PROCEEDINGS OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON TOURISM (ICOT2015)

From Tourism Policy into Practice: Issues and Challenges in Engaging Policy Makers and End Users

London, UK, 24-27 JUNE

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CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS OF THE

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON
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From Tourism Policy into Practice:
Issues and Challenges in Engaging Policy
Makers and End Users

London 24-27June 2015

EDITOR

Konstantinos Andriotis
Middlesex University London, U.K.

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There has been a growing interest in tourism studies, which has resulted in implications for policies and practical recommendations for end users including practitioners, policy makers, the industry and tourists. Policy is particularly important in tourism due to its multi-faceted nature and the complexity in inter-organizational relations and collaborative policy-making. Moreover, policy implementation is also important as many tourism plans and regulations are not applied or are only partially implemented. The understanding of tourism policy-making and implementation, which is described as the process through which policy ideas and plans can be translated into practice has been the focus of many academic studies and professional reports. In recent years the relevance of academic studies to policy making and impact on end users has been a pre-condition for securing research funding. This has been particularly the case in the international research agenda, where academics are asked to link their research proposals to current issues in the industry and engage end users from the very initial stage of research design. Some recent attempts of scholars to link their academic debates and empirical studies have focused on connecting marketing and branding research and practice adopting a global and more multidisciplinary approach, bringing the subject of tourism branding outside of the conventional domains of marketing and destinations. Special attention has been given to the role and expectations of the main tourism stakeholders, particularly residents, business, and government in the hosting community. In addition theoretical considerations on the role of tourism as a tool for development-related public and private policies are followed by a methodological framework for tourism policy and governance and application of these in real-world situations.

The conference addresses questions such as:

- How does the nature of tourism and its complexity in areas such as inter-organizational relations, collaboration, competition, innovation, marketing, etc. impact policy making and implementation?
- What are the factors identified in both the top-down and bottom-up approaches of policy implementation?
• What are the challenges in implementing tourism policies and what is the current gap between formal and informal policies in tourism?
• Has academia managed to have a significant impact on policy making and end users?
• Examples and case studies in various areas area of tourism research which has managed to make an impact or failed to do so?
• Issues in teaching the principles of tourism policy making and related community engagement.
• How can we measure or evaluate the impact of tourism research on end users?

Bearing all these questions in mind, this conference aims to add to this debate by stimulating discussion and exchange of ideas between tourism professionals, academics, researchers, policy-makers, consultants, practitioners, government officials and postgraduate students from all tourism-related fields.
CONFERENCE TOPICS

The conference will focus on a broad range of topics related to tourism, including (but not limited to):

- Tourism Development, Policy and Planning
- Public Administration of Tourism Development
- Local Government Role and Responses to Tourism Development
- Community Responses to Tourists and Tourism
- Collaboration and Cooperation between Stakeholders
- Theoretical Perspectives on Tourism
- End Users Engagement in Tourism Policy Making
- Economic/Social/Environmental/Cultural Impacts of Tourism
- Tourism Education and its Role in Managing Tourism Development
- Alternative and Special Forms of Tourism
- Case Studies and Applied Research on Various Types and Forms of Tourism, such as Agro-Tourism, Rural Tourism, Eco-Tourism and Cultural Tourism
- Industry’s Role in Managing Growth
- Destination Marketing
- Information Technology in Tourism
- Tourism Research and Methodology
- Globalisation Effects
- Resiliency Planning
- Challenges and Best Practices of Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management
- Negotiation in Tourism
- Tourism Mobilities
- Transportation and Tourism
- Authenticity and Commodification
- The Future of Tourism
- Climate Change and Natural Disasters
- The Effects of Crime, Terrorism, Safety and Security
- Managing Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism
COMMITTEES

Chairmen

- Konstantinos Andriotis, Middlesex University London, UK
- Sumeetra Ramakrishnan, Middlesex University London, UK
- Adi Weidenfeld, Middlesex University London, UK

Scientific Committee

- George Agiomirgianakis, Hellenic Open University, Greece
- Constantia Anastasiadou, Edinburgh Napier University, UK
- Nikolaos Boukas, European University, Cyprus
- Noga Collins-Kreiner, University of Haifa, Israel
- Valentina Della Corte, Federico II University of Naples, Italy
- Deirdre Dragovich, University of Sydney, Australia
- Lee Jolliffe, University of New Brunswick, Canada
- Sotiris Hji-Avgoustis, Ball State University, USA
- Yechezkel Israeli, Kinneret College on the Sea of Galilee, Israel
- Carlos Monterrubio, Autonomous University of the State of Mexico, Mexico
- Sanjay Nepal, University of Waterloo, Canada
- Robin Nunkoo, University of Mauritius, Mauritius
- Hyung Yu Park, Middlesex University London, UK
- Christine Prince, ISG International Business School, France
- Costas Priporas, Middlesex University London, UK
- Dimitrios Stylidis, Middlesex University London, UK
- Amos S. Ron, Kinneret College on the Sea of Galilee & Ashkelon College, Israel
- David Roger Vaughan, Bournemouth University, UK
- Lorna Wang, University of West London, UK
- Kailin Wu, Middlesex University London, UK
Organizing Committee

- Konstantinos Andriotis, Middlesex University London, UK
- Hyung Yu Park, Middlesex University London, UK
- Costas Priporas, Middlesex University London, UK
- Nicos Rodosthenous, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus
- Sumeetra Ramakrishnan, Middlesex University London, UK
- Savvas Sakkadas, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus
- Adi Weidenfeld, Middlesex University London, UK
- Kailin Wu, Middlesex University London, UK
KEYNOTE SPEAKERS

PROF. PETER BURNS
University of Bedfordshire, UK

Peter Burns is Professor of Tourism and International Development and Director of the Institute for Tourism Studies (INTOUR) at the University of Bedfordshire, UK. Peter's research interests are framed by the powerful influence tourism has on the socio-cultural environment in destination countries. Specifically, he investigates roles and responsibilities throughout the tourism value chain especially in relation to the challenge of climate change. As a consultant, he specializes in tourism master planning for developing countries and emerging markets. He has undertaken research and consultancy assignments in over 30 countries. He is co-editor of the scientific journal Tourism Planning & Development, an expert member of UNWTO’s Global Tourism Barometer, an ambassador for the World Tourism Forum Lucerne and committee member of the UK NGO the Travel Foundation. Peter is an Academician of the Academy of Social Sciences. His academic work has received over 2,000 citations, and has an H-index of 19.
EMERITUS PROFESSOR CARSON L. Jenkins
University of Strathclyde, Scotland

Dr. Carson L. Jenkins is Emeritus Professor of International Tourism in the Business School, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, Scotland. By training an economist, he has taught, researched and published in the field of tourism specifically related to the developing countries. He has undertaken consultancy and advisory assignments in over 80 of these countries for many of the international development agencies. His particular areas of interest and expertise are in the field of policy formulation, planning, human resource development, tourism legislation and institutional restructuring. Formerly Head of Department of The Scottish Hotel School, University of Strathclyde, and Principal and Managing Director of the University Centre, International Management Institute, Lucerne, Switzerland, he retains a broad interest in hospitality and tourism education and is actively involved in international consultancy assignment most recently in the Environment and Socially Responsible Tourism Development project in Vietnam.
PROFESSOR ALLAN WILLIAMS
University of Surrey, UK

Allan Williams is Professor of Tourism and Mobility Studies at the University of Surrey, and previously held professorial appointments at the Universities of Exeter and London Metropolitan. He is co-editor of Tourism Geographies, and a resource editor for Annals of Tourism Geographies. Author of 28 books and more than 110 refereed journal articles, his recent publications include papers on innovation in Annals, risk in JTR and Tourism Management, migration in Populations, Space and Place, and productivity in the British Journal of Industrial Relations. He is a fellow of the International Academy for the Study of Tourism, and of the UK’s Academy of Social Science.
## SCHEDULE AT A GLANCE

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<td>- Prof. Konstantinos Andriotis, Middlesex University, London, UK</td>
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<td>- Dr. Sumeetra Ramakrishnan, Middlesex University, London, UK</td>
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<td>18:50-19:00</td>
<td>Invited Speech: IATOUR &amp; ICOT: Past, Present and Future</td>
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<td>- Prof. George Agiomirgianakis, Chair of ICOT2015 Organising Committee</td>
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<td>Hellenic Open University, Greece</td>
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<td>- Anna Kyprianou, DEAN of Middlesex Business School and Pro Vice-Chancellor, Middlesex University London, UK</td>
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THE MODERATING ROLE OF POSITIONAL LEVEL AND EXPERIENCE BETWEEN EMPLOYEES' JOB SATISFACTION AND TURNOVER: EVIDENCE FROM HOTELS IN SAUDI ARABIA

HANY HOSNY SAYED ABDELHAMIED
Sadat City University, Egypt & Umm AlQura University, Saudi Arabia

The human element in the hotels industry is the key success factor hence; all the hotels' services are based on human elements. Satisfied employees will spillover on performance and will be retained. Turnover is a painful issue in hotels, managers try to minimize their turnover and save costs of recruiting. This paper aims to investigate the reasons of employees' turnover Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). The study seeks to focus on the job satisfaction-turnover relationship, examining how positional levels and experience moderate this relationship. A self-completion questionnaire has been used to collect the data. The initial results indicate that positional level moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover for most of the job satisfaction facets. It was found that positional level has a moderating effect between employees' job satisfaction elements with turnover. While, experience moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover only with self-esteem and promotion.

1. Introduction

The hospitality industry in (KSA) is facing a labor shortage. Limited number of hospitality graduates, the tendency to governmental jobs and the societal norms are
affecting the labor pool. Huge investments in hotels in KSA are occurring and new construction of hotels are everywhere in the kingdom, especially in Makkah and the Al-Madina districts.

2. Review Literature

2.1 Job satisfaction
Hotels face human resource challenges, such as controlling a high turnover rates and paying low wages (Arasli and Daskin, 2012). The external value and service success depend on employees’ who have direct contact with customers and retaining these employees for long time is one of the most critical issue (Karatepe and Uludag, 2007).

According to Mora and Ferrer-i-Carbonell, (2009) job satisfaction can be defined as a summation of employee’s feelings in four important areas. Including: (1) Nature of job to be performed, work hours, co-worker, opportunities on job for promotion, and physical environment (2) Management treatment, participation, rewards and retirement policies (3) Social relations - friends and, participation in social activity, (4) Personal adjustment - health and emotionality. Olusegun, (2013) added that these dimensions are crucial because they all influence the way a person feels regarding his/her job.

2.2 Importance of job satisfaction in Hospitality industry
Job satisfaction is determined not only by the employees’ objective working situation, but also by their subjective perceptions about their job (Mora and Ferrer-i-Carbonell, 2009). The framework of service profit shows that internal service quality can improve employee satisfaction, which will enhance employee productivity and further result in external service value and enhanced customer satisfaction. Finally, the company can make a profit (Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremler, 2009). Job satisfaction is an important indicator of how employees feel about their job and predictor of work behavior such as performance and absenteeism.
2.3 Turnover

Hospitality industry commonly faces turnover, it incurs cost of replacement. High turnover rates are not good for hotels, so operators try to retain their employees and save their cost. According to Price (2001) "turnover" refers to the ratio of the number of organizational members who have left during the period being considered divided by the average number of people in that organization. Turnover is of two types voluntary turnover and involuntary turnover, when employer fire the employees it is said to be involuntary turnover and when the employees quit their job by their willingness it is called involuntary turnover (Alas, 2008). Cotton and Tuttle (1986) identified three categories of causes of employee turnover: (1) work-related factors (job satisfaction, pay, performance, organizational commitment); (2) individual factors (age, education, sex, job tenure); and (3) external factors (unemployment rates, employment perceptions).

2.4 Job satisfaction and turnover studies in the hospitality

The relationship between job satisfaction and turnover has long been investigated in hospitality, starting from Price (2001) who identified a range of other variables such as pay, communication, overload, promotional opportunities, training, supervisor and co-worker support as having a significant impact on turnover. In 2004, Aksu, suggested reasons for high turnover including low-skilled and low-paying work, unsocial working hours, low job satisfaction and the lack of career training and advancement. Empirical evidence has suggested that the expectations of staff members in the hospitality industry are often in disagreement with the view of their employers and the reality of the industry (Cairncross and Buultjens, 2007) and this misalignment subsequently impacts upon organizational outcomes such as turnover and productivity (Solnet and Hood, 2008). Much attention has been given to the role of employee relations in hotels, hence personnel practices, and high levels of labor turnover are seen as mitigating the achievement of broader business outcomes (Cho, Laschinger and Wong, 2006; Sun, Aryee, and Law, 2007). Saporna and Claveria, (2013) investigated the relationship between job satisfactions dimensions and
intention to quit the job and found that job satisfaction dimensions are related to turnover intentions.

In Malaysians’ hotels, Al-Battat, Mat-Som, and Helalat (2014) proved proper working environment and increased wages could decrease the turnover crisis. On the other hand, Evidence from Cyprus indicates that, negative associations between affective organizational commitment, extrinsic job satisfaction and turnover intention were revealed. However, a negative association between job satisfaction and turnover intention was not supported (Zopiatis, Constanti and Theocharous, 2014).

Figure 1: Theoretical Model

2.5 Job satisfaction-turnover relationship through positional level

Hotel management jobs include managerial positions and entry-level positions. There are limited number of
studies that investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and positional level or turnover and positional level. However, many studies examine the factors influencing the staff to quit their jobs including labor market, age, promotion and job alternatives (Saks, 2006). Price (2001) concludes turnover is higher among non-managerial categories, the same author noted four of the determinants are consistent with this relationship: pay, instrumental communication, formal communication, and centralization. Cotton and Tuttle (1986) have confirmed that the employee population affects the relationships between employee turnover and satisfaction. For instance, such relationships may depend on an employee’s positional level. Tian-Foreman, (2009) found Occupation is associated significantly with job satisfaction, turnover intention and the job satisfaction-turnover relationship. Based on the previously mentioned discussions and research in hospitality and job satisfaction, the study proposes the following hypotheses:

H1. There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover.
H2. There is a negative relationship between self-esteem and turnover intention.
H3. There are no significant differences in turnover by positional level.
H4. There are significant differences in job satisfaction by experience.
H5. There are no significant differences in turnover by experience.
H6. There are significant differences in the relationship between employee turnover and job satisfaction by positional level.
H7. There are no significant differences in the relationship between employee turnover and job satisfaction by experience.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Sampling and Data collection

Statistics from (Saudi tourism chamber, 2014) revealed that the majority of 5-star hotels concentrated in Jeddah, Makkah and Al Madinah. These hotels constitute 67% of all the five stars accommodation establishments in KSA.
Makkah is the holy city for Muslim around the world, and about 14 millions pilgrims visit Makkah and Al-Madina every year. The current study will focus on the five stars international hotels in the Eastern province, which represented in Makkah, Al Madina and Jeddah.

About 47 international hotels were approached in (Makkah, Madina and Jeddah), to get an approval to conduct the study. Only 34 hotels agreed to participate and allow the researcher to conduct the study. The sampled hotels includes Swissotel, Mövenpick, Marriott hotels, Hilton, Meridian, Intercontinental, Fairmount, and Raffles.

