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In Greece, environmental interpretation is in its infancy as an academic field. In particular, there are no nature guides or specific conservation objectives, and there is no professional training for non formal environmental educators and/or interpreters. The ultimate scope of this paper is to reveal the necessity of integrating environmental interpretation in the training of Greek Ecotour guides. The focus is based on developing abilities which could enable Greek Ecotour guides to communicate and interpret the significance of the environment, promote minimal impact practices, ensure the sustainability of the natural and cultural environment, and motivate visiting tourists to evaluate the quality of life in relation to larger ecological or cultural concerns. The rationale underpinning this objective is that by providing accurate and effective interpretation of ecotourism sites as well as monitoring and modelling environmental responsible behaviour, the outcome will be to promote positive impacts of tourism and alleviate negative ones. Local community will be encouraged to participate in environmental management of ecotourism settings. Furthermore, connecting ecotourism commitment to returning benefits, particularly economic and employment ones to local communities, it stresses that training local people to be interpretive guides, helps achieving not only ecological sustainability but also economic sustainability. Once trained, guides may encourage conservation action amongst both tourists and the local community.

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Andrew Taylor & Dean Carson

Desert areas account for around 70% of Australia’s landmass but are home to less than 3% of the population. The economies of many desert areas have been described as marginal or peripheral. Tourism is an important economic activity for desert destinations and one sector, four wheel drive tourism, has been gaining increasing attention. This paper examines the spending patterns of four wheel drive visitors to desert regions of the Northern Territory of Australia and compares them to non-four wheel drive leisure visitors for a five year period from 2000 to 2004. In addition to assessing the amount of expenditure (overall and per day), the research investigates whether there were differences in expenditure items and the dispersal of expenditure among destinations. This information can help inform decisions about levels of investment for attracting the four wheel drive market which might be justified, and the types of product opportunities that might arise from a growing market.
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RECREATION IN THE AREA OF RIVER ARDAS: THE VIEWS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PUPILS

Evangelos Manolas, Stylianos Tampakis, Stergios Gkaintatzis & Soultana Mavridou-Mavroudi

River Ardas in Greece is an area of outstanding natural beauty and used as a recreation area. Each year the area is visited by people of all ages. Children visit the place either with their school or with their parents. It is important therefore to study their views about the river as a recreation area. The children asked were pupils of the 5th and 6th grade of the elementary schools of the region. These pupils completed a questionnaire in their classrooms. Almost all of these children had visited the area before. The majority of the children declare satisfied from their visit in the area and assess the landscape positively. However, most of the children have a less positive view about the provided recreation services. The majority of them also think the river constitutes a danger to their safety as well as the safety of the other children. Through the use of hierarchical loglinear analysis it becomes obvious that the pupils who declare from totally to very satisfied regarding their visit in the recreation area of Ardas also find that the provided recreation services range from very good to good. The same pupils also believe that that the river constitutes from very small to fair danger to their safety and visit the place more than five times a year. In addition, the pupils who visit the area more than five times a year think that the river constitutes from very small to fair danger to their safety. Most of the pupils think that the diversity of plants ranges from big to very big while the diversity of animals ranges from small to very small. There is a need for improved infrastructure in the area, e.g. observatories, so that pupils can discover the wild animals that live there. The love of the
children for animals becomes obvious from the fact that they do not wish
the prohibition of pets in the place. Most of the pupils like the idea of
camping in the area with their parents but the idea of doing so with their
fellow pupils is even more popular. The children think that their parents
would find it easier to grant permission to them to camp in the area if they
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on the will of their parents.

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Tony L. Henthorne, Babu P. George & Alvin J. Williams

The case examines the impressive growth of tourism in Cuba. It analyzes
tourism development in a society striving to navigate its way economically
amid numerous social and political challenges. The Cuban experiment
with tourism is a short-term mega success. However, it is highly
uncertain whether long-term sustainability can be maintained without the
appropriate managerial changes at all levels. This paper highlights
challenges in the tourism employment sector – training, supervisory
issues, and performance evaluation, within a centrally-controlled
bureaucratic system. Of specific interest is the disconnection between the
natural hospitality of the Cuban people and low levels of tourist
satisfaction stemming from a lack of professional hospitality. The paper
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THE NATURE OF CULTURAL CONTRIBUTION OF A COMMUNITY-BASED HOMESTAY PROGRAMME

Kalsom Kayat

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DESTINATION MARKETING THROUGH A UTILITY BUSINESS MODEL: THE CASE OF CYPRUS

Haris Machlouzarides

Traditional business models that used to govern the operations of travel and tourism businesses defined in a rigid way their functional areas and the relationships among them. The advent of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) has driven the transformation of these business models into novel destination marketing models. The Cyprus Tourism Organisation (CTO) recognising the need of establishing an explicit model for managing the process of destination marketing has developed an integrated marketing model to guide the management of the destination’s marketing process. Moreover, the CTO, aiming at enhancing the country’s tourism industry electronic marketing deployment levels, has put in place a utility business model that aims at optimising the industry’s potential to engage in integrated marketing activities. The key for optimising the destination’s marketing processes is the successful implementation of the model through the integration of traditional with electronic marketing activities.

IMAGES OF EGYPT IN UNITED KINGDOM TOUR OPERATORS’ BROCHURES

Sabreen J. Abd El Jalil

Tour operators and travel agents play a double role as distribution channels and image creators with tourist brochures playing an important
role in the image creation process. This paper assesses tourist images of Egypt in the United Kingdom through content analysis of the brochures of United Kingdom tour operators using 35 image attributes which are rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Most of the brochures in the United Kingdom market present Egypt and its physical attractions - beaches, historical sites, luxury accommodation - extremely positively although clearly they have a vested interest in doing this. They are however silent on certain aspects of the destination which have received negative comments in the literature - the real lifestyles of local people and their friendliness and hospitality, the local cuisine and safety and security.

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EDITORIAL

This is the tenth issue of TOURISMOS, finishing its fifth year of publication (volume five). In the previous nine issues, our multidisciplinary journal aimed at justifying the rationale behind introducing yet another journal in tourism academic studies. Capitalising on this effort, we now focus on furthering our scope and consolidating our position in both conceptual developments and practical applications in tourism.

In this context, the present issue is significantly larger than previous ones, and it contains seven research papers, four case studies and two research notes with an international flavour. The research papers address a number of topics namely risk and decision-making in tourism, tourism development in Italy, education for ecotourism, rural tourism development, growth and tourism expansion in Alto Adige, river tourism, and factors for tourism development. With respect to the case studies, various interesting topics are examined, such as service culture in Cuban tourism, cultural contribution of community-based homestay programs, destination marketing in Cyprus, and image analysis of Egypt. Last, two interesting research notes are presented, namely language working and hegemony, and tourism development in Iran.

Based on the previous analysis, we trust that you will enjoy reading the present issue, and we look forward to presenting you our next issue in spring 2011!

Paris Tsartas    Evangelos Christou
Editor-in-Chief   Editor
THE TOURIST SECTOR: ITALIAN EXPERIENCE

Alfonso Marino
Second University of Naples

This work takes into account a theoretical discussion about the relationship between the private and public sectors with specific reference to Italy. It argues that three contexts are important, namely the ‘task’, ‘normative’ and ‘organisational’ environments. The second part of the paper reports some findings from research in progress. This describes the attitudes of Italian staff working in the public sector of tourism to the issue of the relationship between the public and private sector. South Italian managers rank motivational factors highly, while north Italian managers seem more concerned about issues of co-ordination and the quality of service provision.

Keywords: Italian tourist sector, south and north, Productivity and efficiency, Quantitative and qualitative approach.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

In Europe, it is a cliché to state that the demand for tourism services has increased significantly over the last few decades. Many public and private organisations have recognised (Korres, 2008) a potential for adding to tourism supply in areas that were previously not considered attractive destinations (Aaker, Kumar, Day, 2003) for tourists. At the local level, (Beirman, 2003) particularly in Southern Europe, tourism has often been seen as a means of generating economic prosperity (Gartner, 2000) and playing a role previously attributed to manufacturing. Additionally, tourism can enable public authorities to achieve a variety of social objectives, such as improving employment (Commission of the European Communities, 2005) and the physical environment of an area. One can highlight the experience of Naples and Genoa, new investments by the European Union and private/public actors that are changing the old manufacturing areas of each of these cities in the new and competitive tourist arena. In this context (Lindberg, Andersson, Dellaert, 2001) the different experience of the Italian Tourist Sector (ITS) will be...
investigated. Certainly the proportion of GDP of Italy related activities has increased significantly during last decades (Italian Tourism Council, 2008).

The European Tourist Sector (ETS) is, as elsewhere, a complex sector (Divisekera, 2003; Dwyer, Forsyth, Spurr, Vanho, 2003), that interweaves both tangible assets and intangible experiences. These, from a management viewpoint, (Davies, 2003) are linked by:

- a marketing approach;
- the human resources; and
- the capacities of management.

A second factor is that one has to identify a changing relationship between the public and private sectors of the industry (Bendell, Font, 2004). These changes affect the attractiveness of destinations, the modes of regulation of the private sector (Patsouratis, Frangouli, Anastasopoulos, 2005), and the consequences of tourism development (Russell, Faulkner, 2004) on social and physical environments (O'Neill, Carlsen, 2001). To examine such changing relationships requires consideration of the following issues:

- the different cultural values of human resources and capacity of management;
- how members of different organisations (public and private), perceive the purpose of these organisations;
- the importance of the organisational life cycle, here the literature emphasises the stages of birth, youth, mid-life and maturity;
- the different historical roles of the organisation and financing of private and public sectors.

**THE ITALIAN TOURIST SECTORS: A NEW LOGIC AND A CULTURAL CHALLENGE**

In recent years there has been an increasing interest in the use of management theory (Italian Tourism Council, 2008) within the Italian Tourist Sectors. This interest has two aspects: first, an interest in the application of management theory in the tourist sector. This takes the form of importing ideas and methods developed in and for the private sector. The assumption is that the private sector is superior to the public sector in specific ways: private sector organisations are more cost-consciousness, more inclined to implement modern personnel management and more capable of developing corporate culture as a steering instrument. Such a debate considers facets like incentives for productivity and particularly the necessity to create in the tourist sector
some reliable measures of management efficiency. The second aspect is an interest in the use of management theory in the study of the tourist sector. Here the aim is somewhat different: do theories and concepts from management theory help us to understand the tourist sector better? What should be the extent and nature of tourist sector? How do we change the role of the tourist sector? From 2000 the public sector in Italy has become less important than previously, the policy objectives are now:

- reducing the budget of public tourist sector;
- reducing government involvement in the public tourist sector;
- easing problems of public sector pay determination;
- encouraging employee share ownership.

This debate about the difference between public and private tourist sector is not new (Sasser et. al., 1978). Many of the early writers stressed privatisation in their discussion of planning and extensive public tourist sector controls (Liu, 2003). Equally, many of the problems of regulation have long been recognised. Such a debate raises (Commission of the European Communities, 2005) many issues, including:

- the characteristics of the task the public tourist sector are supposed to carry out;
- the normative foundation of their work and;
- the authorities, political bodies and other units they have to deal with.

These three elements are referred to as the ‘task context’, the “normative context’ and the “organisational context’.

The task context

The tourist experience is typically produced by two production circuits. The first relates to travel patterns and motivations. The second is more diffuse and complicated. It concerns the general policy goal for which the specific services can be seen as a means and an end. In this latter approach tourism is not about an individual’s concerns, but about the reproduction and development of their country’s culture. In this way the public tourist sector carries out both aggregative and integrative functions. On the one hand they must take as a point of departure citizens’ needs (aggregation); on the other hand they socialize and regulate citizen behaviour (integration).

The normative context

The normative context contains the consideration, principles and demands to which the tourist sector must generally relate. In this way we
find many varying elements, all of which can be seen as restrictions on internal processes and the way in which services are produced and distributed. The issues here relate to resource use, the productivity and efficiency of services and quality of those services.

The organisational context

This element involves a specification of the overall structure into which an organisation fits. The main approach here is that typically the tourist sector is enmeshed in a political and economic macrostructure which has a coordinating and decisive influence over the organisation (the visible hand) as opposed to the private sector which is assumed to respond to a ‘rational’ allocation of resources (the invisible hand). The visible hand stresses the concepts of a policy system, and the administration of resources as a collective goal. In this context the political system views the tourist sector as omni comprehensive system where the different institutions can be considered as a part of whole. In practice, the omni comprehensive system is fragmented and there can be considerable conflict between the signals and actions emanating from the different parts. The administration of resources as a collective goal is linked to the concept of public budget. Here two aspects are underlined; the first is a formal aspect - when the public sector dispenses a sum of money, it can then place special demands on its use - the second is an operative aspect - can a public budget be understood as economic and normative action?

International experiences

The last ten years has seen a remarkable reduction in the public tourist sector (notably in Germany and Great Britain) At the same time, it is not clear if other European (Blake, Sinclair, Campo, 2006) countries are developing policies of deregulation or privatisation versus regulation or a mix between the two options. Pertinent questions include:

- what determines the balance between public and private system of rule, between the formal and informal system and with what consequences?
- what are the consequences of the regulatory system for distribution, services and social values?
- how, why and with what effect do such systems change and evolve?

In these circumstances it is striking that the economic theory of how to change the role of the public tourist sector is so weak. There are
examples of the theoretical analysis of the public tourist sector. These studies provide some interesting insights into quality services, prices, or quantities which are under the control of the public sector. They do not, however, provide very much guidance on the different context (task, normative and organisational) that the public tourist sector must take into account.

THE CASE- STUDY: ITALIAN TOURIST SECTOR

The Italian tourist sector is illustrative of the different, disjointed interests between administrative-political and economic aspects. First, the sectors may be considered as comprising of three areas as shown in Figures 1. Thus it must interact with the surrounding economic and social environment for which it should fulfil a role of regulating the social and economic processes. The tourist sector is not the result of a simple addition of the performance of all units. On the contrary it depends on a relationship existing among all tourist sector units, among the different economic and social goals and between these and the political action of visible hand. To start from this assumption means surrendering the omni comprehensive idea of a tourist sector and replacing it with one of networks of complementary but often competing units. In the next paragraphs, after the methodology, starting from task, normative and organisational context, will be showed the items of questionnaire and the results of research.

METHODOLOGY

The sample of Italian public managers was selected during April 2007, the interviews has started during April 2008. The high number of managers in two different areas of country (south and north) and in different regions within the areas, 750 south Italian public managers and 750 north Italian public managers, have take many time for organised the contact and the visit in the different organisations (small and medium firms). A large part of interviews 70% has been made in the local public agency of two areas. From Figures 1 it can be said the Italian public sector of tourism is characterised by:

- a presence of one large public national agency and a presence of a few large companies (provider area);
- a presence of small firms (allotment of duties area) with at most ten employees and,
- a presence of a consumer good area.
First and second areas has been investigated by questionnaire, that take into account three different contest of analysis:

- social background variables;
- productivity variables;
- efficiency variables.

The second and third part of questionnaire comprised 30 pre-developed, 15 for each part, Likert statements, designed to measure the productivity and efficiency variables. Specifically, respondents were asked to indicate the level of criticises on a seven point scale, ranging “strongly criticises” (7) to low criticises (1) by different items of second and third part.

The 30 Likert statements were explored by principal components factor analysis and varimax rotation, which resulted in a four-factor solution, two for each countries. The purpose of factor analysis (Calantone et. al., 1989) was to combine the statements into a set factors that were deemed to represent a first organisational types linked to the interviews of managers into different countries. The internal consistency of each factor was examined by Cronbach’s alpha tests. All the alpha coefficients were above 0.5, which means that high correlation existed between the items.

The results of research

These issues were examined by questioning a sample of Italian and Spanish managers in the public sector of the tourism industry. These were distributed by geographical and educational attainment as shown in tables 1 and 2. Table 2 shows the general lack of tertiary sector educational qualifications among the staff. What is not shown is that staff were predominantly male.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1 Number of managers for different regions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>South Italian public managers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33% south land</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33% south island sicilia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33% south island sardegna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total managers    750</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The purpose of factor analysis, which resulted in a three factor solution, was to combine the statements into a set factors that were deemed to represent the organisational types linked to the interviews of managers into different areas. Specifically, items with higher loadings, 16
factors, (see table 3) were considered (alpha coefficients above 0.5) as more important and as having a greater influence (Hair et al., 1995) on organisational types.

**Table 2 Managers education level for different regions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>South Italian public managers</th>
<th>North Italian public managers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University</td>
<td>University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary high school</td>
<td>Secondary high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior high school</td>
<td>Junior high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No education level</td>
<td>No education level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100% (77% male)</td>
<td>100 (80% male)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3 Factor analysis Italian public managers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor name and items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>improving productivity south public managers</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivational factors to entry</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the role of public management</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control of public sector</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coordination of public sector</td>
<td>5.62</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improving productivity north public managers</td>
<td>5.73</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relations customers - allotment of duties</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>low level of information technology</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>private control</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>private coordination</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improving efficiency south public managers</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work organisation as a problem</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mutual help relation with other agency</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>job stability</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>salary</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improving efficiency north public managers</td>
<td>5.73</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>managerial culture</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quality of service</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>credit and information by bank</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>public legislation</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Managers were asked about what they saw as the critical points for improving productivity. The results are categorised in table 4. South Italian managers emphasised motivational factors to entry, especially incentives for productivity and training, and then factors described as ‘the form of management’ and ‘coordination of the tourist sector’. North Italian public managers considered the first element to be ‘coordination’ and ‘control of public sector’. Both groups of managers underline the necessity of a new normative context and strongly criticise the role of a ‘National Public Agency.

### Table 4 Factor loading items linked to the critical points for improving productivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>South public managers</th>
<th>North public managers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>motivational factors to entry</td>
<td>(0.77)</td>
<td>relations customers -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>allotment of duties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the role of public management</td>
<td>(0.64)</td>
<td>low level of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>information technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.50)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>control of public sector</td>
<td>(0.59)</td>
<td>private control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coordination of public sector</td>
<td>(0.62)</td>
<td>Private coordination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.87)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the items linked to efficiency (see table 5) the critical factors are, for the south managers: ‘work organisation’, ‘mutual help relationships with other agencies’ and ‘salary’. In the first element managers underline the absence of gerarchical influences and ‘professionality’ linked to the service supply. The second element is the necessity to change, for the better, the mutual help relationships with other agencies. In this case the managers underline the modalities by which the different members of organisation undertake their specific tasks, professional functions and roles. These modalities particularly concern the relations of exchange and their characteristics, linked again to the absence of gerarchical influence. Salary is the last element; the managers argue that individual economic reward should be taken into account to improve productivity and efficiency. North managers underline the importance of ‘managerial culture’ and ‘quality of service’ in terms of paying more attention to the specific managerial culture of the sector and the needs of its users. One important bottle neck of this second aspect, (quality of service) is linked to the relations between customers and the allocation of duties with
reference to the need for a quick response about the coordination and control of information flows.

**Table 5** Factor loading items linked to the critical points for improving efficiency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>South public managers</th>
<th>North public managers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>work organisation as a problem (0.76)</td>
<td>managerial culture (0.74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mutual help relation with other agency (0.63)</td>
<td>quality of service (0.71)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>job stability (0.51)</td>
<td>credit and information by bank (0.55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>salary (0.68)</td>
<td>public legislation (0.65)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Starting from tables 4 and 5, the data showed three different organisational types:

- the insensitive organisation; the main characteristics refer to low attention to the identification of user's needs, and to productivity and efficiency. This configuration is present in a large part of Italy, particularly in the south and islands. These types of organisation takes into account for improving productivity:
  - motivational factors to entry (0.77);
  - the role of public management (0.64), and for improving efficiency:
  - work organisation as problem (0.76);
  - salary (0.68).

- the fortuitously sensitive organisation; it shows interest in the knowledge of user's needs, and productivity and efficiency. This configuration is present in a large part of south and islands and the middle north. In south and islands these types of organisation, takes into account for improving productivity:
  - control of public sector (0.59);
  - coordination of public sector (0.62);
  for improving efficiency:
  - mutual help relation with other agency (0.63);
  - job stability (0.51).

- In middle north these types of organisation takes into account for improving productivity:
  - relations customers - allotment of duties (0.54);
  - low level of information technology (0.50);
for improving efficiency:
- public legislation (0.65);
- credit and information by bank (0.55).

the sensitive organisation; an organisation that shows great interest in user's requests, and productivity and efficiency. This configuration is present in a large part of north. These types of organisation takes into account for improving productivity:
- private control (0.80);
- private coordination (0.87);

for improving efficiency:
- managerial culture (0.74);
- quality of service (0.71).

CONCLUSION

This work indicates that the theory of regulation versus privatisation does not provide very much guidance on the different task, normative and organisational contexts of tourism. It also argues that while change is possible, such change must take into account the different experiences and culture of the two areas of Italy and the different market opportunities of each. Of over-riding importance is a needed change in terms of values and operative decisions.

We have tried to draw on organisational types to help understand two central question. The first concerning the theory of regulation versus privatisation in the Italian tourist sectors; the second querying the appropriate role of the public tourist sector and how it can be changed. It appears that the political decision for greater privatisation has been made in Italy, but simply replacing a public sector by a private sector to replicate the functions of the former is not enough. The values and culture of service in order to produce a tangible economic and social return, is underline in the north. South Italy to replace one bureaucracy by another is not progress. In addition there are different configurations in the same areas, for ex middle and north versus south. Such a view rejects a stance whereby the normative context can be regarded as ultimate and unchanging. It must instead be seen as under constant development and re-interpretation. The theory of regulation and the role of public tourist sector is an open question and therefore, in the diagnosis of reform versus privatisation, actually there isn’t a one best way for European tourist sector and a single element or problem is rarely sufficient to analyse the relationship between public and private tourist sectors. A kind of diagnosis that reflects the nature of different systems and contributes to
the discovery of strategic key areas in which a change could produce a better performance for the service and users is a more productive approach.

**FIGURE1 ITALIAN TOURIST SECTOR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Providers Area</th>
<th>Hotels and Renting (bus cars)</th>
<th>Transport Companies</th>
<th>National Public Agency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Allocation of Duties Area</td>
<td>Tour Organisers</td>
<td>Travel Agency</td>
<td>Tour Operators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer Goods Area</td>
<td>Single Customers</td>
<td>Other Customers</td>
<td>Big Customers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Firms</td>
<td></td>
<td>Families</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
REFERENCES


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Tare Sayed Abdel Azim
Minia university

This exploratory study was conducted in order to investigate the impact of socio-demographic variables “age, sex, familial situation, qualification, profession, income per capita”, international tourism experience, and tourism experience in Egypt on the decision making process of travel under the effect of the risk factor “terrorist attacks of last April, 2006, in Sinai, Egypt”. For this purpose, a two decision making process probabilities have been estimated by the ordinal logit model.

Keywords: Risk, tourism experience, Decision making process of travel Socio-demographic variables, tourist behaviour.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

When tourists perceive travel to be less pleasurable due to actual or perceived risks, they exercise their freedom to select other destinations (Green et al., 2003).

As with risk perceptions, when safety concerns are introduced into travel decisions, they are likely to become the overriding factors, altering the context of conventional decision-making models and causing travellers to amend travel plans (George, 2003).

(Sonmez et al., 1999; Floyd and Gray, 2004) note that travel statistics from around the world clearly suggest that tourism demand decreases as the perception of risks associated with a destination increases (Floyd et al., 2003).

It is expected that risk-averse consumers will purchase more pre-packaged trips and spend fewer nights abroad visiting fewer destinations.
Tversky and Shafir (1992) showed that buyers who have hard decisions to make would delay making those decisions (Money and Crotts, 2003).

Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) determined that risk perception, although it is considered as a situation specific, has an impact on travel behaviour. Indeed, the risks that potential travellers associate with a destination can contribute to forming lasting images of that destination. Changing such as image will require long and costly marketing efforts.

Risk perceptions and feelings of safety during travel appear to have stronger influence on avoidance of regions than likelihood of travel to them. If a tourist feels unsafe and threatened during his or her stay, he or she is not likely to return to that destination (Dimanche and Lepetic, 1999).

As a form of protective behaviour, travellers can alter their destination choices; modify their travel behaviour; or if they decide to continue with their travel plans, acquire information on terrorism, political turmoil, heavy crime, and health risks. Those who decide to travel despite risks are advised by various sources “i.e., travel magazines, government advisories, internet” to avoid displays of wealth, to keep a low profile, to vary daily routines during lengthy business trips, and to fly economy class, since hijackers are known to prefer first class to establish their temporary headquarters (Sonmez et al., 1999).

Sonmez (1998) suggests that when faced with the threat of terrorism, tourists tend to engage in a number of behaviours including substituting risky destinations with safer alternatives and generalizing potential risks to other countries in the region affected. She also notes that tourists exhibit cultural variations in their reactions, with US tourists most likely to perceive higher levels of risk in foreign destinations (Floyd and al., 2003).

Tourist decisions to stay home or choose safer destinations are translated into significant losses for the tourism industry of the country suffering from terrorism (Sonmez et al., 1999).

Individuals planning their holidays are less likely to choose a destination with a higher threat of terrorist attacks. Host countries providing tourism services, which can be easily substituted are therefore, negatively affected by terrorist attacks to a substantial extent (Frey et al., 2004).

It is likely that tourists may postpone their visit until the situation appears to have calmed down. But, more likely, activity will be redirected to destinations, which appear to be safer. The extent to which this occurs is likely to vary with the market segment. Thus, for business travellers or
those visiting friends and relatives in a specific place, the ability to relocate is likely to be less than for those who are on vacation and are travelling for pleasure (Wall, 1996).

Sonmez (1998) noted that the reaction to terrorism among tourists is frequently delayed by about three months as people have already made their plans and are willing to change them (Floyd et al., 2003).

The immediate effect of a terrorism event is likely to be cancellation of bookings to the location in which the event took place. Those scheduled to pass through the destination may try to re-route. There is also likely to be a reduction in new bookings. Although it is uncertain how long the effect of a terrorist event is likely to last, the immediate result is likely to be a reduction in the number of visitors. The corollary of this situation is that for those who persist in visiting the area, there may be bargains, cheap flights, reduced accommodation rates and lack of crowding (Wall, 1996).

Terrorist attacks against tourists now represent the Egyptian tourism industry’s greatest challenge. The Dahab bombing on April 24 was the fifth attack against tourists or tourism infrastructure in Egypt within the space of 18 months. Since October 2004, over 125 people have been killed and many hundreds injured in the five attacks. The three most serious incidents occurred on the Sinai. Terrorist attacks over the past 18 months represent the resumption of a pattern of terrorism which targeted tourists during the 1990s and culminated in the Luxor massacre of November 1997 in which 58 foreign tourists were shot dead.

The lengthy pause in terrorist attacks against tourists in Egypt between late 1997 and late 2004 marked a period of significant international inbound tourism growth to Egypt. Tourist arrivals more than doubled from 3, 9 million to 8, 1 million during the seven year period. After Luxor, Egypt’s government and tourism industry instituted a broad range of major security measures for tour groups, hotels and resorts, the transportation network and major attractions (Beirman, 2006).

Five suicide bomb attacks hit the Sinai Peninsula in April 2006, three rocked the Southern Sinai resort of Dahab on April 24, 2006 and two occurred at Al-Gurah in North Sinai on April 26.

The Dahab bombing killed 20 people, including six foreigners, and injured some 90 others, among them 27 foreigners, while the Al-Gurah bombing killed no one but the two bombers themselves (Xinhua News Agency, 2006).

The latest bombings were followed by Twin suicide attacks targeting members of the multinational force and observers “MFO” peacekeeping mission near the “MFO” base in the town of Al-Gura, approximately 15
miles west of Gaza. The “MFO” was established following the 1979 Camp David Accords. The first attacker ran in front of a passing vehicle carrying Egyptian police and MFO officers. The second attacker rode a bicycle and detonated a bomb he was carrying after Egyptian police rushed to the scene following the initial attack. In both instances, only the bombers were killed. Significantly, two MFO officers were after the deadly attacks in Sharm El-Sheikh in August 2005 (Zambelis, 2006).

The impact of the bombings on tourism in the town Dahab is likely to be devastating, at least in the short term. Mohamed Amin, a receptionist at the beachfront Ali Baba Hotel, who was sitting at the front desk when the force of an explosion rocked him from his chair, says that "with the exception of one room booked by journalists here to cover the explosions, all the other reservations have been cancelled though this is our high season and we were booked till mid-June.

Security was immediately tightened following the attacks, with extra forces manning checkpoints around the resort (Halawi, 2006).

This research investigates French tourist behaviour in period of risky situations. This study was conducted in the Department of Charente-Maritime in France about 21 days after the Dahab attacks which happened on 25 April 2006.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of socio-demographic and economic variables “age, sex, familial situation, qualification, profession, yearly income per capita”, international tourism experience, and tourism experience in Egypt on the perception of risk and on the decision making process of travel under the risk factor “terrorist attacks of last April, 2006, at Dahab, Sinai, Egypt”. We try to answer to the following questions: Do respondents’ socio-demographic and economic characteristics have an impact on their perception of risk and the decision making process of travel to Egypt? Could the international experience of travel of respondents be used as a mean to measure the reaction of individuals towards risk? Could the experience of travel in Egypt be a predictor of the perception and the decision making process of travel to Egypt under the effect of the risk factor? And finally, could the policy of prices-cuts in the case of the existence of risk of travel to Egypt be an effective way to attract individuals to travel to Egypt?

Sample and variables

The survey instrument consisted of three sections: the first one measures the socio-demographic and economic characteristics of respondents “sex, age, familial situation, qualification, profession, income
per capita”, the second one measures individuals’ international tourism experience, past tourism experience in Egypt and the extent of information sources about the Egyptian destination and finally the third one measures information about the decision making process of travel to Egypt after the terrorist attacks of last April, 2006, in Sinai, Egypt against foreign tourists and tourist establishments.

The population consisted of French citizens. From 15 May to 13 June 2006, a total 231 randomly selected through the combination between direct interviews, mail, and electronic mail. Places of distribution were the following:

- Hotel Mercure “La Rochelle”, Maritime museum “La Rochelle”, Aquarium “La Rochelle”, The University La Rochelle “Direct interviews”.
- Website of the University La Rochelle.
- The department 17 “Charente Maritime”: envelopes were sent to samples randomly selected according to the Annuary of France Telecom “included the official letter of the Faculty of Flash, University La Rochelle, three papers questionnaire and paid envelope for the answer”. Only 165 questionnaires are valid.

Profile of respondents

Table “1” gives some descriptive statistics about socio-demographic and economic variables. One counts more women than men having answered the questionnaire. Women play an important role in the selection of a destination and the collection of information. So, it is not surprising to obtain more women. Since about an individual on two lives in couple “married or not”, one can think that women who answer for the household.

Cosenza and Davis (1981) show that the influence of each one of the couple is different according to the family cycle life. However, some studies show that women play an important role in the decision to travel after 45 years. So, the role of the wife in the family concerning holiday's decision-making changed across stages in the family life cycle. Moreover, holiday's decision is most often the result of a joint decision-making process between husband and wife (Nickerson and Jurowski, 2001).

Among the various types of diplomas, the “other diploma” corresponds to persons having obtained a professional diploma of a level lower than the baccalaureate. One quarter of the population has a diploma lower than the baccalaureate. The number of the superior diplomas is
relatively high; it is primarily that this population takes more vacations abroad.

**Table 1.** Descriptive statistics about sociodemographic variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 36 years old</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 36 and 45 years old</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 46 and 55 years old</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 55 years old</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Familial situation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married – coupled</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>43.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widow – divorced</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Qualification</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without diploma</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bac ; bac+2</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bac+3 ; bac+4 ; bac+5</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD, Post Doc</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other diploma</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (2) gives some descriptive statistics about professional variables. One third of the population circled an annual income lower than 10,000 € and nearly 10% have an annual income higher than 40,000 €.

More than one individual on three is a worker or employee and nearly one on 5 is a chef of a company or belongs to the Superior class. Some studies (Tocquer and Zins, 1999) for example, show that the relation between professional status and tourism is not clear. However, wages are generally proportional to professional status and incomes play a big role in the tourism consumption. High-income earners are more susceptible to travel (Weaver and Opperman, 2000). So, it seems that a relation between professional status and holidays exists (Raboteur, 2000).
### Table 2. Descriptive statistics about professional variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income “in 1000 €”</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 10 and 20</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 20 and 27</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 27 and 40</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 40</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional status</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Worker – employee</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artisan – commerçant – farmer</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberal profession</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superior cadre – chef of a company</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-of-labour force</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other “included unemployed”</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3. Descriptive statistics about travel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Travel experience in Egypt</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>86.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>International travel experience “number”</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>13.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 and more</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of information about Egypt</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Travel agency</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>43.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brochures</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Books</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table (3) gives some descriptive statistics about travel experience abroad in general and Egypt in particular in addition to individuals’ sources of information about Egypt. Whereas, one individual on four didn’t make any trip, one individual on five carried out during the last three years at least 5 international trips. However, very few numbers of respondents went to Egypt “hardly one individual on six”.

Television and books are the principal sources of information used to recognize Egypt followed by internet and the conversations with friends. The booklets and travel agencies are the least solicited.

**Descriptive analysis of the impact of a terrorist attack on the decision making process of travel**

In order to measure a modification of behaviour following an attack such as the last terrorist attack of April 2006 in Sinai “Egypt”, several questions were asked to respondents. The first type of information relates to the decision of travel to Egypt following a terrorist attack. Three possibilities are considered:

- Travel to Egypt is maintained and no modification is made to the potential trip.
- Travel to Egypt is maintained but its characteristics were modified: its duration was reduced or its date of departure was delayed.
- Travel to Egypt is cancelled, the individuals having decided not to visit Egypt or to modify their destination.

**Table 4. Impact of the price and terrorist attacks on the decision making process of travel to Egypt**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision making process of travel to Egypt under the effect of a terrorist attack</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Any change</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delay reservation or/and reduce the length of stay</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cancel the travel to Egypt</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision making process of travel after a drop in prices</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
With regard to the decision of modification of travel plan following the attack, one notes that approximately an individual on four maintains his trip without any modification and one on three decides to cancel his trip “this does not mean that he will not travel, but he can have changed the destination”.

The problem of security in a country seems to lead to relatively important changes of behaviour. From this analysis, we try to determine the characteristics which can have an effect on this decision. For this purpose, the ordinal logit model.

Once this first information obtained, a wave of question relating to the prices was posed. The question is then to know if, a fall in the prices could modify the decision to maintain, modify or cancel travel to Egypt.

One person on three did not answer the asked question (table 5).

Among the respondents, less than one person out of three would modify his decision following a fall in the cost of the trip. In the continuation of the analysis, conditionally in the decision of modification of travel, I are interested in the effect of a fall in the price of travel. In particular, I measured the various probabilities of modification of decision following this fall.

In relation to answers. For lack of information, we removed the respondents not having answered the question relating to their behaviour following a fall in the price of travel, although that can introduce a bias. Table 6 gives the distribution.

### Table 5. Sample repartition between the two decisions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>After a drop in prices, the decision making process is:</th>
<th>After a terrorist attack decision process to travel to Egypt is:</th>
<th>Size</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unchanged</td>
<td>Changed</td>
<td>Cancelled</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unchanged</strong></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>“row %”</strong></td>
<td>18,2</td>
<td>27,3</td>
<td>54,5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>“column %”</strong></td>
<td>34,3</td>
<td>36,7</td>
<td>63,3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Changed</strong></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>“row %”</strong></td>
<td>30,7</td>
<td>44,3</td>
<td>28,0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>“column %”</strong></td>
<td>63,2</td>
<td>63,3</td>
<td>36,8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Size</strong></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>57</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A little more than one person out of two did not modify his behaviour following a fall in the price of travel.
Among the people who indicated not to modify their behaviour following a fall in the price of travel, nearly four respondents out of five, had stated to modify or cancel their travel following an attack in the case of a fall of prices.

At the same way, among the respondents who were eager to modify their behaviour following a fall in the prices, one on five stated to cancel his trip following an attack and one on three stated anything to modify.

More half of the respondents having stated not to modify their trip initially, stated to modify it following a fall in the prices. This answer does not seem coherent. There are two explanations could be advanced.

Perhaps, the first one is related to an increase in the duration of the stay; the second one is related to for example, an expectation of low levels of the quality of the potential tourist services.

Only one respondent on four was ready to reconsider his decision of cancellation of travel following a fall in the price. Safety thus seems more important than the price. About half of the respondents having stated to modify their behaviour were ready to modify it again following a fall in the price of travel.

**Econometric analysis of the decision making process of travel**

The two decision making process probabilities have been estimated by discrete choice models.

**Effect of terrorist attack on the decision making process of travel**

First, the aim of the model is to estimate the probability of travel to Egypt under the effect of the risk factor represented in the Dahab terrorist attacks: any change, delay reservation, reduce length of stay or seek another destination than Egypt or cancel travel. So I use an ordinal logit.

Socio-demographic and travel characteristics have been introduced. Estimated results are given in table 4.9.12.

When woman answers the questionnaire, the probability of cancelling travel increases. It seems that woman is risk – adverse more than men so, she prefers to change travel.

Some socio-demographic variables such as the marital status, the age, the level of studies, the socio-professional category or the income per capita seem to have an effect on the probability of travelling to Egypt following an attack. This result is not surprising because we saw that these variables can influence the decision of travel.
The divorced or widower individuals as well as the individuals who are still living in couple have a stronger probability to cancel travel than the single ones. This result is compatible with the idea according to which the couples, divorced or the widowers have generally, a family and children or little children. They thus feel more in responsibility than the single people and are consequently more risk-adverse than the single people.

All things being equal, the fact of being old between 36 and 45 years increases the probability of cancelling travel. In this case, one could attribute this result to the family. On average, when these people have children, the latter are still young and under the responsibility of their parents.

Information on the family structure “the number and the age of the children” would have made it possible to perceive these effects. This result is compatible with the fact that the inactive people tend not to cancel their travel.

