2009), Zhang (2009), and Zhu (2011).

India

In India, international tourism is regarded as an important entry level industry of earning foreign exchange. India's international tourism develops rapidly and by 2010, India had received 5.58 million international tourists with a growth of 9.41%. Furthermore, India's ATCIT has surpassed 1900 USD from 2005 to 2010. In 2010, it reached a high of 2537.634 USD. In overall, the prosperity of international tourism in India mainly benefited from the positive efforts in product, transportation, investment, pricing, support infrastructure, official management and policy as well as proper management (Table 6).

Table 6 Development Experience of International Tourism in India

Experience	Aspect
Developing more healthy products for the markets	Product
Matured and distinctive traffic network	Transportation
Investment pattern of public-private partnership	Investment
Double-track pricing system	Pricing
Making preferential policies on infrastructure	Infrastructure
Complete tourism policies	Policy
Effective management and supervision	Management

Note: These experiences were summarized from the related literature of Richter (1989), Petea (2009), Utravels (2010), and CVIN (2011). Vinay & Suvidha (2009)

Macao

International tourism is the main source of income to Macao. Since the return of Macao to China in 1999, the influx of tourists from mainland China have readily offered Macao's tourism with huge vitality and impetus. Since then, Macao has become an enormous entertainment centre for international tourists in the world, consisting of gaming tourism, cultural tourism, vacation tourism, MICE tourism, sightseeing tourism, shopping tourism and cuisine tourism.

Table 7 Development Experience of International Tourism in Macao

Experience	Aspect
Many international festivals and events	Festival
Multiple and abundant catering cultures	Catering
Sustainable investment policies	Investment
Strongly depending on the old tourist markets	Market segmentation
Complete service facilities for tourism	Infrastructure
Huge support from the Macao government	Supporting policy

Note: These experiences were summarized from the related literature of Zhang (2001), Tong (2006), Wikipedia (2010), and Fang (2011).

In 2010, the gaming industry alone contributed 23.51 billion USD to Macao with a year-on-year growth of 58%. Macao was still the number one in the world in terms of gaming industry revenue, which was four times as great as that of the city of Las Vegas, United States in 2010 (Fang, 2011). Table 3 shows that the ATCIT of Macao has reached 1979.97 USD in 2010. In general, the development experiences of

international tourism in Macao mainly involved 7 aspects, specifically festivals, catering, investment, marketing, supporting infrastructure, policy and management (Table 7).

Summary

The development experiences of international tourism in Australia, India and Macao can provide the most relevant references for international tourism in Malaysia. All these three nations have seriously focused on product and festivals, tourism infrastructure, investment, policy and management as well as marketing. Besides these, Australia has also achieved great success on other aspects, such as souvenir design, public participation and sustainable development. Taken as a whole, these experiences on international tourism can be classified into 19 types, involving four fields: tourism product, tourism market, tourism management and development principle (Table 8).

Table 8 Development Experiences of International Tourism in Australia, India, and Macao

Field	Type	Feature
Tourism product	Product	Distinctive attraction
	Festivals	Multicultural meeting points
	Service	Professional humanized services
	Catering	Diversified cultures
	Accommodation	Strong local features
	Souvenirs	Variety and uniqueness
	Transportation	Tri-dimensional traffic
Tourism market	Investment	Multi-channel investment
	Market segmentation	Different market strategy
	Promotion	Mature promotion system
	Pricing	Different pricing strategy
Tourism management	Supporting Infrastructure	Developed system
	Official management	Effective management
	NGO supervision	Tri-dimensional supervision

	Industry supply chain	Systematic, supportive supply chain
Development principle	Tourism policy	Preferential, inclining policy
	Public participation	Wide, deep participation
	Sustainable ideas	Sustainable tourism
	Tourist needs	Concern on market preference

CONSTRUCTING THE PATTERN FOR INTERNATIONAL TOURISM IN MALAYSIA

Malaysia has many charming tourism attractions. The primary natural resources are mainly at the long stretches of sandy golden beaches in Penang, Langkawi, Pangkor, Tioman, Redang and Cherating-Kuantan. In addition to this, the tropical rain forest in Malaysia is one of the oldest, most complex and richest ecosystems in the world. The various ethnic groups in Malaysia have also accorded the country a diverse mix of architecture, events and lifestyle. However, these attractions in Malaysia are very similar to those in neighbouring countries, such as India, Singapore, Thailand and Indonesia (Khalifah & Tahir, 1997; Josiam et al., 2007; Marzuki et al., 2011). Additionally, the main sources of international tourists in Australia, India, Macao and Malaysia are basically similar, as most of them come from within Asia. These similarities can be considered to form the prerequisite for Malaysia to use and learn from the experiences in international tourism of these three destinations.

However, to establish the development pattern of international tourism for Malaysia, the uniqueness and characteristics of international tourism in this country can not be ignored. In terms of tourism resources, Malaysia is well famous in the world for its unique cultural heritage, fascinating natural beauty, tantalizing cuisines and diverse population. These present multiple cultures have not only made Malaysia a gastronomic paradise, but also enabled hundreds of colourful festivals to be held within Malaysia. In the aspect of tourism market, most international tourists to Malaysia were from Singapore, Indonesia, Thailand, China and Brunei, accounting for 88.09% of the total tourist arrivals (Table 9).

Table 9 The Top Ten Countries by Tourist Arrivals in Malaysia

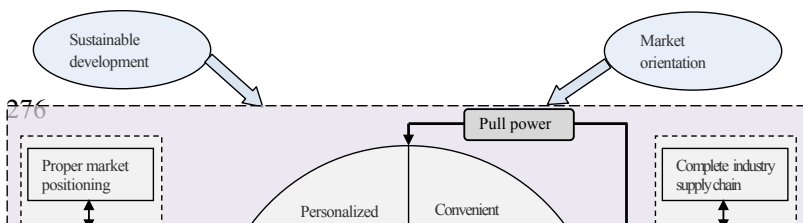
Country of Residence	Tourist arrivals		
	2010	2009	10/09 (%)
Singapore	13,042,004	12,733,082	2.4
Indonesia	2,506,509	2,405,360	0.2
Thailand	1,458,678	1,449,262	0.6
China	1,130,261	1,019,756	10.8
Brunei	1,124,406	1,061,357	0.9
India	690,849	589,838	17.1
Australia	580,695	533,382	8.9
Philippines	486,790	447,470	8.8
United Kingdom	429,965	435,091	1.2
Japan	415,881	395,746	5.1

Note: These figures were calculated according to the Malaysia Tourist Arrivals Report, issued by Tourism Malaysia with the cooperation of Immigration Department of Malaysia.

Deriving from the basis of development experiences and specific differences on international tourism, the development pattern of international tourism in Malaysia can be constructed (Figure 2). The development pattern consists of four sectors: development foundations, push factors, pull factors and development principles. The development foundations of international tourism in Malaysia should stem from its distinctive products, various festivals, multicultural cuisines, diversified hotels, abundant souvenirs, and convenient traffic system, which are the core tourism products or development conditions.

All international tourism stakeholders should actively participate in market positioning, product pricing, tourism marketing, tourism investment, infrastructure improvement, industry supply chain development, extensive supervision and effective management to form an important driving power for international tourism in Malaysia via push and pull factors (Yilmaz & Gunel, 2009; López-Guzmán et al., 2011). International tourism in Malaysia should also follow scientific development principles, such as government support, public participation, sustainable development and market-oriented development.

Figure 2 Development Pattern of International Tourism in Malaysia



CONCLUSION

The tourism industry in Malaysia relies heavily on international tourism. However, the international tourism receipt of Malaysia is relatively low although international tourist arrival is considerably high. Thus, a proposed development pattern for international tourism in Malaysia was eventually established through this research, consisting of four development principles, six development foundations and eight drive forces. It is argued that this pattern can help Malaysia to increase international tourism receipts and further develop the development potentials of international tourism. This development pattern can also provide a lot of references and guidance for international tourism especially for developing countries within Asia and the Pacific region.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This research was made possible through financial support via the Research Student Fellowship Grant from Universiti Sains Malaysia, Pulau Pinang, Malaysia.

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SUBMITTED: JUN 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: NOV 2012

ACCEPTED: DEC 2012

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ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES FOR CARIBBEAN TOURISM DESTINATIONS

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The paper offers a reflection on tourism issues and development strategies relating to Caribbean destinations, and more particularly, insular destinations. When faced with intense competition from popular destinations around the region, the smaller islands have had to reaffirm their market position. Mass tourism development models have not created the expected knock-on effects for these territories of limited size and vulnerable resources. Any wish for alternative tourism practices, which for this region essentially revolve around the term ecotourism, falls under the scope of badly coordinated tourism development and its ensuing over-concentration of infrastructures, land conflicts and policies of entrenchment, etc. Sharing tourism revenue and accessing resources are key elements to the debate. Development strategies in relation to alternative tourism practices are better able to meet the expectations of host territories.

Keywords: *ecotourism, resources, development, territorial strategies, Caribbean*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

The tourism and services sector has established itself as a powerhouse for the island economies in the Caribbean¹ over the last twenty years. Tourism has continued to gain importance in economies where traditional activities are in crisis, notably in the agricultural plantation sector. Competition is intense among destinations that offer a similar tourist product, i.e. sandy beaches lined with palm trees, coral



reefs and a tropical festival atmosphere where carnivals and other musical events abound. Away from the stereotypes, this sector is mainly known for mass tourism concentrated in specialised tourism areas organised around large hotel complexes. This is undeniably important in terms of employment, but the advantages to the host societies and territories are deemed to be inadequate. Despite the magnitude of the flows of people and finance brought to the region by tourism, the existing development programmes are not deprived of certain limitations when we consider the limited benefits to local economies, the impact of consumption levels and the environmental issues (Dehoorne, 2006).

It emerges as vital that we contemplate new specific complementary approaches, properly integrated into the host environments and societies, and capable of providing alternatives to the classic and traditional 3 and 4 S's coastal resort tourism (Pattulo, 1996; Sheller, 2003; Duval, 2004; Spilanis and Karayiannis, 2009; Dodds and Butler, 2010) along with a commitment to sustainable development.

As part of the reflection, our objective will be to study the issues and strategies that revolve around ecotourism. The analysis of the tourism phenomenon and its recent evolution at a regional level will enable us to describe the context for this rising interest in ecotourism, and more generally in alternative tourism practices, and to further on envisage a strategic typology which is formulated on a wide territorial basis.