The sample consisted of managerial positions employees, and entry-level employees. Prior to commence data collection, the research tested the questionnaire. Following the pilot-study, few parts were amended according to the comments received. Moreover, 354 forms distributed over the sampled hotels with the help of some staff members who work in the sampled hotels. When the questionnaires were collected from those hotels, it was found out that 287 of them in total were returned, but 6 were unusable due to substantial amount of missing data. In this research, the total number of usable questionnaires was 281 and the response rate was calculated to be 79.3%.

3.2 Questionnaire development and measures

The survey was initially prepared in English and then translated to Arabic. Job satisfaction was measured using many items adapted from the job descriptive index initiated by (Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1969) and then modified to the hospitality context.

The questionnaire encompasses three sections. The first, captured six, non-metric items: gender, educational level, marital status, income level, workplace, the position within the hotel and years of experience and has been measured by three options (from 1-5, from 5-10 and over ten years experience). The second deals with satisfaction with pay and benefits, and the remaining three measure satisfaction with promotions and current position. Two questions about the physical conditions of the work place and three other questions related to the relationship between the staff and the supervisors.
Three more questions investigating the self-esteem, which were adopted from Rosenberg’s (1965). The third part, dealt with the turnover. Four items have measured turnover intention. The items were adopted from (Khatri, Fern and Budhwar, 2001). All the items were presented to respondents as a series of statements to which they were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree/disagree along a five-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree). Face validity was ensured by a jury of industry experts. The reliability or the internal consistency of the scales used was measured using Cronbach’s alfa. The results showed that a coefficient were well above the minimum of 0.60, thus indicating reliability (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). The reliability score was (a¼0.86) for the objective factors and (a¼0.64) for the subjective ones. The Alfa scores were therefore deemed acceptable given the exploratory nature of this study.

3.3 Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess construct validity, unidimensionality and reliability of each measure. In this method confirmatory factor analysis was run on the job satisfaction model initially as a second-order construct reflected by five first-order dimensions (Pay, promotion, physical environment, supervision and self esteem) and then with the inter-construct correlations fixed at unity. The difference between the Chi-square goodness of fit values of the constrained and unconstrained models is used as an indicator of discriminant validity of the constructs. If the Chi-square values are significant, the discriminant validity of the measures is considered to be established (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). From the two conducted (CFA) problematic or poorly fitting items were found and retained or deleted. The overall CFA model had a Chi-square of 3860.015, a CFI of 0.922, an IFI of 0.924, a TLI of 0.891 and a RESEA of 0.071. The CFI, IFI, and TLI values all fall above the recommended cut-off value 0.9 and RMSEA value fell below of 0.075 which indicates reasonable fit (Hu and Bentler, 1999). The obtained results indicate a reasonably good overall model fit.
4. Research Findings

The job satisfaction items were positively and strongly related with each other (range from r 0.156 to r 0.779), at the 0.05 significance level. Mean values of individual job satisfaction variables showed employees generally felt more positive and satisfied about the pay and benefits, physical condition of the work and their supervisors. However, respondents reported less satisfaction with promotion policies; hence, the overall mean values were generally close to (2.5). From Table 1 it can be clearly depicted that respondents to some extent were not satisfied of their self-esteem, hence the mean scores were below (2.0).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>Turnover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Received salary.</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>0.254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(medical, accommodation) benefits</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over time</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual raise and bonuses.</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.814</td>
<td>0.308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current position</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td>0.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotions system</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>0.354</td>
<td>-0.134**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and advancement</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>0.389</td>
<td>0.213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The physical conditions</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>0.301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and safety conditions</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>0.098</td>
<td>0.271</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor enables me to perform well.</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td>0.274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor listens to my suggestions.</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>0.871</td>
<td>0.211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor promotes an atmosphere of teamwork.</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.776</td>
<td>0.281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel I have a number of good qualities</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>0.988</td>
<td>- 0.213**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At times, I think I am not good at all</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.770</td>
<td>- 0.124**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel I'm proud of my job and my self</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>0.609</td>
<td>- 0.109**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'm planning to leave my job as soon as I find better job</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.646</td>
<td>0.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have started to look for other job</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>0.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I intended to leave If I find higher position in different hotel</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.687</td>
<td>0.263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Next year I will be definitely in the same job</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>0.514</td>
<td>0.241</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall scores on turnover intention indicated that many of the respondents have the intention to quit the jobs. Scores of the items measuring the turn over intention: are
positively associated with each other (correlations ranged from 0.646 to 0.716 at 0.001 significance) and negatively correlated with the item “Next year I will be definitely in the same job”. The result contradicts with the suggestions of Al-Battat and Mat-Som (2013) who found a strong relationship between turnover and job satisfaction in other words, job satisfaction greatly reduces turnover intention, but respondents were satisfied with the majority of the job satisfaction attributes and have the intention to quit their job, this result inconsistent with (Amah, 2009).

4.1 Employees’ satisfaction and turnover intention

Respondent’s satisfaction with pay and benefits, physical environment and supervisors were all found to be having no effect on turnover intention. This result did not support the first hypothesis. Also the results showed that self-esteem items were negatively correlated with turnover intention. This finding supports the second hypothesis, which suggested a negative relationship between self-esteem and turnover intention. The finding also agreed with Alhamwan and Mat (2015) who reported a consistent negative relationship between self-esteem and turnover intention.

4.2 The influences of positional level on the overall satisfaction

The findings in Table 2 showed no significant differences between managerial level positions (MP) and entry-level positions (EL) regarding the received salary, the (medical, accommodation) benefits and the money paid for the extra work. Nonetheless, significant differences were detected between the perceptions of (MP) employees and (EL) employees, hence, results reflected dissatisfaction of entry-level employees regarding to the annual rise and bonuses. Entry-level employees also showed dissatisfaction of their current position. Significant differences were also found among (EL) employees regarding the “promotion system.
Table 2: Aspects of positional levels and experience on overall job satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>JS attributes</th>
<th>Managerial positions</th>
<th>Entry-level positions</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Managerial positions</th>
<th>Entry-level positions</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Received salary</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.774</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical and accommodation benefits</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.664</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over time</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.415</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual raise and bonuses</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>0.009***</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>0.549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current position</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>0.007***</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>0.741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotions system</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.008***</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>0.574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and advancement</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>0.674</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.794</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The physical conditions</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.545</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The health and safety</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.748</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>0.658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor enables me to perform well</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor listens to my suggestions</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>0.474</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>0.584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor promotes an atmosphere of teamwork</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.751</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were no significant differences observed between (MP) employees and (EL) employees regarding, training, physical condition of work, health and safety condition and supervisions in the current study. It has been noted that (EL) employees who hold higher educational levels reported frequent dissatisfaction of their current positions and promotion systems.

4.3 Experience and overall satisfaction

Regarding the effects of experience on overall employees' satisfactions, it has been observed that no significant differences were detected. This result contradicts with the fourth hypothesis, which claims significant differences in job satisfaction by experience. It has been noted that employees who had wide experience in both
(MP) employees and (EL) employees reported remarkable dissatisfaction with promotion systems in some hotels.

Table 3 indicated unexpected results, hence significant differences were found between (MP) employees and (EL) employees regarding self-esteem. The (MP) employees reported more frequently dissatisfaction of their self-esteem; while (EL) employees were not. The obtained result is surprising, but as mentioned before the majority of (MP) employees were Saudis who prefer governmental occupations as stated by Al Ghamdi (2010).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-esteem attributes</th>
<th>Managerial positions</th>
<th>Entry-level positions</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I feel I have a number of good qualities</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>0.874***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At times, I think I am not good at all</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>0.751***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel I'm proud of my job and my self</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>0.754***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.4 The influences of positional levels on employees' turnover intention**

Unexpectedly, Table 4 showed that (MP) employees reported more frequently their intention to leave their jobs more than (EL) employees did. (EL) employees were less intended to leave their job as responses indicated of the first item. The responses of the second and third items showed no significant differences between managerial positions employees and entry-level employees. The obtained results previously showed that (MP) employees were satisfied greatly with all job satisfaction items, although they reported higher intention to quit their job than (EL) employees did. Additionally, (MP) reported more frequently dissatisfaction of their self-esteem and they have real intention to quit their job if they found another job. Significant differences were detected regarding the last items of turnover, hence (MP) employees expressed their intention to be in different job next year.
### Table 4: Turnover by Managerial position employees and entry-level employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turnover items</th>
<th>Managerial level positions</th>
<th>Entry-level positions</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I'm planning to leave my job as soon as I find better job</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.455***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I intended to leave if I find higher position in different hotel</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.564</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have started to look for other job</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Next year I will be definitely in the same job</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.437***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the effects of employees experience on turnover intention, no significant differences found between (MP) employees and (EL) employees, in other words the experience in hotels has no effect on employees' turnover intention. The finding supports the seventh hypothesis.

### 4.5 Positional levels and the employees job satisfaction-turnover relationship

The tabulated data in Table 5 illustrated that satisfaction with (salary, medical benefits and the money paid for overtime) were not significantly or negatively related to turnover intention by positional level for both (MP) employees and (EL) employees. Regarding satisfaction with annual rise and bonuses, it was negatively scored among (EL) employees and strongly related to turnover intention with significance at 0.05 level. Similarly, the results showed that satisfaction of current position among (EL) employees was negatively related to turnover intention with significance at 0.05 level or better. It was found that employees holding bachelor degree were more frequently reported dissatisfaction of their current position and have the intention to leave when data was spelt.

The results confirmed that promotions systems negatively related to turnover intention among (EL) employees. In addition, (MP) employees were not satisfied about promotion systems to some extent, with no effect on turnover intention. The remaining items were not negatively related to turnover intention. The results of self-esteem items explored different expectations; hence, self-esteem was found strongly associated with turnover intentions among managerial position employees. The obtained result
supports the second hypothesis that claims a negative relationship between self-esteem and turn over intention.

**Table 5: Correlations between job satisfaction and turnover intention through positional levels and experience**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Satisfaction Attributes</th>
<th>Employees Turnover Intention</th>
<th>Employees Turnover Intention by experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managerial level positions</td>
<td>Entry-level positions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managerial level positions</td>
<td>Entry-level positions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Received salary</td>
<td>0.281</td>
<td>0.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical and accommodation</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td>0.194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over time</td>
<td>0.137</td>
<td>0.191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual raise and bonuses</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>-0.371**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current position</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
<td>-0.502**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotions system</td>
<td>-0.039</td>
<td>-0.261**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and advancement</td>
<td>0.217</td>
<td>0.267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical conditions</td>
<td>0.415</td>
<td>0.328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and safety</td>
<td>0.432</td>
<td>0.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor enables me to perform well</td>
<td>0.221</td>
<td>0.317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor listens to my suggestions</td>
<td>0.358</td>
<td>0.436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor promotes an Atmosphere of teamwork</td>
<td>0.414</td>
<td>0.302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel I have a number of good qualities</td>
<td>-0.319*</td>
<td>-0.261**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At times, I think I am not good at all</td>
<td>-0.213*</td>
<td>-0.276*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel I'm proud of my job and my self</td>
<td>-0.189*</td>
<td>0.346</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4.6 Experience and the employees job satisfaction-turnover relationship**

Table 5 explored the relationship between turnover intention and job satisfaction by experience and found no significant differences existed between managerial positions employees and entry-level employees in the majority of job satisfaction and self-esteem construct. It was noted that scores of entry-level employees with wide experience for both (current position and promotion systems) were
negative and slightly associated with turnover intention. The remaining items have no effect on turnover intention. The finding supports the fifth hypothesis.

5. Conclusion

The current study shed the light on the influences of job satisfaction on employees’ turnover intention using both (MP) and (EL), in a sample of Saudi hotels. Additionally, the impact of positional level (managerial position and entry-level) and the experience on job satisfaction-turnover relationship was examined in this study.

The finding showed satisfaction of both (MP) employees and (EL) with pay and benefits, physical condition supervision, safety and health conditions. Results also revealed dissatisfaction of promotion system and it was associated with turnover intention. Although, the results reflected satisfaction of job facets in many items, the turnover intention is noticeable. Accordingly, the study identified that there is no relation between job satisfaction and turnover intention in KSA hotels. In addition, the study proved that hotels' employees who had high level of self-esteem satisfaction would be less likely to quit their jobs or look for another work.

Regarding the effects of the experience on the overall employees' satisfactions, it has been observed that the years of experiences in hotels career did not affect the job satisfaction for both the managerial position employees and entry-level employees.

6. References

Future of Tourism” 4-5 February 2013, Penang, Malaysia.


Torremolinos is a mature seaside destination, located in the Costa del Sol, south of Spain. It has evolved from a destination for elite tourism into a major resort for mass tourism. In the past 50 years, Torremolinos has maintained important hotel offer, in spite of strong competition from other tourist destinations. This paper studies the location of Torremolinos hotels, the territorial model of urban sprawl in the period 1957-2007 and the identification of clusters of hotels. To achieve these objectives, we have conducted a digital mapping of urban growth in Torremolinos using ArcGis.10, and classified the urban characteristics of the types of hotels by cluster analysis (SPSS.19). The analysis provided the following results: in 2007, half of the municipality had been completely built; hotels increased their plot progressively as a strategy to adapt to mass tourism; and cluster analysis of the hotels shows three major hotel groups.

1. Introduction

Torremolinos was one of the pioneering zones in the implementation of seaside tourism in Spain. The city, in 2014, had a population of 67,353 inhabitants and an area of 19.8 sq. km (Figure 2). It is located in the province of Malaga in the Costa del Sol. Torremolinos has one of the largest concentration of hotels in Andalusia (21,316 beds in high season and 16,726 average number of hotel beds), and it is one of the most important seaside destinations in Spain.
In the 1920s, Torremolinos was a little fishing village where small hotels for foreign elite tourists were built. The highest point of elite tourism was reached in the late 1950s, when the first major five-star hotel opened its doors. The success of Torremolinos in attracting many visitors meant that it became a mass tourism destination in the 1970s. However, in the 1990s, it suffered a major crisis in its business model and this situation was resolved by local agents introducing post-Fordist tourist processes and renewing the offer of tourism accommodation.

Torremolinos hotels began to grow rapidly in the late 1950s and early 1960s, but in the mid 1970s, there was a sharp and rapid growth that consolidated the reputation of this destination permanently. The strong increase in supply in the late 1970s and early 1980s gave rise to mass tourism that was unrelated to the small hotels of the 1930s and 1940s. During the 1980s and 1990s the number of hotels grew slowly because the destination was reaching maturity. In the early 2000s, certain stagnation was observed, which can be explained by the aforementioned maturity and hospitality restructuring process. In relation to this fact, we observed two processes: on the one hand, conversion in higher quality accommodation and on the other, temporarily hotel closed for renovation and hotel transformation in second house. In 2014, the average number of open beds in the municipality was 16,726 (Figure 1).

The stagnation in this destination can be observed in different variables: drop in overnight stays (5.1 million nights in 1999; 4.6 million in 2014), average stay (5.53 days in 1999; 5.19 days in 2014) (INE, 1999-2014) and hotel revenues (9,999.31€ in 1999; 9,000€ in 2011) (Thiell, 2011). These indicators identify the typical problem of maturity in destination, at least in the hospitality sector (Pollard and Dominguez, 1993). Furthermore, some variables have positive behaviour such as the occupation rate of hotels in Torremolinos (72,60% in 2014), a figure that is above the national average (54,71%) and the Costa del Sol (61,11%) (INE, 2014).