Table 6. Estimation of the probability of travelling to Egypt under the effect of a terrorist attack

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>T-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept 1</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>5.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept 2</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>12.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familial situation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reference : Bachelor’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widow – divorced</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>2.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married – concubain</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex “ref : man”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age “Ref :less than 36 years”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 36 and 45 years</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 46 and 55 years</td>
<td>-0.48</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>-1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 55 years</td>
<td>-0.54</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>-1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Ref : with diploma”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without diploma</td>
<td>-0.73</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>-1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional diploma</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worker – employee</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>-3.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The effect of the diploma is less significant. It appears that only respondents having no diplomas feel not concerned by the attacks. These last have a larger probability to maintain their travel than others. In this context, this result is compatible with the fact that workers and employees tend not to cancel their travel.

It may be that, the latter having on the one hand, a few chances to travel and, on the other hand, prepared their travel from a long-time “for reason of price and/or timetable” they are ready to travel in spite of the risk related to the insecurity.

The international experience of travel is rather favourable to any change of travel plan. The more the number of trips carried out abroad is important, the more the probability of maintaining travel to Egypt is great. This probability would be stronger in the case if respondents visited Egypt before.

These individuals, having certain experience of travel to foreign countries, do not fear of the attacks and the political instabilities. May be also, these individuals travel for professional reasons. They can cancel their travel with difficulty.
Lastly, the means used to acquire information about Egypt do not have all the same effect. Obtaining information by a travel agency increases the probability of cancelling travel to Egypt. But, the information acquired using Internet or through the books increases the probability of not modifying travel.

People who seek with themselves specified information about a country, perhaps they could be more motivated than others to go to it. They prepared well their travel and do not wish really to modify it, even following an attack.

*Effect of fall in prices on the decision making process of travel after a terrorist attack*

Once this estimate carried out, we estimate the probability of being able to modify once again their choices following a fall in prices of travel. Persons not having answered the question relating to the fall in prices were removed from this second analysis because of the possible bias of selection.

In this second stage, the objective is to see how the decision taken following a fall in the prices can evolve/move. Here, the idea is to calculate the probability of reconsidering the decision of modification or cancellation of travel. I work conditionally with the first decision.

Maddala (1981) shows that an effective estimate is obtained by replacing the decisions to modify or cancel travel following a terrorist attack by the probabilities estimated to modify or cancel travel, calculated starting from the preceding estimate.

The considered model is probit. The results of this estimation are given in the table (7).

The larger the probability of cancelling travel to Egypt is, the more the probability of not modifying this decision following a fall in prices is.

The decision taken initially to cancel travel is thus independent of the price of travel. Following the shock undergone “in our case, the terrorist attack” the demand for travel for these households becomes null.

But, the probability of modifying his behaviour will increase with the probability of modifying his travel. The modification considered is not specified in the investigation but it can be of two types: positive or negative. The fall in the prices is associated with maintenance of travel such as it had been considered before the attack “not to reduce the length of stay or not to delay the date of departure”. Here, one considers a positive modification of the decision.
Table 7. Estimation of the probability to travel to Egypt after the drop of prices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Probability of decision making process of travelling to Egypt under the effect of a terrorist attack : no change “reference”</th>
<th>coefficient</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>t-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delay reservation or/and length of stay</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek another destination than Egypt or cancel the travel</td>
<td>-1.08</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>-1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Familial situation “reference : Bachelor”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widow – divorced</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>1.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married – concubain</td>
<td>-0.39</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>-1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worker – employee</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artisan – commercant – farmer</td>
<td>-0.33</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>-0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Out-of-the labour force</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>-1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income “ref : less than 10000€”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 10000 and 27000 €</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 27000 and 40000 €</td>
<td>-0.13</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>-0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 40000 €</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>1.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel experience</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information about Egypt</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many travels</td>
<td>-0.34</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>-1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>-0.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note : Coefficients significance levels : 10 per cent, 5 per cent and 1 per cent.

Travel to Egypt is thus an ordinary good, i.e., following a fall in the price of the good, the demand of the good increases. The substitution effect is thus higher than the revenue effect. The fall in the prices is associated with a complete cancellation of travel. One considers here a
negative modification of the decision. When the price of travel drops, the demanded quantity drops and is cancelled.

One is here in the presence of a good of Giffen. This reasoning is true if it is supposed that the households associate this fall in the prices to a bad quality of services. Another explanation is possible; it could be that the households associate this fall in the prices to a strong insecurity, fear to go in a country not very safe in their eyes leads them to cancel travel.

The instability of the decision i.e. probability of modifying his behaviour following a fall in the prices of travel concern rather the households having weak incomes “between 10000 and 27000 euros” divorced, widowers and people having used several sources to inform themselves about at the destination “Egypt”.

The decision taken about travel following a terrorist attack is more stable for the couples, the artisans, the commerchants, the inactive ones and also those who have great experience of travel. Here, this last result can be associated to professional constraints.

Some simulations

From the results obtained, simulations were computed. The explanatory variables associated to the income, the professional status, the marital status and the experience of travel were taken at the average value of the sample.

Concerning the probabilities of decision of travel to Egypt following a terrorist attack, 6 scenarios were considered (table 8). The three first ones are associated to the 3 extreme situations: the probabilities of maintaining, of modifying, of cancelling travel are respectively fixed at 1.

One notes that, among the people not modifying, in a certain way “with a probability of 1, the probabilities associated with the two other alternatives being null” their travel following the attack, one respondent on two could travel following the fall in prices of travel.

When an individual decides to modify his travel plan in a certain way, 9 times out of 10, a fall in the prices would lead to a new modification of his travel plan. Lastly, knowing that the travel is cancelled with probability “one”, less than two respondents out of ten reconsider their decision.

The 3 other scenarios are based on the minimal, maximal or average values “S1” of the probabilities of changes following a terrorist attack. The results validate those obtained by scenarios from 1 to 3.
The larger the probability of modifying travel plan is, the more the probability of reconsidering this choice is great. If this probability is fixed, one notes that the larger the probability of cancelling the voyage is, the more the probability of modifying his choice following a fall in the prices is weak.

**Table 8. Simulation of the probability to change the decision after the drop of prices according to different scenarios**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scenarios</th>
<th>Unchanged</th>
<th>Changed</th>
<th>Cancelled</th>
<th>Probability of change the decision after a drop in prices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CONCLUSION**

This exploratory study was carried out in order to investigate to look at the impact of socio-demographic variables “age, sex, familial situation, qualification, profession, income per capita”, international tourism experience, and tourism experience in Egypt on the decision making process of travel under the effect of the risk factor “terrorist attacks of last April, 2006, in Sinai, Egypt”.

For this purpose, the two decision making process probabilities have been estimated by the ordinal logit model.

Effect of fall in prices on the decision making process of travel after a terrorist attack has been estimated by the probit model.

The study reveals that women are more sensitive than men in relation to the decision making process of travel under the effect of the risk factor, as the econometric analysis confirmed that the more travel to Egypt in period of terrorist attacks is risky, the more the probability that women would cancel travel is great.

This result is conformed to the results of many studies concerned with the investigation of the perception of risk’s difference between men and women, for example the study conducted by Carr (1999).
In addition, the study revealed that single people are less likely to cancel their decision of travel than those live in couple or even divorced or widowers.

It was revealed that those aged between 36 and 45 years old are more likely to cancel their travel.

It appears that only the people having no diploma feel not concerned with the attacks. These last have a larger probability to maintain their travel than others. This result is compatible with the fact that the workers and the employees tend not to cancel their travel.

It was found that those who have more international experience of travel tend not to modify their decision of travel to Egypt despite the existence of the element of risk. As observed that the more the number of trips carried out abroad is important, the more the probability of maintaining travel to Egypt is large.

With regard to the effect of information sources individuals used to recognise the Egyptian destination, one could observe that those who have information about Egypt through a travel agency are likely to cancel travel, whereas information acquired by internet or through books is related to the probability to modify travel.

In fact, this result is very important for decision-makers in promoting Egypt abroad. They have to pay more attention to their relationships with French travel agencies who play an important role in forming the attitude of the French tourist demand. They have to exert more effort in collaborating with these intermediaries of travel and try to provide them with sufficient information about Egypt in order to avoid their negative reactions towards Egypt in particular in period of crises.

With regard to the effect of fall in the prices on the decision making process of travel after a terrorist attack, the results revealed that the larger the probability of cancelling travel to Egypt is, the more the probability of not modifying this decision following a fall in the prices is strong.

Also in the context of the effect of fall the in prices of travel, the results revealed that the more the revenue is low, the more the probability to modify his behaviour is high as respondents having weak incomes “between 10000 and 27000 euros yearly” expressed their desire to change their decision in the case of falling in the prices. With regard to the familial status, the results revealed also that divorced, widowers individuals had participated those having lower incomes in the possibility to modify their behaviour because of fall in the prices of travel. Finally, it was clear that using different sources of information about Egypt had a significant effect on the probability to modify their decisions of travel to Egypt as a result of fall in the prices.
On could deduce from this result that the strategy of price-cuts which could be conducted by Egyptian tourism professionals could be applied in order to attract certain types of French tourists who could accept to travel despite the high level of risk. But, we have to pay attention in this matter as this type of tourists belongs to inferior levels of incomes who would not be profitable for the tourism affairs, from the one hand, may be these tourists would not concerned with the level of quality of tourist services and from the other hand their power of purchase is weak. In the long tem, this could deform the image of the Egyptian destination as it could be perceived as a destination of low-level of quality. Consequently, that could make other important types of tourists who search for the quality, give up travelling to Egypt at all.

The results revealed also that decision taken about travel following a terrorist attack is more stable for the couples, the artisans, the commerçants, the inactive ones and also those who have a great experience of travel. Here, this last result can be associated to professional constraints.

REFERENCES


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IMPROVING QUALITY OF ECOTOURISM THROUGH ADVANCING EDUCATION & TRAINING OF GREEK ECO-TOUR GUIDES: THE ROLE OF TRAINING IN ENVIRONMENTAL INTERPRETATION

Constantina Skanavis
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Christos Giannoulis
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Environmental interpretation in Greece is in its infancy as an academic field. There are no nature guides or specific conservation objectives, and there is no professional training for non formal environmental educators and/or interpreters. The aim of this paper is to reveal the necessity of integrating environmental interpretation in training of Greek Ecotour guides. The focus is on developing abilities which could enable Greek Ecotour guides to communicate and interpret the significance of the environment, promote minimal impact practices, ensure the sustainability of the natural and cultural environment, and motivate visiting tourists to evaluate the quality of life in relation to larger ecological or cultural concerns. The rationale underpinning this objective is that by providing accurate and effective interpretation of ecotourism sites as well as monitoring and modelling environmental responsible behaviour, the outcome will be to promote positive impacts of tourism and alleviate negative ones. Local community will be encouraged to participate in environmental management of ecotourism settings. Furthermore, connecting ecotourism commitment to returning benefits, particularly economic and employment ones to local communities, it stresses that training local people to be interpretive guides, helps achieving not only ecological sustainability but also economic sustainability. Once trained, guides may encourage conservation action amongst both tourists and the local community.

Keywords: Environmental Educators’ training, Environmental Interpretation, non formal Environmental Education, eco-tour guides, Greece

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Protected areas such as national parks and reserves now cover more than 12% of the world’s land area (Chape et al. 2005). Natural heritage
sites or nature reserves like National Parks and Wildlife play a major role in conserving sensitive ecosystems. Irrelevant of their status are by definition lands or waters which, we presume, would be threatened now or in the future by ill-conceived human activities. Typically, the underlying goal of management is to sustainably preserve the qualities and features contained in these natural heritage areas in such a way that the benefits they provide (whether ecological, economic, scientific, scenic or cultural) can be continued indefinitely and indeed perpetuated (Ham et al. 1993). Thus, protected areas, by definition, ensure the concept of sustainable development. However, the increasing visitation of natural areas (Bushell 2003; Eagles & McCool 2002; Newsome et al. 2002) mandates an appropriate management of these areas in order to ensure its sustainability. There are a number of management tools available which endeavour to minimise environmental impacts of eco-tourists. One such management tool is environmental interpretation. Freeman Tilden was the first author who defined environmental interpretation describing it as “an educational activity which aims to reveal meanings and relationships through the use of original objects, by first hand experiences and by illustrative media, rather than simply to communicate factual information” (Tilden, 1977: 8).

People who deliver interpretive programs call themselves interpreters, educators, naturalists, nature guides, docents, tour guides, or heritage interpreters. Interpretation can be personal (i.e. talks, interpreter-led hikes, campground programs, etc.) or non-personal (i.e. exhibits, waysides, films, and publications). Interpreters strive to foster a sense of care and stewardship among visitors toward the resource. Interpretive programs occur not only in government administered settings including national parks, national forests, fish and wildlife refuges, and reservoir areas, but also at state government managed parks, highways, and waterways. Private and non-profit entities employ environmental interpretation in museums, zoos, aquariums, historic buildings, and theme parks (Chen, 2003). The field of environmental interpretation has grown out of the perceived need to conserve and manage natural heritage, and to enhance the experience of visitors and tourists. An important role of environmental interpretation is to attempt to educate visitors (in informal free-choice learning settings) (Skanavis et 2005) to the complex natural resource issues, associated with national and local protected areas and sensitive ecotourism settings. Besides its educational and recreational functions, environmental interpretation can also contribute to public relations and people management (Packer, 2004). Environmental interpretation is vital to the rapidly growing ecotourism industry, as well
as other forms of sustainable tourism, because it involves educating tourists about the consequences of their actions and encourages them to engage in sustainable behaviours (Weiler and Ham 2001).

In Greece, ecotourism constitutes a small but developing part of tourism (WTO 2001; Skanavis et al. 2004; Svoronou and Holden 2005). In countries such as Greece, despite the obvious role that environmental interpretation could play, the vast majority of interpreter guides in the ecotourism industry lack formal training in environmental interpretation (Merinman and Brochu 2004). The ultimate scope of this paper is to reveal the necessity of integrating environmental interpretation in the training of Greek non formal environmental educators by assisting them in the development of abilities which could enable them to communicate and interpret the significance of the environment as well as to be engaged in sustainable management practices. The rationale underpinning these objectives is that by providing accurate and effective interpretation of ecotourism sites and by monitoring and modelling environmental responsible behaviour, positive impacts of tourism will be promoted and negative ones will be alleviated. Furthermore, it will encourage local community’s participation in environmental management of ecotourism settings (Black et al. 2001).

Connecting ecotourism commitment to returning benefits, particularly economic and employment ones to local communities, it stresses the importance of training local people to be interpretive guides. As a result this helps achieving not only ecological sustainability but also economic sustainability. Once trained, guides may encourage conservation action amongst both tourists and the local community. While there is some evidence that trained guides have become involved in conservation projects following their training long-term, a follow-up with tourists and trained guides is needed in order to identify whether this is actually occurring and what mechanisms might be needed in order to strengthen it. This paper aims to develop a training model for interpretive guide training in Greece. This will be accomplished not only by critically examining training programmes in developed and less developed ecotourism countries, where environmental interpretation is already an established science field in the management of sensitive ecotourism areas, but also by taking into consideration the special social settings and environment of Greece in which it will take place (Ham et al. 1993).
EDUCATION FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND INTERPRETATION IN PROTECTED AREAS: SETTING THE SCENE

Throughout the past decade, the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) has laid out the framework of the problems facing the global community. Sustainable development has captured people’s attention and acquired the status of a global buzzword. Indeed, today nearly all political leaders, policymakers, and program administrators can speak the language of sustainable development and many are incorporating its ideas into their future policies. Sustainable development is offered by some as an alternative to past models of development that had focused primarily on economic growth and had addressed environmental, social, and health concerns on an individual and often contradictory basis. Defined as “development that meets the need of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs” (WCED, 1987: 43), sustainable development recognizes the interlocking and systematic nature of these concerns. In this manner, sustainable development offers a unique possibility to move beyond viewing the different crises as challenges to the current system. Sustainable development perceives these same crises and challenges as opportunities to reorient and reorganize society around a different paradigm (Qablan, 2005). To comprehend this paradigm, the concepts of sustainable development should be holistically and critically understood and contrasted to alternative approaches to the environment. As with other industrial sectors and fields of academic study tourism research has also responded to the popularization of the concept of sustainable development (Hunter, 2003). In fact, the concept of Sustainable Tourism has evolved in parallel with the related concept of sustainable development (Pridham, 1999). However, to realize the shift to sustainable development and by induction to sustainable tourism, education has to play a vital role. UNECE strategy for Education for Sustainable Development (2004) clearly states: “it is important to support non formal and informal ESD activities, since they are an essential complement to formal education, not least for adult learning”.

Protected areas traditionally provide non formal learning opportunities. The central mission of protected areas, such as national parks and sensitive ecotourism settings is conservation education: using the motivating power of natural places and living organisms to inform, inspire and motivate people to participate in environmental protection (Nareshwar, 2006). Protected areas and other sensitive ecotourism
Settings provide an important medium through which people can acquire information, develop ideas and construct new visions for themselves and society (Packer and Ballantyne, 2004). Indeed, for many people the information they encounter while being at nature parks may offer the only opportunity to learn about their bonds to the environment, or to their history and culture (Moscardo, 1998). Interpretive sites often encourage visitors to question their values, attitudes and actions regarding contentious issues and consider themselves active agents of education and change (Uzell 1998; Uzell and Ballantyne, 1998). At a more profound level, effective interpretation can have a “transformative” effect by inducing among participants a deeper understanding of the nature and consequent adherence to a more ethical and environmental ethos in the attitudes and/or lifestyle of participants (Fennel and Weaver, 2005).

A statement often attributed to Tilden, but in fact found by Tilden in a US Park Service Administrative manual (Markwell, K. 1996), is the following: “Through interpretation we reach understanding, through understanding we come to appreciation, through appreciation we accomplish protection”. The more visitors and local inhabitants understand a park’s features the more they appreciate them and the more likely they will care for them – and by caring, the chances of the park to be sustainably protected are greatly enhanced (Harmon, D. 2003). This statement is at the core of many interpretive programs operating today in protected areas and ecotourism settings. Interpreting one or more aspects of a resource involves more than presenting information about it. It involves bringing it to life in ways which actively engage those present; what Tilden referred to as “Provocation”. Therefore the central principle of interpretation is to assist resource conservation, which is the heart of sustainable tourism development (Kuo, 2002). Such activities are similar to the belief held by both the environmental education movement and by advocates for more ecologically sustainable tourism, that expose to nature. An opportunity to enhance one’s understanding of nature, leads to a greater sense of appreciation and hence commitment to its protection and conservation (Markwell, 1996). Ecotourism is generally considered as the most typical form of sustainable tourism (Soteriades and Varvaressos, 2003). Ecologically Sustainable Tourism has its primary focus on experiencing natural areas that foster environmental and cultural understanding, appreciation and conservation (NEAP, 2000 cited in Newson, 2001). Education is at the heart of ecotourism and interpretation is frequently the method by which the education message is delivered (Christie and Mason 2003).
The goals and interpretative activities in these traditional free-choice learning settings intersect with values, objectives and mainly the vision of the United Nations Decade for Sustainable: “to provide critical reflection and greater awareness and empowerment so that new visions and concepts can be explored and new methods and tools developed” (UNECE, 2004). The role of teachers and educators is crucial in helping their audience to think and act critically. Educators need to make links among ecological issues, the community, and the economy to foster audience understanding and acceptance of sustainable development (Qablan, 2005). To promote sustainability goals, specialized training programs must be developed for all walks of life including the sustainable. Chapter 36 of *Agenda 21*, ‘Promoting Education, Public Awareness, and Training’, specifically identifies four major thrusts: (1) improving the quality of and access to basic education, (2) reorienting existing education to address sustainable development, (3) developing public understanding and awareness, and (4) training. It encourages all sectors—including business, industry, universities, governments, nongovernmental organizations, and community organizations to train people for environmental management positions, in addition to training employees at all levels in sustainability issues related to their jobs (McKeown and Hopkins 2003). In these four Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) efforts, formal education systems are encouraged to work closely within their local communities, which means communicating and collaborating with both non formal and informal sectors of the educational community (McKeown and Hopkins 2003).

Nature or Interpretive Centres in nature heritage areas can unite communities and enable their neighbours to save their treasured places, manage their land with sustainability in mind and show the children how to value and nurture life. In this regard nature centres can serve the goals of ESD in protected areas. A critical factor for accomplishing nature centres ESD goals is the professional training of its personnel. UNECE strategy for ESD (2004) underlines: “appropriate initial training and re-training of educators and opportunities for them to share experiences are extremely important for the success of ESD.”
ECOTOUR GUIDES, ENVIRONMENTAL INTERPRETERS, NON FORMAL ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATORS: THE PROBLEM OF TERMINOLOGY

The terms non formal environmental educator, interpretive guide and eco-tour guide are often used interchangeably in literature, making reference to the same field of activities. This lack of standardization is considered a source of confusion to practitioners, the broad public and decision makers (Wohlers, 2005). This obviously is an important reason why the National Association of Interpretation has started a definitions project “to work towards a consensus on a glossary of terms in the non formal education field. (NAI, Business Plan, 2007:7, cited in Wohlers. 2005). To avoid confusion as well as identify the roles each profession has, it is necessary to clearly define each of the terms used.

While there are various definitions of a tour guide, an internationally accepted definition given by the International Association of Tour Managers and the European Federation of Tourist Guide Associations (EFTGA) is that a “tour guide is a person who guides groups, individual visitors from abroad or from the home country around the monuments, sites and museums of a city or region; to interpret in an inspiring and entertaining manner, in the language of the visitor's choice, the cultural and natural heritage and environment” (Black and Ham 2005). In particular, the ecotour guide can play a vital role in the ecotourism experience in protecting the natural and cultural environment by performing a number of roles such as interpreter of the environment, motivator of environmentally responsible behaviour and conservation values, and specialist information giver (Black and Ham 2005). According to Ballantyne and Hughes (2001) an ecotour guide is someone employed on a paid or voluntarily basis that conducts paying or non-paying tourists around an area or site of natural and / or cultural importance utilizing the principles of ecotourism and interpretation. Among its roles the guide’s educational role has been regarded as the most important (Christie and Mason 2003).

Environmental Interpreter or Heritage interpreter is someone who practices the art of environmental interpretation. Since environmental interpretation is considered an aspect of non formal environmental education (Knapp 1997; 2003) and conversely education a part of the interpretational process (Luck 2003; Newsome et al 2002) an environmental interpreter is usually specified as a non formal environmental educator / outdoor educator or informal educator. Their profession title interchanges with reference to the programs they deliver.
Zuefle (1997) states: “Interpreters can educate and educators can interpret. Some folks do both…” However, while interpretation can contribute to an educational program, environmental education is part of a larger system with an established curriculum, educational goals and specific learning objectives. Field trips that have pre-trip activities, post-trip activities and educational elements in the trip itself that tie into the larger environmental educational curriculum of the school are educational activities. Field trips that leave the interpreter to present whatever she or he wishes, without trying to align with a curriculum are usually considered interpretive programs. Both of these approaches can be of high quality and valuable to the children, but the latter is considered to be a recreational activity, even though the audience is a captive one. Viewing interpretive activities as “awareness” activities that lead to education experiences is reasonable but it does not make interpretive programming equivalent to environmental education programs (Brochu and Merriman 2008).

Interpreters are often the main awareness/educational source for many visitors to natural and cultural protected areas, either through personal contact or through interpretive publications, exhibits or films. Therefore they influence the reputation of the area and the organization, credibility and support of the community. Environmental/Natural heritage Interpreters play a critical role in increasing sustainable development practices (Adams, 2004). The profession of the interpreter is to facilitate (not dictate) the individual’s personal connections to the natural resource and to develop their own unique meanings (Chen, 2000). Non formal environmental educators are agents ensuring the sustainability of the natural and cultural environment, and motivating visitors and local inhabitants to consider their own lives in relation to broader ecological or cultural concerns (Christie and Mason 2003).

In view of the previous definitions it is illustrated that environmental interpretation and people who perform it is the link between ecotour guides and environmental educators (see figure 1). The rationale underpinning this figure is that ecotour guides can influence visitors through two key strategic points: role modelling of appropriate behaviours and the education they provide to group through interpretation. Cohen (1985) states that guides generally play dual roles of “pathfinder” and “mentor”. The role of the mentor resembles the role of teacher, instructor, or advisor (Dahles, 2002).

Environmental interpreters’ principles are essential for ecotour guides. Analogical is the influence of environmental educators when practising in non formal/free-choice learning settings.
Weiler and Ham (1999) emphasize the guide’s central role of interpretation and education (Dioko and Unakul 2005; Randal and Rollins 2005). Through the non formal environmental education used in interpretation, ecotour guides have the opportunity to increase knowledge, foster positive attitudes and promote environmentally responsible behaviours (Ballantyne & Hughes 2001; Haig & McIntyre 2002). Taking into consideration the previous conceptual framework we employ for the purposes of this paper the term ecotour guide as a general term, which embraces the lineaments of environmental interpreter and/or non formal environmental educator.

**BENEFITS AND NEEDS FOR ECOTOUR GUIDING TRAINING**

Ecotour Guides have many responsibilities: they are expected to provide organization and management of the tour; facilitate interaction with the host community; provide leadership; and deliver interpretation. As Weiler and Ham (2001) underline “interpretation lies at the heart and soul of what ecotourism is, and what ecotourism can and should be doing”. The use of personal interpretation as a preferential medium, means that the role of the guide becomes a critical one (Ballantyne & Hughes 2001). Personal interpretation delivered by tour guides is still considered to be the best and most effective medium (Armstrong and Weiler, 2002). Ecotour guiding represents one of the primary means by which members of the local community can partake in the benefits that ecotourism brings. More highly trained and qualified ecotour guides, allows an even more enhanced level of participation and more benefits to be drawn from the effects of tourism (Dioko and Unakul, 2005). Environmental training of tour guides (Herbereich, 1998) in the ecological sustainable tourism can help both visitors and local residents in
the conservation, preservation, and proper interpretation of the nature. Interpretative activities can adhere to the sites’ originality as well as their natural and aesthetic value.

The role of the tour guide is not only an important one, but also one of influence. Studies have shown that guides have significant influence over the visitors’ behaviour. As result, the visitors’ impact on the environment is minimized, management strategies are properly explained and safety messages are supported (Reisinger & Steiner, 2006). To be employable, to be competent and to keep stakeholders happy, guides need training, often extensive training (Ham and Weiler 2000). Howes & Ingamells (1994) and Saunders (1989) underlining that: not all staff of a nature centre are well suited to this role and thus so specifically trained staffed are required. As in any profession, work experience is vital. It seems sensible to recruit staff specifically trained for the field or to help them access this training while employed (Armstrong and Weiler, 2003). This professional development is especially important since informal educators often have not been taught how to educate (Robertson, 2003). Education personnel is often hired to teach in non formal educational settings for their content expertise and have little systematic teacher training (Taylor, 2006). This is particularly true in the case of environmental education where it is often a natural resource professional, who is responsible for educating the public at the informal education site. According to Bainer et al (2000) although nature professionals are well trained to address resource related needs, many of these professionals “have serious problems with serving people”. Magil (1992) found that too often they are either, not trained, minimally trained, or disciplined to understand and manage social interactions and to use basic education principle. Moreover, research by Simmons (1998) revealed that teachers using various nature settings for environmental education expressed the need for special training as well as a desire for more training before they took their students to this place.

Most of the research in the area of environmental interpretation and education has focused on the evaluation of environmental programs and the impact they have on the knowledge and attitude of the park visitor, not on the role of the park interpreter (Taylor and Galdarelli, 2004). Research of Roggenbuck et al 1992 reports that trained guides devoted more time and attention to communicating the natural and cultural history of a natural resource. Black et al. (2001) cite that training has been instrumental in increasing the awareness of environmental and socio-cultural impacts caused by ecotourism. Such awareness leads to minimal impact behaviour by both visitors and residents to sites and allows the
effective enforcement of park regulations. Training enables guides to encourage conservation, to act as mediators between hosts and guests, to provide quality service and customer satisfaction as well as deliver effective visitors’ experience. Christie & Mason (2003) cite the lack of a theoretical base, benchmarks, or best practice principles in the profession despite its long history. Calls for more professionalism, required standards, appropriate training and better delivery skills are frequently made and punctuate most discourse on tour-guiding (Christie and Mason, 2003; Dioko and Unakul 2005). Cherem (1977) argues that because guides are primarily interpreters and only secondarily subject specialists, guides should be the subjects of more formal courses in interpretive methods, field courses, research, and even theory (cited in Christie and Mason, 2003). Knudson et al (1995/2003) acknowledge that it is vital that interpreters are trained.

**Economic Value of Guides Training and Certification**

Taking into consideration the previous remarks, Carver et al. (2003) provide a graphical view showing how one could determine the economic value of interpretation as well as how professional training and certification could affect the social value and quality of interpretation in a given site (see figure 2). The vertical axis represents the cumulative dollar value of what society is willing to pay (WTP) to preserve a resource. The horizontal axis represents the number of people (users and non-users) surveyed by Carver et al (2003). The line WTP\_W/O represents the rank ordered maximum willingness to pay across individuals for the resource without interpretive services. The vertical line intercepts the highest dollar amount an individual is willing to pay to preserve the resource. The horizontal intercept represents the point where the willingness-to-pay for the next person equals zero.

Furthermore, a second and third willingness to pay which includes interpretation but no training and certification: WTP\_W/I and interpretation with training and certification: WTP\_W/I&C. To derive an economic value one could use the difference of the value of interpretation in WTP function. The difference between WTP\_W/I and WTP\_W/I&C represents the marginal social benefits of a certification program (represented by area A in figure 2). In particular, the difference in WTP is due to change in quality. These changes can be due to additional education, training and certification of interpreters (Carver et al, 2003).
Figure 2. A Graphical View of the Value of Interpretation and its extension through Training and Certification

WTP: willingness to pay.
WTP\textsubscript{W/O}: willingness to pay across individuals without interpretive services.
WTP\textsubscript{W/I}: interpretation but no training and certification.
WTP\textsubscript{W/I&C}: interpretation with training and certification.

Source: Carver et al. 2003

In western developed countries the study of environmental interpretation is more and more mature with the help of other academic fields (Ham, 2002). Ecotour Interpretive guiding is acknowledged as a profound profession by official bodies worldwide.

Greece now has 27 National Parks, among which 11 Ramsar sites for the protection of wetlands. These protected areas are affected by serious management and protection problems. Two of the most significant problems are dearth of specialized personnel and inadequate provision of information and services to tourist visitors (Beriatos, 2005). Although the term of Ecotourism has been established in the Greek tourism market since the late 1980s (Svoronou and Holden, 2005), there is no significant link between available natural resources and appropriate tourist activities (Beriatos, 2005). Nowadays in Greece the majority of the ecotourism clientele is occasional in nature, in that the individuals are likely to be involved in a number of other tourist activities, and the ecotourism planning for the protected areas reflects this perspective.
At the Research Centre of Environmental Education and Communication, at the University of the Aegean, we studied a group of individuals running small ecotourism enterprises in Greece. The research resulted that ecotourism clientele is mostly males in the age group of 26-60 with basic educational background. Half of them depend on ecotourism business to meet their financial needs. They present a high degree of environmental activism and a thorough understanding of their environmental education needs. They were ready to financially commit in the environmental protection process and were willing to accept environmental education. (Skanavis et al., 2004).

The only place which recruits local inhabitants as ecotour guides is one of the most precious biotopes of Greece, Dadia Forest Reserve. These guides are trained locally by the nongovernmental organization, WWF which is the main administrator manager of the local nature centre (Svoronou and Holden, 2005; Buckley, R. 2003). Conducted ecotours in these areas usually last approximately fifteen minutes. During these tours emphasis is given of the empowerment of the affective variable of visitor’s environmental attitudes. The cognitive variables are confined to mere descriptions of biodiversity. Human interventions to any kind of environmental conservation initiative are not addressed (Hovardas and Stamou 2006).

The School of Tourist Guides in Greece, a state school belonging to the Ministry of Tourism, is compulsory for guides in all museums, sites, monuments, churches etc and the study program lasts for 2.5 years. All guides in Greece are national guides- which means, they have a guiding permission to work in the whole country- and not local guides like in other countries. The 75% of the funds come form the European Union Fund for Training via Greek Government and the 25% originates from Greek Ministry itself (Cookson Phillip, 2006). Judging by the courses offered, there is a lack of specialization in ecotour guiding and there is an absence of any kind of training in the interpretation or the non formal environmental education fundamentals. To the contrary according to the curriculum there is a strong focus to tour guiding in historical and archaeological sites with less emphasis to natural heritage sites. The curriculum lacks of sustainable tourism or ecotourism courses.

A school for National Parks and Recreation areas Caretaker-Guides offered by the Public and Private Vocational Training Institutes which are placed under the auspices of Organization of Vocational Education and Training also exists in Greece. The national authority providing accreditation of the certificates, entitled as Vocational Training Diploma I.E.K, given by the above Institutes, is the Greek Ministry of Education.
and Religious Affairs. The prerequisite for acceptance to these Institutes is a Certificate of Unified Upper Secondary School (EL) or a Certificate of Technical Vocational Educational School B’ level (TEE). The studies last two years including a six months period of practical training.

The graduates of these programs can work in organizations managing national parks, protected areas, small woods and forests, as well as in facilities of mountain tourism, game reserves, zoological parks-gardens, botanical gardens, of environmental education, etc. The recognition of the Vocational Training Diploma I.E.K. as a qualification for appointment in the public sector is regulated by Presidential Decree no.267/2003 (Official Journal of the Hellenic Republic 240 / Vol. A / 16-10-2003). The professional rights of this specialty are regulated by Presidential Decree no.267/2003 (Official Journal of the Hellenic Republic 240 / Vol. A / 16-10-2003). The assessment of the content of the courses offered for this certification resulted in that interpretation subject is lightly covered in one course, specifically the one of Public Relations.

Therefore in Greece, there are no certification programs offered at University Level which address the census of the environmental interpretation as a separate field and this is something that needs to be addressed carefully.

CONCLUSION

The voluntary participation at a non formal environmental educational program is encouraged from its association with entertainment. Based on this association, the participant gets actively involved in a pleasant non formal educational activity and the possibility of an apathetic response is minimized. In the development of such conditions, according to the principles of environmental interpretation, main emphasis is placed on the cooperative and interdependent communication between the sources of transmitting and receiving environmental messages. According to the environmental interpretation guidelines, the educational process is productive when the environmental trainer approaches the learners as active participants of the educational experience and avoids acting as an authoritarian who just informs them about the visited area.

Determining role in the accomplishment of such a goal is the development of an appropriate educational program for the training of the involved ecotour guides at the Greek protected area sites. Such a program should be based on the fact that sustainable tourism has to be an experience that can promote responsible environmental behavior. The
well organized environmental education training of the ecotour guides is the only way that can ensure the successful results that the environmental interpretation profession is in need. By educating the ecotour guides, their environmental knowledge, communication and interpretation skills will be built and in general their environmental profile will be shaped. Then we would be able to refer to the environmental interpretation programs as ones that can contribute to the promotion of environmental awareness, knowledge, attitude and behaviour of the participants on top of a pleasant recreational experience in nature.

Those responsible for training non formal environmental educators must take into serious consideration the uniqueness of the non formal setting such as the case of protected areas and the related teaching challenges. They should assist non formal environmental educators/interpreters in developing an awareness of the specific contextual factors (e.g., the audience, teaching in a public setting, learner needs, time limitations, institutional guidelines and expectations) involved. Also, trainers of the non formal educators need to emphasize on how they can make full use of the specific non formal educational experience.

Critical analysis of teaching conceptions and the various contextual factors involved allows the non formal environmental educator to have a greater success potential over his/her practice. In addition, practitioners in formal environmental education settings, according to Brennan’s (1997) view, could gain much from the processes of non formal environmental education. A good example is the challenge of educating in a limited time-frame while multiple obstacles emerge.

Following a training program based on standardized profession priorities could come in conflict with local needs. Therefore, this possible complication needs be explored. An appropriate model for establishing a regional training program for Greek environmental interpreters is an urgent issue that must be addressed. In this regard, further research in protected areas sites is mandated. The objective is to better codify this training model as well as to understand effective practices for promoting learning among non formal participants (Taylor, 2006). Such a model must adhere to the principles laid out earlier in the paper and must balance the requirements of both local stakeholders in Greece and the fulfilment of the global values related to the protection of natural heritage areas.
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FOUR WHEEL DRIVE TOURISM AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR REMOTE AREAS

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Desert areas account for around 70% of Australia’s landmass but are home to less than 3% of the population. The economies of many desert areas have been described as marginal or peripheral. Tourism is an important economic activity for desert destinations and one sector, four wheel drive tourism, has been gaining increasing attention. This paper examines the spending patterns of four wheel drive visitors to desert regions of the Northern Territory of Australia and compares them to non-four wheel drive leisure visitors for a five year period from 2000 to 2004. In addition to assessing the amount of expenditure (overall and per day), the research investigates whether there were differences in expenditure items and the dispersal of expenditure among destinations. This information can help inform decisions about levels of investment for attracting the four wheel drive market which might be justified, and the types of product opportunities that might arise from a growing market.

Keywords: Four wheel drive tourism, Desert tourism, Economic contribution of tourism, Remote area tourism

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

From a tourism perspective, desert Australia has been described as marginal, remote, or peripheral (Carson and Harwood, 2007). While up to 70% of Australia’s mainland landmass can conceivably be defined as ‘desert’, less than 3% of the total Australian population live in desert regions (Desert Knowledge Cooperative Research Centre, 2007) and the four largest towns have populations of less than 30,000 residents. There are typically very large distances between towns, and they are connected by limited transport networks. For example, Alice Springs, the best
known desert town, has a resident population of around 25,000, and is 515 kilometres by road from the nearest substantial settlement (Tennant Creek with a population of 1,500). Alice Springs is 2,930 kilometres by road from Sydney. Alice Springs is in the Northern Territory, but is 1,525 kilometres by road from the capital, Darwin (Jacaranda, 2006).

