

TOURISMOS is an international, multi-disciplinary, refereed (peerreviewed) journal aiming to promote and enhance research in all fields of tourism, including travel, hospitality and leisure. The journal is published twice per year by the Interdepartmental Program of Postgraduate Studies in Tourism Planning, Policy & Management of the University of the Aegean, 54 Michail Livanou Street, GR-82100, Chios, Greece. Phone: +30-22710-35322, Fax: +30-22710-35399, E-mail: mstath@aegean.gr, website: http://www.chios.aegean.gr/tourism

Full-text articles of TOURISMOS can be downloaded freely from the journal website, at http://www.chios.aegean.gr/tourism/journal.htm

© University of the Aegean. Printed in Greece. Some rights reserved.

This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution -Noncomercial - No Derivatives Works 3.0 Licence Unported. You are free to copy, distribute, display and perform the work as long as you give the original author(s) credit, do not use this work for commercial purposes, and do not alter, transform, or build upon this work. For any reuse or distribution, you must make clear to others the license terms of this work. Any of these conditions can be waived if you get permission from the copyright holders. Nothing in this license impairs or restricts the authors' rights. You can download the Legal Code for this Licence at: http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/legalcode or send a letter to Creative Commons, 171 Second Street, Suite 300, San Francisco, California, 94105, USA.

Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015 Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521







INDEXING, ABSTRACTING, RANKING & CITATION COVERAGE:

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

CitEc (Citations in Economics), http://citec.repec.org

DBH (Norwegian Database for Statistics on Higher Education), http://dbh.nsd..uib.no

DOAJ (Directory of Open Access Journals), www.doaj.org

EBSCO Publishing, http://www.ebscohost.com

EconBiz, http://www.econbiz.de

ECONIS, http://www.econis.eu

EconPapers, http://econpapers.repec.org

Economists Online, http://www.economistsonline.org

EZB (Elektronische Zeitschriftenbibliothek), http://rzblx1.uni-regensburg.de/ezeit

IDEAS (Internet Documents in Economics Access Service), http://ideas.repec.org

ICI (Index Copernicus International), http://www.indexcopernicus.com

INOMICS, http://www.inomics.com

ISSI (Intute Social Sciences Index), http://www.intute.ac.uk/socialsciences

Leisure, Recreation & Tourism Abstracts, http://www.cabi.org

Murdoch University Australian Tourism Research Database,

http://wwwlib.murdoch.edu.au/guides/arts/internet/tourism.html#journals

National Library of Australia, http://catalogue.nla.gov.au

NEP (New Economics Papers), http://nep.repec.org

NewJour (Electronic Journals & Newsletters), http://library.georgetown.edu/newjour

NSD (Norwegian Social Science Data Services), http://www.nsd.uib.no

Open J-Gate, http://www.openj-gate.org

RePEc (Research Papers in Economics) http://www.repec.org

Rural Development Abstracts, http://www.cabi.org

SJR (SCImago Journal & Country Rank), http://www.scimagojr.com

SCOPUS (Elsevier Bibliographic Databases), www.info.scopus.com

SocioNet, http://socionet.ru/

SRC (Scentific Reference Cosmos), http://www.srcosmos.gr/srcosmos

ZBW (German National Library of Economics), http://www.zbw.eu

TOURISMOS

An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism

EDITOR-IN-CHIEF

Paris Tsartas, University of the Aegean, Greece

EDITOR

Evangelos Christou, Alexander Technological Institute of Thessaloniki, Greece

CO-EDITORS

Haris Coccosis, University of Thessaly, Greece *Gerasimos Zacharatos*, University of Patras, Greece

ASSISTANT EDITOR

Theodoros Stavrinoudis, University of the Aegean, Greece

BOOK REVIEWS & CONFERENCE REPORTS EDITOR

Marianna Sigala, University of the Aegean, Greece

EDITORIAL ASSISTANT

Konstantina Tsiakali, University of the Aegean, Greece

SCIENTIFIC BOARD:

Bill Bramwell, Sheffield Hallam University, United Kingdom Richard Butler, University of Surrey, United Kingdom Chris Cooper, University of Queensland, Australia Jafar Jafari, University of Wisconsin-Stout, U.S.A. David Harrison, London Metropolitan University, United Kingdom Chris Ryan, University of Waikato, New Zealand John Swarbrooke, Sheffield Hallam University, United Kingdom John Tribe, University of Surrey, United Kingdom Francois Vellas, University of Toulouse, France

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

Amal Aboufayad, Lebanese University, Lebanon George Agiomyrgianakis, Hellenic Open University, Greece Volkan Altinas, University of Bonn, Germany George Anastasopoulos, University of Patras, Greece Konstantinos Andriotis, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus Vassilis Angelis, University of the Aegean, Greece

David Airey, University of Surrey, United Kingdom

Teoman Alemdar, Bilkent University, Turkey

Sofia Avgerinou-Kolonia, National Technical University of Athens, Greece

Thomas Baum, University of Strathclyde, United Kingdom

Eleni Briasouli, University of the Aegean, Greece

Dimitrios Buhalis, Bournemouth University, United Kingdom

Nevenka Čavlek, University of Zagreb, Croatia

Konstandinos Chatzimichalis, Harokopion University, Greece

Kaye Chon, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong SAR China

Lorant Denes David, Károly Róbert Főiskola, Hungary

Alex Deffner, University of Thessaly, Greece

Vasiliki Galani-Moutafi, University of the Aegean, Greece

Hugo Goetch, Free University of Bozen-Bolzano, Italy

Antti Haahti, University of Lapland, Finland

Michael Hall, University of Otago, New Zealand

Atsuko Hashimoto, Brock University, Ontario, Canada

Svetlana Hristova, University Neofit Rilski, Bulgaria

Olga Iakovidou, Aristotelian University of Thessaloniki, Greece

Elizabeth Ineson, Manchester Metropolitan University, United Kingdom

Stanislav Ivanov, International University College, Bulgaria

Zoran Ivanovic, University of Rijeka, Croatia

Peter Jones, University of Surrey, United Kingdom

Jay Kandampully, Ohio State University, USA

Ioannis Karamanidis, Alexander Technological Institute of Thessaloniki, Greece *Panagiotis Kassianidis*, Alexander Technological Institute of Thessaloniki, Greece

Hanan Kattara, Alexandria University, Egypt

Saad Al-Deen Kharfan, Tishreen University, Syria

Fotis Kilipiris, Alexander Technological Institute of Thessaloniki, Greece

Maria Kousi, University of Crete, Greece

Metin Kozak, University of Mugla, Turkey

Dimitrios Lagos, University of the Aegean, Greece

Maria Lekakou, University of the Aegean, Greece

Pericles Lytras, T.E.I. of Athens, Greece

Leonidas Maroudas, University of the Aegean, Greece

Cynthia Mayo, Delaware State University, USA

Audrey Mc Cool, University of Nevada - Las Vegas, USA

Andreas Papatheodorou, University of the Aegean, Greece

Alex Paraskevas, Oxford Brookes University, United Kingdom

Harald Pechlaner, Katholische Universität Eichstätt-Ingolstadt, Germany

Mukesh Ranga, CSJM University, Kanpur, India

Gordana Reckoska, University of Bitola, former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia Chris Roberts, University of Massachusetts, USA Ana-Isabel Rodrigues, Polytechnic Institute of Beja, Portugal Odysseas Sakellaridis, University of the Aegean, Greece Alexis Saveriades, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus Ian Senior, Emirates Academy, United Arab Emirates Konstandina Skanavi, University of the Aegean, Greece Pantelis Skagiannis, University of Thessaly, Greece Marios Soteriades, T.E.I. of Crete, Greece Ioannis Spilanis, University of the Aegean, Greece Snezana Stetic, University of Novi Sad, Serbia & Montenegro Marianthi Stogiannidou, University of the Aegean, Greece Theano Terkenli, University of the Aegean, Greece Rodoula Tsiotsou, University of Macedonia, Greece Adriana Mirela Tomescu, University of Oradea, Romania Stelios Varvaressos, T.E.I. of Athens, Greece Cleopatra Veloutsou, University of Glasgow, United Kingdom Maria Vodenska, University of Sofia, Bulgaria Sandra Watson, Napier University, United Kingdom Craig Webster, College of Tourism and Hotel Management, Cyprus Hannes Werthner, University of Innsbruck, Austria Atila Yüksel, Adnan Menderes University, Turkey Elfrida Zefi, University Fan Noli of Korca, Albania

TOURISMOS

An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism

Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015

CONTENTS

EDITORIAL xiii

RESEARCH PAPERS:

OVERVIEW AND ANALYSIS OF SUMMER SEASON TOURIST MARKET IN SERBIA

Ivan Paunović

The study is a contribution towards designing tourism marketing strategy based on hard data. Statistical tests were performed in SPSS with a goal to differentiate groups of tourists both on the supply and demand side of the market, in order to gain deeper understanding of the Serbian tourist market. The study results and recommendations should be used as a contribution towards designing national and regional destination marketing strategies. The Serbian tourism market is very rich in small niches on both supply and demand side of the market. This study attempted to demonstrate the important differences these groups of tourists do exhibit in terms of key behavioral traits. Tourism policy should address the identified groups of tourists with specially designed marketing and communication strategies, appropriate to the tourist's needs and attitudes.

15

41

TOURIST MOTIVATION IN HIGHLAND DESTINATION: CASE STUDEY IN PENANG HILL, MALAYSIA

Najihah bte Azmi & Azizan bin Marzuki

This research was conducted to investigate the factors that motivate tourist to visit highland destination as well as to study the relationship between socio-demographic factor and travelling characteristics found in the tourist motivations to visit highland destinations. The accomplishment of this research was achieved through the accumulation of empirical data

at Penang Hill, Malaysia using complete set of questionnaires. By using the principal component analysis, this study has identified three push and pull factors. The three push factors are "escape factor"; "to rest and build closer bond factor; "prestige and safety factor". The pull factors that can be identified are "the beauty of nature factors"; "infrastructure of the city and George Town factor" and "management and safety factor". Furthermore, the results of multiple regression analysis performed show that the manipulated variables (socio-demographic and travel characteristics) have influenced the tourist motivation in highland destinations.

ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS OF TOURISTS: A FACT OR A MYTH? 79

Patrícia Oom do Valle, Manuela Guerreiro & Júlio Mendes

The Algarve is a mature destination in the south of Portugal and is mainly well-known for its offerings of sun and sea. Aside from its problem of strong seasonal changes, the region also faces strong competition from other nearby destinations that has impacted its need to better attract tourists. As regional stakeholders have recognized the necessity to diversify the tourist experience, a strong effort has been dedicated to the development of complementary tourist products, with special attention on eco-tourism. Within this context, the present study used data from a survey of tourists who visited the Algarve during December 2010 (low season). An analysis was done to determine the extent to which tourists visiting the region would actively search for nature-relative activities and the profile of these individuals. In particular, the study aimed to understand whether these tourists share environmentally friendly values or, instead, are typical tourists who have chosen the Algarve based on its traditional attributes of appealing climatic conditions and beaches. Depending on whether naturebased tourism in the Algarve is a fact or a myth, strategies for repositioning the destination must be adapted, new tourist products must be proposed and communication campaigns need to be rethought.

THE EFFICACY OF ALTERNATIVE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT TO OVERCOME CURRENT CRISIS: AN EXPLORATION OF THE VIEWS OF THE STAKEHOLDERS OF THE PREFECTURE OF KORINTHIA 97 Athina N. Papageorgiou & Pericles N. Lytras

Our aim was to record the views of the stakeholders of the prefecture of Korinthia on the alternative forms of tourism suitable to develop in this destination and capable to meet current crisis. We found that they all think that new alternative forms of tourism are definitely needed but they disagree on the specific form(s) that should be developed in the area. Considerable differentiation and ambiguity was also observed on various other issues, including infrastructure development, while no co-ordination

exists. We conclude that a new vector (a participation of the various parties involved) is needed to accurately record the current situation, coordinate specific actions needed (meetings, congresses, participation in expeditions, education, etc.) and help developing a comprehensive master plan for local and regional tourism development.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN TOURISM MARKETING. IMPACTS ON THE EVALUATION OF THE TOURISM PRODUCT 109

Ourania Vitouladiti & Apostolos Dedousopoulos

Human resources in tourism, in the form of service personnel, are vital for the success of a business, operate as a critical factor for the creation of a destination's image and affect its selection from potential visitors. Human resources and image are crucial issues in tourism and travel marketing. However, research connecting them is limited. Taking into consideration these points this paper tries to assess the tourism personnel's images held by tourists, prior and after the visit, in an attempt to reveal deviations from their expectations concerning the personnel's performance. The fact that there is limited evidence and research on the personnel as an element of the destination image renders the approach of the current study interesting and can offer suggestions for managerial and marketing actions.

AGRITOURISM MARKETING DISTRIBUTION STRATEGY AND TYPOLOGY INVESTIGATION. THE CASE OF ARCADIA 131

Vicky Katsoni & Panagiota Dionysopoulou

During last decades, agritourism started to grow significantly in Mediterranean area mostly due to its favourable climate. Within literature, there are many international studies that discuss the concept of agritourism in various ways. Wide-ranging definitions and labels concerning agritourism still create confusion as there is not a transparent and basic understanding of the characteristics that define it. This paper provides a comprehensive overview on behaviour patterns of agritourists by combining these patterns with the activity-based taxonomy of all definitions of agritourism into a structured framework. The research field of the case study is Arcadia, a prefecture in Peloponnese. The study contributes to the investigation of information sourcing behaviour in tourists' travel decision process and offers a comprehensive framework that can be used as a basis for more informed debate and discussion, as well as for further empirical research in future.

EMOTIONAL LANGUAGE FOR IMAGE FORMATION AND MARKET SEGMENTATION IN DARK TOURISM DESTINATIONS: FINDINGS FROM TOUR OPERATORS' WEBSITES PROMOTING GALLIPOLI 153

Effie Lagos, Alana Harris & Marianna Sigala

This study aims to understand the language patterns that are used on websites for influencing travelers to visit Gallipoli by analysing emotive language and categorising it according to different segmentations of Gallipoli visitors. Websites promoting Gallipoli were identified through Google. Wordle software was used for conducting a website content analysis. The results show that the language used in websites represents a commemorative experience. The findings suggest a good fit between the descriptive language used to represent the dark tourism destination attributes of Gallipoli and the emotive language used to motivate visitors to the site. Moreover, the imagery of thanatourism marketed online was categorised by emotive language to identify discreet market segments. However, as the emotive language used online can influence the visitors' expectations, it is suggested that the former may result in visitor dissatisfaction.

RESEARCH CASE STUDIES:

CONTRIBUTION TO THE RESEARCH OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT OF ISTRIA (CROATIA) IN THE CONTEXT OF TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCEMENT 171

Pavlo Ružić & Damir Demonja

Technological advancement did not spare or steer clear of tourism. From the economic point of view, new techniques and procedures introduced within the field of tourism resulted in positive trends. However, when examined from the tourists point of view and their needs, the development effects remain controversial. The aim of this paper is to provide insight into the question of whether the effects of technological advancement on tourism can be considered beneficial or harmful, and to what degree. This paper also examines how technological advancement reflects on tourism, using the County of Istria (Croatia) as an example. It also outlines the situation in tourism in the past and in the present within this context.

TOURISM DESTINATION MANAGEMENT: AN OVERVIEW OF THE ADVANCES OF CATALONIA 185

Josep Boyra Amposta

This paper is dedicated to review Catalan public and private efforts to keep managing tourism advances to the benefit of Catalonia, and in particular its capital Barcelona, since the celebration of the Olympic Games in 1992. As the paper will progress its focus will turn on analyzing the abilities for learning and teaching advances, tackling how advances should be managed in order to keep their positive effects as long as

possible in time, as they seem to be precisely at the basis of the success and position of Barcelona in the worldwide ranking as a top urban tourism destination

ANALAYZING EFFECTIVE FACTORS OF TOURISM DEMAND IN IRANIAN JUNGLE PARKS: CASE STUDY OF TABRIZ ELGOLI JUNGLE PARK

Ali Bagherzadeh & Amineh Keshavarz

This study aimed to estimate tourism demand function of Tabriz Elgoli Park in Iran by travelling costs pattern in the frame of household production function, and then effective factors of the issue are investigated. The method of study is based on the estimation of tourism production functions, final cost of travelling, and calculating the shadow price of tourism. According to the results of the study, time, distance and travel costs effect on tourism and the final cost of tourism is calculated as 3368825.7 Rials per day. Findings show that there is a positive relationship between tourism with travelers' income, quality of the park, educational level of visitors and a negative relationship with final cost (shadow price) of the tourism. The results of estimation model express that among all factors, the quality of park is the most effective factor in tourism demand. Therefore, any consideration of responsible people to the environmental quality of the park would increase tourist attraction, which leads to economical prosperity of the region.

RESEARCH NOTES:

CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING AS CRITICAL FACTOR OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY 213 Effrosyni Kotsaga

This study analyses cultural awareness in the workplace. It is important for employees to be cultural aware because they may have to interact with people from other countries. Cultural Intelligence (CQ) examines individuals' abilities to interact with people with different cultural backgrounds. Cross-cultural training is examined as a factor that may affect individuals' CQ. Hospitality industry was chosen because of the diversity of employees, customers or owners. Because of the lack of research on this area, the paper contributes to the emerging need for cultural awareness in the workplace by examining cross-cultural training as a critical factor of CQ.

THE CAUSAL RELATIONSHIP WITH NEW VARIABLES IN TOURISM: EVIDENCE FROM TURKEY

Feyyaz Zeren, Filiz Konuk & Mustafa Koç

In this study, the relationship between tourism revenues and variables like tourism index in Borsa İstanbul & tourism advertising duration which have not been used previously in the literature was investigated in Turkey. In order to determine the stationary levels of series, ADF (1979) and Zivot Andrews (1992) unit root tests were used in this study spanning the period Aug 2004 till Dec 2012. Tourism revenues and advertising durations have been found stationary at level, while tourism index was stationary at first difference. According to Toda-Yamamoto (1996) causality test there have been determined no causality between these three variables. However, there was observed one-way causality from tourism index to tourism advertisements by the aid of Hacker Hatemi-J (2010) causality test which can determine critical values by bootstrap simulation with the purpose of to reduce the possibility of potential non-normal dispersion of errors. By this new test more reliable and advanced results have been obtained. As a result, index which can be considered the fundamental performance scale of tourism sector has a vital effect on tourism advertisement.

JOURNAL AIMS AND SCOPE	23	5
NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS	24	1

EDITORIAL

This is the twentieth issue of TOURISMOS, finishing its tenth year of publication. In the previous nineteenth 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 national and regional destination marketing, tourists' motivation, environmental awareness of tourists, human resources in tourism, agritourism, dark tourism destinations, technological advancement and tourism, destination management, cultural intelligence in hospitality, and tourism revenues.

Based on the previous analysis, we trust that you will enjoy reading the present issue, and we look forward to presenting you our next in spring 2016!

Paris Tsartas Editor-in-Chief Evangelos Christou *Editor*

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521







Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/

OVERVIEW AND ANALYSIS OF SUMMER SEASON TOURIST MARKET IN SERBIA

Ivan Paunović Singidunum University

The study is a contribution towards designing tourism marketing strategy based on hard data. Statistical tests were performed in SPSS with a goal to differentiate groups of tourists both on the supply and demand side of the market, in order to gain deeper understanding of the Serbian tourist market. The study results and recommendations should be used as a contribution towards designing national and regional destination marketing strategies. The Serbian tourism market is very rich in small niches on both supply and demand side of the market. This study attempted to demonstrate the important differences these groups of tourists do exhibit in terms of key behavioral traits. Tourism policy should address the identified groups of tourists with specially designed marketing and communication strategies, appropriate to the tourist's needs and attitudes.

Keywords: Contemporary tourism challenges, global tourism markets, market segmentation

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the study

Tourism decision makers and policy creators, in the newly independent Republic of Serbia (gained independence in 2006.), are faced with a difficult task of reaching decisions and creating government policies with insufficient data. There hasn't been enough national level tourism research in the recent years. The country was also not part of the UN (United Nations) system from 1992 to 2000, and was very remote from the process of creation of TSA (Tourism Satellite Accounts). As noted by Hara, first proposal of TSA was made by Statistics Canada on Ottawa Conference on Tourism in 1991. First results from this pioneering

[©] University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521





method at that time, were presented in 1994. Its method is similar to accounting method of profit-loss statements with input-output tables. (Tadayuki (Tad) Hara, 2012) TSA's give a good measure of the size of the tourism industry and its subsectors, but it cannot give answers to questions regarding tourist motivations, wants and needs, attachment to brands, satisfaction levels, etc. This means that decision makers also need quality tourism marketing research, in addition to the TSA's. This is why European Union financed Serbia Guest Survey 2011, through its pre accession assistance program, as part of the project: "Support to implementation of the national strategy for tourism".

Delimitations

The survey was conducted only during summer season, so the data should be approached with caution. The samples were, however, weighted according to the official statistics in order to gain more reliable data.

The questionnaire questions included only primary motivation for travel and no secondary motivation. In that sense, they are not suitable for detailed tourist motivation analysis, and especially for cultural tourism analysis. The data from EUROBAROMETER show that culture is a strong secondary motivator for visits, especially for city tourism. (World Tourism Organization and European Travel Commission, 2005)

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Global trends in tourism markets

Major global trend on the demand side of the market will be continuing domination of Europe as region of origin of largest share of tourists on the global tourism markets, both to advanced economies, and to emerging economies. However, Asia and Pacific Region will be the region with highest growth of outbound tourism to other regions. (UNWTO (World Tourism Organization), 2011)

Table 1. Global tourism markets

		Market share (in %)					
		A	Actual dat	a	Proje	ctions	
		1980	1995	2010	2020	2030	
To advanced economies		70	63	53	47	43	
From:	Africa	1.0	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	
	Americas	15.9	11.9	8.9	7.4	6.3	
	Asia and the Pacific	5.1	8.2	8.8	9.9	10.7	
	Europe	47.5	42.5	34.4	29.1	24.8	
	Middle East	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	
To emerging economies		30	37	47	53	57	
From:	Africa	1.0	1.8	2.7	3.4	4.4	
	Americas	9.8	9.0	8.1	8.2	8.3	
	Asia and the Pacific	3.8	8.4	12.9	16.4	19.2	
	Europe	13.7	15.8	19.7	20.9	21.2	
	Middle East	1.5	1.6	3.6	3.9	4.2	

Source: Adapted from (UNWTO (World Tourism Organization), 2011)

Serbian national strategy for tourism development and developments on the tourism market

Holidays in cities, business tourism, MICE, Touring, Cruising, and events have been identified as priority tourism products in the Tourism Strategy of Serbia (Horwath Consuting Zagreb and University of Belgrade Faculty of Economics, 2006) (Official Gazzette of the Republic of Serbia, 2006). This products have indeed the highest potential for development, especially on the international market. However, as Petkovic and Pindzo note, tourism can be compared to heavy industry in terms of needed public and private investment in infrastructure: road and transport network, drinking water distribution, waste treatment, access to eletricity and to telecommunications. (Petković & Pindžo, 2012) International market of business and city tourism is very competitive, and these products have to be strategically developed in order to be positioned

on the international market. Minghetti and Montaguti recommend the use of multidimensional and multidisciplinary approach to this problems, with indicators from several branches of knowledge (Minghetti & Montagutti, 2010). Dunne, Flanagan and Bukley identified that the major push motivation for city break tourists is to get away from something in the home environment, accompanied with the desire to satisfy social need. This 2 motivations drive city break tourists to do as many things possible at the destination, in short time period (Dunne Gerard, 2011).

Table 2. Serbian tourism market 1989-2015

Serbian tourism market from 1989 to 2011, and Tourism Strategy projections until 2015 (in thousands)											
	1989	Strat. base year 2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	Moderate growth scenario 2015	Optimistic growth scenario 2015
Number of beds	n.a.	86	87	89	113	116	113	119	128	150	170
Tourist arrivals	4,158	2,000	1,989	2,006	2,306	2,266	2,019	2,000	2,069	5,400	7,000
Domestic	3,216	1,700	1,536	1,537	1,610	1,620	1,373	1,318	1,304	2,300	3,000
Foreign	941	300	453	469	696	646	646	682	765	3,100	4,000
Tourist overnights	11,899	6,700	6,499	6,407	7,329	7,334	6,762	6,414	6,645	14,500	18,500
Domestic	10,384	5,900	5,295	5,392	5,853	5,935	5,293	4,961	5,002	7,500	9,500
Foreign	1,516	800	1,204	1,015	1,476	1,399	1,469	1,452	1,643	7,000	9,000
Average pay (Neto in EUR)	n.a.	182	203	276	328	366	334	318	365	450	600

Adapted from: (Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia, 2013) (Official Gazzette of the Republic of Serbia, 2006)

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 15-39 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

Note: Data from 1989 include tourist data for regions of Vojvodina, Central Serbia and Kosovo, and view tourists from all ex Yugoslavian territories as domestic. Data from 2004 onwards, as well as projections for 2015 include tourist data for Vojvodina and Central Serbia, and view only these tourists as domestic.

Many tourism destinations have found themselves in a declining domestic demand situation at some point: Britain during the mid-80's and more specifically Eastern European countries such as Poland, Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria and the German Democratic Republic (now part of Germany), after the fall of the Iron curtain. (Bresler, 2011 Volume 15, Issue 2). We can argue that in 2009. "Iron curtain" fell down for Serbia, since it was the first time from 1992 that the Serbian "captive market" could travel freely in the EU Schengen area. Bresler proposes Packaged tours as a way of promoting and nurturing the culture of domestic travel, the same way it was done in the Eastern European countries after the fall of the Iron curtain. Package tour is an effective tool for providing convenience, pshychological and financial security to the first-time buyers with limited income. (Bresler, 2011 Volume 15, Issue 2)

Characteristics of the Serbian tourism market and international experiences with tourism strategy formulation

In the work of Armenski, Zakic and Dragin, research has been done in Belgrade and Novi Sad in order to investigate both supply and demand side of the Serbian tourism market. In Belgrade, when the question was what did they like the most, 29,5% of tourists pointed out historical values as the most important, while only 12,5% pointed out nightlife. Although the category in the survey was rather narrow-cultural monuments only, it captures the satisfaction of tourist with cultural offer in Belgrade, more than with entertainment or nature. The same research during the Exit festival in Novi Sad revealed that Belgrade is the only destination that most (70%) of the people heard of, while only 30% heard about other destinations in Serbia. (Armenski, Zakić, & Dragin, 2009)

One third of the global accomodation capacity is registered in the EU, and one in three world tourists comes from the EU. However, this does not mean that tourism as an industry has a special place in the european policy. Tourism industry, in the Europen Commission, is under the jurisdiction of the Directorate General for Enterprise and Industry. (Mehter & Sevcan, 2012 Vol. 7 No. 1)

As Maitland suggests, generic strategies, such as development of international museums and galleries, can lead to some degree of standardization. That's why off the beaten tracks can offer added value to the tourists, as they provide authentic insight into everyday life of the local population. They offer somewhat more romantic, imaginative view of the local population in the perception of tourists. The imagined tourist perceptions are just as true as the real ones. (Maitland, 2010)

Development of tourism based economy in a post-industrial society is a multifaceted task. As Di Domenico S. and Di domenico C. have pointed out on the case of Dundee, over-reliance upon singular concept or predominantly consumption based strategies such as retail can be vulnerable to outside competition in the long run. (Di Domenico & Di Domenico, 2007) In that sense, Murphy and Boyle have developed a conceptual model for depicting the complex relations in the process of strategic cultural tourism development in a post-industrial city. It was based on the Glasgow's experience in cultural tourism development. However, as evidenced in the prominent cultural figures interviews, the perspectives of single actors were rather opportunistic, and not strategic. (Murphy & Boyle, 2006) It is an example of the successfull strategy viewed as a learning process. Mintzberg, Ahlstrand and Lampel recognized that strategies emerge as a consequence of many small actions and decisions made by many different people. Moreover, informed individuals on all levels of hierarchy can give their contributions to the strategic process. (Mintzberg, Ahlstrand, & Lampel, 1998)

Research conduted by Najdic has found that the EU Schengen visa liberalisation for Serbian citizens in 2009 has had no major impact on the decision of Serbian tourists where to travel. However, 17.9% of tourists did say that it did affect their decision where to travel, which is a considerable figure. Economic crises has caused a general decrease of leisure travels from Serbia, and it primarily affected domestic destinations in Serbia and in neighbouring Montenegro on the Adriatic coast. The favourite destinations of Serbian tourists are: Montengro 30%, Greece 26%, and Serbia itself 16%. (Najdic & Sekulovic, 2012) In 2009., a 4 year positive trend in domestic tourist arrivals and overnights has been stopped, from which Serbian tourism has not yet recovered. This negative trend is probably a mixture of economic recession in Serbia, which led to households spending less on travel, and potential substitution of every 5th domestic leisure travel in favour of the European Union destinations. As Pearce and Schott evidenced in their research, New Zealands domestic market also suffered from substitution of domestic destinations with

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 15-39 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

foreign ones in the last decade. This trend has also been recognized by the New Zealand government. (Pearce & Schott, 2011 Vol. 5 No. 2)

Serbian tourism offer is fairly rich due to the geographic characteristics of the terrain (rivers-most notable being the Danube, lakes, mountains), and diversity of cultures with central european and mediterranian/oriental cultural heritage, wich makes niche marketing suitable for Serbian tourism. Its core strengths are diversity and mixture of Central European and Mediterranian/Oriental cultures. However, as Kozak and Baloglu notice, destinations with diverse products and services have to be able to package them as tourism products bring them to the market in order to be successfull. (Metin Kozak, 2011)

Consumer behavior and market segmentation

Consumer behavior can be rational or irrational, in the sense that it is susceptible to messages (and values) from the reference groups and media. It can be motivated by opportunism or stopped by unforeseen circumstances. It can be influenced by marketing campaigns such as last minute offers. Consumers sometimes also engage in consumer misbehavior. This is why a legal infrastructure (or system) is an essential prerequisite for all marketing activities.

Tourists, or tourist consumers, demonstrate a high level of involvement and commitment in the service delivery process, while the service is in its very nature intangible. (Sayed, 2010) There are many different factors influencing consumer behavior in all industries, as well as their spending habits. Kotler identified as many as 15 factors that influence consumer behavior, and divided them into 4 groups: 1. Cultural (Culture, Subculture, and Social class), 2. Social (Reference groups, Family, and Roles and status), 3. Personal (Age and lifecycle stage, Occupation, Economic situation, Lifestyle, and Personality and self-concept), and 4. Psychological (Motivation, Perception, Learning, and Beliefs and attitudes). (Philip Kotler, 2006) In contrast, Swarbrooke and Horner propose a tourism consumer behaviour classification with as many as 22 factors, divided in 6 cathegories: 1. Physical, 2. Cultural, 3. Status, 4. Personal Development, 5. Personal, 6. Emotional, and 7. Physical. (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007)

In this study, factors that were analyzed according to the clasification proposed by Kotler, were: Personal (Age and lifecycle stage, Lifestylethrough daily spending and length of stay) and Psychologial (Motivation).

Analysis of markets of origin of tourits is important, because there are ceratin characteristics shared by groups from certain regions. Apart from market segmentation, Christou and Savariades propose use of ethnographic techniques to profoundly explore the factors influencing the satisfaction levels, and bring to surface new information as an input for the marketing system. (Prokopis Christou, 2010)

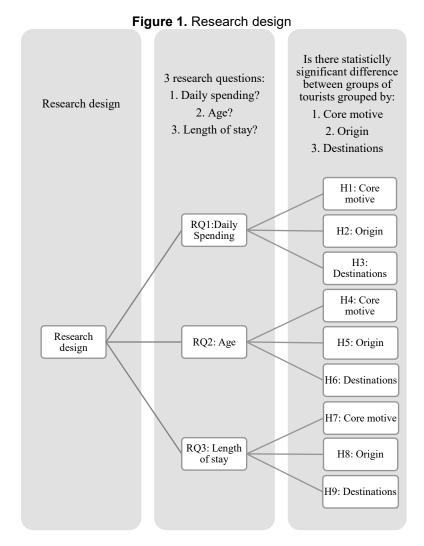
Bjork and Jansson segmented the Finish and Swedish market into three groups according to how much a habitual decision making influences the decision making process. Essentially, the consumers with habitual behavior tend to use less new information prior to a decision and reach decision faster, compared to non-habitual consumers. "When to go" is the most habitual sub-decision (2,945) followed by "where to go" (3,066) and "what to do" (3,315). "How to travel" is the least habitual sub-decision (3,667). A more fine-grained analysis shows that the two very habitual travel decisions are to take a vacation during summer time (1,820) and to have a leave at approximately the same time of the year (2,270). (Bjork Peter, 2008)

Contemporary market segmentation has to take into account the growing role of women in tourism decision aking and increased integration of marginalized groups into mainstream socio-economic developments. As Barles noted, destinations should align research, product development and promotion efforts to account for the growing power of women in purchasing decisions in Spain and in Europe. (Jose, Rafael, & Elena, 2010) Contemporary destinations design special guides for marginalized groups such as gay population and disadvantaged persons. A good practice example in that direction is the city of Seville, which published ""Guide to Accessible Tourism in Seville. Seville, Open to Everyone.", as well as "Guide for Gay Tourism". (Diez, 2011) As an be seen in this examples, the role of the Destination Management Organization can be very important in discovering all the market segments it serves, however small they are, and serving them in the best possible way.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research was designed to answer 3 simple questions:

- 1. How much tourists spend daily in Serbia?
- 2. What is the age of tourists in Serbia?
- 3. For how long do tourists stay in Serbia?



All 3 questions were then posed to different tourism market segments regarding both supply and demand criteria:

- 1. Core motive for travel (Pleasure, Fun& Entertainment, Nature, Culture, Sport& Adventure, Health, and Business)
- 2. Origin of tourist (Domestic, Western Europe and the rest of the World, Central Eastern Europe, Ex-Yugoslavia, Expatriates/Emigrants)

3. Major tourism destinations (Belgrade, Novi Sad, Nis, Kopaonik, Zlatibor&Western Serbia)

Nine pairs of the null and alternate hypothesis were created in order for the null hypothesis to be tested. The statistical test was the one-way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) in the SPSS software, with post-hoc Tukey test. The goal was to test for statistical significance in the data originally organized in a Randomized Block Design.

In order to better understand the full relations between the supply and demand market segments, the study concentrated also on calculating the market shares of each one of the market segments.

COLLECTION OF THE DATA

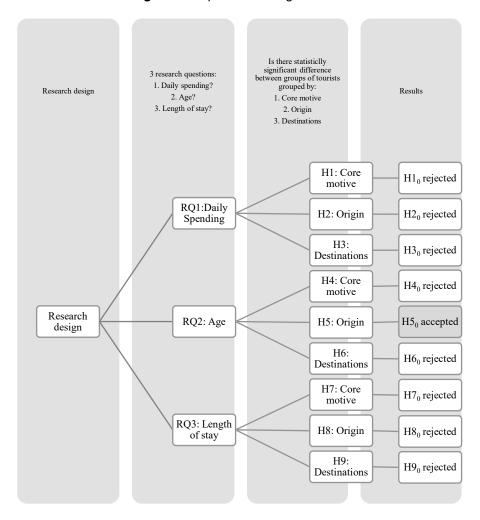
The data was collected through conducting Serbia Guest Survey 2011. The survey has been conducted as a component of the EU financed project: "Support to implementation of the National Strategy for Tourism", and produced a large amount of data, of which only one portion is used in the presented study. The objectives of the survey were to assess tourist profiles, core motives for travel, booking habits, expenditures, satisfaction and image perception of Serbia.

Total sample was 1500 respondents on the following locations in Serbia: Belgrade, Novi Sad, Zlatibor, Guca, Kopaonik, Fruska Gora, Zasavica, Vrdnik, Erdevik, Sremska Mitrovica, Divcibare, Valjevo, Banja Vrujci, Sokobanja, Vrnjacka banja, Banja Koviljaca, Niska banja, Nis, Subotica, Vrsac, Palicko jezero, Belocrkvanska jezera, Srebrno jezero, Ecka, Skorenovac.

The fieldwork was done only for the summer season: from July 11 2011 to September 5 2011.

REPORT OF FINDINGS

Figure 2. Report of Findings



Testing hypothesis H1

The null and alternate hypothesis were created in order to test the hypothesis H1:

H1₀: There is no statistically significant difference between 7 groups of tourists grouped by core motive for travel, in terms of mean daily spending.

H1_A: There is statistically significant difference between 7 groups of tourist grouped by core motive for travel, in terms of mean daily spending.

Table 3. Testing hypothesis H1

ANOVA Spending

	Sum of				
	Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	105762.292	6	17627.049	6.589	.000
Within Groups	3983203.229	1489	2675.086		
Total	4088965.521	1495			

One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was used as the test statistic. The calculated value of F=6.589 was greater than the critical value of 2.8, at the 0.01 significance level. The null hypothesis H10 was thus rejected, and alternate hypothesis H1A was accepted as true.

Testing hypothesis H2

The null and alternate hypotheses were created in order to test the hypothesis H2:

H2₀: There is no statistically significant difference between 7 groups of tourists grouped by core motive for travel, in terms of mean age.

H2_A: There is statistically significant difference between 7 groups of tourist grouped by core motive for travel, in terms of mean age.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 15-39 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

Table 4. Testing hypothesis H2

ANOVA AgeGroup

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	39960.715	6	6660.119	42.746	.000
Within Groups	232777.373	1494	155.808		
Total	272738.089	1500			

One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was used as the test statistic. The calculated value of F=42.746 was greater than the critical value of 2.8, at the 0.01 significance level. The null hypothesis H20 was thus rejected, and alternate hypothesis H2A was accepted as true.

Testing hypothesis H4

The null and alternate hypothesis were created in order to test the hypothesis H3:

H3₀: There is no statistically significant difference between 7 groups of tourists grouped by core motive for travel, in terms of mean length of stay.

H3_A: There is statistically significant difference between 7 groups of tourist grouped by core motive for travel, in terms of mean length of stay.

Table 5. Testing hypothesis H3

ANOVA LengthGroup

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	164.550	6	27.425	25.088	.000
Within Groups	1633.153	1494	1.093		
Total	1797.703	1500			

One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was used as the test statistic. The calculated value of F=25.088 was greater than the critical value of 2.8, at the 0.01 significance level. The null hypothesis H30 was thus rejected, and alternate hypothesis H3A was accepted as true.

Testing hypothesis H4

The null and alternate hypothesis were created in order to test the hypothesis H4:

H4₀: There is no statistically significant difference between 5 groups of tourists grouped by region/country of origin, in terms of mean daily spending.

H4_A: There is statistically significant difference between 5 groups of tourists grouped by region/country of origin, in terms of mean daily spending.

Table 6. Testing hypothesis H4

ANOVA ExpendGroup

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1158.500	4	289.625	78.125	.000
Within Groups	5553.381	1498	3.707		
Total	6711.882	1502			

One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was used as the test statistic. The calculated value of F=78.125 was greater than the critical value of 3.32, at the 0.01 significance level. The null hypothesis H40 was thus rejected, and alternate hypothesis H4A was accepted as true.

Testing hypothesis H5

The null and alternate hypothesis were created in order to test the hypothesis H5:

H5₀: There is no statistically significant difference between 5 groups of tourists grouped by region/country of origin, in terms of mean age.

H5_A: There is statistically significant difference 5 groups of tourists grouped by region/country of origin, in terms of mean age.

One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was used as the test statistic. The calculated value of F=3.145 was lower than the critical value of 3.32, at the 0.01 significance level. The null hypothesis H50 was thus accepted as true.

Table 7. Testing hypothesis H5

ANOVA

AgeGroup

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between	23.811	4	5.953	3.145	.014
Groups					
Within Groups	2831.918	1496	1.893		
Total	2855.730	1500			

Testing hypothesis H6

The null and alternate hypothesis were created in order to test the hypothesis H6:

H6₀: There is no statistically significant difference between 5 groups of tourists grouped by region/country of origin, in terms of mean length of the trip.

H6_A: There is statistically significant difference between 5 groups of tourists grouped by region/country of origin, in terms of mean length of the trip.

Table 8. Testing hypothesis H6

ANOVA

LengthOfStav

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between	52.306	4	13.076	11.136	.000
Groups					
Within Groups	1756.620	1496	1.174		
Total	1808.926	1500			

One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was used as the test statistic. The calculated value of F=11.136 was greater than the critical value of 3.32, at the 0.01 significance level. The null hypothesis H60 was thus rejected, and alternate hypothesis H6A was accepted as true.

Testing hypothesis H7

The null and alternate hypothesis were created in order to test the hypothesis H7:

H7₀: There is no statistically significant difference between tourists on 5 major destinations, in terms of mean daily spending.

H7_A: There is statistically significant difference between tourists on 5 major destinations, in terms of mean daily spending.

Table 9. Testing hypothesis H7

ANOVA

ExpendGroup

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between	244.736	4	61.184	14.379	.000
Groups					
Within Groups	3535.986	831	4.255		
Total	3780.722	835			

One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was used as the test statistic. The calculated value of F=14.379 was greater than the critical value of 3.32, at the 0.01 significance level. The null hypothesis H70 was thus rejected, and alternate hypothesis H7A was accepted as true.

Testing hypothesis H8

The null and alternate hypothesis were created in order to test the hypothesis H8:

H8₀: There is no statistically significant difference between tourists on 5 major destinations, in terms of mean age.

H8_A: There is statistically significant difference between tourists on 5 major destinations, in terms of mean age.

Table 10. Testing hypothesis H8

ANOVA

AgeGroup

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between	89.759	4	22.440	13.574	.000
Groups					
Within Groups	1380.408	835	1.653		
Total	1470.167	839			

One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was used as the test statistic. The calculated value of F=13.574 was greater than the critical

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 15-39 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

value of 3.32, at the 0.01 significance level. The null hypothesis H80 was thus rejected, and alternate hypothesis H8A was accepted as true.

Testing hypothesis H9

The null and alternate hypothesis were created in order to test the hypothesis H9:

H9₀: There is no statistically significant difference between tourists on 5 major destinations, in terms of mean length of stay.

H9_A: There is statistically significant difference between tourists on 5 major destinations, in terms of mean length of stay.

Table 11. Testing hypothesis H9 **ANOVA**

LengthOfStayGroup

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between	31.353	4	7.838	6.749	.000
Groups					
Within Groups	970.973	836	1.161		
Total	1002.326	840			

One way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was used as the test statistic. The calculated value of F=6.749 was greater than the critical value of 3.32, at the 0.01 significance level. The null hypothesis H90 was thus rejected, and alternate hypothesis H9A was accepted as true.

Market shares for core motivations for travel, regions of origin and destinations

Market shares were calculated for each group separately according to the formula:

Market share = (average length of stay x average daily spending x sample size)/total

The calculated values were:

- Core motivation for travel (Pleasure 34%, Fun & Entertainment 18%, Nature 13%, Culture 3%, Sport & Adventure 4%, Health 10%, and Business 15%)
- Region of origin (Domestic 53%, Western Europe and the rest of the world 19%, Central Eastern Europe 7%, Ex-Yugoslavia 8%, Expatriate/Emigrant 13%)

Destinations (Belgrade 22%, Novi Sad 5%, Nis 7%, Kopaonik 19%, Zlatibor 13%, Other 34%)

ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

Regarding the hypothesis testing of the null hypothesis $H1_0,H2_0,H3_0,H4_0,H5_0,H6_0,H7_0,H8_0$, and $H9_0$; only the hypothesis $H5_0$ has been accepted. All other null hypothesis were rejected and alternate H₁_A,H₂_A,H₃_A,H₄_A,H₆_A,H₇_A,H₈_A,H₉_A hypothesis were accepted as true.

Since all of the nine hypothesis included comparing 5 or more groups at the same time, a post-hoc Tukey tests were executed, in order to observe the mutual relationships between groups. Cluster analysis was excluded as a method of analysis because the integral table with data regarding all attributes was not available to the author. These tables were separated early on in the analysis process. The findings can be grouped into three sections: 1. Core motive for travel, 2. Major Serbian destinations, 3. Regions/countries of origin.

Core motive for travel analysis of findings

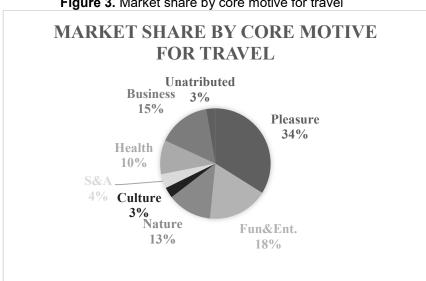


Figure 3. Market share by core motive for travel

• The 7 core motives for travel can be clustered into three separate groups by age, with statistically significant differences between groups: 1 Younger (Sport, Fun& Entertainment), 2 Middle aged (Pleasure, Business, Culture, Nature), 3 Older (Health). This was the only criteria that clustered the whole market with 7 core motives for travel into 3 clear cut groups, which are both mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive.

Table 12. Segmentation of core motives for travel by age AgeGroup

Tukey HSDa,b

		Subset for alpha = 0.01		
Motive	N	1	2	3
Sport	46	26.3043		
Fun&Entertainment	310	29.3742		
Pleasure	558		36.9382	
Business	134		37.4440	
Culture	46		38.2826	
Nature	252		39.3810	
Health	155			46.9677
Sig.		.558	.791	1.000

 Sport& Adventure and Health form a cluster with the length of stay which is statistically significantly higher than that of any other group.

Table 13. Segmentation of core motives for travel by length of stay LengthGroup

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

		Subset for alpha = 0.01		
Motive	N	1	2	3
Culture	45	1.6667		
Fun&Entertainment	311	1.7717	1.7717	
Business	135	1.7926	1.7926	
Nature	253	2.1621	2.1621	
Pleasure	557		2.1688	
Sport&Adventure	45			2.7333
Health	155			2.8581
Sig.		.012	.089	.978

Region/country of origin analysis of findings

Figure 4. Market share by region of origin



Table 14. Clustering regions of origin of tourists by Daily Expenditures **ExpendGroup**

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

		Subset for alpha = 0.01		
OriginRegion	N	1	2	3
Domestic	1160	4.5164		
Ex-Yugoslavia	100		5.9900	
Expatriates/emigrants	77		6.1818	
Central Eastern Europe	74		6.5405	6.5405
W. Europe and rest of	92			7.3478
the world				
Sig.		1.000	.239	.022

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 15-39 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

- Domestic tourists have statistically significant lower daily spending from all other groups of tourists regardless of the region of origin.
- Expatriates/Emigrants have longer length of stay with statistical significance, from all other tourists in Serbia, regardless of their region of origin.

Table 15. Clustering regions of origin of tourists by length of stay LengthOfStay

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

		Subset for alpha = 0.01	
OriginRegion	N	1	2
Domestic	1160	2.0672	
Central Eastern Europe	73	2.1233	
Ex-Yugoslavia	97	2.1237	
W. Europe and the rest of the	93	2.2688	
world			
Expatriates/Emigrants	78		2.8974
Sig.		.668	1.000

Major Serbian tourist destinations analysis of findings

 Tourists visiting Belgrade have statistically significant higher daily spending from tourists on all other major tourist destinations in Serbia.

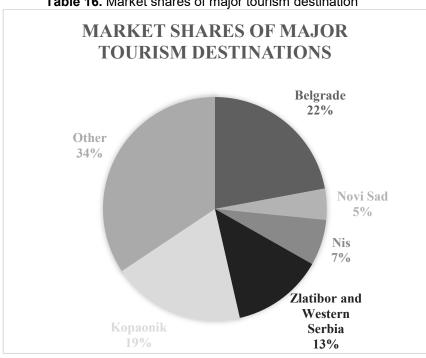


Table 16. Market shares of major tourism destination

Table 17. Clustering tourism destinations by daily expenditures ExpendGroup

Tukey HSD^{a,b}

		Subset for alpha = 0.01	
Destination	N	1	2
Novi Sad	74	4.5405	
Niš	113	4.6903	
Zlatibor and W Serbia	227	5.1013	
Kopaonik	208	5.1635	
Belgrade	214		6.1308
Sig.		.090	1.000

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Serbian tourism market is very rich in small niches on both supply and demand side of the market. This study attempted to demonstrate the important differences these groups of tourists do exhibit in terms of key behavioral traits. Tourism policy should address the identified groups of tourists with specially designed marketing and communication strategies, appropriate to the tourist's needs and attitudes.

As a continuation of the Serbia Guest Survey 2011, another survey should be conducted during winter season. The questionnaire should also include the secondary motivation for trip in order to better understand motivation for trip. The data from EUROBAROMETER show that culture is a strong secondary motivator for visits, especially for city tourism. (World Tourism Organization and European Travel Commission, 2005)

Apart from only city tourists, all groups of tourists are most likely to be influenced by multiple motivations. Every tourists and potential tourist is influenced by multiple motivators in the process of buying and consuming the service, and is always balancing these multiple motivations. (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007)

REFERENCES

- Armenski, T., Zakić, L. & Dragin, A. (2009). Foreign tourists perception of the Image of Serbia. *Bulletin of the Serbian Geographical Society Tome 89 No. 1.*
- Bjork, P. & Jansson, T. (2008). Travel Decision-making: The Role of Habit. Tourismos Vol. 3 No. 2, 11-34.
- Bresler, N. (2011 Volume 15, Issue 2). Decision Factors for Domestic Package Tours Case Study of a Region in South Africa. *TURIZAM*, 53-64.
- Di Domenico, C. & Di Domenico, M. (2007). Heritage and urban renewal in Dundee: Learning from the past when planning for the future of a post-industrial city. *Journal of Retail and Leisure property*.
- Diez, P.R. (2011). Actuation and Promotion Mechanisms of Urban Tourism: The Case of Seville (Spain). *Turizam Vol. 15 No. 1*, 26-39.
- Dunne, G., Flanagan, S., & Buckley, J. (2011). Towards a decision making model for city break travel. *INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CULTURE, TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY RESEARCH Vol. 5 No. 2*, 158-172.
- Hara, T. & Kasimoglu, M. (2012). Strategies for Tourism Indutry- Micro and Macro Perspectives. Rijeka: InTech.