In 2014, Torremolinos offered the largest standard tourist accommodation in the Costa del Sol (23.4% of the total), accounting for 22.1% of the province of Málaga and 7.2% of Andalusia (INE, 2014). In 2011, the total number of tourist beds was estimated at 92,386, of which 27,890 beds were standard tourist accommodation (33.7%) and 54,351 tourist second homes (Table 1). This indicates a density of tourism in an area of 4,529 / km² (INE, 2013).
Table 1: Standard tourism supply by type of establishment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Hotels</th>
<th>Apartment Hotels</th>
<th>Hostels and Guesthouses</th>
<th>Apartments</th>
<th>Campsites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>25,192</td>
<td>13,063</td>
<td>3,700</td>
<td>985</td>
<td>6,944</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>27,951</td>
<td>16,028</td>
<td>3,367</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>7,096</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>26,126</td>
<td>15,687</td>
<td>3,196</td>
<td>803</td>
<td>5,940</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>28,136</td>
<td>17,759</td>
<td>1,892</td>
<td>773</td>
<td>7,210</td>
<td>502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>27,890</td>
<td>17,262</td>
<td>2,485</td>
<td>686</td>
<td>6,955</td>
<td>502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>28,080</td>
<td>17,268</td>
<td>2,485</td>
<td>639</td>
<td>7,051</td>
<td>502</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The hotel offer is not consistent with the INE Source: Instituto de Estadística de Andalucía.

Beyond the importance of the formal supply, Torremolinos, as other Costa del Sol and Mediterranean destinations, is characterised by a predominance of tourist second homes, whose number is estimated to be almost double the standard tourism supply. This feature, typical of the tourism development model adopted and quite common in many mature seaside destinations, has a clearly negative impact on the profitability of the hotel business and the destination (Hall and Müller, 2004). During the pre-Fordist and Fordist period, hotels stimulated urban growth. In the post-Fordist phase, land consumption has been stimulated by urban planning, which has allocated great tracks of land to second holiday homes. This coincided with the large Spanish urban bubble during the 2000s, which ended in 2008 (Gaja, 2008). These facts are observed more clearly in the chapter of analysis and results.

Figure 1: Evolution of hotel supply in Torremolinos
In three stages, pre-Fordist, Fordist and post-Fordist (Garay and Cánoves, 2010) this study analyses the evolution of a mature seaside destination, which has maintained over time its hotel supply. There are three main objectives: (i) analysis of the construction of hotels and their relationship to the urban system; (ii) study of changes in land use in Torremolinos; and (iii) identification of hotel groups (clusters). These objectives should lead to a distribution model of the hotels in this destination. We hypothesise whether closeness to or distance from the beachfront affects the price of hotels and the characteristics of hotels.
2. Theoretical Overview of Motivations for Religious Tourism

According to Rogerson (2012) most studies on location of hotels have been conducted in historic cities in Western Europe and Asia. For coastal destinations, there are no specific studies examining the distribution of hotels. The existing research is based on applying the model of von Thünen’s agricultural land use model, as in these studies the hotels are concentrated in city centres and shopping areas, which decreases as you move away. Furthermore, the hotel location is very important in determining their category, the potential consumer and also the size (Shoval, 2006). This underlines the fundamental importance of a hotel’s location and for there to be an accord between hotel category, its potential consumers and its location (Shoval, 2006:71).

The location of the hotel has a significant importance in the economic activity of accommodation establishments. Hotels located near the central areas of destinations are more efficient than hotels located in outlying areas from the economic point of view (Barros, 2005). The business environment and attractions around the hotels determine the location (Li et al., 2015). In the case of coastal destinations, the main attraction is the beach, and this is a determinant in the location of the hotels. The hotels and tourist shops on the beachfront constitute the core of the urban seaside destination. Some authors call this area the Tourism Business District (TBD) (Getz, 1993).

Destination Life Cycle theory (Butler, 1980) is a tool with which to analyse the major transformations of tourist destinations, identifying a series of stages from the growing number of visitors and development of new infrastructure and supply accommodation. In destinations like Torremolinos that are at the stage of maturity, where growth in the number of hotels and visitor arrivals begins to show signs of stagnation, major changes in supply, the closure of some establishments and the small size and improving quality of the hotel industry can be identified (Garay and Cànoves, 2010).

Some authors argue that, in particular, coastal, mature destinations are doomed to become tourist second home destinations (Gorsmsen, 1981; Seguí, 2001). In this scenario the traditional activity of the hotel begins to decline and has a secondary function. Pollard and Dominguez (1993) highlight
environmental problems and the process of stagnation suffered by Torremolinos in the 1990s.

3. Methodological Approach

In this study we used two main methods of analysis to achieve the objectives. On the one hand, we carried out an urban-territorial and cartographic analysis to determine the urban growth of Torremolinos, changes in land use and the location of the hotels. All these variables were translated into a specific mapping created by a Geographic Information System (GIS). Maps of urban development were created by digitising aerial photography for the years 1957, 1977, 1999 and 2007. These dates are related to the great processes of change in the tourism destination model (pre-Fordist, Fordist and post-Fordist). The analysis of land use has been made according to the legend of Corine Land Cover program (European Environment Agency). The database of Torremolinos hotels was created from the Andalusian registration of hotel establishments and Hotels Guide of Tourspain. The hotels were located using Google Maps and Street View, in addition to direct field work. The GIS created thematic maps and information layers for each of the urban and land uses in the study area and located each of the hotels. We used the ArcGis.10 program for the digitisation of aerial photography and mapping and data layers. On the other hand, we conducted a statistical analysis to understand the relationships between hotels. For this reason we applied cluster analysis using SPSS.19 program. Conducting a hierarchical clustering with single linkage method (Euclidean squared distance) allowed identification of groups of hotels, which are more clearly identified in the resulting dendrogram (Figure 7). In total, 49 hotels were analysed. The variables used for cluster analysis were: hotel category (stars), bed places, plot area, hotel age (years), distance from the beach and price of a double room in high season (€). The results of statistical analysis were used to locate the groups of hotels on the maps (Figure 8). This research focuses on a case study, which is representative of a mature destination.
4. Analysis and Results

Tourism development in the town of Torremolinos has been accompanied by intense urban growth and changing land use. Tourism is considered by many authors as one of the main factors in territorial transformation (Mullins, 1991) and this municipality is a good example of territorial change caused by urbanisation linked to the activity.

To identify changes in the 50 years studied (1957-2007), the evolution of urban land use was mapped. The analysis period begins with a photograph depicting a small fishing and farming community, which in 1957 began to receive tourists, and ends with an image of a dense metropolitan tourist destination in 2007. The analysis shows a strong territorial transformation of the ground of the municipality between 1957 and 2007. Between those dates, the constructed or altered surface increased by 750.07 ha at the expense of agricultural land (-583.52 ha) and forest and natural land (-143.51 ha) (Figure 3 and Table 2).

Figure 3: Land use changes in Torremolinos (1957-1977)
In 1957, a large area of land was transformed in the western part of the municipality for new elite tourism hotel buildings. In this area the first major five-star hotel complex (Pez Espada hotel) was built, representing the new model of tourist development and following the example of resorts in the Caribbean and Florida. Previously, small tourist hotels in the centre of the population dominated, as well as family hotels close to the beach (Figure 3).

After almost 20 years of tourism growth (1957-1977), there was a clear consolidation of the urban fabric. The dense urban space tripled in size, the central area became compacted and an expansion of housing developments towards peripheral areas (mountains) and the eastern part of the municipality occurred. Virtually all the coastal front had been built except for a small area in the easternmost region (Los Alamos). We observed a compaction process which produced more supply for mass tourism (loss of environmental quality), while the activity of second housing was to the detriment of the hotel.

The culmination of the process of transformation of the municipality was in 2007. We examined the urban growth. Above all, the urban growth was around the Mediterranean highway and the mountains. On the other hand, the entire coastal strip was completely compacted. This process coincided with the end of the great housing bubble that affected Spain.

### Table 2: Land use changes in Torremolinos (1957-2007)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ha</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Ha</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformed and built surface</td>
<td>157.3</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>435.9</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural surface</td>
<td>642.9</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>246.7</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest and natural surface</td>
<td>1,160.3</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>1,287.8</td>
<td>65.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total surface</td>
<td>1,970</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>1,970.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: R+DI Project "Geographies of the crisis" (CSO2012-30840).
Note: changes in the total area related to coastal oscillations and marine facilities.
Table 3: Land use changes by categories in Torremolinos (1957-2007)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Urban fabric (continuous urban)</td>
<td>75.9</td>
<td>242.4</td>
<td>351.8</td>
<td>368.7</td>
<td>219.5</td>
<td>386.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing areas</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>134.5</td>
<td>182.5</td>
<td>254.9</td>
<td>442.1</td>
<td>927.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural areas</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>163.7</td>
<td>163.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial and commercial zones</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>733.3</td>
<td>10,548.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area under transformation</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>-76.7</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other transformed areas</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>421.1</td>
<td>130.2</td>
<td>162.1</td>
<td>5,598.2</td>
<td>2,093.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total surface built</td>
<td>157.3</td>
<td>435.9</td>
<td>727.6</td>
<td>907.4</td>
<td>177.1</td>
<td>476.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: changes in the total area related to coastal oscillations and marine facilities.

Source: R+D+I Project "Geographies of the crisis" (CSO2012-30840).

Between 1999 and 2007 an overall increase in land consumption occurred at a rate of 22.5 ha per year, which is consistent with the effects of the housing bubble that affected Spain during this period. Despite the high degree of urban compaction, Torremolinos continued to build. In fact, one of the fastest growing categories was "construction zones". In 1999, 36.7% of the municipality had been developed, but increasing to 45.7% in 2007. It should be noted that due to the constraints of geography (proximity of the mountains to the sea), in 2000, it had almost reached the limits of what is developable; the rest is mountainous region with environmental constraints and very high construction costs.

Once we have analysed the territorial changes, we can study an essential urban component: the hotels. We discussed the location of the 49 hotels in Torremolinos according to the dates of their opening. We only located hotels that today remain open, keeping in mind that some of them have closed and others have been converted into holiday apartments or housing. Between 1959 and 1968, 18 hotels located mainly in the central area of the municipality and the west were opened. In 11 years, small size hotels opened at the same time, located in the central area of the town and on the beach front, as well as the big hotels along the beach such as Pez Espada (1959) and Riu Nautilus.
(1964). The area occupied by the hotels was 71,544.32 m², between 1959 and 1968. The average size hotel for this period was 3,974.68 m², ranging from 9,500 m² for large four-star hotels to 250-300 sq.m for small two-star to three-star hotels. In 1964, six hotels opened their doors. Between 1970 and 1979, 16 hotels mainly spread across the central and eastern part of the city were opened. The total length of these hotels is greater (105,001.15 m²) and average plot also increased (6,562.57 m²). This is similar to the previous picture; large hotels were located in the nearest beach areas, mainly in the east (the new space that remained undeveloped), while small hotels of lower category were located on the second line beach. The presence of large hotels was related to the entry of Spanish hotel chains (Sol-Melia, Rui, etc.) and other international franchises, while small family hotels were left in a secondary position in the destination. The increase in the size is closely related to the strong growth in mass tourism and the gradual popularisation of a destination. The increase in the size of the hotel parcel is clearly seen in the evolution of the destination (Figure 3 and 4). Between 1959 and 1979, virtually the whole of the current tourist town structure was designed. In the following years, hotels continued to be opened but at a slower rate. It is noteworthy the period between 1990 and 2000 when 10 hotels were opened. These accommodations are located in the east and north, which are the least saturated areas. The total plot is 80,422.11 m², and the average plot - higher than previous cases - is 8,042.2 m². This fact confirms the trend in the increasing size of hotel plot (Figure 6), which promotes economy of scale, reduces costs, increases revenues and is in line with all inclusive management (Simancas and Cruz, 2010). The total occupancy of hotel plots in the town of Torremolinos is 27.8 ha.
Between 1957 and 1977 much of the tourist area of Torremolinos was developed, and in this period most of the hotels, apartments and a number of housing developments were built. In these 20 years the rate of urbanisation was 36.1 ha per year, a fact reflected in: (a) the intense growth of the dense urban fabric (this tripled from 75.9 to 242.4 ha between 1957 and 1977); (b) the expansion of residential housing developments that quintupled its surface; and above all (c) the sharp increase in "other transformed areas" (5,598.2%) linked to infrastructure, facilities, etc. The rate of land development was more moderate in the next period, between 1977 and 1984. In this period, most of the supply of accommodation had been built. The transformation rate stood at 13.7 ha per year. "Other areas transformed" were greatly reduced and the industrial and commercial areas began to emerge, increasing
urban fabric surfaces slightly, residential housing developments and new development zones. The next period (1984-1999) witnessed an increase in all variables except "construction zones", but with a moderate rate of urbanisation of only 13 ha per year.

**Figure 5: Localisation of Torremolinos hotel per year**

Cluster analysis identified two main groups of hotels (Table 4; Figure 7 and 8):

(i) Cluster 2. Four-star hotels located on the beachfront, with a large plot, and high prices, which have a large number of places and belong to large national and international hotel chains.
(ii) Cluster 4. Two-star and three-star hotels that are located on the second line of beach, with a smaller plot, low prices and fewer places, which belong to small national hotel chains that are managed by local entrepreneurs.

(iii) Minicluster (1,3,5,6 and 7 clusters). This group consists of a small number of hotels with a very large average plot because they are located on a third beach. These are fairly new hotels, mid-priced accommodation, with a wide range of places, which belong to large national hotel chains.

Figure 7: Cluster Dendrogram

Figure 8: Localisation of cluster hotels
### Table 4: Characteristics clusters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories (star)</th>
<th>Area (m²)</th>
<th>Bed places</th>
<th>Distance beach (m)</th>
<th>Price (€) (double room)</th>
<th>Hotel age (years)</th>
<th>Hotel number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cluster 2 1st Beach Line</td>
<td>Most of them 4 *</td>
<td>6,890.8</td>
<td>552.3</td>
<td>156.5</td>
<td>164.1</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cluster 4 2nd Beach Line</td>
<td>Most of them 3 &amp; 2 *</td>
<td>2,162.2</td>
<td>237.0</td>
<td>414.1</td>
<td>104.8</td>
<td>38.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mini-Clusters (1,3,5,6 &amp; 7)</td>
<td>Wide Range</td>
<td>16,325.8</td>
<td>668.4</td>
<td>509.5</td>
<td>133.7</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average/total</td>
<td>3.5 *</td>
<td>6,046.6</td>
<td>436.6</td>
<td>348.6</td>
<td>140.8</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6. Conclusion

Regarding the consequences of urban growth, it is notable the strong expansion of urban sprawl, so that half of the municipality developed. The only undeveloped area is the mountainous region. This process has been encouraged by the tourism phenomenon, both hotels and second homes (Tables 2 and 3). The Spanish housing bubble has increased the process of urban expansion during the post-Fordist period.

The process of urban expansion began in the pre-Fordist period around the traditional agricultural centre, between 1920 and 1957. At this stage small hotels were built and second tourist residences. In 1957, in the western part of the town next to the beaches, the first grand hotels destined for elite tourism were built. From the mid-1960s to the 1990s, the destination became a mass tourism resort; the entire coastal front in addition to the second beach was developed. This was the period of maximum hotel building. The post-Fordist period, when a strong compaction was produced throughout the municipality, to the mountainous region, coincided with the housing bubble. Few hotels were built, as most of the land was occupied by the housing developments.