The states and territories of Australia have established regional tourism associations (RTAs) who are responsible for coordinating tourism marketing and fostering business networks within their jurisdictions. There are 85 such RTAs in Australia, with 11 situated in desert regions (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2005) mainly in the Northern Territory, Queensland, Western Australia and New South Wales (Figure 1). In 2005, an estimated 4.5 million visitors spent at least one night in one or more desert destinations as defined by these RTA boundaries. Of concern for desert tourism in Australia, this figure represented a decrease over the previous four years (by 15% from the peak visitation experienced in 2001) compared with a smaller decrease in visitor numbers of six percent for Australia as a whole (Tourism Research Australia, 2005a, 2005b). Notably, the international market share for desert areas declined from 20% of all visitors to just 13%. Nonetheless, tourism remains an important economic activity in desert destinations.

**Figure 1. Desert areas of Australia**

![Desert areas of Australia](image)

In addition to decline in visitor numbers, desert tourism has seen increasing concentrations of visitors at a small number of iconic sites
(such as Ayer’s Rock/ Uluru and King’s Canyon in the Petermann region) and in the larger population centres, and diminishing diversity in the trip patterns of desert visitors (Desert Knowledge Australia, 2005). Around 30% of the desert tourism market in Australia is on organised tours, and there is evidence that fewer tour alternatives are offered now than in past years (Carson & Taylor, 2006). Tours tend to focus on sightseeing at the icon sites and, there is limited variance in the average lengths of stay for desert destinations (Carson, Middleton, & Jacobsen, 2007). In summary, it can be argued that relatively fewer people are visiting desert Australia, they are visiting fewer attractions and destinations, and the market is becoming increasingly homogenised.

These trends have had important economic implications for the desert tourism sector. They imply a lack of innovation in terms of new product offerings and accessing new markets. Fostering innovation in the desert will require collaboration between suppliers and customers, which the literature argues needs to be led by small firms and relatively independent travellers, particularly in peripheral destinations (Stuart, Pearce, and Weaver, 2005). Small firms are more likely than large firms to have decision makers interacting with customers on a regular basis. They are more able to change their business practices in response to customer needs (McKelvey and Texier, 2000). At the same time, relatively independent travellers are better positioned to make spontaneous consumption choices, to change their itineraries in-trip, and to negotiate individual arrangements with product suppliers (Hyde and Lawson, 2003).

It has been reported elsewhere (Schmallegger and Carson, 2007) that the key independent travel markets for desert Australia are likely to include self-drive tourists and international backpackers. Research by Tremblay et al (2005) and Desert Knowledge Australia (2005) has focused on the self-drive markets for desert Australia. In particular, the four wheel drive or “off road” market has been identified as having high growth potential and a number of characteristics that make it attractive to desert destinations. Carson and Taylor (2006) suggested that these include:

- A capacity, and desire, to access more remote destinations;
- Trip patterns which include multiple destinations and frequent movement between destinations;
- Relatively flexible itineraries; and
- Relatively high rates of repeat visits.
There is no widely accepted definition of four wheel drive tourism. The use of a four wheel drive vehicle as a form of transport is a prerequisite, however this research is interested in travel where there is a stronger link between the vehicle and the travel experience. A ‘product market’ view of tourism (Scott, 2002) sees consumers and suppliers interact in the marketplace using a shared set of concepts (Rosa, et al. 1999). In the case of four wheel drive tourism, the evidence suggests that some consumers view the vehicle as key to the travel experience (witness, for example the proliferation of four wheel drive recreation clubs across Australia and internationally), destinations and tourism product suppliers distribute experiences with ‘four wheel drive’ in the label (and with infrastructure specifically targeted at four wheel drive travellers), and there is a facilitating industry of vehicle manufacturers, accessory providers and others who market their services through an explicit link between the vehicle and some touristic concepts. The dialogue between consumers and suppliers (and other organisations) helps construct a language about the experience so that the definition becomes meaningful for all parties (Aaker and Joachimsthaler, 2000). A simple product market definition of 4WD tourism may therefore be (although other definitions are possible):

Tourism experiences which the consumer and supplier perceive as heightened in value by the use of 4WD vehicles.

This definition allows for experiences to be on or off-road, to be completely dominated by use of the four wheel drive vehicle, or to have that activity as part of a broader trip experience. Surveys by Taylor and Prideaux (2008) suggest that four wheel drive travellers develop a sense of belonging to the destinations they visit, and so are likely to actively engage in destination development through activities such as infrastructure maintenance and product promotion. Four wheel drivers are motivated to explore the landscape, undertake activities in remote locations (birdwatching, fossicking etc) or to test the capabilities of the vehicle and driver. The research by Carson and Taylor (2006) and Taylor and Prideaux (2008) is part of a multi-disciplinary study of four wheel drive tourism in desert Australia sponsored by the Desert Knowledge Cooperative Research Centre, a collaboration between universities, government agencies and private enterprise aiming to conduct research that contributes to improved livelihoods for desert people. Prior to this research, very little was known about four wheel drive tourism in any
environment, although a small number of studies have considered environmental impacts (for example, Priskin, 2003).

Some optimism regarding the potential for four wheel drive tourism to provide economic benefits for Aboriginal settlements in desert Australia has been observed. Desert Knowledge Australia (2005), for example, report on the future of outback tourism as being favourable economically for local Aboriginal communities. However, the reasons for such optimism are unclear. They appear to lie mainly in assertions of the (growing) size of the market, and the level of contact between the markets and otherwise isolated settlements. There has been no published research into the expenditure patterns of four wheel drive travellers, nor of the economic flows arising from that expenditure. Cartan and Carson (2009) have argued that settlements along desert tracks (the main attractions for many four wheel drive travellers) have largely failed to create innovative and economically significant ventures. They suggest that any economic benefits are more likely to accrue to businesses in major service centres and places of origin than to the more remote and smaller desert settlements. In desert Australia, this might translate to major urban centres, particularly Alice Springs (Northern Territory), Mt Isa (Queensland), Broken Hill (New South Wales) or Kalgoorlie (Western Australia) attracting a disproportionate amount of trip expenditure.

Four wheel drive travellers are likely to spend large amounts of money on their vehicles, purchasing (and then preparing) them for desert trips, or in hiring them in situ. Taylor and Carson (2007) also reported that desert trips are relatively long, and travellers spend relatively long periods of time preparing for them. Along with visiting multiple destinations and a higher tendency to repeat visit (Carson and Taylor, 2008), these may be indicators of economic activity. However, the relationship between trip structures and more direct measures of economic value, particularly at local and regional levels, is problematic. There are issues with estimating expenditure, attributing expenditure to specific destinations or activities, and assessing the worth of multipliers. The difficulties in discerning the economic contribution are exacerbated for multiple destination trips which are very common to desert itineraries.

Dwyer and Forsyth (1997) have summarised the literature relating to measurement of economic benefits of particular types of tourism activities. The most common measures used were total trip expenditures and average daily expenditure per visitor. While these measures provide some summary, it may be more meaningful at a local level to investigate what products and activities are purchased (Wilton and Nickerson, 2006). Research has also attempted to identify the determinants of expenditure
within market segments (see McKay, et al, 2002, for example). Demographic, socio-economic and touristic variables have been correlated in various ways with rates of expenditure, types of products, and activities consumed. Coupling an understanding of expenditure items with the dynamics of local supply can provide insights into local economic benefits (Supradist, 2004). For example, expenditure on souvenirs manufactured outside the region may have less economic impact than expenditure on services involving higher local inputs. Estimates of trip spending, particularly on activities such as motoring (MacKay, Andereck, and Vogt, 2002) or recreational boating (Lee, 2001) may be confused by expenditure relating to purchasing and maintaining the craft or vehicle. Lee, for example, found that visitors from more distant origins spent less in the destination on food and fuel, having made more of these purchases before leaving home. Dwyer and Forsyth (1997) recognise that more sophisticated measures of economic yield are required to understand the impacts of a market on a destination, but they also acknowledge the high cost of collecting and analysing data for such measures. The recommendation is therefore to use a variety of measures, including total expenditure, expenditure on specific items, expenditure per day, and length of stay. Relatively high yield markets tend to have higher daily expenditure and higher lengths of stay.

Consequently, this paper examines the spending patterns of four wheel drive visitors to desert regions in the Northern Territory of Australia and compares them to non-four wheel drive leisure visitors to the same destinations. The study examines data from a five year period 2000 to 2004. In addition to assessing the amount of expenditure (overall and per day), the research investigates whether there were differences in the items of expenditure and the dispersal of expenditure among destinations. This information can inform decisions about the level of investment in attracting the four wheel drive market that might be justified, and the types of product opportunities that might arise from the market.

METHODS

Tourism NT is the government destination marketing organisation (DMO) for the Northern Territory. The Northern Territory includes four of Australia’s eleven desert RTAs – Alice Springs, Petermann, MacDonnell and Barkly. Between 1997 and 2004, Tourism NT conducted a survey of around 4,500 visitors to the Northern Territory each year called the Northern Territory Travel Monitor (NTTM). The NTTM
included two questions which can be used to identify four wheel drive tourists. Respondents were asked the mode of transport they used to travel between destinations in the Northern Territory. “Four wheel drive” was a response option. Between 2000 and 2004, 3,893 respondents (33%) who had visited a desert region in the Northern Territory had accessed these destinations by four wheel drive vehicle. Respondents were also asked about the activities they had undertaken while in the Northern Territory. Included among these were “four wheel driving”. Between 2000 and 2004, 3,345 respondents (28%) who had visited a desert region in the Northern Territory claimed to have done four wheel driving as an activity.

Neither of these variables corresponds exactly with the product market definition of four wheel driving provided in the introduction. Visitors travelling by four wheel drive may be simply describing the type of vehicle, rather than attributing any enhancement of the experience to having that vehicle. On the other hand, where the experience is enhanced, or even dependent upon, the four wheel drive vehicle, respondents may not identify four wheel driving as a separate activity. It is likely, however, that the cohort of four wheel drive travellers who do meet the definition for this research have answered either that they travelled by four wheel drive vehicle or that they did four wheel driving as an activity. For the purposes of this research, a desert four wheel drive tourist is considered to be one who spent at least one night in a desert region in the Northern Territory, and who either travelled by four wheel drive between destinations or cited four wheel driving as an activity. For the period 2000 to 2004 this produced a sample of 4,860 respondents, or 40% of all leisure visitors to desert areas of the Northern Territory. The potential misclassification of some respondents is accepted as a limitation of using a secondary data set.

Table 1. Study sample sizes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Full NTTM sample</th>
<th>Leisure visitors</th>
<th>Leisure &amp; visited desert</th>
<th>Leisure, visited desert and 4WD</th>
<th>Desert 4WD as % of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>4,036</td>
<td>3,351</td>
<td>2,763</td>
<td>1,094</td>
<td>39.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>3,648</td>
<td>2,955</td>
<td>2,446</td>
<td>915</td>
<td>37.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>3,791</td>
<td>2,957</td>
<td>2,407</td>
<td>1,057</td>
<td>43.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>3,736</td>
<td>2,939</td>
<td>2,317</td>
<td>912</td>
<td>39.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>4,084</td>
<td>2,989</td>
<td>2,128</td>
<td>882</td>
<td>41.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19,295</td>
<td>15,191</td>
<td>12,061</td>
<td>4,860</td>
<td>40.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The NTTM used recall questions to collect expenditure for the entire travel party during the 24 hours prior to completing the survey form. Accommodation expenditure was collected based on the actual cost of the accommodation (for the whole travel party) on the night the survey was completed. The location of the accommodation provider was recorded and coded to a sub-region within the Northern Territory. This enabled the region in which the survey was completed to be identified. This approach yielded a sample of 6,235 surveys completed in desert areas of the Northern Territory for the period 2000 to 2004, of which 38% (2,339) were completed by four wheel drive travellers.

The expenditure items produced by this method included:

- Cost of accommodation tonight (accom$) - the accommodation cost for the entire travel party for the night on which the respondent filled out the survey form.
- Money spent on individual items (item a-n$) - expenditure by the travel party during the past 24 hours. Items collected were:
  - Food and drinks
  - Cultural tours/shows by Indigenous people
  - Other tours in the NT
  - Transport within the NT
  - Aboriginal art work/ artefacts
  - Shopping/ gifts/ souvenirs/ Entertainment/ admission fees/ other incidental expenses
- Total travel party expenditure on items (total$) = total of expenditure on items [item a-n$ listed above] in past 24 hours excluding accommodation
- Total expenditure (exp_ttl) = total travel party expenditure in past 24 hours including accommodation [ (exp_ttl) = total$ + accomm$]
- Estimated total expenditure for travel party on the entire trip (tot_exp). This variable was collected in fixed dollar ranges (for example, ‘less than $500’ and ‘$3,001 - $5,000’)

Total expenditure by the entire travel party for the entire trip was calculated in a three step approach. Firstly accommodation costs were summed with the combined travel party expenditure on individual items during the past 24 hours. This excluded expenditure on transport used to reach the Northern Territory. Secondly, nights spent in the Northern Territory were calculated by summing the nights spent at each overnight stop with the nights in transit, where visitors travelled overnight in a bus
or other vehicle. If the number of nights recorded against an overnight (night1 to night 10) stop was not stated (‘99’) these night were excluded from the calculation of total nights in the Northern Territory to avoid artificial inflation of this figure. Likewise, if nights in transit (tran_ngt) was recorded as ‘99’ this variable was excluded. The two variables were multiplied out so that the calculation of total trip expenditure reads as:

\[
\text{Total expenditure} = (\text{accom} + \text{food} + \text{toursc} + \text{toursg} + \text{trans} + \text{aborig} + \text{shop} + \text{entrtn} + \text{other}) \times (\text{night1} + \text{night2} + \text{night3} + \text{night4} + \text{night5} + \text{night6} + \text{night7} + \text{night8} + \text{night9} + \text{night10} + \text{tran_ngt})
\]

This approach reduced the available sample marginally to 6,062 of which 37% (2,247) were four wheel drive travellers. A very small number of records (six) had expenditure of more than $10,000 recorded against them for a period of 24 hours. These were removed because of their distortional impact on total expenditure data given that there were no commonly discernable characteristics to suggest they might represent one particular market more so than another.

Consideration was given to using per person expenditure in the analysis. However, the composition of four wheel drive travel parties was very similar to others in terms of both the number of individuals in the party and the type of group. For example, two thirds of travel parties for both groups were comprised of two people and only a very small proportion of four wheel drive parties (three percent) and others (two percent) consisted of more than four persons. Similarly around 45% of both four wheel drive parties and others were travelling as adult couples and 20% were travelling alone. Slightly more four wheel drive parties (13%) than others (nine percent) were travelling as family groups. Based on these comparisons it is viable to expect little difference in expenditure results produced on a travel party basis when compared to those produced for individuals.

In addition to expenditure, the NTTM asked about activities and places visited in the Northern Territory as well as the types of accommodation used at each destination. These variables have been used as supporting evidence to the expenditure data as a means of addressing issues of respondent recall for expenditure items.

The direct expenditure approach used here has limitations for comparing expenditure behaviour between four wheel drive travellers to others in desert areas. First, the 24 hour recall period applied to recording expenditure on individual items may attribute some expenditure to desert
regions where it did not occur when travellers enter a desert region from a non-desert region. Secondly, the process of extrapolating expenditure during the 24 hour period to represent total trip expenditure has limitations insofar as it can at best be considered an approximation. Expenditure amounts on individual items are likely to fluctuate between regions and during different stages of the trip (for example, close to arrival, during the trip proper, and pre-departure). Data on non-essential items like tours, Aboriginal attractions and arts, and entertainment may be particularly problematic because the extrapolation of the past 24 hours expenditure of these items by multiplying by the number of nights spent in the Northern Territory may be less representative of actual expenditure than for items like fuel, food and shopping which are consumed more regularly.

RESULTS

A substantial proportion of both four wheel drive (39%) and other travel parties (43%) said they had a planned budget of more than $9,000 for their trip in the Northern Territory. This figure excludes transport to the Northern Territory and pre-booked items. Average recorded daily expenditure on all items was five percent lower for four wheel drive travellers at $368 compared to $384 for other desert travellers (Table 2). However, average expenditure for the entire trip to the Northern Territory (again excluding transport to the Northern Territory and pre-booked items) was markedly higher for four wheel drive travellers at $4,370 compared to $3,028 for other travellers. More than two thirds of four wheel drive and other traveller expenditure was in desert regions. The 32% higher average total trip expenditure by four wheel drive travellers reflects their tendency to stay more nights in the Northern Territory (at eighteen on average compared to thirteen for others) and to visit more destinations on their trip (at five compared to four). And while both groups spend on average three nights in each desert and non desert location, four wheel drivers spend more nights in total in the desert at ten compared to seven.

Accommodation expenditure in desert areas by four wheel drive travellers averaged $79 per day compared to $98 for other travellers. This represented 21% and 25% of average daily expenditure respectively. Total expenditure in desert areas on accommodation averaged $605 for four wheel drive travellers and $502 for others (Table 2). Four wheel drive travellers were more likely to use caravan parks (58% compared with 40%) and less likely to use hotels (14% compared with 24%) or
hostels (18% compared with 28%). During their trip, four wheel drive travellers spent an average of $627 on food and beverages in desert areas which was significantly (37%) higher than for other travellers ($404). On a daily basis the comparison shows a relatively marginal difference at $73 and $70 respectively, or 20% and 18% of all travel party expenditure.

Transport costs were inclusive of airfares within the Northern Territory, fuel, car rental, and public transport costs. Desert four wheel drive travellers spent on average close to double ($486 compared to $252) during their trip on these items. On a daily basis the difference was also noticeable averaging to $68 per day for four wheel drivers and $47 for others, or 18% and twelve percent of daily travel party expenditure for the respective groups. Four wheel drive travellers to the desert spent an average of $62 per day on general (other than Aboriginal) tours, compared with $75 for other travellers. Tours represented 17% of total trip expenditure by four wheel drivers and 29% by others. The combined expenditure of desert travellers on Aboriginal cultural attractions, and arts and crafts comprised seven percent of average daily four wheel drive travel party expenditure and eleven percent for others. This represents $25 and $40 per day respectively. These items were one of only two where total expenditure in the desert by four wheel drivers ($264) was less than for others ($296).

The combined expenditure of desert travellers on Aboriginal cultural attractions, and arts and crafts comprised seven percent of average daily four wheel drive travel party expenditure and eleven percent for others. This represents $25 and $40 per day respectively. These items were the others for which total expenditure in the desert by four wheel drivers ($164) was less than for others ($214). Daily expenditure in the desert on shopping (other than food and beverages) and souvenirs, as well as admission fees to entertainment venues formed a relatively minor component of the average daily expenditure of desert travellers at around seven percent and three percent respectively for both four wheel drivers and others. The relative contribution of these items to total expenditure in the desert extrapolated to $317 compared to $226 by others.

Four wheel drive travellers spent an average of $29 more per day ($380) than other travellers in destinations other than Alice Springs (where average daily expenditure was $351). The average length of stay in Alice Springs for four wheel drive travellers was five nights and thirteen nights in other desert areas. Non-four wheel drive travellers averaged four nights in Alice Springs and nine in other desert areas. The additional expenditure in other (compared to Alice Springs) areas by four wheel drivers was comprised of accommodation ($37 per day above other
desert travellers) and transport ($17 per day). While non four wheel drive travellers spent $58 per night more in destinations outside Alice Springs, this was almost completely accounted for by their additional expenditure on accommodation.

Table 2. Expenditure on items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Average daily expenditure</th>
<th>% of daily expenditure</th>
<th>Total expenditure in desert areas</th>
<th>% daily desert expenditure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4WD visitors</td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>4WD visitors</td>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>$79</td>
<td>$98</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food &amp; drinks</td>
<td>$73</td>
<td>$70</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aboriginal tours &amp; shows</td>
<td>$9</td>
<td>$19</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other tours</td>
<td>$62</td>
<td>$75</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport within the NT</td>
<td>$68</td>
<td>$47</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aboriginal art &amp; crafts</td>
<td>$16</td>
<td>$21</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure, shopping &amp; souvenirs</td>
<td>$29</td>
<td>$27</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment &amp; admission fees</td>
<td>$12</td>
<td>$12</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other expenses</td>
<td>$20</td>
<td>$16</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$368</td>
<td>$384</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The research found that four wheel drive travellers spent more on their total trip than other visitors to desert Northern Territory. The average daily expenditure was similar, so the difference in total expenditure was accounted for by the longer lengths of stay in the Northern Territory by four wheel drivers. Of further note, the additional nights were a result of visits to additional destinations. In other words, four wheel drive travellers delivered similar economic benefits to more destinations than other travellers. While average daily expenditure was similar for four wheel drive and other desert travellers, the composition of the expenditure was quite different. Four wheel drive travellers spent less
on accommodation and Aboriginal tourism products, and more on transport and food and beverages.

Four wheel drive travellers tended to select caravan park accommodation even where hotel or hostel accommodation was available and preferred by other travellers and chose not to consume Aboriginal tourism products in destinations where other travellers did consume them. This has enormous implications as, on the one hand, four wheel drive travellers, while spending less, show a preference for accommodation types which are more likely to be locally owned and managed rather than part of a national or international hotel or hostel group. The economic contribution of these is likely to be more direct for the region. On the other hand, there have been limited opportunities for Aboriginal cultural tourism enterprises to benefit from four wheel drive travel. Either the nature of the products that have been available or the method of their distribution has not matched the demands of the market. Not only did four wheel drive travellers spend more on transport within desert Northern Territory, they appeared to spend more frequently, refuelling regularly as they travelled. There are only three airports in the Northern Territory with regularly scheduled commercial services, and two of these are in the desert (Alice Springs and Yulara near Uluru/Ayer’s Rock). Most tours originate from Alice Springs or Yulara and payment for these is made once. It is likely that the transport expenditure by four wheel drive travellers has had greater local economic implications than that by other desert visitors.

Expenditure on food and beverages appeared similar for four wheel drive and other desert travellers. It is quite possible, however, that the nature of this expenditure was different for the two groups. Higher use of caravan parks and commercial camping grounds by four wheel drive travellers implies they prepared their own meals rather than eating out at restaurants in which case the economic benefits would be distributed in a different way. A greater difference in expenditure on organised tours may have been expected between four wheel drive and other travellers. Four wheel drive travellers by definition have their own transport, and have a lesser need to go on organised tours to do their sightseeing. However, the definition of four wheel drive traveller used in this research would include those who went on a four wheel drive tour (and therefore selected have done a ‘four wheel drive activity’) and those (particularly international) travellers who rented a four wheel drive vehicle for at least part of their visit to desert Australia. Tours may have been taken during the non-four wheel drive trip phases.
Expenditure on attractions and souvenirs was relatively low for both four wheel drive and other travellers. It is unclear whether these products have been inherently unimportant, or whether the existing product offerings have lacked appeal. A consistent pattern of product preferences has emerged from the research. This may reflect the desired experiences of the market, or it may reflect the homogenised structure of the tourism industry in desert Australia that was observed by Carson, Middleton and Jacobsen (2007) and Cartan and Carson (2009). In summary, four wheel drive travellers appear to offer economic benefits for desert destinations at least equivalent to those provided by other markets. The advantage of the market is that they provide income for more destinations, without compromising the income to more popular destinations. This research has only superficially associated expenditure patterns with yield potential, and further research is required here. There is a different pattern of expenditure regarding individual items (accommodation, food and beverage, tours etc.), and this will have implications for product development and the accrual of local benefits.

Economic analysis of tourism behaviour is difficult, and researching such behaviour is generally subject to limitations. Beyond the limitations of the data previously noted, the research reported here has been able to only partly address some of the key issues in understanding the economic implications of four wheel drive tourism activity in desert Australia. This research has treated the four wheel drive market as homogenous, however it may be that certain segments within the market have higher or lower yield potential. Taylor and Prideaux (2008) have provided some clues as to the nature of some of the differences such as a segment with a vent for testing their skills and their vehicle capabilities to a segment which seeks to do primarily non-four wheel drive activities. Likewise, different destinations may experience different levels of economic benefit. While there is a need for further research into the economic value of four wheel drive tourism in desert Australia, the research here has demonstrated that the market is likely to make a similar overall daily contribution as other desert travellers. There may be advantages in stimulating four wheel drive development in localised desert destinations because their contribution extends over longer travel periods and to more destinations. Destination marketing agencies are advised to increase their understanding of what the four wheel drive market wants, and invest in products which meet these expectations.
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CAUSALITY BETWEEN ECONOMIC GROWTH AND TOURISM EXPANSION: EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE FROM TRENTINO-ALTO ADIGE

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This paper investigates the causal relations between tourism growth, relative prices and economic expansion for the Trentino-Alto Adige/Südtirol, a region of northeast Italy bordering on Switzerland and Austria. Johansen cointegration analysis shows the existence of one cointegrated vector among real GDP, tourism and relative prices where the corresponding elasticities are positive. Tourism and relative prices are weakly exogenous to real GDP. A variation of the Granger Causality test developed by Toda and Yamamoto is performed to reveal the unidirectional causality from tourism to real GDP. Impulse response analysis shows that a shock in tourism expenditure produces a fast positive effect on growth.

Keywords: economic growth; tourism expenditure; Johansen cointegration test; Granger causality; Trentino- Alto Adige.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

International tourism, on which we focus in this paper, is recognized to contribute to long-run growth through diverse channels. This belief that tourism can promote, if not, plainly, cause long-run economic growth is known in the literature as the Tourism-Led Growth Hypothesis (TLGH). Since Shan and Wilson (2001) proposed TLGH, several remarkable researches suggesting the validity of this hypothesis appeared as Balaguer and Cantavella (2002) and Cortez-Jimenez and Paulina (2006) for Spain;

This study seeks to contribute to resolve the questions on the TLGH in the region of Trentino-Alto Adige region of Italy by testing a cointegration, constructing a Vector Autoregression (VAR) model and consequently, setting up a long-run effect of these variables (that is, tourism, relative prices and economic growth) for the Trentino-Alto Adige region. The hypothesis is tested empirically by using the cointegration test by Johansen (1988), Johansen and Joselius (1990) and Johansen (1995). Granger Causality test is not recommendable when there is a cointegration relationship, in so far, the Toda and Yamamoto (1995) modified version of the Granger Causality test (Granger, 1988) is applied.

The paper is organized as follows. In the next section we describe the data of Trentino Alto Adige region considered for the research and the main characteristics of these variables. Section 3 introduces the model specification. In Sections 4 and 5 the results from the empirical analysis and the comparisons with other researches are presented. Finally, Section 6 presents the concluding discussion and further comments.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The tourism sector is very relevant to explain develop in Trentino Alto Adige region. Similarly with the levels of world’s GDP data provided by World Travel and Tourism Council, tourism in the region represents a 10% of the GDP. Trentino Alto Adige has become the Italian region with more tourism investment during the last 40 years. This could be explained by two reasons. On the one hand the strong support of public investment, subsidies and promotional activities by the government of the province could have generated this growth in tourism. On the other hand the shock in tourism could have generated a fast growth of the region economy. Moreover, considering than 60% of the guests in the region are
Germans and 20% are Italians (ASTAT (2008)) the importance of the relative prices could affect the decision of doing tourism in Trentino Alto Adige. Furthermore, there is a regional policy to encourage promotional activities on German markets.

In this study the GDP of Trentino-Alto Adige is used to measure the value of economic growth (Bodie, Alex, and Alan (2001)). Annual time series of GDP (y) were constructed based on ISTAT information concerning the growth rate of GDP from 1980 to 2000 (constant prices of 1995) meanwhile time series from 2000 to 2006 (constant prices 2006) were provided by ASTAT. The variable of Tourism (tt) was obtained from Earning of Tourism, proxy by Hotel and Restaurants, series at constant prices of 2000 from 2000 to 2006 adjusted by series of Commerce, Hotels and Restaurants at prices of 1995 from 1980 and 2000; and Services at prices of 2000 for the year 2007. Relative prices (p) between Trentino-Alto Adige and Germany are considered as a proxy variable of external competitiveness, obtained by Prices of a single room in Alto Adige from 1988-2006 provided by the Institute for Economic Research of the Chamber of Commerce, Industry and Agriculture of Bolzano, adjusted by Consumer Prices Index of Italy 1980-1988, divided by the Consumer Prices in Germany (IMF).

Considering GDP per capita, tourism expenses per capita and relative prices in Trentino Alto Adige region (taking as base 1980) the last two have almost the same growth performance. Figure 1 show that after 2000 tourism per capita decrease meanwhile GDP per capita is stable. This evolution of Tourism and Relative Prices could suggest that the increase of tourism have generated inflation in the region and then this point is relevant to study also causality.

**Figure 1.** Evolution of GDP per capita, Tourism per capita and Relative Prices
MODEL SPECIFICATION

To test the causality between the variables we specify a Vector Auto Regressive (VAR):

\[ U = (\text{Ln } y, \text{Ln } tt, \text{Ln } p) \]  

(1)

The main purpose is to search long-run relationship among the three variables, but a Vector Error Correction model is applied to model the short-run dynamics. Firstly, unit root test are applied to study the stationarity of the series. When the variables of interest are non-stationary or exhibit a unit root, the procedures of conventional econometric technique may not be appropriate (Engle and Granger (1987); Enders (1995)). Granger and Newbold (1974) pointed out that in the presence of non-stationary variables, an OLS regression might become a spurious regression, thereby leading to biased and meaningless results. In growing economies economic time-series data are likely to be non-stationary. Therefore, prior to testing a long-run equilibrium relationship between tourism expansion and economic growth, the Augmented Dickey–Fuller (Dickey and Fuller (1981)) test is used to examine the presence of a unit root for all the study variables, meanwhile the KPSS test that has the null hypothesis of stationarity, would test the contrary hypothesis. In case of non-stationarity we apply the Johansen cointegration test in order to detect long-run relationships in the data. The two-step procedure by Engle and Granger (1987) assumes the existence of only one cointegrating relationship. The general procedure proposed by Johansen (1988) has the advantage of testing all the possible cointegrating relationships. Then weak exogenity is tested in the model. Finally, Toda and Yamamoto causality test is applied in order to analyze causality between the variables. Engle and Granger (1987) and Granger (1988) noted that if two time-series variables are cointegrated, then at least one -directional Granger-causation exists. The existence of a stable long-run relationship (cointegrating relationship) between economic growth and tourism expansion implies that the two variables are causally related at least in one direction. As final step, to answer the question regarding the direction of causation, the Granger causality tests were performed: Since two series of economic growth and tourism expansion are cointegrated of order (1,1), a VAR model can be constructed in terms of the levels of the data (Engle and Granger (1987)).
EMPIRICAL RESULTS

A first step in cointegration analysis is to check the stationarity of the series considering that regressions could produce significant OLS parameter and high R-square but the residuals could be non-stationary.

To analyze the stationarity of the series two complementary unit root tests are implemented: the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) with null hypothesis of nonstationarity and the KPSS that has the null hypothesis of stationarity. According to the results in tables 1 and 2 (unit root tests for the variables in levels and in differences) time series are integrated processes of first order, I(1). Hence, we have to study the existence of a cointegrating relationship.

Table 1. Unit root test result: Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Lny</th>
<th>KPSS</th>
<th>Lntt</th>
<th>KPSS</th>
<th>Lnp</th>
<th>KPSS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit Root Test</td>
<td>ADF</td>
<td>KPSS</td>
<td>ADF</td>
<td>KPSS</td>
<td>ADF</td>
<td>KPSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.52</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>-8.28*</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>-4.11*</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trend, Constant</td>
<td>-0.93</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>-2.78</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>-0.71</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without Trend, Const.</td>
<td>-3.1*</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-12.2*</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Null Hypothesis Rejection at 5%

Table 2. Unit root test result: First difference

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Δ Lny</th>
<th>Δ Lntt</th>
<th>Δ Lnp</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unit Root Test</td>
<td>ADF</td>
<td>KPSS</td>
<td>ADF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>6.24*</td>
<td>0.28*</td>
<td>-2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trend, Constant</td>
<td>-7.18*</td>
<td>0.08*</td>
<td>-5.16*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Without Trend, Const.</td>
<td>-1.66</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-2.82*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Null Hypothesis Rejection at 5%

Following Banerjee et al. (1993), searching for cointegration is searching for a statistical equilibrium between variables tending to grow over time. In so far, a second step is to model the discrepancy of this equilibrium by a Vector Error Correction (VEC) model. The VEC shows
how the variables come back to the equilibrium after suffering a shock. In order to obtain the optimal VEC model we applied the minimum AIC-criterion, suggesting a lag length of two. To determine the number of cointegrating equations, the Johansen maximum likelihood method provides both trace and maximum eigenvalue statistics. Note in Table 3 that trace test detect the existence of one cointegrating vector at 5% level.

A third analysis to avoid inference problems is to check the weak exogeneity of the model in order to prevent incorrect signs (McCallum (1984)). Considering separately the weak exogeneity of the variables, we observe that tourism expenditure is exogenous. Table 4 presents the joint hypothesis of exogeneity for Lntt and Ln\(p\) (\(\alpha_2=\alpha_3=0\)). The test indicates a test statistic of 0.836 and the hypothesis of weak exogeneity cannot be rejected at 5% level (note p-value = 0.65).

### Table 3. Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesized No. of CE</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Trace Stat.</th>
<th>0.05 Critical Value</th>
<th>Prob.**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None*</td>
<td>0.559</td>
<td>37.72</td>
<td>35.19</td>
<td>0.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 1</td>
<td>0.347</td>
<td>17.24</td>
<td>20.26</td>
<td>0.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At most 2</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>6.55</td>
<td>9.16</td>
<td>0.153</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Trace test indicates 1 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level
* Denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level.
**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values

### Table 4. Weakly exogeneity test

Cointegrating Restrictions: H0: A(2,1)=0, A(3,1)=0
Restrictions identify all cointegrating vectors; LR test for biding restrictions (rank=1)
Chi-square(2): 0.836; p-value: 0.65>0.05

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cointegrating Vector after exogeneity</th>
<th>Lny</th>
<th>Lntt</th>
<th>Lnp</th>
<th>constant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lntt</td>
<td>-0.246</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.017</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lnp</td>
<td>-5.469</td>
<td></td>
<td>[19.89]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A(2,1) and A(3,1) are the adjustment coefficients in the Lntt and
Lnp equations of the VEC, respectively.

Cointegration by itself does not indicate the direction of the causal relationship. Granger (1988) proposed a test to study causality, that can be captured from the VAR model, but since variables are integrated it application is invalid. Toda and Yamamoto (1995) suggest an alternative procedure, estimating VAR model with (k+dmax) lags, where k is the standard optimal number of lags and dmax is the maximal order of integration that we suspect might occur in the process. Considering the estimated VAR we test Granger causality only using the first k lags. In this case we test with 3 lags (k= 2 the optimum lag level and dmax= 1 optimum number of serial integration with a unit root).

If we consider the following equation from VAR model:

\[ Lny_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Lny_{t-1} + \beta_2 Lny_{t-2} + \beta_3 Lny_{t-3} + \beta_4 Lntt_{t-1} + \beta_5 Lntt_{t-2} + \beta_6 Lntt_{t-3} + \beta_7 Lnp_{t-1} + \beta_8 Lnp_{t-2} + \beta_9 Lnp_{t-3} + \beta_{10} \]  

(2)

The null hypothesis of non-causality from Tourism to GDP should be H0: \( \beta_4 = \beta_5 = 0 \). This hypothesis is tested using Wald test.

Table 5 shows the results for all the variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Null hypothesis</th>
<th>F-statistic</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism does not Granger Cause Growth</td>
<td>6,826</td>
<td>0.033*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth does not Granger Cause Tourism</td>
<td>1,511</td>
<td>0.469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prices does not Granger Cause Growth</td>
<td>3,249</td>
<td>0.197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Growth does not Granger Cause Prices</td>
<td>4,746</td>
<td>0.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prices does not Granger Cause Tourism</td>
<td>0,209</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism does not Granger Cause Prices</td>
<td>2,486</td>
<td>0.288</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Indicates rejection of the null hypothesis at 5%.

The following Equation 3 shows the long-run equilibrium after testing weak ergogeneity of tourism and relative prices:

\[ Lny = 0.223462 \times (Lntt) + 0.029182 \times (Lnp) - 5,2874 \]  

(3)
Summarizing, tourism and relative prices are weakly exogenous and in the long-run, tourism Granger-cause real GDP of Trentino-Alto Adige and an increase in tourism demand by 100% produces an increment of 22% of the real product of the region. Moreover, as it is shown in the below impulse-response figure 2, after a shock in the number of foreign tourists real GDP in Trentino-Alto Adige there is a continuous growth, meanwhile present a initial contraction and then a growth in case of relative price shock. In this figure is pointed out the effect of a shock in tourism and relative prices over the Trentino-Alto Adige economy growth. Meanwhile a shock in relative prices show a J-curve shape (Magee, 1973) producing first a negative response (real devaluation) for seven quarters and then a positive reaction on the real GDP, a shock in tourism positively affects the long-run real GDP.

Figure 2. Impulse Response Functions of GDP

COMPARING RESULTS

In comparison with the papers mentioned in the introduction that support TLGH, we can remark for this study, that there is a unidirectional causality as in the following researchs: Balaguer and Cantavella (2002) for Spain, Brida et al.(2008) for Mexico, Eugenio-Martín et al. (2004) for high and medium income Latin American Countries, Gunduz and Hatemi-J (2005) for Turkey, Lanza et al.(2003) and Lee and Chang (2008) for OECD countries, Noriko and Motosugu (2007) for the Amami islands and Proença and Soukiazis (2005) for Portugal. Moreover, we obtained Granger causal relationship between tourism and economic growth.
There is a cointegration relationship between the three variables, and affects positively economic growth. The corresponding elasticity of tourism demand has a significant effect on economic growth (22%). That provides the necessary arguments to support TLGH for Trentino-Alto Adige. In comparing the Trentino-Alto Adige elasticity of 0.22, that is higher than the old-tourism economies (as Spain-0.06, Italy-0.08 and Portugal- 0.01) and below the higher tourism potential countries (as Mexico-0.67 or Mauritius 0.77), we can consider that the region is in the average of the developed economies. Moreover, whereas the response of a shock in prices would generate a J-curve shape, in comparison with higher tourism potential countries, there is not causality from the relative prices to the economic growth.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper shows that international tourism expenditure positively impacts Trentino-Alto Adige economy. The elasticity of real GDP to tourism expenditure (0.22) shows that an increment of 100% in the tourism expenditure produces an increment of almost 22% of the real product. However relative prices produce positive but low effect (0.03). The results indicate that the TLGH is empirically supported for the Trentino-Alto Adige economy.