- Horwath Consuting Zagreb and University of Belgrade Faculty of Economics. (2006). *Tourism Strategy of the Republic of Serbia*. Belgrade: Government of the Reublic of Serbia.
- Jose, B., Rafael, B. & Elena, F. (2010). Influence of women 's lifestyles on holiday decisions. *Advances in Tourism Destination Marketing*.
- Kotler, P., & Armstrong, G. (2006). *Priniples of Marketing, 11th Edition*. Upper Saddle River: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Maitland, R. (2010). Everyday life as a creative experience in the cities. International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research Vol. 4 No. 3.
- Mehter, A.S. & Sevcan, Y. (2012 Vol. 7 No. 1). EUROPEAN TOURISM POLICY AND REFLECTIONS OF TOURISM IN THE NEGOTIATIONS WITH TURKEY. *TOURISMOS*, 383-395.
- Metin, K., & Seyhmus, B. (2011). *Managing and Marketing Tourist Destinations*. New York: Routledge.
- Minghetti, V., & Montagutti, F. (2010). Assessing Istanbul competitiveness: a multidimensional approach. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, Vol.4 No.3, 232.
- Mintzberg, H., Ahlstrand, B. & Lampel, J. (1998). *Strategy Safary*. New York: The Free Press.
- Murphy, C. & Boyle, E. (2006). Testing a conceptual model of cultural tourism development in the post-industrial city: A case study of Glasgow. *Tourism and Hositality Research*, Vol. 6 No. 2.
- Najdic, M., & Sekulovic, N. (2012). Behavior of Serbian Tourists During Economic Crisis: Two Empirical Researches. *Turizam*, 180-192.
- Official Gazzette of the Republic of Serbia. (2006). Strategy of Tourism Development of the Republic of Serbia. 91/2006. Official Gazzette of the Republic of Serbia.
- Pearce, D.G. & Schott, C. (2011 Vol. 5 No. 2). Domestic vs outbound booking and channel choice behavior: evidence from New Zealand. INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CULTURE, TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY RESEARCH, 112-127.
- Petković, G. & Pindžo, R. (2012). Tourism and new economic challenges. *Ekonomika preduzeca Vol. 60, br. 1-2*.
- Prokopis, C. & Saveriades, A. (2010). The use of Ethnography to explore Tourist Satisfaction Antecedents. *Tourismos Vol. 5 No. 1*, 89-100.
- Sayed, A.A. (2010). Evaluating the Relationship between Socio-demographic Variables, Travel Experience and Probability to return to Destination. *Tourismos Vol. 5 No. 1*, 111-129.
- Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia. (2013, July 6). Retrieved from Statistical Office of the Republic of Serbia website: http://webrzs.stat.gov.rs/WebSite/Public/PageView.aspx?pKey=182
- Swarbrooke, J. & Horner, S. (2007). Consumer Behaviour in Tourism, Second Edition. Oxford: Elsevier.

UNWTO (World Tourism Organization). (2011). *Tourism Towards 2030 Global Overview*. Madrid: UNWTO (World Tourism Organization).

World Tourism Organization and European Travel Commission. (2005). *City Tourism & Culture*. Madrid: World Tourism Organization.

SUBMITTED: SEP 2014 REVISION SUBMITTED: JAN 2015 ACCEPTED: MAR 2015 REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Ivan Paunovic (ivan.paunovic.12@singimail.rs) is presently a Doctoral studies student at Singidunum Universit, Tosin bunar 16, 11080 Belgrade, Serbia.

TOURIST MOTIVATION IN HIGHLAND DESTINATION: CASE STUDEY IN PENANG HILL, MALAYSIA

Najihah bte Azmi Universiti Sains Malaysia

Azizan bin Marzuki Universiti Sains Malaysia

This research was conducted to investigate the factors that motivate tourist to visit highland destination as well as to study the relationship between sociodemographic factor and travelling characteristics found in the tourist motivations to visit highland destinations. The accomplishment of this research was achieved through the accumulation of empirical data at Penang Hill, Malaysia using complete set of questionnaires. By using the principal component analysis, this study has identified three push and pull factors. The three push factors are "escape factor"; "to rest and build closer bond factor; "prestige and safety factor". The pull factors that can be identified are "the beauty of nature factors"; "infrastructure of the city and George Town factor" and "management and safety factor". Furthermore, the results of multiple regression analysis performed show that the manipulated variables (socio-demographic and travel characteristics) have influenced the tourist motivation in highland destinations.

Keywords: Tourists Motivation, Socio-Demographic, Travel Characteristic, Multiple Regression Analysis. Highlands Destination Tourism, Penang Hill

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

The demand of the tourism industry is the output of tourist motivation supported by the marketing, destination features, contingency factor such as health, time and money (Pearce & Butler, 1993). According to Crompton (1979), Cha, McCleary, & Uysal (1995), Yoon & Uysal (2005), "tourist motivation" is one of the approaches to understand the

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521





needs and behaviors of the tourist. Tourist motivation is an important indicator in the research development of tourism industry. It is the major medium that will influence the decision and choice of the tourists to travel (Wearing & Neil, 1999). Yousefi (2011) noted that a high level of understanding towards the tourist motivation is the main key for tourism product marketing success. Therefore, tourist motivation plays an important role in designing and planning of the tourism product marketing. The objectives of this research are 1) to investigate the motivations of tourists in the highlands and 2) to investigate the relationship between socio-demographic factors and motivations of the tourists visiting highland tourism destinations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Dann (1981), tourist's motivation draws back to the question – "Why does someone travel?". There are many discoveries that have been found to answer the question above such as to escape from the daily routine and its support from some academic research related tourist motivation. (Beh & Bruyere; 2008; Moscardo, Morrison, Pearce, Lang & O'Leary,1996; Yuan & McDonald; 1990)

There are also some researchers who are using the Maslow's hierarchy of needs Model in describing the tourist motivation. This model explains the biological and psychological needs, safety needs, love or belonging needs, esteem needs and self-actualization needs(Hsu & Huang,2008). Maslow(1948)(cited by Hsu & Huang,2008) suggests that the most basic level of needs must be met before the individual will strongly desire for the secondary or higher level of needs. Pearce (1982) applied this theory in socio-logical study of tourists and disagreed that the tourists travelled only to fulfill their psychological and biological needs, safety, love, self-satisfaction and self improvement. But they also need to consider the aspects of avoidance in motivational research which put safety as the main feature.

Based on the research conducted, Pearce (1988) built the Travel Career Ladder Model. The model explained the needs and tourist motivation arranged in the form of a ladder. Relaxation factor is a basic factor and at the lowest level in the theory, followed by a safety factor, relationships, self-esteem and fulfillment (Pearce, 1988). Ryan (1998) argues that this model based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs and the needs of tourists showed psychological maturity to achieve the goals toward self-actualization. It can be showed as a mature psychological or good health.

Apart from the Travel Career Ladder Model, Scale "Leisure" Motivation Model was also designed and built based on the model of Maslow's Needs (Beard & Ragheb,1980; Ragheb & Beard,1982; Beard & Ragheb 1983). Within this model, Ragheb & Beard (1982) stated that there are four factors that influenced the tourists' motivation; they are intellectual, social, competence-mastery and stimulus-avoidance factor; assessed through three components of the cognitive component, affective component and behavioral component. Ryan & Glendon (1998) in their study of British travelers found that, generally, most respondents tend to lean towards stimulus-avoidance factor compared to other factors in this theory.

Although several of motivational theories are being presented, push and pull theory is often used by researchers in tourist motivation studies (Dann, 1977; Dann, 1981; Crampton; 1979; Cha, McCleary & Uysal, 1995; Wang, 2004; Kim, Lee & Klenosky, 2003; Yuan & McDonald, 1990; Oh, Uysal, & Weaver, 1995). Based on the previous research, push factors refer to the psychological the aspects of internal factors that motivate someone to travel (Yoon & Uysal, 1995; Crampton, 1979). Among the push factors which often discovered by researchers are novelty, escape from daily routine, relaxation, social and others. Dann (1977) cited the concept of anomie and ego-enhancement. Anomie to the situation perceived by tourists which felt like meaningless and normlessness in life and surroundings.

Meanwhile ego-enhancement signifies a level of personality needs. Ego-enhancement is usually associated by lack of relative status by the individual within the environment. Vacation to tourism destinations is seen as one way to overcome it and as an opportunity to improve their self-confidence. Apart from the push factors (sociological factor), pull factors also play an important role in the understanding of tourists' motivation. Pull factors referred to features available in the tourism destinations (Dann, 1981; Crampton; 1979; Cha, McCleary & Uysal, 1995; Wang, 2004; Kim, Lee & Klenosky, 2003; Yuan & McDonald, 1990; Oh, Uysal, & Weaver, 1995).

The pull factor refer to the surroundings of the tourism destinations such as the natural form of the landscape and environment, the community and the culture of local customs, local hospitality, services such as accommodation, transport, security, as well as the costs and expenses necessarily to be incurred by tourists (Kozak & Rimmington, 2009; Kim, 1998). Kim, Lee & Klenosky (2003) remarked that the natural attractions, comfortable facilities, information preparation about the

tourism destination as well as accessibility and transportation are important attraction factor at 6 national parks in South Korea.

Socio-demographic is an essential element and is often tested in previous research (Jang & Wu, 2006; Woo, Yolal, Cetinel & Uysal, 2011; Wang, 2004; Kim, Borges & Chon, 2006; Kim, Lee & Klenosky, 2003). Jang & Wu (2006) stated that demographic factors such as age, gender and economic status are the important element to understand the behavior and tourist motivation. However relationship of travel characteristics towards the study of motivation is still not widely studied particularly at the highland tourism destination.

Highland Tourists' Motivation

Table 1 below shows a research on tourist motivation in highland destinations with an altitude of 300 meters above sea level (Ko" rner, et al., 2005).

Push factors at Highland Tourism Destination

Based on previous research carried out on the highland tourism destination, the social factor is often used in tourist motivation research in the area whether in the form of human interaction as well as the desire to enjoy and have fun with the tourism product available. The factors such as the desire to be with family, to create closer bond (*silaturahim*), sense of belonging, togetherness and socialization were the factors often found in previous research.

Undoubtedly, the average tourist preferred a tourism destination that offers social attraction. Studies organized by Woo, Yolal, Cetinel, and Uysal (2011) proved that socialization factor (for example, to have fun with people of similar interests) was the main motivation for tourists who visit the International Festival of Eskisehir, Turkey. Similarly, the study conducted by Kim, Borges, and Chon (2006), also showed that being with family and socializing, is the main element that triggers the tourist motivation in making choices. Meanwhile, other studies directed by Budruk, White, Wodrich, & Riper (2008), Pan & Ryan (2007), Money (2004) and Schofield & Thompson (2007) also listed the social factor as the push factors that motivate tourists to visit tourism destination.

Table 1. Previous Research in Highland Destination

Tab	le 1. Previous	Research in F	ilgilianu Destina	alion
Researcher	Research location and the elevation from the sea level (m)	Tourists' Profile	Push Factor (Socio- Psychological)	Pull Factor (Destination Attribute)
Wang (2004)	Huangshan Mountain (1864 m)	Majority: Male, 25-64 years old, at least have a secondary school education, come by group, earning more than 1000 yuan.	for relaxation and health, to appreciate the beauty of nature and to gain knowledge, to create closer relationship, prestige, novelty and challenge	high quality tourism resources, comfortable tourism area, easier access to information and convenient facilities, management and tourism area
Poria, Butler & Airey (2004)	Jurussalem(754 m)	The majority of the respondents were men between 20-29 years old. Those who visited the Wailing Wall and Massada is Christian	To gain experience on heritage / emotional, recreational and cultural / educational	
Kim, Borges & Chon (2006)	Goias, Brazil (626.4 m)	Majority: Male, under 37 years old, at least high school educated, earning less than R \$ 4,800, travel in a group (more than 4 people)	to spend time with family, socialization, to escape the daily busy routine	tourist (Goias) and festival attractions
Pan & Ryan (2007)	Pirongia Forest Park (959 m)	Majority: Male, between 21-40 years old, works in the managerial and professional, and has a tertiary education.	Relaxation, social, sense of belonging, expertise and intellectual	Infrastructure and Nature

		Majority: men,		
Schofield & Thompson (2007)	Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia, (1301.5 m)	aged below 34 years old, Mongolia community	for cultural exploration, "togetherness" socialization	sports activities attractions and special events of local culture
Budruk, White, Wodrich & Riper (2008)	Canyon de Chelly National Monument, Arizona (1696.8 m)	Majority: Male and have at least has a third level of education. Average age of the tourist are 51.98 years	to enjoy nature, to gain knowledge, to be with family, introspection	Navajo cultural identity and place
Beh & Bruyere (2008)	Kenya National Reserves- Samburu National Reserve, Buffalo Springs National Reserve and Shaba National Reserve (762- 1,219 metres)	Average age of 41 years, the majority of tertiary educated (bachelor degree) and originated from European countries	to escape from the daily routine, to learn the local culture, to build strong character, to gain knowledge, to seek challenges	mega-fauna, "general viewing"
Woo, Yolal, Cetinel & Uysal(2011)	Eskisehir, Turki (794.6 m)	Majority: Female; single, at least has tertiary education (college), under 30 years old	Socialization, fun, to escape, to be with family	novelty events
Litte & Needham (2011)	Mt. Bachelor ski area , Oregon (1935 m- 2763 m)	The majority of respondents are males and the average age of the respondents are 39.8 years old		VEP and nature, food and service, lifts and trails, natural beauty, access to the mountain, advertising and events for young people; lift access and price.

Other than that, gaining knowledge factor is one of the motivations that often tested in the tourist motivation research in highland tourism destination. Learning the culture and customs of the locals as well as

appreciating the beauty of nature was the one that triggers the tourist motivation to travel to the highland region.

As Schofield and Thompson (2007) had worked on, the main tourist motivation to go to Nadaam Festival in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia is to explore the local culture. The reason behind the tourists' visitation to Nadaam Festival was triggered by the desire to learn, explore and to experience the Mongolian culture, similar with the tourists who visited the Canyon de Chelly National Monument, Arizona (Budruk, White, Wodrich, & Riper, 2008). The tourists who visited the Canyon de Chelly National Monument were motivated to improve their knowledge of history, archeology studies and to pursue and enjoy the culture of Navajo. Wang (2004) discovered that the motivation of the tourists in visiting Mount Huangshan in China is to improve their knowledge of the tourism destinations. This is because Mount Huangshan is one of the world heritage area designated by UNESCO in terms of culture and the beauty of nature. The motivations mentioned are the triggering nudge that influenced tourists to visit the respective destinations.

The idea of escapade from the daily routine and relaxation were also among one of the tourist motivations to visit the highland tourism destinations. Pan and Ryan (2007) stated that most of the tourists who visited the Pirongia Forest Park travelled to the area to relax and calm their mind down. They were motivated to enjoy the fresh air, to escape from the daily routine, to relax and to build an effective mind. Similar to the study conducted by Wang (2004), it had been proven that the main push factors for tourists who choose to visit Mount Huangshan in China are especially intended for relaxation and health.

Pull Factor (Destination Attributes)

The uniqueness and specialty of the tourism destination is the major attraction for tourists to travel. For example, the Wailing Wall became the preferred choice for the Jewish and Christian religious rituals. Therefore, most of the respondents preferred to visit a place due to its high sense of belonging towards that place (Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2004).

Besides that, the uniqueness of the Canyon de Chelly National Monument is part of pull factor for tourists to visit (Budruk, White, Wodrich, & Riper, 2008). The destination is complete with an attractive features of a unique monument, archaeological and cultural features that have made this a preferred destination for the tourists. Respondents also

felt that their visit to Canyon de Chelly National Monument had left deep meaning and clear trace in their heart.

Comparable with the study conducted by Kim, Borges, and Chon (2006) which depicted that the attraction within the tourism area and festivals were the main factor to visit International Festival of Environmental Film and Video (FICA) Festival in Brazil. Other than the attractive input from the FICA festivals, the tourists also think it was a great opportunity to visit Goias which is a World Heritage Site accredited by UNESCO based on its cultural elements.

However, it is undeniable that the uniqueness of nature environment should be accounted as the main attractions in tourism destination. It can be proven by the research conducted by Wang (2004); that the beauty of the nature is the main attraction for the tourist to visit Mount Huangshan. In addition, there are other pull factors at the tourism destination which include comfortable environment, good access to relevant information about the tourism destinations, comfortable facilities and proper management as well as good services. Homogenously, the study conducted by Little and Needham (2011) specified that the beauty of nature and the surroundings of Mount Bachelor is a major tourism attraction for the tourists to visit.

Beh and Bruyere (2008) reported that the main factor which attracts tourists to the Reserve National Park in Kenya is due to the diversity of flora and fauna. Semburu National Reserve, Buffalo Spring National Reserve and Shaba National Reserve are rich with unique wildlife such as *Somali Ostrich, Beisa Oxryx* and *Gernuk*.

Apart from the unique factors, the infrastructure factor also contributed in drawing the tourists' attention to visit the tourism destination. Infrastructural facilities such as road signs, adequate parking space, clean toilet and good condition of hiking trails and safe from the wildlife are an ultimate attraction of Prongua Forest Park in New Zealand. It is similar with the research carried out by Little and Needham (2011), which proved that the infrastructure facilities like lifts service and trails to the ski area as well as the mountain and the beauty of nature are the factors that attract the tourist to visit Mount Bachelor in Oregon.

Socio-demographic and travel characteristic relationship towards the Push and Pull Factor at Highland tourism destination.

A majority of previous researches focused on the relationship between the socio-demographic of the tourist and the tourist motivation.

However, the relationship between the travel characteristics and the tourist motivation is still lacking especially in highland tourism destinations. Travel characteristic research was generally conducted by Kim, Borges & Chon (2006) but a detailed analysis of significant travel characteristic relationship was under-utilized.

However, the socio-demographic relationship factor among tourist motivation was often resolved by researchers by studying the relationship of socio-demographic and motivational factors. Based on the highland tourist motivation research, the socio-demographic factors have influenced the push factor to travel to the highland tourism destinations. In a study performed by Woo, Yolal, Cetinel, and Uysal (2011) showed that the tourists that visited the rock performance (2.827) have low motivation factors against the factors of "being together with the family" compared to the the tourists who choose other tourism products offered at the International Festival in Eskisehir, Turkey [symphony (3.726), world music (3.390), dance (3.609), ballet (3.572) and theater (3.519)]. This is due to 52 percent of the tourists who visited the rock show comes from the age group under 23 years old compared to tourists visited other tourism products in which the majority is of 23 years old and above.

Apart from that, the tourist statistics in Eskiseher International Festival, tourists who visited the FICA (International Festival of Environmental Film and Video), Brazil also proved that sociodemographic factors influenced tourist motivation to go to the festival. Younger age group (under 37 years) are more motivated towards the factor of 'escaping the daily routine' compared to the older age group (38-47 years). The study also showed that the middle age groups are more motivated towards the gist of the festival than the younger age groups.

This matter is proven in a study conducted by Wang (2004), which confirms that the tourists under the age of 24 years are more motivated towards the factor of "novelty", "seeking challenges", "to appreciate the nature" and "to gain knowledge" compared to those in the age group of 24 years old and above.

Wang (2004) noted in the research that the age groups below 15 years old are more motivated to seek information on the facilities and services of the comfortable facilities than the age group 15 years and above. In addition, the age groups of 45-64 years old are more motivated towards management and services at Mount Huangshan than the other age groups.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Field Location Area

Primary data collection was done at Penang Hill. It is located at the Air Itam in Penang Northeast District. In terms of geography, Penang Hill is located 823 meters above sea level and has an average temperature of 20 ° C-27 ° C.

Data Collection

The field study was done on 3rd May 2012 until 6th May 2012 at the Upper Station Penang Hill Railway. The Upper Station Penang Hill Railway has been selected as the center for distribution of the questionnaires because it is a major transit for the tourists to return to the foothill after visiting the hill.

A total of 400 sets of questionnaires were distributed to the tourists. Overall, 300 sets of questionnaires were distributed to local tourists and 100 sets of questionnaires to foreign tourists. The questionnaire's distribution was based on a tourists' statistic who visited Penang Hill issued by the Penang Hill Corporation.

In this study, respondents were given the opportunity to return the questionnaire directly to the researcher during the field research or via email afterwards, as stated in the questionnaire within a specified time. Overall, the response for this research was 55.75 percent, or about 223 sets of questionnaires were fully collected. The response of foreign tourists is higher by 65 percent (65 respondents) than the local tourists at 52.67 per cent (158 respondents) based on the number of questionnaires that were carried out.

Data Instruments

The questionnaire was designed based on the tourist motivation research in highland tourism destination and the features that are available at Penang Hill. The questions in the survey are divided into 4 sections – they are socio-demographic, characteristics of the trip, tourists' motivation (push factors) and tourism destination attraction (pull factors). The purpose of the first and second section (socio-demographic and characteristics of the trip) was to provide the second objective of the study while the third and fourth section were prepared to identify the push and pull factors of the tourists to travel to the highland tourism destinations. In

this section, 26 push and pull factors are provided. These sections are assessed through Likert scale (1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree).

RESULTS

Analysis of Socio-Demographic and Travel

Table 2 showed a summary derived from the socio-demographic analysis. Generally, most of the tourists who visited Penang Hill consist of local citizens (70.9%), male (57%), aged between 21 to 30 years old (48.4%), students (34.10%), people who received information of the tourism destinations through family and friends (33.20), and the purpose of the visit was 'on vacation' (86.10%) and 'travelling with friends' (44.40%).

Table 2. Socio-Demography Analysis in Penang Hill

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
So	ocio-demography fac	tors
Gender		
Male	127.00	57.00
Female	96.00	43.00
Age		
20 years old and below	31.00	13.90
21-30 years old	108.00	48.40
31-40 years old	31.00	13.90
Variable	Frequency	Percentage
41-50 years old	18.00	8.10
51-60 years old	20.00	9.00
60 years old and above	15.00	6.70
Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Occupation		
Self-employed/owns	28.00	12.60
business		
Civil servants	31.00	13.90
Housewife	9.00	4.00
Student	76.00	34.10
Professional	32.00	14.30
Management	18.00	8.10
Retirees	13.00	5.80

Others	16.00	7.20							
Nationality									
Malaysian	158.00	70.90							
Non-Malaysian	65.00	29.10							
Travel Characteristic									
Destination information Source									
Newspapers	10.00	4.50							
Television	22.00	9.90							
Internet	46.00	20.60							
Family and friends	74.00	33.20							
Past experience	45.00	20.20							
Tourism agency	12.00	5.40							
Others	14.00	6.30							
Purpose of visit									
Business	2.00	0.90							
Holiday	192.00	86.10							
Others	29.00	13.00							
Group type									
Alone	17.00	7.60							
Family	80.00	35.90							
Friends	99.00	44.40							
Others	27.00	12.10							

Factor Analysis

In this analysis, 12 push motivations and 12 pull motivations are analyzed using factor analysis in which the application of the varimax rotation procedure is to examine the push and pull factors affecting the choice the highland destination's tourists, took place. The first criterion involved in this analysis being issued was when the eigenvalue factor exceeded more than 1.0. The second selection of criteria for every motivation should exceed 0.4 onwards. The majority of statistical set that 0.4 is the minimum value for a variable to be acceptable in the analysis (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2006; Pallant, 2007; Field, 2009). In addition, the push and pull factors will also be analyzed using the analysis of reliability by using the Cronbach Alpha value. In the research, the minimum value for an acceptable reliability analysis is 0.7 but for exploratory research, the minimum value is 0.6. (Hair et al, 2006).

Push Factor

Based on the factor analysis performed, 3 factors were extracted from 12 push motivation. The factor analysis of push motivation is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Push Factor

Push factors (socio-psychological) with	Factor	Comm	Eigen	Varian	Cronbac		
variables	Loading	onality	values	(percent)	h Alpha		
				T			
1. Rest and to create closer bond	1. Rest and to create closer bond						
Can refresh the mind and be inspired	0.622	0.777					
To get a break physically and mentally.	0.613	0.601					
To spend time with someone special.	0.619	0.400					
To build close bonds with family and friends.	0.775	0.735					
Being able to do activities together with family and.	0.678	0.578					
2. Prestige and safety			1.568	13.064	0.802		
Visit a tourism destination that never visited by friends.	0.758	0.578					
Dreaming to visit this place.	0.710	0.618					
To visit a place where family and friends. wish to visit.	0.780	0.669					
visit a destination that will attract the attention of your friends and family.	0.694	0.659					
the place that safe and secure.	0.501	0.482					
			•				
	-		1.012	8.436	0.636		
3. Escape							
3. Escape to escape the daily routine	0.807	0.672			•		
•	0.807 0.781	0.672 0.693	-				

Rest and to create closer bond is the most dominant factor and it possesses more variances of 40 600 from 62 100 per cent of motivation factors with factor loading over 0613. This factor consists of 5 push motivations: "To refresh the mind and be inspired" (0.622): "To get a break physically and mentally" (0.613): "To spend time with someone special" (0.619): "To build close bonds with family and friends "(0.775):"

Being able to do activities together with family and friends "(0.678). The reliability analysis for these factors are 0.786.

Meanwhile, the second factor that influenced the respondents to go to Penang Hill is the safe and prestige factor. This factor accumulated the variance over 13 064 from 62 100 per cent with every motivation of factor loading more than 0.501. This factor has 5 push motivations: "Visit a tourism destination that never visited by friends" (0.758): "Dreaming to visit this place" (0.710): "To visit a place which family and friends wish to visit" (0.780); "visit a destination that will attract the attention of your friends and family" (0694): "the place that safe and secure" (0.501). The reliability analysis for this factor is 0.802.

The last factor is escape which had a variance of 8.436 per cent from 62.10 per cent with every motivation of a factor loading of more than 0.781. There were 2mmotivation factors which are: "To escape the daily routine" (0.807) and To release work stress (0.781). The reliability analysis of this factor is 0.636.

Pull Factor

From over 12 pull motivations that were analyzed through analysis factor, only three factors were extracted as shown in Table 4.

Management and safety factors have variances of 42 018 per cent from 67.31 per cent with every motivation of a factor loading of more than 0611. This factor has 5 of motivation: "good supporting facilities (eg: toilets, food outlets and mosque etc)" (0.797); "efficient management and service" (0.884): "great quality of service and hospitality from the Penang Hill management "(0.796):" safe environment "(0.611);" good tourist information center "(0.687);" cheap Penang Hill funicular railway ticket prices "(0.672) Analysis of the reliability of this factor is 0.861.

The beauty of the nature factors have variants over 16.312 per cent from 67.31 per cent with every motivation of a factor loading of more than 0.836. There were 3 motivation factors which consist of: "To observe the beauty of the nature" (0.758): "To get closer to the nature" (0.710): "To enjoy the fresh air" (0.780). The reliability analysis of this factor was 0.869.

The last factor is the infrastructure and George Town which had a variance of 8.986 per cent from 67.31 per cent with every motivation of a factor loading of more than 0.563. There were 3 motivation factors which are: "To see the view of George Town" (0784): "To experience riding Penang Hill train" (0.782); "Good public transportation facilities" (0.563). The reliability analysis of this factor is 0.678.

Table 4. Pull Factor

Pull factors with variables	Factor weight age	Com mona lity	Eige n value s	Varian (perce nt)	Cronb ach Alpha
1: Management and safety			5.042	42.018	0.861
Good supporting facilities (for example: toilets, Muslim prayer room, eating places and etc.)	0.797	0.734			
Efficient management and services.	0.884	0.819			
great quality of service and hospitality from the Penang Hill management.	0.796	0.666			
Safe environment.	0.611	0.640			
good tourist information center	0.687	0.562			
Cheap Penang Hill funicular railway ticket.	0.672	0.469			
2. Natural beauty			1.957	16.312	0.869
To observe the beauty of nature.	0.841	0.772			
To get closer to the nature	0.852	0.795			
To enjoy the fresh air	0.836	0.758			
3. Infrastructure and the city of George	Town		1.078	8.986	0.678
To see the view of George Town	0.784	0.689			
To experience riding Penang Hill train	0.782	0.683			
Good public transportation facilities	0.563	0.490			
Cumulative va	ariance (pe	rcent): 67	7.31		-

Multiple Regression Analysis: Socio-Demography, Travel Characteristic and Tourist Motivation

One of the objectives of this research is to observe the significance of the socio-demographic factors and the travel characteristic of the tourists' motivation. Motivation factors derived from the factor analysis, will go through regression analysis in evaluating and significant relationship between socio-demographic factors and tourist motivation as Jang & Wu (2006) and Jang & Cai (2002) worked on. In this regression analysis,

multiple regression analysis will be performed. Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson (2006) and Field (2009) stated that the relationship between the manipulated variable and responding variable is based on the following equation:

$$Y' = Intercept + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + ... BnXn + \varepsilon$$

Y': Responding Variable value

A: Intercept

B: Regrssion coefficient value

X: Manipulated Variable value

ε: residual

So, the regression model for this analysis is:

```
Motivation Factor: A+B_1Gender+ B_2Age + B_3Occupation + B_4Nationality + B_5Tourism information + Visiting purposes + B_8Type of Group + \varepsilon
```

Before the regression analysis evaluating process was conducted, the multicollinearity taken should be into account. multicollinearity, the tolerance should be considered. "Tolerance" was the sum of independent indicator of variability which is not explained by other manipulated variables in the model and it was calculated using the formula 1-R2 for each variable (Hair et al, 2006; Pallant, 2007). Pallant (2007) suggested that a minimum value for the "Tolerance" is not less than 12:10 but Pan & Ryan (2007) uses 0.5 as the minimum value of "Tolerance" in his research. Tolerance minimum value of this research is 0.820 and the maximum value is 0.989. Tables 5 and 6 show how the multiple regressions analysis was done.

Overall, the 3 push factors and 3 pull factors model has been formed as shown in Table 5 and Table 6. Based on the analysis, only the prestige and safe factor model as well as the beauty of nature model have significant number at 0.05. Based on the analysis performed, the value of R in this study was low at 0.122 compared to research done by Jang & Wu (2006) in about 0.275. From the analysis, there are socio-demographic factors and travel characteristic factors which are significant by the same motivational factors. The factors of gender and travel purposes are significant towards the escape factor whereas, age and travel information factor are significant towards the city and the infrastructure of Georgetown factor. This analysis shows that the relationship between

socio-demographic and characteristic factor towards tourist motivation factors is either push or pull motivation

Table 5. Regression analysis for push factor

	Rest	and hening	Presti	ge and ety		ape		
		lardized icient		lardized ïcient	Unstandardized Coefficient		Tolerance	
	В	Std Error	В	Std Error	В	Std Error		
(Constant)	4.782	1.725	6.37	1.893	2.139	0.811		
Gender	-0.231	0.268	-0.028	0.294	-0.22	0.126	0.989	
Age	-0.009	0.169	-0.165	0.185	0.086	0.079	0.82	
Occupation	0.188	0.113	0.35	0.124	0.09	0.053	0.935	
Nationality	1.922	0.522	0.94	0.573	0.379	0.246	0.824	
Destination information Source	-0.137	0.155	-0.102	0.171	0.023	0.073	0.969	
Purpose of visit	0.807	0.602	1.668	0.66	0.837	0.283	0.917	
Group type	0.275	0.287	-0.227	0.315	-0.24	0.135	0.86	
F Value	3.4	51	2.5	574	3.4	68		
R ²	0.1	01	0.0)77	0.1	01		
Significant	0.0	002	0.0	014	0.002			

Table 6. Regression Analysis for Pull Factor

		1 109.00	Sion Anai	9010 101			
	Managemei	ot and				ructure e city of	
	safety	it and	Natural k	neguty.		e City of e Town	
	Unstandar	dized	Unstanda			lardized	Tolerance
	Coeeficie		Coeefic			ficient	10101
	В	Std Error	В	Std Error	B Std Error		
(Constant)	9.994	2.135	1.711	0.968	5.02	1.125	
Gender	-0.294	0.332	0.102	0.151	-0.179	0.175	0.989
Age	-0.075	0.209	-0.052	0.095	-0.241	0.11	0.82
Occupation	0.437	0.14	0.097	0.064	0.136	0.074	0.935
Nationality	2.267	0.647	0.686	0.293	1.254	0.341	0.824
Destination information Source	-0.28	0.192	-0.065	0.087	-0.167	0.101	0.969
Purpose of visit	0.079	0.745	0.533	0.338	0.411	0.392	0.917
Group type	-0.014	0.355	0.325	0.161	-0.205	0.187	0.86
F Value	4.282		2.49	4	3.	62	
R ²	0.122		0.07	5	0.1	105	
Significant	0.00		0.01	8	0.0	001	

CONCLUSION

In this study, 3 push and pull factors have been identified. Push factors consist of escape factor, rest and to build closer bonds and also prestige and safe factor. Rest and to build closer bonds factor is the major factor that motivates the tourists to visit Penang Hill. The motivations found in this factor are "to relax your mind and get inspired"; "to be physically and mentally relaxed"; "to spend time with someone special", "to build strong bonds with friends and family"; "planning activities together with friends and family ". The research findings are parallel with the research that have been done at the highlands tourism

destinations; (Kim, Borges & Chan, 2006; Schofield & Thompson, 2007; Woo, Yolal, Cetinel & Uysal, 2011; Wang, 2004) stated that their research findings in are the factors found in this research. In fact, this research was also similar to the study done by Kim, Borges & Chan (2006) which stated that the main factor encouraging the tourists to visit the FICA festival at Gaouis in Brazil was to build closer relationship with other people. The findings are also parallel with the studies conducted by Wang (2004) that stated the main push factors that motivate tourists to visit Huangshan Mountain is to rest and relax.

Meanwhile, in pull factors there were three factors that have been identified which is the beauty of nature factors, the city infrastructure and management factors as well as the safety factors. Excellent management and safety factors are the key to attract the tourist to visit Penang hill. The motivation which affected these factors are the "safe environment", "good tourist information center", "good quality of service and treatment from Penang Hill management", " efficient service and management," "excellent supporting facilities (eg: toilets, food outlets and mosque etc.) and "affordable Penang Hill train ticket price".

This finding is also parallel to the research conducted by Kim (1998), who stated that the cost includes the price of tourism products and services excluding the cost of travelling, accommodation and participation in the services provided are the factors to visit the tourism destinations. This finding is also similar with the research conducted by Wang (2004) in Mount Huangshan. In that research, he noted that the privileges and unique natural environment, efficient management and other factors were among the causes that motivate tourists to visit Mount Huangshan in China.

The second research objective of the research was to identify the relationship between tourists socio-demographic and travel characteristics towards the tourists' motivation. The result of this research showed that socio-demographic and travel characteristics affect the tourist motivation when all the conducted regression models had a significant value less than 0.05.

REFERENCES

Beard, J.G. & Ragheb, M.G. (1980). Measuring Leisure Satisfaction.. *Journal of Leisure Research*, pp. 20-33.

Beard, J.G. & Ragheb, M.G. (1983). Measuring leisure motivation. *Journal of Leisure Research*, pp. 219-228.

- Beh, A. & Bruyere, B.L. (2008). Segmentation by Visitor Motivation in Three Kenyan National Reserves. *Tourism Management*, p. 1464–1471.
- Budruk, M., White, D.D., Wodrich, J.A. & Riper, C.J.V. (2008). Connecting Visitors to People and Place: Visitors' Perceptions of Authenticity at Canyon de Chelly National Monument, Arizona. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, pp. 185-202.
- Cha, S., McCleary, K. & Uysal, M. (1995). Travel motivations of Japanese overseas travellers: A factor-cluster segmentation approach.. *Journal of Travel Research*, pp. 33-39.
- Crampton, J.L. (1979). Motivations For Pleasure Vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, pp. 408-424.
- Dann, G.M.S. (1977). Anomie, Ego-Enhancement And Tourism. Annals of Tourism Research, pp. 184-194.
- Dann, G.M.S. (1981). Tourist Motivation An Appraisal.. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.8, No.2, pp. 187-219.
- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering Statistic Using SPSS*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publication.
- Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J. & Anderson, R.E. (2006). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hsu, C.H. & Huang, S. (., 2008. Travel Motivation: A Critical Review of the Concept Development. In: *Tourism management: analysis, behaviour and strategy.* Wallingford: CABI Publication, pp. 14-28.
- Jang, S. & Cai, L.A. (2002). Travel motivations and destination choice: A study of British outbound market. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, pp. 111-133.
- Jang, S. & Wu, C.-M.E. 2006. Seniors' travel motivation and the influential factors: An examination of Taiwanese seniors. *Tourism Management 27*, p. 306–316.
- Kim, H.-B. (1998). Perceived Attractiveness of Korean Destinations. Annals of Tourism, pp. 340-361.
- Kim, H., Borges, M.C. & Chon, J. (2006). Impacts of Environmental Values on Tourism Motivation: The Case of FICA, Brazil. *Tourism Management*, pp. 957-967.
- Kim, S.S., Lee, C.-K. & Klenosky, D.B. (2003). The influence of push and pullfactors at Koreannationalparks. *Tourism Management*, pp. 169-180.
- Ko"rner, C. et al. (2005). Chapter 24: Mountain System. In: Ecosystem and Human Well-Being: Current State and Trends: Finding of the Condition and Trends Working Group (Volume 1). Washington DC: Island Press, pp. 681-716.
- Kozak, M. & Rimmington, M. (1999). Measuring Tourist Destination Competitiveness: Conceptual Consideration and Empirical Finding. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, pp. 273-283.
- Little, C.M. & Needham, M.D. (2011). Skier and Snowboarder Motivations and Knowledge Related to Voluntary Environmental Programs at an Alpine Ski Area. *Environmental Management*, p. 895–909.

- Moscardo, G. et al., (1996). Understanding vacation destination choice through travel motivation and activities. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, pp. 109-122.
- Oh, H. C., Uysal, M. & Weaver, P. A., (1995). Product bundles and market segments based on travel motivations: a canonical correlation approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, p. 123–137.
- Pallant, J., 2007. Survival Manual A Step by Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS for Windows 3rd Edition. Berkshire: McGraw-Hill.
- Pan, S. & Ryan, C. (2007). Mountain Areas and Visitor Usage–Motivations and Determinants of Satisfaction: The Case of Pirongia Forest Park, New Zealand. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, pp. 288-308.
- Pearce, D.G. & Butler, R.W. (1993). *Tourism Research: Critiques And Challenges*. London: Routledge.
- Pearce, P.L. (1982). *The Social Pschology of Tourist Behaviour*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Pearce, P.L. (1988). The Ulysses Factor: Evaluating Visitor in Tourist Setting. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Poria, Y., Butler, R. & Airey, D., 2004. Links Between Tourists, Heritage, and Reasons for Visiting. *Journal of Travel Research*, pp. 19-28.
- Ragheb, M.G. & Beard, J.G. (1982). Measuring Leisure Attitude. *Journal of Leisure Research*, pp. 155-167.
- Ryan, C. (1998). The Travel Career Ladder: An Appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research*, pp. 936-957.
- Ryan, C. & Glendon, I. (1998). Application of Leisure Motivation Scale to Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, pp. 169-184.
- Schofield, P. & Thompson, K. (2007). Visitor Motivation, Satisfaction and Behavioural Intention: The 2005 Naadam Festival, Ulaanbaatar. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, p. 329–344.
- Wang, D.-g., 2004. Push-Pull Factors in Mountain Resorts-A Case Study of Huangshan Mountain as World Heritage. Chinese Geographical Science Volume 14, Number 4, pp. 368-376.
- Wearing, S. & Neil, J. (1999). CHAPTER 9 Could the 'Real' Ecotourist Please Stand Up!. In: *Ecotourism: impacts, potentials and possibilities?*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann, pp. 196-217.
- Yolal, M., Woo, E., Cetinel, F. & Uysal, M. (2012). Comparative research of motivations across different festival. *International Journal of Event and*, pp. 66-80.
- Yoon, Y. & Uysal, M. (2005). An Examination Of The Effects Of Motivation And Satisfaction On Destination Loyalty: A Structural Model. *Tourism Management*, pp. 45-56.
- Yousefi, M. (2011). *Motivation of International Tourist Visiting Pulau Pinang*, Georgetown: Thesis, Universiti Sains Malaysia.
- Yuan, S. & Mcdonald, C. (1990). Motivational Determinates Of International Pleasure Time. Journal of Travel Research July 1990 vol. 29 no. 1, pp. 42-44.

Najihah bte Azmi & Azizan bin Marzuki

SUBMITTED: MAR 2014 REVISION SUBMITTED: AUG 2014 ACCEPTED: OCT 2014 REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Najihah bte Azmi (jihah_89@hotmail.com), School of Housing, Building and Planning, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Pulau Pinang, Malaysia.

Azizan bin Marzuki (chik_72@usm.my or chik_72@yahoo.com), is a Senior Lecturer, School of Housing, Building and Planning, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Pulau Pinang, Malaysia.

APPENDIX

Means, Standard Deviations, Skew and Kurtosis

Push Factor Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimu m	Maximu m	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statisti c	Statistic	Statistic	Statisti c	Statistic	Statisti c	Std. Error	Statisti c	Std. Error
Escape	223	2.00	10.00	4.1480	1.57130	.645	.163	.511	.324
Rest and strengthenin g ties	223	5.00	21.00	9.5650	3.34153	.741	.163	.620	.324
Prestige and safety	223	5.00	25.00	11.076 2	3.61908	.679	.163	1.045	.324
Valid N (listwise)	223								

Pull Factor Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minim um	Maxim um	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statist ic	Statisti c	Statisti c	Statist ic	Statistic	Statist ic	Std. Error	Statist ic	Std. Error
Management and safety n	223	6.00	27.00	13.08 97	4.18610	.357	.163	003	.324
Infrastructure and the city of George Town	223	3.00	15.00	5.955 2	2.18466	.513	.163	.365	.324
Natural beauty i	223	3.00	12.00	4.735 4	1.84951	.980	.163	.975	.324
Valid N (listwise)	223								

Independent Variable

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimu m	Maximu m	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statisti c	Statistic	Statistic	Statisti c	Statistic	Statisti c	Std. Error	Statisti c	Std. Error
Gender	223	1.00	2.00	1.4753	.80989	7.396	.163	85.635	.324
Age	223	1.00	6.00	2.6996	1.41560	1.016	.163	.043	.324
Occupation	223	1.00	8.00	4.0717	1.96919	.210	.163	544	.324

Nationality	223	1.00	2.00	1.2915	.45547	.924	.163	-1.157	.324
Destination information Source	223	1.00	7.00	3.9596	1.41204	.130	.163	029	.324
Purpose of visit	223	1.00	4.00	2.1300	.37506	1.923	.163	4.479	.324
Purpose of visit e	223	1.00	5.00	2.6233	.81196	023	.163	263	.324
Valid N (listwise)	223								

Multiple Regression Analysis For Rest and strengthening ties

Model Summary^b

						Chan	ige Stati	stics		
Mod el		R Square	Adjusted	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square	F Chang e	dfl	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin- Watson
1	.318ª	.101	.072	3.21942	.101	3.451	7	215	.002	1.865

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

ANOVA^b

Mode	el	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	250.397	7	35.771	3.451	.002ª
	Residual	2228.410	215	10.365		
	Total	2478.807	222			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Rest and strengthening Ties

		Unstand Coeffi		Standardized Coefficients			Collinear Statistic	-
Model	l	В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	4.782	1.725		2.773	.006		
	Gender	231	.268	056	860	.391	.989	1.011
	Age	009	.169	004	056	.956	.820	1.220
	Occupatio n	.188	.113	.111	1.661	.098	.935	1.069

b. Dependent Variable: Rest and strengthening Ties

Nationality	1.922	.522	.262	3.679	.000	.824	1.213
Destinatio n informatio n Source	137	.155	058	880	.380	.969	1.032
Purpose of visit	.807	.602	.091	1.341	.181	.917	1.091
Group type	.275	.287	.067	.959	.339	.860	1.163

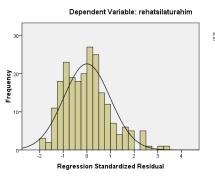
Dependent: Rest and strengthening Ties

Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	6.5422	12.8587	9.5650	1.06203	223
Std. Predicted Value	-2.846	3.101	.000	1.000	223
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.318	2.575	.574	.205	223
Adjusted Predicted Value	6.4210	13.4821	9.5674	1.07609	223
Residual	-6.34603	11.21996	.00000	3.16826	223
Std. Residual	-1.971	3.485	.000	.984	223
Stud. Residual	-2.140	3.554	.000	1.003	223
Deleted Residual	-7.48206	11.66949	00238	3.28989	223
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.158	3.655	.001	1.009	223
Mahal. Distance	1.174	140.983	6.969	9.935	223
Cook's Distance	.000	.103	.005	.011	223
Centered Leverage Value	.005	.635	.031	.045	223

a. Dependent Variable: Rest and strengthening Ties

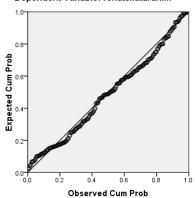
Histogram



dean =1.68E-16 Std. Dev. =0.984 N =223

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: rehatsilaturahim



Multiple Regression Analaysis

Model Summaryb

						Chan	ge Stati	stics		
Mod el	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square		R Square	F Chang e	dfl	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin- Watson
1	.278ª	.077	.047	3.53247	.077	2.574	7	215	.014	1.761

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Prestige and Safety

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	224.854	7	32.122	2.574	.014ª
	Residual	2682.851	215	12.478		
	Total	2907.704	222			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Prestige and Safety

		Unstanda Coeffic		Standardize d Coefficient s			Colline Statis	
Model		В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	6.370	1.893		3.366	.001		
	Gender	028	.294	006	096	.923	.989	1.011
	Age	165	.185	065	891	.374	.820	1.220
	Occupatio n	.350	.124	.190	2.809	.005	.935	1.069
	Nationality	.940	.573	.118	1.640	.103	.824	1.213
	Destinatio n informatio n Source	102	.171	040	596	.552	.969	1.032
	Purpose of visit	1.668	.660	.173	2.526	.012	.917	1.091
	Group type	227	.315	051	720	.473	.860	1.163

Dependent: Prestige and Safety

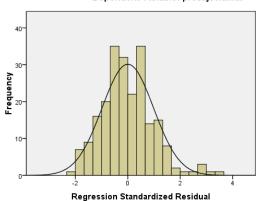
Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	7.2809	14.3799	11.0762	1.00641	223
Std. Predicted Value	-3.771	3.283	.000	1.000	223
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.349	2.825	.630	.225	223
Adjusted Predicted Value	6.9739	14.4829	11.0846	1.02431	223
Residual	-8.03413	12.66930	.00000	3.47634	223
Std. Residual	-2.274	3.587	.000	.984	223
Stud. Residual	-2.337	3.658	.000	1.002	223
Deleted Residual	-8.48036	13.17690	00834	3.60515	223
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.361	3.768	.001	1.009	223
Mahal. Distance	1.174	140.983	6.969	9.935	223
Cook's Distance	.000	.081	.005	.010	223
Centered Leverage Value	.005	.635	.031	.045	223

a. Dependent Variable: Prestige and Safety

Histogram

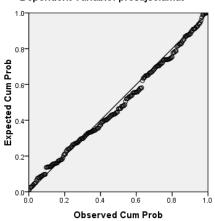
Dependent Variable: prestijselamat



lean =3.10E-16 td. Dev. =0.98

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: prestijselamat



Multiple Regression Analysis: Escape

Model Summary^b

						Chan	ige Stati	stics		
Mod el	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square		R Square	F Chang e	dfl	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin- Watson
1	.319ª	.101	.072	1.51352	.101	3.468	7	215	.002	2.056

a a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Escape

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	55.604	7	7.943	3.468	.002ª
	Residual	492.513	215	2.291		
	Total	548.117	222			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Escape

				Standardiz ed Coefficien ts			Collinearity	Statistics
Model		В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2.139	.811		2.638	.009		
	Gender	220	.126	113	-1.745	.082	.989	1.011
	Age	.086	.079	.078	1.087	.278	.820	1.220
	Occupatio n	.090	.053	.113	1.685	.093	.935	1.069
	Nationality	.379	.246	.110	1.541	.125	.824	1.213
	Destinatio n informatio n Source	.023	.073	.021	.319	.750	.969	1.032
	Purpose of visit	.837	.283	.200	2.960	.003	.917	1.091
	Group type	240	.135	124	-1.779	.077	.860	1.163

a. Dependent: Escape

Najihah bte Azmi & Azizan bin Marzuki

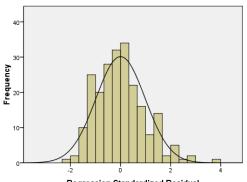
Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	1.7527	5.6211	4.1480	.50047	223
Std. Predicted Value	-4.786	2.943	.000	1.000	223
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.150	1.210	.270	.097	223
Adjusted Predicted Value	1.3138	5.8539	4.1465	.52063	223
Residual	-3.23692	5.86080	.00000	1.48947	223
Std. Residual	-2.139	3.872	.000	.984	223
Stud. Residual	-2.196	3.939	.000	1.001	223
Deleted Residual	-3.41204	6.06435	.00143	1.54179	223
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.216	4.080	.002	1.008	223
Mahal. Distance	1.174	140.983	6.969	9.935	223
Cook's Distance	.000	.067	.004	.009	223
Centered Leverage Value	.005	.635	.031	.045	223

a. Dependent: Escape

Histogram

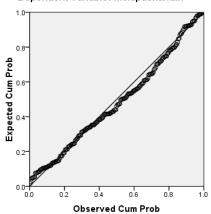
Dependent Variable: melepaskandiri



Regression Standardized Residual

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: melepaskandiri



Multiple Regression Analysis: Management and Safety Model Summary^b

,											
						Change Statistics					
Mod		R	Adjusted		R Square	F Chang			Sig. F	Durbin-	
el	R	Square	R Square	Estimate	Change	e	dfl	df2	Change	Watson	
1	.350a	.122	.094	3.98499	.122	4.282	7	215	.000	1.809	