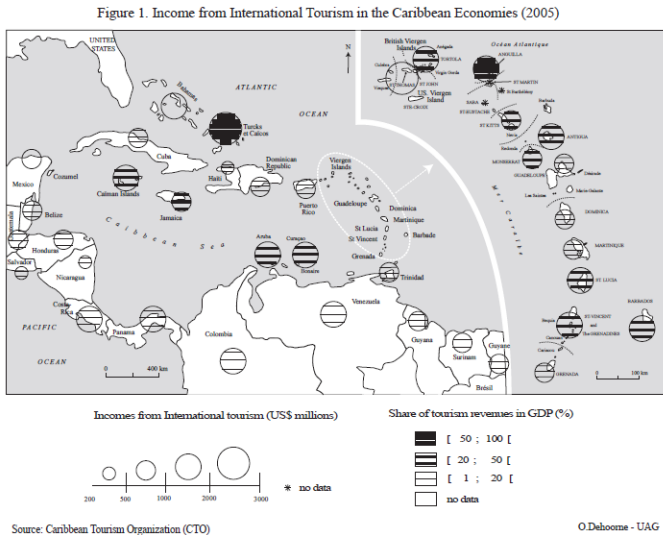
TOURISM IN THE CARIBBEAN AREA: THE DEVELOPMENT CHOICES IN QUESTION

The importance of the tourism phenomenon

Tourism is the main source of foreign currency for the Caribbean and is a vital sector of activity in the region's development. Tourism revenue was at 20,400 million US dollars for the insular Caribbean in 2005 (WTO, 2006) and the level of employment in this sector has now risen above 2.5 million (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2001). Tourism therefore directly and indirectly contributes with 15.5 % of jobs in the region compared to a share of 6.3 % of jobs worldwide, thus creates jobs, diversifies and boosts economy (López-Guzmán et al., 2011; Karmakar, 2011). Its earnings can easily amount to more than half of the GNP, for example, in Saint Lucia (64 %), Antigua and Barbuda (74 %) and the British Virgin Islands (82 %), and reach a record level of 91 % of GNP in the Turks and Caicos Islands. Since the end of the 1980s, tourism

revenue in the Caribbean began to replace revenue earned from the traditional plantation economies and its dominance continues to grow fast.

Figure 1 Incomes from international tourism in the Caribbean (2005)



Within two decades, Caribbean destinations which had previously been distant, expensive and reserved for elite groups, have become accessible to mass tourism. The number of visitors to the insular Caribbean has grown from 8.7 million in 1990 to over 19 million in 2004. Tourism from cruise ships (around 20 million) and pleasure boat sailing can be added to short break tourism. Overall, the islands and shores of the Caribbean (outside of the United States) received more than 40 million tourists in 2004 (Caribbean Tourism Organisation, WTO, 2005). The dramatic growth in tourism is prevalent in a number of known international spots such as the resorts of Cancun and Costa Maya (Yucatán Peninsula), Montego Bay and Ocho Rios (Jamaica), Cayo Largo (Cuba) and Puerto Plata (Dominican Republic). The Caribbean Islands are at the heart of the system, with Puerto Rico and the Dominican Republic (approximately 3.5 million international tourists each in 2004), Cuba (more than 2 million) and Jamaica (1.4 million) (cf. Figure 1.) If throughout the whole region the volume of activity seems quite modest

(notably in comparison to the numbers of visitors to the northern shores of the Mediterranean), the former should be re-examined in the light of the small-sized host territories and their demographic burden (Dehoorne, 2007). The Caribbean destinations that dominate the market have opted for mass tourism strategies; they have organised themselves around impressive coastal resorts that offer relatively cheap breaks.

Limitations of the current means of development

From an economic point of view there are several limitations that need to be highlighted. Poorly diversified tourist offers are based on cost driven commercial strategies and the advent of mass tourism in the tropics cannot be separated from these commercial realities. With reference to the importance of financial flows through the territories, the revenue share that actually promotes the development of these nations could be considered inadequate. Varying factors helped to explain the limited knock-on effect, such as the significance of *all-inclusive* packages; these have been essentially put together from provider cities where tourism companies control the market. The importance of international capital must also be emphasised. Capital external to the Caribbean controls more than 60 % of the region's receiving capacity and smaller insular states were then obliged to adopt attractive tax systems to entice investors. All the difficulties involved in supplying provisions to tourist facilities also fall within the overall logic that denies local companies 'a look in'. Packed and frozen food imports are equivalent to a 50 % loss in declared tourism revenue, as in Saint Lucia (Wilkinson, 2004).

Indeed, the economic development of the region has been influenced by a long line of external control. Tourism has come to the rescue of traditional hard-pressed economies and insular economies that bear the scars of their plantation history. It has led to a new phase of development opening up for these islands, but the mechanisms involved are continuing to follow the plantation cycle, hence the term 'plantation tourism' (Weaver, 1988). This extraverted development can be characterised by an increased competition in the provision of a single product aimed at a market controlled by a number of large transnational groups. The dependence of these states on tourism and their considerable economic vulnerability in general, can be explained by the fact that their economies are young, their institutional capabilities are limited and their financial and technical capabilities are minimal (Brigulio et al., 1996; Lockhart & Drakakis-Smith, 1997). Short term economic imperatives prevail when

these underemployment and debt-ridden states have to make choices. An example is the balance of payments for Barbados which showed a deficit of 145 million US dollars in 2000 for an external debt of 30 % of the GDP; Antigua's external debt (425 million US dollars in 2000) at present amounts to 69 % of its GDP. The top priority for these countries is to boost their employment markets. Although the latter are unstable and precarious they help reduce the impact of economic and social crises.

The decision to give priority to states that are born from a policy of enclosing tourism locations reinforced the above economic limitations. The idea of having enclosed holiday sites meets a dual purpose within an entrenchment rationale: on the one hand it recognises the importance of security because it is a matter of protecting people from the risks of international terrorism and local petty crime in general, whereas on the other hand it has an economic advantage in that visitors' expenditure are easier to control because they take place in standardised sites which are cut off from the outside world. This way of functioning, i.e. minimising contact with local people is very disappointing for many visitors in search of more intense and reality based experiences of the host territory. If the vast majority of tourists are happy with this type of break, for others, choosing a holiday in an enclosed location is only a first step towards an anxiety-provoking, but appealing faraway land that will guide the tourist to other individualised experiences, more integrated into the host societies.

The third aspect to be highlighted in regard to the limitations of current development is that involving ecological issues. The wealth of these shores comes from both tangible and intangible resources (especially biophysical) that have a high added value (the coral reefs). Tourism consumption trends cause damage locally which adds on to the engendered species by urbanisation and demographic pressures (Island Resources Foundation, 1996; Saffache, 2000). We need to reflect on the impact of mass tourism, may it be from cruise ships (Wilkinson, 1999), the increased mooring of pleasure boats on the coral reefs (the Grenadines), the problems of waste management (Aruba, Jamaica) or untreated and partially treated waste water (Aruba, Cayman Islands, Grenada, Dominican Republic, etc). Coastal districts are deteriorating rapidly on these small islands and the non replacement of resources raises concerns about development choices; at the moment these choices come under particular requirements for economic growth (Daly, 1990; Goodland, 1992) and do not work in favour of a well thought out diversification or a real development strategy.

Too often, Caribbean territories are faced with the situation of being simple reception providers within an international tourism system where there are limited prospects for local participation (problems of capital or access to provider markets), so some sustainable management choices need to be considered in order to find alternative forms of tourism, firmly rooted in the host territories and populations (Breton, 2001; Dehoorne, 2006; Gerovassileiou et al., 2009).

THE NEED TO DEVELOP ALTERNATIVE APPROACHES: ECOTOURISM AT THE HEART OF THE DISCUSSION

Economic reasons

The concept of ecotourism is synonymous with locally controlled products, modest investments and community involvement, and has particularly appealed to international bodies (United Nations, World Bank). The ecotourism alternative could push isolated and/or disadvantaged regions with little tourism towards a new form of development that international tourism being in the hands of large international tour operators is incapable of delivering.

Ecotourism is organised around flows that are modest and diffuse, and only involves limited amounts of finance. From a strictly tourist point of view it emerges as a part of a diversification process in what the nation has to offer - a complementary approach. The relevant flows are not enough to interest the established international airlines, in contrast, at a regional development level; this well targeted financial input in relation to isolated and poverty-stricken territories can have a noticeable effect on people's well-being. Our surveys on the smaller islands of Dominica and Saint Lucia confirm the 60 % share of expenditure that directly profits the local economy as well as the distribution of the main expenditure items (Dehoorne et al, 2007; Murat, 2007).

At the very core of the endogenous development strategies, ecotourism is an "opportunity for native populations to 're-appropriate' their own milieus" (Breton, 2001). It helps in the creation of local family or community-based micro businesses, in the provision of specific jobs (guide, artisan) in the community and the improvement of local tourism residences by way of small scale accommodation units that raise the status of women. These activities bring in new revenue that circulates within the community and promotes local projects, especially in the field of medicine (building and coordinating health clinics) and education (helping the village school). These micro projects sometimes benefit from

financial incentives, supportive government measures (for example, Dominica, Saint Lucia and Venezuela) and help from NGOs.

Table 2 Economic benefits from ecotourism

For a budget of 1,000 US dollars (excluding international transport)	
Share remaining in the local economy	60%
1. Accommodation and catering (small family owned or community facilities where provisions are sourced locally)	30%
2. Transport and local trips (private or public transport which is either for specific groups or available to the whole community, locally owned)	10-20%
3. Variety of services (from local people: guides, tasting sessions with craftspeople, organization of fun activities)	10-12%
4. Support for local development projects (community projects designed to reinforce the organisation of education and medical services, to support environmental programmes or to introduce new tourist facilities)	6-10%
Share invested from outside the local economy (administration, communication and commercial intermediaries, partnership with national guides who do not live in the host area)	40 %

Source: Dehoorne et al. (2007), from The Ecotourism Society (2004), Fundación Programa Andes Tropicales – Venezuela, Bioplaneta – Mexico.

Development projects that revolve around ecotourism and alternative approaches in general are particularly interesting in the case of rural communities facing deconstruction, impoverishment and depopulation, and whose culture is often scorned by societies in search of the urban dream. Let us remind ourselves that in the Caribbean region private individuals and small businesses have a much reduced role. The boom in the tourism sector has emerged through complex systems that too often elude the local populations who are left experiencing bitterness and

impotence in the face of inflation, the dollarization of their economies and the privatisation of their living space. In this way, reflecting on the diversification of tourism interests and their positive impact on other natural and cultural resources is an issue which meets the real concerns of these countries. It is about seeing to what extent new endogenous development initiatives would better position tourism within the host territory, away from the shorelines and the enclosed resorts, and open to other 'treasures'.

If it is easy to agree on the theoretical principles behind ecotourism, the investigation into some examples of the Caribbean experience has enabled us to highlight the rationale complexity and some mainly economic and political issues which drive these strategies.

ECOTOURISM WITHIN DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES IN CARIBBEAN TERRITORIES

Territories that have the advantage of ecotourism

Regional initiatives involving ecotourism place the emphasis on the wealth of natural resources, more notably, protected natural areas, especially those areas that are classed as being UNESCO world heritage sites, such as the *Morne Trois Pitons National Park* (Dominica), and the many national parks like the *Culebra National Wildlife Refuge* (Puerto Rico, 1909), the *J. Armando Bermúdez* and the *J. del Carmen Ramírez* parks (Dominican Republic), and the *Virgin Islands National Park* (US Virgin Islands). As stressed during the *First Caribbean Conference on Ecotourism*, organised by the *Caribbean Tourism Organisation* in 1991 at Belize City (cf. Figure 2), these spaces are fundamental in ensuring the success of ecotourism policies. This aspect of ecotourism is often very close to nature tourism where the notions of well being and local participation are not addressed.