Causality testing shows that the number of international tourists visiting South Tyrol and the relative prices between Trentino Alto Adige and Germany are weakly exogenous and that, in the long-run, they Granger-cause real GDP. In conclusion, enthusiastic tourist-attracting policies as a means of economic development may be effective, and tourism policies to stimulate new tourism demand should be essential to take Trentino-Alto Adige from an average to a higher tourism potential region. In this way the effect of relative prices could take more relevance over the real GDP.

REFERENCES


IMF, EconStats, www.econstats.com


ENDNOTES

1. Granger causality test uses the LR test to contrast the null hypothesis. However, as Toda and Yamamoto (1995) point out that Wald and LR test are asymptotically equivalent, so, is correct to test the hypothesis with Wald test.
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RECREATION IN THE AREA OF RIVER ARDAS:
THE VIEWS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PUPILS

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Elementary School of Dikaia

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River Ardas in Greece is an area of outstanding natural beauty and used as a recreation area. Each year the area is visited by people of all ages. Children visit the place either with their school or with their parents. It is important to study their views about the river as a recreation area. The children asked were pupils of the elementary schools of the region. All of these children had visited the area before. The majority of the children declare satisfied from their visit in the area and assess the landscape positively. However, most of them have a less positive view about the provided recreation services. Through the use of hierarchical loglinear analysis it becomes clear that pupils who declare from totally to very satisfied regarding their visit in the recreation area of Ardas also find that the provided recreation services range from very good to good. The same pupils also believe that that the river constitutes from very small to fair danger to their safety and visit the place more than five times a year. In addition, the pupils who visit the area more than five times a year think that the river constitutes from very small to fair danger to their safety. Most of the pupils think that the diversity of plants ranges from big to very big while the diversity of animals ranges from small to very small. There is a need for improved infrastructure in the area, e.g. observatories, so that pupils can discover the wild animals that live there. The love of the children for animals becomes obvious from the fact that they do not wish the prohibition of pets in the place. Most of the pupils like the idea of camping in the area with their parents but the idea of doing so with their fellow pupils is even more popular. The children think that their parents would find it easier to grant permission to them to camp in the area if they themselves accompanied their children and not if their children did so together with their
fellow pupils. Through the test of independence it becomes obvious that the will of the children to camp in the area depends on the will of their parents.

Keywords: river Ardas, recreation, elementary school pupils

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

River Ardas (290 km) is located in the Balkans in SE Europe. River Ardas is tributary to the River Evros. River Ardas springs from Bulgaria, from the Koula mountains, and runs through the northern section of the Prefecture of Evros, Greece, for 36 km in a W-E direction. River Ardas joins River Evros at the area of the Kastanies village in NE Evros and then enters Turkey. Its name in ancient times was Arpissos or Artiskos.

River Ardas is very important to the people who live in the nearby town of Orestiada but also the inhabitants of the surrounding area. The river is economically important for its water resources and many other services associated with it. One could mention the fact that the river irrigates an area of 200,000 ha in the Prefecture of Evros but also activities such as fishing, hunting, sport, recreation and generally everything that could be characterized as recreation.

River Ardas and its surrounding area is an area of outstanding natural beauty. Of particular beauty is the part of that area which has been developed by the Municipality of Vissa as a recreation area. Elementary or high school students visit the area through daily school excursions or with their parents in their free time. In the management of a recreation area the final goal is the enjoyment of those who use it (Douglass, 2000). The elimination of whatever problems exist in the area will have to be a priority for all those who are interested for the development of that area (Karanikola & Tampakis, 2006). The investigation, therefore, of the view of pupils for the recreation area of river Ardas on problems which, according to them, would need to be solved, is a prerequisite for the success of any effort by the responsible authorities for the development of the area.

In particular, we are interested in studying the frequency of visits of the children in the area either with their family or their school, how they evaluate the landscape (natural beauty of the area), the diversity of wild animals and plants of the area, the provided recreation services as well the extent to which they perceive the river as danger to their safety. In addition, the pupils were asked if they threw garbage outside the rubbish
bins and if they would like pets to be allowed in the area. Also, in order to investigate the extent to which the children feel close to nature, the children were asked if they would like to camp in the area (even for one night) either with their family or with their fellow pupils and if their parents would like to accompany them or allow them to camp in the area together with their fellow pupils.

RESEARCH METHOD

The research was carried out in November 2008 through the use of self-management questionnaires. In the research participated the total of the pupils of the 5th and 6th grade (11 and 12 years old) of primary education schools in the region of Northern Evros. Although the research was about the problems of the recreation area of river Ardas, nevertheless, the questionnaires were completed in the classrooms. The reason we chose to do so was the fact that it would have been difficult for the pupils to complete the questionnaire if this was done in the actual area around the river, during their excursion, but also the fact that their concentration would have been greater if they completed the questionnaire in their classrooms rather than in area of the river.

The total of the pupils asked were 444, all of whom were present in the classroom the day the questionnaire was distributed. From those 444 pupils, two declared that they had not visited the area and for this reason they were not included in the research. So, the population under research was 442 pupils, 50.9% of whom were enrolled in the 5th grade and 49.1% in the 6th grade. From those pupils 51.1% were boys and 48.9% were girls.

For the variables “degree of satisfaction” and “services provided”, “danger to safety” and “frequency of visit”, frequency analysis was carried out for more than two criteria. In particular, loglinear analysis was used.

Prior to carrying out loglinear analysis, it was decided to examine the expected frequencies in the contingency table (Siardos, 1999). A large number of expected frequencies (more than 20%) of less than 5 but not lower than 1, possibly leads to a loss in the effectiveness of the applied analysis (Tabachick & Fidell, 1989). This examination is carried out through control of bivariate contingency tables (Norusis, 1994; Frangos, 2004). Classes were grouped together in order to satisfy the above criteria.
Our data are classified in accordance with 4 criteria and expressed in terms of frequencies. The null hypothesis, \( H_0 \), is that the 4 criteria are fully independent from each other.

It is unlikely that this assumption will be accepted, but the analysis will give information on the strength of various interrelations and this will be included in a model that expresses the interrelations between the data (Frangos, 2004).

In order to estimate the degree of correspondence between the model and the data, statistical tests of optimum adjustment were used. Statistical significance shows that the model under examination does not reflect accurately the observed frequencies, while statistical non-significance means that the model under examination is adjusted to the observed frequencies. The statistical test used is the test \( \chi^2 \) (Howitt & Gramer, 2003).

Finally, in order to interpret the model of optimum adjustment, we present the data in the form of one or two – dimensional tables (Howitt & Gramer, 2003).

Also, in all the possible pairs of variables “camping with the family”, “participation of parents in camping”, “camping with fellow pupils” and “by the permission of parents” the test of independence was applied.

The assumption of independence refers to the independence of two features while the criterion used is \( \chi^2 \) (Mendenhall, 1979; Kiohos, 1993; Steel, Torrie & Dickey, 1997; Makrakis, 1997; Pagano & Gauvreau, 2000; Retiniotis, 2004). In the test of independence of features the null hypothesis which is tested is “\( H_0 \): there is no difference between the variables”.

In order for the test of independence to be credible the expected frequencies should not be smaller than 1, while those which are smaller than 5 should not exceed 20% of the total (Koliva-Machaira & Mpora-Senta, 1995; Gnardellis, 2003; Siomkos & Vasilikopoulou, 2005).

The statistical test \( \chi^2 \) is based on the comparison between expected and observed frequencies and is carried out via the Crosstabs procedure of the statistical program SPSS (Apostolakis & Kastania, 1994; Howitt and Gramer, 2003; Frangos, 2004). The sampling distribution of the quantity \( \chi^2 \) (under the condition that the two variables are independent) is approached by the distribution \( \chi^2 \) with \( v=(r-1)(k-1) \) degrees of freedom (Kiohos, 1993; Gnardellis, 2006).

However, neither the measurement of intensity nor the determination of the nature of the (probable) relation between the variables result from the statistical \( \chi^2 \) (its value depends on the size of the sample) (Tsantas, Moisiadis, Bagiatis & Chatzipantelis, 1999). In categorical variables
meaningful measures are only the intensity and measures which are based on the statistical $\chi^2$, and in particular the phi coefficient, Graper’s V coefficient and the correlation coefficient (Tsantas, Moisiadis, Bagiatis & Chatzipantelis, 1999; Retiniotis, 2004). The phi coefficient also examines the direction between the variables (Siomkos & Vasilikopoulou, 2005).

The SPSS statistical package was used to analyze the data.

RESULTS

River Ardas and its surrounding area is an area of outstanding natural beauty but most people like to visit a section of the river which has been shaped as a recreation area by the local authorities, i.e. the Municipality of Vissa. 51.1% of the pupils with their families visit the area from 1 to 5 times a year, 22.9% from 6 to 10 times, 14.5% from 11 to 20 times, 6.1% more than 20 times a year, while 5.4% say they have never visited the area with their family. In a similar question regarding visiting the area with the school, 83.9% say they visit the area once a year, 13.1% more than once, while 2.9% has never visited the area. This means that the schools of the area visit the place at least once a year. So, visits of the area by pupils are as follows: 45.5% of the pupils visit the area from 1 to 5 times a year, 25.6% from 6 to 10 times, 17.9% from 11 to 20 times while 11.1% more than 20 times a year.

The majority of the pupils are satisfied from their visits in the area. 28.1% declare that they are totally satisfied, 34.8% very satisfied and 27.6% satisfied. A little satisfied are 7.2% of the pupils, not at all satisfied 0.7% while 1.6% of the pupils did not answer the question. Therefore, river Ardas and its surrounding area, both at family and school level, is a popular destination.

Regarding evaluation of the landscape (the natural beauty of the area) the opinions of the pupils are the following: 59.3% think it is very good, 27.6% good, 11.5% fair, 0.2% bad and 0.7% very bad. 0.7% of the pupils did not answer the question.

The visitors in a recreation area require of that area to be well-organized and have the proper facilities. We see, therefore, that the provided recreation services in the area can be the subject for great improvement (Chatzistathis & Ispikoudis, 1995). Regarding the evaluation of the recreation services provided, 14.9% of the pupils think they are very good, 38.2% good, 30.8% fair, 13.6% bad and 1.8% very bad. 0.7% of the pupils did not answer the question. Generally, visitors hold similar opinions. In a similar research regarding visitors of Ardas, 3.4% think they are very good, 36.4% good, 42.7% fair, 14% bad, 3.2%
very bad while 0.3% of the visitors did not answer the question (Tampakis, Karanikola, Tsantopoulos & Tomadakis, 2005).

Regarding evaluation of the diversity of species in and around river Ardas, the pupils think that that of plants is large, whereas the diversity of wild animals, is quite restricted. In particular, regarding the diversity of plant species 18.8% of the pupils think is very large, 34.8% large, 30.5% fair, 9% small, and 5.4% very small while 1.4% of the pupils did not answer the question. Regarding the diversity of wild animal species 20.6% of the pupils think it is very small, 30.3% small, 39.1% fair, 5.9% big and 2.5% very big, while 1.6% of the pupils did not answer the question.

The love for animals is also evident from the fact that 59.5% of the pupils do not seem to be disturbed by the presence of animals, e.g. dogs, etc. while, at the same time, they think that animals should be allowed in the area. 29% of the pupils declare that animals should not be allowed in the area while 11.5% did not know how to answer the question. In a similar research project regarding the area of river Ardas, 48.4% of the visitors think that animals should be allowed in the area, 21.5% that animals should not be allowed while 30.1% did not know the answer (Tampakis, Karanikola, Tsantopoulos & Tomadakis, 2005). However, irrespective of the above views, in areas in which children play or in areas visited by children, for reasons of health, animals should not be allowed.

Although the river’s water constitutes for this particular recreation area a comparative development advantage, a large percentage of pupils think that the water constitutes a danger both to their own safety and the safety of other children. In particular, 26.9% think this is a great danger, 25.1% fair, 17.6% very big, 16.1% small, and 14% very small, while 0.2% of the pupils did not answer the question.

Prior to the application of loglinear analysis, we examined the crossing table (Table 1) and observed that all expected frequencies are bigger than 5, and hence, there is no problem with low expected frequencies. We further observed that there is a disparity between the observed and the expected frequencies. This indicates that the assumption of the full independence of these four criteria is incorrect.

Applying hierarchical loglinear analysis, after the removal of the correlation term of fourth and third class, it was established that the most appropriate model was the one which includes the impact and the interaction of the variables divided by two. We have interaction per 4 and 3 criteria, because the $X^2$ for the Pearson test is 4.482 with probability (p)=0.723 and because the $X^2$ likelihood ratio is 4.608 with probability (p)=0.708. The above are confirmed by the “null” controls for the
interaction of k terms and terms of higher degree, as well as the “null” controls for the interaction of k terms (Norusis, 1994). As shown in table 2, there is no interaction per 4 criteria because the value of probability (p) = 0.3509. In addition, there is no interaction per 3 criteria because the value of probability (p) = 0.5704. However, there is interaction per 2 criteria because the probability (p) < 0.05. Indeed, in the four pairs of variables “degree of satisfaction” – “services provided”, “degree of satisfaction” – “danger to safety”, “degree of satisfaction” – “frequency of visit” and “danger to safety” – “frequency of visit”, there is significant statistical interaction.

Table 1. Cross-tabulation of the four variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of satisfaction</th>
<th>Services provided</th>
<th>Danger to safety</th>
<th>Frequency of visit</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1-5 times</td>
<td>&gt; 5 times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very small - Fair</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very small - Fair</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big - Very big</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>37.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big - Very big</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>103.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair - Very bad</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair - Very bad</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>41.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big - Very big</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big - Very big</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very small - Fair</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very small - Fair</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big - Very big</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big - Very big</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair - Very bad</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very small - Fair</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big - Very big</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big - Very big</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to interpret the interactions, we should first present all the data in the form of four tables (Crosstabs). From table 3 we see that the pupils who declare totally to very satisfied from their visit in the recreation area of Ardas find the provided recreation services from very
good to good. Those who declare satisfied to not at all satisfied evaluate the provided services from fair to very bad.

Table 2. Nullity controls.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>k</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>L.R. $X^2$</th>
<th>Probability</th>
<th>Pearson $X^2$</th>
<th>Probability</th>
<th>Iteration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.869</td>
<td>0.3514</td>
<td>0.870</td>
<td>0.3509</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.813</td>
<td>0.5767</td>
<td>3.796</td>
<td>0.5792</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>71.830</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>85.915</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>116.186</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>143.849</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tests that k-way and higher order effects are zero.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>k</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>L.R. $X^2$</th>
<th>Probability</th>
<th>Pearson $X^2$</th>
<th>Probability</th>
<th>Iteration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>44.356</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>57.934</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>68.017</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>82.120</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.944</td>
<td>0.5672</td>
<td>2.925</td>
<td>0.5704</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.869</td>
<td>0.3514</td>
<td>0.870</td>
<td>0.3509</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tests that k-way effects are zero.

k: the number of effects being zero; df: degrees of freedom.

Table 3. Cross-tabulation of the “degree of satisfaction” and “services provided” variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of satisfaction</th>
<th>Services provided</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>Fair - Very bad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totally satisfied - Very satisfied</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>146.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied - Not at all satisfied</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>83.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>-21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>230.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 4 we see that the pupils who declare totally to very satisfied from their visit to river Ardas believe that regarding their safety the river constitutes from a very small to moderate danger, while those who declare from satisfied to not all satisfied they think that danger in the river ranges from big to very big.

From table 5 we see that the pupils who declare from totally to very satisfied from their visit to Ardas they visit the river more than five times a year, while those who declare from satisfied to not at all satisfied visit the area a few times a year (from one to five).
Finally, from table 6 we see that the pupils who think that the river constitutes from very small to moderate danger to their safety visit the river more than five times a year, while those who think that the river constitutes from big to very big danger to their safety visit the area from one to five times a year.

When using the area 73.8% of the pupils declare that they do not throw garbage outside of the rubbish bins. However, 18.1% say that they do throw garbage outside the rubbish bins and 8.1% did not answer the question.

69.5% of the pupils see positively the idea of camping in the area with their parents even for one night. 24% of the pupils are against camping in the area while 6.6% say they do not know how to answer the question. Indeed, in a percentage of 45.5% say that their parents too would like to camp with them, while 28.5% declares the opposite. 26% of the pupils did not answer the question.

**Table 4. Cross-tabulation of the “degree of satisfaction” and “danger to safety” variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of satisfaction</th>
<th>Danger to safety</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Very small -</td>
<td>Big -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>Very big</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totally satisfied -</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very satisfied</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>154.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>-22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied - Not at</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all satisfied</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>87.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>-22.5</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>242.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5. Cross-tabulation of the “degree of satisfaction” and “frequency of visit” variables.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of satisfaction</th>
<th>Frequency of visit</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-5 times</td>
<td>&gt; 5 times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totally satisfied -</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very satisfied</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>126.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>-19.5</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied - Not at</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>all satisfied</td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>71.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>-19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expected Count</td>
<td>198.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In a similar question regarding camping in the area, even for one night, with their fellow-pupils, 88.9% says they would like to do so. 7.9% of the pupils answer the question negatively while 3.2% does not know the answer to that question. However, the pupils think that their parents would be more negative on that issue. In particular, 34.4% of the pupils believe that they will have the permission of their parents to do that, 37.1% believe they will not have the permission of their parents while 28.5% say that they do not know the reaction of their parents to that issue.

In the above variables the test of independence was applied. It is important to note that before we applied the test of independence we grouped the answers “No” and “I do not know”. Through the test of independence we tested the null hypothesis: \( H_0 \): there is no difference between the variables.

In order to save time we cite only the results for the variables for which the null hypothesis is rejected. In particular, for the following variables:

a) “camping with family” – “parents would like to camp”
b) “camping with family” – “camping with fellow pupils”
c) “parents would like to camp” – “parents would permit camping”
d) “camping with fellow pupils” – “parents would permit camping”

For the above pairs of variables we have zero cells (0.0%) with expected frequency smaller than 5. So, the necessary hypothesis in order to use Pearson’s \( \chi^2 \) is satisfied.

For the first pair of variables the value of Pearson’s \( \chi^2 \) is 16.173 with 1 degree of freedom while the correlation is statistically significant with level of significance \( a < 0.005 \). This shows that there is a strong
correlation between the variables “camping with family” and “parents would like to camp”.

Also, we would have reached the same conclusion if we had used Yates’ continuity correction (in tables 2×2). The value $\chi^2$ with continuity correction is 15.350 with 1 degree of freedom while the correlation is statistically significant with level of significance $a < 0.005$. We are led to the same conclusion by the value $\chi^2$ of the likelihood ratio which is 16.523 with 1 degree of freedom while the correlation is statistically significant with level of significance $a < 0.005$. This test is sometimes used as an alternative to Pearson’s $\chi^2$ while for larger samples it is approximately the same (Tsantas, Moisiadis, Bagiatis & Chatzipantelis, 1999).

In addition, referring to the direction of the results, we see that the pupils who declare that they desire to camp with their parents in the area of Ardas also think that their parents would like to camp with them, while the pupils who do not answer or answer negatively regarding the idea of camping believe that their parents will answer negatively or that they do not know their reaction.

Also, we are led to the same conclusion by the phi coefficient which equals 0.191 (positive) with the correlation between the variables being statistically significant ($a < 0.005$). Gramer’s V coefficient is 0.191 while the correlation is statistically significant ($a < 0.005$). If one of the two dimensions of the table is 2, the V coefficient is identical with the phi coefficient (Retiniotis, 2004). The coefficient of contingency is 0.188 with the correlation between the variables being statistically significant ($a < 0.005$).

For the second pair of variables the value of Pearson’s $\chi^2$ is 24.454 with 1 degree of freedom while the correlation is statistically significant with level of significance $a < 0.005$. This shows that there is a strong correlation between the variables “camping with parents” and “camping with fellow pupils”. We are led to the same conclusion by the value $\chi^2$ with continuity correction which is 22.855 with 1 degree of freedom while the correlation is statistically significant with level of significance $a < 0.005$. We are also led to the same conclusion by the $\chi^2$ value of the likelihood ratio which is 22.354 with 1 degree of freedom while the correlation is statistically significant with level of significance being $a < 0.005$.

Also, referring to the direction of the results, we see that the pupils who declare that they want to camp with their parents in the area of Ardas also declare that they want to do the same with their fellow pupils, while the pupils who do not answer or answer negatively regarding camping
with their parents do not answer or answer negatively regarding camping with their fellow pupils.

We are also led to the above conclusion by the phi coefficient which equals 0.235 (positive) with the correlation between the variables being statistically significant ($a < 0.005$). Gramer’s V coefficient also gets the same value while the coefficient of contingency is 0.229 and the correlation between the variables is statistically significant ($a < 0.005$).

For the third pair of variables the value of Pearson’s $X^2$ is 12.925 with 1 degree of freedom while the correlation is statistically significant with level of significance $a < 0.005$. This shows that there is a strong correlation between the variables “parents would like to camp” and “parents would permit camping”. Also, we are led to the same conclusion by 1) the value $X^2$ with continuity correction 12.212 with 1 degree of freedom and statistically significant correlation with level of significance $a < 0.005$ and 2) the value $X^2$ of the likelihood ratio which is 12.929 with 1 degree of freedom and statistically significant correlation with level of significance $a < 0.005$.

Although referring to the direction of results we see that the pupils who believe that their parents would like to camp with them in Ardas also believe that their parents would allow them to camp in the area of the river with their fellow pupils. This is in contradiction with the pupils where a negative or no answer in the first variable leads to a negative or no answer in the second variable.

Also, we are led to the same conclusion by the phi coefficient which is equal to 0.171 (positive) while the correlation between the variables is statistically significant ($a < 0.005$). In addition, the Gramer V coefficient gets the same value while the coefficient of contingency is 0.169 and the correlation between the variables is statistically significant ($a < 0.005$).

For the fourth pair of variables the value of Pearson’s $X^2$ is 9.871 with 1 degree of freedom while the correlation is statistically significant with level of significance $a < 0.005$. This shows that there is a strong correlation between the variables “camping with fellow pupils” and “parents would allow camping with fellow students”. Also, we are led to the same conclusion by 1) the value $X^2$ with continuity correction 8.895 with 1 degree of freedom and statistically significant correlation with level of significance $a < 0.005$ and 2) the value $X^2$ of the likelihood ratio which is 11.235 with 1 degree of freedom and statistically significant correlation with level of significance $a < 0.005$.

Also, referring to the direction of the results we see that the students who declare that they wish to camp with their fellow pupils in the river Ardas also believe that their parents would allow them to do so,
while the pupils who do not answer or answer negatively regarding the idea of camping with their fellow pupils also believe that their parents would not allow them to do so or they do not know if their parents would give them such permission.

Also, we are led to the same conclusion by the phi coefficient which is equal to 0.149 (positive) while the correlation between the variables is statistically significant (a < 0.005). In addition, the Gramer V coefficient gets the same value while the coefficient of contingency is 0.148 and the correlation between the variables is statistically significant (a < 0.005).

DISCUSSION – CONCLUSIONS

The recreation area of Ardas is a popular destination for family and school excursions. The children can entertain themselves and get to know the natural environment in the area. Pupils from the fifth and sixth grade of the primary schools of the area, almost in their entirety, have visited the area, and to a great degree declare satisfied from their visit and evaluate the place positively. However, the pupils are not as positive about the recreation services provided which shows that these services need to be improved.

The majority of the pupils believe that the diversity of plants ranges from big to very big, while the diversity of wild animals ranges from small to very small. The opinion pupils have regarding the diversity of animals in the area may be improved either by teaching the children methods by which animals are approached and observed or by constructing the appropriate infrastructure, e.g. building an observatory for observing birds from a distance, creating the appropriate facilities for observing fish in the water, etc. Such facilities are important if the recreation area of the river Ardas is to be improved.

Children love animals. Indeed, the majority of pupils does not wish the prohibition of animals in the area, e.g. dogs, etc. Whatever improvements may occur in the area of river Ardas should take into account both the sensitivity of the children but also the rules for hygiene and safety which are dictated for areas which constitute a playground for children. One solution would be to divide the place in areas where animals would be allowed and where animals would not be allowed.

The existence of water is an important factor for the development of any recreation area. The river, therefore, is the reason parents and children visit the area. Most of the time the quantity of water in the river is quite limited which means that it does not really constitute a real danger to children. The truth is that as a result of their effort to protect their children
parents exaggerate in their behavior and pass the message that the river is dangerous to small children. Teachers during daily excursions also prohibit the children to get near to the river but such behavior can be excused because of the great responsibility they have towards children but also because of the large number of pupils under their supervision. Building a low wooden fence at the river bank would strengthen the sense of safety of the pupils as well as the image of the river as an organized recreation area.

Through the application of loglinear analysis we found that in four pairs of variables there is significant statistical interaction. We see that the pupils who declare from totally to very satisfied from their visit in the recreation area of Ardas find the provided recreation services from very good to good, believe that the river constitutes from very small to fair danger to their safety and visit the river more than five times per year. Indeed, the pupils who visit the area more than five times per year believe that the river constitutes from very small to fair danger to their safety. Therefore, by improving the provided recreation services and strengthening the sense of safety in the area the result will be increased satisfaction and more visits in the area.

A small percentage of pupils say that they throw garbage outside the rubbish bins provided. Such negative behavior by the pupils could be explained by the fact that during an excursion pupils are usually less disciplined but also by the fact that there is no sufficient number of rubbish bins. However, this behavior by the children does not seem to be related to the area but seems a daily habit. We should mention that at the end of a school excursion the teachers organize the cleaning of the place getting all pupils to clean the area. A better idea would be for teachers to care for the cleaning of the area at all times during the excursion and not only at the end of the excursion. One of the goals of such excursions is the training of pupils in appropriate behaviors.

Daily excursions offer pupils many stimuli but spending the night and camping in the area, either with their family or their school is a great experience which will never be forgotten. Most of the pupils (69.5%) see positively the idea of camping with their family in the area (even for one night) and believe that their parents would approve such an idea (45.5%). The idea of camping in the area with their fellow pupils is more popular among pupils (88.9%), but they think that it would be more difficult for their parents to approve such an idea as only 37.1% of the pupils believe that their parents would do so.

Camp is a great place for children to escape their everyday life and find adventure and excitement, all while enjoying the natural world
around them. A camp setting offers the opportunity to try new activities that might not otherwise be available, e.g. sing silly songs around a campfire, hike beautiful foot trails, go on scavenger hunts, and create arts and crafts projects. Children often shine at camp, as they are enveloped in a non-competitive and creative atmosphere. This allows them to express themselves through collecting, digging and exploring, or whatever way they feel most comfortable. Camp is often regarded as an important source of self discovery and personal inspiration.

Through the test of independence it becomes obvious that there is a strong correlation among the four pairs of variables. In particular, we see that a) the pupils who declare that they wish to camp with their family in the area of Ardas also believe that their parents would like to camp with them, b) the pupils who declare that they wish to camp with their family in the area of Ardas also wish to camp there with their fellow pupils, c) the pupils who believe that their parents would like to camp with them in the area also believe that their parents would also allow them to camp in the area with their fellow pupils and d) the pupils who declare that they wish to camp in the area with their fellow pupils also believe that their parents would allow them to do so. From the above it becomes obvious that the will of the children to camp in the area of river Ardas depends on the will of their parents. Camping in nature is also a means for bringing children closer to it. Perhaps, we should encourage such efforts if we want to decrease the fears children have for nature as well as make them realize that they are part of nature.

REFERENCES


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UNDERSTANDING TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: A REPRESENTATIONAL APPROACH

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The article investigates hotel employees and postgraduate students’ representations of “tourism development”, using social representations theory. Data from a sample of eighty participants were collected on Chios Island, Greece. To reveal social representations a word association procedure was applied followed by a correspondence analysis. The analysis attempts to map the meanings associated with “tourism development” and to pinpoint the links between those meanings. Results highlight differences and similarities in the representation of “tourism development” according to individuals’ social membership, offering an interesting insight for employers and educators.

Keywords: tourism development, social representations, word associations, hotel employees, tourism education

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Throughout the world, tourism development is considered to have significant social and economic impact and implications, encompassing the links between people and institutions that are involved in this development (Pearce and Butler, 1999). In literature, a lively discussion exists on the development of tourism, its rapid and continuing growth, its processes and consequences. However, little attention has been paid to the meaning and symbolism of that development. According to Sharpley and Talffer (2002) tourism development seems to be an “ambiguous concept” both semantically and in terms of its means and objectives. Such an ambiguity implies that “tourism development” does not have a universally agreed definition (Gartner, 1996). In this sense, investigating how people
make sense of “tourism development” especially those who are actively involved with it, such as hotel employees and tourism students, is of particular interest. In order to grasp a picture on meanings and beliefs of hotel employees and tourism students and how those meanings are applied in social reality, a socially oriented approach is required. The study reported here describes the social representations of “tourism development”.

The phenomenon of tourism has long been examined by various writers and has been defined differently by different theoretical disciplines. The importance and value of social representation theory in tourism studies has been outlined in previous research (i.e Pearce, Moscardo and Ross, 1996; Andriotis and Vaughan, 2003). According to Pearce et al (1991) social representations can be used to understand how different groups think about tourism and the results can be taken into account in the tourism planning process. Thus, adopting a social representation approach indicates that psychologists can contribute to a better understanding of what tourism development really implies, by providing a theoretical and interpretive framework to examine individuals’ responses to tourism proposals.

In this article, questions central to the meaning and the social construction of “tourism development” will be explored. In particular the study focuses on mapping the representations of students aiming at a given professional field and hotel employees, contributing to the dialogue on social representation theory in tourism studies. Moreover, by identifying similarities and differences the article aims to pinpoint the relationship between representations and occupational status offering an interesting insight for employers and educators. The cultural context of the student milieu serves as a vehicle for representations favourable to a more societal perspective of the world and condemns, though not always explicitly, mechanistic discourses and worldviews. In other words, educational discourse transmits not just knowledge, but also conceptions of the world and of the place of human society in it (Korfiatis, Stamou and Paraskevopoulos, 2004). In agreement with Christou (1999: 684) “education allows individuals or groups to become controllers of change, rather than victims of it”. Thus, it is hypothesised that students’ representations will not be primarily structured by an instrumental dimension of tourism development. On the other hand, the cultural context in which hotel employees move differs profoundly from the students’ milieu. Their working environment and personal implication in the tourism industry lead them to adopt a more individualistic dimension of tourism development.
The article starts by outlining the key points of social representation theory. The second part presents the methodological principles and procedure that leads to the empirical results. Finally, conclusions are drawn which consider both the implications of the similarities and differences between hotel employees and students. In depth understanding of the lay discourse on “tourism development” sheds light on the construction of a worldview of the study populations, helping educators and employers to identify real concerns and issues.

THEORY OF SOCIAL REPRESENTATIONS

Drawing on the work of Serge Moscovici (1963), social representations are built on shared knowledge and understanding of common reality. Social representation theory developed for the study of lay knowledge (Moscovici, 1961), addresses issues which are also of concern to other theoretical framework and research traditions, such as culture, common sense and shared cognition. But the theory is especially relevant for understanding new societal events in rapid change (Lahlou, 1996). Tourism development appears to be an interesting topic for the attention of a social representations framework.

The key point is that social representations constitute collective systems of meaning which may be expressed, or whose effects may be observed in values, ideas and practises (Duveen and Lloyd, 1993). Social representation theory specialised on a crossroads, at the articulation between individuals and social, and between symbolic and real (Moscovici, 1982). They are embodied in habitual behaviour, in formal and informal communication, allowing us to construct a framework of references that facilitates our interpretations of reality and guides our relations to the world around us. In other words, social representations are products of interconnectedness between people and processes of references through which we conceive the world (Deaux and Philogène, 2001).

In agreement with Doise, Clémence and Lorenzi-Cioldi (1993) social representations are organising principles of symbolic relationships between individuals and groups. Thus, as it is described by Deaux and Philogène (2001) a first assumption on which this definition is grounded is that various members of a population under study share common views about a given social issue. However, social representation theory implies that variations of these meanings depend upon group memberships held by individuals, as they are anchored in other collective symbolic realities. The view which group members maintain about a social object is specific
for the group and, hence, the object itself takes on group specific social characteristics. Talk and overt action provide the frame of description of these characteristics. Images, and verbal metaphors, as they are used in everyday life, are the basic means for understanding and grasping of the world (Bauer and Gaskell, 1999). As a consequence, social representation theory is a “constructivist as well as a discursively oriented approach” (Wagner et al, 1992: 96). In order to understand tourism development the current study adopts the word association method. Exploring social representations and how and why these may differ when we locate social actors by taking into account their social positioning, offers an understanding for the development of better educational and managerial approaches.

WORD ASSOCIATIONS

To elicit social representations of hotel employees and tourism students, linguistic material, such as the free associations of words method, was used. This technique is considered to minimise the researcher bias typically created by closed questionnaires, as the answers produced are unfiltered and spontaneous. It is based on the assumption that giving a stimulus word and asking the respondent to freely associate what ideas come to his or her mind gives relatively unrestricted access to mental representations of the stimulus term (Wagner, Valencia and Elejabarrieta, 1996; Hirsh and Tree, 2001; Hovardas and Korfiatis, 2004). The resulting free associations data has the benefit that it can be relatively easy formalised and utilised in a wide range of ways. Free association tasks have frequently been used for the study of social representations and it is also considered to be a very useful technique to use at the beginning of an empirical research on social representations (De Rosa, 198). By viewing tourism development in the context of other reference points, it is possible to see likely anchors and frames people used to make and thus understand the reality of the social actor.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Data were collected on the island of Chios, located in the North Aegean Sea, Greece. A random sample of tourism personnel, who interact in their workplace with tourists, selected from a list of medium and large-sized hotel in Chios was chosen. Also, students mainly on a
postgraduate course on tourism management participated in the study. A convenience sample of eighty participants completed the survey. Respondents aged from 20 to 57 years old with females making up 68% of the sample. 45% of students reported having work experience in the hospitality industry and 47% of hotel employees had been educated in tourism management. Taking that into account and in accordance with the theory of social representations, respondents were divided in four more or less equally balanced groups for further analysis, according to their education and work experience, the general hypothesis being that shared social insertions lead to specific interactions that modulate social representations. Thus, group 1 consists of students who have work experience (45%), group 2 refers to students with no work experience (55%), group 3 consists of educated hotel employees (47%) and finally 53% of the hotel employees had no education (group 4).

Procedure

To elicit free associations, hotel employees, contacted in their workplace, were invited to participate in the study and to complete a word association task anonymously, after the agreement of the hotel manager. Students’ responses were collected as a classroom exercise. The survey was run during November 2008. Each participant was asked to provide the first five thoughts or images coming to his/her mind when thinking about “tourism development”. To secure as many responses as possible, instructions and the survey were kept short.

Data analysis

Respondents’ associations generated by this technique took the form of either single word responses or short statements. Before running the statistical analysis, the responses were slightly simplified. The associations freely provided by participants were reduced to synonyms. Lengthy associations were reduced to their keywords. Also to have a more manageable number of associations, data were further coding keeping the most frequently and all-encompassing associated words, providing thematic categories.

To map the representational filed of the respondents, a data-base with the associations obtained was built. An analysis for each group and the stimulus world “tourism development” provided the frequencies of word associations. Pearson’s $x^2$ was performed in order to examine the existence of a relation between groups and the associations ($x^2 = 68,026,$
p<0, 0001, level of significance 0, 05). The relation was afterwards visualized using Correspondence Analysis. The technique aims to convert a table of numbers into a plot of points, usually on two dimensions. The proximity between a pair of points is used to interpret the underlying relationship between the points. For instance, the closely aligned points reveal a strong relationship (Chen, 2001). Reading such a data table provides information on the relations between individual’s group membership and their responses to the stimulus word “tourism development”. In this case, CORA “not only detects a link between various social representations components but also sheds light on the relationship between these representational components and individual integration into groups” (Doise, Clemence and Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1993:113).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Frequencies of appearance of associations to the stimulus word “tourism development” provided by each group are presented in table 1.

Table 1. Top 10 respondents’ free associations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Association “tourism development”</th>
<th>G1</th>
<th>G2</th>
<th>G3</th>
<th>G4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 accommodation</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 transportation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 service behaviour</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 environment</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 emotion</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 needs managing</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 money</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 authorities</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 advertising</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 cultural activities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results show that “tourism development” is not only represented in material and economic terms but rather that the concept has important cultural, moral and political dimensions for participants.
Tourism development was anchored in images of accommodation and transportation, indicating a material dimension of the concept. However, one may think, that this instrumental aspect of the term also reflects a local problem for residents of Chios about the future of tourism in the area. Chios is not one of the most popular destinations, compared to other Greek islands. Thus, the development of infrastructures and facilities appears to be of great importance for the locals and a priority closely linked to tourism planning.

Moreover, “money” was amongst the most important issues, indicating the significance that participants attribute to the economic impacts of tourism. The contribution of tourism development to the economic growth of a country or region is outlined in several studies (i.e. Sinclair 1998; Coccosis and Tsartas, 2001; Chi-ok-oh, 2003). Important economic benefits are derived from tourism development. In this sense, tourism represents for participants a source of regional and personal development.