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Management and

Safety

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	475.983	7	67.998	4.282	.000ª
	Residual	3414.223	215	15.880		
	Total	3890.206	222			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

ivationality, Fulpose of Visit, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Management and Safety

Najihah bte Azmi & Azizan bin Marzuki

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardize d Coefficients			Collinearity Statistics	
Model		В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Toleranc e	VIF
1	(Constant	9.994	2.135		4.681	.000		
	Gender	294	.332	057	885	.377	.989	1.011
	Age	075	.209	025	358	.721	.820	1.220
	Occupatio n	.437	.140	.205	3.110	.002	.935	1.069
	Nationalit y	2.267	.647	.247	3.506	.001	.824	1.213
	Destinatio n informati on Source	280	.192	094	-1.453	.148	.969	1.032
	Purpose of visit	.079	.745	.007	.107	.915	.917	1.091
	Group type	014	.355	003	040	.968	.860	1.163

a.Dependent: Management and Safety

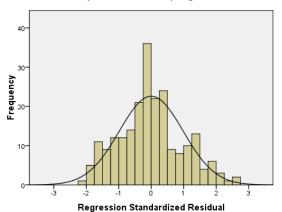
Residuals Statistics^a

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	9.5289	16.8847	13.0897	1.46426	223
Std. Predicted Value	-2.432	2.592	.000	1.000	223
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.394	3.187	.711	.254	223
Adjusted Predicted Value	9.2471	16.9135	13.0884	1.47221	223
Residual	-8.04408	10.33929	.00000	3.92166	223
Std. Residual	-2.019	2.595	.000	.984	223
Stud. Residual	-2.080	2.669	.000	1.002	223
Deleted Residual	-8.54034	10.94039	.00128	4.06991	223
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.096	2.708	.001	1.007	223
Mahal. Distance	1.174	140.983	6.969	9.935	223
Cook's Distance	.000	.052	.005	.008	223
Centered Leverage Value	.005	.635	.031	.045	223

a. Dependent Variable: Management and Safety

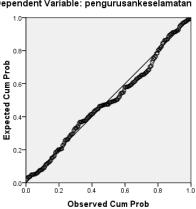
Histogram

Dependent Variable: pengurusankeselamatan



Mean =-6.14E-16 Std. Dev. =0.984 N =223

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual



Multiple Regression Analysis: Natural Beauty

Model Summary^b

						Change Statistics					
Mod el	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square	F Chang e	dfl	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin- Watson	
1	.274ª	.075	.045	1.80743	.075	2.494	7	215	.018	1.860	

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Natural Beauty

ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	57.027	7	8.147	2.494	.018ª
	Residual	702.363	215	3.267		
	Total	759.390	222			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

b. Dependent Variable: Natural Beauty

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Collinearity	Statistics
		В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	1.711	.968		1.767	.079		
	Gender	.102	.151	.045	.677	.499	.989	1.011
	Age	052	.095	040	553	.581	.820	1.220
	Occupation	.097	.064	.104	1.528	.128	.935	1.069
	Nationality	.686	.293	.169	2.340	.020	.824	1.213
	Destination information Source	065	.087	049	739	.461	.969	1.032
	Purpose of visit	.533	.338	.108	1.579	.116	.917	1.091
	Group type	.325	.161	.143	2.015	.045	.860	1.163

a. Dependent: Natural Beauty

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 41-78 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

Residuals Statistics^a

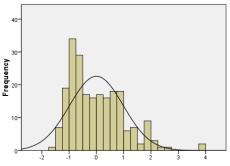
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	3.1044	6.5006	4.7354	.50683	223
Std. Predicted Value	-3.218	3.483	.000	1.000	223
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.179	1.445	.322	.115	223
Adjusted Predicted Value	2.8486	6.5945	4.7377	.52415	223
Residual	-2.71872	6.93774	.00000	1.77871	223
Std. Residual	-1.504	3.838	.000	.984	223
Stud. Residual	-1.562	3.905	.000	1.002	223
Deleted Residual	-2.93348	7.18897	00228	1.84330	223
Stud. Deleted Residual	-1.568	4.041	.002	1.009	223
Mahal. Distance	1.174	140.983	6.969	9.935	223
Cook's Distance	.000	.076	.005	.009	223
Centered Leverage Value	.005	.635	.031	.045	223

a. Dependent: Natural Beauty

Histogram

Dependent Variable: keindahanalamsemulajadi

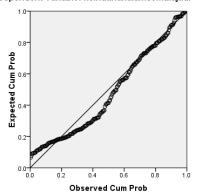
Mean =-5.56E-16 Std. Dev. =0.984 N =223



Regression Standardized Residual

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: keindahanalamsemulajadi



Multiple Regression Analysis: Infrastructure and the city of George Town

Model Summary^b

						Change Statistics					
Mod el		R Square	Adjusted	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square	F Chang e	dfl	df2	Sig. F Change	Durbin- Watson	
1	.325ª	.105	.076	2.09966	.105	3.620	7	215	.001	2.041	

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

b. Dependent Variable: infrastructure and Georgetown

ANOVAb

Mode	1	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	111.706	7	15.958	3.620	.001a
	Residual	947.846	215	4.409		
	Total	1059.552	222			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 41-78 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

$ANOVA^b$

Mode	el	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	111.706	7	15.958	3.620	.001a
	Residual	947.846	215	4.409		
	Total	1059.552	222			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group Type, Destination Information Source, Gender, Occupation, Nationality, Purpose of Visit, Age

b. Dependent Variable: infrastructure and Georgetown

			Unstandardized Coefficients				Collinearity	Statistics
Model		В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	5.020	1.125		4.463	.000		
	Gender	179	.175	066	-1.024	.307	.989	1.011
	Age	241	.110	156	-2.188	.030	.820	1.220
	Occupation	.136	.074	.123	1.843	.067	.935	1.069
	Nationality	1.254	.341	.261	3.680	.000	.824	1.213
	Destination information Source	167	.101	108	-1.652	.100	.969	1.032
	Purpose of visit	.411	.392	.070	1.046	.297	.917	1.091
	Group type	205	.187	076	-1.095	.275	.860	1.163

a. Dependent: Infrastructure and Georgetown

Residuals Statistics^a

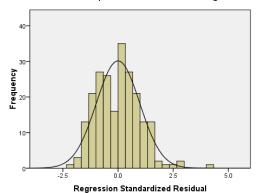
	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	3.6777	8.0731	5.9552	.70935	223
Std. Predicted Value	-3.211	2.986	.000	1.000	223
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.208	1.679	.375	.134	223
Adjusted Predicted Value	3.3026	8.0112	5.9540	.71619	223
Residual	-4.20776	8.45379	.00000	2.06629	223
Std. Residual	-2.004	4.026	.000	.984	223
Stud. Residual	-2.041	4.115	.000	1.002	223
Deleted Residual	-4.36628	8.83264	.00117	2.14042	223
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.057	4.278	.002	1.008	223
Mahal. Distance	1.174	140.983	6.969	9.935	223

Cook's Distance	.000	.095	.004	.009	223
Centered Leverage Value	.005	.635	.031	.045	223

a. Dependent Variable: infrastructure and Georgetown

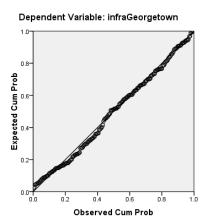
Histogram

Dependent Variable: infraGeorgetown



Mean =-2.30E-16 Std. Dev. =0.984

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual



ENVIRONMENTAL AWARENESS OF TOURISTS: A FACT OR A MYTH?

Patrícia Oom do Valle University of Algarve

Manuela Guerreiro University of Algarve

Júlio Mendes University of Algarve

The Algarve is a mature destination in the south of Portugal and is mainly wellknown for its offerings of sun and sea. Aside from its problem of strong seasonal changes, the region also faces strong competition from other nearby destinations that has impacted its need to better attract tourists. As regional stakeholders have recognized the necessity to diversify the tourist experience, a strong effort has been dedicated to the development of complementary tourist products, with special attention on eco-tourism. Within this context, the present study used data from a survey of tourists who visited the Algarye during December 2010 (low season). An analysis was done to determine the extent to which tourists visiting the region would actively search for nature-relative activities and the profile of these individuals. In particular, the study aimed to understand whether these tourists share environmentally friendly values or, instead, are typical tourists who have chosen the Algarve based on its traditional attributes of appealing climatic conditions and beaches. Depending on whether nature-based tourism in the Algarve is a fact or a myth, strategies for repositioning the destination must be adapted, new tourist products must be proposed and communication campaigns need to be rethought.

Keywords: Tourism destination, Nature-based tourism, environmentally friendly values.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521







INTRODUCTION

Since the 1980s, seaside destinations that have conventionally offered the product of *sun and beach* have felt the need to become more competitive, as they faced a strong seasonality problem and had to adapt their offerings to the new motivational tendencies of tourists (Valle, Guerreiro, Mendes and Silva, 2011). In fact, tourists nowadays are more proactive and search for more authentic and diversified experiences (Gale, 2005), which forces destinations to rethink and restructure what they have to offer (Sedmak and Mihalic, 2008). Nature-based tourism has recently received attention among mass tourism destinations as a complementary product to *sun and beach*, especially during the low season (Valle *et al.*, 2011).

This reality applies to the Algarve, which is the most important tourist region in Portugal, and is usually seen as a seaside destination. Like other costal destinations, and due to its climate conditions, sun and beach is its most important tourist product (Valle, Pintassilgo, Matias and André, 2012). However, the Algarve suffers from competition with destinations that have similar characteristics, such as Spain, Tunisia and Greece. Therefore, there has been a growing consensus among regional stakeholders that a more wide-ranging set of tourist products is necessary, especially products that take advantage of the inland of the region. Aside from beaches, the Algarve actually has a vast interior area that can provide exciting and rich experiences to tourists. Individuals, who want to explore natural resources or do nature-based activities, can go horseback riding, fishing, experience safaris, do nature walks and enjoy agricultural experiences. Local tourism authorities believe that there is a portion of tourists that is more environmentally aware and that wants to visit the inland areas, searching for nature-based experiences.

Using data from a survey conducted during the low season of 2010 in the Algarve, this study aimed to determine the extent to which this premise is a reality or, instead, whether it is a myth. It also endeavoured to provide a better understanding of the relevance of nature-based activities to the tourist experience in the region. Within this scope, four specific objectives were pursued. Firstly, the study intended to investigate whether tourists traveling to the Algarve visited the inland areas and, if that were the case, whether they were interested in alternative experiences that differed from the traditional ones associated with *sun and beach*. Secondly, it was intended to identify the types of nature-based activities that strongly interested these tourists. A third specific objective was to assess whether a visit to the inland areas was associated with more

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn 2015, pp. 79-96 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

satisfaction and willingness to revisit the area, as well as recommendations to the Algarve region. Finally, the study aimed to understand the extent to which nature and the countryside are important motivators for visiting the Algarve in comparison to other possible regions, especially among tourists who visit the inland areas.

The fact that the main motivator to visit destinations has been for decades identified as a mono-product (*sun and beach*, in the case of the Algarve) does not mean that tourists restrict their activities to a unique area and engage with only those that are offered in that area. If, on the contrary, the needs and expectations of "new" tourists are really changing and becoming more comprehensive, tourism destination planners should be aware of this new reality when they promote and manage their destination.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Nature-based tourism

According to Williams and Buswell (2003), tourism consists of three components that include travel, accommodation and participation in activities at the destination. Activities like hiking, nature photography, safaris or fishing can be considered as tourism activities that take place in a natural environment.

The erosion caused by traditional mass tourism has contributed to the growth of some specific forms of tourism, most of which are more environmentally friendly (Eadington and Smith, 1992). Furthermore, the lack of innovation in traditional mass tourism destinations has resulted in less attractive tourism products that have not considered the new requirements/desires of contemporary tourists. According to Akama and Kieti (2003: 73), "postmodern social and economic changes, especially in the developed countries in the north, have enhanced the value of natural areas and the promotion of nature-based tourism and recreational activities."

In this context, nature-based tourism activities have registered a growth rate that has ranged from 10% to 12% per year (Higgins, 1996; McKercher, 1996; Neto, 2003; Ties, 2007). The World Tourism Organization (WTO, 2002) considered these activities as a subcategory of global ecotourism and put forward that, in 2000, this subcategory represented a market of 10% to 15% of global tourism activity.

There has been no clear and consensual definition of nature-based tourism in the literature (Khan & Su, 2003). Initially defined as travel to

undisturbed areas that require respectful considerations of nature (Boo, 1990), nowadays it includes other areas that can be affected by these kinds of activities, namely the environment, society, economy (Swarbrooke, 1999) and culture (Figgis, 1993) of the region.

According to Wilson (1992: 23), nature-based tourism is a "temporary migration of people to what they understand to be a different and usually more 'pure' environment." As Tangeland and Aas (2011: 822) pointed out, these include "tourism products that are based upon activities that take place in a natural environment." Many of the activities connected with nature-based tourism can be enjoyed free of charge and include tourism products like trekking, hiking, rafting, climbing, nature photography, wildlife safaris and camping. Tangeland et al. (2013: 364), in turn, considered nature-based tourism as a "specific type of rural tourism." Other researchers have used synonymous terms like ecological, sustainable, green, alternative, responsible or mountain tourism.

The increasing number of visitors who have been interested in these kinds of activities has contributed to diversifying the forms of nature-based tourism activities (Poon, 1993; Urry, 1990). This phenomenon has led to an increasing concern about the negative impacts of tourism on some especially fragile environments (Buckley, 2007). As Lindberg and Hawkins (1993) pointed out, it is vital to achieve a balanced use of natural resources in order to ensure its conservation and, at the same time, the well-being of local residents. Fillion, Foley and Jacquemont (1994) emphasized that this kind of tourism requires responsible behaviour from visitors, who must be environmentally conscious.

General environmental awareness

The problems raised by modern society about our natural environment are well known, with ozone depletion, acid rain and deforestation being only a few examples. A more widespread concern with environmental issues has developed as the breadth of general ecological problems has been increasingly brought to the public's attention. Diverse measuring instruments have been proposed to evaluate general environmental awareness (Maloney and Ward, 1973; Maloney, Ward and Braucht, 1975; Weigel and Weigel, 1978). Nonetheless, as Stern et al. (1995) discussed, the New Environmental Paradigm (NEP) Scale (Dunlap and Van Liere, 1978) is the most extensively used scale. The NEP Scale "measures a constellation of attitudes that represent the respondents' adherence to a worldview of the relationship between humanity and the environment" (Vining and Ebreo, 1992: 1582). The

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn 2015, pp. 79-96 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

NEP arose in opposition to the Dominant Social Paradigm (DSP) (Dunlap and Van Liere, 1978), which highlighted progress and growth instead. The NEP Scale was first proposed as a unidimensional measure with 12 items, but additional research has shown that it is a multidimensional concept (Albrecht, 1997, Noe and Snow, 1990; Shetzer, Stackman and Moore, 1991). Consequently, subsets of NEP items were considered in some studies as measures of three different dimensions: balance of nature, limits of growth and humanity over nature (Albrecht, 1997; Valle, Reis, Menezes and Rebelo, 2004; Valle, Rebelo, Reis and Menezes, 2005; Vining and Ebreo, 1992).

In the tourism literature, Dolnicar, Crouch and Long (2008) have provided a good review of the characteristics of environmentally friendly tourists and concluded that most studies in this field are focused on the ecotourism sector, and have ignored the results of environmental behaviour from other research areas, such as psychology. In a more recent study, Dolnicar (2010) proposed that both socio-demographic and psychological factors are predictors of pro-environmental behaviour. In particular, this study showed that income and moral obligation affect the environmentally friendly behaviour of tourists on vacation. In another recent study, Mehmetoglu (2010) showed that, in a holiday setting, environmentally friendly behaviour was associated with the following characteristics: gender (female), household income, political orientation (liberal), environmental concern and personal environmental norms. On the contrary, fun and excitement values negatively affected proenvironmental behaviour. However, the studies that we reviewed on the environmental awareness of tourists did not reveal the extent to which these and other factors affected their search for nature-based tourism activities.

METHODS

Setting

Located in the south of Portugal, the Algarve is the most important Portuguese destination for tourists, as it is well-known for its sun and sea. As a result, this region's economy has become strongly dependent on the tourism industry. Although the climate conditions and beaches represent the main motivating reasons for visiting the region, the Algarve also offers interesting attributes that appeal to tourists, namely historical, cultural and architectural heritage; gastronomy attractions and natural and

rural landscapes (Mendes et al., 2011; Valle, Silva, Mendes and Guerreiro, 2006; Valle, Guerreiro and Mendes, 2010).

The Algarve has recently started to invest in a diversified set of products that is considered as strategically important for reducing seasonality problems and enabling accommodation units to maintain a reasonable occupancy rate throughout the year. Complementary products include golf, nautical tourism (which would take advantage of the marinas and port facilities), international conferences, culture-oriented tourism, health tourism and nature-based tourism (PENT, 2013). Authorities believe that this strategic diversification could potentially attract more tourists and/or encourage an increase in the average length of stay and daily expenditure (PENT, 2013). These aspects bring challenges to Destination Management Organizations (DMO) that need to understand tourists' receptiveness to new products and offer. While previous studies had already provided some insights on the importance of cultural offer in this type of destination (Valle et al., 2011), the remaining possible products, including nature-based tourism, are scarcely studied. In this sense, this study provides a first attempt to comprehend to what extent the type of tourist who visits the inland of the region really has a specific profile (motivations to visit the region, preferences regarding tourism experiences and degree of environment awareness), different from the typical "seaside" tourist.

Questionnaire and data

The data for this study came from 384 questionnaires that were given to foreign tourists who visited the Algarve region during the winter months in 2010. The sample size was determined based on the most conservative estimate of the sample proportion (p = 0.5), a 95% level of confidence and a maximum sampling error of 5% (Vicente and Reis, 1996). Two interviewers applied the questionnaire to tourists leaving the region at the Faro International Airport while they were checking out. The interviewers were suitably identified and the study's purposes were explained to the respondents. Data was collected using a systematic sampling procedure.

The questionnaire included four sections of interest to this study. Section I aimed to identify the motivations for tourists to visit the Algarve; section II sought to understand their environmental awareness using the NEP, which is composed of 15 items (Dunlap and Van Liere, 1978); section III investigated the activities that the tourists took part in during their stay and section IV included questions about their socio-

demographic characteristics (gender, age, nationality, marital status, educational qualifications and employment situation).

Data analysis methods

Data analysis included a preliminary descriptive analysis of the relevant questions that attended to the specific objectives of this study, in particular those that outlined the profile of the respondents and described their visit to the Algarve. Then, an Exploratory Factorial Analysis (EFA) was applied to the items that measured their environmental awareness to reduce the dimensionality of the original data set (15 items). To assess the reliability of the identified factors, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overall sample profile

The sample had the following socio-demographic characteristics: 54% were women and 46% were men. The age ranged from 16 to 82 years, with the majority of respondents (61%) ranging from 45 to 60 years old or older. The average age was 48 years, with a standard deviation of 17. The median age was 50 years and the mode was 65 years. Seventy percent of the 384 tourists who were interviewed were from the UK while 9% were from Germany, which was the second most represented country. In terms of professional status, 49% were still working, while 21% were retired. The marital status data illustrated that 66% were married, 26% were single and 7% were divorced. Most participants had a higher education degree (57%) and 40% had a secondary education degree.

Results detailing the tourist experience in the Algarve showed that 77% of the respondents had visited the region previously and only 23% was visiting the Algarve for the first time. The types of accommodation that they chose consisted of apartments (38%), hotels (21%) and their own properties (19%). Rural tourism was the least popular reason for the trip (selected by only 1% of respondents). The internet (41%) and travel agencies (17%) were the most common accommodation booking methods. Most respondents stayed at the destination for a week (54%), with an average stay of 12 days (standard deviation: 8 days). The median and mode were 7 days. In terms of the transportation methods used within the region, 31% of respondents rented a car, 20% preferred to use the bus

and 20% had their own car. The train was chosen by only 7% of respondents.

Visit to the Algarve

Most tourists stayed in coastal municipalities (63%), with Albufeira, Loulé and Portimão together hosting 40% of respondents. While all respondents visited the coastal area of the Algarve, 68% visited the inland region, with the most visited places located in the municipalities of Monchique, Silves and Loulé (Figure 1).

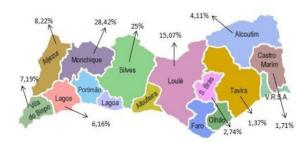


Figure 1. Areas Visited in the Inland of the Region

Among the tourists who visited the region for the first time (38.8%), only 13.1% travelled inland. This implies that, among the tourists who had visited the region one year ago (76.8%), 86.9% searched for experiences other than the Algarve's sun and beach product. Table 1 shows the activities that the tourists who visited the inland of the region (referred to as "inland tourists") and those that tourists who only visited seaside areas (referred to as "seaside tourists") participated in. The most common activities were "nature walks" and "gastronomic experiences," with these activities characterizing "inland tourists" more than "seaside tourists." These two groups of tourists also engaged in "pedestrian tours," "fishing" and "bike riding." Such results conform with previous research that have shown that activities and resources that could potentially become tourism products in the Algarve inland should also be considered as complementary tourism products in coastal areas since "seaside tourists" search for a more diversified experience as well (Valle et al, 2011).

While there were no statistically significant relationships between overall satisfaction with the tourism experience and visits to specific

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn 2015, pp. 79-96 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

locations within the Algarve inland (independence tests: p > 0.05), recommendations to visit the region and repeated visits had statistically significant relationships with visiting the inland region (independence tests: p = 0.003 and p = 0.000, respectively). The greatest intentions to recommend visits to the region were expressed by visitors to inland Algarve (88.8%). The percentage was slightly lower among tourists who were in coastal areas (76.7%). A large portion (86.4%) of tourists who visited the inland was favourable to the idea of repeating their visit. This intention was not equally present among those who stayed in coastal areas (70%).

Table 1. Participation in Activities in the Algarve Region (Inland Tourists versus Seaside Tourists)

Activities	Inland tourists	Seaside tourists
Horseback riding	1.9%	2.5%
Fishing	11.9%	5.0%
Safaris	2.7%	0.8%
Hunting	2.3%	3.3%
Nature walks	46.4%	36.7%
Golf	18.4%	17.5%
Gastronomic experiences	45.2%	22.5%
Agricultural activities	3.1%	1.7%
Pedestrian tours	15.3%	10.8%
Bike riding	10.0%	8.3%
Other	18.4%	10.0%

Motivations

Overall, eight motivations for tourists visiting the Algarve region were assessed through a 5-point Likert scale: 1 – Not at all important, 2 – Not very important, 3 – Indifferent, 4 – Important and 5 – Very important. The results showed that the most important reasons for selecting Algarve as a tourism destination were sun and beach, nature and rural landscape (Table 2). These reasons scored the highest in the categories important and very important (86.8% and 77.7%, respectively). Other important motives for visiting the region were to visit towns and monuments (59.4%) and to have gastronomy experiences (56.5%). Sport events and activities as well as health and beauty related activities were the least considered motivations (27.4% and 24.3%, respectively).

Table 2, Motivations to Visit the Algarve (Distribution by Responses on the Likert Scale)

Motivations	(1)+(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(4)+(5)	Total	Mode
Nature and countryside	7.1%	15.2%	49.9%	27.8%	77.7%	100%	4
Sun and beach	6.0%	7.1%	47.5%	39.3%	86.8%	100%	4
Cities, towns and monuments	12.9%	27.8%	45.1%	14.3%	59.4%	100%	4
To visit family and friends	43.8%	17.4%	18.3%	20.5%	38.8%	100%	1
Sport events and sport activities	48.0%	24.6%	16.9%	10.5%	27.4%	100%	1
Gastronomy	19.7%	23.9%	41.7%	14.8%	56.5%	100%	4
Health and beauty	46.6%	29.1%	21.5%	2.8%	24.3%	100%	3
Learn Portuguese	37.6%	27.5%	24.8%	10.1%	34.9%	100%	3

^{(1) =} Not at all important; (2) = Not very important; (3) = Indifferent; (4) = Important; (5) = Very important

Table 3 further compares the motivations of tourists who visited the inland of Algarve with those that only visited the seaside. The table presents responses by the sum of categories 4 (important) and 5 (very important). The findings clearly illustrate that "inland tourists" valued nature and countryside more than "seaside tourists" (88.8% versus 82.6%). However, with the exception of "health and beauty," the former group valorised all motives strongly.

Table 3. Motivations to Visit the Algarve (Inland Tourists versus Seaside Tourists)

Motivations	Overall	Inland	Seaside		
	sample	tourists	tourists		
Nature and countryside	77.7%	84.0%	63.3%		
Sun and beach	86.8%	88.8%	82.6%		
Cities, towns and monuments	59.4%	64.8%	48.1%		
To visit family and friends	38.8%	41.4%	32.7%		
Sport events and sport activities	27.4%	27.9%	26.5%		
Gastronomy	56.5%	62.7%	41.6%		
Health and beauty	24.3%	23.3%	27.0%		
Learn Portuguese	34.9%	42.0%	18.8%		

Environmental awareness

To measure environmental awareness, the following five-point Likert scale was used: 1 – Strongly disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Indifferent, 4 – Agree and 5 – Strongly agree. For the purposes of data reduction, EFA was applied to the 15 items used to measure general environmental awareness. The use of this method provided four new dimensions (factors) that best represented the initial item, together accounting for 56% of the total variance. Both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated that the data was suitable for an EFA (KMO = 0.778; Bartlett test: p = 0.000). All items loaded reasonably strongly on one factor and the Cronbach's alphas reported acceptable values, as summarized in Table 4. Taking into account the meaning of the corresponding items with higher loadings, factors were labelled as Man over nature, Limits of nature, Balance of nature and Need of a lifestyle change. These results are somewhat consistent with previous findings on general environmental awareness. Table 4 shows the results from the EFA and some descriptive statistics. including the percentage of responses in the response categories "agree" plus "strongly agree" (within the overall sample, among "inland tourists" only and among "seaside tourists" only), the mode and the median for each item (the numbers in parentheses).

Table 4. Environmental Awareness Items, *Loadings* from EFA and Descriptive Statistics

Beechpare etalielle					
Items and Factors	Loadings	Overall	Inland	Seaside	
Tronis and Lactors	Zoudings	sample	tourists	tourists	
Man over nature $(alpha = 0.746)$		32.7%	30.4%	37.5%	
1. Humans will eventually learn enough about	0.714	45.1%	44.7%	45.0%	
how nature works to be able to control it		(4/3)			
2. Humans were meant to rule over the rest of	0.663	21.2%	16.4%	31.9%	
nature	0.002	(2/2)	101170	511,570	
3. Humans have the right to modify the natural	0.663	33.5%	31.0%	38.4%	
environment to suit their needs	0.003	(2/2)	31.070	30.470	
4. Human ingenuity will insure that we do not	0.660	45.8%	48.2%	40.9%	
make the earth unliveable	0.000	(4/3)	40.270	40.970	
5. The balance of nature is strong enough to		21.2%			
cope with the impacts of modern industrial	0.630		17.3%	29.7%	
nations		(2/2)			
6. The so-called "ecological crisis" facing	0.576	29.6%	24.00/	20.20/	
humankind has been greatly exaggerated	0.576	(2/3)	24.9%	39.3%	
Limits of nature $(alpha = 0.653)$		73.6%	77.5%	64.2%	
* * * /	[, 5.070	, , .5 / 0	01.270	

7. When humans interfere with nature, it often produces disastrous consequences	0.704	76.6% (4/4)	80.1%	67.9%
8. Humans are severely abusing the environment	0.676	78.1% (4/4)	83.4%	65.5%
9.If things continue on their present course, we will soon experience a major ecological catastrophe	0.584	66.2% (4/4)	69.0%	59.3%
Balance of nature ($alpha = 0.673$)		81.0%	83.6%	75.0%
10.Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist	0.769	84.0% (4/4)	86.1%	78.9%
11.Despite our special abilities, humans are still subject to the laws of nature	0.687	82.8% (4/4)	86.5%	74.5%
12.The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset	0.590	76.1% (4/4)	78.2%	71.7%
Need of a lifestyle change (alpha = 0.727)		61.8%	63.7%	57.0%
13.The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources	0.722	61.4% (4/4)	63.1%	55.4%
14. The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them	-0.580	79.9% (4/4)	81.4%	77.0%
15.We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support	0.564	44.1% (4/3)	46.7%	38.5%

Factor 1 was labelled as Man over nature because it included items related to the legitimacy of human dominion over nature. High values for this factor would suggest that tourists expressed beliefs that humankind has the right to modify the natural environment and to rule over the rest of nature. Overall, agreement with the items included in this factor was low, ranging from 21.2% (in items 2 and 5) to 45.8% (in item 4). The last two columns of Table 3 show that "inland tourists" reported lower levels of agreement with this factor than "seaside tourists" (30.4% versus 37.5%), meaning the former group possessed a more environmentally friendly attitude regarding this dimension.

Factor 2, referred to as Limits of nature, included items expressing the idea that the exploration of environmental resources has limits that, once surpassed, can produce catastrophic consequences. Overall, tourists demonstrated high levels of agreement with the items included in this factor, ranging from 66.2% (in item 9) to 78.1% (in item 8). However, "inland tourists" expressed higher levels of agreement with this factor than "seaside tourists" (77.5% versus 64.2%), which implies that the former had a more positive environmental attitude concerning this dimension.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn 2015, pp. 79-96 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

Factor 3 was named Balance of nature, and encompassed items that indicated the fragility of the balance of nature. This factor had the highest consistency among responses; the overall sample reported high levels of agreement with all items, ranging from 76.1% (in item 12) to 84.0% (in item 10). As in the previous factor, "inland tourists" expressed higher levels of agreement on this factor than "seaside tourists" (83.6% versus 75.0%), which suggests that the former had a more environmentally friendly attitude based on this dimension.

Finally, Factor 4 was labelled as Need of a lifestyle change because it included items that reflected the importance of considering the capacity of the planet in terms of available space and resources. In this factor, items 13 and 15 had lower levels of agreement than those included in factors 2 and 3 but still indicated an environmentally friendly attitude, which was reinforced by the high level of agreement in item 14. As in factors 2 and 3, "inland tourists" exhibited higher levels of agreement with this factor than "seaside tourists" (63.7% versus 57.0%), which shows that the former were more environmentally aware in this dimension.

CONCLUSION AND RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

In contrast to the belief that the *sun and beach* product is the main motivator for tourists to visit the Algarve, the present study showed that natural and rural landscapes, gastronomy, cities, towns and monuments are also important attractions (78%, 57% and 60%, respectively). Moreover, the results showed a stronger valorisation of nature and countryside among "inland tourists" compared to "seaside tourists." Another relevant point was that nature-based walks and gastronomy-related experiences were considered as favourite activities for tourists visiting inland Algarve. Also of note was that intentions to recommend the region to others and to revisit the region had a statistically significant positive relationship with visiting the inland.

These results support a new reality that must be acknowledged in order to meet the needs of new market segments that have not, so far, been considered in the DMO's communication strategies. Therefore, a concluding remark on the promotion of this destination is warranted. In particular, this study has implications in terms of design, development and promotion of new products to the region of Algarve. In effect, the study's findings suggest that it would not be sustainable to promote the destination exclusively with a focus on the *sun and beach* product. More than ever, it is justified that the DMOs endorse an integrated management

of new products with existing ones, in order to effectively achieve the new tourists' expectations. In this sense, it would be necessary to reposition the strategy for the Algarve by differentiating it from the competition based on an integrated offer of sun and beach, nature, culture and gastronomy. As in many other times and circumstances, substantive decisions on this issue are necessary, taking advantage of all the opportunities offered by the market and intending to plan the future of the Algarve destination with vision, wisdom and good sense.

Another important finding from this study was that tourists visiting the Algarve reported a strong environmental awareness, as demonstrated by their recognition of the balance and limits of nature and the importance of considering these environmental limits. Moreover, tourists recognized that there are limits on the supremacy of man over nature. Another important finding was that the sense of responsibility to the environment was stronger among "inland tourists" compared to "seaside tourists." In other words, tourists who sought the interior of this region adhered more strongly to the values and beliefs represented on the NEP Scale. It could be assumed that these tourists were also more aware of the problems of nature and the need for its conservation, or even the need to practice more environmentally and culturally sustainable forms of tourism. This is an important finding since it shows that nature-based tourism in the Algarve is not a myth, but is, instead, a type of tourism that should receive more attention from individuals who are responsible for managing and promoting the destination. This information is particularly important for providing the necessary input to the development of strategies for repositioning the destination, either in terms of new product proposals, or of more effective communication with target audiences (current and potential).

At last, some research topics emerge from this study's findings. Firstly, it would be important to understand the functioning and the dynamics of regional and local partnerships. This would facilitate the design and implementation of programs and strategies in tourist destinations, able to promote new tourist products, integrated with the more traditional ones. Secondly, the issue of positioning and repositioning the anchor tourist products in destinations also deserves more research attention. At last, a deeper understanding of nature-based tourists, including their demand patterns, competing destinations, source markets, socio-economic characteristics and motivations to choose this type of destination, is required.

REFERENCES

- Akama, J. & Kieti, D. (2003) Measuring tourist satisfaction with Kenya's wildlife safari: A case study of Tsavo West National Park, *Tourism Management*, Vol. 24, No.1, pp. 73-81.
- Albrecht, T.L. (1997) Defining social marketing: 25 years later, *Social Marketing Quarterly, Special Issue*, Vol. 3, No. 3-4, pp. 21-23.
- Boo, E. 1990 Ecotourism: The Potentials and Pitfalls, Vol. 1, Michigan, World Wildlife Fund.
- Buckley, R. (2007). Adventure tourism products: price, duration, size, skill, remoteness, *Tourism Management*, Vol. 28, No. 6, pp. 1428-1433.
- Dolnicar, S. (2010) Identifying tourists with smaller environmental footprints, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, Vol. 18, No.6, pp. 717-734.
- Dolnicar, S., Crouch, G. & Long, P. (2008) Environment-friendly tourists: What do we really know about them? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, Vol. 16, No.2, pp. 197-210.
- Dunlap, R.E. & Van Liere, K.D. (1984) Commitment to the dominant social paradigm and concern for environmental quality, *Social Science Quarterly*, pp. 1013-1032.
- Dunlap, R.E. & Van Liere, K.D. (1978) The new environmental paradigm, Journal of Environmental Education, Vol. 9, pp. 10-19.
- Eadington, W.E & Smith, V.L. (1992). The emergence of alternative forms of tourism, in *Tourism Alternatives: Potentials and Problems in the Development of Tourism*, (Eds) V.L. Smith and W.E., John Wiley and Sons, Eadington, Chicester, pp. 1-12.
- Figgis, P. (1993). Eco-tourism: special interest or major direction? *Habitat Australia*, Vol. 21, 8-12.
- Filion, F. L., Foley, J.P., Jacquemot, A. J. & Munasinghe, M. (1994). The economics of global ecotourism, in *Protected Area Economics and Policy: Linking Conservation and Sustainable Development*, (Ed) M. Munasinghe, The World Bank, Washington, pp. 235-252.
- Gale, T. (2005). Modernism, post-modernism and the decline of British seaside resorts as long holiday destinations: A case study of Rhyl, North Wales, *Tourism Geographies*, Vol. 7, pp. 86-112.
- Higgings, B.R. (1996). The global structure of the nature tourism industry: ecotourists, tour operators, and local businesses, *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 35, No.2, pp. 11-18.
- Khan, M.M. & Su, K.D. (2003). Service quality expectations of travelers visiting Cheju Island in Korea, *Journal of Ecotourism*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 114-125.
- Lindberg, K. & Hawkins, D. E. (1993). Ecotourism: A Guide for Planners and Managers. Vermont, The Ecotourism Society.
- Maloney, M.P. & Ward, M.P. (1973). Ecology: Let's hear from the people. An objective scale for the measurement of ecological attitudes and knowledge, American Psychologist, Vol. 28, pp. 583-586.

- Maloney, M.P., Ward, M.P. & Braucht, G.N. (1975). A revised scale for the measurement of ecological attitudes and knowledge. *American Psychologist*, Vol. 30, pp. 787-790.
- McKercher, B. (1996). Differences between tourism and recreation in parks, *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.23, No.3, pp. 563-575.
- Mehmetoglu, M. (2010) Factors influencing the willingness to behave environmental friendly at home and holiday settings, *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, Vol.10, No.4, pp. 430-447.
- Mendes, J., Valle, P. & Guerreiro, M. (2011). Destination image and events: A structural model for the Algarve case, *Journal of Hospitality Marketing* and Management, Vol.19, No.3/4, pp. 366-384.
- Neto, F. (2003). A new approach to sustainable tourism development: moving beyond environmental protection, *Natural Resources Forum*, Vol.27, No.3, pp. 212-222.
- Noe, F.P. & Snow, R. (1990). The new environmental paradigm and further scale analysis, *Journal of Environmental Education*, Vol.21, No4, pp. 20-26.
- PENT (2013) Plano Estratégico Nacional de Turismo, Ministério da Economia e da Inovação. Available at www.turismodeportugal.pt (accessed 17 January 2013).
- Poon, A. (1993) Tourism, Technology and Competitive Strategies. Wallingford, CAB International.
- Sedmak, G. & Mihalic, T. (2008) Authenticity in mature seaside resorts, *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.35, No.4, pp. 1007-1031.
- Shetzer, L., Stackman, R.W. & Moore, L.F. (1991). Business environmental attitudes and the new environmental paradigm, *Journal of Environmental Education*, Vol.22, pp. 14-21.
- Stern, P.C., Dietz, T. & Guagnano, G.A. (1995). The New Ecological Paradigm in Social-Psychology Context, *Environment and Behavior*, Vol.26, No.6, pp. 723-743.
- Swarbrooke, J. (1999). Sustainable Tourism Management. Wallingford, CAB International.
- Tangeland, T. & Aas, Ø. (2011). Household composition and the importance of experience attributes of nature based tourism activity products - A Norwegian case study of outdoor recreationists. *Tourism Management*, Vol.32, pp. 822-832.
- Tangeland, T., Vennesland, B. & Nybakk, E. (2013) Second-home owners' intention to purchase nature-based tourism activity products e A Norwegian case study, *Tourism Management*, 1-13, 364-376.
- TIES (2007). Fact sheet: Global ecotourism. The international ecotourism society. Available at http://www.box.net/shared/static/eaukonjc0a.pdf (accessed 4 February 2013).
- Urry, J. (1990.) The Tourist Gaze. Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies. London, Sage.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn 2015, pp. 79-96 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

- Valle, P., Guerreiro, M & Mendes, J. (2010). Sustainable cultural events based on marketing segmentation: The case of Faro capital of culture, *PASOS Journal of Tourism and Cultural Heritage*, Vol. 8, No. 3, pp. 91-104.
- Valle, P., Guerreiro, M., Mendes, J. & Silva, J. (2011) The cultural offer as a tourist product in coastal destinations: The case of the Algarve, Portugal, *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, Vol. 11, No. 4, pp. 233-247.
- Valle, P., Pintassilgo, P., Matias, A. & André, F. (2012). Tourist attitudes towards an accommodation tax earmarked for environmental protection: A survey in the Algarve, *Tourism Management*, Vol. 33, No.6, pp. 1408-1416.
- Valle, P., Rebelo, E., Reis, E. & Menezes, J. (2005). Combining behavioral theories to predict recycling participation, *Environment and Behavior*, Vol. 37, No. 3, pp. 364-396.
- Valle, P., Reis, E., Menezes, J. & Rebelo, E. (2004). Behavioral determinants of household recycling participation: The Portuguese case, *Environment and Behavior*, Vol. 36, No. 4, pp. 505-540.
- Valle, P., Silva, J.A., Mendes, J. & Guerreiro, M. (2006) Tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty intention: A structural and categorical analysis, *International Journal of Business Science and Applied Management*, Vol. 1, No.1, pp. 25-44.
- Vining, J. & Ebreo, A. (1992). Predicting recycling behavior from global and specific environmental attitudes and changes in recycling opportunities, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 22, No. 2, pp. 1580-1607.
- Weigel, R. & Weigel, J. (1978). Environmental concern: The development of a measure, *Environment and Behavior*, Vol. 10, pp. 3-15.
- Williams, C & Buswell, J. (2003). Service Quality in Leisure and Tourism, CABI Publishing, Oxon.
- Wilson, A. (1992). Culture of Nature. Oxford, Blackwell.
- World Tourism Organization (2002). Eco-tourism market reports. Available at http://pub.unwto.org/epages/Store.sf/?ObjectPath=/Shops/Infoshop/Products/1245/SubProducts/1245-1 (accessed 10 April 2013).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This paper is partially financed by FCT – Foundation for Science and Technology.

SUBMITTED: JAN 2015 REVISION SUBMITTED: JUL 2015 ACCEPTED: AUG 2015 REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY **Patrícia Oom do Valle** (p@ualg.pt) is member of the Research Center for Spatial and Organizations Dynamics (CIEO), University of Algarve, Portugal. Address: Faculty of Economics, University of Algarve, Campus de Gambelas, Edifício 9, 8005-139 Faro, Portugal.

Manuela Guerreiro (mmguerre@ualg.pt) is member of the Research Center for Spatial and Organizations Dynamics (CIEO), University of Algarve, Portugal. Address: Faculty of Economics, University of Algarve, Campus de Gambelas, Edificio 9, 8005-139 Faro, Portugal.

Júlio Mendes (jmendes@ualg.pt) is member of the Research Center for Spatial and Organizations Dynamics (CIEO), University of Algarve, Portugal. Address: Faculty of Economics, University of Algarve, Campus de Gambelas, Edificio 9, 8005-139 Faro, Portugal.

THE EFFICACY OF ALTERNATIVE TOURISM **DEVELOPMENT TO OVERCOME CURRENT CRISIS:** AN EXPLORATION OF THE VIEWS OF THE STAKEHOLDERS OF THE PREFECTURE OF KORINTHIA

Athina N. Papageorgiou Technological Educational Institution of Athens

Pericles N. Lytras Technological Educational Institution of Athens

Our aim was to record the views of the stakeholders of the prefecture of Korinthia on the alternative forms of tourism suitable to develop in this destination and capable to meet current crisis. We found that they all think that new alternative forms of tourism are definitely needed but they disagree on the specific form(s) that should be developed in the area. Considerable differentiation and ambiguity was also observed on various other issues, including infrastructure development, while no co-ordination exists. We conclude that a new vector (a participation of the various parties involved) is needed to accurately record the current situation, coordinate specific actions needed (meetings, congresses, participation in expeditions, education, etc.) and help developing a comprehensive master plan for local and regional tourism development.

Keywords: Prefecture of Korinthia, local tourism stakeholders, alternative tourism

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

In Greece tourism development is based on funding, marketing, promotion and infrastructure development that is almost exclusively provided by the state; the role of the stakeholders of a tourism destination in most cases is consultative and non-institutionalized, in contrast to the

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521





Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under CC (a) Except where otherwise hotes, and the hotes/by-nc-nd/3.0/ current literature conception on the subject (Dredge, 2006, Stavrinoudis and Parthenis, 2009, Ahmad et al, 2012, Tuohino and Konu, 2014). There is also no coordination between the various parties involved (Stavrinoudis and Parthenis, 2009, Apostolakis, 2008), despite current crisis, making it difficult to propose a local tourism development strategy based on the knowledge and experience of local stakeholders.

AIM

The aim of this study was a. to investigate the attitudes of tourism stakeholders of the prefecture of Corithia on both existing tourism practice and development prospects, b. to record their views on alternative forms of tourism that are most suitable to develop in this destination and capable to meet current crisis and c. to identify the degree of co-operation and co-ordination between these institutions and also with the Ministry of Tourism.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

To meet the aims of this study we used a properly structured questionnaire, based on empirical studies (Javeau 1996, Morgan 2007, Seetanah et al, 2011). Such a questionnaire can help recording the views of Korithia stakeholders (tourism professionals, public authorities and groups, as defined by WTO, 1998) involved in, or affected (positively or negatively) by tourism in the area. Individuals who completed the questionnaire were selected by the responding institution, professional association or group. The study was contacted in March and April 2014 and the time to complete the questionnaire ranged from 8 to 15 minutes, depending on necessary clarifications and also the qualifications of the individual answering these questions. From the ten stakeholders involved in tourism development in the area three did not respond: overall, seven completed questionnaires were obtained.

RESULTS

The results of this study are shown in tables 1-9.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 97-107 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

Table 1. Which of the following affects tourism-related businesses that are under your supervision (or belong to your professional association)? Please state its magnitude.

	Yes	No	No data
a. Reduction in	42.857%	0%	57.143%
turnover			
b. Decrease in revenue	42.857%	0%	57.143%
c. Staff reductions	14.286%	28.571%	57.143%
d. Business closures	71.429%	0%	28.571%
e. Business relocation	0%	28.571%	71.429%

In answer a, all individuals reported a 30% reduction. In b, reported rates ranged between 25 and 60%. In c, reported percentage was 50% and in d, reported rates ranged between 10 and 50%.

Table 2. How did you meet current crisis?

Table 2.1. Did your institution/affiliation take any actions to meet current crisis?

Yes	0%
No	100%

Table 2.2. Did you take/develop any collaborated actions with other stakeholders? (Record your level of satisfaction -fair, good or excellent- from this joint action/s)*.

	excellent- from this joint action/s)*.				
Collabo	orations				
a. with	other local or	ganization	s or institutions involved in tourism		
develop	ment				
Yes	28.571%	No	71.429%		
	other stakeholde development	ers within	the region of Peloponnese involved in		
	42.857%	No	57.143%		
1 05	12.03770	110	57.11.570		
c. with	c. with the corresponding supervisory authority				
Yes	_				
d. with the corresponding tertiary association					
Yes	14.285%	No	85.175		

e. with the ministry of tourism

ψ1	11		1	1	.1 .	. 1	1 1	
Yes	0%	No	100%					

^{*}In all positive cases (yes) responders stated that the level of collaboration was excellent.

Table 3. What actions should have been taken at a local, regional or national level to meet the current crisis and have not yet been taken?*

- New forms of marketing, tourism restructuring, infrastructure development, new tourism programs
- Actions initially at local level, development of alternative forms of tourism
- Actions initially at local level, development of specific alternative forms of tourism
- New investment projects
- Tourism Planning and Restructuring
- Actions initially at local level, development of alternative forms of tourism (particularly sports and cycling tourism)
- Actions initially at local level, development of alternative forms of tourism (especially sports and mountain tourism)

Table 4. State the three main local advantages capable to meet current crisis

First choice	
Natural environment	71.428%
Cultural heritage	14.286%
Infrastructure and services	14.286%
Second choice	
Access to destination	71.428%
Infrastructure and services	28.572%
Third choice	
Existing alternative forms of tourism	57.142%
6	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *
Cultural heritage	28.572%
Infrastructure and services	14.286%

^{*} This was an open question.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 97-107 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

Table 5. Which alternative form of tourism is the most suitable to be developed in this area in your opinion?*

Alternative form of tourism	Area
Religious tourism	All over the prefecture
Gastronomy tourism	Major hotels and resorts
Congress tourism	The town of Loutraki
Cultural tourism	All over the prefecture
Cruises	Corinth port
Bike tourism	All over the prefecture
Climbing and walking tourism	Ziria mountain

^{*} This was an open question.

Table 6. Does the prefecture have the appropriate infrastructure to extend tourist period throughout the year?

Yes	14.285%		
No	85.175%		

Table 7. Has casino tourism been satisfactory developed in your area?

Yes	14.285%	
No	85.175%	

Table 8. What is your opinion on cruise tourism development at the port of Corinth? Please briefly explain your answer

	•	Reason/requirement
Positive	42.857%	Proper infrastructure development
Negative	57.143%	Lack of infrastructure

Table 9. Who in your opinion should coordinate the development of an adequate local tourism strategy?

Local tourism authority's	14.285%	
Regional government	0	
The state (ministry of tourism)	0	
A coordinating committee of all of the above	85.175%	

DISCUSSION

At first we were surprised by the small number of tourism stakeholders operating in the area and also of the unwillingness to participate. The small number of participants is clearly a limitation to our study: however, as the total number of stakeholders is small anyway and there are no similar post-crisis studies in Greece, our important findings can be used at least as reference points.

From the answers to the first question shown in Table 1, a reduction of 30% in turnover is estimated; this is a significant percentage, showing the depth of the crisis. Most stakeholders however do not have a clear picture due to lack of data: this is constantly observed in this study and represents a major impediment for developmental planning, since no adequate scientific analysis can be performed without proper information.

The decrease in the revenues of tourism enterprises is reported to be between 25 and 60%; this wide range is again based on estimations, as there is no solid evidence. The same is true for staff reduction (reported to be around 50%), but relies on the answer of only one stakeholder. Even so, however, these reductions are extremely high.

For businesses closed, the reported rate ranges between 10 and 50% depending on the economic field, location and specialization of services (i.e. hiking or bicycling businesses, who suffer the most) of each stakeholder. Finally, there appears to be no evidence of business relocation outside the prefecture as, from the businessman point of view, this is meaningless. We must note however that, if the Korinthia Chamber of Commerce had participated, we could have had a more accurate picture.