Land given over to ecotourism is either interior, volcanic (northern Martinique, Basse-Terre Island at Guadeloupe), coastal though little used by resort tourism (particularly the volcanic islands and their black sandy beaches) or carefully preserved, for example, mangroves (cf. Table 3). Certain islands intend to profit from the new opportunities made available by their magnificent forests and wildlife.

Ecotourism experiences are still in their infancy, but some interesting endeavours need to be pointed out, for example, on Dominica where the focus has been on 'forest ecotourism' and on the Dutch island of Saba with its 'marine ecotourism'.

Table 3 Types of location given over to ecotourism activities

Type of location	Description	Examples
Interior mountainous areas	Sparsely populated area with resources that are naturally preserved	Cordillera Central (Dominican Rep.), El Yunque (Puerto Rico)
Peripheral islands	Small outlying and isolated islands, state dependent, limited development for tourism, capable of being oriented towards an exclusive alternative tourism	Barbuda, Exuma Cays and Great Inagua (Bahamas), Tobago, Saba and Bonaire, Bird of Paradise Island (Trinidad et Tobago), the Grenadines
Non-exploited coastal zones	Barely accessible beaches, mangroves, dunes, swamps, cliffs, wealth of resources	Northern coasts of Curaçao and Aruba, south west Jamaica, northern coast of Trinidad, Paria Peninsula (Venezuela)
Offshore reefs	Diving sites with a reputation for the wealth of their marine biodiversity, presence of shipwrecks	Cuban archipelago of Los Colorados, Saba Bahamas, Bonaire and the Cayman Islands

Source: Dehoorne et al. (2007), from David B. Weaver (1994)

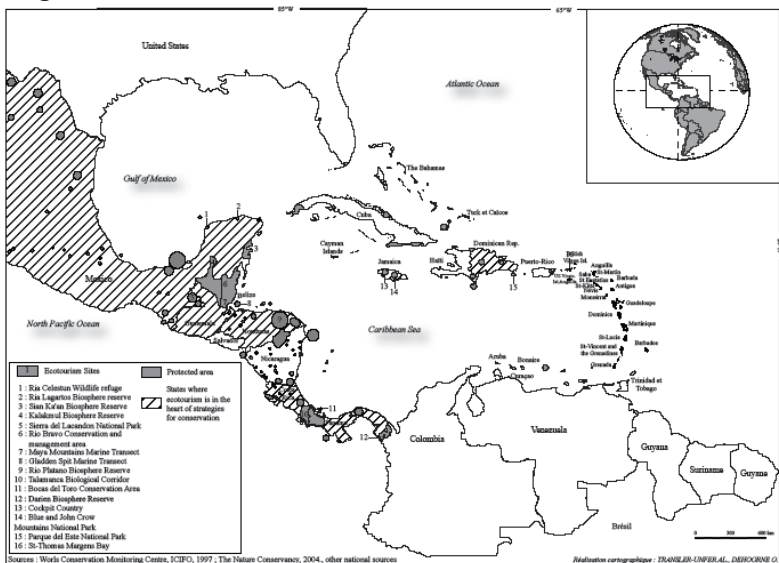
Dominica is situated between the French islands of Guadeloupe (to the north) and Martinique (to the south), and is the most mountainous of the Leeward Islands. There are fewer than 80,000 inhabitants over an area of 754 km². Running against the current of the dominant resort tourism model, Dominica intends to position itself as ‘the island of 365 rivers’ (as opposed to the Island of Antigua which is ‘the island of 365 beaches’). Inland resources, i.e. mountains, forests and biodiversity, all fall under the umbrella of ecotourism.

Some decades earlier, the government of Dominica had unsuccessfully tried to develop a resort-style tourism, but on this volcanic island, the absence of white sandy beaches and the long rainy season did not encourage investment. The three ‘handicaps’ of yesteryear: the mountains, the rivers and the waterfalls, along with the significant forest cover are now favourably exploited as an opportunity for ecotourism.

The environment on this island sparsely populated and lacking noteworthy infrastructures is quite well protected. Dominica therefore makes a good case in persuading people to visit it and tourism campaigns insist on its virginal nature, the luxuriance of its forests (that cover 62 % of the island), the smoking volcanoes, and the omnipresence of its rivers and waterfalls. Ecotourism relies on a network of nature parks, micro businesses and modest accommodation units (eco-lodge style) that are endorsed by the government.

Saba provides an example of a promising economic recovery by a protected island micro territory. This small island of 8 km² is dominated by a dormant volcano, Mount Scenery (888 metres high), and is located 45 kilometres south of Saint Martin. The absence of beaches has limited the tourism growth for this islet which specializes in marine ecotourism and diving. The Marine Park on Saba surrounds the island (from the high water level to a depth of 60 metres) and is at the centre of the scheme. The Saba Conservation Foundation (private non-profit earning foundation) was set up in 1987 to coincide with the opening of the first protected area; it manages the spaces and counsels the authorities.

Figure 2 Ecotourism and Protected Areas in the Caribbean Basin



The Marine Park at Saba counts around thirty of the best diving spots in the Lesser Antilles. A system of zoning divides the park into pleasure

and commercial zones, and a network of buoys (must be used for the purposes of mooring) facilitates the management of the diving areas and prevents the coral being damaged. It is one of the rare autonomous marine parks in the world, earning income from visitors and authorised diving companies which have to pay for the right of access; the sale of souvenirs and donations. The regulations oblige the diver to be accompanied by a certified professional (as required on the islands of Dominica and Saint Lucia) and the cost of a three day diving stint is from 250 to 300 euros. The island has one small airport with the only regular flights coming from Saint Martin (where the cost of 15 minutes of flying time is equivalent to 20 % of that for a transatlantic flight between Saint Martin and Europe). Saba is also accessible by boat, again from Saint Martin, in about thirty minutes. The island has some small scale accommodation units such as guest houses and eco-lodges; catamarans complete the accommodation.

Ecotourism: positioning and development strategies

Several types of positioning can be identified within the current craze for ecotourism in the Caribbean. First we need to distinguish between two separate systems: one operated by less visited destinations which hope to impose their uniqueness (nature, conservation, authenticity) on the ecotourism market and thereby break into the world market, the other operated by mass tourism destinations that use ecotourism to diversify their offer and expand it across their territories.

The investigation should also focus on the issue of the site's accessibility; ecotourism can be used as a means to open up peripheral territories that have been isolated for a long time, and conversely, it can be used as a pretext to close off locations and retain them as a resource for a privileged clientele.

Ecotourism as a tourism development strategy

For territories that are devoid of the classic threefold resources: white sand, palm trees and lagoons, ecotourism provides an opportunity to offer something original. Underdeveloped and under populated islands have opted for this alternative; the stigma of being underdeveloped can then be turned to their advantage (limited urbanisation and infrastructure, relatively well-protected natural spaces). Destinations like Panama and Dominica have now followed the approach which was begun by Costa Rica some decades earlier.

Inevitably, the question of revenue becomes crucial. Even though ecotourism revenue generates substantial benefits for local people, the amount of revenue remains modest, if not insufficient. Thus, in Dominica ecotourism based on natural resources appears to be a perfectly adapted instrument to meet local needs and to initiate tourism development in the country, but when taking economic imperatives into account, authorities will be obliged to define their strategy from the following alternatives: either have an elite tourism for a small number of ecology conscious well-to-do clients or a mixed formula that combines mass tourism practices at certain coastal sectors (for example, from cruise ships) with more protective inland practices on certain sectors.

Ecotourism for economic recovery, free from mass tourism

Faced with the progress of mass tourism, ecotourism strategies have served to restrict the use of locations that are endowed with the most popular attractions (smaller islands and their lagoons). Bearing in mind the huge vulnerability of these resources and the risk of disastrous consequences that an uncontrolled access to the wide public would bring, ecotourism is a key element in the debate for a regulated and payable access to a protected resource. This is evident in the example of the marine parks where new regulations have led to the gradual disappearance of traditional practices. Following Saba's experience, small territories are choosing to focus on specific activities, such as diving.

Limited access and often the absence of regular flights have meant that visits to certain locations can be restricted to those rich enough to own their own planes. Conserving resources and controlling the flows contribute jointly to the preservation of locations for an upmarket tourism, similar to that found on the smaller islands of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines (in the southern half of the Antilles arc) or on the coastal archipelagos in the Gulf of Honduras.

From ecotourism to mass tourism

The dilemma for destinations like Dominica which opt for tourism development via ecotourism, means choosing between maintaining low level flows (whether wealthy clientele or not) and accepting greater numbers. The knock-on effects for the country's economy will not be the same. For example, Dominica has only two minor airports which offer small scale regional flights, and yet the inherent issues of building a

proper international airport in the territory's overall development are fundamental for the future of this young nation.

This is how a gradual shift towards mass tourism has come about. Tourists' interests have been changing progressively: from inland nature parks to the coasts and the beaches (artificial if necessary), and activities have become more sport-oriented: 'tree top walks', mountain bike trails and trips on quads, 4x4s, etc. Ecotourism is moving away from its initial principles; it has entered the international tourism marketplace and as it becomes more lucrative, the more important private funding becomes. Organisations are officially moving from ecotourism to nature tourism or adventure tourism, but the 'ecotourism' labels have not been removed. The experience of Costa Rica illustrates this point entirely: the country received 1,453,000 international tourists in 2004 (compared to 435,000 in 1990) and more than 200,000 cruise ship passengers. Its ecotourism renown and its pioneering role have continued to earn it a certain reputation; the tourism sector is now the biggest source of foreign currency, making up more than 25 % of exports (Raymond 2007).

From mass tourism to the quest for diversification

For those Caribbean destinations whose tourism relies on the traditional resources of tropical beaches, ecotourism has become unavoidable. It is about individualising what is on offer by giving it a unique flavour in an increasingly competitive world market where clichés of tropical tourism were popularized. The commitment to the environment is often superficial. Ecotourism is a simple strategy to adopt in diversifying the tourism offer. Initially the product is available as a one-day trip for a resort or cruise ship clientele, for example, on the Dominican Republic the *Punta Cana Resort and Club* created a natural reserve of 400 hectares within the perimeter of its coastal enclave. This reserve is in fact a 'study centre' that brings students to its own biodiversity laboratory and that has its own artificial reef for divers. In the same sector, the *Coral Canoa Beach Hotel and Spa* decided on a protection programme for iguanas.

When tourism has been well established on the coast, authorities go along with the idea of making ecotourism available further inland. The redistribution of flows meets the concerns about the economy and land use planning. So often this alternative tourism can play a part in underprivileged areas through local development projects that fight poverty. The larger Caribbean destinations (like the Dominican Republic,

Cuba and Jamaica) tackled this approach as have the smaller islands with a well developed resort tourism (Barbados, Guadeloupe, Saint Lucia).