Hotels have followed a localisation strategy. They have moved from the centre of the destination to the beachfront and from there to the second and third beach line. This distribution of clusters of hotels is consistent with the model of Barrado et al. (2001). Hotels on the beachfront (Cluster 2) have higher prices due to their proximity to the beach (main attraction) and
higher categories. On the second line of beach, hotels have lower prices due to their greater distance from the beach, and unique strategy to attract customers. On the third beachfront, hotels have developed various strategies to compete with the other groups of hotels: dispose of a large plot to provide various services and facilities. These hotels have an intermediate price in relation to the previous two groups. Such results are in agreement with the proposed initial hypothesis. Hotels have increased the plot size to reduce operating costs, increased the supply of beds and adapted to the growing size of aircraft. It is a strategy focused on mass tourism (Figure 6).

7. References


This work evaluated the economic influence of tourism development on the host communities of cross river national park. The study was guided by six research questions and two hypotheses. Data for the research was generated using primary and secondary methods of data collection. Simple frequency percentage, mean and chi-square statistics were used to analyze the data generated for the study. The findings of the analysis proved that there was no significant difference in the economic life of the host communities of the destination before the development of the national park \( (X^2_{cal} > 1468.63 \times X^2_{tab} 41.337) \) and there was no significant difference in the economic life of the host communities of the destination after the development of the national park \( (X^2_{cal} > 425.82 \times X^2_{tab} 41.337) \) at 5% level significance. Based on the findings, recommendations were made.

1. Introduction

Wall and Mathieson (2006) defined tourism as “the study of people away from their usual habitat, of the establishment which responds to the requirement of travelers and of the impacts that they have on the economic, physical and social wellbeing of their host”. Both
the tourist and the host community have roles to play for a successful tourism trip and sustainable development.

Tourism development is increasingly viewed as an important tool in promoting economic growth, alleviating poverty, job creation, as well as contributing to national development goals Robert (2010). Tourism could contribute meaningfully to the economic development of Nigeria if properly harnessed (Atewologun 1986, cited in Dalat, 2010). The community a tourist visits is often termed the host community; Cook, Yale and Marqua (2006) defined the host community as towns or cities that welcome visitors and provide them with the desired services. Smith (2001) also defined host communities as people who live in the vicinity of the tourist attraction and are either directly or indirectly involved with, and/or affected by the tourism activities. Tourism involves some elements of interactions between the tourist and the destination environment. The consequences of these interactions are often referred to as the “impacts of tourism.

Social exchange theory (SET), used here, suggests that residents are likely to support tourism as long as the perceived benefits exceed the perceived costs. SET is based on the principle that human beings are reward seeking and punishment avoiding and that people are motivated to action by the expectation of profits (skidmore, 1975). SET assumes that social relations involve exchange of resources among groups seeking mutual benefits from exchange relationships.

There are a number of factors influencing residents attitudes towards tourism development related to its Economic, social, cultural and environmental implications that have been examined using social exchange theory. SET is concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between parties in an interaction situation where the objects offered for exchange have value, are measurable, and there is mutual dispensation of rewards and costs between actors (Ap, 2002). From a tourism perspective, SET postulates that an individual’s attitudes towards this industry, and subsequent level of support for it development, will be prejudiced by his or her valuation of resulting outcomes in the community. Exchanges must occur to have tourism in a community. Residents must develop and promote it, and then serve the needs of the
tourists. Some community residents reap the benefits, while others may be negatively impacted. Social exchange theory suggests people estimate an exchange based on the expenses and profit incurred as a result of that exchange. An individual that perceives benefits from an exchange is likely to evaluate it positively; one that perceives costs is likely to evaluate it negatively. Thus, residents perceiving their benefiting from tourism are likely to view it positively, and vice versa. Overall, we may conclude that residents are likely to participate in an exchange if they believe that they likely to gain benefits without incurring unacceptable costs, they are inclined to be involved in the exchange and, thus endorse future development in their community.

Ramchander (2004) proposed that tourism progress through the stages of exploration, involvement, development. Consolidation, stagnation and then decline or rejuvenation and that there is a correlation between these stages and the attitude of residents to tourists

The first stage in the destination life cycle starts with small numbers of tourists who visits the area gradually due to limitation such as accessibility to the area but as development begins, impacts become prominent with increase in number of visitors this leads to stagnation which then determines the viability of the destination.

The initial stage is typified by a new found curiosity in travelling to the area. In the second stage, services are introduced to serve the needs of the tourists and the third stage is characterized by robust physical development in the area’s product and services (Ratz, 2000). However, this rapid development becomes an issue to the residents and to policy agents as regards the impacts of the development on host communities. It is in the development phase that the economic, sociological, cultural and environmental impacts become prominent.

Ramchander (2004) highlighted that in the consolidation stage the rate of increase of visitors’ decline though total numbers are still increasing and may exceed that of permanent residents. At stagnation, peak tourist volumes (carrying capacity) have now been reached and the destination is no longer fashionable, the destination now relies upon repeat visitors from more conservative travelers. The last phase is usually determined largely by two positive
or negative impacts that have occurred during the development phase. Hence the final stage of decline depends on the host community’s ability to cope with identified tourism impacts. However, if policies to sustain the balance between precious resources and tourist demands are enacted, decline will in all probability be averted (Ratz, 2000).

2. Methodology

2.1 Study Area

The study was carried out in cross river national park in cross river state. The Cross River National Park (CRSNP) lies between latitude 5° 05’and 6° 29’ N and longitude 8°15 and 9° 30’ E. The park is situated in the south-eastern part of Nigeria in Cross River State. The Cross River state National Park has one of the oldest rainforests in Africa, and has been identified as a biodiversity hot spot. The park has a tropical climate characterized by a rainy season between April and November.

2.2 Research Design

The research design adopted for this study was a survey design.

2.3 Population for the Study

The population of the study covers the host communities of the cross river national park. The population of the study comprised 3,431 people from the selected communities in the study area (Ofem et al., 2012).

2.4 Sample/Sampling Technique

The simple random sampling technique was used to select three villages adjoining the national park, out of the six villages found the area. The three selected communities were nyaye, osomba, and oban. Residents ranging from eighteen (18) years and above both male and female were sampled. In other, however, to sample a fair representation of respondent across the selected villages, the projected population figure was subjected into the formula Taro Yamen, (1967). A sample size of 358 was used.
2.5 Instrument for Data Collection

The study made use of both primary and secondary methods of data collection. The primary data were raw data collected from people directly involved. This comprised of data collected from questionnaire and oral interview. The secondary data was gotten from studies related to the research topic such as journals, books, newspapers.

2.6 Data Collection Technique

The researcher administered 358 questionnaires by hand to the residents of the communities at cross river national park. Also the questionnaires administered to the residents of the community were retrieved on spot by the researcher.


2.7 Data Analysis Technique

Simple descriptive statistics, likert scale and chi-square statistics were used to analyze the information gotten from the data.

3. Results

Research question 1: what are the tourist attractions in your community?

Table 1: Distribution of tourist attractions in cross river national park

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Botanical/habarum garden</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>70.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional arts and craft</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>99.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forest/groves</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Festivals</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>99.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animals</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>98.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historic buildings &amp; monuments</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waterfall</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>89.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wildlife museum</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>81.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bird watching</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>74.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hunting/poaching</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gorilla viewing points</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Butterflies</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>99.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>69.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***Multiple responses were used therefore the frequency exceeds the sample size.

Research question 2: what was the Economic life of the host communities before the development of cross river national park?

Table 2: Distribution of respondents based on their economic life before the development of the park

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Perception of economic life of host communities development</th>
<th>Total score</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>There were high level of income in the community before the development of the park</td>
<td>895</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Disagreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>There were more employment opportunities before the development of the park</td>
<td>822</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>Disagreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>There were economic breakthrough before the development of the park</td>
<td>963</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>Disagreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>There were public utilities like bull</td>
<td>887</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>Disagreed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
hike, school facilities, health centers, good road etc. before the development of the park

5 There were improvement in the level of educational of the locals before the development of the park 944 2.6 Disagreed

6 There were improvement in the peoples standard of living before the development of the park 927 2.6 disagreed

7 There were more business opportunities before the development of the park 1034 2.9 Disagreed

8 The host communities engage more in farming as their occupation before the development of the park 1725 4.8 Agreed

Total 8197 22.9
Clustered mean 2.9

Research question 3: How did tourism development affect the economic life of the host communities of cross river national park after the development of the tourism destination?

Table 3: Economic life of host communities after the development of the park

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Economic life of host communities after tourism development</th>
<th>Total score</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Creation of jobs opportunities</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Disagreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Building of health centers</td>
<td>956</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>Disagreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Provision of school facilities</td>
<td>905</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>Disagreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Construction of roads</td>
<td>945</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>Disagreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Provision of power supply</td>
<td>996</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Disagreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Enhancement of local talents such as craft development</td>
<td>1214</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Agreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Eradication of poverty</td>
<td>1040</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>Disagreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Creation of opportunities</td>
<td>1214</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Agreed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 8091 22.6
Clustered mean 2.8

Research question 4: what are the problems inhibiting the improvement and sustainability of the economic benefits from the development of tourism for the host communities of the destination?
Table 4: Problems inhibiting the improvement and sustainability of economic benefits from the tourism development of the destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of local participation</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>83.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restriction of locals from forest resources</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>98.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not implementing the tourism plans and activities promised to locals</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>69.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not having the locals in mind in the management of the park</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>97.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High prices of commodities</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>50.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***Multiple responses were used therefore the frequency exceeds the sample size

Research question 5: what are the ways of improving and sustaining the economic benefits from the tourism development for the sustainability of the destination?

Table 5: Ways of improving and sustaining the economic benefits from tourism development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Ways of improving and sustaining the economic benefit from tourism development</th>
<th>Total score</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Economic incentive to those who suffer loss</td>
<td>2053</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>Agreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Involving locals in tourism planning</td>
<td>1988</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>Agreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Improving the housing condition of the community</td>
<td>1724</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>Agreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Economic policy formulation by stakeholders of tourism development</td>
<td>1722</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>Agreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Creation of job opportunities</td>
<td>1911</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>Agreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Improving the general infrastructure in the community</td>
<td>1836</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Agreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ensure successful implementation of tourism plans and activities towards the host communities</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>Agreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Any other please specify</td>
<td>1974</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>Agreed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1521</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clustered mean 5.3

4. Hypothesis

There is significant difference in the economic life of the host communities of the destination before the development of the national park.
The contingency table below shows that $x^2$ calculated value was 1468.63 while $x^2$ tabulated value was 41.337.

\[
f_e = \frac{\text{row total} \times \text{column total}}{\text{grand total}}
\]

<table>
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<th>$f_e$</th>
<th>$f_o - f_e$</th>
<th>$(f_o - f_e)^2$</th>
<th>$(f_o - f_e)^2$</th>
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</thead>
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<td>10.60</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>24.63</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>0.1369</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
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<td>15.88</td>
<td>-13.88</td>
<td>192.65</td>
<td>12.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-18.88</td>
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<td>13.26</td>
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<td>-11.88</td>
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</tr>
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<td>15</td>
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<td>-9.63</td>
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<tr>
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<td>7.35</td>
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<td>-9.63</td>
<td>92.74</td>
<td>3.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15.88</td>
<td>-7.88</td>
<td>62.09</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>10</td>
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<td>-14.63</td>
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<td>-19.88</td>
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<td>8.69</td>
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<tr>
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<td>15.88</td>
<td>-7.88</td>
<td>62.09</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>95.5</td>
<td>41.5</td>
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<td>SA</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
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<td>506.25</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA</td>
<td>125</td>
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<tr>
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<td>24.63</td>
<td>76.37</td>
<td>5,832.38</td>
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<tr>
<td>U</td>
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<td>74.12</td>
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<tr>
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<td>4,830.25</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>16</td>
<td>195.1</td>
<td>-179.1</td>
<td>32,076.81</td>
<td>164.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Since $x^2$ calculated value was 1468.63 and was greater than $x^2$ table value which was 41.337 ($x^2_{cal} > x^2_{tab}$), therefore the null ($H_0$) hypothesis was rejected while the alternative ($H_1$) hypotheses was accepted indicating that, there is no significant difference in the economic life of the host communities of the destination before the development of the national park.

5. Discussion of Findings

Table 1 showed that tourist attractions in the destination were identified as botanical garden, traditional arts and craft, forest/groves, festivals, animals, waterfall, wildlife museum, bird watching, gorilla viewing points and butterflies. This is in line with the work of (Fakiyesi, 2008) that Nigeria possess abundant natural and cultural resources which are capable of attracting tourists. Table 2 indicated that majority of the respondents living in the communities are not educated and their major occupation was farming. This is in consonance with agrarian life style in rural setting in Africa, (Abimbola et al., 2008). Also majority of the host communities are low income earners that find a ready source of income and food for sustenance from the forest. This is in line with the works of (Bisong, 2001; Fox, 2006; Bassey and Obong, 2008) that worldwide, indigenous communities in forested areas are low income earners who build their economic activities around forest mining such as hunting of animals, forest-based farming, timber logging, gathering of building materials, materials for local craft, medicinal herbs and plants and non-timber forest products (NTFPs) such as leaves, fruits and honey. No economic breakthrough, no employment and no improvement in their standard of living.

Table 3 above showed that respondents agreed that tourism has led to the enhancement of local talents such as craft development, creation of business opportunities in their communities after the development of the park had 3.4, and 3.4 mean respectively. While respondents disagreed that tourism has created job opportunities, building of health centers, provision of school facilities, construction of roads, provision of power supply, and eradication of poverty after the development of the national
park had the following mean; 2.3, 2.7, 2.5, 2.6, 2.8 and 2.9 mean respectively. The infrastructural facilities like boreholes, health centers, school facilities e.g. chairs, desk, tables etc. have completely deteriorated; schools cannot accommodate their enrolment, making teaching and learning not very conducive. This is in line with the work of (Dalat, 2010) that the dearths of infrastructure in Nigeria are taken for granted and have been identified as the biggest challenge that Nigeria tourism faces. The livelihood situation is growing worse by the day; the forest communities have been alienated from their forest resources and occupation (farming), poverty is wide-spread in the communities. This indicates that the Park project had low community perception of its intended goals. The project does not have the community backings and participation. It may seem that proponents of the park failed to consider the community’s interests and welfare. Since there is no community involvement and participation, the community does not in any way benefit from the proceeds from the park. This indicated that residents perceived the impacts of tourism as negative rather than positive.

Table 4 showed the problems inhibiting the improvement and sustainability of economic benefits from the tourism development of the destination. The study revealed that the host communities were explicit in their complaints against the following as problems inhibiting the improvement and sustainability of economic benefits from the tourism development of the destination. Lack of local participation and integration in the management of the park (83.8%) Restriction of locals from forest resources (98.6%) the host communities were restricted from carrying out farming which was their major source of livelihood and income. This finding agrees with the findings of Saberwal et al. (2001) who noted that the creation of National Parks imposes restrictions on access to the forest in order to protect wildlife. Not implementing the tourism plans and activities promised to locals (69.8%), is said to be another problem inhibiting the sustainability of economic benefits from the tourism development of the destination, according to the host communities there were verbal promises of providing alternatives before park operations started but was not fulfilled this was a reason for trespass into the park
area to gather forest products, hunting of animals for protein and income among others. Not having the locals in mind in the management of the park (97.8%), and high prices of commodities (50.3%)

Table 5 showed the ways of improving and sustaining the economic benefits from tourism development. The overall mean was 5.3 which were higher than the decision rule that stated that any mean response above 3.0 should be regarded as a positive impact. Therefore respondents were of the opinion that improving and sustaining the economic benefits from tourism development can be done through provision of Economic incentives to those who suffer loss, Involving locals in tourism planning and development of tourism this is in line with the work of Zhao and Ritchie (2007) who noted in their studies that for tourism to empower the economy of the destination, there is need for utmost collaboration and effectiveness of destination competitiveness and local participation. Residents' response showed that Economic incentives to those who suffer loss, Involving locals in tourism planning and development of tourism, Ensuring successful implementation of tourism plans and activities towards the host communities (mean 5.7, 5.6 and 5.4) were the most significant of the variables used to identify the ways of improving and sustaining the economic benefits from tourism development.