Table 2 gives a disappointing picture of the overall response to the crisis. No stakeholder independently took any action, while no intention for collaboration was seen, despite the fact that they silently admit that they can do nothing alone (Table 2.1) and seek collaborations in a later answer (Table 9). There is also no proposal as for the establishment of a coordinating body (possibly a convention bureau), that is, however, absolutely necessary for local tourism development (Papageorgiou, 2010).

For active stakeholders within the area of Peloponnese (the part of Greece that includes the prefecture of Korinthia), Table 2.2. shows that there appears to be only one real partnership (between the local tourism development body and the Korinth chamber of commerce), since the second recorded collaboration was between sports clubs: reported results however seems to be extremely positive. Finally, regarding the

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 97-107 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

cooperation between stakeholders and the relevant supervisory authority or union, only the Corinth Port Authority had such activities (a mandatory obligation, however): the most striking finding of this study, however, was that no stakeholder operating in the prefecture of Korinthia had any kind of collaboration with the ministry of tourism.

Table 3 records the answers to the third question, showing that the majority of participants believe that any initiative must start at the local level based on restructuring, investment and infrastructure development, while new guidelines and priorities for local tourism should be established. The majority of responders (57.1%) believe that the development of alternative forms of tourism is necessary to meet current crisis. Table 4 shows that the main local advantages for tourism development are the natural environment, the easy access from other areas (mainly Attica) and also the existing infrastructure and the existing alternative forms of tourism.

As for the most appropriate form of alternative tourism to be developed in the region (Table 5), opinions vary depending on the occupation and field of each vector: religious tourism, gastronomy tourism, congress tourism, cultural tourism, cruises, cycling tourism, mountaineering and trekking were proposed. Obviously this wide reported range is not helpful for strategic planning, especially as there is no evidence that these opinions are based on research and data analysis.

All but one participants think that, at present, the tourism period cannot be extended throughout the year (Table 6), merely due to insufficient existing infrastructure: all but one also believes that casino tourism is not yet fully developed (Table 7). Furthermore, participants seem to agree on cruise development, although they express opposing views: three responders consider that it is possible if proper infrastructure is developed, three others think that it is not possible, as no infrastructure exists, while the seventh feels that all efforts tending towards tourism development should be welcomed (Table 8).

From the answers shown in Tables 3, 5, 6 and 8, it is apparent that the issue of infrastructure is foggy. In Tables 4 and 5 existing local infrastructure seems to be an advantage to meet current crisis: in Tables 6 and 8 however, on both holiday period expansion and cruise development answers, participants think that the current infrastructure is insufficient. The understanding of quality, quantity and specification of infrastructure needed for local tourism development, apparently seems unclear.

Finally, despite the reported lack of cooperation, the answers recorded in Table 9 are extremely promising: 85.71% of stakeholders believe that the local authorities, the regional government and the state

should work together to produce an adequate developmental strategy and make the structural changes needed to meet current crisis. It remains striking, however, that these responders, who appear to favor cooperation as the only solution to overcome the crisis, have no contact with the ministry of tourism that sets the national strategy for tourism development in Greece.

International experience shows that the role of tourism stakeholders in tourism development, particularly for the development of special and alternative forms of tourism, is very important, ranging from the management and exploitation of tourism resources to research and contribution to tourism strategy development (Dredge, 2006, Stavrinoudis and Parthenis, 2009, Apostolakis, 2008, Derrett R., 2001, WTO, 1994, Gunn and Var, 2002, Mason, 2008, Ahmad et al, 2012, Tuohino and Konu, 2014). The World Tourism Organization (WTO, 1994) indicates that, although the design, the adoption and the development of certain special and alternative forms of tourism is the responsibility of national tourism bodies, this activity must include representatives of local and national agencies, associations and enterprises, since their local knowledge will actively contribute (through consultation processes) to the definition of the main axes of the local and regional tourism development (Stavrinoudis and Parthenis, 2009).

The role of the local and regional tourism stakeholders is also related to research and guidance of tourism development in three key areas: the tourism markets (both existing and potential), the strategic planning of tourism and the attempt to link the needs of the tourism market to the conditions and restrictions set by tourism planning (Apostolakis, 2008, Gunn and Var, 2002, Ahmad et al, 2012, Tuohino and Konu, 2014). Their intermediate role is also crucial in cases of specific and alternative forms of tourism, for the development of which there might be a conflict with local or private interests (Apostolakis, 2008, Mason, 2008).

Local and regional stakeholders can also manage community resources related to the development of specific and alternative forms of tourism, taking actions to allow diversification of the tourism product, making it attractive for tourists (Venetsanopoulou, 2006, Ahmad et al, 2012). Also, in cases of specialized products, stakeholders can also act as the administrators of the infrastructure: for example, they could act as managers and maintainers of thematic tourism establishments, such as protected areas and specialized museums (Gunn and Var, 2002).

Finally, their role can be also important on issues related to human resources, a point missed by the participants of this study. However, by providing specialized and targeted tourism education and training, local

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 97-107 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

and regional organizations can help local workers to develop specific skills (Tuohino and Konu, 2014): in Spain, for example, regional tourism authorities are allowed to operate schools for tourism hospitality and catering (Newton, 1996).

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This study leads to a number of important conclusions:

- There is a complete lack of will among the stakeholders of Corinthia for taking own actions to overcome current crisis.
- There is a complete lack of cooperation between these stakeholders and the ministry of tourism.
- There is no record on any parameter of local tourism, making tourism planning impossible.
- There is a strong local view, as stakeholders think that tourism development must begin at the local level, not showing any interest on any form of collaboration at a regional or national level.
- While all stakeholders think that the development of alternative forms of tourism will contribute to financial growth and tourism market expansion, there is a considerable disagreement on the specific forms that should be developed in the area.
- Considerable differentiation and ambiguity was also observed on important issues, such as the further development of casino and cruise tourism, indicating that the local stakeholders have a rather narrow view, reflecting the aforementioned lack of cooperation.
- Infrastructure development remains unspecified, while important issues such as the structural changes needed remain dim, unclarified and probably not well understood.
- It is very important however that cooperation seems to be the only way for tourism development and overcoming of current crisis.

It is apparent that only coordinated efforts can lead to adequate developmental strategies. Basic acts include:

• The establishment of high-level tourism standards

- The utilization of all available resources of the region, for the development of the most appropriate specific and alternative forms of tourism that could also help expanding tourism period and local employment.
- The establishment of a new vector (a participation of the local government, the Prefecture of Korinthia, the Municipality of Korinthia and the Chamber of Commerce of Corinth) to a record the current situation, b coordinate specific actions (meetings, congresses, participation in expeditions, education etc) and c develop a comprehensive master plan for local and regional tourism development.

The stakeholders of the prefecture of Korinthia, with their knowledge and experience could contribute greatly to the national effort to overcome the current crisis and also achieve local and regional tourism development.

REFERENCES

- Ahmad, N.A.A., Habibah, A., Hamzah, J., Mohd, Y.H. (2012). Understanding the role of stakeholder in the formation of tourist friendly destination concept. *Journal of Management and Sustainability*, Vol.2, No.2, pp.69-74.
- Apostolakis, A. (2008). Management and policy of cultural tourism. In K. Andriotis (Eds.) Sustainable tourism and alternative tourism, Athens: Stamoulis.
- Derrett, R. (2001). Special interest tourism: starting with the individual. In D.T. Duval (Eds.) *Tourism in the Carribean*, London: Routledge.
- Dredge D. (2006). Policy networks and the local organization of tourism. *Tourism Management*, Vol.27, pp. 269-280.
- Gunn, C., and Var, T., (2002). *Tourism Planning: Basics, Concepts, Cases*, 4th Edition, Routledge, USA.
- Javeau, C. (1996). Research by questionnaire, Dardanos, Athens.
- Mason, P. (2008). *Tourism impacts, planning and management*, 2nd Edition. Butterworth Heinemann, Oxford.
- Morgan, D.L. (2007). Paradigms lost and paradigms regained. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* 1(1), 48-76.
- Newton, M.T. (1996). Tourism and public administration in Spain. In M. Barke, J. Towner and M.T. Newton (Eds.), *Tourism* in Spain, Critical Issues, CAB International, Wallingford.
- Papageorgiou, A. (2010). Alternative tourism development through marketing management of stakeholders, organizations and tourism enterprises. The

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 97-107 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

- case of the prefecture of Messinia. PhD Thesis, Panteion University, Athens.
- Seetanah, B., Juwaheer, T.D., Lamport, M.J., Rojid, S., Sannassee, R.V., Subadar Agathee, U. (2011). Does Infrastructure Matter In Tourism Development? *University of Mauritious Research Journal*, Vol.17, pp.89-108.
- Stavrinoudis, Th. A., Parthenis, S.P. (2009). The role and contribution of local, regional and national stakeholders and organizations. In Soteriades, M., and Farsari I., (Eds), Alternative and specific forms of tourism, Interbooks, Athens.
- Ventsanopoulou, G.M. (2006). State contribution to tourism and alternative forms of tourism, Interbooks, Athens.
- Tuohino, A. & Konu, H. (2014). Local stakeholders' views about destination management: who are leading tourism development?, *Tourism Review*, Vol.69, No.3, pp.202-215.
- WTO (1994). National and Regional Tourism Planning: Methodologies and Case Studies, Routledge, London.
- WTO, (1998). Guide for local authorities on developing sustainable tourism. World Tourism Organization Publications, Madrid.

SUBMITTED: DEC 2014 REVISION SUBMITTED: APR 2015 ACCEPTED: MAY 2015 REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Athina N. Papageorgiou (papageorgiouathina@yahoo.gr) is a Lecturer at the Dept. of Tourism and Hospitality Management, School of Business and Economics, Technological Educational Institution of Athens Greece, 19B Tsakalof str., 16672, Vari Attikis.

Pericles N. Lytras (pericleslytras@gmail.com) is a Professor at the Dept. of Tourism and Hospitality Management, School of Business and Economics, Technological Educational Institution of Athens Greece,

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF HUMAN RESOURCES IN TOURISM MARKETING. IMPACTS ON THE EVALUATION OF THE TOURISM PRODUCT

Ourania Vitouladiti

Technological Educational Institute of Athens

Apostolos Dedousopoulos

Panteion University of Social and Political Sciences

Human resources in tourism, in the form of service personnel, are vital for the success of a business, operate as a critical factor for the creation of a destination's image and affect its selection from potential visitors. Human resources and image are crucial issues in tourism and travel marketing. However, research connecting them is limited. Taking into consideration these points this paper tries to assess the tourism personnel's images held by tourists, prior and after the visit, in an attempt to reveal deviations from their expectations concerning the personnel's performance. The fact that there is limited evidence and research on the personnel as an element of the destination image renders the approach of the current study interesting and can offer suggestions for managerial and marketing actions.

Keywords: service personnel, human resources, marketing, management, destination, expectations, performance

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry, in our days, operates in a global marketplace that is very competitive and increasingly sophisticated (Mayaka and Akama, 2007). For countries like Greece that depend heavily on the tourism sector for the employment and development of local economies, the skills of human resources are crucial in order to achieve a comparative

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521





advantage in the highly volatile and competitive tourism environment (Velissariou, 2012). Vitouladiti (2012) argues that in our days the issue of service is a rising one and emerges among the most important destination choice criteria by several targets-markets.

Human resources development plays a significant role in supporting enhanced productivity and quality at all levels within organizations, destinations and countries. Therefore, human resources issues are also applicable, at both the levels of the firm and in a macro-national context (Baum, 2007).

Christou (2002) emphasizes that all employees in every tourism business transfer a destination image to the visitor and he concludes that the employees are image carriers. Therefore, they can operate as an element of the destination's and enterprises' image. It can be said that people have a tendency to "humanize" enterprises, to attribute personality characteristics to them, to see them much as they do humans, in terms of being friendly, polite, mature etc.

The point is that image has two dimensions. The first one is the secondary image which has been created through the advertising, the several promotional activities and the word of mouth and exists prior to the visit. The second one is the primary image which is developed during the vacations. It is formulated after the visit and the "consumption" of the vacation package.

Tourism is an industry with a variety of enterprises which offer a wide range of occupations with a diversity of human capital requirements. The tourism sector in a destination has various sub-sectors (various types of accommodation, food services, local transport, tour operators, travel agencies, facilitation, tourism gift shops, heritage etc.) and the human resources employed in these enterprises. The operation of these businesses and the offered services by their personnel contribute to the earnings of an area and create income and multipliers. However, the main body of the existing studies (published empirical and conceptual analysis) of human resources issues in tourism has focused mainly on the hospitality sub-sector (Kaye and Taylor, 1997; Haynes and Fryer, 2000; Nolan, 2002 in Wang 2006; Lockyer and Scholarios, 2004; Wang, 2006; EFG Eurobank, 2007; Velissariou and Zagotsi, 2009). Inevitably existing evidence is drawn, mostly, from hotels and restaurants (Baum, 2007). This is a challenge faced by researchers, since major areas of the tourism business seem to be neglected (Lucas, 2004). Wang and Xiang (2007) have underlined that conventional research in destination marketing usually focuses on external environments for tourism destinations (e.g. segmentation studies).

This study will try to combine the issues of personnel, working in several areas of tourism and their secondary and primary image as perceived by the visitor. Also, to compare these two kinds of personnel images, in order to identify possible alterations, either positive or negative, to see possible deviations from the expectations and make proposals for improvements and managerial actions. Basically, the study will attempt to approach the issue of the personnel employed in the various sectors of tourism as an element of the tourism destination image. Also, it will try to cover the gap in research terms concerning the internal environment of tourism businesses.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Human Resources employed in tourism, as an element of the destination image, Tourism and Travel Marketing

Tourism is an activity offered by people. The most important, and perhaps the most difficult element of the tourism product to control, stems from the existing human interactions that are part of the travel experience. The participants in this process can be divided for purposes of marketing not only into: a) the visitors and b) the host community but also c) the human resources of the tourism industry in the form of employees. Tourism is a labor-intensive industry, a service industry, which depends very much on the quality of hospitality offered by employees at hotels, restaurants, attractions, gift shops, travel agencies and tourist offices (Vogt and Fesenmaier, 1995). People, operating in the tourism sector, are also widely recognized as crucial to the operational success of businesses in the sector (Baum, 2002).

Already by early 1980's, Booms and Bitner stressed the need for extending the marketing mix in tourism and travel, introducing another p due to its significance. The fifth p of the tourism and travel marketing mix refers to people, namely the human factor. The significance of this element, led not only to the extension of the marketing mix but also to the enrichment of marketing and of internal marketing, which refers to those processes associated with development, education, motivation, compensation system, recruitment and evaluation of human resources.

According to Berry and Parasuraman (1991), the essence of service marketing is that the service and its quality are its foundation. This element of the marketing mix is so important to the field of travel and hospitality that several scholars (Zeithaml et al, 1996) argue that people who work in the tourism industry are able to create and promote a

positive or negative image. Place, in many respects the 'stuff' of tourism marketing, cannot exist in isolation of the people who inhabit the spaces that they contain (Baum, 2006). The main factor that appears to make the difference for the experience of the guest and can justifiably be regarded as perhaps the most essential element in configuring the primary image is the human resources and quality of service it offers.

The importance of service quality for tourism and hospitality businesses is gaining tremendous attention. In order to provide quality service to the customers, knowledge of their service quality expectations is considered very important (Odeh and Alghadeer, 2014).

Considering the issue of image the literature, mainly, focuses on the contribution that people within the wider community make to tourism imagery and how such images are commodified and exploited (Cohen, 1995; Dann, 1996; Hollinshead, 1996). However, development of such themes within the employment context is rather neglected.

The human resources, who are responsible for the service offered, play the main role in tourism and travel marketing. No clever or persuasive advertising promotion can compensate for poor quality of service. Although most of the tourism products of a destination concern attractions, entertainment, facilities and equipment, most experts believe that the level of service makes the difference between success and failure, meaning the element of human resources, the people, this extra variable of the tourism marketing mix (Morrison, 2002). Dann (1996) refers to a group of pictorial images where, natives are service providers, entertainers and vendors. Through this multitude of roles they play a role that is supplementary to the main images promoted within the brochures. All the while their intense level of interaction with visitors can affect the perceived image of the destination and the tourism businesses they represent. Therefore, they contribute to the creation of the primary image which will be transferred to friends and relatives and will create the secondary one feeding the cycle of image creation.

As Zeithaml and Bitner (1996) suggest employees in tourism industry are the embodiment of the product, its living and breathing advertisements and images. The employees represent in the eyes of the customer the company itself and its services. Hoffman and Bateson (1997) refer to the human element as "the public face, the image of" the entire business entity. Their appearance, behavior, knowledge of their subject, friendly disposition etc. have a strong influence on the perception and image that the customer will form for the services and vacations purchased (Middleton, 2001).

Specific images regarding personnel are frequently part of the visitor's expectations of a destination, as presented by the secondary sources of information (brochures, word of mouth etc.). Urry (1990) rightly notes that the social composition of the producers, at least those who are serving in the front line, may be part of what is in fact "sold" to the customer. In other words, the "service" is inextricably linked to a production process infused with particular social characteristics, of gender, age, race, educational background and so on of the service provider and producer. Where these characteristics are represented in the marketing and branding of the destination, they may become infused into the overall destination image simplified stereotypes of place that visitors bring with them when they arrive as tourists. Employee characteristics however are not a static fixture, they can change, dramatically, in response to the way in which a destination evolves and changes, as Cukier (1998) stresses.

Trying to define the term of image a lot of definitions can be used. According to Crompton, (1979) and Gartner (1993) in general the term 'image' refers to a compilation of beliefs, and impressions based on information processing from a variety of sources over time, resulting in an internal accepted mental construct. This construct can involve products, services or even the human factor.

A lot of studies have been conducted on destination image over the years (e.g Crompton 1979; Gartner 1996; Gallarza et al 2002, etc.). Some studies have underlined its importance on issues of supply (e.g Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997; Chen and Kerstetter, 1999; Hyounggon and Richardson, 2003; Lee et al, 2005; Pike, 2009; Qu et al, 2011, etc). However, no specific attention has been paid to personnel as an element of the tourism destination supply and image. Therefore, there is a lack of research on this specific issue, rendering the approach of the current study interesting.

So, this study focuses on the comparison between the secondary and primary image of the human resources employed in tourism, as an element of the destination image. The aim is to grasp the pragmatic aspect of their performance and its evaluation by the visitors. The approach will use the visitor's demographic characteristics which can operate as differentiating factors.

This comparison will guide towards effective actions for the allocation of the local authorities' and business stakeholders' budgets regarding tourism education, employee qualifications enhancement and job requirements. Also, it will guide towards the consumers' satisfaction and their loyalty because these factors depend on the assessment of the service offered compared to the expectations.

A comparative study between the secondary and primary personnel's image variables, essentially their social and professional skills (see table 1), by carrying out empirical research is the only way to test the impact of the visit and to grasp the pragmatic aspect of the personnel performance.

HYPOTHESES

Therefore, the Hypotheses which result and have to be tested are:

Hypothesis A. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the variables of the secondary image for the service personnel. (general hypothesis)

Hypothesis A1. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the variables of the secondary image for the service personnel. The age group contributes to the modification of this image.

Hypothesis A2. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the variables of the secondary image for the service personnel. The income level contributes to the modification of this image.

Hypothesis A3. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the variables of the secondary image for the service personnel. The education level contributes to the modification of this image.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The survey was implemented in Corfu island, a traditional Greek destination and the sample was British first-time visitors. The majority of the survey participants had booked their holidays via a tour operator or travel agent. They were chosen by random sampling (from the entire island's visiting population and from all the accommodation categories) that gave a reliable sample size of 375 participants. (e=5%). The research tool was a dual self-completion questionnaire where the first section was completed upon check-in and the last before check-out, by the same participant. The first section allowed us to identify the secondary image of the tourism personnel held by the visitors, while the second one to record their primary image of the tourism personnel, which was formed after the "consumption" of the holiday package. Therefore, the contrast of the two sections and the variables analysis could offer the answers to the questions and hypotheses of the research.

The questions used a 5-point rating scale. The personnel's assessment was based on six (6) variables (social and professional skills, see table 1)

and a rating scale from 5 to 1, where very good=5, good=4, neither good nor bad=3, poor=2, very poor=1.

The sample size was analyzed as follows: Concerning age groups, 27%, 44% and 29% belonged to the age groups 18-34, 35-54, 55+ respectively. Concerning income levels, 36%, 41% and 23% belonged to the income group under £20.000, £20.000 - £40.000 and £40.001+ respectively. The duration of stay for the 50, 5% of the sample was at least one week. While the duration of stay for the 40% was two weeks. This is a positive characteristic of the study, since the sample population had a prolonged interaction with the service personnel of the tourism enterprises.

Research Hypotheses A, A1, A2, A3. Analytical statistical tests

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 variables of the secondary image for the service personnel.

The image for the service personnel consists of 6 variables. Therefore, the above hypothesis is divided into equal number of partial hypotheses. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences and the level of significance, a, is 0, 05. The general form of the hypotheses is:

$$H_0: \quad \mu_{D_i} = 0 \qquad \qquad \mu_{D_i} = \mu_{iS} - \mu_{iP}$$
 vs , where $i=1,...,6$ service personnel variables $H_1: \quad \mu_{D_i} \neq 0$ S: Secondary image, $P:Primary image$

Statistically significant modification of at least one of the 6 variables means statistically significant modification of the secondary image for the service personnel.

A1. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the variables of the secondary image for the service personnel. The age group contributes to the modification of this image.

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

$$H_0: \quad \mu_{D_{ij}} = 0 \qquad \qquad \mu_{Dij} = \mu_{ijS} - \mu_{ijP}$$
 vs , where $i=1,...,6$ service personnel variables $j=1: \text{ under } 34, \ 2: \ 35 - 54, \ 3: \ 55 + \ S: Secondary image, P:Primary image}$

A2. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the variables of the secondary image for the service personnel. The income level contributes to the modification of this image.

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

A3. The visit for the first time visitors modifies significantly the variables of the secondary image for the service personnel. The education level contributes to the modification of this image.

There are hypotheses for every education level. The statistical analysis is about paired samples t-test differences, the level of significance, a, is 0.05. The general form of the hypotheses is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{lll} H_0: & \mu_{D_{ij}} = 0 & \mu_{D_{ij}} = \mu_{ijS} - \mu_{ijP} \\ vs & , where & i=1,...,6 \ service \ personnel \ variables \\ H_1: & \mu_{D_{ij}} \neq 0 & j=1: & Secondary/Technical, \\ & 2: Higher \ technical \\ & 3: \ University \\ S: \ Secondary \ image, \ P: Primary \\ image & image \end{array}$$

Table 1. Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis A

	secondary	primary	primary secondary	-
Variables / Total sample	mean	mean	Mean Diff	p-value
Quality of service	4,50	4,41	-0,09	0,03
Communication skills	4,28	4,44	0,15	0,00
Politeness	4,54	4,50	-0,03	0,42
Level of professional				
knowledge	4,30	4,26	-0,03	0,45
Personal	4.20	4.2.1	0.00	0.05
hygiene/appearance	4,39	4,31	-0,09	0,05
Friendliness	4,61	4,51	-0,10	0,01

Table 2. Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis A1

Age			Quality of service	Communication skills	Politeness	professional knowledge	hygiene/ appearance	Friendliness
	secondary	Mean	4,47	4,32	4,58	4,20	4,36	4,59
under 34	primary	Mean	4,42	4,48	4,56	4,26	4,28	4,57
apun	diff	Mean	-0,04	0,17	-0,01	0,06	-0,06	-0,02
	dili	p-value	0,61	0,03	0,90	0,43	0,42	0,80
	secondary	Mean	4,51	4,31	4,51	4,32	4,40	4,62
- 54	primary	Mean	4,41	4,47	4,50	4,25	4,32	4,50
35.	1:00	Mean	-0,11	0,17	-0,02	-0,07	-0,08	-0,13
	diff	p-value	0,07	0,00	0,76	0,28	0,21	0,03
	secondary	Mean	4,52	4,22	4,53	4,35	4,42	4,62
25+	primary	Mean	4,42	4,34	4,45	4,29	4,30	4,48
88	1:66	Mean	-0,10	0,12	-0,07	-0,05	-0,12	-0,14
	diff	p-value	0,21	0,16	0,32	0,50	0,19	0,07

Table 3 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis A2

Income			Quality of service	Communication skills	Politeness	professional knowledge	hygiene/ appearance	Friendliness
	secondary	Mean	4,49	4,31	4,58	4,31	4,42	4,66
under 20000	primary	Mean	4,51	4,46	4,62	4,36	4,40	4,59
nder	4:ff	Mean	0,02	0,15	0,04	0,05	-0,01	-0,07
diff	dili	p-value	0,75	0,03	0,50	0,45	0,83	0,26
0	secondary	Mean	4,52	4,32	4,52	4,27	4,41	4,58
000-4	primary	Mean	4,34	4,44	4,42	4,24	4,24	4,46
	diff	Mean	-0,18	0,12	-0,10	-0,03	-0,16	-0,12
7	dili	p-value	0,00	0,04	0,11	0,63	0,02	0,05
	secondary	Mean	4,49	4,17	4,49	4,33	4,33	4,59
40001+	primary	Mean	4,40	4,39	4,46	4,16	4,27	4,48
	diff	Mean	-0,10	0,22	-0,04	-0,17	-0,06	-0,11
	uiii	p-value	0,33	0,02	0,69	0,08	0,53	0,21

Table 4 Statistical Analysis – Hypothesis A3

Educatio	on level		Quality of service	Communication skills	Politeness	professional knowledge	hygiene/ appearance	Friendliness
Secondary/ Technical	secondary	Mean	4,56	4,36	4,56	4,30	4,46	4,65
	primary	Mean	4,40	4,41	4,43	4,30	4,19	4,46
econ	diff	Mean	-0,16	0,05	-0,14	0,00	-0,26	-0,19
9 2 -	dili	p-value	0,02	0,41	0,05	1,00	0,00	0,00
cal	secondary	Mean	4,49	4,26	4,56	4,30	4,44	4,63
Higher technical	primary	Mean	4,37	4,37	4,52	4,23	4,33	4,54
her t	diff	Mean	-0,12	0,11	-0,04	-0,07	-0,10	-0,10
Hig		p-value	0,09	0,17	0,55	0,33	0,17	0,16
	secondary	Mean	4,45	4,21	4,47	4,28	4,27	4,54
University	primary	Mean	4,48	4,55	4,56	4,25	4,42	4,55
	Diff	Mean	0,04	0,34	0,11	-0,03	0,17	0,01
	Dill	p-value	0,62	0,00	0,13	0,72	0,02	0,90

Table 5 Importance of service personnel's quality according to education level

	Total	Education level				
		Secondary/ Higher				
		Technical	Technical	University		
	mean	mean	mean	mean		
Quality of service personnel employed in tourism enterprises	4.40	4.40	4.44	4.35		

Table 6 Importance of service personnel's quality according to income level

indente level						
	Total	Income level				
		under 20000£	20000- 40000£	40001+ £		
	mean	mean	mean	mean		
Quality of service personnel employed in tourism enterprises	4.40	4.35	4.38	4.53		

Table 7 Importance of service personnel's quality according to age categories

categories						
	Total	Age				
		under 34 35-54 55+				
	mean	mean	mean	mean		
Quality of service personnel employed in tourism enterprises	4.40	4.24	4.38	4.58		

Additionally, the survey participants were asked to rate the importance they attributed to the quality of service personnel as a factor of destination choice. The tables 5, 6 and 7 show the importance attributed by the participants to the quality of service personnel according to several demographic characteristics. It is evident from the means, in the above tables, that the survey participants either as the total sample or as

the demographic segments consider the issue of the human resources as an important or very important element when they choose a vacation destination (all the ratings are above 4).

Table 8. Findings - Hypothesis A

Total size of the sample	
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS
 Communication skills 	Quality of service
	Hygiene/appearance
	• Friendliness

Table 9. Findings - Hypothesis A1

According to the demographic characteristic: age					
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS				
Under 34					
 Communication skills 					
35 - 54					
 Communication skills 	 Friendliness 				
55 +					

Table 10. Findings – Hypothesis A2

According to the demographic characteristic: income					
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS				
under 20.000£					
 Communication skills 					
20.000 − 40.000£					
 Communication skills 	 Quality of service 				
	 Hygiene – appearance 				
	 Friendliness 				
40.001£ +					
 Communication skills 					

However, some variations can be noted among the different demographic groups. Specifically, the age groups appear to differentiate the importance attributed to the quality of service personnel. The younger age group displays less interest on the personnel compared to the older age group. This is expected because the older ages have more experience and demands for service. The income level also differentiates the findings

with the lower income travelers showing less interest in the quality of service personnel compared to the higher ones. This is also to be expected since more affluent visitors are also more demanding.

Table 11. Findings – Hypothesis A3

According to the demographic characteristic: education level					
POSITIVE MODIFICATIONS	NEGATIVE MODIFICATIONS				
Secondary /Technical					
	 Quality of service 				
	 Politeness 				
	 Hygiene – appearance 				
	 Friendliness 				
Higher technical					
University					
 Communication skills 					
 Hygiene – appearance 					

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 variables of the secondary image for the service personnel. All the hypotheses, the general one (A) which refers to the total size of the sample as well as the A1, A2, A3 which refer to age, income and education level respectively are supported. Significant modifications are observed at the total size of the sample as well as at the categories of age, income and education (Tables 1, 2, 3, 4. $p \le 0$, 05 and Tables 8, 9, 10, 11).

Specifically, concerning the total size of the sample significant positive modification is observed in one variable, while negative modifications are observed in three variables or attributes. Regarding the modifications in the categories of age, income and education level there are differentiations among the variables with significant modifications. At the age categories alterations are detected in two attributes, while at the income and education level, the alterations concern more attributes.

At the category of secondary/technical only negative changes are observed, on the contrary at University level only positive changes are observed. Especially, the attribute of hygiene-appearance, has positive modification only in the category of University, while it has negative

modifications (income, education) or remains unchanged in other demographic categories (age).

The attributes that seem to have the more changes are the "communication skills", where only positive modifications are detected, and "friendliness" where only negative modifications are detected. The only variable which remains unchanged is the level of professional knowledge.

Concluding, the visit affects negatively more attributes of the image of service personnel and positively less. The changes in image are detected mostly in the categories of income and education level and less in the category of age. Even though the ratings remain in the higher scales, indicating a generally positive experience, the negative modification of specific variables suggest that the visitors are underwhelmed by their experience of the service personnel during the visit rather than the opposite.

- Regarding the primary image of the human resources and personnel employed, the majority of the alterations are negative. Only one stable positive change is observed which is related with their communication skills. Attributes such us, quality of service, hygiene and appearance, friendliness, politeness demonstrate significant negative modifications. The element of the professional knowledge demonstrates a non significant alteration. The visitors, who belong at the middle income and education level, appear stricter.
- Above all, as presented in the tables 5, 6, 7 concerning the importance attributed to the quality of service personnel as a choice criterion for a destination, this element emerges as a very important factor for all the demographic groups. The ratings which range from 4.24 till 4.58 show that this element is considered "important" and "very important" by the respondents.
- These ratings in relation to the above findings reveal significant negative deviations between the tourists' expectations and evaluation. Such negative results for an important destination element should alarm all tourism stakeholders regarding the quality of the services provided, the impact on the destination image and attest to the necessity of corrective actions on the subject of personnel training and management.

HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT AND TOURISM MARKETING APPROACHES, COMMENTS, SUGGESTIONS

From the findings emerge the importance of personnel and the quality of service provided, as an element that affects the destination choice. Therefore, negative modifications, in regards to the human resources employed in tourism, are expected to lead to disappointment, negative word of mouth and affect future buying decisions.

The findings offer insights into variables capable of increasing substantially the positive future evaluation of a destination's supply and as a result contributing to the development of the area. Positive evaluation of a visit to a destination in relation to expectations, could lead to increased satisfaction and subsequently gain the customer loyalty (Bosque et al, 2005). As Sigala (2008) supports, the image the tourist forms for a tour and a destination is holistic and the tour operator packages rely on the high level of service of all the involved providers.

The key point is not only to satisfy consumers' needs but exceed their expectations, so the benefits (sources of satisfaction) greatly outweigh the potential disbenefits (sources of dissatisfaction) (Teare, 1998). It must be repeated that the personnel skills ratings remain in the higher scales, indicating a generally positive experience, however the negative changes of specific variables/skills suggest that the visitors are underwhelmed by their experience of the service personnel during the visit rather than the opposite.

In our days, customer loyalty is a basic request from destinations and a vital component to the "survival" of destinations, looking for competitive advantages and differentiation in order to support and expand their life cycle. Recent studies have proved that there is both a direct and indirect relation between customer loyalty and service quality in order to achieve high level of customer satisfaction (Olsen, 2002).

The findings of this research demonstrate the need for scientific and orderly study to determine the working conditions, the difficulties of the tourism industry, the needs of employees and enterprises, as well as to identify solutions and suggestions for producing better results. Also, the findings offer guidelines for training priorities, content of program studies, collaborative marketing and management actions creating economies of scale.

Employment is a big issue in the service sectors, as the effectiveness of service organizations is often linked with the individual qualities of their employees (Lockyer and Scholarios, 2004). The tourism industry is exceptionally sensitive regarding employment since it is characterized by

several particularities (seasonality, recruitment of unskilled workers, employee mobility to and from other industries, large number of personal businesses, identification of the executive status with the business owner status, etc.). Additionally, it shows rapid changes and developments that obviously affect the content of the service provided.

The above particularities, combined with the findings mentioned before, explain how easily a negative image of the human resources and the services provided, can occur. While, at the same time lead to a series of imperative suggestions concerning the design and implementation of periodic surveys on the developments in tourism employment. Even though part time and seasonal employment is the norm in the tourism sector, there is no reason not to apply the proper human resources practices.

Indeed, facing more turbulent market environments, development of human resources has become a critical issue in recent years with the growing interests of relying on it to achieve competitive advantages (Nolan, 2002 in Wang, 2006). It can be argued that the development of human resources will constitute the crucial element of future successful marketing strategies in a variety of destinations and tourism enterprises (hotels, tour operators etc.).

The given rapid changes in the field of tourism, demand efficient approaches. They require that companies invest in education and quality, develop employment opportunities and avoid frequent change of employees (Dedousopoulos, 2010). Today more than ever before, investment in education is imperative. The economic crisis, in principle, confirmed an already existing crisis in the workplace. Moreover, the debt burdens of the enterprises, rents, etc. push companies to reduce labor costs. These, however, are inefficient growth patterns and false prescriptions for these labor issues (Dedousopoulos, 2010).

Research interest on tourism training and education has grown significantly in recent years (Mayaka and Akama, 2007). Tertiary educators, mostly in the hospitality sector have long recognized the necessity of collaborating with tourism industry stakeholders for updated educational programs fitting to the job requirements (Raybould and Wilkins, 2006), while previous research in hospitality has investigated the employer expectations of graduates (Baum, 1991; Nelson and Dopson 1999; Kay and Russette, 2000; Perdue et al., 2000). Asonitou and Koutoulas (2013) propose that teaching and assessment approaches like case studies and new types of formative assessment, should become part of the curriculum in order to enhance deep learning strategies to students. It is known (Dedousopoulos, 2007) that, over time, job tasks associated

with a certain profession change. The talk now is of the "knowledge age" rather than the "information age" (Asonitou and Hassall, 2008).

The relation that exists among service quality, service capability and customer satisfaction is mainly determined by the level of comprehensive training programs that are provided to the staff and the team environment that is introduced inside the organisations (Stanley and Wisner, 2002). Velissariou and Zagotsi (2009) support in their study, focused to the hospitality sector, that enterprises should hire people experienced in tourism, provide opportunities for advancement and promotions as well as regular training programs to keep them up to date with current technologies and clients' developing demands. It is their opinion that travel and hospitality enterprises should make an attempt to rehire seasonal employees, strive to create a harmonic working relationship between them and make them realise their importance as the most significant asset of the business.

Major issues concerning the management, motivation and involvement of this new type of workforce can be addressed, and new models of partnership between companies and their flexible workers can be formed (Field, 1996). The creativity of the personnel, their abilities and work, move the company (Stoner, 1999). We need to offer to future executives or entrepreneurs holistic education which will empower their critical capabilities, beyond technical expertise and factitious knowledge (Asonitou and Koutoulas, 2013)

According to Dedousopoulos (2007), employers no longer demand technical skills only, arising from technology and organization of work within the production unit, but social skills as well. Basically, what emerges is the need for a holistic education for the tourism work force with a definite orientation towards the needs of the tourism sector.

Companies should explain to their employees the importance of customer satisfaction, and allocate substantial parts of their annual budget in quality management training programs. Considering, that there is a strong relation, between the human resources performance of a company and the quality of the services provided, companies should develop job specifications, exchange available information, and provide effective training programs. It must be stated that in the long run an effective service quality policy is expected to reduce the total expenditures. (Stanley and Wisner, 2002).

All the above lead to the revelation of the role of internal marketing in providing a high quality service. Basically, internal marketing recognizes and acknowledges that all employees are customers of managers and employers wishing to carry out the firm's objectives and achieve them (Odeh and Alghadeer, 2014). Internal marketing is defined as the task of hiring, training and motivating the employees who want to serve the customers well (Kotler and Armstrong, 2007). Actually, internal marketing must precede external marketing since it is practically impossible for the personnel of a company to provide excellent service if the company itself has not decided what the service should be.

In countries which have significant inbound tourism, the effects on employment are very important. In these countries, education and vocational training in tourism professions is essential to the quality of services in tourism. Higher Education should balance between liberal and vocational aspects of the discipline (Asonitou and Koutoulas, 2013).

Although this study underlined important issues, further research is necessary, supported by several techniques, with additional attributes and a variety of market segments in order to confirm, challenge or even expand the findings.

REFERENCES

- Asonitou, S. & Hassall, T. (2008). The international call for change in accounting education and the Greek context. *The Southeuropean Review of Business Finance & Accounting*, Vol.6, No.1, pp. 21-52.
- Asonitou, S. & Koutoulas, A. (2013). Using action research to develop research awareness and critical thinking in Business Administration students of TEI Athens. In *Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Quantitative and Qualitative Methodologies in the Economic and Administrative Sciences*. TEI, Athens, Greece: 23-24 May.
- <u>Baloglu</u>, S. & Brinberg, D. (1997). Affective images of tourism destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*. Vol.35, No.4, pp. 11–15.
- Baum , T . (2002). Making or breaking the tourist experience: The role of human resource management. In C. Ryan (ed.) *The Tourist Experience*, London: International Thomson, pp. 94 111.
- Baum, T. (2006). Human Resources Management for Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure. An International Perspective. London: International Thomson.
- Baum, T. (1991). Management trainees in the hotel industry: What do managers expect? *Journal of European Industrial Training*. Vol. 15, No.2, pp. 3–8.
- Baum, T. (2007). Human resources in tourism: Still waiting for change. *Tourism Management*, Vol.28, No.6, pp. 1383 1399.
- Berry, L.L., and Parasuraman, A. (1991). *Marketing Services, Competing through Ouality*. New York: The Free Press.
- Booms, B.H. & Bitner, M.J. (1981). Marketing strategies and organization structures for service firms, in J.H. Donnelly, W.R. George, (Eds)

- Marketing of Services, Conference Proceedings: American Marketing Association, Chicago, IL, pp.47-51.
- Bosque, I.A.R., Martin, H.S. & Collado, J. (2006). The role of expectations in the consumer satisfaction formation process: Empirical evidence in the travel agency sector. *Tourism Management*. Vol.27, No.3, pp. 410-419.
- Chen, P.J. & Kerstetter, D. L. (1999). International Students' Image of Rural Pennsylvania as a Travel Destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.37 (February), pp. 256–266.
- Christou, E. (2002). Examining the impact of Tourist Destination Image and Reputation on Visitor Loyalty Likelihood. *Tourism Today*, Vol.2, pp. 42-61.
- Cohen, E. (1995) Contemporary tourism trends and challenges: Sustainable authenticity or contrived postmodernity. In R. Butler and D. Pearce, (eds) *Change in Tourism. People, Places, Processes.* London: Routledge, pp. 12 – 29.
- Crompton, J.L. (1979). An Assessment of the Image of Mexico as a Vacation Destination and the Influence of Geographical Location upon the Image. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.18, No.4, pp. 18–23.
- Cukier, J. (1998). Tourism employment and shifts in the determination of social status in Bali, In G. Ringer, (ed.) *Destinations. Cultural Landscapes of Tourism*, London: Routledge, pp. 63–79.
- Dann, G. (1996). The people of tourist brochures, In T. Selwyn, (ed.) *The Tourist Image. Myths and Myth Making in Tourism*, Chichester, UK: John Wiley, pp. 61 81.
- Dedousopoulos, A. (2007). *Economic Policy of the labor market*. Part 2, Chapter 3, e-book.
- Dedousopoulos, A. (2010). Human Resources Issues. Radio interview Eurobank
- EFG (2007), Personnel Training and Hotel Sector Efficiency in Greece, Eurobank *Research Markets & Economy* vol. 4, 31 May 2007, (in Greek).
- Field, R. (1996). The flexible workforce: Redefing the role of HR. *Management Development Review*, Vol.9, No.1, pp. 5-7
- Gallarza, M., Saura, I. and Garcia, H. (2002). Destination Image: Towards a Conceptual Framework. Annals of Tourism Research, Vol.29, No.1, pp. 56-78.
- Gartner, W.C. (1993). Image Formation Process. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, Vol.2, No.2/3, pp. 191–215.
- Gartner, W.C. (1996). Tourism Development: Principles, Policies, and Policies. New York, Van Nostram Reinhold.
- Haynes, P. & Fryer, G. (2000). Human resources, service quality and performance: a case study. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol.12, No.4, pp. 240 248.
- Hoffman, K.D. & Bateson, J.E.G. (1997). Essentials of Services Marketing Fort Worth, TX. The Dryden Press.
- Hollinshead, K. (1996). Marketing and metaphysical realism: The disidentification of aboriginal life and traditions through tourism. In R.

- Butler and T. Hinch, (eds) *Tourism and Indigenous Peoples*, London: International Thomson Business Press, pp. 308 348.
- Hyounggon, K. & Richardson, S.L. (2003). Motion Picture impacts on destination images. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.30, No.1, pp. 216-237.
- Kay, C. & Russette, J. (2000). Hospitality management competencies: Identifying managers' essential skills. The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, Vol.41, No.2, pp. 52-63.
- Kaye, M. & Taylor, W.G.K. (1997). Expatriate culture shock in China: A study in the Beijing hotel industry. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol.12, No.7/8, pp. 496-510.
- Kotler, P. & Armstrong, C. (2007). *Principles of Marketing* (11th ed.). NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Lee, C., Lee, Y. & Lee, B. (2005). Korea's Destination Image Formed by the 2002 World Cup. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.32, No.4, pp. 839-58.
- Lockyer, C. & Scholarios, D. (2004). Selecting hotel staff: why best practice does not always work. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol.16, No.2, pp. 125-135.
- Lucas, R. (2004). Employment relations in the hospitality and tourism industries. London: Routledge
- Mayaka, M.A. & Akama J.S. (2007). System approach to tourism training and education: The Kenyan case study. *Tourism Management*, Vol.28, pp. 298-306.
- Middleton, V. (2001). Marketing in travel and tourism, 3rd ed., Oxford, Butterworth Heinemann.
- Morrison, A.M. (2002). *Hospitality and travel marketing*, 3rd ed. Albany, New York: Delmar Thomson Learning.
- Nelson, A.A. & Dopson, L. (1999). Future of hotel education: Required skills and knowledge for graduates of U.S. hospitality programs beyond the year 2000—Part one. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Education*, Vol.13, No.5, pp. 58-67.
- Odeh G.R. & Alghadeer, H.R. (2014). The Impact of Organizational Commitment as a Mediator Variable on the Relationship between the Internal Marketing and Internal Service Quality: An Empirical Study of Five Star Hotels in Amman. *International Journal of Marketing Studies*, Vol.6, No.3, pp. 142-147.
- Olsen, O.S. (2002). Comparative Evaluation and the Relationship between Quality, Satisfaction, and Repurchase Loyalty. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol.30. No.3, pp. 240-249.
- Perdue, J., Woods, R.H & Ninemeier, J. (2000). Club management competencies 2005: Updated information for the classroom. *Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Education*, Vol.14, No.2, pp. 19–32.
- Pike, S. (2009). Destination Brand Positions of a Competitive Set of Near-Home Destinations. *Tourism Management*, Vol.30, No.6, pp 857-67.

- Qu, H., Kim,L.H. & Im H.H. (2011). A Model of Destination Branding: Integrating the Concepts of the Branding and Destination Image. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 32, No.3, pp. 465-76.
- Raybould M. & Wilkins, H. (2006). Generic Skills for Hospitality Management: A Comparative Study of Management. Expectations and Student Perceptions. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*. Vol.13, No.2, pp. 177-188.
- Sigala, M. (2008). A supply chain management approach for investigating the role of tour operators on sustainable tourism: the case of TUI. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, Vol.16, pp. 1589–1599.
- Stanley, L.L. & Wisner, J.D. (2002). The Determinants of Service Quality: Issues for Purchasing, *European Journal of Purchasing and Supply Management*, Vol.8, No.2, pp. 97-109.
- Stoner, J.A.F. & Freeman, E.R. (1999). *Management*, fourth edition. NJ: PrenticeHall.
- Teare, R.E. (1998). Interpreting and Responding to customer needs. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, Vol.10, No. 2, pp.76-94.
- Urry , J . (1990) The Tourist Gaze. Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies, London: Sage.
- Velissariou, E. & Zagkotsi, S. (2009). Employment and Characteristics of Personnel in the Hotel Sector in Greece. HOTEL-link: A Hotel, Restaurant and Gastronomy Business Journal (Beograd) Vol. 6 (10) (13-14): pp 1017-1025.
- Velissariou, E. (2012). Tourism education, work placement and employment prespectives of the graduates in Greece: a case study. Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference, Advances in Hospitality, Tourism, Marketing and Management, (ISBN 978-960-287-139-3), Alexander TEI of Thessaloniki, Research Institute for Tourism, Democritus University of Thrace, Washington State University, Corfu Island, Greece: 31/5 3/6, 2012.
- Vitouladiti, Ou. (2012). Importance choice criteria as a basis for tourism market segmentation techniques. *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference, Advances in Hospitality, Tourism, Marketing and Management*, (ISBN 978-960-287-139-3), Alexander TEI of Thessaloniki, Research Institute for Tourism, Democritus University of Thrace, Washington State University, Corfu Island, Greece: 31/5 3/6, 2012.
- Vogt, C.A. & Fesenmaier, D.R. (1995). Tourists and Retailers' Perceptions of Services: A Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Multiple Groups, *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.22. No.4, pp. 763-780.
- Wang, Y. (2006). Strategic Employee Training and Development in Chinese Luxury Hotels. Tourismos: An International Multidisciplinary *Journal of Tourism*, Vol.1, No.1, pp. 111-118.
- Wang, Y. & Xiang, Z. (2007). Towards a Theoretical Framework of Collaborative Destination Marketing. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 46, pp. 75-85.

Ourania Vitouladiti & Apostolos Dedousopoulos

Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L.L. & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of Service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 60 April, pp. 31-46.

Zeithaml, V.A. & Bitner, M.J. (1996). Services Marketing, New York: McGraw-Hill.

SUBMITTED: FEB 2015 REVISION SUBMITTED: JUN 2015 ACCEPTED: JUL 2015 REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Ourania Vitouladiti (ouraniavitouladiti@gmail.com & ranivito@teiath.gr & ranivito@hol.gr) is an Assistant Professor in Tourism Marketing at the Technological Educational Institute of Athens, Faculty of Management and Economics, Department of Business Administration-Tourism and Hospitality Management.

Apostolos Dedousopoulos (adedous@gmail.com) is a Full Professor at the Panteion University of Social and Political Sciences, Department of Economic and Regional Development.

AGRITOURISM MARKETING DISTRIBUTION STRATEGY AND TYPOLOGY INVESTIGATION. THE CASE OF ARCADIA

Vicky Katsoni Technological Educational Institute of Athens

Panagiota Dionysopoulou Hellenic Open University

During last decades, agritourism started to grow significantly in Mediterranean area mostly due to its favourable climate. Within literature, there are many international studies that discuss the concept of agritourism in various ways. Wide-ranging definitions and labels concerning agritourism still create confusion as there is not a transparent and basic understanding of the characteristics that define it. This paper provides a comprehensive overview on behaviour patterns of agritourists by combining these patterns with the activity-based taxonomy of all definitions of agritourism into a structured framework. The research field of the case study is Arcadia, a prefecture in Peloponnese. The study contributes to the investigation of information sourcing behaviour in tourists' travel decision process and offers a comprehensive framework that can be used as a basis for more informed debate and discussion, as well as for further empirical research in future.

Keywords: Agritourism, Tourism Distribution Channels, Typology Information Search Behaviour, Tourism Marketing

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Agritourism has been recognized world-wide since the early twentieth century (Busby & Rendle, 2000; McKenzie & Wysocki, 2002; Wicks & Merrett, 2003). The development of agritourism was specifically fostered when countries established a set of policies consisting of specific

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521





guidelines, obligations, and incentives in order to encourage farm diversification through tourism and hospitality services. (Che, Veeck, & Veeck, 2005; Hegarty & Przezborska, 2005; Kizos & Iosifides, 2007; Sonnino, 2004). One example is the LEADER program that offers grants for the promotion of rural development to farmers of the member-states of European Union (E.U.) (Caballe, 1999; Cawley & Gillmor, 2008; European Court of Auditors, 2010, p.100). The attempt to understand any phenomenon requires mostly a basic conceptual understanding of the fundamental characteristics that defines it. A review of existing literature shows that there isn't any specific definition for agritourism. One can discover a wide variety of labels and definitions regarding agritourism, such as agrotourism, farm tourism, farm-based tourism, and rural tourism. (Barbieri & Mshenga, 2008; Roberts & Hall, 2001; Wall, 2000), (Iakovidou, 1997; McGehee & Kim, 2004; Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997). This results in a complex structure that combines the agriculture and tourism principles, especially when there is no distinct elucidation regarding the actual meaning of them.