CONCLUSION

The rationale beyond ecotourism makes perfect sense in the Caribbean where a system of mass tourism imposed a rigid extraverted development. It is a question of driving new alternative approaches that are both complementary and original, and that are better integrated into the host milieus and societies, thereby actively involving local communities and maximising benefits. This can happen by way of ecotourism projects based on activities that are more appropriate and viable for the overall functioning of these societies, as much economically, as ecologically or politically (Hall and Lew, 1998; Weaver, 2001). However, when we take into account the financial limitations encountered by these programmes, the relationship between development and conservation is uneven, often leaning towards what is cost effective. Their stability then depends on the different public and private stakeholders being able to work jointly with the local communities; new projects are put together within an atmosphere of complex and unbalanced confrontations, and funded by international donors and NGOs.

In its conceptualisation, ecotourism acts as a basis for compromise between a well thought-out plan of access to resources and the sustainability of ecosystems; it also contributes to the development and to the well-being of the host society. The model is fragile and the local reasoning behind these strategies is uncertain: ecotourism can help countries move away from underdevelopment or it can also be used by policy makers as an excuse to close sites and therefore exclude certain population categories (local or tourist).

Resource problems are many in the Caribbean area where the potential of each island, large or small, has been assessed and future uses have been planned. Outside of simple ecotourism practices, as of now, the pivotal issue concerns the management of, the access to and the control of resources, especially vulnerable resources.

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SUBMITTED: JUN 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: NOV 2012

ACCEPTED: DEC 2012

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ENDNOTES

ⁱ The Caribbean area describes the islands and shores that are in contact with the Caribbean Sea, i.e. a region with a population of more than 300 million spread over approximately 4 million square kilometres and consisting of countries with differing political regimes and very contrasting living standards (the difference in revenue per inhabitant goes from 1 to 42)

TOURISM, TERRORISM AND NATION-STATE: SEVIL SOMNEZ RECONSIDERED

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Similarly to the assumption that politics are war by other means, we argue in this conceptual paper that tourism and terrorism are linked and sometimes tourism is terrorism by other means. In sharp contrast to the studies that focuses on terrorism as the main threat of West, we try to explore the historical roots of terrorism from an all-encompassed manner. We therefore, exert a criticism to the Sevil Somnez's text and provide with an alternative view for policy-makers, scholars and students interested in these types of issues.

Keywords: Risk, Terrorism, Tourism, Fundamentalism.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Developing countries need from tourism as a primary activity to boost their economies. Nonetheless, the architecture of resorts and hotels sometimes are built following the patterns of tourist-originated societies (developed societies). The advance in technology facilitated the physical displacement connecting people of diverse sites and cultures. Travels opened the doors to an encounter that not always was friendly. The specialists agree the cultural shock, produced by tourism, in the encounter between hosts and guest triggers some pathological problems. Visitors are more vulnerable to be kidnapped or even killed simply because they are not familiar with the soil. The combination between resentment, poverty, unfair wealthy distribution and economic dependency can be very well result in political instability and unhappiness. Terrorism undoubtedly can be seen as a part of this problem where two cultures are placed in proximity (Spanou, 2007; Jalil, 2010), even under some circumstances, tourism contributes to peace (Shin, 2006); the volatile nature of this industry and experience create serious losses for these countries because of their higher dependency and the stagnation of demand. Risks and terrorism have transformed in serious concerns for specialists in tourism



and hospitality (Bouzon and Devillard, 2010; Abdel-Azim, 2010). Televised in the media for thousand million of viewers, terrorism scares further by its effects than its reasons. Efforts placed to solve the problem not only fail but also aggravate the situation to the extent of leading industrialized-societies to a paradox. Whilst West advanced exponentially their technological supremacy over the rest of the world in means of mobility, transport, trade and information, one of the characteristics of terrorism seems to be the unpredictability of next attacks. Demonized in last years as the “axis of evilness”, terrorism becomes in a serious challenge for radicalized-West unable to bolster an honest dialogue with otherness.

TERRORISM VS TOURISM

After 9/11, the world saw religious fundamentalism a serious challenge to defeat, but not only this, terrorism became in a threat for the activity and well-functioning of this growing industry. Even though terrorism existed before this event, even there are chronicles dated from the first century B.C that describes how Roman travelers were attacked during their journeys by a bunch of insurgents, US learnt how much vulnerable are armies against these types of unexpected onslaughts. Undoubtedly, WTC caused a serious commotion in the public opinion worldwide. The advances in transport means that before were the prides of US were now manipulated and directed against Americans. One of the most pervasive consequences of terrorism in US was not by their damages, but the narrative they created. Post 9/11 US tightened the security in the borders, and performed two preventive wars not only spending a millionaire sum of money but also gaining international condemnation. The republican order and democracy showed to the world that in some circumstances, big fishes (under the right of stronger) can invade military a country without any consensus.

In this conjuncture, Sevil Somnez, assistant professor of Arizona State University, was indeed one of the most recognized scholars who have explored the connection between terrorism and tourism. Even if Somnez's research, entitled *Tourism, Terrorism and Political instability* was published at *Annals of Tourism research* in 1998, 3 years before World Trade Center's attack, his developed passed the proof of time and seems to be now widely quoted in other related studies. For that reason, we are needed to exert certain criticism on her view because it represents the existent discourse in United States respecting to Third World and Terrorism.

In her work, S. Somnez introduces readers to the history of terrorism from Ancient Roman Empire in Judea and other colonies up to date. Taking her cue from the US department of State, she innocently considers terrorism as a form of political expression based on the violence exerted against civilians; a sort of violence that must be condemned. One of the most frightful aspects of terrorism seems to be associated to its thirst for killing innocents and unarmed citizens in order to generate a high emotional impact. Following this, the mass-destruction weapons are one of the most important worries of Western states. The relevance of media in the configuration of terrorist's message is conceptualized by means of three elements: a) a transmitter of message (who is denominated as terrorist), b) recipient or audience of the message (target of attack) and c) the resulted feedback between terrorists and popular wisdom. The role of experts is more than important to anticipate where and under what circumstances the next attack will take shape. For Somnez, Marxist/Leninist movements set the pace to "Islamic Fundamentalism". This new wave of violence will cover many under-developed and undemocratic poor countries for what the nations around the world should join "forces" in counter-terrorism strategies, law enforcement and policies. There was unfortunately an inextricably interconnection between turmoil, political instability and terrorism. Frequently, those countries where civil wars and ethnic disputes predominate are a fertile source for the surface of terrorism. Many examples validate the idea that prolonged terrorist attack against a certain target not only affect the destination-image but also impinges on tourism industry as a whole.

As the previous argument given, Somnez enumerates a set of diverse countries where terrorists acted ranging from Egypt toward Northern Ireland or Mexico. Even though she accepts previously terrorism varies on the culture and country where it is hosted, from this perspective, Somnez confuses the social forces of terrorism in countries that remain serious differences each other. This moot point leads her development to combine statistics whose sources are not appropriately quoted with ad-hoc hypotheses. Logically, terrorist goals achievements and publicity of their acts are associated to a downright ideological resistance to hedonism. Depending on their goals, terrorist cells are classified in revolutionary or sub revolutionary. Their goals differs from ideological (put in long-range encouraging a national revolt), tactical (short range and moved by particular interests) towards strategic for denoting long-simmering interests. Since terrorists vindicate often a stance which is unheard by a stronger State, they camouflage among local population and make of western tourists their primary target in order for their claims to be

seriously taken in consideration. For Somnez, tourism represents the most important aspect of capitalism and its decline allows terrorists to impose their political advantages unilaterally. Following this reasoning, Somnez explores the liaison between development failures and political discontents to conclude that in part development does not take for granted resentment but encourages the inter-class division creating friction and discontent. In accordance to Aziz, tourists and local actors are fully dissociated by languages, style of lives, class-behavior and other ethnic-barriers. This sentiment of bitterness is also engendered by cultural values and particular attitudes which would be incongruent with Islam. Here is important to note that fundamentalism has nothing to do with Marxism. While the latter were enrooted into the capitalist logic, the former one represents a counter-response to modernity. If one accepts, modernity standardized the consumption beyond the limits of West, this symbolic expansion contrasts with traditional forms of life.

By the combination of statistical and quantitative methods, it would be widely showed that terrorism and other disrupting events affect negatively tourism industry. The consistency of their findings is significant in comparison with the potential risk in tourist behavior. The process of decision making, Somnez adds, is changed or altered whenever the travelers perceive risks. Even though this has not been appropriately researched, reaction to terrorist attacks involved not only the target but also the neighboring countries too. Dysfunctional to business, risk should be examined and understood by scholars. From this perspective, Somnez introduces to the discussion a new concept: the risk. As a negative and constraint, risk perception would affect the development of local economies and tourism as-well. The existent psychological literature applied on management showed that people when are in danger modifies their attitudes and cancel their reserved trips. Involuntarily, this suggests that people is a rational agent able to maximize their benefits meanwhile their disbenefits are minimized. As rational consumer, the tourist avoids in visiting zones of political instability. . Implicitly, the risk perception not only is functional to terrorism but also to destination-substitution and economical losses.

To some extent, Mass-media exerts influence in the coverage of terrorist attacks emphasizing at their effects but not their causes. Basically, terrorism gave to "America" a reason to be victimized and over-valorized. The tourist experience seems to be as the second element she employs to quantify her ethnocentric theory. Since travel is or should be an enjoyable experience any hazard, as terrorism, can be immediately dysfunctional to the apprehension of deep emotions as fear and angst. The

publicity of tourism entail peace and safety coupled with democracy or development, both makes from this industry an efficient instrument for betterness. More than a political mechanism, tourism works as a witness that shows to the world what is happening in an undemocratic country, first and foremost when the human rights of locals are vulnerated. Last but not least, destination-image situates as the third element in importance to protect the tourism and developing a stronger industry that eliminates the war and political instability. For Somnez (and many other scholars else who are not aware about the anthropological literature of wars), the peace and trade contributes to improve the homeland safety. Its potentiality is often associated to the possibility to establish democracy as primary priority. She recognizes (but does not give further explanation about the reasons) that tourism and terrorism are inextricably intertwined. For this stance, the prosperity of Nation-state depends upon tourism and development.

It is unfortunate that the continuity of tourism, technology advance has not been tackled off by Somnez. Rather, her development anyway passed convincingly the proof of time and broadly has been utilized by many scholars who are concerned in terrorism issues worldwide. Nonetheless, in the following lines, we will discuss in sharp the conceptual and methodological limitations of her theory which lead involuntarily readers to a one-sided discourse. It is noteworthy the criticism seems not to be against Sevil Somnez whose reputation, trajectory and intellectual honesty should not be in discussion, but to the "American ethnocentrism" some scholars (as Somnez) involuntarily nourishes. Surely, Somnez perhaps envisaged the future of September 2001 but has not further details on respecting to their consequences in the world.