Table 6 presented the hypothesis of the research work which stated that there is significant difference in the economic life of the host communities of the destination before the development of the national park. $\chi^2$ calculated value was greater than $\chi^2$ tabulated value ($\chi^2_{\text{cal}} > 1468.63 \chi^2_{\text{tab}} 41.337$). The null ($H_0$) hypothesis was rejected and the alternative ($H_1$), hypotheses was accepted. This means that there is no significant difference in the economic life of the host communities of the destination before the development of the national park. From this study, the overall mean response on the perception of economic life of the host communities before the development of cross river national park was 2.9 ($< 3.0$) which indicated that poverty is widespread in the destination.
6. Conclusion

This work has attempted to evaluate the economic influence of tourism development on host communities of cross river national park, the major findings of the research led to the following conclusion:

- Tourist attractions in cross river national park consists of both natural and cultural resources which are capable of attracting large number of tourists and as such creating impacts on the host communities.
- Tourism development in Cross River national park did not make a significant positive impact on the host communities.

The following recommendations were drawn from the work:

- Tourism stakeholders should create awareness programs on the impacts of tourism especially the economic impacts of tourism.
- Economic benefits associated with tourism should be maximized and equally distributed amongst local communities.
- Application of economic incentive to those who suffer losses
- Active participation of host communities which is a pre-requisite for sustainable tourism development should be encouraged and promoted in tourism development process to give the host communities a sense of ownership and control over the resources of the country.
- Alternative income-generating activities should be promoted and sustained around parks to reduce reliance by the host communities upon extractive activities carried out for commercial purposes.

7. References


CONCEPTUALISING YOUTH TOURISM IN ISLAND DESTINATIONS: THE CASE OF AYIA NAPA AND PROTARAS, CYPRUS

NIKOLAOS BOUKAS AND CHRISTAKIS SOUROUKLIS
European University, Cyprus

Even though youths constitute a growing segment for tourism, its value for many destinations’ tourism policy is misjudged. As such, the need for appreciating more their profile is vital. Youth travellers are an important dynamic segment and more attention to its understanding is imperative. This study explores youth tourists’ perceptions in the neighbouring Ayia Napa and Protaras, Cyprus. The study explores the importance that youth tourists attach to a series of destinations’ attributes and youth tourists’ motivation for choosing the specific destinations for their travel. Findings indicate that youths are autonomous travellers with unique preferences and manner. The paper concludes with a series of strategies and tactics in order to understand better the youth travel market of Cyprus and to more efficiently target and incorporate it in the future planning of the island destinations.

1. Introduction

Despite that youth tourism represents a growing segment for tourism, its significance for tourism policy of many destinations is underestimated. The importance of the youth market is evident; it can be reflected in the fact that over eight million air and surface tickets are sold every year to youth and student travellers by 400 companies that specialise in youth tourism. This provides revenues of more than eight billion U.S. dollars (Kim and Joganathan, 2002). Furthermore, the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) estimated that almost 20% in total of international travellers are young people
(Trendafilova, 2002). However, it is evident that while the magnitude of youth and student markets is obvious, there is limited research concerning their characteristics and behaviour during their travel and therefore, the need for further understanding of their profile is essential. Indeed, youth travellers are considered to be an important dynamic segment and more emphasis towards its conceptualization is crucial for capitalising in this market.

The paper aims to examine youth tourists’ perceptions in two of the most significant resort destinations in the Mediterranean, the neighbouring Ayia Napa and Protaras in Cyprus. To that effect, the paper examines the importance that youth tourists attach to a series of destinations’ attributes and explores youth tourists’ motivation for choosing the specific destinations for their travel. Findings indicate that youth tourists are autonomous travellers with unique preferences and manner. The paper concludes with a series of strategies and tactics in order to understand better the youth travel market of Cyprus and to more efficiently target and incorporate it in the future planning of the island destinations.

2. Youth Tourism: Significance and Definition

Youths as travelers appear to be a dynamic market. According to the UNWTO (2011), around 20% of the 940 million international tourists travelling the world in 2010 were young people. The global youth travel industry is now estimated to represent almost 190 million international trips a year and the youth travel industry has grown faster than global travel overall. Estimates argue that by 2020 there will be almost 300 million international youth trips per year (UNWTO, 2011).

Youth tourism is growing rapidly every year. More specifically, one fifth of all tourism journeys in the world are made by young tourists, while young tourists tend to travel more frequently and for longer periods (Richards and Wilson, 2003). From a more anthropological/sociological perspective, youth tourism is important since it encompasses the involvement of young people in other cultures and nationalities and helps their personal recognition and progression. As the WTO (1985: 42) states: “The role of youth tourism in respect to its lasting political effects and attitudes adopted by young
people towards their own country and other nations is invaluable’. Besides educational and recreational purposes, youth tourists travel because it is fascinating, because they want to meet people or because they want to feel a sense of freedom (Schönhammer, 1992). According to Hunter-Jones (2004), the participation in leisure activities for young people is crucial for their development, their identity’s establishment and the expansion of their self-concept. Furthermore, she suggests that this participation adds ‘…structure and meaning to the lifestyle of young people’ (Hunter-Jones, 2004: 249). Therefore, youths develop a notable behaviour during their travel career and for this reason need to be studied in more depth.

But who is considered as a youth tourist? The UNWTO defines the youth segment as those individuals between 16 and 25 years old, who take a trip that lasts at least one night’s stay. The Youth Tourism Consortium of Canada (YTCC, 2004) increases this margin to 30 years old. Hickey (n.d.), describing the youth tourism market in Ireland, embraces even older ages claiming that the representative age of the youth market is between 18 to 35 years old. Hickey’s definition appears to have a wide range of ages. It is also important to remember that there are probably differences between this age groupings (i.e. 18 year-olds to 35 year-olds). The former (viz. 18 year-olds) is beginning to leave home at that age while the latter category (viz. 35 year-olds) has spent some time away from home and has already been independent. Nonetheless, for commercial purposes the age margins of youthfulness are increased (Carr, 1998). Under this perspective, even people that are 35 years old can be considered youths.

3. Methodological Approach

For fulfilling the purposes of this study quantitative research techniques were applied. Specifically, a self-administered questionnaire was submitted to youth tourists in hotels of Ayia Napa and Protaras, during July and August, 2014. The sample incorporated all those individual that visited the specific areas for their vacations during the given period. Convenience sample was used due to the exploratory nature of the study that tried to explore youths’ perceptions. Overall, 148 questionnaires were submitted. The questionnaire was submitted at the reception and/or rooms of the hotels in Ayia
Napa/Protaras. From them, the 144 were usable and proceeded to the stage of analysis. For the analysis of the questionnaires, non-parametric tests were applied due to the inexistence of normal distribution among the responses. Specifically, chi-square tests were used at the level of \( p=0.05 \) for examining significant differences between the observed and expected values, while Kruskal-Wallis tests were applied for deriving associations between sample’s profile and their overall perception of Ayia Napa/Protaras as an ideal destination for youth people.

4. Results

The majority of the respondents were males (59%) in the age of 21-25 years old (38%) and 31-35 years old (24%). The 68% of them were from the U.K., followed by others (9.1%) and Swedish (6.8%). Regarding their education, the most of the respondents possessed a bachelor degree (42%) and a high school diploma (40%). As far as income levels are concerned, there was a wide distribution, with the highest concentration on respondents with annual income of €30.000-39.999 (23%), followed by those with an income of €10.000-19.000 (21%) and €50.000-59.999 (21%). Finally, the most participants were full-time employees (63%), followed by high-education students (15%).

Regarding the reasons for travelling to a golf destination the majority of respondents (9.4%) indicated that they visited because of the friendly environment (Hospitality), followed by experiencing a nicer temperature (7.3%), natural scenery (7.0%), to enjoy fun and entertainment (7.0%), and good value for money (6.3%). Regarding the assignment of importance on the reasons to visit Ayia Napa/Protaras, respondents indicated that the most important reason for travelling is the convenient location (mean score 4.13), followed by unique/memorable experience (4.11), natural scenery (4.04), experience a nicer temperature (4.04), and friendly environment (4.02). All those scores are significant in the level of \( p=0.05^* \) (values are measured in a 5-point Likert scale where 1=unimportant at all and 5=very important).

Furthermore, respondents were asked to state the most important destination/motivation attributes for travelling to resort destinations overall. ‘Cleanliness of beaches’ (4.43),
'quality of water' (4.31), ‘climate and weather’ (4.21), ‘hygiene and sanitation’ (4.19), and ‘personal safety and security on the area’ (4.17) appear to be considered as the most important destination and motivational attributes for youth tourists (Table 1). Findings indicate that the most important attributes according to respondents’ views are related the characteristics and features of the destination. Furthermore, attributes related to operational elements as well as pricing are also considered as significant.

Table 1: Most important destination and motivational attributes for travelling to resort destinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination/motivational attributes</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Cleanliness of beaches</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>186.14</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Quality of water</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>136.86</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Climate and weather</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>102.57</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Hygiene and sanitation</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>104.71</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Personal safety and security on the area</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>109.00</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Attitude of staff</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>91.14</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Experiencing a different environment</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>76.14</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Convenient location</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>81.43</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Prices</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>109.00</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Accessibility to/from the destination</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>73.29</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand the least important attributes for travelling to resort destinations according to youth tourists’ perceptions are: ‘a place where I can find romance and love’ (3.19), ‘a place of major fame’ (3.21), ‘sport facilities and activities’ (3.64), ‘travel timetables’ (3.67), and ‘residents’ language abilities’ (3.67) (Table 2). From these findings it is concluded that experiential and motivational characteristics are considered as the least important for youth tourists. Therefore, youth tourists in resort destinations do not believe that gaining a deeper experience from the destination is actually a consideration for their travel career.

Finally, in an effort of the study to find associations between the demographic profile of the sample and their overall perception of Ayia Napa/Protaras as an ideal destination for youth people Kruskal-Wallis tests were applied. The study derived associations from only two demographic characteristics: age and income (Table 3).
Table 2: Least important destination and motivational attributes for travelling to resort destinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination/motivational attributes</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. A place where I can find romance and love</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>44.71</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A place of major fame</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>36.14</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Sports facilities and activities</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>67.57</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Travel timetables</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>35.43</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Residents language abilities</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>47.57</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Quality of the streets</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>49.43</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. A place where I can feel independent</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>47.57</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Opportunity to meet local people in the area</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>34.00</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Tourism establishments (offices, agencies, etc.)</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>46.14</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Opportunity to meet other tourists in the area</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>42.57</td>
<td>0.00*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Demographic profile and overall perception of Ayia Napa/Protaras as an ideal destination for youths

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>37.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>56.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>57.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>56.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Annual household income</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5,000€-9,999€</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>98.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000€-19,999€</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>52.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20,000€-29,999€</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30,000€-39,999€</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>74.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40,000€-49,999€</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>45.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50,000€-59,999€</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>51.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 60,000€</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>62.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding respondents’ age, it appears that respondents between 26-30 years old are those with the most positive perceived experience from Ayia Napa/Protaras while ages directly younger and older follow. It appears that youths at their late twenties become more mature as a market. Regarding income levels findings indicate that low income tourists and tourists with average income (30,000€-39,999€) are those with the most positive perceived experience from Ayia Napa/Protaras. Therefore, more emphasis need to be paid on these two income levels since these are those that tend to respond most positively to the areas’ product-service mix.
5. Implications and Concluding Remarks

The study tried to explore youth tourists’ perceptions in Ayia Napa and Protaras Mediterranean resorts in Cyprus, and identified those destination elements that are considered as more and less important for youth tourists. From the findings it appears that the difference between important and less important attributes that shape youth travelers’ perceptions is small. This means that in any case, youths are a demanding market and need to be considered seriously by tourism planners when designing youth tourist products.

Specifically, environmental features of resort destinations such as cleanliness and environmental quality, climate and weather as well as the attitude of staff appear to be strong enough to attract youth clientele. However, in regards to experiential and motivational elements such as destinations with romance, popularity of the place, a place where someone can feel independent and a destination that offers opportunities to meet locals and other travelers tend to be those that youth travelers pay less attention. As such, it appears that youth travelers want to live a good qualitative destination that satisfies their aesthetics but they do not care about experiencing something deeper, presumably because they can find these types of experiences in their home environment.

Based on the above findings, tourism policy and planning need to consider specific product-related practices when deal with youth tourism in resort destinations. In this regard, marketing management strategies should consider all these elements that affect the experience and the destinations when designing youth tourism (Figure 1).

![Figure 1: Important elements for youth tourism](image-url)
From the findings it is concluded that destination characteristics themselves as well as operations and pricing attributes are judged to be as the most important elements for youth travellers. On the other hand, experiential and accessibility/guidance characteristics are considered as less important. The figure indicates that marketing needs to emphasise on those elements that are already existent on the destination. Enhancement of environmental attributes is of crucial importance for meeting youths’ expectations. Moreover, quality determinants and operational activities are needed in order for structuring a more solid tourist product.

Regarding experience and despite the low importance that youth travellers assigned to this category’s attributes, tourist planners need to focus on providing more meaningful experiences to youths. We need to understand that a shallow experience from a destination will create more passive future tourists. This way, youths develop an attitude that will stress also their adult behaviour. In spite of their reluctance to enjoy experiential characteristics in a youth stage, young travelers need to be involved further on features that will provide a more holistic experience to them in order to construct a more solid adult tourist identity. More involved travelers at this stage will create conscious tourists for the destination in later age stages. In this respect, youths will appreciate more the destination and will have a closer relationship with it (Boukas, 2012, 2014). This attitude creation will also help to the sustainable development of destinations (Boukas, 2013) since more appreciation for the place and its residence will give equal benefits to both tourists and locals. For achieving this, tourist marketing needs to offer youth related activities (i.e. familiarisation trips to the destination and its history) in the product service mix in order to build a more concrete engagement to the destination.

Additionally, the associations of the age and income elements with the overall perception of Ayia Napa and Protaras as youth destinations, suggest that not all young people are the same. Therefore, for further understanding youth travelers there is a need to recognise that despite for marketing reasons most tourist practitioners tend to homogenise the youth market, there are evident differences among someone who for instance is 25 years old and someone who is thirty. Future research needs to pay special attention for finding out micro-
niches among young tourists. Moreover, in regards to income, tourist policy on the specific areas needs to enrich the product and enhance its quality in order to attract a more high-end clientele.

Overall, it is concluded that Ayia Napa/Protaras can become youth destinations with great potential and that youths are a dynamic, mature and autonomous market that needs not to be systematically neglected by authorities and professionals. Based on their perceptions for certain characteristics that shape destinations, tourist policy and management need to maintain/promote natural/cultural based attributes as well as change and improve man-made interventions for tourism reasons. Moreover, strengthening the derived experience by providing more activities is crucial for shaping a future attitude while concentration on the older and more educated groups was found to be as important managerial implication for shaping a more satisfactory -for the youth market- resort tourist product.