The association “authorities”, including national and local, implies the role and actions of the state and underlines the need for improving policy and planning (i.e. authorities should act, female respondent, 25 years old). Participants attribute an important role to government, which has a central-planning and co-ordinating responsibility in encouraging input from industry representatives and the general public. In this sense the association “authorities” is counter to a framework of beliefs and expectations of how things ought to be. Hence tourism development is a political issue symbolising a broad range of societal concerns.

The concept also evoked emotive associations not only directed mentioned as “emotions” but equally in respondent’s description of the meanings of their association such as hope, joy (male respondent, 27 years old). Here it is evident that the concept has also an affective dimension for participants, who represent tourism development in a set of values. However, respondents were able to see that tourism development “needs managing” indicating the lacking of adequate management measures. In this sense the process of development is associated with managed changes that create conditions for the improvement of those concerned with such development (Zhenhua-Liu, 2003).

Additionally, participants outline the importance of environment which needs to evolve through effective planning. Tourism development has an ecological dimension, in the way that it interacts with and impacts upon environment (May, 1991). Problems arise when tourism development does not take environment into consideration. Maintain the quality of the environment has been a crucial issue for tourism policy in
Greece since the 1990s, which has led to the effort to promote practices aiming at sustainable tourism development (Andriotis, 2001; Tsartas 2003). “Environment” reflects this ecological aspect of tourism development and in a more accurate way it may be seen as a way of expressing ideals, associated with health and freedom. In this sense, the concept implies a human-nature relationship and has a moral dimension for participants.

An opposition is found between a more materialistic view of tourism development, on the one hand, and “service behaviour”, on the other, which indicates the human aspect of tourism development. This implies that participants see themselves as potential actors, involved in the process of development. Lastly, respondents’ answers had references to the objectives (cultural activities, sustainability) and the means (advertising) of achieving development, signifying that participants are aware of critical factors and issues at stake in the development of tourism.

In summary “tourism development” besides being associated to instrumental values, it was also associated to other items designating intrinsic values, which are not less trivial. Interestingly enough, with the exception of a few, no negative associations seem to appear in the content of tourism development representation. According to Tsartas (2003) views about tourism differ among residents of islands where tourism has already been developed such as Myconos, Santorini or Corfu and among residents of islands in the initial stages of tourism, where more positive views towards tourism development are registered. As mentioned earlier, Chios is not one of the most popular destinations for tourists, compared to other Greek islands. In this sense “development” is conceptualised in a positive manner as it appears to be synonymous with progress.

The joint plot (figure 1) derived from the analysis highlights the differences between participants’ positioning and the associations to “tourism development”. Visual inspection shows clearly that the principal axis of dimension one separates the words near to the top on the right (cultural activities, advertising, sustainability) from “service behaviour” and “transportation” on the left. The cluster consisting of “transportation” and “service behaviour” is associated with both groups of hotel employees, who seem to have several commonalities. Tourism development is represented as the reflection of the individual preoccupation, indicating nonetheless a social-relational aspect (service behaviour). Hotel employees are the intermediaries between tourists and places (Ryan, 2002). Their representations are lead primarily by their professional practices and goals, rather than by education. Slightly statistical differences appear none the less, but there were not related to
these associations. Hence, representations of group 3 and group 4 seem to take into account many competing anchorings other than education. Close to group 2 there is a strong clustering of associations centring around the sociocultural and the environmental significance of “tourism development”. These associations of current societal issues related to tourism development show that participants of group 2 are highly influenced by the educational context, as they associate tourism development with current societal issues, underlying the importance of alternative forms of tourism and adopting a more collective point of view. The last group, consisting of students having working experience, falls into the right-hand side of the axis. Individuals in group 1 are concerned with the political dimension of the concept, of how things ought to be. In this sense they distinguish themselves from others.

Figure 1. Biplot Tourism Development
CONCLUSIONS

The current study investigated hotel employees’ and tourism students’ representations of “tourism development” using an associative imagery task. The results show that hotel employees and tourism students share a common representational field that moves from an economic dimension to a more holistic approach of tourism development, taking in a wider range of variables. Tourism development is not only associated with economic growth but also has social, cultural, political and ecological implications for respondents. Recognising the validity of these perceptions of which ethical and moral dimensions are an integral part, highlights the necessity of taking into account social values and practices when planning.

However, differences appear among groups of participants as diverse sets of responsibilities are established and shape which representation people favour for their system of knowledge about tourism development (Pearce and Mosacendo, 1999). Representations can never be neutral. They are intertwined in a circuit of culture in which identity, meaning and behaviour are constructed and continually produced (Buzinde, Santos and Smith, 2006). In other words, professional practices and goals and educational background influence the way individuals are located in relation to the peripheral components of the representation of “tourism development”. In an environment of increasing complexity (Tas, 1988), as the tourism industry and specifically the hotel sector, individuals’ social insertion influence the way they see the world. Their concerns and preoccupations should be taken into account in tourism policy and planning.

Social representations are vectors of change (Deaux and Plilogène, 2001). Employers and educators could make a substantial contribution to improving tourism and to projecting the future together, as business and society are interwoven (Knowls et al, 1999). Education may provide the framework for the enrichment of social representations of hotel employees and tourism students, allowing “greater flexibility for the individual or organisation to choose its own destiny and influence its surrounding environment” (Christou, 1999: 684)”. Education and training imparted to actual and potential actors of tourism development, such as tourism students, can improve the understanding of tourists’ expectations and thus contribute to a hospitable welcome (Ryan, 2002). Based on participants’ concerns, emphasis should be given to programmes of soft tourism development, focusing at the promotion of environmental awareness and cultural sensitivity (Eccles and Costa, 1996). This implies
also a change in the organisational culture, since successful development doesn’t depend only on isolated training programmes. Educators should motivate students to contribute to an improvement in industry practices (Amoah and Baum, 1997). There are now a number of enterprises using quality management standards and these standards are also related to the management and protection of environment (Tsartas, 2003).

Successful tourism development is thus the outcome of a complete appreciation of these perceptions and the way in which they are incorporated in the development process. Policy makers should match the preferences of actual and potential actors that are involved in the process of development. Collaborative structures between policy makers, educators, employers and local authorities should be created, allowing the participation of representatives of different interests in the decision-making processes. If tourism development is handled appropriately broader social goals can be achieved that contribute to the overall well-being of society.

Social representation theory appears therefore to be particularly challenging and instrumental in the study of tourism. It offers an in depth understanding of social thinking enabling privileged relationships to be revealed. However, the study described here, is only a lexical projection of social representations limited by the linguistic investigation method and the small sample. In an attempt to offer some possible directions for research, individuals’ common representational field as well as the interrelation between individual differences (in terms of membership and practices) should be the object of further study.

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THE EVOLVING SERVICE CULTURE OF CUBAN TOURISM: A CASE STUDY

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The case examines the impressive growth of tourism in Cuba. It analyzes tourism development in a society striving to navigate its way economically amid numerous social and political challenges. The Cuban experiment with tourism is a short-term mega success. However, it is highly uncertain whether long-term sustainability can be maintained without the appropriate managerial changes at all levels. This paper highlights challenges in the tourism employment sector – training, supervisory issues, and performance evaluation, within a centrally-controlled bureaucratic system. Of specific interest is the disconnection between the natural hospitality of the Cuban people and low levels of tourist satisfaction stemming from a lack of professional hospitality. The paper concludes by focusing on the high relevance of the Cuban cultural identity as a key motivator undergirding the demand for tourism. However, with the rapid growth of tourism, strains are occurring in the cultural realm, thus requiring immediate policy intervention for sustained positive results.

Keywords: Tourism in Cuba, tourist satisfaction.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

TOURISM IN CUBA

Cuba is poised to become the next big destination within the Caribbean (WTO, 2007). Cuba’s first tourism zenith in the 1950s is well-known, as is the industry’s collapse following the U.S. economic embargo, initiated in the 1960s. The “new age” of Cuban international tourism development dates to the mid-1970s, but gained new urgency as
the country entered the “Special Period” of economic near-collapse, following the fall of the Soviet Union, in the late 1980s and early 1990s. During the 1993-94 timeframe, policy-makers targeted tourism, the sugar industry, and biotechnology the most promising in terms of long-range economic development. Thus, being one of the select national economic initiatives, Cuban tourism achieved considerable development support during the 1990’s. By the mid 90’s, tourism surpassed the sugar industry as the primal source of Cuba’s hard currency. Cuba travel and tourism capital investment is estimated at CUP1,154.7 mn (US$1,154.7 mn), which is 16.7% of total investment in 2007. By 2017, this should reach CUP1,890.5 mn (US$1,890.5 mn), which accounts for 16.9% of total investment (WTTC, 2007). Despite the prevailing difficulties, this sector is the only one that exhibited an annual growth rate of nearly 20 %.

(Henthorne and Miller, 2003).

Figure 1. Map of Cuba

For the last three years, Cuba has consistently exceeded two million visitors annually, with the overwhelming majority from Canada, U.K., Spain, Italy, Germany, France, and Mexico, in descending order (Cuban
Portal of Tourism, 2007). The 20% growth rate in Cuban tourism far exceeds the World Tourism Organization’s prediction of a 4-6% increase in international tourism, coupled with a 6% increase in average tourism expenditures. For the year 2006, the average growth in international tourism arrivals globally remained approximately 4.5% (WTO, 2007). According to an estimate by WTTC (2007), Cuban tourism is expected to generate CUP5,348.3 mn (US$5,348.3 mn) of economic activity in 2007, growing in nominal terms to CUP9,525.2 mn (US$9,525.2 mn) by 2017. With such a phenomenal growth record, the Cuban tourism industry has assumed a pivotal position in the national economy.

However, the haste to expand Cuba’s international tourism industry in the early years, spawned many mistakes, including sub-standard construction, uncontrolled sex tourism, tumultuous relations with international investment partners, and poorly trained service staffs (Martín de Holán and Phillips, 1997). Power brokers, both legitimate and illegitimate, took advantage of the chaos that ensued during this period of unplanned and rapid growth. Economic changes with no corresponding change in the political system reduced the overall efficacy of the reforms. One example of the reduction in effectiveness due to the disconnect between political and economic systems occurred in the political bureaucracy. While the economic arena was progressing rapidly, the top-down-dominated vertical reporting system that characterized the political institutions remained unchanged, thus stifling further economic momentum. Cervino and Bonache (2005) make the following statements regarding the Cuban government and tourism – “the state retains a predominantly guiding role in economic production and this directly affects the implementation of western style management processes and systems. This limits many hotel managers in their efforts to reach efficient and effective performance.” This phenomenon is clear when you see how government planners rapidly expanded the number of hotel rooms, but with relatively little attention to other, related, supporting industries. This resulted in perceptions of less than stellar services and lapses in customer satisfaction. By some estimates, this caused the tourism industry in the early 1990s to have a multiplier effect of less than one - the country lost money for every tourism dollar it collected. Since the Cuban Ministry of Tourism (MINTUR) was not formed until 1994, it had a minimal role in conceptualizing, planning, developing and implementing a coherent tourism policy. Thus, tourism development was largely fragmented and uncoordinated across a half-dozen national quasi-state corporations.
Meanwhile, externally, Cuba faced an increasingly competitive market, both within the Caribbean region and globally. But, for the near term, prospects for Cuba’s tourism growth remain almost robust. One indicator of this robustness was the attraction of a record 65,280 tourists in one day – Valentine’s Day 2006. This was a first in the history of modern Cuban tourism, post 1959. Hotel capacity is another key indicator of growth in the 1990s. By 2003, the country boasted hotel capacity of 40,000+ rooms, accounting for approximately US$20 million annual earnings. Hotel earnings increased by 15 percent in 2004. The earnings come not only from leisure tourism, but also from conventions, conferences, and other events. For instance, according to the Cuban Ministry of Tourism, Cuba organized more than 300 international events, including a couple of mega-events, in 2006. However, such growth does not necessarily translate into sustained industrial growth for the future or overall economic development for the country.

GAINING EMPLOYMENT IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

At a typical Cuban restaurant, you could be shown to your table by a civil engineer, your order taken by a computer programmer, and your meal prepared by an attorney. Cuba's tourism industry represents one of the best opportunities for citizens of all ages to gain some measure of financial freedom. Tourism continues to account for a dominant source of employment and foreign exchange earnings (Miller and Henthorne, 1997). The Cuban travel and tourism sector employment is estimated at 587,000 jobs in 2007, 11.2% of total employment, or 1 in every 8.9 jobs. By 2017, this should total 715,000 jobs, 13.4% of total employment or 1 in every 7.5 jobs (WTTC, 2007).

The brain-drain from the traditional employment sectors to tourism has invited considerable attention from a major cross-section of the Cuban population. Many people are abandoning their jobs as engineers, attorneys, medical and health care professionals, and teachers to work in jobs that provide immediate dollars. The majority of Cubans, regardless of their educational attainment, make fairly low wages, with employees in the tourism sector earning only slightly more. However, tourist workers have the added benefit of receiving gratuities, which can be substantial. The rapid rise in tourism has attracted a diverse employee population, enticed by the salaries and the lucrative opportunity for tips. The unofficial earnings from gratuities explain why young Cuban professionals choose to work in the tourism industry rather than their own fields of study.
Given the relative attractiveness of jobs in the Cuban tourism industry, there is a tremendous supply-demand imbalance regarding basic-level jobs as housekeepers, waiters, cooks, bartenders, hostesses, or activity directors. However, securing one of these coveted positions is a relatively onerous undertaking. Applicants looking to work in tourism must first be accepted to a Formatur School for Tourism Education. Founded in 1995, 18 Formatur Schools are dispersed across Cuba and they provide extensive training programs for current and aspiring employees in the ever-growing tourism industry. Concentrated in areas of heavy tourism, the schools focus on the specific type of tourism distinctive to a particular region. For example, the schools clustered around Varadero primarily train students to work in resort properties because of the prevalence of this type of tourist activity in this region.

Admittance to a Formatur School requires advance screening for admission. The demand for certain types of hospitality and tourism-related skill sets determine the number of students accepted into the program (Wood and Jayewardene, 2003). If local hotels need 100 waitresses, for example, only 100 students are accepted. Applicants must be high school graduates and not over age 35. In addition, the student must live in the same locale as the school and the prospective place of employment. An additional note that provides a contextual backdrop, is that for the most part those accepted into Formatur Schools typically have relatively good connections in the political system.

Regardless of their previous education (many applicants already have degrees from a four-year university), generally, students attending a Formatur School receive two years of intense training. The single exception is a one-year training period for housekeeping positions. Thirty percent of the training is devoted to theory, with the rest of the time being spent on practical applications. Many students actually work in their prospective positions, in internship-type roles, as part of their training. While in training, students receive no compensation, other than tips. During this period of close supervision, their performance in the various work settings is reported to the school. It is not unusual for a student to be asked to leave the program before completion because he or she has not met the school's standards.

This employment process is somewhat inscrutable. The duration of the training seems unduly long. Also, many hotels and restaurants are slightly over-staffed. At hotels in Havana, for example, it is not unusual to find four employees running a small snack bar in the lobby, and three or four doormen are on duty at all times, day and night. This overstaffing leads to an increase in the cost of doing business, at least from a western
management perspective. Despite this lengthy training period and heavy emphasis on staffing, service levels in Cuban hotels and restaurants would not be considered responsive from the perspective of most foreign tourists. There is a major gap between foreign tourist expectations and the capacity of the current Cuban tourism infrastructure to deliver or exceed expectations.

However, mediocre service is basically reflective of a poor professional orientation as opposed to their lack of willingness to perform. In recent advertisements, Cuban tourism authorities have begun to highlight people and service providers as the true jewels of Cuban tourism. They are projected as sincere, fun-loving, open-hearted and willing to extend every courtesy to cater to tourists’ needs. In some instances, tourist service-providers may develop personal accords with tourists, even inviting visitors to their homes and offering traditional island cuisine and rum. However, the situation would further improve if the government ceased the practice of “tourism apartheid” upon its citizens. For practical purposes, the government, so as to minimize the negative impacts of tourism, keeps the population as separate as possible from the tourists thereby minimizing the positive benefits associated with these contacts as well. There are small signs that this form of tourism apartheid may be abating. In fact, current Cuban leader Raul Castro has moved in this direction by permitting Cuban citizens to stay in hotels as long as they pay in the US dollars. This is a major break with past government policy and a key step forward in making the Cuban people feel more engaged in developing the tourism sector.

At least some types of jobs in Cuban tourism have come under severe criticism. Some employees engage in selling sex and other socially undesirable services to foreigners, with the expectation that the foreigners will marry them and take them out of Cuba. The popular terminology for this is *jineterismo*, literally meaning horseback riding. Jineterismo is currently a hotly debated issue in Cuba and is most often seen as a consequence of tourism. It is widely perceived to be antithetical to the revolutionary narrative of global brotherhood and racial-socio equality. However, sex tourism in Cuba preceded the Castro-led revolution. In the early 1950’s, Cuba was notoriously known as the “brothel of the Caribbean.” The Castro government wished to eliminate prostitution tourism and the initiatives were largely successful—but only until the breakdown of the Soviet block and the subsequent Cuban economic crisis. The new hospitality and tourism education strategy released in 2003 aimed to correct the negative aspects associated with tourism and
hospitality jobs from their roots and it has begun to show some positive results.

Confederación de Trabajadores de Cuba

The majority of Cuban hotels and resorts are joint ventures with foreign investors. Except for some upper management positions, the majority of the hotel employees are Cubans. Almost all belong to one confederation of unions, the government sanctioned Confederación de Trabajadores de Cuba (CTC), which represents the 3 million union members of Cuba who are organized in 19 national unions. Union membership is encouraged, and every workplace is organized. The Cuban Revolution occurred in 1960 but it is a living reality of the work-lives of Cuban people. The Cuban union movement encompasses over 97 percent of Cuba's workers. The CTC is controlled by the Cuban Communist Party, which are also the managers of the enterprises that employ the laborers. The head of the CTC is a member of the Communist Party's political bureau, its highest body.

Views differ concerning the functions of the CTC. According to the state, the working class is in power and runs Cuban society. Unions advocate for the workers in a cooperative relationship with the socialist government. In the sectors of Cuba where workers are employed in joint ventures, the Cuban Ministry of Labor operates a special office – in some ways similar to a union hiring hall – that provides labor for foreign corporations. This practice, in effect, prevents companies from hiring workers of their choice. If a problem develops with a worker, the company must discuss it with the Cuban manager and the union. If the worker needs training or replacement, he or she must return to the Ministry of Labor office.

A recent report by the U.S. State Department presents another fresh perspective. Foreign investors who engage in joint ventures with the Cuban government find themselves carefully controlled. As noted, investors must hire their workers through state agencies. The Cuban government appropriates about 95 percent of the salaries of these workers and pays them in domestic currency while charging the joint venture in hard currency. It is the CTC's responsibility to ensure that government production goals are met. The CTC does not act as a traditional trade union, promoting worker rights or observance of labor law and it does not protect the right to strike.
Workers who attempt to engage in non-governmental union activities face government harassment and persecution, even though the state disclaims these practices in international forums. Workers have lost their jobs for their political beliefs, including refusal to join the official union. Although several small independent labor organizations have been formed, they function without legal recognition and cannot represent workers effectively.

Pax Christi International, a non-governmental peace movement, has extensively studied Cuban labor practices in tourism and has in its report vehemently criticized certain aspects of the same. There is a long list of criticisms of Cuban labor practices. Some of the more egregious areas of labor concerns include: (1) the lack of the right to choose the place of employment, the nature of such employment, wages to be received for said work; (2) no rights to select their own labor unions or to strike or to ask for better working conditions or to criticize working conditions or supervisors; (3) Cuban workers are prohibited from freely negotiating wages.

Additionally, Cuban workers lack the right to open their own businesses, must not employ more than four people (all of whom must be relatives). Cuban workers must perform non-paid work and attend long political rallies as directed by the Communist Party. Workers are encouraged to spy on their neighbors and to report activity that is perceived as counter to the Party’s directives. Pax Christi International also notes that, the foreign companies that invested in Cuba, instead of being a force against Cuba’s repressive policies, actively encourage further human rights violations by their refusal to include codes of conduct or best business practices which would protect the rights of their Cuban employees (Source: Pax Christi Cuba Report-Tourism, 2000).

Government travel and tourism operating expenditures in Cuba in 2007 are expected to total CUP188.9 mn (US$188.9 mn) or 5.7% of total government spending (WTTC, 2007). While this is a significant amount, there is no conspicuous improvement in the material conditions of the genuine stakeholders of tourism – the workers. Perceptible changes in labor, social, and political policies impacting the tourism industry, would necessarily have led to more efficient and effective outcomes in the tourism sector and thus, the entire Cuban economy. The multiplier effect of government changes would have sparked a more orderly and better-managed approach to the burgeoning tourism arena.
TOURISTS’ PERSPECTIVES

In part because of U.S. government restrictions to travel, American citizens typically do not think of Cuba as a viable vacation alternative. Contrarily, the Cuban government welcomes U.S. citizens - even going as far as to not stamp U.S. passports at immigration. Given the U.S. travel constraints, the vast majority of Cuba's tourism comes from Europe, Canada, and Latin America. It is obvious that the Cuban government is going to great lengths to ensure that tourism continues to grow. The question that has not been broached until recently is ‘how do the tourists feel about their travel experiences in Cuba.’ One of the coauthors of this case conducted a short survey on customer service while visiting the country in the early 2000s. Potential survey participants were identified and approached in the lobbies of various Cuban hotels (primarily in Havana and Varadero). A total of 130 potential participants were approached. This convenience sampling method resulted in 90 individuals agreeing to answer questions regarding their tourist experiences in Cuba, yielding an effective response rate of approximately 70 percent.

Respondents were asked to rate the service they received in restaurants and hotels. The survey also asked questions about their travel experience, their language skills, and where they stayed while in-country. Additionally, respondents were asked to relate any other experiences they had encountered while in the country. The majority of the surveys took place in Havana. Seventy-five percent of those surveyed were visiting Cuba for the first time. About 80% of those tourists were well-traveled. Most of them had been to Europe, Latin America, and North America, while 36% had also traveled to Asia, Africa, and other locations. Only 39% of those surveyed spoke Spanish and 94% of the Spanish-speaking tourists felt like facility with the language enhanced the probability of receiving much better service. About three-fourths of the tourists were between the ages of twenty-five and fifty-five.

When asked to rate the quality of service received on a scale from 1 [poor] to 5 [excellent], those surveyed rated the overall quality of service at 3 [moderate]. Interestingly, a large percentage of return visitors to Cuba believed service had improved since their previous visit. Some indicated that for the most part service was not fast, but at the same time they had limited expectations in this third-world country. A male respondent from Greece was surprised that Cuba was not more developed. One female respondent stated that waiters and other restaurant workers worked very hard and succeeded in providing her vegetarian dietary requirements. This same respondent encountered problems locating
information about tours and felt that the noise level (music volume) was far too high, especially at night. Others voiced extreme displeasure about food quality and service, thus leading them to rule out a return visit to Havana. Some referred to the hotel and restaurant staff as being lazy and indifferent. While others said that the help seemed "scared" or "shy" which made them appear non-helpful—when in fact they may just be confused. A man from the U.K. said that the "Cuban people have too deep a sense of the importance of their own dignity to become good service-sector employees in much less than a generation." However, one tourist observed that Havana employees seemed more motivated to provide quality service, relative to service-providers in the more rural areas of the country.

Still others enjoyed the city of Havana, their hotel and its people. However, they perceived the city of Havana as dirty and crowded. One respondent compared it to Harlem in the United States. An Italian respondent stated that he and his wife could not wait to leave. Some were shaken by the living conditions of the people in Havana. Others experienced trouble because of the language barrier. For the most part, tourists believed Cuba was learning about tourism and that the country was trying hard to improve the tourism industry and infrastructure. Some indicated that while the service was less than expected, the helpful and pleasant attitudes of the Cuban people more than made up for some of the other shortfalls.

Provided below is a summary of the perceptions expressed in the customer satisfaction survey (in a scale from 1 [low] to 5 [high]):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Survey Question</th>
<th>Overall Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The service I received here was provided with a helpful, positive attitude</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generally speaking, service personnel anticipated my needs</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any requests I have are responded to in a timely manner</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service personnel here really know how to do their job</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I make a request, I am confident that it will</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
be completed to my satisfaction

Service personnel do their jobs correctly.

The service personnel that I deal with will really try to understand my particular situation and want to help.

This survey, although simple, generally implies that service personnel, though wanting to be helpful, are not able to do so. This can be partially explained by the lack of proper guest services training or the absence of systems and procedures that support the service staff in successfully executing their duties and responsibilities.

A vast majority of tourists visiting Cuba are package tourists. This is a means to overcome the purported risks and uncertainties involved in traveling through a communist country (Simon, 1995). But, many free independent travelers who have experienced the joys of public transport and the cuisines of small street side restaurants in Cuba would disagree with this assessment. They believe the cushion of protection, technically called ‘the environmental bubble’, provided by the tour operators to their customers greatly minimizes the chances of authentic experiences. One of the problems often confronted by independent travelers used to be was the unpredictable service and lack of cleanliness of trains. To overcome this challenge, Cuban tourism authorities initiated a national tourist transportation agency, Viazul, which offers more professionally-managed tourist-oriented services to the country's principal tourist destinations via road and rail. Renting cars and drivers also represent a key means of transport for independent travelers. The availability of these services allow for more customized itineraries, including independent exploration.

One of the best things about Cuba is staying in what are known as “Casas Particulares”, which is the vernacular for home stay. Tourists experiencing this form of Cuban hospitality considered Casas Particulares as one of the rare means through which one can come to know the true spirit of Cuba and its people. These home stay experiences allow visitors to learn and see the real Cuban culture that exists beneath socialist ideologies and slogans.

Cuba is a paradox of experiences leading many visitors feeling as though they have truly spent time in a place that is so markedly different from anywhere else, from both positive and negative perspectives. This perception is evident from a scan of the blogs posted by visitors to Cuba. Given that Internet connections in Cuba are unreliable, slow, expensive,
Eric T. Henthorne, Babu P. George & Alvin J. Williams

and highly censored, tourists generally post travel experiences only after they return home.

MAINTAINING A UNIQUE CULTURAL IDENTITY

Though Cuban people have grown somewhat uneasy of living in the past, they are extremely proud of their culture (Rundle, 2001). Thus, any loss of its pure identity is to be attributed to the international market pressure and the influence of a globalizing mass media. The Cuban state has slowly begun to submit more power to the civil society by allowing citizens to participate in the decision-making processes of the nation and recognizing them as consumers of universal popular culture. However, interestingly, people do not fully utilize the scope of freedom provided to them. Contrary to popular belief, the Cuban people continue to favor their system of governance and believe in the traditional ideals. They cleverly weigh up which factors of their socialist structure are superfluous and which factors must remain unaffected in order to maintain cohesion with their cultural identity.

Even these days, Cuban art hangs in every public place as ever; and, murals make the outsides of buildings come to life. Statues adorn public parks immortalizing freedom fighters of the past. Cuban music permeates through the streets of Old Havana. The market area is alive with local citizens-turned-merchants attempting to capture their portion of entrepreneurial success. A rhythm of contentment is somewhat evident as Cubans greet visitors in passing. Cubans are warm, compassionate, dignified, and immensely proud of their immediate and more long-term cultural heritage. Cubans, the majority of which are fairly well-educated, enjoy conversations with tourists and are eager to learn. The people are the linchpin to the vibrancy and sustainability of the tourism industry in Cuba. Long-term success is predicated on more effectively engaging the Cuban people in a multi-dimensional approach to tourism. A ‘systems view’ of tourism, with its people at the center, hold the key to strengthening the total infrastructure necessary for sustained effectiveness at both the micro and macro levels.

CONCLUSIONS

Cuba’s tourism industry is of great interest – and concern – to the entire Caribbean region. Furthermore, Cuba’s approach to tourism planning and development has become a model for tourism development throughout the Caribbean and beyond. It has been more than 15 years
since Cuba began to open up its beautiful landscape, beaches, culture, traditions, history, folklore, and its people to the broader world. This time frame affords a unique opportunity to take a retrospective view of tourism, as well as to set the foundation for stronger, more focused, customer-friendly initiatives leading to the prospects of more value and greater contributions to the Cuban economy and people.

The conventional view of this region is that its resources are highly homogenous: all of the islands have sun and beaches, they all compete for the same market with essentially the same product, they all grow the same crops, etc (Strizzi and Meis, 2001). Reflecting this view, the region’s marketing strategies are strikingly generic and similar across the many destinations. But, as the material presented in the case clearly suggests, under socialism, Cuba has cultivated a distinctive cultural identity and its associated cultural resources. Cuba’s ‘brand’ of tourism is unique, desirable, and heavy with potential. Sustained success of Cuban tourism depends upon projecting its distinctiveness and developing and executing systematic and systemic marketing campaigns that offer prospective visitors and unparalleled tourist experience. In addition to marketing promises, Cuba has to have an adroit customer service delivery mentality to meet the ever-escalating demands of consumers inundated with an array of tourist options around the globe. Cuban tourism must practice market segmentation at its very best. Cuba must focus on cultivating experiences that cannot be duplicated in the Caribbean or elsewhere.

The Cuban mystique is still attractive and alluring as a marketing tool. This mystique has been enjoyed mostly by non-U.S. tourists. While U.S. residents account for over half of all tourists to the Caribbean region, the number of Americans visiting Cuba is relatively miniscule (Padilla and McElroy, 2007). If political winds change, which many astute observers expect, the post-Castro era promises to open the door to the mega market in the U.S. for Cuban tourism. Tourism planners should be carefully preparing for this eventuality.

As noted elsewhere, the Cuban travel industry has prepared for various post-Fidel Castro scenarios for quite some time. The emergence of Raul Castro as leader has heightened the prospects of a ‘thawing’ of relations with the U.S. In preparation for a possible change in relations between the two adversaries, almost a dozen Cuban harbors have been identified by major U.S. cruise lines in anticipation of a major cruise boom. Likewise, major U.S. hotel chains, through their foreign subsidiaries, have entered into ‘handshake agreements’ with properties throughout Cuba. Many overseas Cuban business executives have positioned themselves appropriately in anticipation of the opening of the
doors of their motherland to waves of foreign capital (Greenberg, 2007). Professional travel agents expect that the U.S. administration will slowly relax the ‘Trading with the Enemies Act’ that has severely restricted U.S. tourists in Cuba for almost half a century. The ‘Special Period’ of scarcities and crises in the post-Soviet decade has by now forced the Cuban government to relax some foreign ownership-related laws. The current president, Raul Castro, and his successors cannot continue to ignore the enormous potential for U.S. tourists to totally remake the fabric of Cuban tourism. This is especially the case, given Cuba’s urgent need to increase its foreign currency reserves. Its current national fiscal position is unsustainable in the long run. Given this complex, interdependent scenario, the future of tourism in the Caribbean is sure to be radically different from past (Clive, 2006). This also means that, along with the dramatic resurgence of Cuban tourism, the rest of the Caribbean will have to face a behemoth. Cuba has the potential to be the ‘lion’ in dominating Caribbean tourism, given its potential. However, Cuba’s genuine resurgence as a tourism player in the region and beyond is predicated on an integrative approach by visionary strategic planners, committed to masterful implementation. Cuban tourism, in concert with other regional efforts, can reshape the power of tourism in this sector of the world. Focused, synergistic, and creative actions of all stakeholders will make a lasting imprint on the tourism landscape of this area.

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THE NATURE OF CULTURAL CONTRIBUTION OF A COMMUNITY-BASED HOMESTAY PROGRAMME

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An exploratory study utilizing qualitative approach was undertaken in 2005 to better understand the cultural contribution of a community-based homestay to both the rural communities and the visitors. The particular homestay, namely the Kampung Pelegong Homestay Programme (KPHP), is located in Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia. The study finds that while living culture is the core product component, education, entertainment and enrichment are important contributions of the cultural rural tourism product of KPHP to the visitors. In addition, an important finding indicates that this particular tourism product is unique as it stresses on establishing relationship ('Sillatul-rahim’ in Malay) between hosts and guests whereby these relationships continue for years through letters, phone conversations, and emails. The programme also increases social cohesion among the hosts and contributes to their commitment to preserve and to provide knowledge on local customs and daily routine to enhance tourist experience.

Keywords: Cultural tourism, community-based tourism, homestay, qualitative study.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Aside from its potential contribution to sustainable development, community-based cultural rural tourism is said to be able to bring immediate benefits to both the hosts and guests. A case study of a French Acadian region on an island in eastern Canada undertaken by MacDonald and Jolliffe (2003) indeed reveals that cultural rural tourism in that region has the potential to become short and long-term economic tools to its rural communities (the hosts) and that this type of tourism provides education, entertainment, and enrichment to the guests. This paper discusses the extent of these same outcomes from a cultural rural tourism product in Malaysia, namely the Kampung Pelegong Homestay Programme (KPHP).
Kampung Pelegong is a village in the state of Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia which is located 15 km from the capital city of Seremban and 30 km from the Kuala Lumpur International Airport. Most of the village ancestors were immigrants from West Sumatra settled in Negeri Sembilan, bringing along their Minangkabau culture. As Negeri Sembilan is the only state in Malaysia that practices Minangkabau customs and culture, the state government is keen to turn it as an important tourism product for the state by developing several of its communities as cultural tourism destinations. When the government began to develop rural tourism, specifically through homestay programmes in the rural area, the community of Kampung Pelegong established its own homestay programme consisting of several homestay operators in August, 1996. The homestay programme hosted 500 guests annually between 1997 to 2002, and the number increased to 900 guests in 2003 and to 1633 guests in 2004 (Fatimah, 2005). Kampung Pelegong is felt to be a good case for examining the outcomes of a cultural rural tourism product in Malaysia.

To date, there is no site-specific research on how cultural rural tourism in Malaysia, such as the community-based homestay programmes, translates into its intended outcomes. The overall objective of the study is to gain better understanding of the cultural rural tourism product in the form of Kampung Pelegong Homestay Programme and its contributions to the visitors and operators.

**METHODS**

The study is primarily exploratory in nature in that it elucidates perceptions regarding the situation of and outcomes from Kampung Pelegong Homestay Programme development. The methodology adopted for this study was thus guided by an aim to analyze visitors and residents’ voices themselves, an approach which anthropologists have used to produce some particularly insightful accounts (Black, 1996). Central to the investigation was the extent of benefits it brings to the two groups.

The selection of respondents from the two groups for interview was by purposive sampling whereby respondents who where in the best position to provide information required were purposefully selected (Sekaran, 1992). This sampling technique, known as purposive sampling, was deemed appropriate as the category of people having the information that were sought for was limited within the time constraints of the study. At the beginning of the study, several individuals within each group were asked to participate in the interviews and were asked to identify any other key informants that they knew of. This generated a total list of potential
respondents. Attempts were made to contact each of these individuals via email and telephone. This resulted in 12 key informants (5 visitors and 7 residents) who agreed to participate in the in-depth, semi-structured interviews which were conducted face-to-face in Malay and/or English.

The interviews were conducted by the researcher through personal conversations. Initial interview questions followed those used in MacDonald and Jollife (2003) study which include respondent observation on the development and progress of tourism in the area, and their attitudes and perceptions of rural tourism development in Kampong Pelegong. Questions were open ended in order to gain more spontaneous opinions and to avoid the potential bias from restricting responses to the researcher’s own fixed categories (Ryan, 1995). The interviews were, when conducted in a formal situation, tape-recorded or, when conducted during more informal or unplanned situations, written in the form of notes with reflections in field diaries. Transcriptions of the tape-recorded interviews and the reflections were done immediately after the fieldwork.

Transcripts for each taped interview and field notes were checked for internal consistency and corroborated with other interviews and notes. A qualified translator assisted in translating transcripts of conversations in Malay into English. Analysis of the interviews for meaning, salience and connections followed the ‘framework’ approach developed by Ritchie and Spencer (1995). The fieldwork and analysis were conducted over a period of 6 months in 2005.

STUDY FINDINGS

Cultural Contributions to the Visitors

This study explores the nature of cultural benefits contributed by KPHP to its visitors. Interview questions to the five guests (V1: a teacher from Singapore; V2: a journalist; V3: a participant of a motivational training program; V4: a university student; and V5: a familiarization trip participant) who had stayed with the homestay operators in Kampung Pelegong focus on the uniqueness of KPHP as a tourism product and how the homestay experience had benefit them. Findings from the interviews with each of these respondents are discussed in the following section.

Respondent V1

This respondent is a teacher from Singapore who had joined a co-curriculum activity organized by her school. The school had used the
service of a travel agent in Singapore to arrange their trip to Kampung Pelegong. The group, which consisted of 12 fifteen-year olds and two teachers, took the train from Tanjung Pagar Station in Singapore to Tiroi Station in Seremban. At Tiroi, a group of the Homestay Programme Association members waited for them and transported them to their village where they spent three “unordinary and enjoyable” days. According to her:

“Our stay there was unordinary and enjoyable. The operators took care of us like we are their kids! They explained everything they do, maybe they wanted us to understand why they do things a certain way. Some of our group members had never stayed in villages before; they didn’t know how villages look and feel like, so this trip is good for them...We observed the ways the community worked together...they are very organized...the visit around the village is really good, we had the opportunity to get to know many trees and plants...the cultural show was a real treat, we really had a good time during the mock wedding...it was really nice. The food and boarding are not the essential parts of our stay, if we want hotel standard comfort and luxury, we would have gone to the hotels. We came here to observe and widen our knowledge and experience...”

Respondent V2

This respondent, a “self-declared urban yuppie” visited Kampong Pelegong Homestay as part of her job assignment. This is what she had to say about his experience staying at the homestay:

“One of the members of the homestay committee showed me the fruit and vegetable farms including the village’s landmark 160-year-old rubber tree. He also introduced me around.... I was introduced to authentic Malay and Minangkabau cuisine, including their ‘lemak cili api’. I even had a free lesson on how to prepare this dish. One of the operators reflected on how she once taught a Japanese school group how to make ‘lepat pisang’, how they had so much fun even though their ‘lepat’ failed to look like ordinary lepat, and the satisfaction shown by the group when they eventually tasted their ‘lepat’...... I had a chance to help them feed their free-ranged chicken!...The room is okay, but we only need the room for sleep and a place to
change...we are not here to stay in the room, we are here to learn different things.”