Despite the abundant material and examples provided by Somnez, we have found her text rests on shaky foundations. At a first glance, she views terrorism as a threat of tourism industry in lieu of understanding the reasons behind the phenomenon. Her stance is aimed at giving to policy-makers of valid ideas to absorb the negative effects of terrorism. Based her assumptions in managerial literature, which are more concerned to protect their products than agreeing a sense of what terrorism represents, Somnez intends to provide with an all-encompassed framework to understand terrorism as the main troublesome threat for business. Secondly, it is important not to loose the sight that she echoes on an inappropriate meaning of risk. There would be a dichotomy (unstudied by academy) between hazards and risk. Whist the former represents any

event that dangers the security and integrity of a person, the latter one is only elaborated as a construe determined by a previous decision.

Third, Somnez are not familiar with the historical background of Islam and Fundamentalism and some paragraphs she seems to confuse terrorism with violence. Irrespective of their effects, the violence is understood as a political counter-response (not necessarily associated to aggression) to recover the legitimacy. Violence is not conditioned by economic discrepancies as resentment or unhappiness as Somnez put it. Rather violence, by means of fear, allows a profound restructuration of political order (Balandier, 2005). That way, fundamentalists often are convinced of their own faith and do not need to react against external powers (indifference). Terrorists, if we pay attention, have been educated in the best American and British universities and lived long time in these countries. Not only they are familiar with Western culture but also disappointment seems to be the sentiment that moves their hate (once again, they are not religious fundamentalists). Last but not least, there is a strong connection between terrorism and tourism but not for the motives argued by Somnez. Both are processes that form the societal orders and alternate for the technology advance of humanity. Needless to say in next every point and idea will be discussed in depth.

Introduction to Islamic Terrorism

After the terrorist attacks perpetrated in many countries of the world, even in US soil, Americans posed as the epicenter of panic. A much broader sentiment of fear immobilize the American society with serious risks to lead towards a culture of narcissism where specialists are more preoccupied to prevent the next attack than understanding the complexity of the issue. Americans believed not only they were immune to terrorists attacks but also the solution to the conflict in Middle East. 9/11 waked up a crisis within US that immediately was manipulated by State in its favor. Unlike other examples in Argentina or Spain, in US terrorists were treated as enemies of Republic and important resources were re-channeled by Bush's administration in the war on terror (Klein, 2007).

In this vein, Richter and Waugh recognize that the connectedness between tourism and terrorism is related to the vulnerability of travelers and importance that West gives to this industry. The fragility of tourism respecting to politic tension is unable enough to explain the strange seduction of tourism by terrorists. More than a foreign style of life (imported), tourism generates attraction and attention from world public opinion; an attention that terrorists fails to achieve by other means. The

travel, as previously discussed, engenders the possibility of an encounter with otherness that not always is nice and pleasant. Philosophically speaking, hospitality and hostility share a similar root. The technology that makes possible the mobility can be the most serious weakness to be capitalized by terrorism.

Starting from the premise that the spirit of terrorism mutates from one State to other at time US exert the violence, O. Ianni suggests that terrorism should be defined as an acting of political violence wherein some or more interests are at stake. Terrorism works as means for the achievement of certain goals. As this given, H. Saint-Pierre (2003) argues that terrorism follows three interconnected facets: a) tactic, b) strategic and c) politic. Whilst the tactic facet of terrorism refers to the fact of gaining more attention from State achieving as maximum of victims and destruction as possible, the strategic level operates in a symbolic spectrum wherein survivors and spectators experience a deeper sentiment of invulnerability because the event reminds that the State was unable to protect the citizenship from an outsider attack.

Furthermore, the vulnerability of potential victims is of paramount importance for terrorism for two main reasons. The first and more important is that victims remind the impotence of nation-state to defend their own citizens. Therefore, the vulnerability of western-tourists often is highlighted as the precondition for terrorism to shorten the axis of power to negotiate directly with the State. Certainly, B. Etienne suggests convincingly that Islam radicalization should be studied coupled to the advance of modernity and imposition of Western-city. If Coram refers to politics conferring to the exemplary hero, the prophet Mohammad, the capacity not only to create the community (umma) but also of gaining power (mulk). In recognition to this, fundamentalism should be understood as a counter-response before the advent of modernity and capitalism. The prophet reveals the legacy of God to be communicated to others who should be circumscribed to a profound reform (islah). The radicalized-Islam is the product of certain unmet needs and promises made by European powers that historically resulted in the exclusion of Arabs pushing them into poverty and marginalization. Under this conjuncture, the call (daawa) is aimed to be heard by all Arabs paves the ways for the consolidation of "Jihad" (holy-war).

The Islamization of Arabs can be understood as a combination of many factors as the poverty, exclusion, the corruption of local rich monarchies, as well as the thirst of European powers for the local resources of Middle East or the on-going failures of Marxists to dissuade population that the history equals to the fight of classes (unlike in Latin

America where these theories acted as conduits in politic struggle). The call represents in this way more than an attempt to be redeemed in the battlefield, as it has been misunderstood by European intelligence; it triggers the spiritual transformation necessary to become a “better person to live a better life” but once imperial powers arrived at Middle East, the die was cast. Terrorism, in sum, was a combination of many factors but imperial intervention and the current opened meaning of Coram are of paramount important to understand the phenomenon. Unlike Christianity where the doctrine is determined by an exhaustive code (text), Muslims around Coram structured several senses for interpreting the events. With the passing of centuries, this created a strange situation of internal conflict (among Muslims) that is suspended and unified in case of an outside invasion.

Tourism as a form of Resilience

Why people are being captivated by the disaster and suffering of others represents one of the most striking aspects of dark-tourism. Even though in last years, a countless studies have focused on mass-death as a form of cultural entertainment for West in tourism and hospitality fields (Lennon and Foley, 2000; O'Rourke, 1988; Miles, 2002; Laws, Prideaux and Chon, 2007; Stone, 2005; 2011) Dark tourism can be seen as the legacy of a thanatopic tradition whose roots cannot be yet determined with accuracy by experts. Some scholars consider the current fascination for death stems from Middle Age and the habit by visiting craves and cemeteries during XVIIIth and XIXth centuries (Seaton, 1996; 1999) while others dwelled on the role played by mass-media as the prerequisite for creating tourist-spot with concentration in disasters and human catastrophes (Lennon and Foley, 2000). For some scholars, dark tourism shows a strong dependency of identity and ethnic affiliation because confers to certain group a sentiment of belonging and meaningful experience enrooted in the heritage and lore (Foley and Lennon, 1996). For others dark-tourism can be seen as a simple adaptation to unpredicted situations that connotes a principle of resilience in society. The resilience allows intellectualizing the uncertainty post-disasters.

After a traumatic event or a terrorist attack, the memorial of reconstruction seems to be related to a much broader-seated ethnocentrism. Survivors experience a sentiment of fault that is sometimes redeemed thinking that after all they survived because are specials. Throughout these kinds of rituals, the involving society highlights its own sentiment of superiority creating what specialists

denominated “the archetype of disasters”. Accompanied with the mythical guidelines that explain how the community was reconstructed, tourism, festivals and event-management elaborate a specific narrative of how the events happened, a new story with emphasis on masculinity, outrage, heroism, and strength. As already explained, the needs of distinction that characterize these types of processes pave the ways for the surfacing of ethnocentric discourses. Unfortunately, this exacerbated discourse not only tends to preserve the power of status-quo but also ignore temporarily those concrete reasons that provoked the unexpected-disaster. As a result of this, societies or communities are inevitably condemned to suffer a similar tragedy again and again. This explains in part the reason why in spite of investing considerable amount of money and efforts in preventing terrorist attacks or natural disasters, the industrialized countries seem to experience more disaster as never before. The emergency is commoditized for tourism to be consumed after recovery process and so forth.

On another hand, tourism not only commercializes the local resources but also helps communities in their recovery process post disasters. In other terms, tourism plays a pivotal role in giving to society an all-encompassed meaning to understand the events and the sense of suffering. Places and lands where the disasters passed (even terrorist attacks) can temporarily experience millionaire losses during one or two seasons but once elapsed a considerable time, the involving place lures thousand of tourists. These visitors are certainly moved by their curiosity. The cycles of tourism are in fact sensible to terrorist attacks but at some extent, terrorism revitalizes and multiplies the attractiveness of involved tourist-destinations. Bali, Egypt and other destinations not only have not fallen in bankruptcy but also gained more strength with the passing of years. Of course, this penchant based on destruction/construction amplifies the economic cycle of capitalism aggravating the social problems and discontents afore-mentioned in other sections. Among the consequences of terrorism, aversion and hate against “Americans” engendered a widespread sentiment of ethnocentrism that gives more value to anglo-citizens than others. As explained, terrorism gives to Americans not only a reason to live and feel the pride of being Americans but a biased view of otherness. Potentially, this point makes them more vulnerable to the manipulation of fear by politicians (Bernstein, 2006; Chomsky, 2004; Altheide, 2006; Baudrillard, 1995; Corey, 2009). D. Harvey (2004) acknowledges that modernity alternates situation of construction with destructions in order for the capital can expand. The mass-consumption is being stimulated by means of cultural entertainment

and tourist landscapes world wide. The generalized consumption that characterized the life in post-modernity, lead societies to capital stagnant and crises which only can be resolved destroying and recycling the existent places. Wars and terrorism seems to be associated to this tendency and allows the formation of a new political doctrine where the state of emergency is the pretext for a new policy.

From Foucaultian view, the conflict that always remains in the core of society may be diverted towards her external boundaries (this means against an external foe), to achieve further legitimacy and move the necessary resources to enter in the battle; however, whether the state of war ends, this under-laying violence is permuted in forms of local crime, alcoholism, drug abuse, hooliganism and other social pathologies.

What is important to not here in this dichotomy is the fact that State's legitimacy rises by the struggle of its members. Under such a context, for Foucault the history works as a fertile source to impose a biased narrative keeping people under control (Foucault, 2001; 2006). An argument of this nature is based on what N. Elias's called the evolution of conflict. From the Elias perspective, wars contribute to the instrumental advances, progress and civilization (Elias, 2002). Nowadays, travels are sings of status and social distinction.

The N. Elias's upshot is that empires expand taking advantage of some economic, geo-morphological and demographic benefits which sometimes are circumstantial. The growth and expansions of these Empires need from mobility for their purposes. The conflict surfaces as a result of the encounter of imperial interests and local frustrations. One of the more efficient ways to transmit this sentiment of unhappiness is an indirect attack to travelers or citizens of Empire. This creates more ethnocentrism and enhances the sentiment of nationalism that aggravates the problem. The advance of technology and transport-means evolves jointly to a continuance of war and peace.