While the tourism literature evidences that several factors influence travellers' behavior to consume tourism products (Lepp and Gibson, 2008; Hsu,Tsai, and Wu, 2009), to date, investigation into the determinants of agritourism consumption remains inadequate in the literature; for example, the relative importance of the various information sources (ICT sources included) used by travellers is not yet systematically analyzed. Given the increasing importance of this particular market segment for destinations, additional research is needed to understand the behavior of agritourists in an attempt to bring further theoretical and practical contributions to this field of study (Ramkissoon, Uysal and Brown, 2011). This article provides a comprehensive overview on behavior patterns of agritourists to Arcadia, Greece, and contributes to the study of information sourcing behavior in their travel decision process. It also provides a basis for channel members, especially suppliers, to assess their distribution strategies.

The research took place in Arcadia, a historic land of intense and continuous presence from antiquity to the Byzantine and modern history periods. In the European countries after the Renaissance, the "Arcadian ideal" means a dream of escape from the disturbed world of violence and exploitation and return to a world of eternal innocence and tranquillity that would be based on the good operation and fair competition of its members. The study adopts a dynamic situational perspective (Bieger and Laesser, 2002), combining characteristics of agritourists with characteristics of their trip, offering a better understanding in how tourism

distribution channels are used by agritourists and by formulating relevant hypotheses analysed below.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Meanings are the representations of a given activity developed by every person according to their background and experiences (Coulson, 2001, p. 320; Sharpley & Stone, 2010, p. 304). Tourism meanings are usually the result of any natural or social contact that takes place during a given experience (Coulson, 2001, p. 320; Greer, Donnelly, & Rickly, 2008) and can vary according to specific contextual factors including time and place (Greer et al., 2008). According to aforementioned, stakeholders can shape the meanings for agritourism so it is vital to develop successful definitions of tourism-related activities both from the supply and demand sides. (Gilbert, 2003; Stratigea, 2014). Apart from that, up to date research has assisted us to understand which bases can be used by tourism destinations to effectively segment tourism markets and these efforts have largely centred upon building tourist profiles for a destination using visitor data (Frochot, 2005).

Trying to analyze the existing theoretical framework for identifying the meanings of agritourism, the sections following deconstruct several definitions of agritourism and present a discussion of the efforts put forth by Phillip et al. (2010) to construct a broad definition of agritourism.

Deconstructing Agritourism Definitions

Definitions of agritourism are wide-ranging in the literature. The discrepancies found among the various agritourism definitions relate to three issues: (1) the type of setting (e.g., farm, any agricultural setting); (2) the authenticity of the agricultural facility or the experience; and (3) the types of activities involved (e.g., lodging, education). A fourth ontological issue was proposed to be added, related to the need of "travel", given the use of the word "tourism" (agritourism) in its label (Arroyo, Barbieri, & Rich, 2012).

The type of setting where the activity occurs forms a big difference of agritourism definitions. The majority of studies claim that agritourism must be carried out on a farm (Carpio et al., 2008; Ilbery, Bowler, Clark, Crockett, & Shaw, 1998; McKenzie & Wysocki, 2002). But, there are few studies discussing different type of agricultural settings, such as farms, ranches (e.g., Che et al., 2005; Tew & Barbieri, 2012) or the inclusion of some types of off-farm facilities, such as farmers' markets, where various

kinds of farm products are taken away from the agricultural production setting to be sold (Wicks & Merrett, 2003; Wilson, Thilmany, & Sullins, 2006). Furthermore, there are different meanings used to define agricultural establishments, especially those related to "farm". European Union defines a farm as an agricultural holding, meaning "economic unit under a single management engaged in agricultural production activities" and which can also engage in non-agricultural activities (OECD, 2001). Finally, thanks to academic developments over last decades there is a clear separation between terms "agritourism" and "rural tourism" (Colton & Bissix, 2005; Kizos & Iosifides, 2007; McGehee & Kim, 2004).

A second commonly found disagreement surrounds the authenticity paradigm related to the agricultural facility and to the experience offered (Arroyo, Barbieri, & Rich, 2012). McGehee (2007) based her agritourism development framework in the U.S. on Weaver and Fennell (1997)'s definition which explicitly excludes activities and experiences that are developed in non-working farms because they deem necessary the commercial aspect involved in this activity. Furthermore, various North American (Lobo et al., 1999; McGehee & Kim, 2004; Nickerson et al., 2001; Tew & Barbieri, 2012) and European (Hegarty & Przezborska, 2005; Kizos & Iosifides, 2007; Sonnino, 2004) studies claim that having a "working" agricultural setting is linked to recognizing this activity as one form of farm entrepreneurial diversification (Barbieri, Mahoney, & Butler, 2008). Phillip et al. (2010) expanded the authenticity debate in the context of tourist experiences by adopting MacCannell's (1973) "front" and "back" regions of authenticity theory. The particular study refers to the difference between providing the visitors an indirect experience of agricultural activities (e.g., through demonstrations, models) from a direct engagement in an agricultural process (e.g., harvesting).

A third definitional disagreement relates to the activities that agritourism comprises which is not surprising given the extent of inconsistencies related to its meaning. Such inconsistencies may be geopolitical as they seem to be associated to government policies (Arroyo, Barbieri, & Rich, 2012).

Finally, Arroyo et al. (2012) suggested the addition of an ontological discussion surrounding the definition of agritourism to the preceding debate in relation to the need of "travel", especially because the term "tourism" is embedded in the label most commonly used in the literature to depict this activity (agritourism). None of the agritourism definitions reviewed refers to the need of travel however, some of them may imply some sort of travel when mainly referring to farm-stays or entailing any type of accommodations.

A Typology-based Definition of Agritourism

The aforementioned discrepancies motivated Phillip et al. (2010) to propose a definition of agritourism through the development of an activity-based taxonomy. Figure 1 illustrates the proposed typology for defining agritourism.

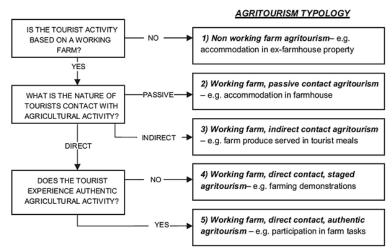


Figure 1. A typology for defining agritourism (Phillip et al., 2010)

The *Non-Working Farm agritourism (NWF)* typology refers to activities where the non-working farm only serves for scenery purposes (e.g., bird-watching on an old mill). Although the majority of the literature excludes from definition of agritourism the tourism not based on a working farm, there are cases that tourists participate in agritourism though other different ways. Examples of NWF agritourism includes farm heritage attractions, tourism activities based on converted farms (e.g. horse riding) or agricultural practices that form part of the tourist product.

The *Working Farm, Passive Contact agritourism (WFPC)* typology refers to activities that allows farmers to continue their agricultural activities without having interferences by the visitors(e.g., attending a wedding in a vineyard).

The Working Farm, Indirect Contact agritourism (WFIC) typology refers to activities that are more directly related to farm procedures, although the nature of the visitor's contact focuses more on the

agricultural products rather than the practice of farming itself (e.g., enjoying fresh produce or meals on site). A number of authors focus mostly on hospitality and accommodation components. Examples of WFIC agritourism is the consumption of agricultural products served in accommodation or café's or through sale to tourists at farm shops.

The Working Farm, Direct Contact, Staged agritourism (WFDCS) typology refers to activities through which visitors experience agricultural functions but through staged scenarios and predetermined tours (e.g. touring an operating cider mill). Other examples of WFDCS agritourism include farming demonstrations (e.g. milking cows) and direct physical contact with farm animals (e.g. feeding or petting animals).

Last but not least, the *Working Farm, Direct Contact, Authentic agritourism (WFDCA)* typology refers to activities where tourists fully participate in farm tasks. Visitors work and contribute to the farm economy in return for accommodation and food. There are limited opportunities one to experience WFDCA agritourism so there are not many examples discussed in the literature.

TOURISM DISTRIBUTION CHANNELS AND INFORMATION SEARCH BEHAVIOR

Tourism distribution channels' purposes and functions (such as information, combination and travel arrangement services), have received unequal attention from researchers examining the visitors' perspective. This is especially the case with questions of information search, in which a large discrete body of work has developed as an interest in consumer behaviour. One distinction of tourism distribution channels is being either direct or indirect in character. Direct channels normally link suppliers and consumers without the aid of channel intermediaries. Such channels normally involve suppliers developing and maintaining direct information and sales contacts with consumers in specific target market areas. Indirect distribution channels (eg. travel agents, tour operators and wholesalers), involve a wide range of organizations communicating and selling products to consumer markets on behalf of tourism suppliers and destinations (Gee, Makens and Choy, 1989; Michie and Sullivan, 1990). All of these channel operators have the potential to significantly influence the travel patterns and behaviors of specific travel markets.

There is no clear answer to the question which type of channel is better to be used and it is important for tourism suppliers and destination marketing organizations to understand the product preferences, the prior experiences, perceived risks, travel package price thresholds, use of

unique or novel destinations, and market support needs of channel partners and their customers prior to forming their marketing strategy (Hsieh and O'Leary, 1993; Haukeland, 1995; Snepenger et al., 1990; Calantone and Mazanec, 1991). Generally, the closer the destination is to the consumer in physical, product awareness and experiential terms, the more direct the channel of distribution becomes. Frequently though, strategic information concerning the product preferences of potential channel partners and their customers is not available (Murray, 1991).

Understanding how customers acquire information is important for marketing management decisions, because a travel planning process includes multiple decisions and interactions among decisions (Fesenmaier and Jeng, 2000; Pan and Fesenmaier, 2003). A plan is a traveller's reasoned attempt to recognize and define goals, consider alternative actions that might achieve the goals, judge which actions are most likely to succeed, and act on the basis of those decisions (Hoc, 1988). This definition of planning includes all information search behaviours, information uses or applications, purchase behaviours, actual trip behaviours, and the learning from all these experiences.

The Internet has intensified the complexity of the travel decision-making process, as it has become an important channel for travellers' information search (Gretzel, Fesenmaier, and O'Leary, 2006; Gursoy and McLeary 2003; Pan and Fesenmaier 2006; Xiang, Weber, and Fesenmaier 2008 Jun H.S., Vogt A.C., Mackay J. K. ,2007), creating an environment whereby online information providers such as tourist boards, hotel and resort websites, travel agents, bloggers and magazines actively compete for attention to attract searchers and ultimately, bookers.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

All the previously mentioned approaches demonstrate the complexity of the agritourism phenomenon, illustrate a range of approaches in its typology, and emphasize a concern with determinants, information sources, decision making, and segmentation. The overall goal of the present research was to combine research about information both at the tourism destination and before the trip, question whether segmentation based on the information search behavior is an appropriate way to develop marketing strategies and target marketing communications for agritourism and analyze the importance of information at destination from the tourists' perspective. The specific objectives of the study were firstly, an analysis of the sociodemographic characteristics. Secondly, an analysis of their trip characteristics: trip organization (package holiday/self guided

holiday), time used to make the trip decision, type of accommodation, travel companion and booking. Thirdly, an analysis of their information sourcing behaviour, based on internal and external information sources, and ICT use in particular: the Internet, the use of Global Positioning System (GPS) and the Personal Digital assistant (PDA).

Bearing in mind the objectives of this study the hypotheses formulated state the following:

- (H1) The socio-demographic characteristics of the agritourist (gender, age, education level, occupation, nationality), differ from the characteristics of the other tourists in the area
- (H2) Agritourists' trip characteristics differ from the characteristics of other tourists in the area
- (H3) The purpose of the trip (agritourism) has an effect on the way tourists seek information.

METHODOLOGY

Data Collection

This investigation was designed to further understand the tourism market in the province of Arcadia, Greece, over a period of 12 months, between July 20130 and July 20141 to eliminate seasonality. The survey, included Greek and foreign tourists in the region. In cases where the hotel owner or manager agreed to collect the data for the study, the survey questionnaires were distributed to the survey sites, and respondents freely participated in answering the survey questionnaire after they had stayed in the hotel for at least one night. Then, researchers visited and collected the survey questionnaires from each hotel accommodation.

Data were collected by using a four-page self-administered questionnaire primarily designed to gather information on the subjects' general motivations for travel. A total of 3500 questionnaires were given to tourists and consequently, 768 usable questionnaires were collected, which leads to the response rate of 21.94%.

Analysis

In order to identify special characteristics of the sub-population of tourists that have replied positively to the question on how likely they are to be interested in visiting agricultural sites in their vacation, we have separated this group from the rest of respondents and have constructed the following sub-groups for subsequent analysis:

- Group A (N = 286): 'Very likely' or 'Likely' to be interested in visiting agricultural sites
- Group B (N = 482): 'Very unlikely' or 'Unlikely' or 'Neither likely nor unlikely' to be interested in visiting agricultural sites

The survey data were coded and analyzed using R, an open-source statistical package. Descriptive-statistics analysis was applied to the collected data to explore the overall sample profile. Chi-square tests have been conducted to verify whether differences between the two subgroups, as regards particular characteristics of the population of tourists, are due to chance variation or reveal some statistically significant trend. Chi-squared tests were chosen for use in this exploratory investigation to aid in making inference about the uniform distribution (or not) of the two sub-groups in relation to demographic, trip characteristics, selection of information sources for their journey and degree of satisfaction from the use of these information sources.

In the following paragraphs we analyse the special characteristics of the two sub-groups.

RESULTS

Demographic Characteristics

The initial chi-square analyses were conducted to determine differences among the Group A and Group B tourists' gender, age, education, occupation and nationality. Results in Table 1 reveal a significant chi-square only for the variable Nationality/Origin (), suggesting that nationality is not independent of the tourists' reported preference/interest in visiting agricultural places in their vacation.

As a result, figures on Table 1 reveal that it is more likely for Greek than foreign tourists to show preference in visiting agricultural places in their vacation.

Table 1. Chi-Square analysis of demographic characteristics of tourists who find interest in visiting agricultural places in their

	Vacation					
Very	likely to be	Very un	ilikely to			
intere	sted (Group	be int	erested			
	A)	opinion	(Group B)			
n	%	n	%			
286		482				

Name 123 43 200 41.5 = 1, p-value = 0.7.	G 1					
Female 156 54.5 271 56.2 = 1, p-value = 0.7.		123	13	200	41.5	X-squared = 0.1279, df
Age						= 1, p -value $= 0.7206$
15-25 37 12.9 75 15.6 25-35 84 29.4 152 31.5 35-45 68 23.8 109 22.6 25.6 27 9.4 38 7.9 20 27 9.4 38 7.9 27 27 27 27 27 27 27 2		130	34.3	2/1	30.2	
25-35 84 29.4 152 31.5 X-squared = 1.9720 35-45 68 23.8 109 22.6 = 5, p-value = 0.85 45-55 52 18.2 83 17.2 = 5, p-value = 0.85 55-65 27 9.4 38 7.9 over 65 11 3.8 16 3.3 Higher level of education Primary 12 4.2 15 3.1 Secondary/high school 55 19.2 132 27.4 Tertiary 116 40.6 195 40.5 Postgraduate Studies 62 21.7 104 21.6 Other 27 9.4 27 5.6 Occupation Scientific, free professional, technical and related worker Administrative and managerial worker Clerical worker 56 19.6 87 18 Trade and sales worker 15 5.2 37 7.7 Farmer, fisherman and related worker Craftsman, worker, operator Pensioner 15 5.2 23 4.8 Housework 10 3.5 27 5.6 Unemployed, looking for job Student 21 7.3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X-squared = 1.9720 X-squared = 1.9720 31.5 126 26.1 31.7 9 1.9 9, p-value = 0.05 31.5 126 26.1 4.4 4.4 4.5		37	12.9	75	15.6	
35-45 68 23.8 109 22.6						
A5-55 52 18.2 83 17.2 = 5, p-value = 0.85						X-squared = 1.9726, df
Nationality/origin Secondary Seconda						= 5, p -value $= 0.853$
Higher level of education Primary 12 4.2 15 3.1 Secondary/high school Tertiary Postgraduate Studies Other Occupation Scientific, free professional, technical and related worker Administrative and managerial worker Clerical worker Farmer, fisherman and related worker Cafftsman, worker, operator Pensioner Housework Unemployed, looking for job Student Nationality/origin Foreign tourists Postgraduate Studies 62 21.7 4.0 4.2 104 4.0 195 40.5 196 40.5 27.4 X-squared = 9.171. 24.2 25.6 3.1 3.1 X-squared = 9.171. 4.1 4.2 4.3 4.1 4.3 7.1 14.7 14.7 14.7 14.7 14.7 14.7 14.7 15 16 17 9 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	55-65	27	9.4	38	7.9	
Primary 12 4.2 15 3.1	over 65	11	3.8	16	3.3	
Primary 12 4.2 15 3.1	Higher level of					
Secondary/high school 55 19.2 132 27.4 X-squared = 9.171. Postgraduate Studies 62 21.7 104 21.6 4, p-value = 0.05 Other 27 9.4 27 5.6 Occupation Scientific, free professional, technical and related worker Administrative and managerial worker Clerical worker 56 19.6 87 18 Trade and sales worker 15 5.2 37 7.7 X-squared = 9.7576 Farmer, fisherman and related worker Craftsman, worker, 0perator Pensioner 15 5.2 23 4.8 Housework 10 3.5 27 5.6 Unemployed, looking 12 4.2 22 4.6 Student 21 7.3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X-squared = 11.66 df = 1, p-value = 1.66 df =						
Tertiary 116	Primary	12	4.2	15	3.1	
Postgraduate Studies 62 21.7 104 21.6 21.6 Other 27 9.4 27 5.6 Occupation Scientific, free professional, technical and related worker Administrative and managerial worker Clerical worker 15 5.2 37 7.7 Farmer, fisherman and related worker Craftsman, worker, operator Pensioner 15 5.2 23 4.8 Housework 10 3.5 27 5.6 Unemployed, looking for job Student 21 7.3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X-squared = 0.05 40.0 195 40.3 21 2.6 104 21.6 26.1 14.7 26.1 14.7 26.1 14.7 26.1 14.7 26.1 14.7 26.1 14.7 27.7 27.7 24.8 24.8 25.6 25.6 27.5 26 26.1 26.1 27.7 3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X-squared = 11.66 df = 1, p-value = 11.66 df = 1, p-value = 11.66	Secondary/high school	55	19.2	132	27.4	Y squared = 0.1713 df
Postgraduate Studies 62 21.7 104 21.6 Other 27 9.4 27 5.6 Occupation Scientific, free professional, technical and related worker Administrative and managerial worker Clerical worker 56 19.6 87 18 Trade and sales worker 15 5.2 37 7.7 X-squared = 9.757, Farmer, fisherman and related worker Craftsman, worker, 0 perator Pensioner 15 5.2 23 4.8 Housework 10 3.5 27 5.6 Unemployed, looking 12 4.2 22 4.6 Student 21 7.3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X-squared = 11.66 df = 1, p-value = 1.66 df = 1, p-value = 1.66	-					
Occupation Scientific, free professional, technical and related worker 90 31.5 126 26.1 Administrative and managerial worker 41 14.3 71 14.7 Clerical worker 56 19.6 87 18 Trade and sales worker 15 5.2 37 7.7 X-squared = 9.757 Farmer, fisherman and related worker 5 1.7 9 1.9 = 9, p-value = 0.3 Craftsman, worker, operator Pensioner 15 5.2 23 4.8 Housework 10 3.5 27 5.6 Unemployed, looking for job Student 21 7.3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin 26 9.1 89 18.5 X-squared = 11.66 Af = 1, p-value = 4f = 1, p-value = 11.66 11.66 11.66 11.66	Postgraduate Studies			104	21.6	- 4, p-value - 0.03030
Scientific, free professional, technical and related worker Administrative and managerial worker Clerical worker Clerical worker 15 5.2 37 7.7 X-squared = 9.7576 Trade and sales worker 15 5.2 37 7.7 X-squared = 9.7576 Trade and sales worker 15 5.2 37 7.7 X-squared = 9.7576 Trade and sales worker 15 5.2 37 7.7 X-squared = 9.7576 Trade and sales worker 15 5.2 37 7.7 X-squared = 9.7576 Trade and sales worker 15 5.2 23 4.8 Trade and sales worker 15 5.6 Trade and sales worker 15 5.2 7 5.6 Trade and sales worker 15 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7		27	9.4	27	5.6	
professional, technical and related worker Administrative and managerial worker Clerical worker Trade and sales worker Farmer, fisherman and related worker Craftsman, worker, operator Pensioner Pensioner Housework Unemployed, looking for job Student Foreign tourists Administrative and and 14.3 14.3 71 14.7 14.7 37 7.7 37 7.7 37 7.7 37 7.7 37 7.7 38 7.7 39 1.9 9 9.9 1.9 9, p-value = 0.3 4.4 4.4 4.4 4.5 4.5 4.6 5.6 4.6 5.6 4.6 5.6 4.6 5.6 4.8 4.9 4.0 5.6 4.0 5.6 4.0 5.6 4.0 5.6 4.0 5.6 4.0 5.6 4.0 7.7						
and related worker Administrative and managerial worker Clerical worker Clerical worker Clerical worker Trade and sales worker Farmer, fisherman and related worker Craftsman, worker, operator Pensioner Pensioner Housework Unemployed, looking for job Student Nationality/origin Foreign tourists All 14.3 71 14.7 14.7 25 37 7.7 37 37 37 37 37 37 37 3						
Administrative and managerial worker Clerical worker Clerical worker Clerical worker Trade and sales worker Farmer, fisherman and related worker Craftsman, worker, operator Pensioner Housework Unemployed, looking for job Student Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 41 14.3 71 14.7 14.7 18 87 18 7.7 7.7 7.7 7.8 7.9 1.9 1.9 1.9 1.9 1.9 1.9 1.9		90	31.5	126	26.1	
managerial worker Clerical worker Clerical worker Clerical worker Clerical worker Trade and sales worker Farmer, fisherman and related worker Craftsman, worker, operator Pensioner Housework Unemployed, looking for job Student Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 41 14.3 71 14.7 14.7 18 87 18 7.7 7.7 7.8 7.9 1.9 1.9 1.9 1.9 1.9 1.9 1.9						
Clerical worker 56 19.6 87 18 Trade and sales worker 15 5.2 37 7.7 Farmer, fisherman and related worker 5 1.7 9 1.9 = 9, p-value = 0.3 Craftsman, worker, operator 18 6.3 21 4.4 Pensioner 15 5.2 23 4.8 Housework 10 3.5 27 5.6 Unemployed, looking for job Student 21 7.3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X-squared = 11.66 df = 1, p-value = 0.3 A		41	14.3	71	14.7	
Trade and sales worker 15 5.2 37 7.7 X-squared = 9.7576 Farmer, fisherman and related worker 5 1.7 9 1.9 = 9, p-value = 0.3 Craftsman, worker, operator 18 6.3 21 4.4 Pensioner 15 5.2 23 4.8 Housework 10 3.5 27 5.6 Unemployed, looking for job Student 12 4.2 22 4.6 Student 21 7.3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X-squared = 11.66 $df = 1, p-value = 0.3$			10.6	0.5	10	
Farmer, fisherman and related worker Craftsman, worker, operator Pensioner 15 5.2 23 4.8 Housework 10 3.5 27 5.6 Unemployed, looking for job Student 21 7.3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X-squared = 11.66 $df = 1, p-value = 0.3$						
Farmer, Tisherman and related worker Craftsman, worker, operator Pensioner 15 5.2 23 4.8 Housework 10 3.5 27 5.6 Unemployed, looking for job Student 21 7.3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X-squared = 11.66 $df = 1, p-value = 0.3$		15	5.2	37	7.7	X-squared = 9.7576, df
Craftsman, worker, operator 18 6.3 21 4.4 Pensioner Pensioner 15 5.2 23 4.8 Housework Housework Housework In Unemployed, looking for job Student 12 4.2 22 4.6 Student In Value	,	5	1.7	9	1.9	= 9, p-value $= 0.3705$
operator Pensioner 15 5.2 23 4.8 Housework 10 3.5 27 5.6 Unemployed, looking for job Student 21 7.3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X-squared = 11.66 df = 1, p-value =						. 1
Pensioner 15 5.2 23 4.8 Housework 10 3.5 27 5.6 Unemployed, looking for job Student 12 4.2 22 4.6 Student visuality/origin 21 7.3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X-squared = 11.66 $df = 1$, p -value = 10		18	6.3	21	4.4	
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		15	5.2	23	18	
Unemployed, looking for job Student 21 7.3 55 11.4 Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X -squared = 11.66 $df = 1$, p -value =						
		10				
Student217.35511.4Nationality/originForeign tourists269.18918.5 X -squared = 11.66 $df = 1$, p -value = $f(x)$	1 ,	12	4.2	22	4.6	
Nationality/origin Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X -squared = 11.66 $df = 1$, p -value =		21	7.3	55	114	
Foreign tourists 26 9.1 89 18.5 X -squared = 11.66 $df = 1$, p -value =		21	1.5	33	11.7	
df = 1, p -value =		26	9.1	89	18.5	X-sauared = 11.6626.
	i oroigii tourists	20	7.1	0,	10.5	
, = ===================================	Native (Greek) tourists	260	90.9	393	81.5	
	- ()				~	***************************************

Trip Characteristics

The tests on the trip characteristics of tourists in Group A and Group B, as displayed in Table 2, reveal that it is more likely for tourists of Group A compared to tourists of Group B to consult a travel agent to book accommodation but less common to book it by themselves directly from the producer via the Internet.

Table 2. Chi-Square analysis of trip characteristics of tourists who find interest in visiting agricultural places in their vacation

	interest	Very likely to be interested (Group A)		ikely to be d opinion 3)	
	n	%	(Group E	%	
	286		482		
Trip organization					
Package tour/holiday	19	6.6	22	4.6	
Partial package	33	11.5	55	11.4	X-squared = 1.888, df =
tour/holiday	33	11.5	33	11.4	2, p -value = 0.3891
Self-guided	224	78.3	402	83.4	2, p-value 0.3071
tour/holiday		, 0.5	.02		
Final decision for the					
trip was taken					
Less than 1 month before departure	196	68.5	299	62	
1 to 6 months before					X-squared = 3.467, df =
the departure	66	23.1	138	28.6	2, p -value = 0.1767
More than 6 months					2, p-value 0.1707
before the departure	21	7.3	40	8.3	
Type of					
accommodation					
Hotel/club (4*/5*)	71	24.8	140	29	
Agritourist	51	17.8	87	18	
accommodation B&B					
Friends & Relatives	25	8.7	24	5	
Hotel/club (2*/3*)	63	22	120	24.9	X-squared = 10.9752, df
Holiday Home	27	9.4	37	7.7	= 6, p -value $= 0.08915$
Camping (including tent, trainer, mobile	7	2.4	29	6	-
home)	/	2.4	29	O	
Combination of the					
above	20	7	33	6.8	
Travel with					
On your own	24	8.4	22	4.6	
With one or more	140	49	243	50.4	X-squared = 5.094, df =
friends					2, p -value = 0.07831
With your family	114	39.9	211	43.8	
Book accommodation					
through Travel agent	38	13.3	37	7.7	
By yourself directly	30	13.3	31	/./	
from the producer via	171	59.8	295	61.2	
the telephone	1,1	22.0	-/-	V	X-squared = 10.1973, df
By yourself directly					= 3, p -value $= 0.01696$
from the producer via	23	8	64	13.3	. 1
the Internet					
By other person	47	16.4	79	16.4	

Information Search Behaviour of Agritourists and Degree of Satisfaction

The aim of this part of the analysis is to explore the tourists' habits in what regards the preference they show in the selection of information sources for their journey. Comparisons between the two sub-groups (Group A and Group B) have been conducted using the chi-squared test (Table 3) and a significant chi-square has been derived for the source only: Radio and TV broadcasts (). Figures in Table 3 reveal that it is more likely for tourists in Group A to use the Radio and TV broadcasts than tourist in Group B.

Information sources are displayed in Table 3 in descending order of preference for tourists in Group A.

Table 3. Chi-Square analysis of booking characteristics of tourists who find interest in visiting agricultural places in their vacation

		kely to be crested	Very unlikely to be interested opinion		
	(Gr	oup A)	(Group B)		
Total	n 286	%	n 482	%	
Recommendations from friends and relatives	149	52.1	266	55.2	X-squared = 0.5707, df = 1, p-value = 0.45
INTERNET	141	49.3	265	55	X-squared = 2.1005, df = 1, p-value = 0.1472
Travel guidebooks and travel magazines	95	33.2	174	36.1	X-squared = 0.5349, df = 1, p-value = 0.4645
Personal experience / knowledge	76	26.6	100	20.7	X-squared = 3.1276, df = 1, p -value = 0.07698
Radio and TV broadcasts (documentary and news)	73	25.5	91	18.9	X-squared = 4.3317, df = 1, p-value = 0.03741
Information brochures	50	17.5	74	15.4	X-squared = 0.4544, df = 1, p-value = 0.5003
Advertisments and articles in newspapers/magazines	39	13.6	80	16.6	X-squared = 0.9865, df = 1, p-value = 0.3206
Oral information provided by retailer/agency	19	6.6	20	4.1	X-squared = 1.8277, df = 1, p-value = 0.1764
Information from using a Global Positioning System (GPS)	17	5.9	21	4.4	X-squared = 0.6536, df = 1, p-value = 0.4188
VIDEO/CD- ROM/DVD/VIDEOTE XT	14	4.9	27	5.6	X-squared = 0.0651, df = 1, p-value = 0.7987
Hotel listings	13	4.5	35	7.3	X-squared = 1.8199, df

	inte	kely to be crested oup A)	Very unlikely to be interested opinion (Group B)		
					= 1, p-value $= 0.1773$
Information from using a P.D.A (Personal Digital assistant)	11	3.8	23	4.8	X-squared = 0.1776, df = 1, p-value = 0.6734
provided by tourist information at destination or from local tourist offices	4	1.4	9	1.9	X-squared = 0.039, df = 1, p-value = 0.8435

Overall tourists interested in visiting agricultural places in their vacation (Group A) are both satisfied and not satisfied with the information sources, to a significantly larger extent () than other tourists (Group B) (Table 4). Neutral opinion is less common in Group A compared to Group B.

Table 4. Chi-Square Analysis of the Degree of satisfaction with information sources for Tourists who find interest in visiting agricultural places in their vacation

	be interes	y/likely to ted (Group 1)	unlikely likely no to be ii	ely/very or neither or unlikely nterested (Group B)	
	n	%	n	%	
	286		482		
Satisfied	210	73.4	327	67.8	V saugued = 12 5020 df
Somewhat satisfied	58	20.3	144	29.9	X-squared = 12.5939, df
Not satisfied	14	4.9	9	1.9	= 2, p -value $= 0.001842$

CONCLUSIONS

Hypothesis 1 was tested in figures on Table 1, which reveal that it is more likely for Greek than foreign tourists to show preference in visiting agricultural places in their vacation. Agritourists in Arcadia are mainly between the age of 25-45 (53.2%), scientific and free professionals (31.5%), Clerical workers (19.6%), Administrative and Managerial workers (14.3%) and 40.6% have finished tertiary education.

The tests for hypothesis 2 reveal that agritourist prefer a self-guided tour/holiday (78.3%), their final decision for the trip was taken less than 1 month before their departure (68.5%), they travel with their families

(39.9%) and they book accommodation by themselves directly from the producer via the telephone (59.8%). The surprising result was that the majority of agriotourists (24.8%) actually stay in first class Hotels/clubs (4*/5*), where only 17.8% prefer to stay in an agriotourist accommodation. This implies that either agritourists show a passive appreciation of agriculturally-produced landscapes as a backcloth for tourism, or that there is no need to be an interwined direct connection between tourism and the agrarian environment in order to define agritourism as such, contrary to Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997 and Gladstone & Morris, 2000 arguments against. Agritourism could be involving active participation in farming life and production activities as suggested by Iakovidou, 1997, but it could not necessarily imply staying in a farm overnight; agritourists can experience varying ways of authenticity, as it has already been mentioned by MacCannell's continuum, where tauthenticity can be staged from reproduced settings that appear to be authentic (e.g. a model farm) to organised visits that allow tourists a glimpse backstage (e.g. farm tours). In our case, the results verify the fact that often the nature of contact between agriculture and tourism is not defined (Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997; Sonnino, 2004).

Hypothesis 3 is only partially verified by the results of this analysis. The present study agrees with other researchers that travellers usually rely on multiple information channels (Bieger and Laesser, 2004; Zins, 2007). Thus, tourists interested in visiting agricultural places in their vacation seek information on the place that they visit from recommendations from friends and family and secondly from the Internet. This increased use of the internet shows its enormous importance, as a single interaction on the Internet can provide product information, a means for payment and product exchange, and distribution, whereas a more traditional interaction frequently separates these functions (Jun , Vogt and Mackay, 2007). It is noteworthy though, that the use of the internet was quite limited for booking purposes for agritourism in Arcadia (8%), a fact than needs to be investigated in future studies.

Third in their preference come Travel guidebooks and travel magazines, while personal experience/knowledge, radio & TV broadcasts, and Information brochures are also high in their choices. The two last in their choice are the P.D.A and Oral information provided by tourist information at destination or from local tourist offices. There is no doubt that in the future, mobile technology will increasingly provide opportunities for real-time travel information. Even today mobile technology can bring the latest up-to-date information anytime and anywhere to customers. Tomorrow developments such as select cell

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp.131-152 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

phones and personal digital assistants (PDAs) provide real-time Web links (Jun,Vogt & Mackay, 2007). Select automobiles offer telematics (Web access in a vehicle). A new generation of mobile broadband networks provides wireless communication spurring development of location based services using global positioning systems (GPS) (Jun,Vogt & Mackay, 2007). In addition, travellers have begun to use other so called Web 2.0 websites which enable them to share their views and opinions about products and services (Pan, MacLaurin & Crotts, 2007; Xiang & Gretzel, 2009) All these developments will influence both information search and provision (Berger, Lehmann & Lehner, 2003; O'Brien & Burmeister, 2003). Future studies should be conducted to understand how to connect customers' Internet use to mobile use for agricultural products.

The results of this study have important implications from managerial perspectives at the tourism destinations. The present study can help managers carry out this task in a more informed and strategic manner by examining the effects of demographic traits on the agritourist consumption and consider the effects that information has for the agritourists at destinations. This information increases the economic impacts from travel and tourism in the destinations, adopting the necessary measures to reinforce the forms of information analyzed in this study in order to attract the suitable target market. The implantation of the forms of communication analyzed requires the collaboration of diverse tourist agencies and the creation of the Destination Management Systems (DMSs) or the Destination Management Organizations (DMO) that should integrate all these information in a manner that attends to the needs of the tourists. This article supports the view that developing alliances with well-positioned, knowledgeable distribution channels is especially important for the assessment of tourism policies and coordination in the communication process with more traditional media in order to have a unified message from all media that reaches the public should also be part of the marketing strategy, be part of the advertising campaign or the promotion of the destination (Kavoura & Katsoni, 2013). The research implies that a segmentation based on the information search behavior is an appropriate way to develop marketing strategies and target marketing communications.

As Arcadia's tourism industry grows in both capacity and services, so will its need for a wide variety of distribution channels. Fundamental technological shifts have a profound impact on the perception, consumption and construction of tourism spaces, and their local development outcomes, and 'traditional' regional communities have new

tools through which to disseminate their concerns, and may, via global networks, gain new 'community members' that can represent their interests around the world (Katsoni & Venetsanopoulou, 2013). It seems evident that tourism boards can have a significant impact on these processes, and the present findings will possibly help in outlining a cursory examination of these issues.

REFERENCES

- Andereck, K.L. & Caldwell, L.L. (1994). Variable selection in tourism market segmentation models. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.33, No.2, pp. 40-46.
- Arroyo, G.C., Barbieri, C. & Rich R.S. (2013). Defining agritourism: A comparative study of stakeholders' perceptions in Missouri and North Carolina. *Tourism Management*, Vol.37, pp. 39-47.
- Assael, H. (1984). Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action. Boston, Kent.
- Baloglu, S. (1999). A Path Analytic Model of Visitation Intention Involving Information Sources, Socio-Psychological Motivations, and Destination Image. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, Vol.8, No.3, pp. 81-91.
- Barbieri, C. & Mshenga, P.M. (2008). The role of the firm and owner characteristics on the performance of agritourism farms. *Sociologia Ruralis*, Vol.48, No.2, pp. 166-183.
- Barbieri, C., Mahoney, E. & Butler, L. (2008). Understanding the nature and extent of farm and ranch diversification in North America. *Rural Sociology*, Vol.73, No.2, pp. 205-229.
- Barbieri, C. (2010). An importance-performance analysis of the motivations behind agritourism and other farm enterprise developments in Canada. *Journal of Rural and Community Development*, Vol.5, No.1,2, pp. 1-20.
- Bettman, J.R., & Sujan, M. (1987). Research in Consumer Information Processing. In M.J. Houston (Eds.), *Review of Marketing* (pp. 197-235). Chicago: American Marketing Association.
- Bettman, J.R. (1979). An Information Processing Theory of Choice. Addison-Wesley Publishing, Reading, MA.
- Bieger, T. & Laesser, C. (2002). Market Segmentation by Motivation. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.41, No.1, pp. 68-76.
- Bieger T. & Laesser, C. (2004). Information Sources for Travel Decisions: Toward a Source Process Model. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.42, No.2, pp. 357-371.
- Bowler, I., Clark, G., Crockett, A., Ilbery, B. & Shaw, A. (1996). The development of alternative farm enterprises: a study of family labour farms in the Northern Pennines of England. *Journal of Rural Studies*, Vol.12, pp. 285–295.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp.131-152 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

- Burton, R.J.F. (2004). Seeing through the "good farmer's" eyes: towards developing an understanding of the social symbolic value of "productivist" behaviour. *Sociologia Ruralis*, Vol.14, pp. 195–216.
- Busby, G. & Rendle, S. (2000). The transition from tourism in farms to farm tourism. *Tourism Management*, Vol.21, pp. 635-642.
- Butts, S., McGeorge, A. & Briedenhann, J. (2005). The great Cornish maize maze: low risk, low cost, high yield. *Culture and Agriculture*, Vol.27, pp. 61–68.
- Caballe, A. (1999). Farm tourism in Spain: a gender perspective. *GeoJournal*, Vol.48, No.3, pp. 245-252.
- Carpio, C., Wohlgenant, M. & Boonsaeng, T. (2008). The demand for agritourism in the United States. *Journal of Agricultural and Resource Economics*, Vol.33, No.2, pp. 254-269.
- Cawley, M. & Gillmor, D.A. (2008). Integrated rural tourism: concepts and practice. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.35, No.2, pp. 316-337.
- Cha, S., McCleary, K.W. & Uysal, M. (1995). Travel Motivations of Japanese Overseas Travellers: A Factor-Cluster Segmentation Approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.34, No.2), 33-39.
- Che, D., Veeck, A. & Veeck, G. (2005). Sustaining production and strengthening the agritourism product: linkages among Michigan agritourism destinations. *Agriculture and Human Values*, Vol.22, pp. 225-234.
- Clarke, J. (1996). Farm accommodation and the communication mix. *Tourism Management*, Vol.17, pp. 611-620.
- Clarke, J. (1999). Marketing structures for farm tourism: beyond the individual provider of rural tourism. Journal of Sustainable Tourism, Vol.7, pp. 26-47.
- Colton, J.W. & Bissix, G. (2005). Developing agritourism in Nova Scotia: issues and challenges. *Journal of Sustainable Agriculture*, Vol.27, No.1, pp. 91-112.
- Coulson, S. (2001). Semantic leaps: Frame-shifting and conceptual blending in meaning construction. UK, Cambridge University Press.
- Crotts, J.C. (1998). Consumer Decision-Making and Prepurchase Information Search. In A. Pizam, & Y. Mansfeld (Eds.), *Consumer Behavior in Travel and Tourism*, New York: Haworth.
- Di Domenico, M. & Millar, G. (2007). Are plastic cows the future for farming? Implications of an alternative diversification model. In J. Tribe, & D. Airey (Eds.), *Developments in tourism research* (pp. 21–32), Oxford: Elsevier.
- European Court of Auditors (2010). Implementation of the leader approach for rural development. Special Report No 5.
- Evans, N.J. & Ilbery, B.W. (1989). A conceptual framework for investigating farm based accommodation and tourism in Britain. *Journal of Rural Studies*, Vol.5, pp. 257–266.
- Fleischer, A. & Tchetchik, A. (2005). Does rural tourism benefit from agriculture?. Tourism Management, Vol.26, 493–501.

- Fodness, D. & Murray, B. (1997). Tourist Information Search. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.24, No.3, pp. 503-523.
- Gilbert, D.C. (2003). Conceptual issues in the meaning of tourism. In S. Williams (Eds.) *Tourism. Critical concepts in the social sciences* (pp. 45-69), London: Routledge.
- Gitelson, R.J. & Kerstetter D.L. (1990). The Relationship between Socio-Demographic Variables, Benefit Sought and Subsequent Vacation Behavior: A Case Study. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.28, No.3, pp. 24-29.
- Gladstone, J. & Morris, A. (2000). Farm accommodation and agricultural heritage in Orkney. In F. Brown (Eds.) *Tourism in peripheral areas: Case studies* (pp. 91-100), Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Limited.
- Greer, C., Donnelly, S. & Rickly, J.M. (2008). Landscape perspective for tourism studies. In D. C. Knudsen, M. M. Metro-Roland, A. K. Soper and C. Greer (Eds.) *Landscape, tourism and meaning* (pp. 176), IN: Ashgate.
- Gretzel, U., Fesenmaier, D.R. & O'Leary, J.T. (2006). Searching for the Future: Challenges Facing Destination Marketing Organizations. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vo.45, No.2, pp. 116-126.
- Gursoy, D. & McLeary, K. W. (2003). An Integrative Model of Tourists' Information Search Behavior. Annals of Tourism Research, Vol.31, No.2, pp. 353-373.
- Havitz, M.E. & Dimanche, F. (1990). Propositions for guiding the empirical testing of the involvement construct in recreational and tourist context. *Leisure Sciences*, Vol.12, No.2, pp. 24-31.
- Hawkins, D.I., Best, R.J. & Coney, K.A. (1998). Consumer Behaviour; Building Marketing Strategy. New York, McGraw Hill.
- Hegarty, C. & Przezborska, L. (2005). Rural and agri-tourism as a tool for reorganizing rural areas in old and new member states e a comparison study of Ireland and Poland. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol.7, No.2, pp.63-77.
- Henderson, K., Presley, J. & Bialeschki, D. (2004). Theory in recreation and leisure research: reflections from the editors. *Leisure Sciences*, Vol.26, No.4, pp. 411-425.
- Hirschman, E. & Wallendorf, M. (1982). Motives Underlying Marketing Information Acquisition and Knowledge Transfer. *Journal of Advertising*, Vol.11, No.3, pp.25-31.
- Hsieh, S., O'Leary, J. T. & Morrison, A.M. (1992). Segmenting the international travel market by activity. *Tourism Management*, Vol.13, No.2, pp. 209-223.
- Hsieh, S. & O'Leary, J. T. (1993). Communication Channels to Segment Pleasure Travellers. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, Vol.2, No.2-3, pp. 57-75.
- Iakovidou, O. (1997). Agro-tourism in Greece: the case of women agro-tourism co-operatives of Ambelakia. *MEDIT*, Vol.1, pp. 44–47.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp.131-152 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

- Ilbery, B., Bowler, I., Clark, G., Crockett, A., & Shaw, A. (1998). Farm based tourism as an alternative farm enterprise: a case study from the Northern Pennines, England. *Regional Studies*, Vol.32, No.4, pp. 355-364.
- Jaworski, A. & Lawson, S. (2005). Discourse of Polish agritourism: global, local, pragmatic. In A. Jaworski and A. Pritchard (Eds.) *Discourse, communication, and tourism* (pp. 123–149), Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Jun, H.S., Vogt A.C. & Mackay J.K. (2007). Relationships between Travel Information Search and Travel Product Purchase in Pretrip Contexts. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.45, No.3, pp. 266-274.
- Katsoni, V. (2011). The Role of ICTs in Regional Tourist Development. *Regional Science Inquiry Journal*, Vol.3, No.2, pp. 95-113.
- Katsoni, V. & Venetsanopoulou, M. (2013). Use of innovation systems for an effective tourism marketing development strategy. e-Journal of Science & Technology, http://e-jst.teiath.gr/, *e-JST*, Vol.8, No.5, pp. 33-40.
- Kavoura, A. & Katsoni, V. (2013). From E-Business to C-Commerce: Collaboration and Network Creation for an E-Marketing Tourism Strategy. Tourismos: An international Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism, Special Issue in Tourism Destination Marketing & Management, Vol.8, No.3, pp. 113-128.
- Kizos, T. & Iosifides, T. (2007). The contradictions of agrotourism development in Greece: evidence from three case studies. South European Society and Politics, Vol.12, pp.59–77.
- Lobo, R.E., Goldman, G.E., Jolly, D.A., Wallace, B.D., Schrader, W.L. & Parker S.A. (1999). Agritourism benefits agriculture in San Diego County. *California Agriculture*, Vol.53, No.6, pp. 20-24.
- Lovelock, C.H. & Wright, C. (1999). Principles of Service Marketing and Management, Prentice Hall, N J, Englewood Cliffs.
- MacCannell, D. (1973). Staged authenticity: arrangements of social space in tourist settings. *The American Journal of Sociology*, Vol.79, pp. 589–603.
- Madrigal, R. & Kahle, L.R. (1994). Predicting Vacation Activity Preferences on the basis of value-system segmentation. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.33 (3), 22-28.
- March, R., & Woodside, A. (2005). Testing Theory of Planned versus Realized Behavior. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.32, No.4, pp. 905-924.
- Marques, H. (2006). Searching for complementarities between agriculture and tourism the demarcated wine-producing regions of northern Portugal. *Tourism Economics*, Vol.12, pp. 147–155.
- McGehee, N. G., & Kim, K. (2004). Motivation for agri-tourism entrepreneurship. Journal of Travel Research, Vol.43, pp. 161–170.
- McGehee, N.G. (2007). An agritourism systems model: a Weberian perspective. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, Vol.15, pp. 111–124.
- McGehee, N.G., Kim, K. & Jennings, G.R. (2007). Gender and motivation for agritourism entrepreneurship. *Tourism Management*, Vol.28, 280–289.

- McIntosh, A.J. & Bonnemann, S.M. (2006). Willing workers on organic farms (WWOOF): the alternative farm stay experience? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, Vol.14, 82–99.
- McKenzie, N. & Wysocki, A. (2002). Agritainment: A viable option for Florida producers. IFAS Extension e University of Florida.
- Middleton, V.T. (1994). Marketing in Travel and Tourism.(2nd ed.). UK, Bath Press, Avon.
- Morrison, A.M., Hsieh, S. & O'Leary, J.T. (1994). Segmenting the Australian Domestic Travel Market by Holiday Activity Participation. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, Vol.5, No.1, pp. 39-56.
- Moscardo, G., Morrison, A.M., Pearce, P.L., Lang, C-T. & O'Leary, J.T. (1996). Understanding Vacation Destination Choice through Travel Motivation and Activities. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, Vol.2, No.2, pp. 109-122.
- Moutinho, L. (1987). Consumer Behavior in Tourism. European Journal of Marketing, Vol.21, No.10, pp. 5-44.
- Nickerson, N.P., Black, R.J. & McCool, S.F. (2001). Agritourism: motivations behind farm/ranch business diversification. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.40, pp. 19-26.
- Nilsson, P. A. (2002). Staying on farms: an ideological background. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.29, pp. 7-24.
- Normann, R. (1996). Service Management: Strategy and Leadership in Service Business (2nd ed.) New York: John Wiley.
- Ollenburg, C. (2006). Farm tourism in Australia: a family Business and rural studies perspective. Doctor of Philosophy Christian Albrechts University of Keil (Germany) and Griffith University (Australia).
- Ollenburg, C. & Buckley, R. (2007). Stated economic and social motivations for farm tourism operators. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.45, pp. 444-452.
- Oppermann, M. (1996). Rural tourism in Southern Germany. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.23, pp. 86-102.
- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development OECD (2001). Glossary of statistical terms. Retrieved on June 2011 from http://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=72.
- Pan, B., & Fesenmaier, D. (2003). Travel Information Search on the Internet: A Preliminary Analysis. In A. Frew, M. Hitz, and P. O'Connor (Eds.), Information and Communication Technology in Tourism 2003: The Proceedings of the International Conference of ENTER 2003, Helsinki, Finland, January 29-31.
- Phillip, S., Hunter, C. & Blackstock, K. (2010). A typology for defining agritourism. *Tourism Management*, Vol.31, pp. 754-758.
- Prentice, R.C., Witt, S.F. & Hamer, C. (1998). Tourism as Experience: The case of heritage parks. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.25, No.1, pp. 1-24.
- Roberts, L. & Hall, D. (2001). Rural tourism and recreation: Principles to practice. Cambridge: CABI Publishing.
- Robinson, G. (2004). Geographies of agriculture: Globalisation, restructuring and sustainability. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp.131-152 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

- Schmidt, J.B. & Spreng, R.A. (1996). A Proposed Model of External Consumer Information Search. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Vol.24, No.3, pp. 246-256.
- Sharpley, R. & Sharpley, J. (1997). *Rural tourism: An introduction*. Thomson Business Press.
- Sharpley, R. & Stone, P.R. (2010). Advances in tourism. Tourist experience: Contemporary perspectives. London and New York: Routledge.
- Sigala, M., Airey D., Jones, P. & Lockwood, A. (2004). ICT Paradox Lost? A Stepwise DEA Methodology to Evaluate Technology Investments in Tourism Settings. Journal of Travel Research, Vol.43, No.2, pp. 180-192.
- Snepenger, D. & Snepenger, M. (1993). Information Search by Pleasure Travelers. In M.A. Kahn, M. D. Olsen, & T. Var (Eds.), Encyclopedia of Hospitality and Tourism (pp. 830-835). New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Sonnino, R. (2004). For a 'Piece of Bread'? Interpreting sustainable development through agritourism in Southern Tuscany. *Sociologia Ruralis*, Vol.44, pp. 285-300.
- Sonnino, R. (2004). For a 'Piece of Bread'? Interpreting sustainable development through agritourism in Southern Tuscany. Sociologia Ruralis, Vol.44, No.3, pp. 285-300.
- Sorensen, L. (1993). The Special-Interest Travel Market. *The Cornell H. R. A. Quarterly*, Vol.34, pp. 24-30.
- Stratigea, A. (2014), Setting Policy Targets for the Future of Agriculture in EU 2020 – A Methodological Approach. Regional Science Inquiry Journal, Vol.VI, No.1, pp. 95-110.
- Teare, R. (1992). An Exploration of the Consumer Decision Process for Hospitality Services. In R. Teare, L. Moutinho, & Morgan N. (Eds.), Managing and Marketing Services in the 1990s (pp. 233-248), London: Cassell Educational.
- Tew, C. & Barbieri, C. (2012). The perceived benefits of agritourism: the provider's perspective. Tourism Management, 33, No.1), 215-224.
- Theobald, W.F. (2005). *Global tourism*. Burlington, MA: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Um, S. & Crompton, J. (1990). Attitude Determinants in Tourism Destination Choice. Annals of Tourism Research, 17, No.3, pp. 432-448.
- United States Department of Agriculture: National Agriculture Statistics Service
- USDA: NASS. (2010). 2010 State agricultural overview. Retrieved online on May 2011 from http://www.nass.usda.gov/Statistics_by_State/North_Carolina/index.asp, http://www.nass.usda.gov/Statistics_by_State/Missouri/index.asp.
- Unites States Department of Agriculture USDA (2009). Beginning farmers and ranchers. In M. Ahearn, & D. Newton (Eds.), Economic information bulletin no 53 (pp.27), Retrieved online on April 2011 from http://www.ers.usda.gov/Publications/EIB53/EIB53.pdf.