6. References


5. Hickey, R. (n.d.) Youth Tourism in Ireland: The Cinderella of Irish Tourism. *Ireland Unplugged to the National Tourism Policy Review Group*, Obtained through the Internet:
CONCEPTUALISING YOUTH TOURISM IN ISLAND DESTINATIONS: THE CASE OF AYIA NAPA AND PROTARAS, CYPRUS


ISLANDS’ TOURIST DEVELOPMENT AND LOCAL RESIDENTS’ PROSPERITY: REALITY OR AN UNSOLVED PROBLEM?

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Most islands are developed as mass tourist destinations that aim to be competitive, sacrificing though their precious resources and balanced development. In this regard, many problems of island destinations are related to their limited resources and segregation. Hence, is prosperity that tourist development brings, spread harmonically in the whole society-environment of islands?

The paper examines how Cyprus can increase its competitiveness and deal effectively with globalisation, maintaining its attractiveness but also sustaining its attributes and ensuring the well-being of its residents/stakeholders. Based on in-depth interviews with Cyprus tourism stakeholders’ representatives and officials, the study reveals that in order for islands’ tourist development to be successful in the long-term, emphasis needs to be placed upon indigenous people peculiarities, characteristics and perceptions. Therefore, strategies for the incorporation of community’s views to the tourist policy making and planning are proposed.

1. Introduction

The idiosyncrasy of islands’ physiognomy as well as their natural and cultural environment creates destinations of unique beauty and attractiveness that are utilised extensively by the tourism sector (Bastin, 1988; Boukas and Ziakas, 2013a,
2. Island Tourist Development and Local Well-Being
Tourism has been considered as one of the most effective ways for generating income to islands. For years the authentic scenery of islands as well as their unique landscape created a tourism industry of great significance worldwide (Carlsen and Butler, 2011; Lewis-Cameron and Roberts, 2010). As such, the fact that islands were always seen as charming areas, physically detached from the continent world, with peculiar and exotic components, ideal for ‘escape’ and open to ‘otherness’ (Sharpley, 2012), led towards their conversion into exclusive destinations offering anticipated experiences to tourists.

Nonetheless, a great number of islands, such as those of the Mediterranean basin, have been designed to meet mostly the needs of mass tourists. Indeed, for many islands, the whole tourist sector is related to mass activities that deal with sea, sun, and sand elements. Tourism in this case, takes advantage the coastal areas of islands while it systematically neglects other less privileged parts such as mountainous and rural ones (Ziakas and Boukas, 2015). Moreover, it is evident that the same elements that increase islands’ popularity as destinations (remote places surrounded by the sea), could also be their weaknesses for their overall development.

According to Niles and Baldacchino (2011), insular destinations need to cope with problems of limited resources - that many times are overutilised-, segregation and strong dependencies on the rest world. In this difficult situation therefore, islands are between an important dilemma; on the one hand, they need to find ways in order to protect their limited resources and hence, defend their ecological pureness, and; on the other hand, they need to find effective ways in order to generate the economic means for ensuring a proper quality of life for their residents without altering their precious natural and sociocultural environment. This dilemma raises also questions regarding the overall sustainable development of islands and underlines the urgency to study whether it is realistic to discuss about sustainable tourism in the case of islands, where resources (i.e., natural, social as well as economic), are limited. Moreover, is tourist development a way that contributes to the prosperity of indigenous people and if yes, how powerful are locals to shape their future in regards to tourist development?

According to World Tourism Organisation (WTO), the development of tourism is equal to the over-growth of facilities, infrastructure, attractions, etc. and the indigenous’ learning
about tourism’ positive effects (Sofield, 2003). The majority of these activities are tourist-oriented and aim to provide an appealing tourist experience that will lead to overall satisfaction. Nonetheless, in an effort to please tourists’ expectations it has been noted that many resources are surrendered (i.e., natural environment). This ‘outside-in’ approach is quite evident in modern tourism (Zhang, Yamamura and Fujiki, 2013). Furthermore, Sofield (2003) claims that while public involvement in tourism planning is evident, it presupposes that their (re)action about tourism will be positive and in the end, it is questionable whether their contribution is really active towards their own benefit.

In this respect, the traditional character of tourism today follows the ‘top-down’ decision-making. Despite that the ‘bottom-up’ approach focuses on the local communities’ involvement towards setting their own purposes and decision-making about the usage of their place’s resources (i.e., heritage preservation, development of buildings, etc.) (Kelly and Becker, 2000), it is obvious that it is not applied when planning tourism for destinations (Sofield, 2003). As such, even though the value of the community participation in the overall destination planning is recognised, it is evident that their actual contribution is questionable.

Considering that under the premise of sustainability, a destination would be successful if it will provide benefits to both tourists and locals in the long-term, and that islands as peculiar destinations with their opportunities and challenges need to be developed and managed sustainably, an orientation towards the ‘inside-out’ approach on tourist development could enhance the positive perceived impacts of tourism and limit its negative ones.

3. Methodological Approach

For this study a qualitative approach was applied for examining how Cyprus can increase its competitiveness, maintaining its magnitude as an attractive site, on the one hand, but at the same time sustaining its attributes for future generations and ensuring the well-being of its residents and (other local) stakeholders. The qualitative approach entailed semi-structured interviews with stakeholders and key-players in tourism development of Cyprus. Specifically, the sample
included three tourism policy-makers as well as seven representatives of tourism entrepreneurs and professionals. Interviews lasted 40-60 minutes and were conducted in the offices of the interviewees. An interview guide was prepared to facilitate the conduct of the interviews. Since the sample consisted of two distinct groups, the interview guide questions were adapted for both groups of respondents respectively. All the interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed verbatim in the Greek language. Afterwards, the interviews were translated in English and analysed manually by each author independently. Data were analysed iteratively (Miles and Huberman, 1994) adopting a constant comparison method (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) aimed to discover inductively emerging themes and discern their relationships. Once theoretical saturation was reached, the authors compared their interpretations and coding themes in order to agree on a coding scheme that best fits with and describes the emerging data.

4. Results

According to the findings, Cyprus has similar characteristics with other island destinations that focus on mass tourism for their development. The island’s development is tightly connected to tourism and its economy is based on a large degree on tourism and its related industries and operations (e.g., hospitality). Indeed, after the Turkish invasion on the island and its illegal occupation of the 37.3% of its north in 1974, tourism was considered to be one of the main vehicles for overtaking the obvious social, economic and structural problems of the island. Cyprus’ tourism industry recovered relatively easy and continued to grow until 2001. Yet, this development was not always based on comprehensive strategic planning. In contrast, mass tourism development has been for years the dominant form of development for the island while several negative impacts that accompany this form of tourism are evident (i.e., seasonality, unbalanced development on only some coastal areas, questionable service quality. Moreover, after 2001, the arrivals of international visitors in Cyprus started to decrease. Further, the global economic crisis affected even more the decrease both in occupancy rates and tourist arrivals making the situation even more problematic and underlying the need to find out measures for quick recovery.
Moreover, almost all the respondents emphasised the need for tourism policy to turn towards sustainable practices so as to resolve the problems that beset Cyprus. Economic crises such as the 2008 global one and the subsequent economic recession necessitate the adaptation of a sustainable policy framework that would facilitate the tourism system to recover. Even though Cypriot tourism policy recognises the importance of heading towards sustainability, this is not realistically implemented through comprehensive and meticulous strategic planning, while the on-going crisis exacerbates the unsustainable state of tourism development on the island.

In regards to how locals contribute to the overall tourist development of Cyprus the most respondents indicated that tourism planning rarely incorporated locals in the past. As mentioned, the overall planning was/is highly centralised and geared towards achieving tourist satisfaction. According to respondents there is a diachronic ‘top-down’ decision-making and an ‘outside-in’ approach of tourist development. Locals as well as tourist stakeholders need to follow their courses in what tourists and in expansion, tourist policy makers dictate. Similarly, there the local adjustment of tourist offering according to markets expectations and demands is noted. As stated: ‘When we had the English market, everything in the tourist offering was “Britishised” [around British culture], now that we have Russians, everything is “Russianised” [around Russian culture]…we don’t have our own character’. The tendency to change according to each tourist market has an impact to the social integrity of Cyprus. As a respondent indicated: ‘There are many tourist areas where it is rare to find out breakfast with local ingredients’. In this respect, the respondents indicated that there is also an evident change to the cultural character of many regions. This has an impact to the sustainability of the place.

Another important finding mentioned in the interviews has to do with the evident social concerns that mass tourism generates. Due to the intensive seasonality during the summer months, employees in the tourist sector work for long hours. This causes problems in their family structure. Additionally, the many of these employees during the non-peak months do not have a stable job -many hotels and restaurants shut down- and therefore there is an increased unemployment rate.
In regards to environmental issues, it was noted by the respondents that the over-development of some only areas mostly coastal ones, brings excessive demands to them and alter their landscape. As mentioned: ‘… the coast of Ayia Napa will never be as it used to be thirty years ago. We have built everywhere without thinking our future generations’. Simultaneously, other places which are not as privileged as the coastal ones, like rural and mountainous areas, suffer from segregation and inexistent economic activity. This has a direct impact to their residents.

Finally, regarding the contribution of locals in the decision-making for tourism matters, respondents indicated that there is a participation of local stakeholders in planning. However, they claim that problems exist at the implementation and coordination of these decisions. Respondents argue that many of the proposed decisions are never implemented and/or they change character during their application at a later stage, scarifying some of the benefits for them. The lack of organised bodies that would be responsible to monitor, check and guide projects on certain timelines hinders also the situation. Moreover, the limited/inefficient communication among stakeholders and the heavy bureaucratic character of the decision-making create confusion and make many of the decisions to stay on paper and not being fulfilled.

5. Conclusion

From the findings it was pointed out that policy measures are based on ad hoc decisions that only indirectly benefit locals. Indeed, decisions are mostly grounded on strategies that have a voluntarily, by the stakeholders, character and depend on the ability and willingness of each stakeholder to apply them. Moreover, the limited coordination among stakeholders creates inefficiencies regarding the application of measures that would ensure local prosperity and enhance sustainable development. It is also evident that mass tourism constrains sustainable development. This underlines the need for an orientation towards sustainability. A means to achieve this could be several measures that boost locality such as the emphasis on the local gastronomy, on local festival organisation or local event planning.

As found in the case of Cyprus, mass tourism through an ‘outside-in’ approach of development is not competitive
anymore and creates dissatisfaction not only for locals but also for tourists. In this respect, there is a need for adopting more efficient strategies for sustainability, and consequently locals’ prosperity. The diversification of the product-service mix, infused by locals’ interests and characteristics could be a solution on this problem. The study suggests that in order for this to be successfully managed we need to pay attention to the development of alternative forms of tourism that would enhance the local character of island destinations and incorporate, in a large degree, the local element. Among these alternative forms of tourism, ecological tourism, cultural heritage tourism, and/or event and festival tourism could be some of the ways that would invest in the specific assets of a region and would be capable of attracting special interest or niche tourism.

Finally, a policy re-orientation is imperative that will place at its core the residents’ well-being. This way, an ‘inside-out’ approach may become feasible providing that tourism policy focuses on alternative forms of tourism development. Additionally, tourism policy should remedy the ‘top-down’ and bureaucratic planning processes that create severe challenges for the sustainable development of the island’s tourism sector.

6. References


ISLANDS’ TOURIST DEVELOPMENT AND LOCAL RESIDENTS’ PROSPERITY: REALITY OR AN UNSOLVED PROBLEM?
INVESTIGATING E-COMPLAINTS ON SEA-SIDE RESORT HOTELS: EVIDENCE FROM SHARM EL-SHEIKH, EGYPT

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Traditionally, service failure complaints are used to be privately communicated between the complainant and the hotel’s management. However, the explosion of the Internet has allowed unhappy guests to share their experiences with millions around the world in few seconds. E-complaints can drastically affect a hotel’s reputation. Despite the significant importance, research investigating how guests use online review websites as an ideal outlet to air their experiences is relatively limited in the hospitality literature. The purpose of this research was to contribute to our understanding of the behavior of dissatisfied vacationers by examining negative reviews posted on TripAdvisor.com for Sharm El-Sheikh resort hotels. The content of 568 complaint cases for 3, 4 and 5 star resort hotels were analyzed. The analysis identified 4089 incident and provided seven broad e-complaint categories. Suggestions for hoteliers are provided for responding to service failures and online guest complaints.

1. Introduction

Service failures and customer dissatisfaction are inevitable in the hospitality business, even at the most careful service providers, due to service inseparability and heterogeneity in service production (Lewis and McCann, 2004). Yet, recovering
failures and responding to customer dissatisfaction give firms an opportunity to build a stronger customer trust and long-term relationships (Henning-Thurau et al., 2004). Recovery cannot, however, occur without customer notification (Singh and Wilkes, 1996). Unfortunately, the majority of dissatisfied customers are not likely to tell the company when they encounter a service failure (Ekiz, Khoo-Lattimore and Memarzadeh, 2012). The explosion of the Internet technology and its distinctive communication capabilities has, however, changed this situation and encouraged dissatisfied customers to complain online (Harrison-Walker, 2001).

E-complaints can assist hoteliers discover service failures and areas of improvement for careful managers. They can be also effective tools for proactive companies to better understand the areas that the industry is under performing and not trapping into the same mistakes (Barreda and Bilgihan, 2013). This necessitates the need to assign more research priority in the e-complaining area to better understand what makes hotel guests air their negative experiences to others (Berezina et al., 2015; Ekiz, Khoo-Lattimore and Memarzadeh, 2012).

Despite an extensive research on the use of the Internet in hotels has been accumulated in the literature in the last two decades, comparatively little attention has focused on understanding how hotel guests share their experiences online (Au, Buhalis and Law 2014; Ekiz, Khoo-Lattimore and Memarzadeh, 2012; Levy, Duan and Boo, 2013). It is also important to note that most of the recent research in this area was directed towards developed countries (significant exceptions include: Ekiz, Khoo-Lattimore and Memarzadeh, 2012). The literature suggests that service quality can vary considerably between developed and developing countries given to environmental differences (Malhotra, 2005). The dominant western focus in this area of study questions the generalizability of the empirical research findings to less developed countries. The current study contributes by providing a new insight from the hospitality industry in Egypt; the first study of its kind in Egypt and probably the Arab world.
2. Theoretical Overview

2.1 Customer Complaint Behaviour

The literature has provided a wide range of definitions for CCB; the majority of which consider CCB as a post-service failure response generated by customer dissatisfaction. Fornell and Wernerfelt (1987), for example, defined it simply as an attempt to change an unsatisfactory purchasing experience. A key approach in extant marketing literature categorizes also types of dissatisfaction responses to explain CCB (e.g. Day and Landon, 1977; Hirschman; 1970). All of the proposed typologies suggest that dissatisfied customers may not choose to voice their complaints directly to the company. Instead, they may engage in a negative WOM to their social circle or even complaint to a third-party while using diverse complaint channels. In the hospitality context, Lam and Tang (2003) also provided four categories of CCB, namely, personal actions, bad-mouthing, complaints to management, and publicizing. Lack of notification from silent critics represents, however, a loss of current and prospective customers as this does not provide hotels the chance to remedy service failures and retain their customers.