P. Virilio said that discoveries in technology and mobility bring a temporal myopia because the machine reemplaces the human sense. The techniques in terms of transport and information are a result of the war. One of Virilio's contributions to philosophy of tourism seems to be that any displacement entails a temporary blindness. Innovation and systematization of transport empties the meaning of present of landscape setting the pace to a new movement, the globalization (Virilio, 1991; 2007). As afore-noted, globalization has been widely expanded to all nation-states worldwide. J. Holloway and E. Pelaez explain that war, conflicts or any state of competition enhances the solidarity among in-group. The terrorism and consequent war on terror adjust the loyalties of

Americans for one side, and Arabs on other side, to fight a virtual battle where the only winner is the market (Holloway and Pelaez, 2002). Unlike Somnez, Holloway and Pelaez are convinced that political insatiability is aimed at reinforcing the authority of nation-states over their citizens.

CONCLUSION

In foregoing, we have critically examined the argument of Sevil Somnez about tourism and terrorism. The decision process made to conduct a war is complex and its roots remains unstudied by tourism and hospitality literature. Our thesis is that war-peace cycle not only revitalizes the problems of capital accumulations, real-estate and technical advance. Comparative studies of war cycles can contribute to explication of facets of this decision-making process. Most relevant of these facets are those that help us to identify the preventable factors influencing the decision to initiate (and to terminate) a war (Dewey, 1951; 1952; 1967). Unfortunately to the moment there are no algorithms and quantitative studies to focus on the relationship between war, peace, and capital accumulation (financial situation of banks) to determine relevant findings, but at some extent, most likely this was one of the merits of Sevil Somnez, we should not to loose the sight of the compliance between tourism and terrorism. This paper intended to discuss and exerting considerable criticism against Somnez' development. Once again, we are not saying this well-recognized scholar promote racism and ethnocentrism. Rather, our main thesis is that the paper *Tourism, Terrorism, and Political Instability* shows the tendency of American society as well as its problems to accept the presence of otherness. Problems and limitations in Somnez's development has been widely examined and highlighted in this conceptual work in order for shedding light to scholars, practitioners, policy-makers, and officials interested in understanding terrorist issues.

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SUBMITTED: FEB 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: JUL 2012

ACCEPTED: AUG 2012

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ROLE CLARITY, SUPERVISORY SUPPORT, PEER SUPPORT, AND WORK ENGAGEMENT OF CUSTOMER-CONTACT EMPLOYEES IN HOTELS: A FUTURE RESEARCH AGENDA

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In light of competitive pressures, organizations particularly service providers, need to unleash the talents of their employees in order to accomplish peak performance. Recent efforts have highlighted the importance of work engagement which focuses on human strengths and optimal functioning. Despite its potential beneficial outcomes, research on the prevalence and antecedents of work engagement has remained scarce. Therefore, the objective of this paper is to develop a model linking role clarity, supervisory support, and peer support as predictors of work engagement. A review of the literature to support the proposed model among customer-contact employees within the Malaysian hotel industry is provided.

Keywords: *Work Engagement, Role clarity, Supervisory support, Peer support, Customer-contact employees, Malaysia*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

The service sector has continued to be a key player in promoting the growth of the Malaysian economy. This can be seen from the country's GDP records which showed a marked increase in the contribution made by the service sector from 46.1 percent in 2005 to approximately 58.3 percent in 2011 (Ministry of Finance, 2011). By 2020, the service sector is expected to contribute as much as 70 percent of the nation's GDP (Ministry of Information Communications and Culture, 2011). Within the service sector, the tourism industry is particularly significant in terms of



providing employment opportunities to the nation's workforce and generating national income. For instance, in 2009, the tourism industry employed about 14 percent of the total workforce and generated a total of RM36.9 billion to Malaysia's Gross National Income (GNI) (Ministry of Information Communications and Culture, 2011). The growth of the tourism industry can be attributed to the increasing trend in the number of tourist arrivals to Malaysia. For instance, the number of tourist arrivals to Malaysia soared from 7.4 million in 1990 to 16.4 million in 2005 and 24.6 million in 2010 (Tourism Malaysia, 2011b). It is also envisaged that by 2020, the tourism industry will be able to contribute as much as RM103.6 billion in GNI, with arrivals of 36 million tourists (Ministry of Information Communications and Culture, 2011). Given the significant contribution made by this sector, tourism has been listed as one of the National Key Economic Areas (NKEA) under the 10th Malaysia Plan. During the five year period of the 10th Malaysia Plan (2011-2015), the government aims to improve the country's position to be within the top ten in terms of global tourism receipts and to increase the sector's contribution by 2.1 times, contributing a total of RM 115 billion in receipts and creating approximately 2 million jobs (Economic Planning Unit, 2010). To accomplish this goal, one of the key strategies would be to enhance the quality of tourism products and services.

Within the tourism industry, hotels represent key service providers (Baum & Mudambi, 1999; Hayes & Ninemeier, 2007; Ministry of Information Communications and Culture, 2011). In Malaysia, the remarkable increase in tourist arrivals over the years has resulted in the rapid development and construction of hotels, thereby, increasing the supply of rooms for accommodation. Specifically, the number of hotels in Malaysia has risen from 2269 units in year 2005 to 2367 in year 2010. Similarly, the number of room supply has increased from 155, 256 units in 2005 to 168,497 units in 2010 (Tourism Malaysia, 2011a). One option in which hotels can continue to support the growth of the tourism industry in terms of attracting new customers or retaining existing ones is through the provision of superior service quality. As noted by Bienstock, DeMoranville, and Smith (2003), employees particularly those at the frontline who make direct contact with the customers, represent the lifeblood of a service organization. This line of thought is especially true for hotels which are labor-intensive (Baum & Mudambi, 1999; Hayes & Ninemeier, 2007). According to Lee, Nam, Park, and Lee (2006), if customers' perceived the level of service provided by service providers exceeded their expectation, they are bound to be satisfied, and in turn, lead to retention. On the other hand, when customers' experience during

the service encounter are judged to be unfavorable, they are likely to feel dissatisfied, leading to poor perceptions of service quality (Markovic & Raspor, 2010; Yoo & Park, 2007).

In the context of hotels, some researchers (such as: Baum & Mudambi, 1999; Hayes & Ninemeier, 2007) asserted that a customer's decision to stay or not to stay in the hotel during their next visit depends on their satisfaction with the quality of service they received. Since frontline customer-contact employees represent the organization during service delivery, their attitudes and behaviors play a vital role in influencing customers' evaluation of service quality and subsequent satisfaction (Bettencourt & Brown, 2003; Bettencourt, Gwinner, & Meuter, 2001; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996; Lee, et al., 2006; Schneider & Bowen, 1985; Yang, 2010). One such favorable attitude is work engagement. In fact, it has been widely acknowledged that work engagement among service employees is one of the mechanisms in stimulating beneficial workplace behaviors such as work performance (Armier & Buckley, 2009; Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008), organizational citizenship behavior (Armier & Buckley, 2009; Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009; Meredith & Oriel, 2010), and extra-role service behavior (Carolina, Vicente, Jose', Jose', & Russell, 2008; Salanova, Agut, & Peiro, 2005). Employees who are engaged in their work are likely to be more energetic, more dedicated, and more absorbed in their jobs (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). The findings by Salanova et al. (2005) provided empirical support for the positive relationship between work engagement and service delivery quality, which in turn, lead to greater customer loyalty. Likewise, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti and Schaufeli (2009) found that when employees' attention are focused on their jobs, they are likely to perform well in their service encounter, which in turn, result in higher customer satisfaction. For hotels, such favorable responses by customers are likely to generate better profit margin.

In recent years, numerous researches have been conducted on the predictors of work engagement. However, these studies were mostly centered on developed countries such as the United States (Britt, 2003; May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004), Netherlands (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007), Germany (Weigl, Hornung, Parker, Petru, Glaser, & Angerer, 2010), Spain (Salanova, et al., 2005), Finland (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007), Greece (Xanthopoulou, et al., 2009), Norway (Martinussen, Richardsen, & Burke, 2007), and Australia (Parker, Jimmieson, & Amiot, 2010). These studies were conducted within

specific service industries such as insurance, healthcare, airline, and education. The predictor variables focused on two types of resources: job resources and personal resources. Job resources examined were confined to those at the organizational level (e.g. supervisory coaching), interpersonal level (e.g. social support from supervisors and colleagues), and task level (e.g. autonomy and job control). The personal resources investigated include self-efficacy, optimism, hope, and resilience. On the other hand, studies on the work engagement construct among employees in developing countries have been limited except for the work of a few scholars (e.g. Armir & Buckley, 2009; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009; Siu, Lu, Brough, Lu, Bakker, Kalliath, O'Driscoll, Phillips, Chen, Lo, Sit, & Shi, 2010). However, the job resources that were examined in these studies were restricted to only those at the organizational level, interpersonal level, and task level. Specifically, Karatepe and Olugbade (2009) investigated the relationship between job resources (supervisor support) and personal resources (self-efficacy and trait competitiveness) and work engagement among a sample of hotel frontline employees in Nigeria. Armir and Buckley (2009), however, examined the role of work engagement in mediating the relationship between trust in leader (i.e. school principal) and work outcomes (in-role performance, OCB, and learning goal orientation) among teachers in Pakistan. Likewise, Siu et al. (2010) studied the mediating role of work engagement in the relationship between several job resources (organizational policies, supervisor support, peer support, job autonomy, and family support) and work-family enrichment among employees in China's healthcare industry. In the case of Malaysia, Abdul Hamid and Yahya (2011) conducted an empirical study on the relationship between person-job fit and person-organization fit and work engagement among a sample of engineers working in semiconductor companies in Malaysia. They concluded that there is a significant relationship between both forms of fit (person-job and person-organization) and employees' work engagement. Nevertheless, despite the growing attention given to work engagement, research in this area is still in its infancy in Malaysia (Abdul Hamid & Yahya, 2011). Given the fact that: customer-contact employees are crucial in delivering superior service quality to hotels' customers (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996), there has been a lack of studies on work engagement within the hospitality industry (Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009), and the growing need to attract more tourists to Malaysia, an understanding of the predictors of work engagement among customer-contact hotel employees is relevant. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to review the literature

and ultimately propose a model linking job resources and work engagement.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Work engagement

There are many views concerning work engagement. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) viewed work engagement as a motivational construct. They defined work engagement as a “positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption”. According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), vigor refers to high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest effort in one’s work, and persistence in the face of difficulties. Dedication relates to one’s sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Absorption is characterized as being fully concentrated, and happily engrossed in one’s work whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching oneself from work (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Schaufeli, Bakker, and Salanova (2006) argued that work engagement is not a momentary and specific state but rather a persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state of mind. Work engagement is different from workaholism in the sense that the former relates to positive psychological aspects of an individual whereas the latter implies a negative phenomenon with dysfunctional consequences. Specifically, engaged worker viewed work as fun unlike their workaholic counterparts who are obsessed (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008). Although some scholars (e.g., May, et al., 2004; Robinson, Perryman, & Hayday, 2004) argued that there has been some overlap between work engagement and other motivational constructs such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement, an array of research findings have shown that work engagement is a multidimensional and distinct construct comprising of vigor, dedication, and absorption (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Koyuncu, Burke, & Fiksenbaum, 2006; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

Resources as antecedents of work engagement

According to the Conservation of Resource theory (COR) (Hobfoll, 2002), resources are those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of other resources. Hobfoll (2001) proposed that when

resources are acquired, those resources will be invested to obtain additional resources. For example, when people developed skills at work, those skills are often invested in job performance in order to acquire other resources such as rewards and work status. In addition, COR theory suggested that employees will invest their resources in ways that will maximize their returns and in a manner that is most fitting with the specific resource invested. For instance, Hobfoll (2001) posited that resources that an individual gained from their job (i.e. job resources) are often reinvested in their workplace. Based on the COR theoretical underpinning, researchers in positive work psychology proposed that job resources will be positively related to work engagement. In particular, Bakker and Demerouti (2007) argued that job resources may be located at four levels: organizational level (e.g. pay, career opportunities, job security), interpersonal level (e.g. supervisor and co-worker support, team climate), organization of work level (e.g. role clarity and participation in decision-making), and task level (e.g. skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and performance feedback). When individuals possess high level of job resources, they are likely to become more energetic, dedicated, and passionate about their work, all of which characterized high work engagement.