- Vogt, C.A. & Fesenmaier, D.R. (1998). Expanding the Functional Information Search Model. Annals of Tourism Research, Vol.25, No.3, pp. 551-578.
- Walford, N. (2001). Patterns of development in tourist accommodation enterprises on farms in England and Wales. Applied Geography, Vol.21, pp. 331–345.
- Wall, G. (2000). Agrotourism. In J. Jafari (Ed.), Encyclopaedia of tourism (pp. 14-15). London: Routledge.
- Weaver, D.B. & Fennell, D.A. (1997). The vacation farm sector in Saskatchewan: a profile of operations. *Tourism Management*, Vol.18, pp.357–365.
- Wicks, B. & Merrett, C. (2003). Agritourism: an economic opportunity for Illinois. Rural Research Report, Vol.14, No.9, pp. 1-8.
- Wight, P.A. (1996). North American Ecotourism Markets: Motivations, preferences, and destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.35, No.1, pp. 3-10.
- Wilson, J. Thilmany, D. & Sullins, M. (2006). Agritourism: A potential economic driver in the rural west. Economic Development Report. Colorado State University.
- Woodside, A. & MacDonald, R. (1994). General System Framework of Customer Choice Processes of Tourism Services. In R. Gasser, & K. Weiermair (Eds.), Spoilt for Choice. Decision Making Process and Preference Changes of Tourists: Intertemporal and Intercountry Perspectives: The Proceedings of the Institute of Tourism and Service Economics International Conference. Germany: Kulturverlag, Thaur.
- World Tourism Organization WTO (2001). Tourism satellite accounts: Recommended methodological framework. New York: United Nations.
- Xiang, Z., Weber, K. & Fesenmaier, D.R. (2008). Representation of the Online Tourism Domain in Search Engines. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.47, No.2, pp. 137-150.
- Zins, A. & Teichmann, K. (2006), Source Credibility in the Tourist Information Search Behaviour: Comparing the Pre- and Post-Consumption Stage. TTRA 2006 Annual Conference Proceedings. Travel and Tourism Research Association, Dublin, Ireland.

SUBMITTED: NOV 2014 REVISION SUBMITTED: APR 2015 ACCEPTED: MAY 2015 REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

EMOTIONAL LANGUAGE FOR IMAGE FORMATION AND MARKET SEGMENTATION IN DARK TOURISM DESTINATIONS: FINDINGS FROM TOUR OPERATORS' WEBSITES PROMOTING GALLIPOLI

Effie Lagos
William Angliss Institute
Alana Harris

William Angliss Institute

Marianna Sigala
University of the Aegean

This study aims to understand the language patterns that are used on websites for influencing travelers to visit Gallipoli by analysing emotive language and categorising it according to different segmentations of Gallipoli visitors. Websites promoting Gallipoli were identified through Google. Wordle software was used for conducting a website content analysis. The results show that the language used in websites represents a commemorative experience. The findings suggest a good fit between the descriptive language used to represent the dark tourism destination attributes of Gallipoli and the emotive language used to motivate visitors to the site. Moreover, the imagery of thanatourism marketed online was categorised by emotive language to identify discreet market segments. However, as the emotive language used online can influence the visitors' expectations, it is suggested that the former may result in visitor dissatisfaction.

Keywords: Gallipoli, websites, emotive language, visitor motivation

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Language, along with images, contributes significantly to the formation of the destination image, which in turn significantly support and influence the pre-trip decision making process of visitors. Both

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521







Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/

relations have been researched over considerable time. For example, Gunn (1988) suggested that destination image formation can be organic (internal) or induced (external). Destination marketing organisations (DMOs) and tour operators are two of the external forces which provide these induced images in an attempt to influence the decision making process of travellers. From the internal perspective, destination image formation is generally accepted as having cognitive and affective aspects (Echtner and Ritchie 1991). The cognitive side involves applying intellectual function (reasoning, understanding and/or knowledge) to assess known facts or attributes. On the other hand, the affective images are developed through emotions, values and feelings, which are then linked to travel motivations (Baloglu and Brinberg 1997). These two sides of the destination image can impact consumer behaviour in a number of ways including intention to visit, preference, intention to revisit (Tasci and Gartner 2007).

Numerous studies have explored the use of images to elicit destination image formation including: television commercials (Pan 2009), photography (Morgan and Pritchard 1998), and motion pictures (Kim and Richardson 2003). However, few studies have investigated the role of emotive language in affective image formation and its subsequent implications for marketing. Choi, Lehto and Morrison (2007) highlight that image formation research is becoming more complex particularly with respect to the web presence from the supply side. In an on-line environment where the messages proffered by destination-based, commercial interests have less influence and sway than the growing consumer-generated content provided and shared online by travellers (Sigala, Christou and Gretzel 2012). Consequently, this raises the question on how destinations can induce a desired image and/or change and reposition their image if the one promoted by travellers is undesirable.

The emerging field of thanatourism is not an exception from these trends and challenges. Thanatourism is the spiritual journey of tourists who wish to gaze upon sites of real and recreated death (Ozer, Ersoy and Tuzunkan 2012) and it is also referred to as Dark Tourism (Stone 2006). Therefore, destinations at the heart of thanatourism activities illicit strong feelings (affective images) that may override the cognitive image formation of destination attributes and facts. Despite this, there are few studies investigating the following chain of effects, i.e. the way thanatourism destinations are presented on-line and the role of the language used to present a thanatourism destination online in order to elicit an affective destination image formation, afford the visitor

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 153-170 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

motivation to experience the place and assist in visitors' segmentation. To explore the latter, this study uses Gallipoli as its study context, as it represents known and highly visited dark tourism destination that is also widely promoted on the Internet. To that end, the paper first analyses the concept and purposes of thanatourism and it then investigates the related literature discussing the role of emotions in decision-making processes. Later, the literature on thanatourism is used for presenting and analysing the case of Gallipoli. Finally, the study collects and analyses content used by operators to promote Gallipoli online in order to explore the use of emotive language in eliciting visitors' motivation and show how the latter can be used as a means of segmenting the potential market of visitors to Gallipoli.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Thanatourism

Seaton (1996) described thanatourism within the historical context of thanatopsis and explored motives that provoke thoughts or reflections of contemplating death, going back to the Middle Ages. Traveling to sites where thanatopsis takes place is also considered dark tourism. Accordingly, thanatourism is a combination of thanatopsis and dark tourism (Seaton 1996). Thanatourism also embodies "pilgrimage tourism" and "battlefield tourism" (Foley and Lennon 1996, Seaton 1996, Slade 2003, Stone 2006, Best 2007, Hall, Basarin and Lockstone-Binney 2010, Hede and Hall 2012). Battlefield tourism involves observing places where battles took place (Hall, et al. 2010) with studies exploring WWI battlefields of France (Dunkley, Morgan and Westwood 2011) to more recent sites of conflict such as Vietnam (Henderson 2000). A personal commitment and intention is seen in thanatourists (Lennon and Foley 2000, Dunkley, et al. 2011), while visitors to battlefields aim to commemorate significant dates that are associated with major events (Hall, et al. 2010). Seaton (1996) claimed pilgrimage is the highest form of thanatopsis, since it involves physical presence at a setting where death has occurred. Lennon & Foley (2000) added a psychological dimension to pilgrimage tourism by specifying that pilgrimage is not limited to a physical journey of participants, since the journey also includes a spiritual and reflective element. Adding to the value of tourism psychology, Hede and Hall (2012) noted that pilgrimage tourism evokes emotions and the journey is as much part of the pilgrimage as it is a visit to the destination.

Visits to battlefields can also have an ideological significance, which provides a meaning to people who visit them (Foley and Lennon 1996, Hyde and Harman 2011).

The work of Slade (2003) established that thanatourism can be defined according to the motivation of the visit. Slade discussed the importance of surveying people to ascertain the motivation of the visit. However, he argued that each visit may have a different reasoning behind it, and so, people visiting battlefields should not automatically be viewed as thanatourists. Seaton's (1996) definition of thanatourism is also based on motivational factors. A tourist's motive could be: a fascination of death; a desire to witness public enactments of death; a desire to witness sites of mass or individual deaths after they have occurred; a desire to visit war memorials and graveyards of the dead; a desire to travel to view material evidence, or a desire to travel as a simulation of death. Dunkley et al. (2011) also found a variety of motivating factors in their qualitative study of the battlefields of France from the WWI. Slade (2003) argued however, that people visiting dark sites have a better understanding of who they are and that they are not thanatouristically motivated. Wight (2005) identified two types of thanatourists based on a different emotional scale. The first group are the 'survivors'; this group of people carry a simple emotion of a memory, which may naturally disappear over time. The second group represent the general 'leisure' tourists who visit the site because they respond to supplier's marketing efforts. French et al. (2000) defined 'leisure' as quality time away from committed work. Hence, overall, the literature presents the visitor motivation as a common theme in this emerging field of thanatourism.

Role of Emotions in Decision Making

A theme emerging from the literature is that it is the emotional return that a thanatourism site provides to the visitors rather than the attributes of the site itself that is the motivation behind thanatourism consumption. A lack of attention has been afforded to the role of emotion and the consumption of tourism experiences and dark tourism experiences in particular (Stone and Sharpley 2008, Basarin 2011).

Burns and Neisner (2006) noted that emotions impact on our beliefs and guide us on how to behave to the world around us. Emotions act as a source of information, which then leads to forming an attitude (Palmer 2010). Emotions are important to explore, as they play a central role in our lives and in decision-making. The emotion of nostalgia is common among visitors of a heritage destination and is one shared by all ages.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 153-170 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

Goulding (1999) discussed nostalgia as being more prevalent in those visitors who can personally relate to the past, feel alienated in the present and who lack social networks. 'Knowledge nostalgia' is a significant element of the heritage tourism experience with imagination also playing a vital role (Goulding 2000). The visitor prefers to use imagination as a source of escape so the experience becomes authentic. The connection between thanatourist motivation and emotions has not been extensively explored in the literature, although Stone and Sharpley (2008) suggested that 'dark tourism can potentially transform the seemingly meaningless into the meaningful through the commodification, explanations and representations of darkness that have impacted upon the collective self'.

Gallipoli as a Thanatourism Destination

The Gallipoli National Park has particular historical and cultural significance, which draws attention by visitors especially on Anzac Day, 25th April. Its cultural significance lies in the fact that Anzac Day in Australia is devoted to being a "national holiday" (Hall, et al. 2010). For the Australians especially, Gallipoli was the pivotal experience in the establishment of national identity. About a decade ago Yurtseven & Donmez (2005) identified growth in interest in tourism to Gallipoli. Later, Dore (2006) added that visitors to Gallipoli have steadily increased especially among young people, while recently authors (Ozer, et al. 2012) have also attempted to forecast visitation by Australians.

The visit to Gallipoli Peninsula for Anzac Day has been described as civil pilgrimage (Hede and Hall 2012) or secular pilgrimage (Hyde and Harman 2011). Australians and New Zealanders visiting Gallipoli feel that it is the place where their nations began (Seaton 1996, Hall, et al. 2010), and connected with nationhood and explaining what it means to be an Australian (Slade 2003, Scates 2007, Hall, et al. 2010, Basarin 2011, Hyde and Harman 2011, Cheal and Griffin 2013), although its significance as a dark tourism site is recognised more broadly (Stone and Sharpley 2008).

Some of the characteristics of visitors to Gallipoli profile travelers as majority being first time travellers, also there are more organised group visitors than alone. Additionally, there are three times more Australians travelling to Gallipoli than New Zealanders (Yurtseven and Donmez 2005). The majority of the respondents stay in Turkey for two weeks, while spending two days only in Gallipoli. Identifying the motivational characteristics of the Anzac visitors is thus important in order to achieve effective management of the site and a better quality of service in

Gallipoli (Yurtseven and Donmez 2005, Dore 2006). Studies indicate that the primary motivation for people visiting Gallipoli is based on commemoration, which is linked to remembering those who have died servicing their country (Slade 2003, Dore 2006, Basarin 2011, Hyde and Harman 2011, Cheal and Griffin 2013) and which suggests visiting Gallipoli as a spiritual journey. According to McKenna & Ward (2007), for the Australian pilgrims the importance in visiting Gallipoli as a battlefield site lies in the realisation of the many young lives that lost in the 1st World War. Hede & Hall's (2012) exploration of emotions indicates the arise of both positive and negative emotions when visiting Gallipoli. Joy arises as the most common emotion, while sadness follows to a lesser extent and is reflected through sorrow and sympathy for the Australians that died in 1915.

METHODOLOGY

Research Aims

This study aims to understand the language patterns used on websites for influencing travelers to visit Gallipoli by analysing emotive language and categorising it according to different segmentations of Gallipoli visitors. This aim is important because although the concept of dark tourism has attracted growing academic and media interest, there are few studies examining the different tourist types and their motives for visitation (Catalca and Yurtseven 2003). Coupled with the dramatic increase in visitor numbers to Gallipoli over the recent years (Ozer, et al. 2012), the urgency of the research aim is established.

Research Method

The methodology adopted for this study is website content analysis. Content analysis is a technique whereby the researcher analyses published documents produced for other purposes (Weber 1990, Altinay and Paraskevas 2008). Analysing text includes not only printed material but also pictures and other digital forms used in the form of communication (Veal 2006). Trends and patterns are examined in documents, the relationships of words are analysed and inferences made (Stemler 2001, Veal 2006, Altinay and Paraskevas 2008). Additionally, content analysis may present what is there and what is not (Carney 1972). Content analysis has been widely used in leisure and tourism studies (Malloy and Fennell 1998, Wan 2002, Peel and Steen 2007, Law, Qi and Buhalis 2010, Hede

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 153-170 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

and Hall 2012). Content analysis involves counting the number of occurrences of certain phrases, which tends to quantitative (Veal 2006). However, Sarantakos (2005) suggests that content analysis can be either quantitative or qualitative depending on its application. This process, which involves identifying a concept and then examining its existence in a set of documents, is described by Altinay and Paraskevas (2008) as 'conceptual' content analysis. During this process the researcher needs to decide whether the concept will be counted once or each time it appears.

Bloor and Bloor (2007) discuss context being an important part in the construction of meaning. Language and context are interrelated and together contribute to meaning. Moreover, it is advocated that it is important to understand the influences on the creation of meaning. whereby meaning making is based on the mind of the language users (Van Dijk 1997). Thus, studying the language patterns used in discourses can identify the intentions of the communicators and may reveal the cultural pattern of the independent visitor type (Weber 1990, Sarantakos 2005). When people engage in language they can be members of social categories, communities or cultures (Van Diik 1997) and the interaction between language users reveals the roles each party plays. Usunier and (2010) also discussed the importance of a communication style showing that different cultures have different understanding of the content. This suggests that the website content may influence consumer behaviour. Additional research in online marketing shows the role of images in providing websites particular attributes, and so, this research stream provides evidence of the need to use images for achieving differentiation (Phelan, Mills, Douglas and Aday 2013). Within the context of dark tourism and Gallipoli, discourse can also influence perceptions of dark sites (Wight 2005) and different contexts can evoke different emotions (Page and Mapstone 2010). Therefore text analysis with consideration to the roles of stakeholders within the tourism context was considered appropriate for this study. In this vein, this study utilises conceptual content analysis by categorising the frequency of the data (Stemler 2001). Words of potential interest are identified and then grouped according to their meaning (Weber 1990). Hede and Hall (2012) applied content analysis on 17 dairies that were obtained from the National Museum of Australia website, 'Anzac Pilgrims; Recent experiences at Gallipoli'.

The criteria that were used were based on travelers' emotions. The set categories included two dimensions of emotions; positive and negative. In each of these dimensions, three clusters were formed based on their association with the analysed text. For the positive dimension, the

emotional clusters were *Love, Joy* and *Surprise* and for the negative dimension, the emotional clusters were *Anger, Sadness* and *Fear.* A similar approach was adopted by Baloglu & Brinberg (1997) who evaluated 11 Mediterranean countries (including Turkey) as tourism destinations, by using 4 affective dimensions (pleasant: unpleasant, relaxing: distressing, arousing: sleepy, exciting: gloomy), which in turn categorised Turkey as 'unpleasant' and 'distressing' but acknowledged that potential visitors may still be aroused to visit.

Research Sample and Design

This study used information about Gallipoli that was published in tour operators' websites. Appropriate websites were identified by entering the following keywords or phrases into Google: 'Gallipoli', 'Gallipoli tours' & 'Anzac Day tours'. Similar studies utilising this approach include: Choi et al (2007) content analysis of language and image presented on Macau websites; and Pan & Li (2011) who used Google Adwords for their study into 'stereotypical', 'affective' and 'uniqueness' image phrases of China.

The results were filtered using the following criteria: websites had to appear on the first page of the Google results, websites had to be Australian, New Zealand or Turkish based operators and websites had to include tours to Gallipoli any time of the year (not only to commemorate Anzac Day). The website retrieval was conducted in April 2010 and 21 websites were selected for the analysis. In November 2013, the same websites were used for collecting data and conducting a similar content analysis. Data collected in 2013 were compared to those collected in 2010 in order to monitor and measure any changes about the evolution of brand formation and visitors' motivation in Gallipoli.

Applying Weber's (1990) framework, words were then grouped according to their meaning within the specific situation (Gee 1999). This qualitative approach of text mining and applying expert judgement was also used in Choi et al's (2007) study. In this study, Wordle is used to count the frequency of words appearing in one tour description for each of the 21 websites. Wordle is a software program, which counts the frequency of words that appear in a piece of text (McNaught and Lam 2010) and has already been applied in studies of content analysis, for example Nickerson (2010). Studies have already used Wordle as a research tool since its release (Lester and Robinson 2009, Meyer and Schroeder 2009).

One important limitation when applying content analysis is the lack of consistency during coding, which can lead to unreliability (Weber 1990, Sarantakos 2005). Another limitation noted by Altinay & Paraskevas (2008) is that only a limited amount of documents may be available. Additionally, large portions of text may be more difficult to code than words or smaller phrases, (Weber 1990, Malloy and Fennell 1998). During content analysis, researchers need to be on the Internet at approximately the same time to avoid widely different results (Wan 2002). Law et al (2010) identified that there has been limited research into tourism website evaluation and there are no current agreed upon standards, this presents a limitation in this research.

Findings

Given that the term 'Anzac' was used as a search criterion for websites it is not surprisingly that the word 'Anzac' yielded the most responses. While in 2011 Anzac was the top word used in websites, this word is still prominent in websites examined in 2013. The next most frequently used words found in websites' content examined in 2011 were 'service', 'battle' or 'battlefields', 'dawn', 'memorial' (see Table 1). These are descriptive terms, which communicate destination attributes about Gallipoli as a destination. In contrast, the most frequent used words used in the same websites in 2013 were "Tours", "Anzac", "Gallipoli", Day, "Istanbul" (Table 1).

Table 1. Frequency of word occurrence in websites examined in 2011 and 2013

2011		2013			
Words	Frequency	Words	Frequency		
Anzac	95	tour, tours	192		
service, services	46	Anzac	170		
battle battlefield	44	Gallipoli	105		
Dawn	28	Day	94		
memorials,		Istanbul	84		
memorial	21				
museum	17	Service	73		
cemetery,		Turkey	64		
cemeteries	13				
war, warships	13	Memorial	34		

historian, history	13	April	31
explore, exploring	12	sites	31
walk, walking	11	Dawn	27
commemoration,		Cove	24
commemorative	10		
national	10	2015	18
trenches	8	time	17
beach, beaches	8	travel	12
remembrance,		Battlefields	11
remember	7		
legend, legendary	6	cemetery	11
cruise, cruising	6	experience	11
tunnels	5	Troy	17
sacrifice, sacrificed	5	Turkish	11
ceremony	4	share	11
Moving	4	stay	10
campaign	3	beach	10
Landings	3	national	10
allies, ally	3		

Emotive related words were then identified to determine how Gallipoli is represented in website information sources. Word clusters were formed relating to historical interest, desire for learning, curiosity and remembrance (Dore 2006). The categorisation is based on clusters already defined by researchers, Catalca and Yurtseven (2003) and Dore (2006). A comparative analysis of the results was then undertaken (Tables 2 & 3). The clusters by Catalca and Yurtseven (2003) determine the level of motivation to participate in Anzac Day. The first group is the *Active Anzac Day Group*, this group reflects high motive level of attending Anzac day. The second group is the *Passive Anzac Day Group*, which has a lower motive level of participating in Anzac day festivities. The Active Anzac group also includes an extremely high level of motivation, which the researchers consider it as a separate category, the *Completely Active Anzac Group* (Catalca and Yurtseven 2003).

The second categorisation is based on Dore's (2006) clusters. The first group is *Commemoration*; this cluster links words that represent remembrance to those who have died in the service of their country. Additionally, words that describe historical interest and war related words are included in this category. The second cluster is *Information*.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 153-170 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

Battlefields are often referred to as sites that educate (Dore 2006), so words that describe 'knowledge seeking' are included in this category. These words connect with visitors who want to learn about sites and the people who were involved in the Anzac battle. The third cluster is *exploration*. This cluster includes 'action' words as they relate to visitors who are curious and seek an authentic experience (Dore 2006). The fourth cluster is *Reflection*, *which* includes words that represent a 'spiritual connection' to the site. The final cluster is *leisure*. Words included in this category are 'beach', 'relax' and 'scenery'.

The results show that the language used in the websites both in 2011 and 2013 represents a commemorative experience (Tables 2 & 3). The 'Active Anzac' cluster (Table 2) and the 'Commemoration' cluster (Table 3) have resulted with the highest usage of words.

Table 2. Categorisation of words based on Catalca & Yurtseven (2003)

		Words
Clusters	Words 2011	2013
Commemoration	312	522
Information	37	48
Exploration	43	45
Reflection	16	84
Leisure	11	379
Total emotive words	419	1078

Table 3. Categorisation of words based on Dore (2006)

Clusters	Words 2011	Words 2013
Active Anzac Group	414	656
Passive Anzac group	30	424
Total emotive words	444	1080

DISCUSSION

A comparison of 2011 and 2013 took place to identify the most frequently cited words. Wordle was used for visualising the results of the words' frequencies appearing in websites both in 2011 and 2013. The word "Gallipoli" appears to be more prominent in 2013. This may be due

to the centenary celebrations taking place in Gallipoli in 2015. The study found that Gallipoli is mainly represented as a commemorative tourism experience with the word Anzac being prominent, supporting Dore (2006) who argued that travel motivation to Gallipoli is mostly a commemorative experience. With "Anzac" being prominent word in the websites used in this study, the findings also support Catalca & Yurtseven (2003) who presented Gallipoli as a destination attracting travelers with high motivation to be part of the Anzac Dawn experience.

Additionally, there are more appearances of the word "tours" in 2013 compared to 2011. The Wordle analysis reflects that the most popular language theme in all websites is changing the theme from Dore's *Commemoration* and Catalca and Yurtseven's *Active Anzac Group* cluster segmentation towards a more leisure and excursion focus.

The tour operator websites analysed for this study continue to brand Gallipoli as a destination where the tourism will receive an "Anzac" related experience. However, this experience will have a cultural theme and will be combined with more leisure and entertainment. There are, however, implications from using this language. The use of the emotive language contributes to setting the visitors' expectation of what the experience would be (commemorative, reflection) and this can result in visitor dissatisfaction if the experience does not meet the expectations. A study by Hall et al (2010) discusses elements during the Anzac commemorations that dissatisfied visitors, such as 'transport' to Anzac Cove. So, while the language contributes to expectations about a spiritual experience, the reality is that (particularly during Anzac week) there are thousands of tourist arrivals being transported to and from the site. Hall et al (2010) suggest that with a heavy focus on the Anzac ceremony, the effective management of the special event may continue to be negative.

The findings suggest a good fit between the descriptive language used to represent the dark tourism destination attributes of Gallipoli and the emotive language used to motivate visitors to the site. This supports Pan and Li's (2011) findings which suggested that destinations could use niche phrases (combining stereotypical, affective and unique phrases) which expand the product offering for a destination. In the case of Gallipoli operators in this study, the findings support the contention that the use of emotive language contributes to the dark tourism destination image in the Australian market.

One limitation of the present research is the need to validate whether representation online fully meet target market's needs. A new methodological approach should be applied to other markets (such as backpackers) in order to validate the existing research. Further qualitative

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 153-170 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

research into emotions as a source of information may validate existing thanatourism market segments and research in the areas of visitor "desires" is needed to assess the thanatouristic motivational experience while in Gallipoli. Satisfying the emotional needs of visitors is clearly very important (Catalca and Yurtseven 2003). 'Nostalgia' will play a much greater role in marketing especially among the older generation (Hudson 2010, Dunkley, et al. 2011). Using a segmentation variable in quantitative research such as 'nostalgia' could assist in better understanding the visitor motivation (Goulding 1999). Finally future research conducting additional testing of perceptions in other markets may also lead to the identification of new market segments.

CONCLUSION

The study has shown that the imagery of dark tourism marketed via websites can be categorised by emotive language to identify discreet market segments. This study contributes to the growing body of research into thanatourism and indicates that dark tourism products can be represented in websites using the relevant social discourse language to attract specific market segments. There are implications for further research into language linking brand with emotions (Palmer 2010). The study also explored the concept of battlefield tourism and pilgrimage tourism focusing on a cultural and nationalistic perspective. Turkey as a tourism destination has been previously examined by various studies; for example, Sönmez and Sirakaya (2002) explored affective image formation among the US respondents, but in that study Turkey was not perceived as a 'dark tourism' destination. This suggests that dark tourism destinations have the capacity to be culture specific. Unlike previous studies of image formation, which have taken the destination marketing organisations' (DMO) perspective, this study explored image formation of a dark tourism destination by categorising emotive language used in tour operators' websites for promoting the destination. Given that consumers of dark tourism are heavily reliant on the tour operators for creating their travel experiences, the aim of the study is worth examining.

With the 100th anniversary of Anzac Day approaching in 2015, there is a need for marketers connected with Gallipoli to clearly understand both the thanatourism market and how to effectively communicate with the segments of that market. The study suggests that Gallipoli tour operators currently use emotive language in their websites to attract cultural groups with broad interests whereby thanatourism may be one of the special interests. Tourists seek experiences, which are different to

everyday life; beaches, sunsets, different cultures and historical places are some of the experiences sought (Frost 2004, Best 2007). Websites carry a strong cultural element but also extend to enrich the tourism experience with leisure type tourist experiences and entertainment; this is because the ceremony that is organised at the site encourages a cultural exchange (Richards 1996). The findings imply that the use of language by marketers tends to strike a better balance between a thanatouristic experience and an overall cultural experience including a variety of attractions and tours. Ultimately, managing the ongoing sustainability of Gallipoli as a destination is important for those thanatourists who are motivated to visit it for the emotional and spiritual experience.

REFERENCES

- Altinay, L. and Paraskevas, A. (2008). *Planning Research in Hospitality and Tourism*. Oxford, Elsevier.
- Baloglu, S. and Brinberg, D. (1997). Affective Images of Tourism Destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 35, No.4, pp.11-15.
- Basarin, V. J. (2011). Battlefield Tourism-Anzac Day Commemorations at Gallipoli: An Empirical Analysis, *Phd Thesis*, Melbourne Australia, Deakin University.
- Best, M. (2007). Norfolk Island: Thanatourism, History and Visitor Emotions. Shima: The International Journal of Research into Island Cultures, Vol. 1, No.2, pp.30-48.
- Bloor, M. and Bloor, T. (2007). *The Practice of Critical Discourse Analysis, an Introduction*. London, Hodder Education.
- Burns, D. J. and Neisner, L. (2006). Customer Satisfaction in a Retail Setting: The Contribution of Emotion. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, Vol. 34, No.1, pp.49-66.
- Carney, T. F. (1972). Content Analysis: A Technique for Systematic Inference from Communications. Batsford London.
- Catalca, H. and Yurtseven, H. (2003). Understanding New Anzacs: A Managerial Perspective. *Anatolia*, Vol. 14, No.2, pp.127-141.
- Cheal, F. and Griffin, T. (2013). Pilgrims and Patriots: Australian Tourist Experiences at Gallipoli. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, Vol. 7, No.3, pp.227-241.
- Choi, S., Lehto, X. Y. and Morrison, A. M. (2007). Destination Image Representation on the Web: Content Analysis of Macau Travel Related Websites. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 28, No.1, pp.118-129.
- Dore, L. (2006). Gallipoli, a Visitor Profile [Paper Presented at the Loving It to Death Conference (2004: Port Arthur, Tas.).]. *Historic Environment*, Vol. 19, No.2, pp.46.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 153-170 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

- Dunkley, R., Morgan, N. and Westwood, S. (2011). Visiting the Trenches: Exploring Meanings and Motivations in Battlefield Tourism. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 32, No.4, pp.860-868.
- Echtner, C. M. and Ritchie, J. B. (1991). The Meaning and Measurement of Destination Image. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, Vol. 2, No.2, pp.2-12.
- Foley, M. and Lennon, J. J. (1996). Editorial: Heart of Darkness. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, Vol. 2, No.4, pp.195-197.
- French, C., Craig-Smith, S. J. and Colier, A. (2000). *Principals of Tourism*. Sydney, Longman.
- Frost, W. (2004). Heritage Tourism on Australia's Asian Shore: A Case Study of Pearl Luggers, Broome. Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, Vol. 9, No.3, pp.281-291.
- Gee, J. P. (1999). An Introduction to Discourse Analysis.
- Goulding, C. (1999). Heritage, Nostalgia, and the "Grey" Consumer. *Journal of Marketing Practice: Applied Marketing Science*, Vol. 5, No.6/7/8, pp.177-199
- Goulding, C. (2000). The Commodification of the Past, Postmodern Pastiche, and the Search for Authentic Experiences at Contemporary Heritage Attractions. *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 34, No.7, pp.835-853.
- Gunn, C. A. (1988). Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions. Aarhus C Denmark, Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Hall, J., Basarin, V. J. and Lockstone-Binney, L. (2010). An Empirical Analysis of Attendance at a Commemorative Event: Anzac Day at Gallipoli. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 29, No.2, pp.245-253.
- Hede, A.-M. and Hall, J. (2012). Evoked Emotions: Textual Analysis within the Context of Pilgrimage Tourism to Gallipoli. *Advances in Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, Vol. 6, pp.45-60.
- Henderson, J. C. (2000). War as a Tourist Attraction: The Case of Vietnam. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol. 2, No.4, pp.269-280.
- Hudson, S. (2010). Wooing Zoomers: Marketing to the Mature Traveler. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, Vol. 28, No.4, pp.444-461.
- Hyde, K. F. and Harman, S. (2011). Motives for a Secular Pilgrimage to the Gallipoli Battlefields. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 32, No.6, pp.1343-1351.
- Kim, H. and Richardson, S. L. (2003). Motion Picture Impacts on Destination Images. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 30, No.1, pp.216-237.
- Law, R., Qi, S. and Buhalis, D. (2010). Progress in Tourism Management: A Review of Website Evaluation in Tourism Research. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 31, No.3, pp.297-313.
- Lennon, J. and Foley, M. (2000). *Dark Tourism: The Attraction of Death and Disaster*. New York, Continuum.
- Lester, D. F. and Robinson, M. (2009). Visions of Exploration. *Space Policy*, Vol. 25, No.4, pp.236-243.

- Malloy, D. C. and Fennell, D. A. (1998). Codes of Ethics and Tourism: An Exploratory Content Analysis. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 19, No.5, pp.453-461.
- McKenna, M. and Ward, S. (2007). 'It Was Really Moving, Mate': The Gallipoli Pilgrimage and Sentimental Nationalism in Australia. *Australian Historical Studies*, Vol. 38, No.129, pp.141-151.
- McNaught, C. and Lam, P. (2010). Using Wordle as a Supplementary Research Tool. *Qualitative Report*, Vol. 15, No.3, pp.630-643.
- Meyer, E. T. and Schroeder, R. (2009). Untangling the Web of E-Research: Towards a Sociology of Online Knowledge. *Journal of Informetrics*, Vol. 3, No.3, pp.246-260.
- Morgan, N. and Pritchard, A. (1998). Tourism Promotion and Power.
- Nickerson, J. (2010). Oliver Williamson and His Impact on the Field of Strategic Management. *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 86, No.3, pp.270-276.
- Ozer, S. U., Ersoy, G. K. and Tuzunkan, D. (2012). Dark Tourism in Gallipoli: Forecast Analysis to Determine Potential of Australian Visitors. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, Vol. 41, pp.386-393.
- Page, K. and Mapstone, M. (2010). How Does the Web Make Youth Feel? Exploring the Positive Digital Native Rhetoric. *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 26, No.13-14, pp.1345-1366.
- Palmer, A. (2010). Customer Experience Management: A Critical Review of an Emerging Idea. *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 24, No.3, pp.196-208.
- Pan, B. and Li, X. R. (2011). The Long Tail of Destination Image and Online Marketing. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 38, No.1, pp.132-152.
- Pan, S. (2009). The Role of Tv Commercial Visuals in Forming Memorable and Impressive Destination Images. *Journal of Travel Research*.
- Peel, V. and Steen, A. (2007). Victims, Hooligans and Cash-Cows: Media Representations of the International Backpacker in Australia. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 28, No.4, pp.1057-1067.
- Phelan, K. V., Mills, J. E., Douglas, A. C. and Aday, J. B. (2013). Digital Personalities: An Examination of the Online Identity of Travel and Tourism Web Sites. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, Vol. 4, No.3, pp.248-262.
- Richards, G. (1996). Production and Consumption of European Cultural Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 23, No.2, pp.261-283.
- Sarantakos, S. (2005). Social Research. Hampshire, Palgrave Macmillan.
- Scates, B. (2007). The First Casualty of War: A Reply to Mckenna's and Ward's 'Gallipoli Pilgrimage and Sentimental Nationalism'. *Australian Historical Studies.*, Vol. 38, No.130, pp.312-321.
- Seaton, A. V. (1996). Guided by the Dark: From Thanatopsis to Thanatourism. International Journal of Heritage Studies, Vol. 2, No.4, pp.234-244.
- Sigala, M., Christou, E. and Gretzel, U. (2012). Social Media in Travel, Tourism and Hospitality: Theory, Practice and Cases. Ashgate Publishing, Ltd.
- Slade, P. (2003). Gallipoli Thanatourism: The Meaning of Anzac. Annals of Tourism Research, Vol. 30, No.4, pp.779-794.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 153-170 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

- Sönmez, S. and Sirakaya, E. (2002). A Distorted Destination Image? The Case of Turkey. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 41, No.2, pp.185-196.
- Stemler, S. (2001). An Overview of Content Analysis. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation,* Http://PAREonline.net/getvn.asp?v=7&n=17. Accessed the 21st December 2014, at 18:20.
- Stone, P. (2006). A Dark Tourism Spectrum: Towards a Typology of Death and Macabre Related Tourist Sites, Attractions and Exhibitions. *Tourism*, Vol. 54, No.2, pp.145-160.
- Stone, P. and Sharpley, R. (2008). Consuming Dark Tourism: A Thanatological Perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 35, No.2, pp.574-595.
- Tasci, A. D. and Gartner, W. C. (2007). Destination Image and Its Functional Relationships. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 45, No.4, pp.413-425.
- Usunier, J.-C. and Roulin, N. (2010). The Influence of High-and Low-Context Communication Styles on the Design, Content, and Language of Businessto-Business Web Sites. *Journal of Business Communication*, Vol. 47, No.2, pp.189-227.
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1997). Discourse as Social Interaction. London, Sage Publications.
- Veal, A. J. (2006). Business Research Methods: A Managerial Approach (3rd Edn). Frenchs Forest NSW: Person Education Australia.
- Wan, C. (2002). The Websites of International Tourist Hotels and Tour Wholesalers in Taiwan. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 23, pp.155-160.
- Weber, R. (1990). Basic Content Analysis. California, Sage Publications,
- Wight, C. (2005). Philosophical and Methodological Praxes in Dark Tourism: Controversy, Contention and the Evolving Paradigm. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, Vol. 12, No.2, pp.119-129.
- Yurtseven, H. and Donmez, D. (2005). Measuring and Managing Service Quality of Anzac Day as a Cultural Heritage Event. Paper presented at the 8th International Conference on Art & Cultural Management, Montreal.

SUBMITTED: JAN 2014 REVISION SUBMITTED: APR 2014 ACCEPTED: MAY 2014 REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Effie Lagos (effiel@angliss.edu.au) is a Lecturer at William Angliss Institute, Higher Education and Quality, 555 LaTrobe Street, Melbourne, VIC 3000 Australia.

Alana Harris (alanah@angliss.edu.au) is a Lecturer at William Angliss Institute, Higher Education and Quality, 555 LaTrobe Street, Melbourne, VIC 3000 Australia.

Effie Lagos, Alana Harris & Marianna Sigala

Marianna Sigala (m.sigala@aegean.gr) is an Associate Professor at Aegean University, Department of Business and Administration, Michalio Bldg, Michalon 8, 82100 Chios, Greece.

CONTRIBUTION TO THE RESEARCH OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT OF ISTRIA (CROATIA) IN THE CONTEXT OF TECHNOLOGICAL ADVANCEMENT

Pavlo Ružić

Institute of Agriculture and Tourism, IPTPO

Damir Demonja

Institute for Development and International Relations, IRMO

Technological advancement did not spare or steer clear of tourism. From the economic point of view, new techniques and procedures introduced within the field of tourism resulted in positive trends. However, when examined from the tourists point of view and their needs, the development effects remain controversial. The aim of this paper is to provide insight into the question of whether the effects of technological advancement on tourism can be considered beneficial or harmful, and to what degree. This paper also examines how technological advancement reflects on tourism, using the County of Istria (Croatia) as an example. It also outlines the situation in tourism in the past and in the present within this context.

Keywords: development, Istria tourism, technological advancement, economic effects

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Technological advancement represents introduction of new production processes or a new production organization. It is introduced for the purposes of increase in productivity and reduction in unit cost. Technological advancement brings more free time and, by means of production process change, work on abolition and disappearance of some jobs and professions.

We distinguish non-objectivized technological advancement, whose purpose is a better combining of the existing production factors, and

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521

© (i) S = Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/

objectivized technological advancement which gravitates towards better quality equipment and machinery or a better qualified employee structure. As a measure of technological advancement, a total factor productivity index is normally mentioned, which indicates the ratio between the production factor and pondering average.

Most frequently technological advancement relies on new technologies, information, computing, mechanical, construction, video, audio, lasers and other work techniques. New technologies create new products, they change the environment by artificially created values. The latest on the scene is plant, animal and human cloning. Simply said, competition for something new, productive, commercial, accelerated obsolescence and time-wise short term verification. Taking into account the listed advantages, possible consequences of technological advancement for human life and survival, as well as for life and survival of animal and plant species are neglected and, in that sense, the dilemma "technological advancement – solution or collapse of the Earth" occurs in scientific circles.

By technological advancement, apart from positive impacts, negative impacts on life and survival of plant and animal species and also humans have been created (Kočović, 2012). The following problem areas have particularly been identified: drinking water, unpolluted air, all kinds of waste, ozone layer holes, global warming, heaps of nuclear weapons, etc.

With its good and bad sides, technological advancement did not spare or steer clear of tourism. From the economic point of view, new techniques and procedures introduced within the field of tourism resulted in positive trends. However, when examined from the tourists point of view and their needs, especially human ones, they have produced a controversial effect in that segment.

The purpose and goal of this paper is to provide a wider insight into the question of whether the effects of technological advancement benefit or harm tourism, and to what degree, i.e. how is this reflected on the example of the tourism of Istria (Croatia), on which the research was conducted.

THEORETICAL BASIS AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Technological advancement in tourism

Technological advancement in social and economic activities has, of late, evolved into a permanent phenomenon. This is the case in tourism too; due to tourists' increased needs and wishes (Poon, 1994),

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 171-184 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

technological advancement frequently occurs (Stipanuk, 1993). First of all, the technological advancement in tourism spread to the business activities of kitchens and restaurants, reception, followed by room equipping, integration of additional features into accommodation facilities (swimming pools, wellness centers, etc.), and in camp sites land subdivision is being carried out.

Reception business is computerized. By means of computers, records are kept, reservations made, etc. (Lituchy and Rail, 2000). In this way, time is saved and records are of a better quality. Information technologies are also being introduced for business monitoring (Buhalis, 1998; O'Connor and Murphy, 2004; Buhalis and O'Connor, 2005; Chathoth, 2007; Buhalis & Zoge, 2007; Buhalis and Law, 2008), improvement of organization (Wang and Qualls, 2007), and process and destination management (Law et al., 2010).

Equally, technological advancement is also evident in hotel restaurants by introduction of the so-called Swedish smorgasbord table, on which food selection is displayed in the central position in a restaurant, with tourists helping themselves to it. With such a style of service, there is no waiting, food preserves the required properties, appearance and corresponding temperature, which, in the classic manner of service in hotel restaurants, was a special problem, often inviting criticism. With such a way of food service, large savings have been achieved concerning staff, however, an opposite effect can also be noticed; food and drink service has turned into self-service and the guest has been deprived of the hosts' attention.

From the achievement of maximum cost-effectiveness and production rationalization point of view, technological advancement "a lot is ruthlessly stereotyped and simplified" (Muljević, 2006).

Other researchers also talk about the uncertainty of the technological advancement effects on human society, drawing attention to its influence on the tourist environment, threatening tourism survival and development in a specific area or destination (Sabban, 2013; Jakić et al., 2012). This postulate can be supported by numerous cases, of which some are listed below:

 Emergence of ozone holes and harmful cancer genic radiation, created as a technological advancement by-product. These occurrences have changed the tourists' habits. Until 30 years ago, tourists loved sunbathing, staying on the beach, a suntanned look and dark skin color. Nowadays, they stay in the shade more and keep away from the sun.

- Productions which release harmful waste waters or gases are particularly dangerous for tourism, as well as nuclear power productions and similar. Tourist destinations situated in the vicinity of such plants (nuclear power stations, plants for production of uranium, etc.), are no perspective for tourism. Tourists bypass such destinations and, when an incident occurs, such as Chernobyl or recent leakage of uranium from a power station in Japan, tourist destinations located nearby overnight lose in importance.
- Apart from the aforementioned, waste, which is, on a daily basis, released in the form of waste waters, waste gases or are accumulated in waste tips by settlements, made of various, organic and non-organic, degradable or non-degradable, very harmful and less harmful waste, also endanger tourism. This byproduct of an aggressive technological advancement affects the development and threatens the survival of tourism in the destinations which do not ensure suitable solutions.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research in this paper is based on primary and secondary sources, as well as on the approach based on attitudes of domestic and foreign researchers. Since the fundamental goal in the paper is detection of specificities of the Istria tourism development in the context of the technological advancement, the starting point in the paper is founded on technical and technological achievements and their acceptance in tourism in the last 60 years.

Theme of this paper was not researched/developed for the territory of Istria, as well as in Croatia, and this paper should be seen as a contribution for systematic research of the subject theme in Croatian scientific literature. That was the reason why research in this paper is based on small amount of available literature by rare domestic and foreign researchers/authors, who were working on the problem areas of technological advancement in tourism, statistical data on tourist trends and tourist capacity growth, as well as on interviewing tourist workers who, in the last and this century, participated in the development of tourism in Istria. This is how the picture of tourism in Istria in the past and today was formed in the context of technological advancement, which provides the answers to the following questions:

• What was Istria tourism in the past like?

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 171-184 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

- What was the application of new techniques and technologies in equipment of tourist facilities like?
- In what segments was the technological advancement most pronounced in the Istria tourism development?
- Apart from desirable, has technological advancement also produced some undesirable effects in the tourism of Istria?
- What is the tourism of Istria like today? Fundamental research goals in the paper are:
- deepen the knowledge about how much and to what degree technological advancement is useful or harmful to tourism,
- determine reflections of technological advancement on the example of tourism of Istria, and
- within that context, determine its appearance in the past and today.

According to the listed goals, a hypothesis is set, by which it is stated that technological advancement transforms tourism with good, but possibly also undesirable consequences. Proving of the set hypothesis is conducted on the example of tourism of Istria.

RESEARCH RESULTS

Tourism development of Istria related with technological advancement

After World War II, tourism in Istria was found to be in a very poor condition. All the facilities for receipt of tourists, i.e. hotels and restaurants, were mainly damaged from the war devastation and what little was left intact, technologically speaking, was furnished using elementary equipment for provision of the most basic accommodation and food services to tourists. By the year 1960, damage from the war was recovered and tourism development commenced in Istria, which, from the technological aspect, can be considered in three phases.

First phase

The phase of tourism development in Istria, which started in 1960, lasted until 1980, and was marked by intensive development of capacities for tourist accommodation, provision of food service and entertainment.

Table 1. Development of facilities and capacities in the tourism of Istria between 1960 and 1980

Year	Total	Pitches in	Moorings	Rural	M	Maritime		Rural tourism		Total		
	accomm.	campsites	in	tourism	to	tourism		tourism				
	capacities		marinas	beds	Visits	Overnights	Visits	Overnights	Visits	Overnights		
	-				in	in 000	in	in 000	in	in 000		
					000		000		000			
1960	38,600	19,428	-	-	397	3,497	-	-	397	3,497		
1970	111,400	46,120	-	-	744	6,556	-	-	744	6,556		
1980	198,300	102,332	-	-	1,708	16,237	-	-	1,708	16,237		

Source: Rijeka Municipal Community Statistical Almanac, 1986: 82-87.

This development was accompanied by an elementary level of technical and technological equipment and its basic goal was to construct as many as possible facilities and capacities for tourist accommodation, provision of food service and, partly, entertainment. The situation was the same with the complementary accommodation in campsites, which were equipped with sanitary points and shops with basic provisions. The fundamental characteristic of this phase is construction of large accommodation facilities of between 400 and 1,500 beds of elementary technical and technological equipment.

Second phase

The phase between the years 1980 and 1990 is known for implementation of new technical and technological achievements into the facilities for tourist accommodation and boarding, directed towards improvements in business conduct and satisfaction of ever increasing tourist demands and needs (Garver, 2002; Magnini et al., 2003; Koutroumanis, 2011).

Table 2. Development of facilities and capacities in the tourism of Istria between 1980 and 1990

	Istila between 1000 and 1000											
Year	Total	Pitches in	Moorings	Rural	M	Maritime		Maritime Rural tourism			Total	
	accomm.	campsites	in	tourism	to	tourism		tourism				
	capacities		marinas	beds	Visits	Overnights	Visits	Overnights	Visits	Overnights		
					in	in 000	in	in 000	in	in 000		
					000		000		000			
1980	198,300	102,332	-	-	1,708	16,237	-	Ţ	1,708	16,237		
1990	245,815	126,420	4,030	-	2,094	17,467	-	-	2,094	17,467		

Source: Ivošević, 1995: 75.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 171-184 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

In this phase innovations are introduced into accommodation facilities, especially into the sector of food and drink service to tourists, abandoning the old method of table service and transfer to the Swedish smorgasbord table, on which dishes are displayed and guests help themselves to it. Equally, in this development phase, increased attention is paid to tourists, their needs for entertainment, sport and recreation, equipping hotels with additional facilities. In this phase, apart from hotels, sports centers with terrains for different sports are built, tennis being especially popular, as well as entertainment and animation centers, etc. Equally, in this phase the first marinas for nautical tourism are built and, in campsites, the land sub-division process is carried out and additional facilities for sport and entertainment for tourists are constructed.