Respondent V3

This 15-year old girl stayed at KPHP during a motivational workshop organized by the Kuala Lumpur City Hall which she attended in 2004. The early part of the workshop took place in Kuala Lumpur, and another took place in KPHP. Coming from Kuala Lumpur, the respondent was not familiar with Kampong life. “Everything seems so different in the Kampong,” she says, “but I am glad that I had a chance to experience the Kampong hospitality. Those kampong people are too friendly; my foster mother spoilt me so much, now I really miss them.” She elaborated on what she gained from her stay in Kampung Pelegong:

“I learnt to appreciate simple things, I learnt how to share, and I learnt not to do many things myself. From my experience with Kampong Pelegong, I see that Malaysia is rich with cultural customs and unique characteristics. Not all places in Malaysia are like KL, Malaysia has many natural resources and beauty. I had a chance to see how the villagers work, how they earn their living. They are not so backward, they know about many things that are modern. But, their way of livings is still kampong style. I want to go back to Pelegong again, now that I know how to get there. I want to bring my friends there too...during my stay we did several activities like learning about the names of trees, spending time at the small waterfall, learning how to cook, we also had an art class there, and we learnt about basket weaving... If the rooms are equipped with air conditioning system, then it would be more okay...but without it is also okay. This is why homestay is different, if there is air-conditioning, the concept would have perhaps been different”

Respondent V4

This respondent is a student at a local higher learning institute that had been to Kampong Pelegong during a study trip. He comes from a rural community himself. He recalled back his experience in Kampong Pelegong:
“During that time, the lecturer, who was also our advisor for the association, took us to Pelegong as one of the association activities, because it was close to campus. There we were involved in many activities like night trekking and telematch. We went during fruit season, so we were able to eat durians. I see that Pelegong has the potential to become a tourism product, the kampung people also strive in that direction; they have become professionals. They are different, because their culture is slightly different from the culture found in other places in Malaysia...the Negeri Sembilan people, their culture...different because they have the matriarchal culture. So, if you go there, they talk a lot about the matriarchal culture, marriage customs, and their cultural activities. Another uniqueness is the special treatment that is given by the operator family, that I cannot forget... I am also a village person, so their lifestyle is also the same, but the community of Kampung Pelegong seems to be very cooperative and very organized”.

Respondent V5

"Here, you are able to enjoy the warm hospitality of your operator family and be a part of the local household by joining them in their daily activities," explained this respondent who was a participant of a familiarization program to Kampong Pelegong Homestay Program organized by Tourism Malaysia. He added, “The operators are always willing to let you know about the origins of the village and the rich history it holds... there are also several small business enterprise there. Each household has one product that they can sell to the visitors, some sell baskets, and others sell traditional herbs...we had a chance to look at these enterprises.” On a question posed by the researcher about what the product of Kampong Pelegong Homestay Program, the respondent explained his perception about the product, “It is a cultural product that let the visitors learn about the community’s resources and ways of life. It is different from other types of holidays...the food and hospitality of the operator families gives it more flavour...”

Testimonies from the operators and observations by the researcher are also useful in the discussion of this study objective. It is observed that elderly family members of the operators are always ready and interested to entertain guests with stories about the history of their families, their village, and their culture. “I am always excited to see the way they look at us when we tell stories...I always talk about myself, about the origins of
this kampong, about the old times. They also want to find out about many things... I really like if the committee announced that tourists or foster children are coming...sure...not so quiet then,” explained an elderly woman whose daughter is one of the homestay operators. The desire to welcome guests can be considered euphoric. Operators like to talk about sweet experience and memories they had with their guests. They are very excited and are very optimistic about the future of their homestay program. They tolerate differences and they know what is expected from the visitors. They vow to not let outsiders belittle their culture but to teach them about it instead. Children of the operators are also getting used to seeing groups of tourists in their village. It is observed that they enjoy watching the cultural show with the tourists and that they are very hospitable to the tourists. It is also observed that a strong social cohesion exist in the community during the homestay activities. Additionally, the ability and opportunity for them to share their traditional culture, their knowledge, and part of their lives with outsiders are considered very self-satisfying.

It can be inferred from the preceding transcripts that education, entertainment and enrichment together with the accommodation, food and hospitality are important components of the cultural rural tourism product of KPHP. An explanation given by Levitt (1983) is useful to describe these components. He suggests that there are four components of a product (Figure 1). The innermost core represents the generic product. This component is the rudimentary item (tangible or intangible) without which there would be no product. For KPHP, the living culture (close-knit community with strong ties and work ethics that is able to work together, their warmth and sincere hospitality) may be the generic component of their product; without them then this product cannot be called the ‘cultural rural tourism product’. However, as Levitt points out, simply offering the generic product only allows a producer entrance into the marketplace; any community that has a living culture can enter the market. It in no way ensures success. First, customers’ main expectations about the product must be met.

The expected component of Levitt’s product concept represents customers’ minimal expectations that exceed the generic product itself. The generic product cannot be sold unless those expectations are met. For homestay guests, expected attributes could include its education element including the logistics and activities required to observe the cultural show, knowledgeable operators that can educate them, and a clean and safe rural environment, as well as bedrooms, rest rooms and food services. These may represent minimum purchase conditions to some guests. For
example, even though a rural community may have abundant and interesting cultural resources, visitors may not visit that area due to known and visible safety issue in that area (the expectation of a safe rural environment is not met).

McNeill categorizes these first two components (generic and expected) of Levitt’s product factor as *hygiene factors*. These factors are variables of the product that are “must-haves”. They do not motivate the sale of the product itself, but lack of them can “de-motivate” the sale (McNeill, 1999). First, in order to gain an edge in the marketplace, destinations must look beyond the minimal expectations of a tourism product and explore how they might augment it. As Levitt explains, augmented product attributes are those offerings that go beyond what customers think they need or have become accustomed to expect. Augmentations can differentiate one product from another, and can give a competitive advantage to producers who effectively augment their products (Levitt, 1983). For KPHP, augmented product components include cultural activities offered by the group of operators to the visitors. While many cultural rural tourists may not expect these components, they may be motivated to visit a destination offering such augmentation over another destination that does not.

**Figure 1. Cultural Rural Tourism product concept for Kampong Pelegong Homestay Program**

![Cultural Rural Tourism product concept for Kampong Pelegong Homestay Program](image-url)
Cultural Contributions to the Residents

Economic contribution from the homestay programme to the individual operators and to the Kampong Pelegong Homestay Programme committee was examined in the study. According to a member of the committee, payment received from a group of visitors that came to the homestay programme is credited into the committee’s treasury account. The treasurer will then pay for the expenditures involved in operating the group such as payment to operators, welcome drink, transportation, cultural show, kampong feast, village tour and management (Table 1). Each operator is paid RM40 for each guest per night. An interview with an operator revealed that hosting a guest would cost roughly about RM23 (3 meals, electric and water). This brings to a marginal profit of RM17 per guest per night (Table 2). As most of the operators have the capacity to accommodate a maximum of three guests per night for each group received by the homestay program, the income could increase threefold.

Table 1. Costs and Profits to the Association (20 Visitors)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Amount</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Receipt from a 20 pax guests (RM110 per pax, one night and two days stay)</td>
<td>RM2,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Payment to operators = RM40 x 20 pax x 1 night</td>
<td>RM800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Welcome drink</td>
<td>RM50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Morning tea</td>
<td>RM50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Transportation</td>
<td>RM30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Cultural show</td>
<td>RM650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Village tour</td>
<td>RM100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less: Management</td>
<td>RM220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit to the Association</td>
<td>RM300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Fatimah Basiron, 2004)

A resident who operate his home as a homestay claims the programme brings little income but “...the money that is obtained from this homestay is ...well...not to say it is little...it is not even a lot...but this is not about money or profit. Getting involved in this programme does not require a lot of capital...the work I have done to my home like building a new toilet for the visitors and the paint work and home decoration... it is
not just meant for the guest, those are also for our own good, we just want to make our house beautiful, we also want to live here right?” Another operator explained that it is difficult to differentiate between the homestay costs and their own family expenses as they do not have separate accounts for food, electricity and water. However, there is an indication from the interviews with the operators that income from the homestay is very much welcomed, especially for the female operators who are normally not employed elsewhere, and it definitely comes in handy for the youngsters who helped around in shows, activities, cleaning, and ferrying the visitors with their motorcycles. As visitors frequently purchase locally produced goods such as herbal medication and handicrafts as souvenirs, the homestay program is seen as an outlet for the local small scale producers of this type of goods. The village’s Women’s Group also benefit from the homestay as they formed catering services for the homestay guests during the Kampong Feast activity. They are also involved in local food display and exhibition, which in turn contribute to the preservation of the traditional food and way of cooking.

**Table 2. Costs and Profits to the Individual Operator (1 Visitor)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Receipt from a guest</th>
<th>RM40</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less: Costs of meals, electric &amp; water</td>
<td>RM23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profit to individual operator</td>
<td>RM17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Research fieldwork, 2005)

The rest of the payments involved are for the local caterers (for welcome drink and feast), for the cultural show performers, to those who are involved in local transport, and for others who assisted in facilitating the activities. Relevant individuals who assisted in managing the group are also paid for their effort and time. Thus, receipts from visitors to Kampong Pelegong Homestay Programme are distributed to the villagers who are involved in the programme.

Part of the receipt from the visitors is retained in the association account. For example, the surcharge for a group of 20 guests that requested a package of 1 night and 2 days stay in the homestay program is RM2,200 (RM110 per guest), yielding a profit of RM300 to the association (Table 1). Profit from the homestay program, which came to a total of RM26,560 by 2004 (table 3), is used by the association to purchase supplies and material deemed necessary to run the program. The
association had also sent several committee members to participate in the State’s Tourism Overseas Sales Mission to expose them to the industry. “We have sent members to Japan to gain experience on marketing (pricing and packaging),” explained a member of Kampong Pelegong Homestay Program Committee proudly about the committee’s achievements. Youths who are involved in the cultural performances were sent for training and performances elsewhere in Malaysia as part of the committee’s effort to preserve the cultural elements of traditional dances and music.

The association works very closely with the Village Development and Security Committee, headed by the village headman. The Village Development and Security Committee oversees the development of the village and the main contribution to the committee is the prize money that they won from competitions organized by several agencies which are involved in the development of rural areas throughout Malaysia. Examples of the competitions are ‘The Cleanest Village’, ‘The Most Beautiful Village’ and ‘The Most Entrepreneurial Village’. Both committees may combine resources to implement community projects to beautify the village. The homestay and the seriousness shown by the community succeeded in convincing rural government agencies to improve infrastructure in the village, thus benefiting the whole community regardless of their involvement with the homestay programme.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Number of guests</th>
<th>Receipts</th>
<th>Profit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>530</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>5,870</td>
<td>760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>415</td>
<td>12,600</td>
<td>1,370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>13,050</td>
<td>1,690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>569</td>
<td>19,500</td>
<td>3,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>658</td>
<td>38,850</td>
<td>4,860</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>908</td>
<td>41,737</td>
<td>5,250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>1633</td>
<td>52,116</td>
<td>8,420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5625</td>
<td>183,723</td>
<td>25,650</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Fatimah Basiron, 2004)
Interviews with the residents indicate that they did not feel guests bring bad influence as the guests appreciate and respect the local culture. All of the residents interviewed in the study mentioned that they had established friendships with several of their guests as they fondly show letters that they receive from the guests from their countries. Some of the visitors had even returned to visit their hosts, bringing with them their friends and families.

The appreciation shown by the tourists toward their village in turn make the villagers appreciate it themselves. The operators perceive the homestay programme as a community project that is driven by the community for the community. Some of them felt that the homestay creates an opportunity for them to be involved in the country’s tourism development, as explained by one of the operator:

“I am excited and thankful because the government has introduced homestay...introduced us to homestay...the government really supports homestay all over Malaysia. Now we know the importance of tourists in developing the country...we know more about the tourists...because we receive tourists from all over the world. This homestay is not hard to organize, as long as we want to...the government also provides training. I read in the newspapers...homestay is one way people in rural areas can get involved in tourism endeavours...count me as being proud because I am part of the tourism industry, right...!”

Nevertheless, the interviews revealed perceptions among the resident participants of the existence of middleman that reap profit in the process of getting visitors to the programme. “They really help us in getting tourists that want to stay in this homestay...the ones that want to use our homestay; if no tourists come, it would be difficult...but it seems that they are the ones that get a lot of profit...a lot of money, we only get a little,” urged a resident. However, it is not clear who these middlemen are as most of the visitor groups came through the State Tourism Council the programme committee or travel agencies. An operator indicated that the motivational consulting companies that bring their training groups take advantage of the homestay program to gain profit. In addition, one of the operators suggested that she would like to see the price charged to the visitors by the committee to be increased as she felt that the price they are charging now is low. This finding seems to contradict the earlier indication that income was not the reason they participated in the
homestay programme; there is a hint here that they indeed look forward for the income from the program.

One of the residents specifically gave the indication of his frustration for not being given any guests amid being a certified homestay operator. According to him:

“the committee should have a fair way of distributing the guests...we have received many groups this year...I have not received a single one yet...where is the justice...when I ask, they said it was because there was a single complaint made once by a Japanese guest...just that one time...they should give me a chance, give me the same as others.”

The researcher tried to get some feedback from a committee member about this accusation about this and was given this reply,

“...a guest complains about the service he provides, we can’t just give another guest to him...it was like this, he gave the Japanese guest...Japanese school kid...taste some ‘sambal belacan’...he said the kid really wanted to try it...he should have informed the kid that the ‘sambal’ was very hot/spicy, he should give warning...but he didn’t...the kid tried and immediately felt the spiciness...then he laughed at the kid...the kid complained to the teacher and the teacher told us...not good...should feel ashamed...so we don’t think we should give any more (visitors) to him.”

CONCLUSION

Kampung Pelegong Homestay Programme displays the characteristics of a cultural rural tourism product. Tourists that came to the programme enjoy the cultural experience and the knowledge that they gain by staying in the homes of the community and by partaking in the organized activities; these findings coincide with findings from earlier research on cultural tourism in Canada (MacDonald and Jolliffe, 2003). The programme is a unique tourism product that provides sensible alternative for tourists who are looking for alternatives. In addition, an important finding indicates that this particular tourism product is unique as it stresses on establishing relationship (‘Sillatul-rahim’ in Malay) between hosts and guests whereby these relationships continue for years through letters, phone conversations, and emails.
The findings of the present study support earlier findings by Ministry of Culture, Arts and Tourism (2001) that hosts and participants display euphoric desire to welcome guests. Whatever shortcomings they have in their home facilities that may reduce the level of comfort received by the guests they compensate with their warm hospitality. Cultural gap exists at a minimum in Kampung Pelegong. The hosts wanted to earn extra income while having foreign guests and sharing their daily lives with the tourists. Having visitors in their homes through the homestay programmes are indications that they are ‘accepted’ by the association. As part of Malay culture, hosts are expected to celebrate and be hospitable to guests that come to their homes. Income from the homestay operation can be considered to be marginal. But leakage may be very low as most services are produced locally. At a glance, the overall social and cultural impacts are likely to be positive as the program seems to increase social cohesion among the hosts and villagers and their commitment to preserve and to provide knowledge on local customs and daily routine in this in turn helps to enhance the tourist experience, similar to findings by MacDonald and Jollife (2003).

Findings from the study include some early feedbacks and perceptions about the programme from the hosts and guests. The programme is an outstanding community development tool, but only if it works. To ensure that community-based tourism like this one works, Beeton (2006) suggests that it is most important to explore local community attitudes toward the programme. It is useless to find out late that the locals have negative perceptions about the programme as it would be more difficult to reverse the damage.

Community-based tourism aims to create a more sustainable tourism industry, focusing on the host community in terms of planning and maintaining tourism development. Pearce (1992) suggests that community-based tourism presents a way to provide an equitable flow of benefits to all affected by tourism through consensus-based decision-making and local control of development. Thus, it is important to know if consensus-based decision-making and local control of development takes place in this homestay programme.

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DESTINATION MARKETING THROUGH A UTILITY BUSINESS MODEL: THE CASE OF CYPRUS

Haris Machlouzarides
Cyprus Tourism Organisation

Traditional business models that used to govern the operations of travel and tourism businesses defined in a rigid way their functional areas and the relationships among them. The advent of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) has driven the transformation of these business models into novel destination marketing models. The Cyprus Tourism Organisation (CTO) recognising the need of establishing an explicit model for managing the process of destination marketing has developed an integrated marketing model to guide the management of the destination’s marketing process. Moreover, the CTO, aiming at enhancing the country’s tourism industry electronic marketing deployment levels, has put in place a utility business model that aims at optimising the industry’s potential to engage in integrated marketing activities. The key for optimising destination’s marketing processes is the successful implementation of the model through integration of traditional with electronic marketing activities.

Keywords: Destination Marketing, Electronic Marketing, Travel and Tourism, ICT.

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

In the process of achieving their marketing objectives, Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) deploy Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in diverse ways and extends.

The early ICT deployment days, in regards to electronic marketing, were marked by the development of brochure-like web sites, which had as a primary purpose the representation of the DMOs’ products and services. These web sites were characterised by limited interaction with the users, replicating the organisations’ offline marketing brochures (Chaffey et al., 2003).

DMOs soon realised the real marketing value of ICT towards reaching different groups of customers through innovative marketing
methods (Sigala, 2004). Modern electronic marketing deployment times involve the execution of models that provide DMOs with a plethora of options towards satisfying particular customer needs through interactive and direct marketing techniques (Sargeant & West 2001).

The modern electronic marketing business models provide DMOs with the capacity to utilise ICT for achieving their strategic marketing objectives. Through the selection of the most appropriate electronic marketing methods, DMOs can maximise their reach towards their customers and business partners, while facilitating their internal processes (Philips, 2003).

The process of establishing an electronic marketing business model for a DMO is comprised by four basic steps (Osterwalder, 2002):

1. The first step involves the definition of the products or services that the DMO offers, which deliver a considerable value to its customers.
2. The DMO’s value networks need then to be defined. These identify the DMO’s partners and internal structures that are necessary to create value to the organisation’s products or services.
3. The third step of the process involves the recognition and the definition of the DMO’s customers and the channel structures that the DMO shall deploy to service them.
4. Finally, the DMO’s revenue model that will describe the specific techniques through which the DMO will generate income needs to be defined.

A DMO can establish its electronic marketing business model based on the four steps identified and maintain it by continuously evaluating its marketing environment based on the above process (Rayport & Jaworski 2001). Electronic marketing business models evolve continuously and can be categorised in many different ways (Timmers, 1998; Eisenmann, 2002; Rappa, 2005).

**TRAVEL AND TOURISM BUSINESS MODELS**

The travel and tourism industry, being highly dynamic by its nature, requires the deployment of electronic marketing business models to efficiently promote and distribute products and services towards satisfying particular customer needs in business-to-business (B2B) or business-to-customer (B2C) markets. The intangible nature of the travel and tourism product in relation to its sensitivity to internal and external
environmental threats, have driven travel and tourism organisations to adopt ICT to enhance their marketing activities (Kotler et al., 2006).

Traditionally, travel and tourism organisational models were grouped into five major functional categories that supported the tourism buying process (Law et al., 2003). These models along with example organisations are presented in Table 1 below.

**Table 1. Traditional travel and tourism organisational models**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation Model</th>
<th>Example Organisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Product Management</td>
<td>National and Regional Tourism Organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel and Tourism Organisers</td>
<td>Travel Agents and Tour Operators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation Providers</td>
<td>Airlines, Car Rentals, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation Providers</td>
<td>Hotels, Villas, Apartments, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food and Entertainment Providers</td>
<td>Restaurants, Bars, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The relationship between these models was very well defined and difficult to yield. However, the advent of ICT has led to the evolution of the way traditional travel and tourism organisations supported the tourism buying process, and has driven them to employ robust electronic marketing models for achieving their strategic marketing objectives (Rodriguez, 2003). This change has led to the formation of novel destination marketing models augmenting the tourism buying process.

For the purpose of facilitating the process of destination marketing planning, Kotler et al. (1999) proposed a model, comprising of the five primary reference points identified below:

i. The tourist: Understanding the tourist needs and desired experience from a destination is the key to enable successful relationship marketing.

ii. The destination: The successful management of the set of available products and services that create the total experience and value proposition to the tourist distinguish a successful destination.

iii. Tourism services suppliers: The management of independent suppliers of tourism services and the implementation of policies to sustain their interdependencies will provide mutual benefits and long-term economic returns.
iv. The local population (citizens): The satisfaction of the long-term needs and wants of the local population will sustain the destination’s development.

v. The public-private interest coordinator: The coordination and facilitation of the interests of both the public and private sectors through effective communication will enable the destination’s economic growth.

While many authors (Frew, 2005; Buhalis, 2003) have provided a multiplicity of perspectives on the tasks required for guiding the process of destination marketing planning, the above conceptual model facilitates the exploration of the criteria that contribute to the successful attainment of multi-stakeholder goals, which are often the norm for DMO’s marketing planning.

Since destination marketing planning models continuously advance and in view of the fact that they can be categorised in many different ways (Demetriades & Baltas 2003), below a functional approach to their categorisation is presented:

A. Destination Management Organisation (DMO) Model: The DMO model describes organisations that have as their core business the management of the tourism product; National and Regional Tourism Organisations (Schaumann, 2005). NTOs, starting with their natural requirement to distribute up to date information, have utilised ICT to augment the process of knowledge management (Mertins, et al., 2003). Through the deployment of ICT, NTOs have managed to capture information, share and distribute it across their partners and customers and create knowledge for utilising it towards achieving their marketing objectives (Liautaud, et al., 2001).

B. Low-Cost Airline Model: The low-cost airline model describes flight transportation providers that provide airline tickets at low prices in exchange for eliminating many traditional passenger services (Driver, 2001). Low cost airlines are characterised by operational efficiency and usually provide a single passenger class and a simple fare scheme. Low cost airlines’ requirement for operational efficiency has driven the evolution of traditional Electronic Distribution Systems (EDS) into Global Distribution Systems (GDS). GDS have enabled the distribution of unreserved seating to B2B and B2C markets in real time (Mintel, 2003).
C. Online Travel Intermediary Model: This model describes organisations that manage and distribute travel and tourism products and services by combining them to provide packaged holidays (Buhalis & Licata 2002). The inherent requirement of Online Travel Intermediaries for up to date information for product availability and pricing, as well as the perishability of the travel and tourism products and services has driven the extension of Global Distribution Systems (GDS) to support direct distribution of travel and tourism products and services across B2B and B2C markets. Modern GDS facilitate real-time, dynamic distribution of travel and tourism products and services across the world.

D. Travel Search Engine (TSE) Model: The TSE model describes organisations that focus on the facilitation of the tourism buying process through the provision of specialised tools for helping customers search, compare, select and purchase the most fit for purpose travel and tourism products and services. TSE’s deploy modern ICT to facilitate transactions in business-to-business (B2B), business-to-customer (B2C), and customer-to-customer (C2C) markets. By totally supporting the tourism buying process (Briggs, 2001), TSE’s can achieve the tangibilisation of travel and tourism products and services (Shostack, 1977).

While in the past travel and tourism organisations questioned the need for electronic marketing business model deployment, today the question that needs to be answered is how to optimise the deployment of electronic marketing business models to survive competition and maximise the benefits out of their utilisation. Today’s dynamic tourism market drives travel and tourism organisations to implement the above destination marketing planning models in diverse ways, in an attempt to stay competitive and maximise their market share (Law, et al., 2003). In an environment where customers’ needs are constantly changing based on the availability of relevant up to date information, travel and tourism organisations need to devise novel methods to support the augmented tourism buying process.

THE CTO’S INTEGRATED MARKETING MODEL

The Cyprus Tourism Organisation (CTO) has always aimed to fulfil customers’ needs to the maximum possible level, being aware of the significance of customer satisfaction towards loyalty and retention. Following its customers’ new behavioural characteristics, the CTO has
developed an integrated marketing model (Machlouzarides, 2009) that guides the realisation of best practices across alternative communication channels among the destination’s stakeholders. The developed marketing model aims at facilitating the effectiveness of the CTO’s global marketing activities as well as supporting the marketing actions carried out by the destination’s stakeholders in an attempt to supply customers with authentic experiences. The results of the implementation of the model will involve the optimisation of the Cyprus’ destination marketing process, by enabling the maximisation of customers’ satisfaction. Figure 1 presents the CTO’s integrated marketing model.

The model begins by capturing customers’ needs during the initial stage of the buying process, which deals with awareness. At this stage the customer identifies the need to purchase a product or service and begins exploring about it. The CTO along with the destination’s stakeholders are expected to instigate customers’ attention at this stage by promoting the destination’s products and services through the appropriate communication channels.

Once the customer’s attention has been acquired by the CTO and the destination’s stakeholders, the customer begins to seek for information about the destination’s products or services in the available information space. The customer at this stage aims at discovering detailed information about the product or service under consideration towards formulating specific requirements (product characteristics, price, convenience, etc). Once specific requirements have been formulated, the customer tries to find detailed information about the provider(s) of the product or service under consideration and evaluates the opportunity cost of not choosing the next best alternative. The CTO and the destination’s stakeholders at this stage are expected to provide explicit information about available products and services and distribute this information through the appropriate communication channels towards engaging the customer in a process that will facilitate higher possibilities of sale leads.

The customer is ready for purchasing the relevant product or service when all the questions around it have been answered and the relevant product or service has been recognised as the one which provides maximum satisfaction to the customer’s needs. At this stage the customer seeks guidance on how to purchase the selected product or service. The CTO and the destination’s stakeholders should provide at this stage the required processes and support services to guide the customer through the purchasing/conversion process.
The customer enters the fourth stage as soon as the order for the relevant product or service is placed. Now, the customer seeks for cognitive closure and affirmation (Choi, et al., 2008) through the feedback provided that by the supplier and is applicable to the specific product or service that was purchased. The CTO and the destination’s stakeholders are expected to support the customer’s cognitive processes by providing feedback and support information at this stage, as well as by enabling online customer care and support services. Moreover, the CTO and the destination’s stakeholders should provide relevant cross-selling offers to the customer.

The fourth stage extends to cover the period of the customer’s visit to the destination. Here, the CTO and the destination’s stakeholders are expected to provide customer care and support services. Through the provision of traditional and electronic customer support services they will manage to maintain close contact with the customers in an attempt to anticipate and satisfy their expectations. This will be possible through the analysis of the relevant customers’ information to derive their individual preferences and employ the appropriate procedures to support them across the time and place dimensions (NOST, 2005).
During the final stage of the model, the customer expects to receive post purchase communication relevant to the purchased products or services, for completing the buying process’s stages of cognitive closure and affirmation (Choi, et al., 2008). Additionally, the customer will expect to have the appropriate means that will enable the provision of feedback ratings relevant to the products or services purchased. In the case where the customer requested to receive news and promotions about the destination’s products and services the CTO and the destination’s stakeholders are expected to communicate relevant offers to the customer which should encourage customer retention.

Three major foundations, namely, Real-time Customer Segmentation, Customer Experience Management and Marketing Performance Management underpin the developed model’s implementation. These foundations enable the maximisation of the model’s performance as they enable the successful management of the dynamic marketing processes that result out of the interactive nature of this model.

The CTO and the destination’s stakeholders will only be able to optimise the model’s performance through closely monitoring these three underpinning factors. Failure to manage these factors will have adverse results on the effectiveness of the model negatively impacting the destination’s dynamic marketing processes.

By utilising real-time customer segmentation the CTO and the destination’s stakeholders will attain effective management of customer targeting throughout the model’s stages (Hass, 2005). Real-time customer segmentation involves the analysis of the information resulting from every interaction with the customer leading to customisation of the product offering to satisfy the customer’s expectations. Through the knowledge that will result from real-time customer segmentation the development of new customer segments will be possible, as well as the evolution of existing ones towards the realisation of more efficient marketing activities.

Customer experience management during all the stages of the model will increase customer satisfaction and provide for extending and sustaining long lasting relationships (ETC, 2008). The management of customer experiences will only be feasible through the design and delivery of customised products and services that will facilitate the satisfaction of customers’ expectations. The CTO and the destination’s stakeholders will manage to optimise the customer’s purchasing process only through closely managing customer experiences. This will provide for the establishment of long lasting relationships with the customers, which will be founded upon authentic experiences.
Marketing performance management enables the monitoring and control of real marketing outcomes in relation to marketing investments. The need for marketing performance management is now becoming more imperative than ever before since there is a direct relationship between measurability and profitability, which is becoming more apparent through electronic marketing techniques (Hair, et al., 2003). The deployment of advanced metrics that evaluate the performance of the CTO and the destination’s stakeholders’ marketing activities at every stage of the model as well as collectively throughout the lifetime of a customer, will determine the destination’s marketing model effectiveness.

The implementation and close supervision of the aforementioned underpinning factors will enable the successful deployment of the developed integrated marketing model for the CTO and the destination’s stakeholders, which will enhance customer satisfaction and facilitate the growth of long lasting relationships with customers.

FRAMEWORK FOR DEPLOYING A UTILITY BUSINESS MODEL

Despite the fact that the Cyprus tourism industry has been long established it is still based on small – medium companies (SME’s), a factor that hinders its dynamism to adopt new marketing models (Kotler, et al., 2006). Additionally, accommodation establishments in Cyprus have traditionally used as their main distribution channel the tour operators (who book their rooms early in the season), resulting in low investment in alternative distribution channels. The above mentioned characteristics of the tourism industry are considered as an obstacle to the introduction of modern marketing techniques.

Cyprus was ranked 24th, out of 130 countries, in the Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index 2008 (World Economic Forum, 2008) scoring 4.9 out of 7. In particular, regarding the industry’s ICT infrastructure indicator, Cyprus was ranked 37th, scoring only 3.7 out of 7.

Based on the data residing on the CTO accommodation database, in 2008, only 64% of the licensed accommodation establishments had an email address while only 53% had their own website. The disappointing numbers regarding the accommodation establishments’ ICT infrastructure can be explained based on the aforementioned characteristics of the Cyprus tourism industry.

The results of a survey carried out for the e-business watch (EC, 2006), illustrated that on the totality of the Cyprus tourism sector, which is comprised by Accommodation, Restaurants and Catering Services, and
Travel Agencies and Tour Operators, 82% had internet access (EU average 93%), while only 42% of them had broadband internet access (EU average 69%).

With the advent of electronic distribution channels, visitors are searching and booking online, customising their packages according to their individual needs (Wang & Fesenmaier 2006). An accommodation establishment that does not have an online presence will fail to even be presented as an option to the visitor and as a result it will be omitted.

In an era that being online is not enough, tourism enterprises in Cyprus need to establish strong online presence through online marketing campaigns and modern distribution strategies (Marcussen, 2008). The industry’s nature, however, along with the scarcity in availability of qualified labour make this a very hard task for tourism enterprises in Cyprus to perform. Cyprus was ranked 112th regarding the availability of qualified labour in the Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index 2008 (World Economic Forum, 2008) scoring 4.7 out of 7.

The seriousness of the situation was recognised by the Cyprus government, which recently established at the Cyprus University of Technology the department of Tourism and Hotel Management where higher level education will be provided to individuals for entering the tourism industry.

Following a CTO’s initiative, a number of regional and thematic tourism boards have been established in an attempt to resolve the industry’s inherent problems. These tourism boards are being funded by the CTO and are expected to resolve many of the industry problems that are related to the limitations mentioned above.

Additionally, the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism has published a subsidisation scheme through which SME’s may receive funding for introducing ICT at three different levels. The first level involves the introduction of basic ICT to the SME’s, while the second level involves the establishment of a web presence. The third level involves the introduction of business management applications as well as electronic commerce solutions.

Furthermore, research and development projects that are funded by the European Union’s Structural Funds, the Cyprus Research Promotion Foundation and other funding organisations are continuously undertaken by various institutions around Cyprus to promote the industry’s dynamism towards adopting new marketing models.
Through the actions taken, the tourism industry’s competitive levels are expected to evolve and develop to an extent that will reflect its overall maturity standards.

The CTO, aiming at enhancing the country’s tourism industry electronic marketing deployment levels, is employing a utility business model that will optimise the industry’s potential to engage in modern electronic marketing activities. Through the framework for deploying a utility business model, illustrated in Figure 2, the CTO aims to provide the services that are required by the industry in a reliable and usable environment (Malhotra, 2000). The provision of these services will be facilitated by business partners through service level agreements that will set the ground for a sustainable business environment.

**Figure 2. Framework for deploying a utility business model**

The proposed model aims to serve customers at all business levels through three distinct customer service paths (Distribution Channels), namely, Extranet - B2B, Intranet - B2E and Internet - B2C, as well as to facilitate communities and transactions among customers (C2C).
The provision of content to the alternative customer segments will be facilitated by a series of underlying media. The completeness, timeliness and accuracy of the provided content will guide the quality of communication during the process and will enable the facilitation of high customer satisfaction levels.

A series of web-based applications will be utilised for processing the customer requests and enable usable procedures that will facilitate task oriented interactions. The procedures will relate to all stakeholders, whose profiles will be securely kept in a central storage, which will be the foundation of the proposed framework’s infrastructure.

Customers interacting with individual tourism businesses through the electronic marketing channels that will be created by the utility business model described above may be segmented based on their (Hass, 2005):

1. Accessibility; Ease to reach them efficiently,
2. Differential; Responsiveness differences to different marketing mix,
3. Actionability; Product or service availability for segment,
4. Measurability; Ease to measure their size and purchasing power,
5. Substantial; Size and profitability of the segment.

Segmenting customers based on the above criteria will enable tourism businesses to formulate and refine customer profiles, which will lead to personalised interactions. Tourism businesses, through deploying the possessed knowledge about the specific customer segments, will be able to dynamically optimise their marketing mix, towards providing customised interaction experiences at an individual segment level.

The challenge encountered by the individual tourism businesses, in the process of formulating their marketing action plans, is finding the correct balance between traditional and modern marketing channels. The implementation of a well-balanced marketing action plan that will involve the exploitation of traditional as well as modern marketing channels will significantly enhance the process of achieving the individual tourism businesses’ marketing objectives.

Modern electronic marketing channels should be deployed to enable the process of identifying and analysing specific target market’s demands and distributing quality products and services to satisfy those demands, providing customer value in pursuit of customer satisfaction.

The distinguishing feature that electronic marketing channels provide in contrast to traditional ones is the wealth of information that can be generated during the process that can be deployed to enhance the effectiveness of the channels at the velocity at which everything moves.
Consequently, electronic marketing enabled marketing processes can be constantly managed in an efficient manner towards achieving a competitive advantage.

Tourism businesses will deploy electronic marketing methods to manage their marketing processes by facilitating their relationships with customers in pursuit of sustainable tourism development. Individual customer interaction with the individual tourism businesses’ electronic marketing channels can be managed through the identification and analysis of the individual behaviour and preferences, thus providing a unique experience at every point of contact.

The ability of the tourism businesses to analyse, segment and target customers in real time through the deployment of the utility business model described above will enable the provision of unique customer experiences, engaging customers, leading into strong customer relationships. Operating within the strategic market – product segments (CTO, 2004), the individual tourism businesses can further segment customers based on their behavioural and preference patterns.

The analysis of the information about customer interaction through the multiplicity of electronic marketing channels will enable the tourism businesses to continuously refine individual segment profiles in an attempt to enhance customer interaction. The outcome of the above process will be the generation and management of strong customer relationships towards achieving tourism businesses’ marketing objectives.

CONCLUSIONS

In pursuing the paradigm proposed, the CTO will manage to gain a comprehensive understanding of customers’ expectations, which will enable new strategic directions for facilitating their satisfaction. As a result, the destination’s marketing operations will be optimised, impacting positively the sustainable development of the Cyprus tourism industry.

The proposed paradigm is premised on the belief that in a highly competitive business environment, the only way forward for the CTO is by maximising the effectiveness of its marketing efforts worldwide. This could only be achieved through the integration of its marketing processes and the facilitation of the industry’s marketing processes for enabling the:

• Improvement of the destination’s communication efficiency with its customers,
• Enhancement of the destination’s brand image,
• Enrichment of customer service through alternative marketing channels,
Facilitation of customer profiling and the achievement of relationship marketing,

Improvement of knowledge distribution across the tourism industry,

Reinforcement of tourist loyalty as a result of increased customer satisfaction.

The interactive nature of electronic marketing actions will assist the CTO in the process of identifying its customers’ preferences for delivering value adding services, towards building long term relationships with them. In the process of pursuing a customer orientation strategy, the Cyprus tourism industry is advised to segment customers according to their value to the destination, so as to optimise the implementation of the destination’s retention strategies.

Keeping and serving the right customers is a process that entails reasonable understanding of their preferences towards delivering value adding services. Appreciating customers’ variances on demographic and experience variables will provide insights for the industry’s marketing executives, towards planning and implementing effective customer acquisition and retention strategies. Segmentation of customers should be connected to customer behaviour profiling in order to derive knowledge about the range of value adding services that are expected to be delivered to specific customer segments.

During the process of realisation of the proposed paradigm, the industry should continuously evaluate the outcomes against the relevant objectives to ensure its effective implementation. Reconsidering value adding services and understanding customers’ current needs as well as anticipating their future desires are among the critical criteria that need to be assessed in order to stay competitive in the modern marketplace. Therefore a key factor for the successful attainment of the destination’s strategic objectives is the synchronisation of the electronic marketing activities with the traditional marketing activities.

Hence, the CTO should create holistic marketing plans that should involve a comprehensive approach that will lead to customer engagement through a combination of integrated marketing activities. This will drive the industry towards serving the customer’s preferences more efficiently and will enable new strategic directions for benefiting the destination from enduring customers’ relationships.

Through the integrated marketing approach, the CTO will manage to establish a common knowledge repository which will enable the derivation of valuable conclusions about understanding customers’ preferences and segmenting them according to their value to the
destination. The integration of knowledge management models with the CTO’s strategic objectives will enable the execution, management and monitoring of integrated marketing campaigns across alternative communication channels that will facilitate interaction with the customers in an attempt to satisfy their varying needs at a personalised level.