Successful companies welcome complaints and make them as a part of their strategic approach to improve different aspects of their business (Harrison-Walker, 2001). In recognition of this, hotels dedicate efforts and employ different tools to identify sources of service failures and evaluate and address customer (dis)satisfaction. Research estimates that the cost of retaining good relations with a current customer is 20 percent of the cost of attracting a new one (Kotler, Bowen and Makens, 2013). Thus, it is wise to evaluate the customer long-term value and take appropriate actions to ensure a customer’s long-term support. An effective resolution of customer complaint can sometimes result in greater customer satisfaction than if things had gone well in the first place (Susskind, 2005); boosts customer retention and loyalty (Singh and Wilkes, 1996), and ensures higher repurchase intentions (Halstead and Page, 1992).

Conversely, if complaints are not properly managed, it may increase customer frustration and dissatisfaction, reinforce negative WOM and harm the company’s reputation (Mattila and Mount, 2003). In today’s global marketplace, managers
need to understand that obtaining feedback from dissatisfied guests is important for the business sustainability, and if the hotel fails to get such valuable feedback, the chance to rectify service failures and retain guests is lost.

2.2 Understanding CCB on Web 2.0 Technologies

The last few years have seen substantial advancements in the Internet Technology, and this is now providing an important role in supporting consumer empowerment through Web 2.0 and user generated content (UGC). Such developments have empowered new forms of communication platforms that allow customers to express personal ideas and opinions, share experiences, and seek more reliable information from users than from marketers (Litvin, Goldsmith and Pan 2008). In the tourism and hospitality context, travel review sites such as TripAdvisor, Expedia, Booking, Holidaymaker, and Yelp.com also provide tourists with eWOM services, and so reviewers have become part of the marketing process. EWOM has been found to have greater credibility, sympathy and persuasive influence among readers than marketer-generated information because reviews are often provided through stories of personal experiences (Gretzel and Yoo, 2008).

From the hotelier’s perspective, travel sites can provide valuable opportunities to gain a deeper understanding of their guests (Barreda and Bilgihan, 2013). In a sample of 3 and 4 star hotels in Italy, Aureli et al. (2013) found also an association between hotel performance and online reputation. It is also estimated that a 10% increase in e-review ratings can enhance a hotel online booking by more than 5%. These facts explain why hotels have to seriously embrace the concept of social networks and UGC as a new element in the marketing communications mix (Au, Buhalis and Law, 2014).

UGC was also studied by exploring the motives of tourist to post online reviews. Research suggests that while satisfied guests have the tendency to reward the hotel by posting positive reviews, dissatisfies are more likely to diffuse negative eWOM to punish the hotel and warn potential customers. While positive reviews can increase profitability (Vermeulen and Seegers, 2009), negative reviews are often more influential because prospective guests judge them as more credible. Negative reviews are more likely to influence potential customers' attitude toward service providers (Vermeulen and
Seegers, 2009) and constrain the ability of service providers to raise prices (Ogut and Onur Tas, 2012). Prospective guests were also found to spend greater time reading negative e-reviews, and these reviews had higher influence on their purchasing decisions (Papathanasssis and Knolle, 2011).

Another stream of this research area has attempted, as the current study aims to, identify sources and types of guest complaints in the hotel industry. While some studies suggested that service-related issues (e.g. Levy, Duan and Boo, 2013; Zheng, Young and Kincaid, 2009) dominate the nature of e-complains in the hotel industry, others found that e-complainants paid more attention to product-related issues (e.g. Ekiz, Khoo-Lattimore and Memarzadeh, 2012). This lack of agreement regarding the nature of service failures that trigger e-complaints in the hotel industry in the Western research strengthens the need for studying this particular topic in other contexts.

3. Methodological Approach

Tourism is a crucial key of the Egyptian economic growth. Within Egypt’s tourism scene, Sharm El-Sheikh plays an important role. In 2010, approximately 35% of the country’s tourists arrived (4.5 millions) and stayed in the city’s hotels. Thanks to the Red Sea’s biodiversity and abundant marine life, the natural resources of the destination and as well as its proximity to European tourism markets, Sharm El-Sheikh has become one of the most well-known diving centers and beach resorts in the world. By 2013, the hotel supply in the city was estimated at 51000 beds in nearly 300 hotels constituting almost 30% of the total supply in the country and operated mainly by international chain hotel companies (EHA, 2014).

Customer complaints for the Sharm El-Sheikh resort hotels were collected from TripAdvisor.com in the duration between June 2012 and July 2014. This travel review site was chosen for this study as it is widely regarded as the most powerful social media for travel destinations and accommodation reviews worldwide (Au, Buhalis and Law, 2014; Aureli et al., 2013; Berezina et al., 2015; Ekiz, Khoo-Lattimore and Memarzadeh, 2012;). For the purpose of this study only comments rating guest’s experience as terrible (1) or poor (2) were retained for analysis. The sampling included only classified 3, 4 and 5-star hotels that represent (70%) of the
total number of hotels listed on the website during the period under examination.

The study employed qualitative content analysis to codify data into different categories of guest complaints. The systematic process of coding and identification of themes was based on the literature through a subjective evaluation of the content. Manual coding was employed in this study as some reviews are written in the Arabic language, and so far no available software has been developed for analyzing Arabic texts qualitatively. Moreover, this approach empowers the researcher to interpret whether or not the script is actually a complaint and to extract the negative feelings expressed in each review (see also: Au, Buhalis and Law, 2014; Ekiz, Khoo-Lattimore and Memarzadeh, 2012).

To improve external validity and ensure inter-coding reliability, an independent coder was initially assigned to read the complaints and carry out basic open-coding. Disagreements about codes were solved through discussions among coders until they achieved an acceptable level of inter-judge reliability (above 80%) (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

4. Results and Discussion

A total of 568 valid e-complaints on 114 different resort hotels were retained for analysis. The analysis produced a total of 4089 incidents, from which 43 different themes were discovered. Those themes were then categorised into seven main groups: room issues, food and beverage issues, value, staff issues, hotel issues, recreation and entertainment and other issues. A frequency analysis was used to rank the identified themes according to the number of times their components (sub-categories) are mentioned in the scripts. Due to the word limit and in the interest of brevity, only the top three groups are presented and discussed.

Accommodation is the core product of the hotel industry (Kotler, Bowen and Makens, 2013). As in previous research from the West (e.g. Berezina et al., 2015; Levy, Duan and Boo, 2013; Zheng, Young and Kincaid, 2009) and Asia (e.g. Au, Buhalis and Law 2014; Ekiz, Khoo-Lattimore and Memarzadeh, 2012) service failures that are related to guestroom have been identified as a key generator of e-complaints in this research, where guests appeared to have
narrow zones of tolerance for these core attributes. The findings imply that accommodation is what guests care about the most during their vacations. This theme included 8 sub-categories and was stated in 917 incidents. Typical complaints were; bad cleaning standards (170); broken appliances and facilities (153); noisy rooms (119); absence or inadequate of in-room free wi-fi (114); dated rooms and shabby décor (94); inadequate or poor provision of amenities and supplies (76); insects; bugs and mosquitos (56); uncomfortable bedding and hard mattresses (56); outdated furniture and fixture (54); lack of safety and security precautions (51); smelly rooms (30). The following examples highlight these sorts of complaints:

The rooms are so dirty that it would probably be cleaner to sleep on the beach (Review 257)

The baths were cracked and when we had a shower it was like a river running through the bathroom, also we had no hot water 2 1/2 days and the toilet wouldn’t flush (Review 419)

Disappointed that WiFi is not free in the room (Review 211)

Having such service failures in rooms raises questions about the quality of accommodation services in Sharm El-Sheikh hotels. Service failures in rooms were found to be one of the top issues that would make dissatisfied guests not recommend a hotel where they have stayed (Berezina et al., 2015). Thus, hoteliers need to realize that low cleaning standards as well as unsatisfactory functionality of room devices and facilities can damage the reputation and profitability of a hotel. Housekeeping and maintenance managers, in particular, need to pay particular attention to the cleanliness of rooms, adequate provision of amenities, and fixing faulty appliances and devices. Recovery of any failure before the guest's departure is very important given the expected outcomes on guests post purchase behaviour. Proper maintenance of guestrooms and engineering services, even in low occupancy periods are crucial to deliver quality services and mitigate any breakdowns (Mattila and O'Neill, 2003). Hoteliers need also to consider providing quiet and comfortable accommodation for guests. Front desk should take into consideration the guest profile (i.e., age, purpose of visit), visit frequency, and long-term monetary value of guests while assigning rooms. Hotel operators should remain thoughtful of
reducing disruptions from neighbors (e.g., loud music, partying) while managing consumer compatibility (Levy, Duan and Boo, 2013). Also, owners need to understand the importance of the investment in proper soundproofing of room walls and windows. Several hotels were blamed for misleading guests by announcing that Wi-Fi would be a complementary in-room amenity, while in fact, this service was either charged or unavailable. Hoteliers need also to realize that free in-room Wi-Fi has become a necessity and an important key for customer satisfaction. A 2013 survey by Hotels.com confirmed that “Wi-Fi is the one amenity that cannot be forsaken in a hotel stay, and that Wi-Fi connection should be delivered for free”. Although décor is a subjective issue in nature, fashioned designs and fittings should be clearly demonstrated in hotel guestrooms to remain competitive (Au, Buhalis and Law, 2014).

Complaints due to the low quality of F&B items, limited F&B offerings, low hygiene standards and serving quality found to be the second most frequently reported e-complaints in this study. This finding is consistent with past research on CCB in the hotel industry (e.g., Au, Buhalis and Law 2014; Lewis and McCann; 2004). A total of 755 critics related to this category were recorded. The following are some illustrative examples:

The food was an absolute disgrace... 95% of it is inedible....some of the poorest quality desserts I've come across anywhere in the world (Review 132).

The bar staff were very unhygienic as they were rinsing the cups and not washing them with soapy water (Review 189).

It was believed that the strength of complaints regarding F&B is largely attributed to the tendency of the Red Sea hotels to reduce costs by offering local and lower quality products as a strategic choice to stay survival in the times of hard economic recession. Hoteliers need, however, to understand that the quality and the variety of F&B offerings cannot be compromised at any circumstances, since they have been regarded as powerful determinants of customer satisfaction and post-dining behavioral intention (Ramanathan and Ramanathan, 2011). Equally, they need to pay additional attention to F&B safety standards. Lack of such standards may
not only damage the image of service providers, but also the reputation of the entire tourist destination (Wu, 2012).

"Value for money" was identified in this research as the third top category of e-complaints. This particular finding is in line with the findings of previous research (e.g. Berezina et al., 2015; Zheng, Young and Kincaid, 2009) which found financial issues as a top determinant of CCB. Complainants expected to receive better "value for money" during their stay at Sharm El-Sheikh hotels, based mostly upon the publicized hotel star rating and all-inclusive packages.

A four star hotel????....No chance…more a 2 star, and that is being polite (Review 426)

This hotel is not all inclusive. They have only recently this option and have nowhere near got it right (Review 236)

The findings imply that the higher the star rating of a hotel, the higher the expectations on what is going to be provided. This sheds the light on the potential differences of hotel rating systems between developing countries and developed countries. For example, a five star hotel in a developing country like Egypt may not be given the same rating in a developed country like UK. Guests perceived also that the all-inclusive packages they offered were below the expected standards, based upon the price paid for a package. Guests made reference to the exclusion of publicized services, misleading information, and restrictions applied to certain items of the packages. This can be explained by the fact that the application of the all-inclusive system increases the consumption levels of F&B items, turning these to be the most important items within the total expenditures of a hotel (Çiftçi, Düzakın and Önal, 2007). To increase their profitability, hotels applying this system are likely to reduce costs by lowering their service quality, affecting levels of guest satisfaction and hotel image negatively.

5. Conclusion

This research has contributed to our understanding of CCB in the hospitality industry by providing a new insight from a developing country and formulating a hotel complaint typology framework. The findings revealed that both product-related
issues and customer service issues were judged to be equally important generators of customer dissatisfaction. They revealed also that what might appear to be slightly inconvenient could be a major creator of e-complaining. Hospitality managers are, thus, encouraged to proactively resolve problems before the guest's departure, which can significantly decrease e-complaints and boosts positive post-purchase behaviours. Hotels can significantly decrease e-complaints by monitoring guest room cleaning and maintenance, providing complementary in-room WiFi service, and installing soundproofed windows. Hoteliers need also to pay particular attention to the quality and the variety of F&B offerings; commit to the promises of the star rating and all-inclusive packages; and invest in staff training and education in order to secure repeat business.

Given the exploratory nature of this research, findings should be interpreted with caution. The study lacks comprehensiveness as it was restricted to e-complaints on Sharm El-Sheik resort hotels at one travel review site: TripAdvisor. Future research is, thus, invited to use more sophisticated samples that include guest comments from other geographic areas, other types of hotels (e.g. airport hotels) and other travel websites (e.g. Booking.com). Extending our sample will not only help test the validity of our findings, but it will also allow us to compare different markets.

6. References


As individuals are becoming increasingly dependent on their digital devices and with the rise of smartphones, this research paper intends to examine tourist behavior during the holiday with a specific focus on addictive and compulsive usage habits of smartphones. The study outlines to the literature of technology addiction behavior and digital detox, as well as the compulsive smartphone usage. The study will investigate the smartphone usage habits of holiday makers in Turkey at different ages. The utilized data within the study was collected from 850 participants in Turkey, in December 2014. In different countries, many hotels have realized the digital detox need for a certain people, today digital detox hotels offer special solutions for smartphone addicted people. The study will result will provide certain ideas about the intention of smartphone usage and suggests some managerial implications for the hospitality sector regarding digital detox vacation niche market.

1. Introduction

The smartphone revolution is under-hyped, more people have access to phones than access to running water (Marc Andreessen, founder of Netscape)

Information technologies have affected our habits and become an important and inseparable part of our life. More and more young people use this technology every day for different needs. Recent market survey declared that more than 1/3 of the world population will use smartphones in 2015 (Emarketer, 2015), and will become more addicted to
their smartphones. Brod (1984) explains that frequent mobile phone usage may create a type of technostress in a short period of time. This type of addiction prevents people from every day activities like sport, studying, working or hobbies, it can damage personal and socaity life (Park, 2005). Although cellphone addiction has received some degree of attention in literature between 1996-2005 (Belles, et al., 2009), smartphone usage during a holiday has not been studied excessively. This study will enlighten the relationship between smartphone addiction and use of smartphone during a holiday.

This paper will investigate and open a new window to the demand side of the tourism industry. Today, travelers require additional services from the hotels and feel relaxed during the holiday period. If a smartphone is an important part in everyday life for tourist, the accommodation facilities may organize additional services, like wireless access points, free internet, use of accommodation facilities from a smartphone for their satisfaction. Most of the time people go on a holiday for a natural reset of their life. Additionally, consumer smartphone usage habits during a holiday period might change under certain conditions.

International tourist arrivals increased by 4.3% in 2014 (UNWTO, 2015). According to World Tourism Organization, international tourist arrivals (overnight visitors) have been increasing from 434 million in 1990 to 1,135 billion in 2014 (UNWTO WTB, 2015). The first smartphone, IBM Simon, was introduced in 1994, later technology companies produced smartphones gradually. Since 2013 smartphone users increased from 1.31 billion to 1.64 billion in 2014 and it is predicted that the user numbers will reach to 2.56 billion in 2018 (Emarketer, 2015).