Third phase

This phase begins in 1990 and is still in progress to date. In this phase numerous technical and technological achievements have been introduced, with which an attempt is made to raise the quality of accommodation and service of food and drinks (Lee et al., 2003). Equally, the tendency is to perfect business conduct and management, introducing into business modern information technology systems for process monitoring and management in accommodation units and destination (Piccoli, 2008). In this phase, hotels are being refurbished by joining of two rooms into one, with full equipment (air conditioning, television, video, etc.). Hotels are being fitted with swimming pools, wellness facilities, etc., in order to satisfy tourists' every wish and need.

Table 3. Development of facilities and capacities in the tourism of Istria from 1990 to 2010

	19114 119111 1990 19 20 10										
Year	Total	Pitches in	Moorings	Rural	M	Maritime		Rural tourism		Total	
	accommodation	campsites	in	tourism	to	ourism					
	capacities		marinas	beds	Visits	Overnights	Visits	Overnights	Visits	Overnights	
					in	in 000	in	in 000	in	in 000	
					000		000		000		
1990	245,815	126,420	4,030	-	2,094	17,467	-	-	2,094	17,467	
2000	217,924	106,067	11,000	2,920	2,080	14,284	-		2,080	14,284	
2010	230,122	113,525	16,606	27,510	2,514	17,363	223	1,678	2,737	19,041	

Source: County of Istria, Administrative Department for Tourism (data provided by authors personal correspondences/contacts with County of Istria)

Also in campsites, apart from land sub-division, new accommodation forms are being introduced (mobile homes); campsites are being equipped

with swimming pools and other facilities for maximal fulfillment of tourists' wishes and needs. Tourism is being developed not only along the coastline, but also in rural areas. Small accommodation facilities are becoming increasingly popular and can be noticed in the structure of accommodation facilities.

Achievements and consequences of technological advancement in the tourism of Istria

Development of tourism of Istria from 1960 to date is accompanied by achievements and undesirable consequences. Consequences and achievements of Istria tourism development in the context of technological advancement are present in all the phases, which are as follows, listed in Table 4.

In the first phase, in which it was insisted upon a high growth in tourist receipt facilities (hotels, campsites) and a large increase in the number of visitors, the problem of disharmony occurred in capacity increase in accommodation facilities and the number of visitors in comparison to the infrastructural growth (water and electricity supplies, telephones, construction of communal and other plants for drainage and filtering of waste waters, traffic infrastructure construction, etc.). The said disharmony caused, in the peak of the season, unpleasant shortages of water and electricity, road traffic congestion, shortage of some items in shops and shortages of petrol at petrol stations.

Furthermore, a big problem of Istria tourism development in almost all phases was insufficient staff profiles. Intensive tourism development required a large number of professional and educated staff. In the 1950's, there were too few highly educated staff in the whole Istria region. This was also the case with qualified staff and staff with completed secondary education. There was also a shortage of staff with lower education and unqualified staff for cleaning and room making, and cleaning of other hotel areas, ancillary staff in the kitchens, etc. As it was not possible to find the necessary staff in Istria itself during the tourist season, staff were recruited from other parts of Croatia and former Yugoslavia. With such staff structure, it was hard to monitor intensive development and achieve good business results, as they had specific cultural backgrounds and habits; they had to be trained and educated very quickly for jobs in tourism.

Additionally, due to great demand by guests who wanted to spend their holiday in Istria and regular lateness in construction and opening of new facilities, capacity overbooking would occur every year, which

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 171-184 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

would cause big problems with accommodation of all the tourists who arrived. Many tourists would arrive on holiday in Istria, without even seeing the hotel they had booked, as it was not ready for opening in time.

Table 4. Achievements and consequences of technological advancement in the tourism of Istria

Achievements	Consequences
Construction of a large number of	Disharmony in development of
accommodation facilities and	accommodation capacities and
capacities.	infrastructure with consequences of
	shortage of water and electricity
Enrichment of tourist offer by new	and road traffic congestion.
facilities.	
	Lateness in making operational
Satisfaction of tourists' wishes and	newly-built accommodation
needs.	facilities with a consequence of not
	being able to accommodate arriving
Employment and possibility of	tourists.
income.	
	Disharmony in development of
Increase in business conduct,	accommodation facilities as
quality and implementation and	opposed to the facilities outside
perfection of process and	hotel boarding with consequences
destination management.	of queuing in sport centers, non-
	hotel restaurants, crowded shops,
	road traffic congestion, etc.
	Fast assume dation facility
	Fast accommodation facility
	development was accompanied by a constant lack of staff of all
	profiles.
	Developmental orientation to
	maritime tourism has as a
	consequence neglect of tourism
	development in rural areas.

Source: Processed by authors

Hotel appearance and equipment is yet another issue. That issue, construction of large hotels with small rooms, equipped only with essential furnishings, i.e. bed and wardrobe, prevails. Equally,

development of other forms of tourist offer was neglected: restaurants for non-hotel boarding service of food and drinks, facilities of entertainment, sport and recreation. There were very few aforementioned non-hotel facilities in comparison with the number of tourists stationed in Istria, and tourists were often forced to wait for a chair or a table to be vacated in a restaurant, they had to queue for sports equipment hire, or for sports terrains.

Tourism development in rural areas of Istria was neglected. Until the 1990's, tourist offer in rural areas was very modest and the only facilities where something was happening and visits were possible, were situated in the village of Krculi near Žminj, and in small town Motovun.

Characteristics of Istria tourism in the past and today

The motives for tourist arrival in Istria used to be the sun, the sea and gastronomy. Nowadays, the sun, the sea and gastronomy are not as important as before, as the number of motives has considerably expanded, namely to entertainment, sport, recreation, experiences, etc. Above all, offer quality is insisted upon, whereas, in the past, it was the quantity.

In the tourist structure, Germans, Austrians, Italians and Dutch were in the first place in the past, while the tourists from the then Eastern bloc countries (Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary, Russia) were very poorly represented. Today, there are more tourists from those countries, not in the first place, but they are represented in the structure more than ever.

The basic goal of tourism politics used to be realization of a large number of visitors and overnights. Today, the emphasis is on an increased expenditure per tourist per day and numerous offer contents are being included, of which some were unheard earlier. Before, tourist offer used to be very modest and was reduced to the services of accommodation, food and entertainment. Today, that offer is much broader for the tourists, it is versatile and constant attention has been paid to the increase of its quality and all efforts are made to satisfy tourists' every wish and need. In the past, less demanding tourist wishes are today very demanding, especially regarding the quality and level of service prices.

As opposed to the past, nowadays the situation with staff is excellent. Today, selection and testing is carried out in employing educated staff. Previously, employment of educated staff was conducted without testing and they were immediately granted large benefits (salary, accommodation, position, etc.).

Today, the accompanying infrastructure (water, drainage, electricity, telecommunications, and roads) is satisfactory in comparison to the past.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 171-184 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

Infrastructure is harmonized and follows tourism development. Today, the shortages of the past are unthinkable.

Previously, prospects for employment and earnings in tourism were better. Employees in tourism used to receive their salaries for regular working hours. At the end of the year, they would receive a "bonus", three to four whole salaries as reward for achievement of company's good business results. During the winter months, employees would receive their salaries from reallocation of overtime working hours.

In the past, tourism development was accompanied by great optimism and enthusiasm of employees and the population of Istria. Guests were shown hospitality and respect. In tourism, people used to work with pride, with a lot of sacrifice and great willingness. Today, it is less so.

CONCLUSION REMARKS

From the discussion on the topic of technological advancement and tourism, threats which endanger tourism have been noticed. By technological advancement, together with a positive impact, an opposite impact has also been achieved in tourism, whereby that lively and pleasant atmosphere has vanished in tourist facilities, when guests, upon check-in at reception, were welcomed with a smile and, during their entire stay, were shown their hosts' undivided attention. By introduction of technical advancements, there is much less of that. Equally, threats from technological advancement are noticeable also in the tourism environment. Those threats emanate from industrial plants and can endanger survival or inhibit further tourism development in the destination.

In Istria, tourism development in the context of technological advancement went through three phases.

The first phase was characterized by the development at elementary level of technical and technological equipment, i.e. only with essential equipment for receipt of as large as possible a number of tourists.

In the second phase, a higher level of technical and technological equipment was introduced, by which attempts were made to improve business conduct in tourism and to satisfy ever increasing and complex tourists' demands and needs. Swedish smorgasbord tables were introduced in tourist service, sports centers with terrains for different sports were being built and tennis is particularly popular. In this phase, the first marinas for nautical tourism also were constructed and, in

campsites, land sub-division was carried out and additional facilities for tourist entertainment, sport and recreation were built.

In the third phase, numerous technical and technological achievements are being introduced, by which efforts are being made to raise the level of service quality, perfect business conduct and management, introducing into business modern information technology systems for process monitoring and management. Hotels are being refurbished by joining of two rooms into one, with full equipment (air conditioning, television, video, etc.). Hotels are being fitted with swimming pools and wellness facilities. In campsites, apart from land subdivision, new accommodation forms are being introduced (mobile homes). Campsites are being equipped with swimming pools and other facilities. Tourism is being developed not only along the coastline, but also in rural areas. Small accommodation facilities are becoming increasingly popular.

Technological advancement created a large step forward in the tourism of Istria; tourism at the elementary level of technical and technological equipment from before has been transformed into a modern one, with a high level of quality and business conduct, not only in the maritime, but also in the rural field.

REFERENCES

- Buhalis, D. (1998). Strategic use of information technologies in the tourism industry. *Tourism Management*, Vol.19, No.5, pp. 409-421.
- Buhalis, D. & O'Connor, P. (2005). Information communication technology Revolutionizing tourism. *Tourism Recreation Research*, Vol.30, No.3, pp. 7-16.
- Buhalis, D. & Law, R. (2008). Progress in information technology and tourism management: Twenty years on and 10 years after the internet. The state of eTourism research. *Tourism Management*, Vol.29, No.4, pp. 609-623
- Buhalis, D. & Zoge, M. (2007). The Strategic Impact of the Internet on the Tourism Industry. In M. Sigala, L. Mich, J. Murphy (Eds.) *Information* and Communication Technologies in Tourism, Wien: Springer-Verlag, pp. 481-492.
- Chathoth, P. K. (2007). The impact of information technology on hotel operations, service management and transaction costs: A conceptual framework for full-service hotel firms. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol.26, No.2, pp. 395-408.
- Garver, M. (2002). Using Data Mining for Customer Satisfaction Research. *Marketing Research*, Vol.14, No.1, pp. 8-13.
- Ivošević, D. (1995). Nautical Tourism in Croatia. Pula: private edition.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn_Winter 2015, pp. 171-184 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

- Jakić, M., Sokolić, F. & Poljak, D. (2012). Scientific and technological development and the problem of truth. *Philosophical Research*, Vol.32, No.3-4, pp. 427-442.
- Kočović, D. (2012). Technological progress, social issues and moral crisis. *Media, Culture and Public Relations*, Vol.3, No.1, pp. 13-22.
- Koutroumanis, D.A. (2011). Technology's Effect on Hotels and Restaurants: Building a Strategic Competitive Advantage. *Journal of Applied Business and Economics*, Vol.12, No.1, pp. 72-80.
- Law, R., Qi, S. & Buhalis, D. (2010). Progress in tourism management: A review of website evaluation in tourism research. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 31, No. 3, pp. 297-313.
- Lee S.C., Barker, S. & Kandampully, J. (2003). Technology, service quality, and customer loyalty in hotels: Australian managerial perspectives. *Managing Service Quality*, Vol.13, No.5, pp. 423-432.
- Lituchy, T. R. and Rail, A. (2000). Bed and Breakfasts, Small Inns, and the Internet: The Impact of Technology on the Globalization of Small Business. *Journal of International Marketing*, Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 86-97.
- Magnini, V., Honeycutt, E. and Hodge, K. (2003). Data mining for hotel firms: A synthesis of more than two decades of research. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 37, No. 6, pp. 1649-1665.
- Muljević, V. (2006). Ethics and aesthetics of the future. *Croatian Review*, No. 4, pp. 1-8.
- O'Connor, P. & Murphy, J. (2004). Research on information technology in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol.23, No.5, pp. 473-484.
- Piccoli, G. (2008). Information Technology in Hotel Management: A Framework for Evaluating the Sustainability of IT-Dependent Competitive Advantage. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, Vol.49, No.3, pp. 282-296.
- Poon, A. (1994). The "New Tourism" Revolution. *Tourism Management*, Vol.15, No.2, pp. 91-102.
- Rijeka Municipal Community Statistical Almanac. (1986).
- Sabban, M. (2013). Report on sustainable tourism in the Mediterranean. 4th meeting of ARLEM's Commission for sustainable development (SUDEV) on January 16 and adopted during the 4th ARLEM plenary session on February 18 in Brussels, Belgium, 1-14.
- Stipanuk, D. M. (1993). Tourism and Technology: Interactions and Implications. *Tourism Management*, Vol.14, No.4, pp. 267-278.
- Wang, Y. & Qualls, W. (2007). Towards a theoretical model of technology adoption in hospitality organizations. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol.26, No.3, pp. 560-573.

SUBMITTED: OCT 2014 REVISION SUBMITTED: FEB 2015 ACCEPTED: MAR 2015

REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Damir Demonja (ddemonja@irmo.hr) is a Scientific Adviser Institute for Development and International Relations (IRMO), Ljudevita Farkaša Vukotinovića 2, HR-10000 Zagreb, Croatia.

Pavlo Ružić (pavlo@iptpo.hr) is a Scientific Adviser at the Institute of Agriculture and Tourism Poreč (IPTPO), Karla Huguesa 8, HR-52440 Poreč, Croatia.

TOURISM DESTINATION MANAGEMENT: AN OVERVIEW OF THE ADVANCES OF CATALONIA

Josep Boyra Amposta Ramon Llull University

This paper is dedicated to review Catalan public and private efforts to keep managing tourism advances to the benefit of Catalonia, and in particular its capital Barcelona, since the celebration of the Olympic Games in 1992. As the paper will progress its focus will turn on analyzing the abilities for learning and teaching advances, tackling how advances should be managed in order to keep their positive effects as long as possible in time, as they seem to be precisely at the basis of the success and position of Barcelona in the worldwide ranking as a top urban tourism destination.

Keywords: tourism destination; long term management; competitiveness

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Despite the impact of recent international economic recession and social turmoil Barcelona and the rest of Catalonia have demonstrated so far a strong capacity to keep attracting higher numbers of either national and international visitors and tourists and even more important to increase significantly the tourist expenditure. Which are the advances that can explain this performance? Which are right now the challenges to overcome in order to shape and to exploit new ones? To carry out this study the paper will start analyzing the outcomes of the celebration of the Olympic Games of Barcelona in 1992 and how these contributed to put in place a series of strategies that permitted to support and ensure Spanish and Catalan public authorities tourism policies. Particularly, their impact in the tourism strategy of the Metropolitan Area of Barcelona and its managing advances, the follow up of the competitive advances set in

[©] University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521



place by hoteliers and events operators in Barcelona in the last few years and the identification of new advances opportunities and associated challenges both for Barcelona and Catalonia as a country.

THE GAMES OF THE XXV OLYMPIAD

Almost twenty years have passed from the celebration of the Olympic Games in Barcelona. The capital of Catalonia hosted and managed then, with remarkable success, one of the major international events supported by a full range of coordinated procedures among tourism, travel and hospitality stakeholders. The set of measures and strategies putted then in place by both public authorities and private operators and subsequent and constant efforts of optimization in the management of its advances seem to be at the basis of the success and position of Barcelona in the worldwide ranking as a top urban tourism destination.

Three were the main action plans, promoted by public administration at national, regional and municipal scale that contributed to make possible the success of the Olympic Games in Barcelona. The first action plan in terms of the total financial investment was devoted to urban planning, including reforms of the use of the land and transportation networks. The effects of these interventions resulted in a major number of public spaces and the traffic decongestion in the city. The airport expansion was also crucial to ensure the arrival of the Olympic community.

The second main action plan was addressed to build the necessary telecommunications infrastructure to relay the Games. Two spectacular telecommunications towers were built for this purpose changing the skyline of Barcelona. Both projects (see figures 1 and 2) were entrusted to two renowned architects who showed his talent in carrying out their work.

The third action plan and the least expensive in financial terms consisted in building or conditioning the necessary sports facilities for the proper development of the Games. Beyond this set of interventions putted in place by both public authorities and private operators, the Barcelona'92 Olympic Organizing Committee had the ability to generate a great enthusiasm among the citizenry. More than 100.000 people volunteered, of which 34.548 were finally selected.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 185-198 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

Figure 1. Torre de Collserola by Norman Foster



Source: http://turistaxcaso.wordpress.com

Figure 2. Torre de Montjuïc by Santiago Calatrava



Source: http://www.miathletic.com

The Games were covered by more than 13.000 media from all over the world. The impact of broadcasters that followed the event was tremendous among foreign potential travelers, particularly from outside Europe. The promotion of the city and the Catalan culture changed the perception of hundreds of thousands of people around the globe and made them realize that Catalonia is in itself a country within another country which is named Spain. In fact the Spanish State is composed at least by three other national identities apart from the Castilian one representing Spain. These historic nations are Galicia, Basque Country and Catalonia each one possessing its own language repository of its own culture, traditions and customs.

In some ways it is ironic that the development of the tourism industry during the Franco dictatorship was driven since the late 1940s by the Spanish tourism authorities through a campaign to entice tourists to Spain via the slogan "Spain is different". Despite the time elapsed this slogan still somehow nowadays the most known and successful tourist slogan of the Spanish State. The campaign was aimed mainly to promote the diversity of landscapes and heritage of Spain among foreign tourism, nevertheless the slogan was used within the borders of the State in the form of parody; as an indicator of abnormality and uniqueness of the political situation in relation to the democracies of Western Europe. At this point it seems convenient to recall that "the development of organized leisure travel ... is closely associated with several major processes of the modern period, including changing patterns of social and industrial organization, nation building, the rise of mass consumption and the emergence of a modern subject consciousness" (Pack 2008: 657).

No one disputes that the Olympic Games of Barcelona in 1992 had an enormous success in economic, urban and social terms for the city, including the expansion of its tourism facilities. Many new hotels were built and many other old ones were refurbished to secure accommodation during the Games. This initiative marked the beginning of a steady increase and quality improvement of city hotel bedrooms. Just from 1990 to 1992 a significant private investment meant a growth of 38% of the total number of hotel beds (Brunet, 1993). The celebration of this international event marked indeed a turning point for Barcelona and for Catalonia in general. Thus, since the Olympic Games took place, the rise of awareness among the international community about the Catalan geography, heritage and culture has just continued to increase. To cope this challenge all efforts, both from public and private sectors, are being developed to manage as effectively as possible the tourism advances of Catalonia.

TOURISM EVOLUTION IN BARCELONA AND CATALONIA

This section consists in a short summary dedicated to quantify and to analyze briefly tourism evolution in Barcelona and Catalonia both in terms of supply and demand. As pointed in the previous section the celebration of the Olympic Games meant a remarkable momentum for the hotel industry in the city. As table 1 shows the number of hotel beds in Barcelona has tripled since 1990.

Table 1. Number of Hotel Beds by Category in Barcelona (1990-2010)

Hotel	1990	1992	2000	2004	2007	2008	2009	2010
5*	3.979	-	-	5.363	7.954	8.487	8.853	10.096
4*	5.302	-	-	14.274	27.224	28.486	30.772	29.774
3*	6.375	-	-	9.280	13.283	14.213	14.612	13.351
2*	1.466	-	-	4 505	3.650	3.828	3.845	5.089
1*	1.447	-	-	4.505	1.925	1.970	2.249	3.089
B&B	-	-	-	5.831	-	-	-	5.681
Total	18.569	25.055	31.338	39.253	54.036	56.984	60.331	63.991

Source: compiled from Turisme de Barcelona, 2011; Duran, 2002.

As table 1 shows the hotel evolution in Barcelona in the past twenty years has been particularly significant in regard the increase of number of beds in 4* and 5* starts hotels. Therefore the registered evolution means a smaller percentage of lower hotel category beds and consequently it results in a higher quality accommodation supply. This same trend can be observed (see table 2) for the whole of Catalonia.

Table 2. Number of Hotel Beds by Category in Catalonia (2004-2010)

20.0)								
Hotel	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	
5*	6.372	7.810	9.227	10.036	10.572	11.262	13.199	
4*	55.183	61.848	67.202	70.875	80.026	91.958	95.122	
3*	107.092	107.164	109.355	108.431	109.186	108.435	108.507	
2* 1*	43.211	41.539	39.155	38.618	38.563	38.511	38.956	
B&B	36.035	35.077	34.181	33.588	32.485	31.960	31.165	
Total	247.893	253.438	259.120	261.548	270.832	282.126	286.949	

Source: compiled from Observatori de Turisme, 2011.

In fact, analyzing the evolution of total hotels beds by category in Catalonia for the period 2004-2010, see table 2 above, it is significant to note that the path of growth of the number of beds in 4* and 5* starts hotels has been very much the similar to the one registered in Barcelona. Indeed, taking into account the same period, this is the period 2004-2010, we can observe that the number of 4* and 5* starts hotels beds has doubled in both cases. This fact means that hotel industry for tourist accommodation has experienced a substantial upgrade all over the country in the last years.

Logically, the growth of supply is related to a phenomenon of increasing demand, particularly notable in the case of Barcelona. The number of tourists and overnights in hotels in the pre-Olympic Barcelona was far more inferior to the current one. As table 3 shows the number of tourists for the period 1990-2010 has quadrupled whereas that the number of overnights in hotels has almost followed the same pattern. On the other hand, the percentage of tourists according to the purpose of visit has substantially changed.

Table 3. Number of Foreign and National Tourists and Hotel Overnights in Barcelona (1990-2010)

	• • • •				(-0.0,		
	1990	1995	2000	2005	2007	2008	2009	2010
Number of	1.732.	3.089.	3.141.	5.061.	7.108.	6.659.	6.476.	7.133.
tourists	902	974	162	264	393	075	033	524
Hotel	3.795.	5.674.	7.777.	10.94	13.62	12.48	12.81	14.04
Overnights	522	580	580	1.579	0.347	5.198	7.170	7.396

Source: compiled from Turisme de Barcelona, 2011; Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2011a.

While in 1990 approximately a 70% of tourists visited the capital for business the rest were attracted by vacation or other purposes. In 2010 this situation has been reversed and a desirable balance exists between tourists according to the purpose of its visit. Thus, more than a 50% of tourists are nowadays visiting the city for holidays and the rest do so for professional reasons and other purposes. Nonetheless, is worth to note that the total number of national and international meetings, this is congresses, corporate and incentive meetings in Barcelona has increased from 373 in 1990 to 2.138 in 2010.

The number of international tourists arrivals as well as the number of hotel overnights has grown considerably in Catalonia, see table 4, particularly between the years 2000 and 2005. Although the effects of the international economic crisis have dragged down the total number of

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 185-198 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

foreign tourists arrivals in the last years, the number of hotels overnights tends to increase lengthening the average hotel stay.

Table 4
Number of Foreign Tourists Arrivals and Hotel Overnights in
Catalonia (2000-2010)

	2000	2001	2004	2005	2007	2008	2009	2010
Foreign tourists	-	9.638.337	13.470.000	14.680.000	15.925.000	14.888.000	13.597.000	13.177.000
Hotel Overnights	24.297.529	24.168.000	24.285.000	25.151.000	27.701.000	27.792.000	26.261.000	29.839.000

Source: compiled from Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2011a; Estudis de Turisme de Catalunya, 2011.

The number of international tourist arrivals in Catalonia in 2010 represents a 25% of the total international tourist arrivals to Spain, as around 52 millions foreign tourists entered the Spanish State in 2010 (United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2011). These figures mean that Catalonia is the first tourist destination of Spain in terms of international tourist arrivals, being thus the autonomous region, of the 17 existing ones, that attract the major number of foreign tourists (Instituto de Estudios Turísticos, 2011). Catalonia is also the autonomous region of the Spanish State with the major number of foreign overnights with the figure of 107.191.000 registered in all type of tourist accommodation facilities in 2010, being the average stay for foreign tourist of 8.2 nights spent (Observatori de Turisme, 2011; Instituto de Estudios Turísticos, 2011). Catalonia is also leader in tourist accommodation capacity with a total of 736.000 tourist accommodation beds in 2010 (Observatori de Turisme, 2011; Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2011b).

MANAGING TOURISM DEVELOPMENT SINCE 1979

With the return to democracy in Spain, Catalonia recovered its self-government again in 1979. Since then the government of Catalonia, known as Generalitat de Catalunya, has developed its own tourism policy. The Department of Business and Employment is the responsible public authority to legislate and to promote the Catalan tourism product around the globe. Three major bodies within this Department are in charge to direct and to manage Catalan tourism advances. The first body is the Directorate General for Tourism whose main functions are among others:

- 1. Designing, coordinating and implementing policies to promote the competitiveness of the tourism industry, innovation and quality of tourism products in Catalonia.
- 2. To develop planning instruments to balance and to ensure sustainable tourism in Catalonia.
- 3. To sort and to control establishments, business and tourism activities in the area of jurisdiction of the Department.
- 4. To design and to coordinate activities related to the training of the tourism sector.
- 5. To manage and to coordinate activities for the analysis, study, knowledge, research and strategy definition of tourism.
- 6. Designing and coordinating support for local authorities to promote and boost tourism.
- 7. To check and to impose disciplinary sanctions to tourist establishments, businesses and regulated activities (Direcció General de Turisme, 2011).

The second body is the Observatory of Tourism of Catalonia. The Observatory is an integrated information system for the study, the research and the monitoring of tourism. The creation of this body is devoted to deep on the knowledge of integrated tourism management systems as well as making available to public and private sectors different tools and information aimed at enhancing the competitiveness of tourism in Catalonia, co-assisting thus the positioning of the Brand Catalonia, its products and territories around the world. Therefore, the Observatory of Tourism of Catalonia has been conceived and designed to carry out the monitoring of tourism in Catalonia, to promote applied research, to support decision making, to design new strategies and to support the information needs of the various areas of the Directorate General for Tourism. In turn, the Directorate General of Tourism provides technical and administrative support to the Observatory.

The third body is the Catalan Tourism Agency founded out of the principles of co-decision-making and co-financing between public and private agents and led by its Governing Board. The creation of this new body was one of the key actions in the Strategic Tourism Plan for Catalonia 2005-2010. The aim of the Catalan Tourism Agency is to provide the tourist industry with more effective promotional tools, positioning Catalonia as a leading international tourist destination, as maintaining its diversity, quality and social and economic profitability. The Catalan Tourism Agency has two main objectives: firstly, overhauling the country's promotion of tourism, switching from the traditional model, which is mostly publicly financed, to a new model with

greater private sector participation; and secondly, responding to the desire in the sector to work closer with the public authorities and in collaboration with private enterprise. The Agency's Governing Board is composed by the Government of Catalonia and local promotional bodies representing the public sector and the General Council of Chambers of Catalonia that represents the private one. Financial donations are required to become part of the Agency, observing the basic principles of its members in co-decision making and co-financing.



Figure 3. Counties Map of Catalonia

Source: http://aoestany.wordpress.com/2011/12/11/catalunya-comarques/

In the other hand the capital of Catalonia, this is Barcelona, has been and still being a main attraction to tourist development for the whole country. The capital counts with the Turisme de Barcelona Consortium which was created in 1993 as the result of an agreement between the city's public and private sectors. Since then it has worked to lend continuity to the impetus given by the Olympic Games, making it possible for the city's

wide range of hotels, services and new infrastructures to become more cost-effective and to improve over time. Turisme de Barcelona was set up as the result of an agreement and the close relationship between Barcelona City Council and the Barcelona Chamber of Commerce, which took advantage of the 1992 Olympic Games to establish the guidelines and operational organization for Barcelona's growth as a tourist destination. Nevertheless there is still a challenge; this is to spread tourist flows and tourist incomes to many counties away from the coastline or the Pyrenees. Recent efforts to identify and to measure tourism gross domestic product, county by county (Duro, 2010) show in fact a huge disparity between the counties of the coastal area and the Pyrenees and those of the rest of the country.

MANAGING TOURISM ADVANCES: THE CATALAN WAY

Analyzing the abilities for learning and teaching tourism advances in the context of a constantly growing sector at international level, both in terms of demand and supply, any tourism destination must take into account four basic components to shape and to manage its own tourism sub-system. The first component is the transport system that has to guaranty accessibility to tourists by different means of transport. In this sense, Barcelona airport was expanded with a new terminal in 2009, rising from a 30 million passengers annual capacity to a 55 million one. Total traffic in 2011 amounted to 34.399.180 passengers whereas it was little more than 10 million the one registered in 1992 (Aeropuertos Españoles y Navegación Aérea, 2012). The port of Barcelona has experimented as well a significant development in terms of capacity allowing the flourishing of the cruise industry (see table 5) in the last two decades.

The second component is represented by the agents involved in tourism development. Certainly, more efficient are the cooperation mechanisms and the communication channels between public and private tourism sectors greater the chances are of achieving the success and competitiveness of the tourist destination. In the previous section were analyzed the two main bodies that in the form of private public partnership are in charge to manage the tourism advances in Catalonia, that is the Catalan Tourism Agency and the Turisme de Barcelona Consortium that have undoubtedly done a good labor so far. The third component of any tourism sub-system is the tourist himself as consumer, with his social, cultural and economic profile, its expectations and

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 185-198 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

motivations and finally the fourth component is the tourist destination itself that is, a physical delimited area characterized by its natural and human resources inherent to any location or territory. From the analysis conducted hitherto the following deduction can be established; as managing advances seem to be precisely at the basis of the success of Catalonia as a tourist destination a constant effort of adaptation is required to keep developing their positive effects as long as possible in time.

Table 4. Cruise Ship Traffic in the Port of Barcelona (1990-2010)

Year	Number of	Total
i eai	Cruises	Passengers
1990	207	115.137
1995	356	233.389
2000	492	576.942
2005	691	1.224.575
2010	851	2.347.976

Source: Autoritat Portuària de Barcelona, 2012.

This assumption means a continuous management of tourism advances in the long term. So which are right now the challenges to overcome the tourism advances achieved in order to shape and to exploit new ones? In the case of Catalonia, tourism agents must keep developing inland tourism products and services able to attract visitors and tourist flows to disadvantaged counties. In the case of Barcelona, tourism agents, in particular hotelier and events operators must continue to show their skills to adapt to price decline in the provision of service without renouncing to the most innovative systems and quality standards in their facilities. A continuous and systematic identification of new tourism advances opportunities associated with the challenges that future holds are also indispensable both for Barcelona and Catalonia as a country. In fact, an advance or a set of advances have to prove to be right in the long term, in other words, it have to prove to be useful to chart the right course towards the best quality tourist destination of tomorrow, otherwise after a certain period of time these advances could be perceived as mere setbacks or, even worst, like unpleasant aftermaths. Therefore, the integrated management of both natural and human resources in the development process (Milne, 1998; Murray et al. 2010) alike the environmental excellence of the tourism destination in the long term (Boyra, 2009) are crucial to safeguard the quality of the tourist experience as well as the highest degree of competitiveness of the destination itself within the tourism market.

CONCLUSION

Tourism certainly has complex effects both on society and the natural environment. There is no doubt that a scientific analysis of the positive and negative impacts of tourism can help us to better understand the processes of tourism development and therefore to manage its advances towards more sustainable development patterns. Some of the effects of tourism like the inconvenience to the local community caused by an excess of tourist frequentation, or the environmental damage due to the over sizing of tourist facilities can exceed the carrying capacity of the area driving away the tourist demand from the destination. Both Catalonia and its capital Barcelona are facing now the challenge to keep managing with success the set of tourism advances of the country. This challenge requires a deep reflection process which involves the reinforcement of multidisciplinary lines of research adopting new approaches to some key questions such as, for instance, the type of growth and tourism management model, the extent and consequences of the impact of tourism development and the modes of coexistence between local residents and visitors, among others. Observing the basic principles in co-decision making and co-financing must guaranty the positive outcomes of these lines of research.

REFERENCES

- Aeropuertos Españoles y Navegación Aérea (2012). Tráfico de pasajeros, operaciones y carga en los aeropuertos españoles. Dirección de Operaciones y Sistemas de Red. Departamento de Estadística Operativa. Http://www.aena-aeropuertos.es/csee/Satellite/estadisticas/en [Accessed the 9th of January 2012, 10:18]
- Autoritat Portuària de Barcelona (2012). Informes estadístics. Http://www.portdebarcelona.es/web/autoritat-portuaria/estadisticas [Accessed the 9th of January 2012, 10:53]
- Boyra, J. (2009). Looking for Environmental Excellence in Tourist Destinations. TOURISMOS: An International Multidisciplinary Refereed Journal of Tourism, 4(2): 91-106.
- Brunet, F. (1995). An economic analysis of the Barcelona '92 Olympic Games: resources, financing, and impact. In M. Moragas Spa and M. Botella (Eds.), *The Keys of success: the social, sporting, economic and*

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 185-198 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

- communications impact of Barcelona '92 (pp. 203-237). Barcelona: Servei de publicacions de la Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona.
- Direcció General de Turisme (2011). Organigrama i Funcions de la Direcció General de Turisme. Barcelona: Departament d'Empresa i Ocupació. Http://www10.gencat.cat/sac/AppJava/organisme_fitxa.jsp?codi=5483 [Accessed the 18th of November 2011, 19:46]
- Duran, P. (2002). Turisme: els impactes dels jocs i de la seva imatge sobre el turisme. In M. Moragas Spa and M. Botella (Eds.), *Barcelona: l'herència dels Jocs (1992-2002)* (275-294). Barcelona: Centre d'Estudis Olímpics i Servei de publicacions de la Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona.
- Duro, J.A. (2010). Estimació del PIB turísitic per Catalunya, marques i comarques 2005-2008. Síntesi dels principals resultats. Novembre 2010. Observatori de Turisme. Barcelona: Departament d'Innovació, Universitats i Empresa. Generalitat de Catalunya.
- Estudis de Turisme de Catalunya (2011). Catalunya turística en xifres (2004, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010). Barcelona: Direcció General de Turisme. Departament d'Empresa i Ocupació. Generalitat de Catalunya. Http://www20.gencat.cat/portal/site/empresaiocupacio/ [Accessed the 19th of December 2011, 10:37]
- Instituto de Estudios Turísticos (2011). Balance del Turismo, año 2010. Resultados de la actividad turística en España. Secretaría de Estado de Turismo. Ministerio de Industria, Turismo y Comercio. Madrid.
- Instituto Nacional de Estadística (2011a). Encuesta de Ocupación en Alojamientos Turísticos (1990, 1995, 2000, 2005). Madrid: Ministerio de Economía de España. Http://www.ine.es/inebmenu/mnu_hosteleria.htm [Accessed the 19th of December 2011, 13:56]
- Instituto Nacional de Estadística (2011b). Notas de prensa. Encuestas de Ocupación en Alojamientos Turísticos extrahoteleros. Enero 2011. Madrid: Ministerio de Economía de España.
- Milne, S.S. (1998). Tourism and sustainable development: exploring the global-local nexus. In C.M. Hall and A.A. Lew (Eds.), *Sustainable Tourism: A Geographical Perspective* (pp. 35-48). New York: Longman.
- Murray, I. et al. (2010). Els indicadors de sostenibilitat socioecològica de les Illes Balears (2003-2008). Palma de Mallorca: Observatori de Sostenibilitat i Territori, Grup d'Investigació sobre Sostenibilitat i Territori, Universitat de les Illes Balears.
- Observatori de Turisme (2011). Principals magnituds turístiques. Establiments hotelers (2004-2010). Barcelona: Departament d'Empresa i Ocupació. Generalitat de Catalunya.
- Pack, S. (2008). Tourism, modernization, and difference: a twentieth-century Spanish paradigm. *Sport in Society*, 11(6): 657-672.
- Turisme de Barcelona (2011). Estadístiques de Turisme a Barcelona. Barcelona: Consorci de Turisme de Barcelona. Http://www.barcelonaturisme.com/
 [Accessed the 16th of December 2011, 9:25]

Josep Boyra Amposta

United Nations World Tourism Organization (2011). Tourism Highlights 2011 Edition. Http://www.unwto.org/facts [Accessed the 5th of October 2011, 14:02]

SUBMITTED: APR 2013 REVISION SUBMITTED: OCT 2013 ACCEPTED: JAN 2014 REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Josep Boyra Amposta (josep.boyra@tsi.url.edu) Tourism Sant Ignasi, Ramon Llull University, Barcelona, Spain.

ANALAYZING EFFECTIVE FACTORS OF TOURISM **DEMAND IN IRANIAN JUNGLE PARKS: CASE** STUDY OF TABRIZ ELGOLI JUNGLE PARK

Ali Bagherzadeh Islamic Azad University

Amineh Keshavarz Islamic Azad Universi

This study aimed to estimate tourism demand function of Tabriz Elgoli Park in Iran by travelling costs pattern in the frame of household production function, and then effective factors of the issue are investigated. The method of study is based on the estimation of tourism production functions, final cost of travelling, and calculating the shadow price of tourism. According to the results of the study, time, distance and travel costs effect on tourism and the final cost of tourism is calculated as 3368825.7 Rials per day. Findings show that there is a positive relationship between tourism with travelers' income, quality of the park, educational level of visitors and a negative relationship with final cost (shadow price) of the tourism. The results of estimation model express that among all factors, the quality of park is the most effective factor in tourism demand. Therefore, any consideration of responsible people to the environmental quality of the park would increase tourist attraction, which leads to economical prosperity of the region.

Keywords: Household production function, Tourism production function, Tourism demand, Econometric model, Tabriz Elgoli Park

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Tourism industry is always considered as an appropriate choice to absorb economical incomes and an important source of employment. In fact, tourist attraction is an economical activity which has less posited

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521





Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under cc (a) Except where otherwise hocco, and home http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/

limitations comparing services and goods production and in case of taking attention, this section would be profitable. Therefore, paying attention to environmental recourses and parks could lead to economical prosperity and employment increase. Among the environmental recourses, the parks play a vital role to increase welfare. People have usually no imaginations of environmental recourses except being free of costs. So, inattention to the costs of these recourses in decision making level would lead to chose liable policies. Tabriz is considered as one of the seven metropolises of Iran and the biggest city in north-western area. Urban parks of Tabriz form more than 30 percent of general green space of the city, which includes 134 small and big parks spreading along different zones. Total area allocated for these parks is about 435 hectare which equals 3.18 square meters per person including the most effective recreational green lands of the city. According to historical documents of the city, Elgoli Park has been established in 1785 in east part of Tabriz. The space of this park is 61 hectare and dimension of central lake is 20*20 meters (Haiati et al, 2010). Tabriz Elgoli Park accepts a numerous visitors and tourists both in holidays and regular days. In this survey, the effective factors of tourism demands in Tabriz Elgoli Park are being investigated. For this purpose, the function of demand for using the park is utilized. In tourism demand, the relationship between shadow prices and visitors income with the rate of tourism demand is investigated and finally, the relationship between park quality and educational level of people with tourism demand is analyzed. The history of studying about the pattern f travelling costs to parks and environmental resources goes back to Harold Hotelling studies in 1930 and 1947. This method was used in an exact way in 1967 by Clawson. In his article (1991), Gary Becker states that the satisfaction of a person from a non-marketing activity is a function of designated time, opportunity cost and environmental inputs that leads to utility from visiting a site, which is the household production function. Altogether, the value of an environmental resource is calculated according to the costs of a family while visiting a site (including the costs of accommodation, food, transportation and ...) and costs of time opportunity. In this methodology, investigation approach is based on the preferences manifested by Samuelson. In his theory, Samuelson tries to exempt the behavior of consumer from the last signs of utility concept; and for this purpose, this theory is being limited to operational comparisons among value amounts. If the consumers prefer higher amount of goods to lower amount and chose only one certain basket of goods in any budgeting conditions and act compatibly in their successive choices, then they would purchase less amount of the goods which has an increased cost. Whereas their income

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 199-211 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

increases, they would purchase more amounts of those goods. This is the generalized principle of demands, or as Samuelson says, the fundamental theory of consumers' behavior which includes all reasonable observable consequences of the indifference curves. Moreover, it has the advantage that consumers' preferences could be concluded from their observable behaviors, not the conversely. The consumption hypothesis by Gary Becker became the basis for the following ideas in environmental economies and tourism industry. Based on the hypothetical frame of Gary Becker's model. Paioovan introduced the function of tourism production in 1978 and according to a two-stage approach, estimated the shadow price of tourism. After Pajooyan, Bruzelius (1980) indicated that the value of travel time is 20 to 53 percent of gross income. Lee and Han (2002) estimated the tourism value of 5 five national parks in South Korea to be about 11 dollars per family. Also, Mendez (2005) investigated the nonmarket value of urban parks in Valencia, Spain and he estimated the total value about 11945 pesetas annually. Contingent valuation method, Tobit model and half logarithm approaches are used to calculate the issue. In Iran, Naharli (1997) estimated the tourism value of Elgoli Park by Clawson method 1.59 million Rials. Mojabi and Monavari (2006) investigated and economically validated Tehran's Lavizan and Pardisan parks by Clawson method. In this study, the researchers draw the demand curve based on the maps and social and economical specifications of the parks' visitors. Their estimation demonstrated that the recreational value of Pardisan Park was 78 million Rials and, it was 53 million Rials for Lavizan Park. Pajooyan and Falihi (2008) analyzed the economical value of Anzali pond. In this study, they utilized Gary Becker's household production function. The results show that the time, distance and travelling costs affect on tourism production. In this study, the final cost of tourism is estimated 1.1.00.000 Rials per day, which is the shadow price of tourism. Also according to the research, tourism demand has a negative relationship with shadow price and a positive relationship with income. Amirnejad et al. (2009) determined recreational value of Tabriz's Elgoli Park by Contingent Valuation Method and binary choice questionnaire. After calculations, they estimated the willingness to pay as 359988 Rials per family and willingness to pay for all visitor families to utilize this complex as 224.99 million Rials per month. Haiati et al. (2010) studied the factors which motivate visitors' willingness to pay for Elgoli and Mashrote Park in Tabriz city by applying two stages Heckman approach. The findings of this research shows that the effective variants for willingness to pay include time for each visit, monthly income,

education and age of the visitors. In this study, the willingness to pay of each visitor is estimated to be 2231 Rials per visit.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Assume that there is a consumer and environmental goods called the park. The park has a level of quality equal to (q) which has a positive effect on the number of visits (v) from the park. Here, the person as a function of household production combines the time with market goods or environmental goods, and when the combination of time and environmental good forms, tourism becomes to have meaning and the consumer makes a choice among buying foods and services and visiting the park (v)

In this case, utility function is as following:

$$U = U(C_M, C_M)$$

Where U is the level of utility, C_M the final services and goods purchased from the market, Z the level of tourism. In which the function of household production is defined as:

$$C_{H} = F(x_{H}, t_{H}) \tag{2}$$

In this function, $x_{\rm H}$ the function of market goods and $t_{\rm H}$ the time spent to produce goods are combined. The function of tourism production in the park is defined as follows:

$$Z = (x_z, t_z) (3)$$

Where X_z is the goods and services required for travelling and using touristic space of the park. In this situation, time and budget limitation is as follows:

$$T = t_h + tz + t_W \tag{4}$$

$$P_{m}C_{m} + pn xn + pz xz + tw w + tz w = w t + y$$
 (5)

In the restriction of time and budget, y in the non-labor income, P_z the price of travelling, w the rate of wage, t_w the labor time and T the total

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 199-211 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

time (except leisure time). Using Lagrange function is helpful to optimize the problem, so demand function for travel would be as follows:

$$Z = f(y, P_{zt}, q)$$
 (6)

$$y = t_w W + V \tag{7}$$

$$P_{zt} = P_z + (t_z w) \tag{8}$$

Equation (6) expresses function of demand for travel which is a function of total level of income, total price of travel (traveling cost and time opportunity cost) and park quality. It should be mentioned that the time opportunity cost is a product of travel time to wage rate. In this research, in addition to methodology based on the consumers' behavior and Becker's function of household production, the researchers used Pajooyan's methodology (1978), estimation of tourism production functions and total price calculation to calculate travel price which leads to shadow price of tourism. According to Becker's function of household production, it is assumed that none the goods and services purchased by consumer are neither final ones nor consumed directly, so in addition to the purchased goods and services, the consumer combines time input with market goods to have combined good production as result. Since the price of tourism services and goods might not be observable in the market, so in this part we use a two-stage method to extract the function of travel demand.

At the first stage, the function of combined goods and technology limitation is defined as follows:

$$Min \sum Pi Xi + w \sum ti$$
 (9)

$$Sto: v(x,t)-v = 0 (10)$$

Where (v) expresses the vector of combined goods, (x) the vector of market goods and (t) the vector of time input. Now, by using Lagrange function and assuming price acceptance for people, the function of demand for X and T would be as follows:

$$X_i = f\left(P_{xi}, W, V_i\right) \tag{11}$$

$$T_i = f\left(W, P_{x_i}, V_i\right) \tag{12}$$

Equation 11 is demand function for market goods which shows that the price of market good is affected by micro economical factors such as market price of the goods, received wages, and vector of combined goods. Equation 12 shows that the time spent for purchasing or demanding tourism is also affected by wages, market price of the goods and vector of combined goods directly.

Now, if we put the X and T in equation, the cost function would be resulted as follows:

$$C(P_x, W, V) = \sum P_{xi}(X(P_{xi}, W, V_i)) + W \sum T(W, P_{xi}, V_i)$$
(13)

Pollak and Watcher (1975) demonstrated that in case of lack of additional production, cost function could be written as:

$$C = (P_{xi}, W, Y) = C_r(P_{Xr}, W, R) + C_z(P_{xz}, W, Z)$$
(14)

In the present situations, it is possible to calculate the shadow price of combined goods by partial derivative of cost function as follows:

$$\pi_{R} = \pi^{r} \left(p_{x_{R}}, W, R \right) = \frac{\partial C(P_{x}, W, Y)}{\partial R} = \frac{\partial C(P_{x_{r}}, W, R)}{\partial R} = MC_{R}$$
(15)

$$\pi_{z} = \pi^{z} \left(P_{x_{z}}, W, Z \right) = \frac{\partial C(P_{x}, W, Y)}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial C(P_{x_{z}}, W, Y)}{\partial z} = MC_{z}$$
 (16)

where MC_R is the final cost of production R, and MC_Z is the final cost of production Z. So, by this method shadow price per day of travel to park is obtained. According to Pollak, shadow price is a function of goods price and wage rate and budget limitation can be defined as follows:

$$\pi_{R}R + \pi_{z}Z = Y \tag{17}$$

In the second stage, the utility is maximized according to the considered budget.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 199-211 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

By maximizing utility with regard to budget limitation, the function of tourism demand in Elgoli Park of Tabriz could be obtained as follows:

$$DR = D(\pi_R, \pi_Z, Y)$$
 (18)

It is possible to assume a fixed rate for the price of other goods which leads to the assumption that the demand for tourism and travel to park is a function of tourism shadow price and income of traveler.

If the production function is considered in the form of Gobb Douglas, then the model approaches to be a mathematical one. So:

$$R = A X_1^{\alpha 1} X_2^{\alpha 2} T^{\alpha 3} \tag{19}$$

In equation 19 a function with three variables is considered for tourisim and visiting the park in with the variables are independent and the required inputs are: personal car (X_1) , other facilities for tourism (X_2) and the time spent (T) for tourism production. Now according to the findings of Wallis (1973) it is possible to obtain cost function according to the double function of production. Here the total cost function will be a function of inputs' price:

$$TCR = K R_{n}^{\frac{1}{n}} W_{n}^{\frac{\alpha 3}{n}} P_{1}^{\frac{\alpha 1}{n}} P_{2}^{\frac{\alpha 2}{n}}$$
(20)

In the equation of tourism total cost, n is the return to scale parameter which equals to numerical addition of costs attractions. Here, the return to scale is considered to be constant.

Also, in this function, the amount of K is as follows:

$$K = n \left(A \alpha_3^{\alpha_3} \alpha_1^{\alpha_1} \right)^{-\frac{1}{n}}$$
 (21)

in which the final cost of tourism or its shadow price would be as follows:

$$MC_{r} = \pi_{r} = \frac{\partial TCR}{\partial R} = KW^{\alpha 3} P_{1}^{\alpha 1}$$
 (22)

Now, after determining shadow price of tourism, it is possible to determine the economical value of environmental resources and park. In

this study, statistical data is calculated as an intersection by travelers visiting the park and a simple random sampling according to equation 23.

$$N = \frac{z_{\alpha}^2}{\frac{2}{\sigma^2}} \delta^2 \tag{23}$$

In this equation, the volume of optimized sample is under the effects of standard normal distribution, the variance of sample property for tourism, and maximum sampling error. Here, the variance of statistical society is determined from a primary sample and hen the statistical sample is calculated as follows:

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 \cdot 400}{(3.4)^2} \approx 133 \tag{24}$$

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

For this study, cause and effect method has been used. In other words, regression analysis has been established between variants of the survey. Nowadays, in economical analyses, a common approach to study an economical issue and measuring the relationships between its variants is using economy valuation and regression analyses. The statistical society of this survey consists of all visitors and users of Tabriz's Elgoli Park. In this method, using simple random sampling, some travelers were selected and the questions and data for model explanation were acquired from them. Using the production function of Gobb Douglas and OLS regression (Ordinary Least Squares) the results of tourism production function for Elgoli Park of Tabriz could be obtained in the following table as:

$$Ln TT = 1.13 - 0.50 LnV + 0.32 LnS + 0.37 LnZ
 t = (4.5) (-8.2) (3.1) (5.0)$$
(25)

That is:

$$TT = 3.1 V^{-}$$

 $A = 3.1 \alpha 1 = 3.$

In this equation, V, S, and Z express the variants cost of using personal car, other inputs of travel (such as food and other costs required while touring), and time spent for travelling respectively, which are 206

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 199-211 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

regressed as a dependent variant on tourism production (TT). In order to measure these variants Rials prices of car renting (including fuel price and car amortization), food costs and other requirements of travel such as accommodation (as average) and the time a person spends in the park have been used. Furthermore, the amount of tourism is calculated in the form of time amount in which tourism services are served. The model shows that the input of vehicle has a negative significant effect on TT (tourism production). Notice that the cost of vehicle expresses the distance between places of accommodation to Elgoli Park. So, it could be stated than by distance, the cost of fuel increases too. That is, this variant is a proxy for distance. The results of economy valuation model estimation show that by increasing the cost of vehicle, tourism production decreases. One percent increase in the cost of vehicle can decrease tourism production 0.5 percent. The coefficient of this variant is significant and in accordance with theoretical expectations.