Customer-contact employees' job resources as the key antecedent of work engagement

Job resources have been defined as those physical, social, psychological, or organizational aspects of the job that are instrumental in achieving work goals, able to reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, and able to promote personal growth, learning, and development (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). According to Bakker and Demerouti (2007), job resources are not only necessary to deal with job demands, but they are also important in their own right due to their motivational potential. As intrinsic motivators, job resources help meet human needs and enhance the individual's growth and development. Likewise, as extrinsic motivators, job resources assist employees in meeting their work goals. As boundary spanners who perform on the "front stage" of the organization, the possession of greater job resources is deemed valuable in improving service delivery. In line with the suggestion made by Bakker et al. (2010) the motivational effect of job resources are bound to make frontline, customer-contact employees become more energetic, resilient, dedicated, and absorbed in their task activities. Such favorable attributes

will ultimately result in beneficial behavioral outcomes leading to greater service performance. Findings from previous studies (Britt, 2003; Hakanen, et al., 2006; Karatepe & Olugbade, 2009; Martinussen, et al., 2007; Mauno, et al., 2007; Parker, et al., 2010; Salanova, et al., 2005; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Weigl, et al., 2010; Xanthopoulou, et al., 2007, 2009) demonstrated that job resources located at the four levels: organizational level (i.e. training, technology, supervisory coaching); interpersonal level (i.e. social support from supervisor and colleagues); task level (i.e. performance feedback, job control, autonomy) and the organization of work level (i.e. role clarity) were able to foster employee work engagement. Hence, our first proposition is presented as follows:

Proposition 1: Job resources of the customer-contact employees will be positively related to their work engagement.

As boundary spanners who have to deal with the needs and wishes of customers promptly, resources at the organization of work level (role clarity) and interpersonal level (supervisory support and peer support) would be considered important in fostering work engagement.

Role clarity and work engagement

Role clarity refers to the extent to which an employee receives and understands information required to perform his/her job (Kelly & Richard, 1980). Role clarity is perceived by frontline employees as having a positive effect on their job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance (de Ruyter, Wetzels, & Feinberg, 2001). On the other hand, when workers lack role clarity, they tend to experience negative feelings such as job tension and dissatisfaction (Kahn, Donald, Robert, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Kelly & Richard, 1980). In service settings, role clarity provides an opportunity for customer-contact employees to act quickly to serve their customer during the service encounter without having to refer to their superiors for advice. Such prompt response is likely to delight customers leading to greater satisfaction. Terje, Göran, and Sander (2011) added that when there is a lack of role clarity among customer-contact employees, negative outcomes are likely to occur such as the concerned employee may mislead customers by providing incorrect information, which leads to poor service quality experiences for the customers. Therefore, when customer-contact employees are clear on what they are supposed to do in their job, they are more likely to adopt a favorable attitude towards work in terms of exhibiting greater perseverance in handling job challenges and displaying higher dedication in serving their customers. In light of the above discussion, we posit that:

Proposition 1a: There will be a positive relationship between role clarity and work engagement.

Supervisory support and work engagement

Supervisory support is defined as the positive work interaction between a supervisor and his/her subordinate (Bhanthumnavian, 2003). According to Bhanthumnavian (2003), in the workplace, support from the supervisor can come in three forms: emotional support (i.e. showing empathy, acceptance, and care); informative support (i.e. giving feedback or guidance in work), and material support (i.e. preparing budget, aids, resources, and tangible assistance that are related to work to improve the subordinate's motivation, performance, and effectiveness). Previous studies provided empirical evidence on the effect of supervisory support on a person's attitude and behavior. For instance, Bakker et al. (2007) found that supervisor support is positively related to work engagement. In a recent study, Ugur and Emin (2010) discovered that supervisory support was positively related to job satisfaction and affective commitment but negatively related to turnover intentions. In the context of the service industry where customer-contact employees are likely to experience work pressures as a result of their interactions with customers who display varied emotions and behaviors (Karatepe, Yavas, & Babakus, 2007), supervisory support in terms of emotion, information, and materials, may act as a buffering mechanism in reducing their stress level. This is especially true for hotel employees since they are normally underpaid, have to typically work long hours, have to endure irregular schedules, and heavy workloads (Hayes & Ninemeier, 2007; Karatepe, et al., 2007). At the same time, supervisory support serves to motivate employees to perform better. For instance, proper feedback from one's supervisor would increase the likelihood of being successful in achieving future work goals, leading to higher engagement. Therefore, when customer-contact employees perceived themselves to be recipients of their supervisor's support, they are more likely to develop a favorable work attitude by displaying resilience, dedication, and becoming engrossed in their work, all of which are bound to enhance service performance. Hence, it is proposed that:

Proposition 1b: There will be a positive relationship between supervisory support and work engagement.

Peer support and work engagement

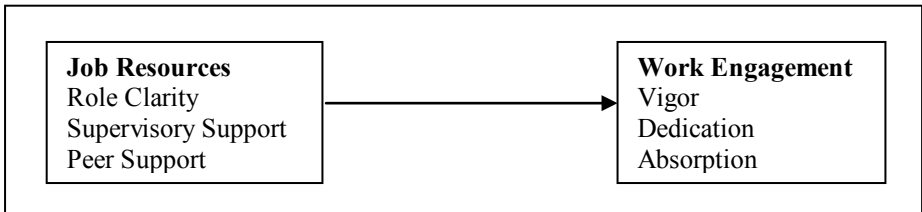
House (1981) defined peer support as the degree to which employees perceived that they have received affective participation, empathy, liking or respect from their peers or colleagues. Past studies have shown that peer support can positively affect a person's work attitudes (He, Lai, & Lu, 2011; Xanthopoulou, Baker, Heuven, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2008). Being labor-intensive, workers in service organizations do not work independently (Ma & Qu, 2011). The delivery of quality services to customers will be dependent upon the collaborative efforts of the work teams especially those at the frontline. Support an employee receives from other members of the team (i.e. peer support) can be either instrumental, emotional, and informational (House, 1981). For instance, instrumental support from colleagues can help to get the work accomplished in time, and may alleviate the effect of work overload on strain (Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). Greater emotional support received from their peers in the form of respect, affective participation, and liking, would help reduce their feelings of pressure associated with their job demands. Meanwhile, informational support from peers which include feedback, formal and informal knowledge related to work that are being shared, are useful in assisting the particular worker perform his/her job effectively and efficiently. Therefore, when customer-contact employees perceived themselves to be recipients of their peers' support, they will be more likely to develop a favorable work attitude as a form of reciprocation through greater work engagement. Xanthopoulou et al. (2008) provided empirical evidence for the positive influence of peer support on work engagement. In their study within the airline industry, Xanthopoulou et al. (2008) discovered that flight attendants who experienced greater peer support were more engaged in their work. Accordingly, the following proposition is offered:

Proposition 1c: There will be a positive relationship between peer support and work engagement.

PROPOSED RESEARCH MODEL

Based on the preceding discussion, and in relation to the COR theory, our proposed research framework is depicted in Figure 1 whereby three forms of job resources (role clarity, supervisory support, and peer support) are posited to predict work engagement.

Figure 1 Proposed Research Model



CONCLUSION

In the highly competitive hotel industry, superior service becomes one of the most critical elements for gaining a sustainable competitive advantage in the marketplace (Markovic & Raspor, 2010). One feasible way for hotels to achieve superior service quality is to ensure that their customer-contact employees are highly engaged in their work. Work engagement is characterized by vigor, dedication, and absorption in work. Since hotels are labor-intensive, employees especially those customer-contact personnel play a significant role in ensuring superior service delivery. Engaged employees are bound to display a positive outlook toward their job and more willing to devote their time and effort in serving their customers, all of which, will lead to higher perceived service quality and ultimately greater customer satisfaction. A review of past literature provided support for the positive relationships between job resources and work engagement. Hence, a conceptual research model has been developed linking job resources (comprising of role clarity, supervisory support, and peer support) as potential predictors of work engagement.

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SUBMITTED: JAN 2012

REVISION SUBMITTED: JUL 2012

ACCEPTED: AUG 2012

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BOOK REVIEW

Slow Travel and Tourism

*Janet Dickinson & Les Lumsdom, editors (2010). Earthscan
Limited*

This book represents a jointly effort to define a new way of travelling. Slow travels evoke the needs of low consumption to herald diverse alternative to mass tourism. The primary goal of this research is giving accounts in the travel experiences to adapt practices to sustainable behaviour. Emerged as an issue of debate the concept of slow travels recently is associated to low-carbon transport; Authors defines slow travel as “an emerging conceptual framework which offer an alternative to air and car travel, where people travel to destinations more slowly overland, stay longer and travel less” (p. 2). The existent scaffolding of productivity and consumption, proper of capitalism, leads to mobilities and speed. In view of this, this book and the concept of slow travel represent an alternative.

Most certainly, slow customers adopted its nature from the idiosyncrasy of slow food. Although in the last decades, a lot of studies related to the role of tourism and environment has surfaced, few ones focused on slow tourism. Authors, in this vein, explain convincingly that green-tourism refers to the system of transport exclusively, while slow travels bespeaks from the tourist experiences and its being in the world. “Fast travels” are interpreted to liminoid movements toward certain destinations; the rhythm of travel is determined by the expectative of arrival. Destinations are more important than travel in such for this view. This sense of travels not only characterized the transport means during last century, but also produced serious harms to atmosphere and environment. Rather, the paradigm of slow travels subverts the logic of consumption to the extent to bring natural consciousness in tourist minds. This concept means a change in the way of interpreting the sustainability and the impacts of technology to the eco-system. The first and second chapters are dedicated to the examination on how the existent means of



transport impacts on ecology while the third and chapter delve into the world of slow tourism with more accuracy. The rest of this project refers to alternative ways of slow tourism as walking, cycling, coach tourism and their connection with the water-based sustainability. One of the most interesting aspects of this project is the dichotomy between destination success and eco-protection. To some extent, any system to operate appropriately needs from speed, mobile markets and popularity. To reduce the rhythm of travels may somehow push the tourism industry work-forces to unemployment or some destinations to decline, even after the financial crash originated in US that whipped widely to Europe. Even if Dickinson & Lumsdon acknowledge that the problem of change is the adaptancy of social customs. The green house effects reduction falls in three epitomized barriers, generated by attitude-behaviour gap: a) dismissal to take alternative means of transport to air travel, b) reluctance to shorten holidays for mitigating the impacts of mobilities on environment, and c) unwillingness to accept personal responsibility in the problem.