By enabling the provision of integrated marketing services to the customers, the CTO will manage to improve customer satisfaction and extend build long lasting relationships with customers towards gaining a competitive edge.

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Images of Egypt in United Kingdom Tour Operators’ Brochures

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Tour operators and travel agents play a double role as distribution channels and image creators with tourist brochures playing an important role in the image creation process. This paper assesses tourist images of Egypt in the United Kingdom through content analysis of the brochures of United Kingdom tour operators using 35 image attributes which are rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Most of the brochures in the United Kingdom market present Egypt and its physical attractions—beaches, historical sites, luxury accommodation—extremely positively although clearly they have a vested interest in doing this. They are however silent on certain aspects of the destination which have received negative comments in the literature—the real lifestyles of local people and their friendliness and hospitality, the local cuisine and safety and security.

Keywords: Brochures, content analysis, Egypt, tour operators, tourist image, UK tourist market

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Competitive advantage not only depends on the quality of a destination’s tangible attributes but also on the quality of its intangible attributes, such as service quality and image (Hernandez-Lobato et al., 2006). The success or failure of destinations depends on their images in the minds of potential tourists abroad and the effective management of those images by destination managers (Sonmez and Sirakaya, 2002). Egypt as a tourist destination has been unable to achieve its tourist aims and has not maintained a good share of the international tourist market, despite its unique tourist attractions. This may result from its tourist image abroad.

Formal information sources, such as brochures, have an important impact on image formation of a destination (Beerli and Marten, 2004).
According to Molina and Esteban (2006) tourism brochures have a direct influence on destination image formation and on the destination choice process. Destination marketers need to understand what to include in brochures, before placing their promotional strategies in tourist markets.

The aim of this paper is to assess tourist images of Egypt as a tourism destination in the UK tourist market. The assessment is undertaken through a review of the relevant destination image literature and content analysis of UK tour operators’ brochures collected from travel agencies in UK high street travel agencies. 35 image attributes are identified and rated on a 5-point Likert scale. The paper concludes that while the brochures are extremely positive about Egypt’s physical attractions - beaches, historical sites, luxury accommodation – they are silent on some aspects of the tourism product which have received some negative comments in the literature.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Tourist image is considered an important aspect of a country’s general image. Every destination has an image, but some destinations have stronger images than others (Sonmez and Sirakaya, 2002; Marino, 2008). The intangibility of tourism products means that their image is the only way which potential tourists have of comparing destinations and choosing between them and therefore it is important to create and transmit favourable images to potential tourists in target markets (O’Leary and Deegan, 2005; Marino, 2008). Hernadez-Lobato et al. (2006, p.344) define tourism destination images as ‘a mental schema developed by a tourist on a basis of impressions’.

Studies of destination images can be traced back to the 1970s, when Hunt examined the role of image in tourism development (Hunt 1975 cited in Ekinci and Hosany, 2006). Many researchers have discussed image formation components, for instance Gartner (1993) and White (2004) explain that images are formed by three different but interrelated components: cognitive, affective and conative. Gunn (1988a; 1988b) demonstrated also that images are conceived at a number of levels, namely, organic, induced and modified-induced. Gunn also argues that images are slow to change, so regular assessment is very important.

A clear understanding of tourist images of a destination is essential for developing successful marketing strategies (Sonmez and Sirakaya, 2002). Kokosalakis et al. (2006) assert that destination marketers should promote destination images distinctively enough to achieve competitive advantage and that they should direct the image marketing campaigns not
only at potential tourists but also at residents. Molina and Esteban (2006:1041) emphasise that ‘destination image is formed from communication inputs throughout one’s lifetime, including suggestions made by family and friends, television programs, movies, books, magazines, guides, brochures, and advertisements’. Brochures as a means of promotion play an essential role in the formation of the tourist’s destination-induced image (Sirakaya and Sonmez, 2000).

Tourist images of Egypt

Tourism in Egypt has suffered from neighbourhood security and international and national political crises. The number of tourists decreased during the Second Gulf War (1990-1991). Numbers also decreased in 2000 as a result of the Al-Aksa Intifada in Palestine (Steiner, 2007) and in 2002 during the American invasion of Iraq. Egypt’s tourism statistics still suffer from poor security in the Middle East region (e.g. as a result of Israel and the ongoing Palestinian problem). The terrorism attacks on the World Trade Centre in New York on 11 September 2001 similarly had a negative impact on tourism in Egypt with the number of tourists decreasing by over 50% (Mansfeld and Winckler, 2004; Steiner, 2007).

Egyptian tourism has also suffered from national crises, such as the terrorism attacks which targeted tourists from 1990 to 2006. Of these, the most damaging crisis occurred in Luxor in 1997 when 58 tourists were shot by terrorists and resulted in large numbers of tour operators cancelling their reservations for the 1997/1998 season (The Specialist National Councils, 1998). Some tourist-generating countries, such as Japan and Switzerland, issued statements warning their citizens against travelling to Egypt (El Beltagy, 1998) and hotel occupancy in Luxor and Aswan reached its lowest levels ever at only 10% (Awad, 1998). These tourism crises negatively impacted on the tourist images of Egypt in international tourist markets.

According to Baloglu and Mangaloglu (2001) tourist images of Egypt in the United States have both positive and negative attributes. For instance, Egypt was perceived to score well in terms of its historical and culture attractions, accommodation, value for money, friendly people, beautiful natural attractions and good climate. However it was scored badly in terms of its local food, nightlife and entertainment, personal safety, good quality of infrastructure and standards of hygiene and cleanliness. Baloglu and Mangaloglu (2001) demonstrate also that the most frequently-mentioned positive responses for Egyptian image
attributes were historic, ancient ruins, archaeology, old, fascinating, exciting, stimulating, exotic, colourful and attractive. The most frequently-mentioned negative responses were dangerous, unreliable, militaristic and terrorism.

The importance of the destination image held by intermediaries

Potential tourists usually have limited knowledge about tourist destinations not previously visited from media and tourist intermediaries (Um and Crompton, 1999). Baloglu and Mangaloglu (2001) emphasise the importance of destination tourist images held by tour operators and travel agents in the tourism distribution and information system. Tour operators and travel agents are opinion formers for their consumers - their images about destination have an important influence on the decision-making processes of potential tourists (Lawton and Page, 1997). Therefore in the destination selection process, tour operators and travel agents play a double role as distribution channels and image creators. They present new definitions of the destination tourist product for their consumers, rather than presenting the tourist product according to consumers’ perceived images (Reimer, 1990). Local tourist intermediaries in Egypt do not have enough power to independently enhance or modify the destination image. They depend on cooperation with international tourist intermediaries and media in major tourist markets (Steiner, 2007).

Tourism Brochures as images creators

Despite the development of electronic information sources for tourism activities, public authorities in charge of tourism development and mega tour operators still allocate enormous sums to the production of brochures (Segui-Llinas and Capella-Cervera, 2006). It is argued that potential tourists compare tourist brochures then make their choice for a preferred destination (Molina and Esteban, 2006). Potential tourists use an affective choice mode for expressing destination attributes, such as the pictures in brochures, and an information-processing mode to evaluate attributes, such the price and the quality of tourist facilities (Goossens, 1994). Tain-Cole and Crompton (2003) assert that tourism brochures should meet three main objectives and influence: image formation; destination choice; satisfaction.

Molina and Esteban (2006) assert that destination image formation can be predicted by only two attributes of brochures: luring and sense of
wonder. They argue that the brochures are a conventional communication tool frequently used in public and private tourism activities and brochures are designed to be informational, promotional, and lure. Andereck (2005) is convinced that tourism brochures have more influence on inexperienced tourists than repeat tourists.

Many researchers ranked brochures as one of the most important information sources for tourist attractions, for instance O’Leary and also Andereck and Caldwell 1993 (cited in Andereck, 2005) ranked brochures as the third most commonly-used information source by tourists. Yamamoto and Gill 1999 (cited in Andereck, 2005) found brochures to be one of the two most important sources of information for Japanese tourists. Andereck (2005) reported that brochures were ranked the fifth most-common source of information. Researchers have analysed tourism brochures from different perspectives - some of them focusing on the brochure text and others focusing on the pictures. Tuohino, (2001) analyses destination images in two ways: images of tourism professionals and images of tourist brochures. The brochure analysis focuses on the picture-text relation as well as on the general appearance and style of the brochures.

METHODOLOGY

The research outlined in this paper was based on an analysis of the tourist images of Egypt presented by tour operators to the UK tourist market. Selected sample of brochures to be analysed were produced by main tour operators in the United Kingdom tourist market. Seventeen brochures, most of them produced by Thomas Cook, Thomson, Kuoni and Airtours for the 2008/2009 season, were collected from local travel agents located in three major United Kingdom cites: Cardiff, Liverpool and London. The brochures selected were divided into two categories: the first category included Egypt together with other country destinations destinations, the second presented Egypt as a specific destination.

The research survey focuses on the brochure pictures and textual comments. After reviewing other image attributes and measurement scales (Echtner and Richie, 1991; Getz and Sailor, 1993; Baloglu and Mangaloglu; 2001; Hayes and Macleod, 2006; Molina and Esteban, 2006; Marino, 2008), 35 image attributes were selected for investigating the tourist image of Egypt (see Table 1). Each attribute was rated by the researcher on a 5-point Likert scale (very positive, positive, neither positive nor negative, negative, very negative). A sixth ‘not applicable’ category was offered for image attributes.
Table 1. Attributes used to measure tourist images of Egypt in 17 brochures produced by UK tour operators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attributes</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Natural attractions</td>
<td>Local infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Coral reefs</td>
<td>Safety and security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- River Nile</td>
<td>Unpolluted environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Beaches</td>
<td>Night life and entertainments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Desert (Safari)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rich landscape</td>
<td>Hygiene and cleanliness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical attraction</td>
<td>Friendly and hospitably people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Pyramids</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ancient</td>
<td>Local life and customs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Temples</td>
<td>Shopping facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Tombs</td>
<td>Luxury</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Islamic Architectures (Cairo)</td>
<td>Magical, majestic, memorable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation facilities</td>
<td>Mysterious, unique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weather</td>
<td>Festival, events and conferences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local food (cuisine)</td>
<td>Relaxing and comforting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value for money</td>
<td>Sunny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active tourism (sports activities)</td>
<td>Luxor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Diving</td>
<td>Red Sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Camels</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

This study used content analysis as an unstructured technique to measure tourist destination images as presented in tourist brochures of Egypt. Albers and James (1988), Crompton (1979 cited in Jenkins, 1999), Pritchard (2001) and Segui-Llinas and Capella-Cervera (2006) also used this technique to analyse tourism brochures to measure destination images. According to Finn et al. (2000 cited in Segui-Llinas, and Capella-Cervera 2006) content analysis is a quantitative means of analysing qualitative data by counting frequencies in categories with different meanings. Pine and Gilmore (1999) suggest that content analysis of brochures and leaflets should integrate both qualitative and quantitative dimensions. Jenkins (1999), Hall and Valentin (2005) and O’Leary and Deegan (2005) indicate that the content analysis technique can be used to analyse written and photographic information, such as guidebooks and tourism brochures. They also highlight that content analysis can provide a great deal of information about the image projected of tourist destinations.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Visualization of the Egyptian tourist product was presented through photographs and these were supplemented by textual comments. Most of the brochures (94%) emphasised the enjoyability of tourist places in Egypt. In general positive images of Egypt as a tourist destination were presented by the United Kingdom tour operators’ brochures. All the brochures focused mainly on beach tourism, as well as historical tourism. The brochures emphasised on the luxury accommodation (96%). Historical and ancient tourist images were the most popular images although some brochures (24%) such as Kouni (2008), Airtours (2008), and Thomson (2008) refer to the diversity of the Egyptian tourist product. For instance the Thomson brochure commented that:

>When you picture Egypt what springs to mind? Rippling desert sands? Majestic pyramids? The River Nile? Well think again, because these days it’s all about the beaches. A relaxing alternative to the fabled treasure of ancient Egypt, the fashionable resorts that make up the Red Sea Riviera are now considered to be the place to holiday. You’re talking luxurious hotel complexes, golden sandy beaches, and, of course, diving centres.

(Thomson, 2008:16)

Most of the brochures focused on the Pyramids (88%) and temples (78%). This is not unusual - many tourist destinations marketing strategies spotlight their cultural and heritage attractions (Kokosalakis et al, 2006). Bryce (2007) demonstrated this also in his study emphasising that Egypt was presented and promoted in European tourism brochures with two dimensions - ancient Pharaonic Egypt and modern beach (sun/sand/sea) tourism. The Pharaonic, the oriental and the mystery images are the dominant popular images of Egypt. The River Nile is presented positively in about half of the brochures. It is always linked to cruises and Luxor city which is presented very positively in all brochures. Islamic images of Old Cairo are also presented positively in some brochures (35%) through photographs of Islamic architecture. The images of Cairo and the rest of Egypt in all the brochures were dominated by camels and Pyramids. The brochures used words such as: magical; majestic; memorable; mysterious; unique, to describe the historical and natural tourist attractions of Egypt.

Although all brochures showcased the superb beaches in the Red Sea region, only half of them commented on the coral reefs as underwater
attractions. Some of them (33%) demonstrated diving activities. However not one of the brochures mentioned the north-western coastal resorts on the Mediterranean Sea. Hence the image of Egypt as a destination for the sports activities (active tourism) focuses only on the Red Sea resorts. The tourist image of Egypt constructed through photographs of historical and recreational landscapes is not connected to local people, local culture and local identity. In other words the Egyptian tourist image is mostly based on physical landscape rather than Egypt’s rich cultural heritage and its local people, local culture and local identities.

There were no local people at all in the most of brochures (80%), if local people were shown it was in a negative terms - of poor people and dirty children in crowded streets, but images of the wider cross-section of real local people and real lifestyles was not presented in the brochures. There are no textual comments or photographs showing local people and tourists interacting in most of the brochures (79%). Some of them (21%) present Bazaar sellers and camel owners dealing with tourists. Thereby images of Egypt’s friendly and hospitable people are not presented in brochures. This may impact negatively on perception of safety because depicting local people with tourists in the same picture gives a feeling of safety and security, especially in destinations such as Egypt which have suffered from different tourism crises, particularly terrorism. One brochure also refers indirectly to the unsafe situation in Egypt through publishing the address of internet site (www.fco.gov.uk) which provides advice tourists before they travel. In August 2008 this site warned potential tourists not to travel to Egypt because the risk of terrorism remained.

Apart from night shots the weather was always shown as being sunny. This may reflect two images: positive for beaches and negative for historical sites in summer when temperatures can soar. All the brochures focused on the desert landscapes of Egypt but only a few (18%) demonstrates positively the desert tourist activities, such as safari tours and Bedouin tent celebrations. Most of the brochure pictures (88%) referred positively to the unpolluted environment. All brochures demonstrated a very positive image of Egypt as a value for money destination through explicit comparison of the prices of tourist programmes and tourist nights in Egyptian hotels with prices in other comparable destinations. The brochures emphasise that these destinations do not have the same attractions as Egypt but their prices are higher than Egyptian prices.
Some negative attributes of the tourist image of Egypt are missing in the United Kingdom tour operators’ brochures. Most of the brochures (88%) did not mention the Egyptian local food as a key part of the total tourist product. This may be so as not to draw attention to negative images relating to low standards of hygiene as mentioned by Baloglu and Mangaloglu (2001). The standard of local infrastructure and transportation is not mentioned or pictured at all in the brochures - again this may be because of perceptions of its low standards. Similarly most of the brochures (82%) did not focus on the night life or entertainments.

Although Egypt has many Bazaars in all its tourist places, many of the brochures did not picture or comment on these shopping facilities. It may be that these retail outlets do not have a good relationship with the tour operators producing the brochures. Many modern and new aspects of the Egyptian tourist product - festivals, conferences, bird watching, diving to observe ancient architecture underwater - are not pictured or commented on at all in the brochures. Most of the brochures (88%) portrayed tourists either singly or in couples. The United Kingdom tour operators’ brochures are clearly not aiming the Egyptian tourism product at families - this may give the impression that Egypt not suitable for family tourism.

CONCLUSION

The research investigates the tourist image of Egypt held by the United Kingdom tour operators through analysis of a sample (17) of their brochures. A 5-item Likert scale was developed to content analyse 35 Egyptian image attributes. Clearly the tour operators producing the brochures have a vested interest in the consumer purchasing the tourist products portrayed and therefore are likely to be silent on any negative aspects of the destination image. They are extremely positive about Egyptian physical tourist attractions (e.g. beaches, historical sites, accommodation). They are silent on the real lifestyles of Egyptian local people and their friendliness and hospitality, Egyptian cuisine, the safety and security. This echoes Baloglu and Mangaloglu (2001) observation on the food and security. One of the tour operators (First Choice) protected the company by making reference, albeit in small print, to the foreign aid commonwealth office website which provides travel advisors for UK citizens. In terms of the diversity of the Egyptian tourism product the brochures sell the destination short - they do not draw attention to certain tourist products, such as the attractions of the birdwatching, the potential
of Egypt as a conference destination, festival tourism or desert tourism (safari).

The managers of the tourist product in Egypt should pay attention to the quality of the local infrastructure and the quality of the tourist services and facilities to realise the tourists’ satisfactions. Thereby they can modify and enhance their tourist image. According to Marino (2008), natural and manmade (physical) tourist resources available in the destinations can assure comparative advantage. But to assure competitive advantage needs more ability to use and manage these natural and manmade resources over the long term. Destination managers also need to manage their relationship with United Kingdom tour operators and try to complete the blanks on missing image attributes and enhance negative image attributes. The marketers of the Egyptian tourist product should establish and manage an image strategy for the United Kingdom market and other key international tourist markets based on the promotion, pricing and distribution channel efforts.

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HOW THE LANGUAGE WORKS: A BIOGRAPHY OF HEGEMONY

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The following notes of research are aimed at disusing succinctly how language works into a tourist organization founding hegemony, conflict and a hierarchal order among involved groups. Basically, it contains the own individual experiences in a rent a car organization where English language is taken not only as a skilful instrument for work but also in a real mechanism to maintain hegemony over the rest of staff. Methodologically, we conducted an ethnographic from 2004 to 2008 in well famous rent a car company who authorities asked us not to reveal the real name. Hypothetically, we will call this company as Rentaldays. Findings should be circumscribed and interpreted in the contexts wherein they have been examined.

Keywords: Tourism - English – Hegemony – Ethnography Rental Company

JEL Classification: L83, M1, O1

INTRODUCTION

Recently studies had devoted many attention in emphasizing that acculturation is present in the encounter among hosts and guests (Dann, 2005) (Schluter, 2005) (Nash, 2001) (Maccannell, 2003) (Santana, 2006), however less attention was given to the influence of languages in process of governance inside the tourist system. Therefore, language looks to be an essential aspect in human life since it assigns sense to our phenomenological world. Everything beyond the boundaries of languages is impossible to be reconstructed by our brain. Not only languages determine our behaviour in social life reinforcing solidarity and reciprocity but also generate conflicts and exclusion for out-group members.

Daily, tourist professionals are in touch with people who speak with more than one language. As an institution that generates social well-
being, tourism is encouraged by countries as a form of alleviating poverty and offsetting the economic imbalances (Cala, 2003) (Santana, 2006) (Douglas, 1996). In recent years, anthropology focuses on how “demonstration effects” in residents allow them adopting from their guests certain practices that not always are positive (Buckhart and Medlik, 1974) (Kadt, 1995) (Santana, 2006).

As the previous argument given, this piece is aimed at describing our individual experiences in a tourist organization situated in rent-a-car market in Buenos Aires wherein English skills have been recently considered as exclusive criterion in the process of recruitment. However, these new measures based on the necessity of professionalization will contrast with older workers who had a weak knowledge of such a language. That way, it is hypothesized that English is working as an hierarchal instrument whose end is to maintain hegemony from an elite over the rest of staff. Methodologically, we have conducted ethnography from 2004 to 2008 inside a famous rent a car company whose authorities asked us not to reveal the real name.

Under such a circumstance, this company will be termed as Rentaldays. The following findings are only general and part of a greater investigation approach.

THE INITIAL DISCUSSION

As earlier noted, language should anthropologically be deemed as a system formed by symbolic components that human being recur to better their own interaction (Bram, 1961). In Berger and Luckmann, language comprises an expression of human ability of communicating. By means of stereotypes, these complex systems contribute to re-construct previous experiences according to a line denoting place and time issues. The sense of words are understood in contrast with their opposite, for example white only can be caught in relation with black while there is with here or today with tomorrow (Berger and Luckmann, 1972). For that reason, language becomes in a preliminary process for human socialization.

In spite of above mentioned issues, some groups intents to take the power creating a distinction with the other members as a real hierarchy to keep the own privileged rank in the society. In other terms, prestige and social distinction works as mechanism that helps the elite monopolizing hegemony over the rest of population. Under this circumstance, languages are utilized as a way of distinction since it separates people according to shared signs and codes (Veblen, 1974:403-406). In past, patricians in Ancient Rome sent theirs sons to study in Greece whereas Indians learnt
Persian as well as Arabic as an alternative option; besides Russian aristocrats afforded to learn French as better form not to be understood (Bram, 1961). Returning to the scientific discourse that nothing is bleared in mind outside the mother tongue; in United States of America a indigenous tribe well-known as Hopi does not use any words for denoting time such as past, present and future; like it is distinction of this culture, Hopi had not further reference about destiny or history but in contrast they had 6 different words to refer shaking acts that western idioms disregard (Saphir, 1941:80) (Lee Whorf, 1971: 245) (Schutz, 1974:20-50) (Searle, 1997:28-35).

Nonetheless not all scholars support this thesis, Von Humboldt and Terwillinger emphatisized each language is able to be translated (most likely not literarily) without any problems. The fact is that languages are capable to follow certain similarity and be conditioned by each environment. In consequence, each word may be very well translated from one to another idiom keeping differences of grammar but remaining the essence (Humboldt, 1999) (Terwillinger, 1968). For D. Chandler, even Saphir-Hypothesis appears to be illustrative there are some aspects that would be kept on discussing. Initially, terms and words must not be translated using the same construes but in many cases they would be passed from one to another tongue utilizing analogical meanings (Chandler, 2002). For better or worse, grammar and language provide with some constructions which help developing the human environmental adaptation; paradoxically, like culture the language ties but it divides at the same time (Hall, 1989) (Keen, 1982).

The capacity to imagine our world is internalized historically inside our psychological ego. Symbols and signs follow adaptation processes (Green, 2002) (Casullo, 2004). Somehow, the name (as a code) is not only capable to be analyzed but also provide with certain identity. In this sense, the degree of acculturation in tourism may be very well studied taking in mind three instances: a) ethnocentric, b) admiration and c) curiosity. At first instance, whenever two unknown sides encounter each other, one of them generate specific pretexts and excuses as to why the proper culture is considered in superiority of conditions in comparison with the others. That way, ethnocentrism is aimed at justifying dominance-related practices, such as prejudice, discrimination and sexism. In these lines of thought, Santana (2006) collected a couple of studies wherein stereotypes turned in prejudices in residents at tourist destination. The second typology appears when anyone or both groups adopt unconditionally the foreigner cultural values regardless the possible negative consequences; one example for this is the xenophile. Finally,
curiosity refers when someone opted to interact with a third party moving by curiosity and scientific knowledge. But ¿what does really happen when tourists and residents face?.

**Tourism: guests and hosts encounter**

The urban rules put pressure on the workers determining certain style of life in and beyond the “working contexts”; all who are inserted in a stressful scenario will have to choice on their holidays destination situated in remote sites. By the complexity at time of studying tourism social issues separately. Social anthropology classifies the effects of tourism development in two types: a) over certain territory wherein social structure is modified and b) upon the role of tourists and their expectations in holidays. Many have argued that (mentioning several research examples) traveler practices produce negative effects on host regions. Tourist system encompasses three parts: a) dynamic, b) static and c) consequential (Santana, 2006).

Under such a context, Santana-Talavera argues that demand of services and consumption in tourist-generating countries works as a vehicle towards the dynamic of system while tourist-receiving countries are characterized by having the population with their basic needs unsatisfied. For instance, static component is made up for certain attributes regarding local environment such as hotels, restaurants, museums and attractions of other nature. Whereas modern citizens choose paradisiacal destination for their vacations, peripheral communities do their best to capture and capitalize such fluxes inside their tourist offering.

The last concept here appears to be related to entropy. By means of that, the system in question is restored. The inequalities surfaced in the interaction of guests and hosts are based in two mainstream causes: a) a faster development and b) an alteration of customs and rules in the residents. Some other key issues to emerge from studies in United States and Europe prove that most rapid a tourist project is planned and finished more likely to experience unwanted consequences (Santana, 2006). Sometimes, hosts changed certain traditions or customs as well as proper form of expressing themselves. By adopting a foreigner language, local community experiences an acculturation process. Gradually, certain words are replaced by common expression that alienates their own world. As J. Derrida reminded, “the hospitality is linked to language” (Derrida, 2006).

This is the reason as to why a sustainable analysis must consider the implicitness of language in hosts. Even though considerable attentions
have been devoted to the relationship between hosts and guests interaction on tourist destination, little attention was indeed given to the role of language in acculturation process. The next lines of this notes of research are a synthesis afterwards a work-field of four years. Technically, the role of observer was occulted and systematically recorded using non-invasive methodologies. For other hand, the observation totaled 1,000 days with emphasis on January, February, March, August and November from 2004 to 2008. Additional information of this survey is aimed at focusing on phenomenological theories.

**How the language works**

Rentaldays is Leader Company on rent a car trade for more than 10 years and have presence in almost 24 locations in Argentina and beyond. Internally, the organization is based on three structures: one Chief executive Officer, three Managers, 10 local supervisors and more than 70 agents.

The process of recruitment is defined in four stages: at the first phase, the applicant is tested by a battery of psychology exams; once the enrollment is formally done, the new employee is socialized about the rules and procedures of the company emphasizing on the kindness with the client. In a third and fourth facets, employees are guided by managers to develop their own curricula. Formally, even though English is a prerequisite for being part of rentaldays, upper-management gradually opted not to follow all these inducement process in all cases. In part, this was because the higher expenditures implied the contract of psychologists and other experts. That way, in the lapse of one year (in 2005) only the applicants to upper appointments were tested in other language and skills.

Furthermore, the scoring system, applied on employees by increasing the degree of sales, played a key role in exacerbating the conflicts between managers and agents. After further examination, since the system of awards was expressed in money, agents not only increased their efficiency in the attendance of renters but also used their language limitations to force them to accept other optionals such as baby seats or additional insurances. Of course, the terms and conditions of the agreement between renters and company was orally explained and accepted voluntarily by a sign. However, renters who do not communicate in Spanish come across with a surprise at time of closing the rental.

Anthropologically, interviews demonstrated that agents constructed a discourse to validate their practices with political reminiscences. To the question about their resistance of learning English, agents answered a
declination of their cultural identity in association with the policies of United States in Middle East as a negative pretext of expansion. In other cases, involved employees pointed out interests in learning a foreign language but have no time to accomplish their studies. Whatever the case may be, their concerns were aimed at emphasizing the importance of English’s advance in the business world.

On the other side of the river, managers stated that English is of pivotal importance in future times not only to reinforce the bondage with renter but also in promoting future appointments abroad. In fact, the manager’s concerns stressed the possibility to work abroad in a country of First World in United States of Europe where other subsidiaries of the company lie. Unlike for agents in manager’s discourse, English was an instrument for assuring a well-being beyond Argentina and widen the possibilities for a potential migration. Quite aside from this, one of main problems found in this organization was the dissociation between instructions of managers as well as sales-related policies and the practices followed by agents in all dimensions. These glitches were not provoked by English it-self, but such an idiom broadened the gap between ones and others.

As a result of this, at the bottom of pyramid we have found front desk employees who have daily dealing with foreigner tourists. Even if it is obligatory to contract employees with a good level, in fact only a 15% of whole staff read, write and speak fluid in English. In past, customer manager told informally us that many complaints would have been avoidable whether front desk staff had enough knowledge of English to bolster a conversation and capitalizes the needs of renters. At time of returning at home, a considerable number of consumers do not know how the rental charges composed are.

After further examination, English works in Rentaldays in two different ways: for one hand, it encourages discrepancies between customers and employees; as we have already noted, this point was negative for the company since renters did not interpret how they were charged after rental. For the other, we had found many instances wherein the lack of English was an excuse to overcharge the renter and earn more than due in commissions and fees. Basically, each time a Rental is opened renter must sign an agreement where he or she engaged to honor all clauses specified there as well as all preferred optionals. Once signed the agreement, renter had not any right to claim. The document in question was entirely written in Spanish and scarcely is being translated to English in writing. In case of legal disputes, agents provide with signed Agreement and renter is pledged to pay involuntarily.
Four years of ethnography results in many interviews, observations and dataset that were published in many other articles; most likely the following lines will be fruitful for other researchers. In fact, findings are obviously summarized because of time and space limitations:

CONCLUSION

It is not surprising that English was used into this organization as a mechanism to create certain difference among all involved groups. The surplus in this organization forced these groups not only enter in conflict each other, but with renters. Under such a perspective, the privileged groups have been observed promoting hegemony basing that distinction on certain skills they manage such as English. Some employees (10 over 60) demonstrate to feel admiration by English but mysteriously have several problems to understand and learn it (hegemony). A major part of English speakers looked to despise the colleagues who lack of such ability.

Based on a superiority criterion, English speakers earn wages more than twice in relation with non-English speakers while these last ones uses that for earning more over-commission fees. In a lapse of one year, there would be computed more than 40 percentage of whole complaints related to communication problems because of front-desk employees were unable to speak English with foreigner renters. Finally, just a couple of interviewed employees (5 over 60) lacked of interest in learning English whereas only 2 (over 60) rejected the financial possibility given by the company to conduct futures courses in such a idiom (resistance). By the way, all efforts for the organization to provide to staff a course to learn English failed because of different reasons. Higher rates of absence in agents were found. This means that event though company made the pertinent arrangements for these courses, workers demonstrated any interests in assisting. The encounter between guests and hosts facilitate diverse internal process of hegemony, cohesion as well as resistance around certain skills but in detriment of others.

All these outcomes were not only interesting since there is no previous background in tourism literature about how language creates in organization certain hierachical circles but also may open still to be investigated in futures approaches. Immediately, there would be some surfaced questions: ¿how may Spanish work in English speaker tourist organization?; ethically, ¿is the language an instrument for creating hegemony or an excuse to take advantage from absent-minded outlanders?.
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The Yazd residents look at tourism development with a promising future to bring more income to the area that can be shared. Investors search to find new attractive business and middle and low classes in the community look to find better job opportunities. This paper assesses the attitude and perception of local residents toward this fast growing industry and also their expectation of authority regarding tourism development in Yazd city. A questionnaire was designed based on five point Likert scale and total 320 usable questionnaires were collected from local residents. Though the result shows positive attitude of local people towards tourism development but they are not totally satisfied with tourism management in the area.

**Keywords:** Tourism development, Yazd (Iran), Local residents, Attitude.

**JEL Classification:** L83, M1, O1

**INTRODUCTION**

In general residents’ attitudes towards tourism development can be improved by increasing both tangible and intangible benefits that these populations receive from involving directly in decision-making processes. As Choi & Sirakaya (2006) indicate host community attitudes towards tourism is one of important indicators for sustainable tourism development. A number of factors can influence residences’ perceptions about benefits of tourism development and, hence, the extent of their support. Both community participation and recognition of the role of traditional values consistently having recognized as a fundamental to the success of development projects (Alexander 2000).

Stakeholder involvement in the tourism development is a critical factor for success, yet there are many examples of local communities...
being excluded or only minimally involve in the initial planning and management (Hough 1998; Jacobson 1991; West & Brechin 1991; Heinen 1993; Durbin & Ralambo 1994). There are different levels of people in community which need different levers for motivation and satisfaction which should be identified. Negative attitudes towards tourism development often arise from poor relationship between local resident and authority, problems with distributions of benefits to local population and lack of local involvement in the decision-making and/or management. The key to successful implementation of tourism programs is in actively addressing relevant factors with residence who traditionally have been ignored but who today are recognized as the main stakeholders in the process.

The study aimed to identify residence
a) attitude and perceptional towards tourism development,

b) feeling about management of tourism in the area,

c) involvement in tourism sector and receiving tangible and intangible benefits and at the end,

d) suggest a strategic planning for sustainable tourism development in the area.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As travel and tourism industries are among the words fastest growing industries and are the major source of foreign exchange earning for many developing countries (Megan Epler Wood 2002), it is very important to study socioeconomic impact of these industries. Community participation, a Western paradigm in natural resource management and utilization, is currently much discussed in sustainable tourism development research (Agrawal 2000, Archabald and Naughton-Treves 2001, Brohman 1996, Inskeep 1991, Prentice 1993, Simmons 1994 and Straede and Helles 2000).

It is thought that only when local communities are involved in decision-making, can their benefits be ensured and their traditional lifestyles and values respected (Gunn 1994, Lankford and Howard 1994, Linderberg and Johnson 1997, Mitchell and Reid 2001, Sheldon and Abenoja 2001, Timothy 1999 and Wells 1996). Ashley and Roe (1998) suggest that tourism can involve and affect local residents without being driven and controlled by community and therefore there can be many forms of their involvement. These may include a range of involvement from passive to active and include lease agreement, concessions, partnership and active involvement in businesses. Involvement of local
community can have many positive incomes include: a) public values and opinions are incorporated in the decision-making process (Beierle 1998, Carmin, Darnall & Mil Homens 2003) b) new ideas are generated (Carmin, Darnall & Mil Homens 2003, Fiorino 1990) c) empowerment of community (Scheyvens 1999) d) a cost effective process (Beierle 1998) e) a reduction in conflict and lawsuits (Beierle 1998, Carmin, Darnall & Mil Homens 2003, Simrell King & Feltey 1998, Steelman 2001).

Usually the local government is responsible to introduce and implement the program in the area but there is seldom perfect relationship between key stakeholders. Finding out the local resident attitude towards tourism development can be a proper way to understand the success of the program in the area that have been previously discussed by researcher such as Ross (1992), Ryan & Montgomery (1994), Mac Cool & Martin (1994), Hernandez et al (1996), Lankford (1994) and Lankford & Howard (1994). All these studies shows local people have more positive attitude towards tourism development when they have right to involve in decision-making and management of the programs. Unfortunately there is lack of research on tourism development in the selected study area which leads to a sustainable tourism development.

STUDY AREA

Officially the Islamic Republic of Iran and formerly known internationally as Persia (from 600 BC until 1935), is a country in Central Eurasia located on the northeastern shore of the Persian Gulf and Oman Sea and the southern shore of the Caspian Sea. Iran is the 18th largest country in the world in terms of area at 1,648,195 km², and has a population of over seventy million.

With a long-standing and proud civilization, Persian culture is among the richest in the world. Two and a half millennia of inspiring literature, thousands of poets and writers, magnificent and impressive architecture, live customs dating back to Zoroastrians over 3000 years ago, and other unique characteristics of the nation are rivaled by only a few countries. It is rich with the history of humanity and has a high concentration of archaeological sites (Zendeh Del 20001). Among the ceremonies still being held are Norouz (Iranian New Year), Charshanbeh Suri (last Wednesday of the year), Sizdah Bedar (thirteenth day of spring) and Yalda Night (the longest night of the year).

The province of Yazd is situated in center of Iran with area of 73467 km². The capital of the province is Yazd with the population of more than 505,037 people, located 1230 meter above the sea level with mean annual
temperature and precipitation of 18.9°C and 64mm (NGDIR 2009). The province of Yazd is dry for two basic reasons, firstly Yazd is located on the arid belt of the world, and secondly is very far from Persian Gulf, Oman Sea and the Iranian lakes, as well as the humid currents of the sea. One of the important factors which makes the weather moderate and also suitable for living, is being surrounded by high mountains, which affect the weather.

Beautiful green valleys, wonderful country sides, marvelous springs, pleasant peaks and hill sides, caves, protected wild life fields (the protected wild areas "Kalmand" and "Bahadoran" with an area of 250 hectares and the protected area of "Kooh Bafq& areez" with an area of 100 hectares are very interesting for their location on the edge of the central desert of Iran which caused an unique varieties of desert plants and animals like: Asiatic cheetah, wild goat and so on) and more importantly the wonderful desert views of the province are very attractive for foreign and domestic tourists. Cultural attractions of the province are remarkable. The rich legacy of the people’s culture shows nice and old traditions of the Zoroastrians as well as the now Muslims which consist together a marvelous tourism attraction. The native Zoroastrians of the province hold their traditional ceremonies in different occasions every year, and observing them doing so, is attractive for tourists from different cultures. The native Zoroastrians of the province still speaks their old language and practice all their traditional ceremonies in that language.

The old part of city is made out of clay and adobe; it seems that it has risen out of sand. Yazd's architecture is unique. During its long history, Yazd and its residents have adapted themselves to the desert surrounding. Majority of international tourists, who enter Iran, visit Yazd as a historical city. According to Yazd provincial Cultural Heritage, Handicrafts and Tourism Department, during March 2008-2009, 28,521 foreign tourists and 202,615 Iranian tourists toured historical monuments and natural sites in Yazd province. Moreover most of the international visitors were from European countries including Germany, France, Spain and Italy as well as Asian states of China, Japan and Korea in addition to several African countries. The province has more than 2,800 beds in 40 hotels (Yazd province had only 25 hotels in 2005, which increased to 40 in 2008) (Iran Daily 2009).