Other inputs of travel (S) such as cost of foods and etc. have a positive effect on tourism production. One percent increase in the cost of other inputs can increase tourism production 0.32 percent.

The input of time (the time a person spends in the park for recreation) has a positive effect on tourism production. One percent increase in the cost of time input can increase tourism production 0.37 percent. The coefficient of this variant is statistically significant and in accordance with theoretical expectations.

It is observed that the signs of tourism production attractions are in accordance with theoretical bases regarding the inputs of vehicle, time and other inputs. The t statistics are shown as independent variants and show significance of 95 percent validity in the coefficients of production inputs. The model's coefficient of determination is 0.86 percent and White test shows lack of heteroskedasticity. The value of Durbin-Watson statistics for estimated function is about 1.74 which shows lack of heteroskedasticity.

Table 1. Results of tourism production function estimation

variant	coefficient	t statistic
Ln V	- 0.5	- 8.2
LnS	0.32	3.1
LnZ	.037	5
С	1.13	4.5
$R^2 = 0.86$	DW=1.74	F= 133

Table 2. White test of tourism production function model

F-statistic	1.94	Probability	0.13
Obs*R-squared SS	5.68	Probability	0.14

Now we obtain the equation for final cost of tourism by Wallis. If we put the parameters of tourism production function, then,

$$MCR = A^{-1} \alpha_1^{-\alpha_1} \alpha_2^{-\alpha_2} \beta^{-\beta} p_v^{\alpha_1} p_s^{\alpha_2} w^{\beta}$$
 (27)

$$MCR = (3.1)^{-1}(0.5)^{-0.5}(0.32)^{-0.32}(0.37)^{-0.37}P_v^{0.5}P_s^{0.32}W^{0.37}$$
 (28)

Now, the variants w, $P_{\rm v}$ and $P_{\rm s}$ are replaced with the average of their market prices.

In order to calculate wage rate, total income of the person is divided by total work hours. According to the evaluations, the rate of wages per hour for visitors is 19750 Rials and the rate of wages per minute is 324.2 Rials. The average of other inputs is 1600 Rials and also the average of car rent is considered 750 Rials per hour.

Now, replacing the prices in the equation of final costs, we have:

$$MCR = (0.949)(750)^{0.5}(1600)^{0.32}(324.2)^{0.37}$$
(29)

According to this equation, it is possible to obtain shadow price of tourism per minute. So, shadow price of travel per minute is 2339.5 Rials which equals 3368825.7 Rials for a day in year 2011.

Now if we multiply the shadow price of tourism to the number of park visitors, the value of park in this field could be obtained, which is 10106475000 Rials (assuming 30000 visitors).

After estimating shadow price of tourism in park, the researches engaged with estimating tourism demand in the park. The findings from demand estimation are as follows:

$$LnDR = 0.17 - 0.08 Ln\pi r + 0.09 LnI + 0.58 LnQ + 0.21 LnEDu$$
 (30)

$$t = (0.84) \quad (-3.33) \quad (2.76) \quad (5.96) \quad (3.21)$$

This presented logarithmic function of demand shows that according to demand law, the relationship between shadow price of tourism with the amount of tourism demand is negative, whereas the relationship between income with tourism demand is positive, and the quality of park and

educational level of people have a positive effect on tourism demand. The findings show that one percent increase in tourism shadow price (π_r) causes 0.08 percent decrease of tourism demand. Also, every one percent decrease of travelers' income leads to 0.09 percent decrease of tourism demand. And one percent increase in the quality of park causes 0.58 percent decrease of tourism demand. One percent increase in the educational level of people causes 0.21 percent decrease of tourism demand as well. The presented regression model have high t statistics and all of the coefficients are significant in the level of 95 percent. The model has no heteroskedasticity, autocorrelation or multiple correlation coefficient, and the functional form of the model is correct, so the classical assumptions of economical valuation is applied. Durbin-Watson statistics are about 1.82 and F statistics value in White test is 0.60 which is not rejecting correlation variance assumption. The coefficient of model assignment is 0.89 percent which shows 89 percent of dependent variant changes (tourism demand) are explained by four independent variants (shadow price, income, park quality and education). F statistic of total regression shows the significance of suggested model.

Table 3. Results obtained from estimating tourism demand function

Variant	Coefficient	t statistic
LnI	0.09	2.76
LnSHP	-0.08	-3.33
LnEQ	0.58	5.96
LnEDU	0.21	3.21
С	0.17	0.84
$R^2 = 0.98$	DW= 1.82	F= 128.9

Table 4. White test for tourism demand function model

F-ststistic	0.69	Probability	0.59
Obs*R-squared	2.86	Probability	0.58

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Nowadays, tourism is a completely different concept comparing past times and its economical background is exceeding day by day. In this study, the method used is based on obvious preference of travelers who express their preferences clearly. This method is derived from Gary

Becker's view and describes the production of market goods approach. Using simple random sampling, the optimized number of park travelers is selected first, and then the production function of Gobb Douglas is estimated for tourism production. It is shown that the tourism production in the park is a function of these variants: travelling time, other costs such as food price, and car renting price. After obtaining production function, following the approach of Pollak (1976) the function of final cost (shadow price of tourism) is calculated. The shadow price of tourism for every minute of travelling to park is calculated to be about 5269 Rials which is 7574400 Rials per day. After calculating the shadow price of tourism for the park and having data of travelers' income, the function of tourism demand is obtained. Studying the function of tourism demand for the park showed that the shadow price has a negative effect on the rate of tourism demand, and a positive effect on income which is in accordance with theoretical expectations and demand law. According to the suggested model, it is shown that the park quality and increase of educational level are among the most important factors for tourism development in this park, it could be concluded that the environmental quality of the park has the most effect on tourist attraction to this park. So it is suggested to implant and optimize the trees and plants, well-maintenance of the environment (especially water of the pool) and focus on environmental standards. In addition to recreation function, general parks of urban areas have also other roles such as sports, social and cultural functions. So one of the requirements is to establish and develop green spaces in different areas of city. Regarding the special location and air pollution, Tabriz city requires more green spaces and this issue is to be considered in the planning and policies of town council. Final cost of tourism has a reversed relationship with tourism demand of the Park and choosing new policies for costs decreasing is suggested. As the effect of educational level on tourism demand is positive, it is hoped that by increase of educated people in the society, the number of park visitors would be increased day by day.

REFERENCES

Amirnejad, H. (2008). Natural Resources and Environmental Economics. Tehran, Jangle Press.

Amirnejad, H., Ataiy Solut, M. & Mahjuri, K. (2009). Determining Recreational value of urban parks: The case-study of Elgoli park of Tabriz. *Journal of Agricultural Science (university of Tabriz)*, Vol.19, No.2

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 199-211 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

- Amirnejad, H., Khalilian, S. & Assareh, M.A. The Preservation and use values determination of Sisangan of Forest Park, Noshahr by using individuals willingness to pay, Pajouhesh & Sazandegi, No.72, pp. 15-24.
- Becker, G. (1967). A theory of the allocation of time. Economic Journal, No.75, (1965):493-517.
- Bagherzadeh, A. (2009). Determining recreational Demand for forest parks using household production function: A case study of Khoy forest parks. *Journal of Agricultural Economics research*, Vol.2, No.2, pp. 31-44.
- Brown, M. (2001). Macroeconomic Theory. Stone Press University.
- Bruzelius, N. (1980). The value of travel time. London University.
- Emami Meybodi, A. & Ghazi, M. (2008). An estimating of the recreational value of the Saee park in Tehran using the Contingent Valuation Method (CV). *Iranian Economic Research*, Vol.12, No.36, pp.187-202.
- Falihi, N. (2004). Economic valuation of environmental resources, case study of Anzali parks, M.A Theses Islamic Azad University, Tehran.
- Fleming, C. (2008). The reaction of value and application of demand method. *Tourism Management*, No.29.
- Haiati, B., Ehsani, M., Ghahramanzade, M., Raheli, M. & Taghizade, M. (2010). Factors motivating the visitors willingness to pay for Elgoli and Mashrote park in Tabriz city: Application of two stages Heckman approach. *Journal* of Agricultural Economic and development, Vol.24, No.1.
- Hanley, N. (1996). *Cost-Benefit analysis and environment*. Hants, Edward publishing limited.
- Henderson, J.R. Quant (1985). Microeconomic theory. McGraw Hill Press.
- Pajooyan, J. (2008). Conference of public economics. IAU University, Tehran.
- Pajooyan, J. (1978). The effect of congestion on demand for outdoor recreation, *Ph.D. Thesis US Utah University*.
- Quant, J. (1990). Production theory and application. Journal of economic, No.32.
- Smith, V. (1983). The opportunity cost of travel time in reaction demand model, Land economic, No.59.
- Willis, K. (2000). An individual travel cost method of evaluation forest recreation. *Journal of Agricultural Economic*, No.41.

SUBMITTED: SEP 2013 REVISION SUBMITTED: MAY 2014 ACCEPTED: JUN 2014 REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Ali Bagherzadeh (Bagherzadeh_eco58@yahoo.com) is an Assistant Professor in Economics, Islamic Azad University, Khoy branch, Iran.

Amineh Keshavarz, M.A in Economics.

CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING AS CRITICAL FACTOR OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

Effrosyni Kotsaga Wageningen University

This study analyses cultural awareness in the workplace. It is important for employees to be cultural aware because they may have to interact with people from other countries. Cultural Intelligence (CQ) examines individuals' abilities to interact with people with different cultural backgrounds. Cross-cultural training is examined as a factor that may affect individuals' CQ. Hospitality industry was chosen because of the diversity of employees, customers or owners. Because of the lack of research on this area, the paper contributes to the emerging need for cultural awareness in the workplace by examining cross-cultural training as a critical factor of CQ.

Keywords: Cultural Intelligence; cross-cultural training; hospitality.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Cross-Cultural Training and Cultural Intelligence (CQ) in the Tourism Industry

Studies on cross-cultural training increased in the 1990s. During 70s and 80s, cross-cultural training in organisations was scarce because it was considered ineffective and there was no intention to invest on it and international management was in early stage that time (Black and Mendenhall, 1990:114). In 1990, Black and Mendenhall proposed a cross-cultural training framework that offered opportunities for further research. Since then, scholars have proposed models of cultural diversity training (Sue, 1991; Landis and Bhagat, 1996), the effects of cross-

© (Fig. 2) Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/

[©] University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521

cultural training to adjustment (Eschbach et al, 2001; Caligiuri et al., 2001; Takeuchi et al., 2002; Waxin and Pannaccio, 2005; Puck et al., 2008; Sobre-Denton and Hart, 2008), pre-departure training (Celaya and Swift, 2006; Hurn, 2007), pre-departure and post-arrival training (Selmer et al., 1998), the effectiveness of cross-cultural training for expatriates (Kealey and Protheroe, 1996; Vance and Paik, 2002; Waxin, 2004).

There are few studies in cross-cultural training in the hotel industry. Dewald and Self (2008) examined the effects of cross-cultural training in expatriate hotel managers in China. Another study conducted by Gamio and Sneed (1992) proposed a model of factors that affect cross-cultural training practices in the hotel industry. The factors are diversity in ownership, employees and clients. Because of the culturally diversity in the hotel industry there are different customer needs (Welch et al., 1988 as cited in Gamio and Sneed, 1992:14). Therefore, it is essential for hospitality employees to be culturally intelligent.

Individuals' cultural awareness can be measured by Cultural Intelligence (CQ) which is a contemporary topic in cross-cultural studies (De Cieli, 2006). CQ analyses individuals' ability in cross-cultural situations at metacognitive, cognitive, behavioural and motivational level (Ang et al., 2007). CQ can assist in an effective international work because individuals who show high levels of CQ can identify cultural differences and avoid cultural misunderstanding (Earley et al., 2006).

LITERATURE REVIEW - ANALYSIS

Cross-Cultural Training and CQ

Cross-cultural training programmes have been classified in several categories. Tung (1981 as cited in Waxin and Panaccio, 2005:53) classified training programs in five sequential categories: educational, cultural, language, sensitivity training and field experience. The type of the assignment, cultural distance, and interpersonal communication between the manager and the locals determine which of them should be used. Gertsen (1990 as cited in Waxin and Panaccio, 2005:53) identified four categories of training. One way is to train individuals in schools and universities. The other way of training is by simulation. Focus on the notion of a culture is another way of training. Finally, the aim to make individuals competent to one specific culture is another way of cross-cultural training.

According to Kealey and Protheroe (1996:149-159), there are four types of intercultural training. One type of training is the one that 214

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 213-222 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

includes information about practical issues such as living conditions. Another type of training is the one which provides information on the area such as economical, political or historical facts. The training about traditions, values or customs of a country focuses on developing interpersonal skills and it is a third way of training. Finally, there is training that educates individuals on how to adjust their professional and personal styles to the local culture. It may include information on how to cope with the stress of relocation, how to deal with people from different countries or how to develop partnership skills.

Baumgarten (2000 as cited in Celaya and Swift, 2006:232) divides pre-departure cultural training in two broad categories. The first category includes experiences or trips in the field, meetings with experienced international staff, training in the job and assignments in a sub-cultural group of one's home country. The second category includes simulations, role playing, cultural assimilators, methods that modify behaviour and classroom activities.

Gugykunst et al. (1996) proposed that cultural training should include two issues. The first is the training methods which were classified as didactic and experimental. Didactic training is a lecture or discussion while experimental training is experiences in a field. The second issue is the content of intercultural training which was classified as culturegeneral and culture-specific approach. There is no agreement about the definition of culture-general approach but the culture-specific approach is training for a specific culture.

Black and Mendenhall (1990) proposed that cross-cultural training will enhance cross-cultural skill development, adjustment and performance in a foreign country. When individuals attend cross-cultural training, they rehearse behaviours in a cognitive or behavioural way and therefore they have the skills to imitate behaviours. Moreover, if adequate behaviours are executed, the better the cross-cultural adjustment. Cross-cultural training can inform which behaviours are suitable for each occasion. Consequently, cross-culturally trained individuals will have greater ability to imitate appropriate behaviours. Furthermore, individuals' performance will increase because of cross-cultural training.

Black and Mendenhall (1990) after reviewing the existed literature in cross-cultural training, they concluded that cross-cultural training has a positive impact on cross-cultural effectiveness. They proposed a theoretical framework for cross-cultural training using social learning theory. Black et al. (1991) provided a framework for international adjustment by studying both domestic and international adjustment. The conclusions of Black and Mendenhall (1990) and Black et al. (1991) are

that cross-cultural training is linked to: self-confidence and thoughts of well-being, development of behaviours adjusted to the host country and improvement of interactions with locals (Waxin and Panaccio, 2005:54).

Cognitive CQ is about understanding other cultures and adjusting one's behaviour to them. Behavioural CQ measures if the appropriate behaviours are applied in cross-cultural situations (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008: 6-7). Therefore, cross-cultural training will have positive effect on cognitive and behavioural CQ.

Proposition 1: Cross-cultural training will be positively related to cognitive CQ.

Proposition 2: Cross-cultural training will be positively related to behavioural CQ.

Duration of Cross-Cultural training and Cultural Intelligence

Cross-cultural training may last less than a week, one to four weeks or over a month (Eschbach et al., 2001:274). The training that lasts less than a week provides brief information about the area and the culture. It may also include the teaching of some languages phrases. Training that lasts from one week to four weeks makes individuals aware of other culture and it may include moderate language training. Individuals, who receive training over a month, are taught before departure and after their arrival to the host country. According to social learning theory, the last type of training has high rigor (ibid: 274-275).

Blue and Harum (2003:78) noticed that systematic training is not provided to employees in four hotels in Southampton. Celaya and Swift (2006:238) in their research on US managers in Mexico, one of the dimensions they examined was the length of pre-departure training. The majority of US managers were trained only for one day. Gudykunst et al. (1996) argued that the minimum time necessary to conduct an intercultural program is three days.

Puck et al. (2008) examined the impact of pre-departure cross-cultural training on expatriate adjustment. The results failed to confirm that participation in cross-cultural training programmes, the length of the program and the comprehensibility of the program will have an impact on adjustment. However, Black and Mendenhall (1990) have shown that cross-cultural training has a positive impact on adjustment.

Cross-cultural training should start before the departure of the employees and continue after their arrival (Selmer et al., 1998: 835). Predeparture training should provide information about initial adjustment

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 213-222 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

problems. Employees therefore will have realistic expectations about the first social difficulties. Gudykunst et al. (1996:77) argued that specific kinds of training should be conducted at specific times. Training for survival needs should be conducted closely prior departure and after arrival. Training for adjusting to a foreign country should be given some months before departure and some months after arrival. If the training starts several months before departure, trainees will not be concerned very much about it. They will start concerning about their communication effectiveness and their social life after arrival when their survival needs are solved in the host country.

The duration of cross-cultural training is critical for CQ. Short-term cross-cultural training can result in alterations at cognitive, affective and behavioural level (Gudykunst et al., 1996 as cited in Caligiuri and Tarique, 2006:313). Individuals who have received short-term intercultural training will show understanding about the social and business perspectives of the foreign country which is related to cognitive aspect of intercultural training. Adaptive behaviour to the foreign culture in order effective communication to be achieved is the behavioural part. On the other hand, long-term cross-cultural training affects adjustment and should be a general goal of international assignments (ibid). Therefore, long-term cross-cultural training will be critical for CQ because it will affect positively all facets of CQ.

Proposition 3: Long-term cross-cultural training will be positively related to metacognitive CQ

Proposition 4: Long-term cross-cultural training will be positively related to cognitive CQ

Proposition 5: Long-term cross-cultural training will be positively related to behavioural CO

Proposition 6: Long-term cross-cultural training will be positively related to motivational CQ.

Language Training and CQ

Language training is important for communications. Language training can lead to cross-cultural competency (Martin and Harrell, 1996:320). Individuals with knowledge of the local language show interest to learn about the other culture. It also allows them to be polite during their discussions (Eschbach et al., 2001:273). Knowledge of the local language enables individuals to be independent and feel comfortable (Martin and Harrell, 1996:320). The learning of languages strengthens

cognitive flexibility and creativity (Segalowitz, 1980 as cited in Blake et al., 1996:168) and it improves intelligence (Lambert, 1992 as cited in Blake et al., 1996:168).

The importance of foreign languages in the tourism sector has been highlighted by Gamio and Sneed (1992). In their survey in U.S. hotelmotel industry showed that foreign languages are necessary job requirements. They are essential for supervisors, managers and nonsupervisory jobs. Leaders in international environment should be given incentives to learn foreign languages in order to be considered cosmopolitans (Ng et al., 2009). However, the dominant language spoken in the hotel sector is English (Blue and Harum, 2003: 77).

Blue and Harum (2003) name the language used in the hospitality sector as 'hospitality language'. It is formal language and is held between the hotel staff and the guests. In the tourism industry the language skills needed, are necessary for the following reasons: to address a person, to provide information, to answer questions, to use prompts and gestures, to deal with demanding customers and complaints.

Shannon and Begley (2008) treated language acquisition as one of the antecedents of CQ. It was assumed that language skills would be positively related to cognitive CO and behavioural CO. Cognitive CO was chosen because individuals with knowledge of other languages will be able to "...validate assumptions about behaviours that reflect different cultural practices" (Shannon and Begley, 2008:43). Behavioural CQ was selected because multilingual people would be able to apply verbal and nonverbal behaviour. However, the results showed positive relationship between cognitive CO and language skills but failed to support the positive relationship between behavioural CQ and language skills (ibid). The researchers did not measure motivational CQ though. As mentioned by Ang and Van Dyne (2008:6): "Motivational CQ is a critical component of CQ because it is a source of drive". For example, a Polish employee who has good command of French language will be more likely to initiate a conversation with a French customer in contrast to a Polish employee who does not speak French. Therefore, language skills will affect positively cognitive CQ and motivational CQ.

Proposition 7: Language skills will be positively related to cognitive CQ.

Proposition 8: Language skills will be positively related to motivational CQ.

CONCLUSION

Cross-cultural training can be a critical factor for CQ. Important dimensions that can be examined in identifying the importance of CCT on CQ are about the kind of information provided during cross-cultural training, the duration of training and foreign language training. These dimensions can assist in developing future global leaders and well trained employees who can succeed in a multicultural environment such as hospitality.

REFERENCES

- Ang, S. & Van Dyne, L. (2008). Conceptualization of Cultural Intelligence: Definition, Distinctiveness, and Nomological Network.
 In S. Ang and L. Van Dyne (Eds.) Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: Theory, Measurement, and Applications (pp.3-15), New York, England: M.E. Sharpe.
- Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K.J., Tay, C. & Chandrasekar, N.A. (2007). Cultural Intelligence: Its Measurement and Effects on Cultural Judgment and Decision Making, Cultural Adaptation and Task Performance. *Management and Organization Review*, Vol. 3, No.3, pp335-371.
- Black, J.S. & Mendenhall, M. (1990). Cross-Cultural Training Effectiveness: A Review and a Theoretical Framework for Future Research. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 15, No.1, pp. 113-136.
- Black, J.S., Mendenhall, M. & Oddou, G. (1991). Toward a Comprehensive Model of International Adjustment: An Integration of Multiple Theoretical Perspectives. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol.16, No.2, pp. 292-317.
- Blake, B.F., Heslin, R. & Curtis, S.C. (1996) Measuring Impacts of Cross-Cultural Training. In D. Landis and R.S. Bhagat (Eds.) Handbook of Intercultural Training. 2nd ed, SAGE: Thousand Oaks; London; New Delhi, pp.165-182.
- Blue, G.M. & Harum, M. (2003). Hospitality language as a professional skill. *English for Specific Purposes*, Vol.22, pp. 73-91.
- Caligiuri, P., Phillips, J., Lazarova, M., Tarique, I. & Bürgy, P. (2001). The theory of met expectations applied to expatriate adjustment: the role of cross-cultural training. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol.12, No.3, pp. 357-372.

- Caligiuri, P. & Tarique, I. (2006). International assignee selection and cross-cultural training and development. In G. Stahl and I. Björkman, (Eds.) *Handbook of Research in International Human Resource Management* (pp. 302-322), Cheltenham: Edward Elgar Pub,.
- Celaya, L. & Swift, J.S. (2006). Pre-departure cultural training: US managers in Mexico. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, Vol. 13, No.3, pp. 230-243.
- De Cieli, H. (2006). Transnational firms and cultural diversity. In P.F. Boxall, J. Purcell and P. Wright (Eds.) *The Oxford Handbook of Human Resource Management* (pp.509-529), Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dewald, B. & Self, J.T. (2008). Cross Cultural Training for Expatriate Hotel Managers: An Exploratory Study. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, Vol. 9, No.4, pp. 352-364.
- Earley, P.C., Ang, S. & Tan, J. S. (2006). *CQ: Developing Cultural Intelligence at Work*. California, Stanford University Press.
- Eschbach, D.M., Parker, G.E. & Stoeberl, P.A. (2001). American repatriate employees' retrospective assessments of the effects of cross-cultural training on their adaptation to international assignments. *International Journal of Human resource Management*, Vol.12, No.2, pp. 270-287.
- Gamio, M. O. & Sneed, J. (1992). Cross-Cultural Training Practices and Needs in the Hotel Industry. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, Vol.15, No.3, pp. 13-26.
- Gudykunst, W.B., Guzley, R.M. & Hammer, M.R. (1996). Designing Intercultural Training. In D. Landis and R.S. Bhagat (Eds.) *Handbook of Intercultural Training*, 2nd ed. (pp.61-80), SAGE: Thousand Oaks; London; New Delhi.
- Hurn, B.J. (2007). Pre-departure training for international business managers. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, Vol.39, No.1, pp. 9-17.
- Kealey, D.J. & Protheroe, D.R. (1996). The Effectiveness of Cross-Cultural Training for expatriates: An Assessment of the Literature on the Issue. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, Vol.20, No.2, pp. 141-165.
- Landis, D. & Bhagat, R.S. (1996). Handbook of Intercultural Training. 2nd ed, SAGE: Thousand Oaks; London; New Delhi.
- Martin, J.N. & Harrell, T. (1996). Reentry Training for Intercultural Sojourners. In D. Landis and R.S. Bhagat (Eds.), *Handbook of Intercultural Training*, 2nd ed. (pp.307-326), SAGE: Thousand Oaks; London; New Delhi.

Ng, K.Y., Tan, M.L. & Ang, S. (2009). Culture Capital and Cosmopolitan Human Capital: The Impact of Global Mindset and Organizational Routines on Developing Cultural Intelligence & International experiences in Organizations. In: eds. Burton-Jones, A. and Spender, J. C. (2011). The Oxford Handbook of Human Capital, New York: Oxford University Press, forthcoming.

Available at:

- http://www.culturalq.com/papers/Ng,%20Tan,%20Ang%20Human%20Capital%202009.pdf (Assessed: 01/07/2012)
- Puck, J.F., Kittler, M.G. & Wright, C. (2008). Does it really work? Reassessing the impact of pre-departure cross-cultural training on expatriate adjustment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol.19, No.12, pp. 2182-2197.
- Selmer, J., Torbiön, I. & de Leon, C.T. (1998). Sequential cross-cultural training for expatriate business managers: pre-departure and post-arrival, The International Journal of Human Resource Management, Vol.9, No.5, pp. 831-840.
- Shannon, L.M. & Begley, T.M. (2008). Antecedents of the Four-Factor Model of Cultural Intelligence. In S. Ang and L. Van Dyne (Eds.) *Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: Theory, Measurement, and Applications* (pp.41-55), New York, England: M.E. Sharpe.
- Sobre-Denton, M. & Hart, D. (2008). Mind the gap: Application-based analysis of cultural adjustment models. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, Vol.32, pp. 538-552.
- Sue, D.W. (1991). A Model for Cultural Diversity Training, Journal of Counselling and Development, September/October, Vol. 70.
- Takeuchi, R., Yun, S. & Russell, J.E.A. (2002). Antecedents and consequences of the perceived adjustment of Japanese expatriates in the USA, International Journal of Human Resource Management, Vol.13, No.8, pp. 1224-1244.
- Vance, C.M. & Paik Y. (2002). One size fits all in expatriate predeparture training? *Journal of Management Development*, Vol.21, No.7, pp. 557-571.
- Waxin, M.F. (2004). Expatriates' interaction adjustment: the direct and moderator effects of culture of origin. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, Vol.28, pp. 61-79.
- Waxin, M. F. & Panaccio, A. (2005). Cross-cultural training to facilitate expatriate adjustment: it works! *Personnel Review*, Vol.34, No.1, pp. 51-67.

Effrosyni Kotsaga

SUBMITTED: OCT 2014 REVISION SUBMITTED: MAR 2015 ACCEPTED: APR 2015 REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Effrosyni Kotsaga (Effie_Kga@yahoo.com) External PhD candidate, Applied Philosophy Group, Wageningen University, The Netherlands.

THE CAUSAL RELATIONSHIP WITH NEW VARIABLES IN TOURISM: EVIDENCE FROM TURKEY

Feyvaz Zeren Sakarya University

Filiz Konuk Sakarya University

Mustafa Koc Sakarya University

In this study, the relationship between tourism revenues and variables like tourism index in Borsa İstanbul & tourism advertising duration which have not been used previously in the literature was investigated in Turkey. In order to determine the stationary levels of series, ADF (1979) and Zivot Andrews (1992) unit root tests were used in this study spanning the period Aug 2004 till Dec 2012. Tourism revenues and advertising durations have been found stationary at level, while tourism index was stationary at first difference. According to Toda-Yamamoto (1996) causality test there have been determined no causality between these three variables. However, there was observed one-way causality from tourism index to tourism advertisements by the aid of Hacker Hatemi-J (2010) causality test which can determine critical values by bootstrap simulation with the purpose of to reduce the possibility of potential non-normal dispersion of errors. By this new test more reliable and advanced results have been obtained. As a result, index which can be considered the fundamental performance scale of tourism sector has a vital effect on tourism advertisement.

Keywords: Tourism Advertising, Tourism Index, Unit Root Test, Bootstrap Causality Test

JEL Classification: L83, M1. O1

© University of the Aegean. Print ISSN: 1790-8418, Online ISSN: 1792-6521



(i) (s) (=)

Except where otherwise noted, this work is licensed under http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/3.0/

INTRODUCTION

Tourism by its positive contribution to balance of employment provider tax income and payment of personal income increaser, especially faced with the problems of declining terms of trade for agricultural products and high levels of protection against manufactures (Proença and Soukiazis, 2005; Lau et al., 2008; Tse, 2001; Wang, 1998). Within this respect, tourism in developing countries plays a fundamental role on economic growth and development. (Sinclair, 1998; Wang et al., 2012; Eugenio-Martín et al., 2004). In these countries, obtained one unit of means contributes to, as well as in tourism sector, investments on other sectors (Wang et al., 2012), and these are used in order to create more employment (Tse, 2001).

Tourism sector has been one of the most important factors of economic development in recent years in Turkey by creating new employment opportunities and positive effect on GDP and balance of payments. In 2009, Tourism sector created 7.2% of total employment and 10.2% of GDP. Number of tourists and tourism revenue has increased in recent years and growth rate of tourism sector in Turkey has observed higher than global growth rate of sector. While the share of foreign tourists coming to Turkey in global total was 1.1% in 1990, this number reached 2.7% in 2008; while the share of tourism revenue in global tourism GDP was 1.2% in 1990, this number achieved 2.3% in 2008 (www.invest.gov.tr). Between the years 2009 and 2012, visitor number and tourism revenue was 14.9% and 17.1, respectively and 0.019\$ revenue growth per visitor was provided (www.tüik.gov.tr).

BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

In tourism literature, there are studies to measure the effect of tourism on economic growth. Most of the studies focus on whether there was a long-run relationship between tourism revenue and economic growth and the direction of this relationship. Some studies taking into account the direction of relationship between tourism revenue and economic growth are (Belloumi, 2010; Lee and Chang 2008; Balaguer and Cantavella-Jorda, 2002; Vanegas, 2012) showing relationship from tourism revenue to economic growth in long term; (Kızılgöl and Erbaykal, 2008; Oh, 2005) showing relationship from economic growth to tourism revenue in one-way. In some studies, (Lee and Chien, 2008; Kim et al., 2006; Lee and Chang, 2008; Gunduz and Hatemi-J, 2005) put

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 223-233 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

forward there was reciprocal relationship. On the other hand, there were studies such as (Katircioglu, 2009) showing no relationship between tourism and economic growth in long run.

Tourism is one of the main sources of foreign exchange earnings. In order to gain necessary exchange earnings via tourism, tourism policymakers should understand the response of tourists to price changings before and during accommodation periods. But it is difficult to obtain accurate tourist prices. Generally, people are more aware of nominal exchange rates than the costs of living at their destinations during determining decisions about travel. Therefore, exchange rates have been used widely in the empirical literature as a proxy for tourism prices. At the same time in studies, it is suggested to use consumer price indices to measure relative prices between tourist origin country and destination. (Yap, 2010; Webber, 2001). In other words, tourism revenue of countries can increase and decrease depending on real exchange rate. In studies examining the relationship between tourism revenue and exchange rate, (Dritsakis, 2004) observed causality relationship between exchange rate and tourism revenue; (Toh et al., 2006) found Japanese tourists to Singapore are sensitive to exchange rate and revenue. Similarly, (Webber, 2001) announced changes in exchange rate affects tourism demand in long-run. Also, (Tang, 2013) found unidirectional causality running from real exchange rates to real tourism revenue and real income in both shortand long-run. (Eilat and Einav, 2004) realized exchange rates matter mainly for tourism to developed country. On the other hand, (Santana et al., 2010) found that less flexible exchange rates promote tourism. In their study (Mervar and Payne, 2007) observed exchange rate was not one of the determinants of tourism demand, (Eugenio-Martin et al., 2004) determined exchange rate was not an important variable in the growth of tourism.

Countries organize promotional activities about their general characteristics in order to inform prospective tourists, exhibit positive image about themselves and gain a share from international tourism market. In this respect, promotional & advertising activities is one of factors affecting the demand of a country in international tourism market. Promotional & advertising activities as well as have an impact to increase current tourism demand have power to stimulate potential tourism demand. Therefore, countries devote much more sources and time to promotional & advertising activities.

In the studies about tourism, variables of advertisement and promotion were emphasized as a significant factor affecting tourism revenue. However, these factors were not included into established models. Çuhadar (2006:53). In order to compensate for this lack in the literature, advertising numbers of tourism was considered as a variable in our study and its effect on other variables was investigated.

The contribution of this study to current literature is to expose the interaction between tourism revenue, advertising duration and tourism index in the terms of Turkey tourism by including tourism index, which is calculated by BIST and not included into established models of current studies, & average advertising durations as two new variables in the terms of Turkey tourism.

MODEL

Compared with Toda-Yamamoto (1995) causality test, the most significant difference in Hacker Hatemi-J (2010) causality test is that critical values are determined according to Monte Carlo simulation method.

Unlike Toda-Yamamoto (1995), Hacker-Hatemi-J (2010) does not ignore possible normal dispersion of errors and there is no difference between these tests except acquisition of critical values by bootstrap in Hacker-Hatemi-J (2010). In this test, the causality relationship between two series is tested via delayed Vector Autoregressive Model (VAR):

$$y_t = \alpha + A_1 y_{t-1} + \dots + A_p y_{p-1} + u_t$$

Here, y_t represents variable vector in 2x1 dimension and A state parameter vector. In order to gain Wald statistics which will be used test main hypothesis showing no Granger-causality between series, VAR model represented in this equation is as following:

$$Y = DZ + \delta$$

This model can be expressed as:

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 223-233 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

Main hypothesis showing no Granger causality can be tested following Wald test statistics:

$$W = (C\beta)I [C(ZIZ) - 1 \times Su) CI) CI] - 1 (C\beta)$$

Here, \otimes represents the Kronecker multiplier and C shows the indicator function containing restrictions. Also β is of the form β =vec(D) and vec refers to column stacking operator. q shows the number of lags in each VAR equality, Su represents the calculated variance-covariance matrix for the unrestricted VAR model as $(\delta'_{IJ}\delta_{IJ})/(T-q)$.

DATA

In this study monthly data in Turkey between periods from Aug 2004 till Dec 2012 was investigated. Data of Istanbul Stock Market Tourism Index was derived from www.borsaistanbul.com which is official web site of BIST, numbers of tourism revenue per capita was obtained from www.kultur.gov.tr which is official website of Ministry of Culture and Tourism, average tourism advertising durations were provided by Media Monitoring Center (MTM). Before analysis, logarithmic forms of three series were calculated in order to avoid problem of heteroscedasticity.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

In our study, ADF (1979) unit root test and Zivot Andrews (1992) unit root test which allows structural breaks were used in order to clarify the stationary levels of the series. According to results of ADF (1979) unit root test which does not into account structural breaks, tourism revenue & tourism index had a unit root and advertising durations were stationary at level. However, according to Zivot Andrews (1992) unit root test which allows structural breaks at both level and trend, only tourism index were stationary at first difference. Break dates for tourism revenue was Feb-2009, for tourism index was Dec-2008 (mortgage crises period) and for tourism advertising duration was Jan-2007.

Table1. Results of ADF Unit Root Test

	Level	1st Diff.
Ln (Tourism Revenue)	-2.02 (0.57)	-13.59(0.00)***
Ln (Tourism Index)	-1.99 (0.59)	-7.63(0.00)***
Ln (Tourism Ad. Duration)	-7.89(0.00)***	-

Optimal lag length was determined according to Schwarz information criterion. *** represents significance level of 1%.

Table 2. R	esults of	Zivot	Andrews	Unit	Root	Test

	Level	1st Diff.	Break Date
Ln (Tourism Revenue)	-5,87 (0.06)**	-	Feb-2009
Ln (Tourism Index)	-3,51(0.55)	9.05(0.00)**	Dec-2008
Ln (Tourism Ad Duration)	-5,32 (0.03)**	-	Jan-2007

^{***} and ** represents 1% and 5% significance levels, respectively. Critical value for 1% is -5.57, for 5% -5.08 and for 10% is -4.82.

Next step after determination of stationary levels is investigation of causality relationship between series. According to Toda-Yamamoto (1995) causality test which can examine the relationship between series stationary at different levels, there was no causality relationship between these three series.

Table 3. Results of Toda-Yamamoto Causality Test

Donandant	Independent Variable			
Dependent Variable	Ln (Tourism Revenue)	Ln (Tourism Index)	Ln (Tourism Ad Duration)	
Ln (Tourism Revenue)	-	0.94	0.61	
Ln (Tourism Index)	0.50	-	0.83	
Ln (Tourism Ad Duration)	0.82	0.94	-	

1 lag was chosen according to Schwarz information criterion.

There was observed causality from tourism index to advertising durations according to Hacher-Hatemi (2010) bootstrap causality test which can obtain critical values with monte-carlo bootstrap simulation despite of possible normal non-dispersal of errors and can investigate relationship between series stationary at different levels like Toda-Yamamoto (1996) causality test. Stock market index of countries accepted fundamental are generally considered as variables which represent changes in market-wide. Tourism index is an important scale showing the performances of businesses in tourism sector. Therefore, all the performance scales whether positive or negative have an effect on

tourism advertising duration. Compared with Toda-Yamamoto (1996) test, Hacker-Hatemi (2010) yielded new results.

 Table 4. Results of Hacker-Hatemi-J Bootstrap Causality Test

	Independent Variable		
Dependent Variable	Ln (Tourism Index)	Ln (Tourism Ad Duration)	
Ln (Tourism Revenue)	0.12	1.21	
Bootstrap at 1%	6.91	7.23	
Bootstrap at 5%	3.93	3.83	
Bootstrap at 10%	2.75	2.68	
	Ln (Tourism	Ln (Tourism Ad	
	Revenue)	Duration)	
Ln (Tourism Index)	0.29	0.04	
Bootstrap at 1%	6.86	7.09	
Bootstrap at 5%	3.86	4.03	
Bootstrap at 10%	2.75	2.78	
	Ln (Tourism Revenue)	Ln (Tourism Index)	
Ln (Tourism Ad Duration)	0.41	3.25*	
Bootstrap at 1%	7.07	7.05	
Bootstrap at 5%	3.95	3.85	
Bootstrap at 10%	2.73	2.72	

CONCLUSION

Tourism is an important sector in economic growth and development of developing countries by its positive contribution on employment & balance of payments and its expansionist effect upon other sectors. Therefore, there are many studies on tourism in the literature. These studies generally focus on the relationship between tourism and economic growth, tourism demand, tourism revenue and exchange rates.

In this study, unlike other studies, variables like tourism index which represents businesses in tourism sector and tourism advertising durations were used. The relationship between tourism index, tourism advertisings and tourism revenue was examined with first Toda-Yamamoto (1996) causality test, then with Hacker-Hatemi (2010) bootstrap causality test which eliminates the problem of possible normal non-dispersal of errors

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 223-233 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

and obtains critical values by bootstrap simulation. More advanced and reliable findings were gained through Hacker-Hatemi (2010) test for these variables that there was no relationship according to results of Toda-Yamamoto test (1996).

While many one-way and two-way causality relationships were discovered between GDP and tourism income in literature, there was no causality between tourism index which is a fundamental scale of economic performance and tourism income according to our study.

As a result of study, one-way causality from tourism indices, which is an important indicator representing all positive and negative performances of businesses in tourism sector, to advertising durations was detected. These new variables, which have not been used before, and these new results were thought as contribution to literature.

REFERENCES

- Balaguer J. & Cantavella-Jordá, M. (2002). Tourism as a Long-run Economic Growth Factor: the Spanish Case. *Applied Economics*, Vol.34, No.7, pp. 877-884
- Belloumi M. (2010). The Relationship between Tourism Receipts, Real Effective Exchange Rate and Economic Growth in Tunisia. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol.12, No.5, pp.550-560.
- Çuhadar, M. (2006). Turizm Sektöründe Talep Tahmini İçin Yapay Sinir Ağları Kullanımı ve Diğer Yöntemlerle Karşılaştırmalı Analizi (Antalya İlinin Dış Turizm Talebinde Uygulama)", Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İşletme, Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi.
- Dickey, D.A. & Fuller, W.A. (1979). Distribution of the Estimators for Autoregressive Time Series with a Unit Root. *Journal of the American Statistical Society*, Vol.75, pp. 427-431
- Dritsakis, N. (2004). Tourism as Long-run Economic Growth Factors: an Empirical Investigation for Greece Using Causality Analysis", *Tourism Economics*, Vol.10, No.3, pp. 305-316.
- Eilat, Y. & Liran, E. (2004). Determinants of International Tourism: A Three-Dimensional Panel Data Analysis. *Applied Economics*, Vol.36, No.12, pp.1315-1327.
- Eugenio-Martín J.L., Morales, N.M. & Scarpa, R. (2004). Tourism and Economic Growth in Latin American Countries: A Panel Data Approach, papers.ssrn
- Gunduz L. & Hatemi-J, A. (2005). Is the Tourism-led growth hypothesis valid for Turkey? *Applied Economics Letters*, Vol.12, No.8, pp. 499-504.
- Hacker, R.S. and Hatemi-J, A. (2010) "A Bootstrap Test for Causality with Endogenous Lag Length Choice theory and application in finance", Working Paper Series in Economics and Institutions of Innovation 223, Royal Institute of Technology, CESIS Centre of Excellence for Science and Innovation Studies.

- Katircioglu, S. T. (2009)," Revisiting the Tourism-led-growth Hypothesis for Turkey Using The Bounds Test and Johansen Approach for Cointegration", *Tourism Management*, Vol.30, No.1, pp.17-20.
- Kızılgöl Ö. & Erbaykal, E. (2008). "Türkiye'de Turizm Gelirleri ile Ekonomik Büyüme İlişkisi: Bir Nedensellik Analizi", *Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi* İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi, Vol.13, No.2, pp. 351-360.
- Kim Hyun J., Chen, M.H., Jang, S.C. (2006). Tourism Expansion and Economic Development: The Case of Taiwan. *Tourism Management*, Vol.27, No.5, pp. 925-933.
- Lau E., Oh, S.L. & Hu, S.S. (2008). Tourist Arrivals and Economic Growth In Sarawak, mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de
- Lee Chien-Chiang and Chun-Ping Chang (2008), "Tourism Development and Economic Growth: A Closer Look at Panels", *Tourism Management*, Vol.29, No.1, pp. 180-192.
- Lee C.C. & Chien, M.S (2008). Structural Breaks, Tourism Development, and Economic Growth: Evidence from Taiwan. *Mathematics and Computers in Simulation*, Vol.77, No.4, pp. 358-368.
- Mervar A. & Payne, J.E. (2007). An Analysis of Foreign Tourism Demand for Croatian Destinations: Long-Run Elasticity Estimates", hreak.srce.hr
- Oh C.H. (2005). The Contribution of Tourism Development to Economic Growth in the Korean Economy. *Tourism Management*, Vol.26, No.1, pp. 39-44.
- Proença S.A. & Soukiazis, E. (2005), "Demand for Tourism in Portugal: A Panel Data Approach", *Documento De Trabalho/Discussion Paper* (February), No: 29.
- Santana-Gallego M., Francisco L.R. J., Jorge, P.R.V. (2010). Exchange Rate Regimes and Tourism. *Tourism Economics*, Vol.16, No.1, pp. 25-43.
- Sinclair M. Thea (1998). Tourism and Economic Development: A Survey. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 34(5), pp.1-51
- Tang C. F. (2013), "Temporal Granger Causality and the Dynamics Relationship between Real Tourism Receipts, Real Income and Real Exchange Rates in Malaysia", *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 15(3), pp.272–284
- Toh, R., Khan. H., & Goh, L. (2006), "Japanese Demand for Tourism in Singapore: A Cointegration Approach", *Tourism Analysis*, Vol.10, No.4, pp. 369-375.
- Tse, R.Y.C. (2001). Estimating the Impact of Economic Factors on Tourism: Evidence from Hong Kong. *Tourism Economics*, Vol.7, No.3, pp. 277–293.
- Vanegas S.M. (2012). Tourism in El Salvador: Cointegration and Causality Analysis. *Tourism Analysis*, Vol.17, No.3, pp. 311-323.
- Wang L., Zhang, H. & Li, W. (2012). Analysis of Causality between Tourism and Economic Growth Based on Computational Econometrics. *Journal of Computers*, Vol.7, No.9, pp. 2152-2159.
- Webber Anthony G. (2001). Exchange Rate Volatility and Cointegration in Tourism Demand. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.39, pp. 398-405.

TOURISMOS: AN INTERNATIONAL MULTIDISCIPLINARY JOURNAL OF TOURISM Volume 10, Number 2, Autumn-Winter 2015, pp. 223-233 UDC: 338.48+640(050)

Yap G.C. (2010). An Econometric Analysis of Australian Domestic Tourism Demand.

Toda, H.Y., Yamamoto, (1995). Statistical Inference in Vector Autoregressions with Possibly Integrated Processes. *Journal of Econometrics*, Vol.66, pp. 225-250,

Zivot, E., Andrews, W.K. (1992). Further Evidence on the Great Crash, the Oil-Price Shock, and the Unit-Root Hypothesis. *Journal of Business & Economic Statistics*, Vol.10, No.3., pp. 251-270

www.borsaistanbul.com www.invest.gov.tr www.kultur.gov.tr www.tuik.gov.tr

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Due to the support and convenience of access to advertising data of tourism, we would like to thank to MTM (Media Monitoring Center).

SUBMITTED: AUG 2014 REVISION SUBMITTED: JAN 2015 ACCEPTED: FEB 2015 REFEREED ANONYMOUSLY

Feyyaz Zeren (feyyazzeren@outlook.com) is a_PhD Candidate, Sakarya University, Institute of Social Sciences, Sakarya, Turkey.

Filiz Konuk (faygen@sakarya.edu.tr) is an Asistant Prof. Dr., Sakarya University, Department of Business Administration, Sakarya, Turkey.

Mustafa Koç (mustafakoc@sakarya.edu.tr) is a_PhD Candidate, Sakarya University, Institute of Social Sciences, Sakarya, Turkey.

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:

- Disseminating and promoting research, good practice and innovation in all aspects of tourism to its prime audience including educators, researchers, post-graduate students, policy makers, and industry practitioners.
- Encouraging international scientific cooperation and understanding, and enhancing multi-disciplinary research across all tourism sectors.

The scope of the journal is international and all papers submitted are subject to strict blind peer review by its Editorial Board and by other anonymous international reviewers. The journal features conceptual and empirical papers, and editorial policy is to invite the submission of manuscripts from academics, researchers, post-graduate students, policy-makers and industry practitioners. The Editorial Board will be looking particularly for articles about new trends and developments within different sectors of tourism, and the application of new ideas and developments that are likely to affect tourism, travel, hospitality and leisure in the future. *TOURISMOS* also welcomes submission of manuscripts in areas that may not be directly tourism-related but cover a

topic that is of interest to researchers, educators, policy-makers and practitioners in various fields of tourism.

The material published in *TOURISMOS* covers all scientific, conceptual and applied disciplines related to tourism, travel, hospitality and leisure, including: economics, management, planning and development, marketing, human resources, sociology, psychology, geography, information and communication technologies, transportation, service quality, finance, food and beverage, and education. Manuscripts published in *TOURISMOS* should not have been published previously in any copyright form (print or electronic/online). The general criteria for the acceptance of articles are:

- Contribution to the promotion of scientific knowledge in the greater multi-disciplinary field of tourism.
- Adequate and relevant literature review.
- Scientifically valid and reliable methodology.
- Clarity of writing.
- Acceptable quality of English language.

TOURISMOS is published twice per year (in Spring and in Autumn). Each issue includes the following sections: editorial, research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events.

JOURNAL SECTIONS

Editorial

The Editorial addresses issues of contemporary interest and provides a detailed introduction and commentary to the articles in the current issue. The editorial may be written by the Editor, or by any other member(s) of the Editorial Board. When appropriate, a "Guest Editorial" may be presented. However, *TOURISMOS* does not accept unsolicited editorials.

Research Papers

For the Research Papers section, TOURISMOS invites full-length manuscripts (not longer than 6000 words and not shorter than 4000 words) from a variety of disciplines; these papers may be either empirical or conceptual, and will be subject to strict blind peer review (by at least three anonymous referees). The decision for the final acceptance of the paper will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate 236

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. 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, suggestions further research), e) bibliography, for 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 <u>not</u> 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.

- Accessed the 12^{th} of January 2005, at 14:55. (note: always state clearly the <u>full</u> 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. Accessed the 30th of January 2004, at 12:35. (note: always state clearly the <u>full</u> URL of your source).
- For reports: Edelstein, L. G. & Benini, C. (1994). Meetings and Conventions. Meetings market report (August), 60-82.