The primary thesis of this work seems to be that climate change paradox can be explained by awareness-attitude gap in lieu of attitude-behaviour gap theory.

“Exploratory Research with slow travellers found that while they recognized travel has an impact on climate change, and some were hence adjusting their everyday behaviour, many continued to travel by air and were able to justify this position. Participants used denial strategies and discourse of obligation interlinked with structural travel barriers” (p. 52). Lay people resist changing whenever they perceive their attitudes have no effects on the problem. The lack of responsibility to adapt the times and pattern of travels to deter climate change effects can be determined if global issues are minimized when their effects remain remote. This opens a paradox, in the discussion of sustainability and ecology. Basically, many persons accept flying and climate change are inextricably intertwined, but at some extent they trivialize their roles in such a process (Hardin’s Paradox).

To resolve this short-coming, slow travels not only represent a valid alternative to change the discourse but also make evident how the Hardin’s paradox can be resolved. If individuals prioritize their self-interest, the benefits for all are lost. Methodologically speaking, Dickinson & Lumsdon exert involuntarily a serious criticism to the existent studies in tourism and sustainability because the following two

reasons:

- a) Participants are contradictories in their answers showing a interference between what they say and finally do.
- b) Representation of travels determines the penchant of participants to see some problems and minimize others. Risks are socially constructed.

From this mind-set, studies based on the opinion of international tourists respecting to climate issues is not only troublesome, but also hard to sustain. The collective views about risks are often biased by stereotypes, and influenced by several representations. In this vein, this book stimulates a hot debate to understand the reluctance to change the existent forms of consumption in spite of the warning of specialists. Citizenry does not act differently if the causes of the issue are understood.

Under some circumstances, structural factors facilitate some particular behaviour patterns. To cut the long story short, the climate change poses a serious risk for humankind all, and should be addressed taking into consideration the process of behavioural decisions. Written in polished English and structured in a coherent way, this is one of the best researches I have ever read respecting to sustainable issues and tourism. Readers who wish inspecting *Slow Travel & Tourism* will find a rich academic compilation of ten chapters along with the needs to change directly to a new type of practicing tourism and mobilities.

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BOOK REVIEW

Tourists Signs and the City: The Semiotics of Culture in an Urban Landscape

Michelle M. Metro-Roland, editor (2011). Ashgate Publishing

This book could be described as a phenomena of today's global environment; that environment that governs our socio-cultural concepts rather than the one that dominates our socio-economic ones! Thirty years ago, or even twenty years ago a book such as this may have been looked upon as an interesting study about sociology or even a historical account of an urban space that was coming to terms with the tourist industry and its influence on local culture and life. But twenty years ago we were still living in the shadow of a divided Europe, of countries isolated from each other by political and very definite social barriers and by a tourist industry that looked at the segregation of foreign visitors from local residents and local culture. A lot has happened in the past twenty years, we now have a new emerging map of Europe with a number of countries having tasted their first two decades of the global lifestyle and economy, we have seen changes in peoples' attitudes towards governments and autocratic rule, we have even seen changes in technology and the way we communicate and all this has led to even more factors that have even affected the way we consider travel and destinations. Most travellers and tourists today are not looking for packaged holidays to "home-from-home" surroundings, neither are they looking at being accommodated in tourist ghettos, segregated from the everyday lives and sounds of residents and urban spaces or rural expanses. Tourists today want integration, they want to taste the flavours of the countries they visit, they want to feel part of the urban and local spaces and they want to experience the rural expanse.

Students of marketing will recall the emphasis that was put on the term: "Know your product" and one of the first things that this book brings to mind is the aspect of "Product"; but we talk about this product as if it were something inanimate, a thing, a component and an object for seeing, using and discarding! The first three chapters are all about



understanding and knowing the product, in the case of tourism it is all about appreciating and integrating with the Culture, the very essence of the host community, not in a way that turns every local event into a side show for the benefit of visitors but as a means of interpreting the urban and rural spaces within the context of the particular ambience. To understand sites, attractions or even places it is important that there is this kind of bonding, if one could call this so, between the mental and physical images which are implanted in the mind of the visitor and the intangible heritage that emanates through the tangible heritage which signifies the sense of identity and Culture which the community or society today have included in their dowry when these became essential components for the visitor who wants to be at the site or to be part of the socio-cultural interaction between host and visitor. The author describes (Chapter 3) the transition from a totally alien tourist gaze to one that reflects a more street savvy visitor who is not easily taken in by pseudo interpretation but who, on the other hand, look for the experiences that are both authentic and unique. A number of keywords attracted my attention in the chapter on Landscape and Tourism and these were : “Multifarious” when referring to the destination that has been created as a commodity and the term “City Branding” both of which give the distinct impression that many authorities are trying to create or invent somewhere that can only be described as “a smokescreen –like representation of places”. These first three chapters of the book identify the real “moments of truth” of the host-visitor experiences in tourism; those moments when the visitor is not segregated but can be fully integrated with the socio-cultural environment.

After setting the scene and plotting out the strategy, in other words, after performing the role of the tourist or visitor who wants to be at a destination, the author turns to an interesting methodology for assessing and measuring visitor perceptions and experiences of destinations. Using the VEP (Visitor Employed Photography) the idea of using pictures as a sign, an illustrated description and the international language that expresses one’s real experience as a tourist, this study set out to understand not only the strength of the interpretation, but also those aspects that identified the Hungarian City other than the more popular and well known attractions and buildings.

Certainly one of the best conclusions that were stated in this study was the issue of the interaction between the tourist and the host community. The photographs that were taken included details of

Hungarian identity whether this was identified with specific architecture, whether by showing a Trabant outside a typical Hungarian building or whether it was in the particular road signs. One aspect that this study does certainly prove is that today's tourist is not looking for pseudo attractions and sites, they do not want to experience that feeling of not having left home, the visitor wants to experience different Cultures, Sceneries and Histories.

At a time when we are seeing a number of destinations and regions maturing and struggling to maintain market share this book could provide the right recipe for that particular and unique dish of local flavours without the addition of imported spices and ingredients which render that dish familiar to the visitor but alien to the cook! Tourism Authorities, Planning officials and local Councillors would do well to take up the challenge of sustainable gentrification of urban spaces and rural areas. This book should serve as a guide and a manual for Sustainable Tourism planning and policies for these entities.

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BOOK REVIEW

Key Concepts in Event Management *Bernadette Quinn, editor (2013). SAGE Publications Ltd*

Key Concepts in Event Management by Bernadette Quinn is an introductory level text that highlights and overviews topical understandings and debates essential for first-year undergraduate students taking events or leisure management courses. The book starts with a brief introduction that attempts to position academic directions and inquiry surrounding festivals and planned events to show how the subsequent key concepts included in the text relate to contemporary approaches. Approaches and understandings highlighted in the introduction are concerned with, for instance, the growth of cultural industries, economic agendas, regional development and risk management. Similar to all other key concepts books, this book's brief introduction attempts to contextualize the direction of events management, and recognizes observed shifts in the discipline of study over the last several decades. All the key concepts are listed alphabetically in this volume. Furthermore, each concept starts with a very brief one or two sentence overview and offers either a definition or topical/critical insight that shows the direction of the discussion thereafter. Broadly considering, the book covers the holistic nature of events, with much attention put on the social, cultural and community approaches, and the influence of economic and political forces/structures and stakeholders involved in events and festivals. Power relations and hierarchal structures are important for students to grasp, and looking across the majority of concepts discussed, notions of power and insight into the social linkages of events are critically discussed to encourage students to look beyond simple definitions of concepts.

While it is beyond the purpose of this review to offer insight and reflect on all 35 key concepts included in this book, I have decided to focus on a few of the concepts that relate to my own work and instruction, to offer perspective into how I would use a key concepts book in my modules. This first concept I will elaborate on is authenticity, concept 1. When I discuss notions of heritage, I often incorporate issues and



complexities surrounding the term and idea of authenticity. I think the author does a good job of clarifying this term and aligning authenticity immediately with tourism studies, but then brings this concept into an events perspective to show how events scholars engage with such a complex and contested concept. With my interests aligned to socio-cultural and geographical understandings and impacts of events, the sections on community festivals (concept 3), experience (concept 10), identity (concept 12), place marketing (concept 19), social capital (concept 27) and volunteering (concept 35) are useful and will act as a base for the supplemental readings I use in my introductory level modules. The concept of regeneration, discussed as key concept 23, relates to the vast majority of concepts discussed, and the author well-incorporated understandings of scale: concerning the local, regional, national and global interplays of social, economic and political approaches and impacts. Sports and tourism are directly linked to events studies, as numerous journal articles and books are adequately discussed, and it is important that students grasp the relations, and differences, to sports, events and tourism studies because these three studies/disciplines are becoming increasingly interdependent, especially when considering a destination like Glasgow, Scotland, which is currently preparing for the 2014 Commonwealth Games. The final concept to briefly elaborate on is concept 33, sustainable events. Sustainability is at the forefront of contemporary research, as this concept deals with the notion of impact, similar to regeneration, with reference to each point of inquiry, with both offering much in terms of summative context.

Overall, I found the book to be clear and well-articulated, and the suggested readings is useful to first year undergraduate students to encourage further reading beyond what is listed on a module handbook or course syllabus. The book relates to and shows the direction of events studies, by offering interdisciplinary perspectives by drawing from numerous international cases to further elaborate the growth of the events industry in a global context and how cases inherently differ around the world. Each chapter offers definitions of each term from multiple perspectives, which I feel is important for first year students to grasp and recognize that there are multiple understandings and ways of approaching these concepts which will undoubtedly all be referred to on numerous occasions during their time as students. This book would be useful for introductory level students or any student taking their first events or leisure studies class or module, but also has scope for introductory level sports and tourism studies students. This book also acts as a reference for instructors. I used a similar book for an introductory level module

alongside other texts and journal articles. The purpose of such a book is to clarify jargon, look at some of these key concepts conceptually and use the context to further relate to in-class discussions in an attempt to look at the complexities surrounding each concept.

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TOURISMOS

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:

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- Adequate and relevant literature review.
- Scientifically valid and reliable methodology.
- Clarity of writing.
- Acceptable quality of English language.

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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.

TOURISMOS

An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism

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.