**METHODOLOGY**

A questionnaire was designed to measure the attitude of local people about tourism activity in the area and socio-cultural impacts of these activities in Yazd. In the first step one rapid approach to the main
tourist’s areas of Yazd was done to get familiar with the area and the situation of tourists activities over there. All the items of the interest were measured using a multiple-item measurement scale. All measures used a five-point likert-type response format; with strongly agree to strongly disagree. A list of measurement item was developed using from the review of the literature related to this study. All the questions were translated from English to Persian to ensure the respond can understand them correctly and each questionnaire was filled by an interview up to 30 minutes. From 350 questionnaires, 320 usable questionnaires were completed for analyzing. Apart from this questionnaire informal interviews were done by author with local people and tourism authority of Yazd city. The study was done during May and June 2008.

RESULT

The majority of respondent are male with 61 percent and 39 percent female answered the questions. The level of education shows 27 percent under diploma, 43 percent diploma, 23 percent bachelor, 6 percent master and 1 percent have doctorate degree. The age group of the respondents shows 33 percent between 15-25, 50 percent between 25-40 and 17 percent have 45 years old and above.

In term of income only 15% have income of less than 250$ per month 49%, 250$ to 500$ and 36% having more than 500$ per month. Regarding employment 26% indicate that they have jobs related tourism activity, however it shows the direct employment in tourism sector and by considering the indirect engagement the number will increase. There are different engagements in tourism sector among respondent like: working in the kitchen of the hotels and restaurants, working as guide and owning souvenir shops. Majority of respondent (76%) mostly young people (85%) vote in favor of tourism activity and development in the area. The main reason for their support of tourism development is creation of job opportunity (37%) and more income (25%) and 71% indicate that tourism is one of the most important factors for development in the area. However most of old people (above 45) believe it has negative impact on local culture. The main complain about tourism activity by respondent is negligence of local people as a main stakeholder by authority that kept them away of decision making in the tourism policy and programs. The shopkeepers believe that their association must have more authority to decide about the future programs related tourism activity. The main
concern for employee in tourism sector is off-season and some look at it as a temporary job.

CONCLUSION

The study shows the expectation of young people in the community of tourism is high and they believe that this sector should bring a significant change to their lives. The old people look at it with more doubt, especially when it comes to cultural changes that may tourism bring to the area. Failure to identify the interest of even a single primary stakeholder group may result in failure of the entire process (Clarkson 1995). Tourism has been known to trigger a cascade of social, ecological, cultural and economic changes not easily managed by local residents (Belsky 1999). As tourists enjoy in local area and use local sources for completing their enjoyment and travel, they are also in charge of local people and their culture and heritage. Awareness of tourists affects their behavior towards local community and indigenous people. The growth of the industry in urban destinations presents various challenges such as protection of environment, conservation of heritage, preservation of social fabric and cultural values, and maintenance of a desired quality of life for residents (Timur & Getz, 2008)

Yazd city has many attractions for different kinds of tourism especially heritage tourism. Addition to this most of the local people have positive attitude about future of tourism in their area and look at it with a promising future. It can be a gold opportunity that must be used by authority to develop the sustainable activity in the area. But involvement of local people in decision-making is less and it caused dissatisfaction in the area. However overview of peer-reviewed articles, Agrawal and Redford (2006) found that newly generated local jobs and incomes were the most common “indicators of success” but it alone cannot ensure the sustainable tourism. Problem of off season and fluctuating in income in the area can come from lack of awareness about nature of tourism among those who are involved in this sector. In this condition during low season cash flow ends and financial incentives disappear and the members of community who are involved in the tourism activities will receive less income during the low season. This problem can be like an epidemic which destroys all same genes in one area. When people shift entirely from other income sources, they become vulnerable to boom-bust cycle and seasonal fluctuations of the tourism markets (Elper Wood 2002). So
fluctuation in tourist numbers is a disadvantage for those household not receiving income from other productive activities.

According to Scheyvens (1999) there are four kinds of empowerment which can help local communities to reduce the negative impacts of tourism in their area such as: economical, psychological, social and political empowerments. Local community need to be empowered to decide what forms of tourism facilities and programmes they want to be developed in their area, and how the tourism costs and benefits are to be shared among different stakeholders.

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BOOK REVIEW

Cultures of Mass Tourism
Mike Crang, Pau Obrador Pons & Penny Travlou, editor (2009).
Ashgate

Extant work on mass tourism has centered on the notion of unreasonable demands of mass tourists on the host community and environment impacts. It has mostly projected hosts as the vulnerable population. Against the stereotype image of the mass tourism phenomena, the editors of ‘Mass Tourism’ offer a unique and interesting perspective. Social and cultural discourse beyond the mundane and stereotype assertions is offered in a conceptual and exploratory manner. The editors argue that “dominant perspectives on tourism have failed to provide an adequate basis for exploring the cultural dimension of mass tourism” (2009:3). To address this lacuna, their book focuses on the mundane and banal aspects of mass tourism and provides an insight into the some of the key sites of mass tourism such as the villa, the swimming pool, the beach, the island, the resort and the coastal hotel.

The book presents selected pieces of work which focus on mass cultures and cultural implications of mass tourism. Chapter two examines the recent progression of Moroccan mass tourism towards a ‘cultural tourism of sorts’ and the government’s attempt to shrug off the ‘mass tourism destination image. The new tourism plan focuses on promoting Morocco as a cultural tourism destination of the Mediterranean. As articulated by the authors, “the aim of this new vision is to create a new culture of hospitality able to accommodate mass arrivals from Europe, new, more sophisticated, expressions of colonial aesthetics and new forms of secure and easy-to-reach Oriental exoticism” (Minca and Borghi 2009:23). The authors examine contents of different promotional material employed to project this image and reflect on the sale of this colonial nostalgia strategy and its applications for contemporary Morocco thereby implying a new cultural turn in Moroccan mass tourism. Crang and Travlou (2009) in chapter three unpack the discourse on how beach and scenery images are produced for mass tourists. Competing and complementary imagery of Corelli’s island as a landscape and as a beach

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resort, produced by the film of Captain Corelli’s Mandolenn, the book, and touristic experience on the island, is discussed.

Chapter four titled presents a discourse on the contested practices and imaginations of an island that has received extensive visual representations by film media and tourism promotion images. It presents the way the beach and scenery are unpacked for tourists. The Mediterranean destination depicts plural messages as a result of select film exposure and tourism media. The author maintain that not only do the tourism promotion and “film both refigure the island but also incite a desire to visit or explore the island, they are doing so as part of the ongoing discourse of Greekness, Mediterranean-ness and indeed the nature of holidays.” (Crang and Travlou 2009:77). It is argued that meanings and sense of place can be blurred through multiple story narrations. Tourism creates a spectacle and myth of destinations and what is viewed is a landscape is filtered through media and film perspectives. The concept of ‘phantasm’ is introduced. What is mass tourism is a mediated phenomenon, both from the perspective of mass tourists’ disposition and the supplier initiatives.

Pons in Chapter five highlights the significance of coastal hotels and the hotel pool as a tourist experience. The author argues that mass tourism is justified only on the basis of economic principles and continues to be labeled as a corpse providing mundane and banal experiences. The author argues that mass tourism spaces are inhabitable and carry a stigma with them. Research is conducted at two hotel pools to draw attention to “the pressures and pleasures of sociality which inhabit the coastal hotel and reflect on the nature of social relations between people in the highly commodified and fleeting environments of mass tourism” (Pons 2009:92). According to the author, mass tourism environments are capitalist spaces discarded as ‘unhomely and vacant” (Pons 2009:94) and this has led to an unprecedented increase in the development of generic landscapes which can be termed as ‘uninhabitable spatialities.’ The author rather presents a pessimist picture of coastal hotels and labels them as “sites of pure coincidence, a spatial desert, trackless and depthless” (Pons 2009: 94). The ethics of conviviality and mundane forms of hospitality are emphasized. The authors examine the mundane, fleeting, and fun seeking experiences of mass tourism at the Mediterranean using the lens of neo-tribalism which creates fluid, spontaneous and ephemeral gatherings. The example of the hotel pool is used to demonstrate notions of conviviality and hedonism. This is portrayed as promoting negative forms of relaxation, liberation and retreat. Pool, in this context becomes a cultural
laboratory subject to gazing, contrived sociality of landscape, and banal projections of fun.

Issues of familiarity associated with mass tourism are discussed in Chapter six. Highly desired quotidian rituals define the daily life such as having drinks and conversations together, thereby conveying a sense of the familiar. The beach is encountered as a familiar place, thereby implying acceptance of a number of activities and ways of seeing, smelling, touching, listening, and moving around deemed to be appropriate, natural, on that beach such as visiting the beach every morning at around the same time, walking in a certain manner, looking at the sea and people in specific way etc. (Caletrio 2009:117). The author further introduce the concept of ‘elective belonging’ and argue that “attachment to a place is not derived from a familiarity with a face-to-face community but from a relational sense of place, a capability to assess a place in relation to others and fit one’s biography within its social, economic, and cultural dynamics” (2009:121). Resorts are thereby projected as ‘complex entities.’

Chapters seven and eight focus two distinct tourist segments: residential tourists and youth tourists. Chapter seven examines the behavior, disposition and experience of British migrants in Spain. It presents an interesting insight into the mindset of this category of visitors. A double edged relationship with Spain is “circumscribed by the fact that for them Spain symbolizes holiday and escape but they insist they are not tourists themselves” (O’Reilly 2009: 130). At the same time, “they declare a love of Spain while reminding each other that they are guests here” (2009:130). Costa del Sol residential tourism is both “co-created and co-creating” in the sense that the “second home owners joined by retirees, bar and restaurant owners and other needed to provide services, and as time passes, younger immigrants join” (O’Reilly 2009: 135). The settled tourists further facilitate migration of others and this is a never ending cycle of interaction with the Mediterranean landscape and modification of it and the self. Many times, these residential tourists play the role of hosts but continue to carry the feeling that they are guests themselves, thereby balancing their experience act. Chapter 8 focuses on the mobility of another category of mass tourists- the youth tourists and examines why they travel. Concepts of liminality and hedonism are examined to explain what motivates youth tourists to travel to unattractive crowded places. Knox places them in the ‘serious tourist’ category in their pursuit of popular cultural tourism. They carry the familiar and exotic with them such as garage music and clubbing while at the same time
demanding a taste of him by demanding authentic British foodstuffs in Greece.

Today mass tourism has now branched out in multiple directions. It has created a serious form of youth leisure, a cultural setting and a place for hedonic fun such as swimming and sunbathing. The editors conclude by emphasizing that mass tourism has its own story to tell from historical and spatial perspectives. They argue that “mass tourism in the Mediterranean is not a free floating phenomenon that is imposed on the destination but is closely tied to the place and the landscape where it occurs” (Pons, Crang and Tralou 2009: 169). The book proposes a situated thinking approach to understand how tourist activity is grounded within a social and geographical environment in the Mediterranean.

In summary, this book facilitates a dialogue between the culture of mass tourists, the visited landscape and its suppliers. It is both thoughtful and thought provoking and will benefit the graduate and scholarly audience. The presentation is of high quality although at some stages, content in some chapters is repeated and fails to grasp attention. A more pronounced case study-based discourse might have addressed this issue. In sum, the authors’ contribution in moving beyond the popular discourse and myth of mass tourism is noteworthy. Some of the notions set forth by this volume can be extended through future scholarship by first dispensing the notion of banality and hedonism sought by mass tourists. Mass tourists are not homogeneous although they comprise of large numbers of people who move in a short space of time to places of leisure interest. Just because all happen to be at one place at the same time and present a crowded image facilitated by ease of access and carefully crafted distribution and promotional strategies of international or national operators, does not mean that their activities are banal or they seek the mundane.

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BOOK REVIEW

International Business Travel in the Global Economy
Ashgate, Surrey, UK

Although globalization, technology, management and other many trends are mushrooming the size of business travel, there is a lacuna in the literature addressing this market segment. In this vein, the aim of this book is to explore the role, the nature and the impacts of business travel in the twenty-first century by including most of the important debates associated with the causes, motivations for and the measurement of business travel. To achieve that, the book is consisted of 12 chapters contributed by twenty international researcher with various backgrounds. Book chapters provide a wide and multiple perspective of the factors influencing the nature, flows and impacts of business travel including sociology, management and globalisation factors, technology factors (e.g. aircraft technology and information & communication technology), political factors (e.g. air sky liberalisation) and economic factors (e.g. fuel costs). The book chapters are structured into three sections addressing the following three major topics: a) the role of the airline industry in the international business travel and the changing nature of provision; b) the role of mobility in international business activities; and c) the sociology of international business travel, its role and effects in the global economy. All chapters are well written in an easy-to-read format and structure providing practical and research evidence of their arguments as well as a wide literature review of the topic that they analyse.

The book starts with an introductory chapter written by the book editors (Jonathan V. Beaverstock, Ben Derudder, James Faulconbridge and Frank Witlox) explaining the aims and the structure of the book.

The first section of the book consists of four chapters exploring the forms and geographical spatialities of business travel. The chapter written by John Bowen gather and debate data showing the special development of airline business class services, while the chapter by Ben Derudder, Lomme Devriendt, Nathalie Van Nuffel and Frank Witlox examines the
validity of "business class air travel" data for studying the geography of "business travel" at large and presents an analytical framework that allows for meaningful comparisons of the spatiality of different types of travel flows. The next chapter contributed by Jonathan Beaverstock and James Faulconbridge, reports on some of the most important characteristics of the patterns of overseas' residences' business visits to the UK and UK residences' business visits abroad from late 1970s onwards. The last chapter of this section, written by Lucy Budd and Phil Hubbard, focuses on the growth of an emerging form of business travel namely private-jet and it examines its consequences on the networked geographies of the global economy.

The second book sections includes three chapters exploring the mobility regimes and requirements of firms. The first chapter written by John Salt explores business travel within the broader portfolios of mobility developed by large international companies that serve several roles such as career development, project planning and implementation, staff rotation and attendance of a wide range of meetings. The second chapter contributed by James Wickham and Alessandra Vecchi contextualise the taxonomy of business travel by presenting findings of a case study about the business travel of an Irish software company that show that business travel replicates rather than destabilizes managerial hierarchies. The last chapter written by Sven Kesselring and Gerlinde Vogl examine the social consequences of the intensification and extensification of corporate travel activities for employees.

The four chapters in the third section of the book examine the causes and consequences of business travel. The first chapter written by Aharon Kellerman sets the scene by comparing business and leisure travel at the international level from several basic perspectives: motivations and goals, relative magnitude, spatial patterns and interrelationships between both types of travellers. The second chapter written by Claus Lassen conceptualises business travel as a structural output of work and business. The chapter uses data from international business travel amongst knowledge workers in two Danish organisations in order to demonstrate that the travel needs of international professionals should be understood in conjunction with a number of social obligations and compulsions of face-to-face meeting. The next chapter written by Andre Jones continues the debate that the motives for international business travel are much more complex than an amorphous set of "work requirements" by examining the nature, form and function of mobility in the professional business service sector. The last chapter written by John Martin Denstadli and Mattias Gripsrud assess the qualities of video-conferencing and
information and communication technologies for evaluating their four potential impacts (i.e. complementary, substitutional, modification and neutral) on business travel.

Overall, this is an easy-to-read book that provides under one cover a rich set of international studies showing the size, nature, motives and impacts of business travel. The book nicely integrates theoretical concepts, analytical tools and research findings from many disciplines and perspectives for broadly analysing the phenomenon of business travel. Overall, the book provides a nice rethinking and update of business travel in the twenty-one century. The book constitutes a comprehensive reference book and useful source of numerous studies to graduate students, university faculty, and professionals alike that are interesting to study and further understand the crucial market segment of business travel.

Marianna Sigala

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BOOK REVIEW

The cultural life of Automobile: roads of cinetic modernity
Giucci, Guillermo, editor (2007), University of Quilmes Press

The present review focuses on the work of Guillermo Guicci regarding the cultural and historical life of automobile in modernity, an interesting research published recently in 2007 by the University of Quilmes Press, Argentina. On his introductory chapter, author argues that cars symbolized a social upward for people who lived in the lapse from 1900 to 1940. Following this, he sees in the car, a machine which has transcended the boundaries of economies, languages and times. Basically, this new invention not only saved the time of many workers but also entailed new paradigms associated to more freedom, prestige, independence and autonomy. Most certainly, automobile should be seriously considered as a way of emancipation that has been characterized the life of many generations throughout the world.

Under such a context, in first chapter Guicci examines the historical origin of Henry Ford as the father of cars and mass-production. Even though Ford has not invented the automobile in such, he extended and developed its usage for all population inside United States and beyond. In general, declared as a staunch enemy of history, Ford decided to create a new cult that exacerbates the role played by technology and future in the life of lay-people. His success, of course, was associated to his intention to improve the style of life in consumers who were relegated to peripherical position in the market. From Ford’s point of view, a sustainable system of production should be only possible in combination with other factors such as: an increase in salaries and a subsequent rates reduction. Finally, in 1942 Ford released his book entitled My life and Work wherein he emphasized that work was part of human’s nature as well as technology was a vehicle towards the happiness and development. However, his thesis rested on shaky foundations.

In the second and third chapter, Giucci addresses the question as to whether the Ford’s industries fascinated people within United States. In particular, Ford encouraged tours-related yields wherein visitors can observe how a car was assembled. These sites promptly were visited by
miles of tourists who contemplated astonished how these devices were created following the pattern of rationality. Like in Taylor and Fayol, Management literature owes an immense gratitude to Ford because he was the first owner in promoting a coordinated performance at work. Even though, there was not occurred a set of conditions for the expansion of cars in the third-world, outside United States, distributors sold their products from Rhodesia to China. In the case of Latin America, wherein the instable political regimes in combination with a poor road net, the automobile was not adopted until 1930. The moot point here was that local managers not only were astonished by the opportunities of this device, but also they travelled to Detroit to learn the different involved processes in assembly. For 1960, the society takes a critical view about automobile since certain problems such as traffic jams, accidents and pollution surface. In regards to this, crashes cars, a popular game among our children, was an invention of Ralph Nader who concerned about the risks of driving. For other hand, Giucci reminds us that from that decade onwards, many scholars devoted considerable attention in studying the negative effects of cars in daily social life, ranging from Braudillard to McLuhan. That way, terms such as alienation, mass-consumption, capitalism, human’s degradation and destruction are some association that scholars and journalists linked to automobile.

For that reason, it is not surprising that in fourth chapter, our author analyzes the different factors that constituted cars in a symbol of mass-consumption in our modern times. At a first glance, aristocracies began to drive long distances as a form of social prestige and distinction. Undoubtedly, novelty played a pivotal role in such a process. Secondly, sellers organized public events such as traces and exhibitions in the different cities of Latin America with the end of promotion and advertising. As a result of this, automobile was a thing notably valorized as an instrument for people to demonstrate their outstanding feats; routine and monotony in daily work found in driving a new way of recreation. A couple of year later, it became in a sign of sport and healthy whenever the first international trace, Paris-Bordeaux-Paris, appeared in 1985.

Lastly, in posterior chapters Giucci brings into view that automobile jeopardizes the role played by tradition and static since it promises a new form of mobility wherein the symbolic distinction prevails. Rapidly, nature is being transformed as a tourist attraction and at the hands of cars emerge the camping grounds self-oriented to recreation and resting purposes. Just there, where certain distrust characterized the view of people against primitivism, today natural and stenographic landscapes are lived as a form of staged-authenticity.
Giucci emphasizes that technological advances follow a previous and contradictory dynamic of production and acquisition. It is not surprising that inventions imply a tension between groups which pursue traditional and social upward interests. Even if, as he acknowledges the automobile was an inescapable reality in the inception of XX century, the promises of social upward wakes up resistance and distrust of conservative sectors. In consequence, advertising investments aims at imposing the mass-consumption as a form of emulating success while automobile diversifies into many models and sizes. Each one of them had a clear message: displacement was not only a way to divide the importance of people but also a ritual for achieving the happiness. As a whole, Giucci once and once again throughout the book argues that automobile in western—and the world—generated a real technical-productive revolution wherein legal-rational logic paved the pathway for the advent of cinetic modernity.

We have so far highlighted all points of this interesting book as objective as possible. Also we strongly believe that professor Giucci had the enough merits to consider his work as one of best studies of automobile written in Spanish. Basing his observations on a combination of historical, bibliographical, photographic and literature evidence, Giucci sets forward a well-researched investigation relating the historical background of modernity and automobile. Nevertheless, some issues should be re-considered in the light of a critical point of view. From a general perspective, after further examination Giucci does not explain how and why automobile worked as a reproducer of modernity by imposing cultural changes such as the passion for vertigo and speed. In part, that seems to be the point since author gives excessive importance to the role played by this engine in the modernity’s inception. As one of many other technical advances, the automobile is not other thing than a part of a broader process which culminates with capitalism. Secondly, this work would be improved whether author introduces in his development statistical information regarding the level of production in the time-frame he is considering. In other words, there is no evidence that outlines a scientific correlation between the emergence of automobile and modernity. From the beginning to the end, Giucci handles a set of narrations and tales that sound convincing and intend cyclically about the same, but do not prove the afore-mentioned hypothesis.

**Korstanje, Maximiliano E.**

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CONFERENCE REPORT

Tourism Away from the Mainstream: The Travel and Tourism Research Association Canada Conference

The Canadian Chapter of the Travel and Tourism Research Association held its 2009 conference in Ontario, under the theme of “Tourism Away from the Mainstream”. As a counter to the long established tradition of mass tourism, the conference sessions explored new traveler demands for authenticity and unique experiences, emerging destinations, and niche product offers. Researchers and marketers must address critical issues such as sustainability, and develop new and differentiated approaches in order to advance in the rapidly changing world of travel and tourism. The conference highlights are shared in hopes of supporting this direction.

Keywords: conference report, niche tourism, TTRA

INTRODUCTION

The Canadian Chapter of the international Travel and Tourism Research Association (TTRA), winner of the 2009 Best Chapter Achievement Award, held its annual conference in Guelph, Ontario in October 2009. The achievement award is presented to the chapter that best furthers the mission of TTRA through spirit, innovation, effectiveness and creativity. The Canadian chapter conference is the association’s primary means of fostering the value and use of quality tourism research and marketing, bringing together academics, practitioners, and students in a forum of exchange.

The 2009 conference theme, “Tourism Away from the Mainstream”, reflects both social and economic trends toward more individuality, authenticity and unique travel experiences, encompassing emergent topics such as niche tourism in urban fringes, cultural quarters and rural roads, as well as a diversity of experiences ranging from sport to war tourism. Even the conference location, 100 kilometers west of Toronto, is away from urban crowds, in itself part of the appeal to seekers of an alternative to mass tourism.
The conference attracted 135 delegates, largely representative of three groups of travel and tourism researchers: (i) college and university faculty and graduate students, (ii) public sector bureaucrats from municipal, provincial and federal organizations with tourism-related mandates, and (iii) private sector research suppliers, consultants and associations. The majority of delegates were Canadian, with coast-to-coast representatives from nine provinces and two territories, embellished by a small contingent of Americans and one European delegate, Dr. Dominique Vanneste, Catholic University of Leuven, Belgium, who has a serendipitous link to Guelph. Poet John McCrae, author of In Flanders Fields, was born in Guelph, and wrote his celebrated Remembrance Day poem in Belgium while on active duty during World War I. Dr. Vanneste presented her study of war tourism in the Conference Centre’s aptly-named Flanders Room.

STUDENT EVENTS AND CASE STUDY

The TTRA Canada Chapter conference-related activities have grown over the years, and in 2009 covered five days of events. Pre-conference, the University of Guelph hosted an inaugural Undergraduate Tourism Student Day for 175 delegates from 11 area colleges and universities. The morning began with an inspirational presentation by Bruce Poon Tip, founder and CEO of Gap Adventures. His dedication to community-based tourism, the environment, and social justice charged the student audience with ambitions to move tourism toward a better future. The balance of the morning was dedicated to presentations of options for graduate studies led by Dr. Marion Joppe, University of Guelph, followed by a networking lunch. The afternoon presenters represented key sectors of the tourism industry, including Chris Jones, Vice President of the Tourism Industry Association of Canada, and Vicky Lymburner, President of the Ontario Tourism Education Council. To match the greater sophistication in tourism operations and marketing, the speakers stressed to the students the need for skilled communicators, researchers and managers, capable of thriving in an industry that is increasingly competitive, wired, and global.

The next morning featured the fifth annual Student Research Symposium, an opportunity for graduate students to present their thesis research in a professional setting of peers. Eight student papers were accepted for presentation and four for poster display. The best presentation award was won by Stephen Gilmour, University of Waterloo, for his study of Ontario snowmobile tourism’s response to climate
variability and change. As a collection, the student work was reflective of the shift from traditional tourism, with topics ranging from culinary festivals to farm stays.

A popular component of the TTRA Canada Chapter Conference is the Research Case Study. Despite unseasonably cold weather, participants toured an agricultural research station, brewery, farm, and retail market to experience agri-tourism from field to plate. There is nothing like a team building exercise through a corn maze in the cold to bring delegates together! The case tour research component was extended by featuring a culinary tourism panel as part of the main conference the following day. Gastronomer Anita Stewart, restaurateur, Bob Desautels, and entrepreneur Amy Strom of Strom’s Farm, a working farm but also a significant farm attraction, shared their experiences in the commercialization and marketing of local produce. With the growth in food and wine tourism, and greater consumer awareness of, and interest in, place origin, their timely stories illustrated the value and impact of applied research to make food-related products and experiences market-ready.

CONFERENCE SESSIONS

Given the extent of possibilities now open to tourism hosts and developers, much research is needed to understand the behaviour of the new tourist, and the viability of the new experiences. Table 1 lists the topics of the conference sessions that took place over a two-day period, delivered by over 50 presenters. The following is a summary of highly rated sessions selected as illustrative of the type of research underway, and the practitioner-focused outcomes of interest to both researchers and marketers.

Table 1. TTRA Canada Chapter Conference 2009 Session Topics

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<th>Aboriginal Eco-Tourism</th>
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<td>Cultural Tourism</td>
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<td>Hospitality, Food and Beverage</td>
<td>Tourist Behaviour and Motivations</td>
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<td>International Tourism</td>
<td>World Heritage Tourism Research</td>
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A highlight of the conference was the opening keynote address, delivered by Dr. Eddie Friel, Expert-in-Residence at the Hospitality and Research Center, Niagara University, titled “Reinventing places: the challenges of a post industrial age”. More than ever, places today have to identify why anyone should be interested in them. Increasingly, the unit of analysis of economic performance is the city region. Dr. Friel not only entertained with humor, personal stories and genuine sensibility, he illustrated the import of arts and cultural industries, and the potential of small communities by sharing his own experiences in Glasgow and beyond, where he has helped redefine place.

Another highlight was the Tourist Behaviour and Motivations session. University of Calgary graduate student, Vincent Tung, presented his thesis research on the essence of a memorable travel experience. Tung identified salient travel experience factors by analyzing the content of 208 interviews to identify the most frequently recollected elements of a destination. He found social and family experiences to be most salient, and recommends an integration with specific destination activities (e.g. sightseeing, hiking, camping, skiing, shopping, gambling) to create effective memory points.

The Niche Tourism session was also highly rated by attendees. Presentations included an assessment of the Prince Edward County Taste Trail, a self-guided culinary route along the north shore of Lake Ontario (by Richard Wade, Hersch Jacobs and Karen Pun, Ryerson University). Surveyed trail users, though hard to find, were highly satisfied with the trail, the published trail guide, and the trail wineries. The assessment also surveyed retail operators, the majority of whom recognized the importance of locally sourced products, and producers, who acknowledged the financial benefits of the trail, albeit a small percentage of income for most. Another noteworthy presentation by Tony Fisher, Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance, explored the differences among sport tourists. Lastly, Scott Forrester and Martha Barnes (Brock University) examined the impacts of an artificial white-water river development that was a catalyst for revitalizing a decaying downtown urban core, and linking together an extended park system, as a case study of municipal revitalization.

The Emerging Markets session was led by Kent Stewart, Western Management Consultants and colleagues, and effectively told the story of how the Canadian Badlands, an emerging destination, moved from strategy to action. Dave Pierzchala of Ipsos Reid provided a quantitative look at how Canadians are looking to new markets as they tighten their belts during economic strive.
The Cultural Tourism and Rural Tourism sessions explored the challenges of attracting travelers to unique tourism experiences, such as cultural festivals in multi-ethnic neighborhoods of Toronto (McClinchey and Carmichael, Wilfrid Laurier University), genealogy tourism in Nova Scotia (Darlene MacDonald, Department of Tourism, Culture and Heritage), and cultural tourism in Colombia, where several challenges hinder tourism development, including lack of community preparedness, lack of resources, intrusion of outside groups, and fragmentation of interests (Blanca Camargo, Texas A&M University).

Individual sessions of note included a study of two dark tourism attractions in Winnipeg, Manitoba by Laura Jane Bissell and Kelly MacKay (University of Manitoba). An assessment of visitor motivations to a cemetery and a ghost tour resulted in relatively low scores of dark motives on a motivation scales, suggesting that these particular sites, like many, are paler attractions. Jackie Dawson (University of Waterloo) and colleagues studied last chance tourism and found that for visitors to the ‘polar bear capital of the world’ in Churchill, Manitoba, the vulnerability of polar bears in the region was motivation to view the bears before they are gone. The paradox of last chance tourism is that as tourist demand increases for endangered destinations, so too does the speed of their demise.

The second keynote was a particularly strong address by Allan Gregg, Chairman, Harris/Decima. Gregg, one of Canada’s most respected research professionals and political analysts, looked from our past to the future of tourism, connecting the economy, public opinion, business and government issues. The conference ended with a plenary session on the World Heritage Tourism Research Network. Spearheaded by Dr. E. Wanda George, Mount Saint Vincent University, this international initiative of Canadian and international social scientists have launched a collaborative and comparative research program focused on growing concerns associated with the UNESCO World Heritage designation. The network explores the complex relationships between heritage planners and tourism destination managers to advance understanding of issues critical to the future of world heritage sites. Post-conference, Parks Canada hosted a satellite session, where a small group of delegates discussed current research initiatives pertinent to parks.

CONCLUSION

While Tourism Away from the Mainstream covered a range of topics relevant to this thematic field, the commonalty evident across the
conference presentations was the significant shift in product focus, traveler behaviour, and critical issues. The traditional approach to maximizing visitation at a sun, sea or surf destination is changing, affected by new demands for unique and memorable experiences, the challenges of global warming, environmental and social equity, and greater opaque and connected networks. These concurrent influences are a call for researchers to explore, and a call for marketers to develop new and differentiated strategies. The dialogue has started, but we have much more to talk about, at TTRA’s Canada Chapter Conference in Quebec City, October 2010.

Statia Elliot
University of Guelph

ENDNOTES

The accepted refereed submissions are available to conference attendees and members. For more information about TTRA’s Canada Chapter, visit http://www/ttracanada.ca.

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FORTHCOMING EVENTS

60th AIEST Congress, “Tourism development after the crisis: Coping with global imbalances and contributing to the millennium goals”, Johannesburg, South Africa, 12-16 September 2010. For more information visit: http://www.aiest.org


ATLAS Annual Conference, “Mass tourism versus niche tourism”, Limassol, Cyprus, 3-5 November 2010. For more information visit: http://www.atlas-euro.org

Consumer Behaviour in Tourism Symposium, organised by the Free University of Bozen-Bolzano, Bruneck/Brunico, Italy, 1-4 December 2010. For more information visit: http://cbts2010.unibz.it


5th International Conference on Services Management, New Dehli, India, 19-21 May 2011. For more information visit: http://www.jsr-iimt.in/sconf2011

Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Management & Marketing, Istanbul, Turkey, 19-24 June 2011. For more information visit: http://lists.wsu.edu/mailman/listinfo/httrc


AIMS & SCOPE

TOURISMOS is an international, multi-disciplinary, refereed (peer-reviewed) journal aiming to promote and enhance research in all fields of tourism, including travel, hospitality and leisure. The journal is published by the University of the Aegean (in Greece), and is intended for readers in the scholarly community who deal with different tourism sectors, both at macro and at micro level, as well as professionals in the industry. TOURISMOS provides a platform for debate and dissemination of research findings, new research areas and techniques, conceptual developments, and articles with practical application to any tourism segment. Besides research papers, the journal welcomes book reviews, conference reports, case studies, research notes and commentaries. TOURISMOS aims at:

- Disseminating and promoting research, good practice and innovation in all aspects of tourism to its prime audience including educators, researchers, post-graduate students, policy makers, and industry practitioners.
- Encouraging international scientific cooperation and understanding, and enhancing multi-disciplinary research across all tourism sectors.

The scope of the journal is international and all papers submitted are subject to strict blind peer review by its Editorial Board and by other anonymous international reviewers. The journal features conceptual and empirical papers, and editorial policy is to invite the submission of manuscripts from academics, researchers, post-graduate students, policy-makers and industry practitioners. The Editorial Board will be looking particularly for articles about new trends and developments within different sectors of tourism, and the application of new ideas and developments that are likely to affect tourism, travel, hospitality and leisure in the future. TOURISMOS also welcomes submission of manuscripts in areas that may not be directly tourism-related but cover a
topic that is of interest to researchers, educators, policy-makers and practitioners in various fields of tourism.

The material published in TOURISMOS covers all scientific, conceptual and applied disciplines related to tourism, travel, hospitality and leisure, including: economics, management, planning and development, marketing, human resources, sociology, psychology, geography, information and communication technologies, transportation, service quality, finance, food and beverage, and education. Manuscripts published in TOURISMOS should not have been published previously in any copyright form (print or electronic/online). The general criteria for the acceptance of articles are:

- Contribution to the promotion of scientific knowledge in the greater multi-disciplinary field of tourism.
- Adequate and relevant literature review.
- Scientifically valid and reliable methodology.
- Clarity of writing.
- Acceptable quality of English language.

TOURISMOS is published twice per year (in Spring and in Autumn). Each issue includes the following sections: editorial, research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events.

**JOURNAL SECTIONS**

**Editorial**

The Editorial addresses issues of contemporary interest and provides a detailed introduction and commentary to the articles in the current issue. The editorial may be written by the Editor, or by any other member(s) of the Editorial Board. When appropriate, a “Guest Editorial” may be presented. However, TOURISMOS does not accept unsolicited editorials.

**Research Papers**

For the Research Papers section, TOURISMOS invites full-length manuscripts (not longer than 6000 words and not shorter than 4000 words) from a variety of disciplines; these papers may be either empirical or conceptual, and will be subject to strict blind peer review (by at least three anonymous referees). The decision for the final acceptance of the paper will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate
Editors. The manuscripts submitted should provide original and/or innovative ideas or approaches or findings that eventually push the frontiers of knowledge. Purely descriptive accounts are not considered suitable for this section. Each paper should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an overall presentation of the issue to be examined and the aims and objectives of the paper), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the development of hypotheses and/or models, research methodology, presentation of findings, and analysis and discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices.

**Case Studies**

Case Studies should be not longer than 3500 words and not shorter than 2500; these articles should be focusing on the detailed and critical presentation/review of real-life cases from the greater tourism sector, and must include - where appropriate - relevant references and bibliography. Case Studies should aim at disseminating information and/or good practices, combined with critical analysis of real examples. Purely descriptive accounts may be considered suitable for this section, provided that are well-justified and of interest to the readers of *TOURISMOS*. Each article should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an overall presentation of the case to be examined and the aims and objectives of the article), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the presentation of the case study, the critical review of the case and relevant discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, and suggestions for further study), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices. All Case Studies are subject to blind peer review (by at least one anonymous referee). The decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editor.

**Research Notes**

Research Notes should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000; these papers may be either empirical or conceptual, and will be subject to blind peer review (by at least two anonymous referees). The decision for the final acceptance of the paper will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editors. The manuscripts submitted may present research-in-progress or my focus on the conceptual
development of models and approaches that have not been proven yet through primary research. In all cases, the papers should provide original ideas, approaches or preliminary findings that are open to discussion. Purely descriptive accounts may be considered suitable for this section, provided that are well-justified and of interest to the readers of *TOURISMOS*. Each paper should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an overall presentation of the issue to be examined and the aims and objectives of the paper), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the development of hypotheses and/or models, research methodology, presentation of findings, and analysis and discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices.

**Book Reviews**

Book Reviews should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 1000; these articles aim at presenting and critically reviewing books from the greater field of tourism. Most reviews should focus on new publications, but older books are also welcome for presentation. Book Reviews are not subject to blind peer review; the decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Book Reviews Editor. Where appropriate, these articles may include references and bibliography. Books to be reviewed may be assigned to potential authors by the Book Reviews Editor, though *TOURISMOS* is also open to unsolicited suggestions for book reviews from interested parties.

**Conference Reports**

Conference Reports should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000; these articles aim at presenting and critically reviewing conferences from the greater field of tourism. Most reports should focus on recent conferences (i.e., conferences that took place not before than three months from the date of manuscript submission), but older conferences are also welcome for presentation if appropriate. Conference Reports are not subject to blind peer review; the decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Conference Reports Editor. Where appropriate, these articles may include references and bibliography. Conference reports may be assigned to potential authors by the Conference Reports Editor, though
TOURISMOS is also open to unsolicited suggestions for reports from interested parties.

Industry Viewpoints
Industry Viewpoints should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 500; these articles may have a “commentary” form, and aim at presenting and discussing ideas, views and suggestions by practitioners (industry professionals, tourism planners, policy makers, other tourism stakeholders, etc.). Through these articles, TOURISMOS provides a platform for the exchange of ideas and for developing closer links between academics and practitioners. Most viewpoints should focus on contemporary issues, but other issues are also welcome for presentation if appropriate. Industry Viewpoints are not subject to blind peer review; the decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editors. These articles may be assigned to potential authors by the editor, though TOURISMOS is also open to unsolicited contributions from interested parties.

Forthcoming Events
Forthcoming Events should be not longer than 500 words; these articles may have the form of a “call of papers”, related to a forthcoming conference or a special issue of a journal. Alternatively, forthcoming events may have the form of a press release informing readers of TOURISMOS about an event (conference or other) related to the tourism, travel, hospitality or leisure sectors. These articles should not aim at promoting sales of any products or services. The decision for the final acceptance of the article will be taken by the Editor.
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 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 Associate Editor (Dr. 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**

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