In 2007 Apple Inc. introduced iPhone, later smartphone users discovered the use of a smartphone with a Multi-Touch interface with a large touchscreen for direct finger input (Patently Apple, 2011). Today, both tourist and smartphone user numbers are increasing in Turkey and in the world (UNWTO WTB, 2015).

Like all other addictions smartphone addiction influence our daily life in some way. Smartphone addicted people worry about losing their phones (Psychology Today, 2013). Mobile use of internet increases, by smartphones and tablets (Oulasvirta, Rattenbury, Ma and Raita, 2012).
These people want to keep the smartphones with them all times in everywhere. Some studies show that there is a group of people evaluating smart technologies, including smartphones, mobile apps, etc enlarge and change the classical border of travel sector (Molz, 2012; Mascheroni, 2007; Paris, 2010; 2012; Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier, 2009; Wang, Park and Fesenmaier, 2012; White and White, 2007). Tourists use the smartphones for booking, navigating, ticketing, boarding, socializing and communicating for the holiday.

Smartphone usage will increase continuously through the world. From 2014 to 2018 worldwide smartphone numbers will increase from 1,639.0 billion to 2,561.8 billion. As it is now, mainly China and other Asian countries will dominate the word smartphone market in the future too (Table 1). In four years in India, Indonesia, Philippines, Vietnam and Turkey smartphone numbers will increase more than any other country in the world.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>2014 (million)</th>
<th>2018 (million)</th>
<th>Smartphone Number increase % between 2014-2018</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. China</td>
<td>519.7</td>
<td>704.1</td>
<td>35.48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. US</td>
<td>165.3</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>33.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. India</td>
<td>123.3</td>
<td>279.2</td>
<td>126.44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Japan</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>28.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Russia</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td>55.92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Brazil</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>71.9</td>
<td>85.31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Indonesia</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>103.3</td>
<td>169.71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Germany</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>62.64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. UK</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>27.47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. South Korea</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>8.54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Mexico</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>49.9</td>
<td>73.87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. France</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>63.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Italy</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>53.53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Turkey</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>80.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Spain</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>34.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Philippines</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>97.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Nigeria</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>74.36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Canada</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>34.27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Thailand</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>53.14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Vietnam</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>92.77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Egypt</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>66.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Colombia</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>45.14%</td>
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<td>23. Australia</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>14.39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Poland</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>63.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Argentina</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>57.41%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**WORLDWIDE**  1639  2561.8  56.30%
2. Theoretical Background

Optimal flow theory (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) suggests that information technology can form an addiction among people. The addiction may be so joyful that people will try to maintain the state even at high costs (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990). Addiction of a smartphone is also push the people to buy or use smartphones (Negahban, 2012).

Park (2005) explained addiction as unusually high dependence on a specific thing. In different ways technology may create dependence. A study on the effect of technology on work addiction pointed out that technology can be widely used by people in and outside of work conditions (Porter and Kakabadse, 2006).

The study explains that addicted use of technology in workplaces could guide to sacrifice of other targets. The related sacrifices can be in different forms like ignoring other duties, performing less in social activities and contact with friends and relatives. Another problem is related to the physical results of human health, less physical activity results people gain weight (Porter and Kakabadse, 2006).

According to Park (2005) people feel alone smartphone dependence can be characterized by symptoms like feeling awkward and annoyed when smartphone is unavailable (Park, 2005). Another type of dependence is called media addiction. According to Park (2005) in general everyone use media for searching information, finding friends (new or old), relaxation or being alone.

Douglas (2008) describes internet addiction as a type of media addiction. Douglas (2008) states that those addicted people feel loneliness and their self confidence level is low (Park, 2005; Toda et al., 2008). When we talk about smartphone addiction it can be described as a different type of technology addiction.

Previous studies explain that men have a lower preference for direct communication than women (Toda, Monden, Kubo, and Morimoto, 2006). Since this is the case, men prefer voice services, while women prefer internet services (Toda et al., 2006). Women are also most pleased with communication via email, and are more likely to use it to build close relationships (Boneva, Kraut and Frohlich, 2001; McKenna, Green and Gleason, 2002).
Continuous use of technology also results to psychological distress (Chesley, 2005). Another study results that if you check your e-mails less frequently, it reduces stress level of the person (Kushlev and Dunn, 2015).

UK Post Office states that, more than 13 million Britons suffered from “Nomophobia” (no mobile phobia) in 2008. Nomophobia is the fear of being out of mobile phone contact. 2,163 people sampled for this study. Study explains that 53% of users in the UK tend to be anxious when they "lose their mobile phone, run out of battery or credit, or have no network coverage". Results show that about 58% of men and 48% of women familiarity the monophobia, and if their mobile phones are off additional 9% feel stressed (Dailymail, 2008).

3. Methodological Approach

The related data for this study were collected through a web based survey in December 2014. A total of 850 questionnaires were collected, 19 participants dropped out the survey without completing, at the end 831 of them provided appropriate answers for analysis, results were analyzed by using SPSS programme. The participants had a smartphone, e-mail and traveled to a holiday destination in last year. The questionnaire consisted of 29 questions: 6 questions socio-demographic (gender, age, education, employment status, monthly income and marital statues); 6 questions about smartphone and applications; 8 buying habits; 9 holiday and smartphone usage. Table 2 summarises sociodemographic characteristics of the sample.

Data analysis was collected via the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The sample was divided into subgroups using cluster analysis.

4. Results

According to a study women are more likely to become mobile phone addicted than men (Jenaro, Flores, Gomez-Vela, Gonzalez-Gil and Caballo, 2007; Takao, Takahashi and Kitamura, 2009). In this survey this theory is accepted by the results. 72.8 % of the female wanted to keep their smartphones. 68.8% of the male users wanted to keep...
their smartphones during the holiday. Overall results show us that 70.6% of the people do not want to leave their smartphone during the holiday, 29.4% of these people agree to leave the smartphones during the holiday. Table 3 summarises the sample.

Table 2: Sociodemographic Characteristics of the Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>53.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (years):</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13-17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-20</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-24</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>32.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-30</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-34</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-40</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-51</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 or older</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Status:</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>591</td>
<td>71.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Married, living with my partner</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/Widowed</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Level:</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MSc/PhD</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Degree (4 Years)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>33.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational (2 Years)</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>33.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary/Elementary</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment Status:</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self Employed</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Jobs</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Do people accept to leave their smartphone during a holiday?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>I do not accept</th>
<th>I accept</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>587</td>
<td>70.6</td>
<td>244</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Chi Square Test results male and female react the same way for leaving the smartphones, but male
users tent to accept the offer more than female users. Some other test show us that there is no significance difference on addiction of gender, age, or any other demographic value. Table 4 summarises the sample.

### Table 4: Chi-Square Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
<th>Exact Sig. (2-sided)</th>
<th>Exact Sig. (1-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>1,557</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.212</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuity Correctionb</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>.241</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>.212</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fisher’s Exact Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.222</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 112.16.
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

### Table 5: How often do you check your email over smartphone?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10 min.</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-29 min.</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-59 min.</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3 hours</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-5 hours</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-9 hours</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15 hours</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a day</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Longer than a day</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do not check it</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>831</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another result from the study shows that e-mail usage among smartphone users is not in a high level, they control the mails more in different hardware. 13.1% of the users do not check the e mails from smartphones. Table 5 summarises the sample.

### 5. Conclusion

This study explains that people from all demographic backgrounds want to use the smartphones all the time, especially while they are on holiday. Younger people are more addicted to their smartphones. They were born in a smartphone society and every member of the new smartphone society uses these devices. Since the smartphones make their
life easier and being connected is a very important for them they do not want to leave the smartphones (phones). These dependent users do not want to go anywhere without the smartphone, almost 1/3 of the studied group more likely to take holiday without a smartphone. Women do want to live with smartphone in every minute of life. Surprisingly, 1/3 of the sample agrees to leave the smartphones in return of a small incentive. These people seem to be bored being an addicted person.

Like all addictions a cure may be the digital detox hotels that offer a relaxation time for a few days. Another result show us that income level or educational back ground does not change the results, they all want to keep the smartphones online all the time. Social networks like Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter also affect their decision about keeping the smartphones. The study results that smartphone users check their e mails from different sources than a smartphone.

From the tourism policy point of view, if policy makers offer some incentives for the digital detox accommodation, it can help to cure the holiday makers.

A further study may analyse the reasons of keeping the smartphones with the owners all the time.

6. References

behaviours: How is information and communication technology connected to health-related lifestyle in adolescence? *Journal of Adolescence, 28*(1), 35-47.


18. Negahban, A. (2012). Factors Affecting Individual’s Intention to Purchase Smartphones from Technology Adoption and Technology Dependence Perspectives. AMCIS 2012 Proceedings. Obtained through the internet: 
   [http://aisel.aisnet.org/amcis2012/proceedings/AdoptionDiffusionIT/5](http://aisel.aisnet.org/amcis2012/proceedings/AdoptionDiffusionIT/5), [accessed 14/03/2015].


TOURISM ACTIVITIES, SOCIAL INTERACTION AND THE IMPACT OF TOURISM ON YOUTH TOURISTS’ QOL: A STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL

CELESTE EUSEBIO, MARIA JOÃO CARNEIRO AND ANA CALDEIRA
University of Aveiro, Portugal

This study aims to develop a model that illustrates structural relationships among tourism activities carried out during a trip, tourist-host interaction and impact of tourism on QOL. To achieve this objective a survey was carried out with university students and 412 completed questionnaires were obtained. The model was tested with partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). Results show a strong positive impact of tourism activities on social interaction and a positive impact of both tourism activities and social interaction on all domains of QOL. The youth visitors’ perceptions of tourism impact on their overall QOL are also directly influenced by the impact of tourism in two domains of QOL (psychological features and environment). The paper ends with recommendations for improving the impact of tourism on youth visitors’ QOL.

1. Introduction

The impact of tourism on Quality of Life (QOL) of both residents and tourists has become an important research topic in recent decades (Dolnicar, Lazarevski and Yanamandram, 2013). Moreover, the youth market is a relevant and growing tourism market segment that is still at the beginning of a potentially long tourism career (Bicikova, 2014; Richards, 2007). The great potential of tourism to improve QOL is also
recognised. However, there is little research on the impact of tourism on QOL of the youth market.

The study of the impact of tourism on youth tourists’ QOL and of the factors related to tourism experience that may influence this impact is of utmost relevance for academics, politicians and tourism industry staff.

Despite some research about the impact of tourism on tourists’ QOL (e.g. Dolnicar et al., 2013; Eusébio and Carneiro, 2011; Moscardo, 2009), the literature regarding the relationship between tourism and QOL remains fragmented and in a stage of infancy. Moreover, few studies analyse the impact of tourism on youth tourists’ QOL and the factors that may influence this impact. The present study aims to overcome this gap, developing a structural equation model to analyse the relationships between two important dimensions of youth tourism experience (tourism activities carried out during a trip and tourist-host interaction) and the impact of tourism on youth tourists’ QOL (both in terms of QOL domains and of overall QOL).

2. Theoretical Overview

2.1 Youth tourism market

The youth market is growing and is expected to be responsible for about 300 million international youth trips per year in 2020 (WYSE Travel Confederation/UNWTO, 2011). The number of returning trips to destinations is likely to be higher in this market, which is in the early stages of its travel cycle. The youth market is also very important since it is likely to be more fearless than other segments and, consequently, more resilient to natural features and acts of terrorism (Richards, 2007; WYSE Travel Confederation/UNWTO, 2011).

Some very important travel motivations of young visitors are having fun, being entertained and novelty (having new experiences, including visiting new destinations and learning something new) (Bicikova, 2014; Xu, Morgan and Song, 2009). Another important travel motivation, which is highly related to novelty, is increasing knowledge, namely by learning new things and knowing other cultures (Xu et al., 2009). For many youth visitors, tourism trips are also seen as good opportunities
for relaxing (Bicikova, 2014; Xu et al., 2009) and for socializing (Bicikova, 2014; Richards, 2007).

2.2 Tourism activities carried out during a trip

The participation in tourism activities is an important component of the tourism experience. Several studies (e.g. Richards, 2007; WYSE Travel Confederation/UNWTO, 2011) attest that youth visitors tend to participate in a high number of activities during tourism trips.

Some of the preferred tourism activities of youth visitors are going to beach (Bicikova, 2014; Kim and Jogaratnam, 2003; Xu et al., 2009) and sightseeing (Bicikova, 2014; Kim and Jogaratnam, 2003). Visiting cities and shopping are also popular activities in this market segment (Xu et al., 2009). Despite the fact that young visitors tend to appreciate many other tourism activities such as cultural activities (e.g. visiting museums, historic sites, participating in cultural events), nature activities, fun activities (e.g. eating and drinking, going to nightclubs) and sports activities, more heterogeneity seems to exist regarding the willingness to undertake the aforementioned kinds of activities (Bicikova, 2014; Kim and Jogaratnam, 2003; Richards, 2007; Xu et al., 2009).

The propensity to participate in a high number of activities is also associated with higher expenditures (Finsterwalder and Laesser, 2013; Tangeland, 2011). Moreover, the practice of tourism activities may also help satisfy several motivations of visitors, such as novelty, expanding knowledge, making contact with other cultures and socialising (e.g. Eusébio and Carneiro, 2012; Tangeland, 2011). Therefore, ensuring that destinations provide appropriate conditions for practising the tourism activities that fulfil the needs of their target markets is of remarkable importance, in order to boost the positive impacts of tourism for both destinations and the visitors. Considering that young visitors have a high motivation for social contact, as previously mentioned, the next section will discuss the relevance and characteristics of social interaction in the scope of tourism.

2.3 Tourist-host interaction

Social contact between tourists and hosts is a critical factor for tourism experience, simultaneously influencing tourists’ and hosts’ satisfaction (Kastenholz, Carneiro, Eusébio and Figueiredo, 2013; Eusébio and Carneiro, 2012; Reisinger and
Turner, 2003; Sinkovics and Penz, 2009). This concept is complex and has been the object of several definitions. However, as suggested by Reisinger and Turner (2003:37) social contact in tourism can be defined as “the personal encounter that takes place between a tourist and a host”. Frequently, tourist-host interaction is brief, formal, temporary, non-repetitive, open to deceit, exploitation and mistrust, unequal and unbalanced in terms of its meanings for both sides (De Kadt, 1979; Eusébio and Carneiro, 2012; Kastenholz et al., 2013; Reisinger and Turner, 2003; Sinkovics and Penz, 2009). However, studies on the youth market reveal that socializing and knowing other cultures emerge as important travel motivations of young visitors (e.g. Bicikova, 2014; Eusébio and Carneiro, 2012; Xu et al., 2009). Consequently, young tourists may look for a special relationship with their hosts in order to obtain information and to gain deeper knowledge regarding the values, customs and cultural assets of the host communities.

Studies that analyse the factors that may influence the tourist-host interaction in the youth tourism market are very scarce. Eusébio and Carneiro’s (2012) study is one of the few published studies that identifies determinants related to university student tourists (travel motivations, travel behaviour, cultural familiarity and similarity, tourists’ perceptions of tourism impacts and sociodemographic profile) which influence tourist-host interaction. However, in the general literature about tourist-host interaction (e.g. Kastenholz et al., 2013; Pizam et al., 2000; Sinkovics and Penz, 2009), the socio-demographic profile and cultural background of both participants in the contact, travel motivations, cultural familiarity and similarity and perceived costs and benefits of the contact stand out as important factors influencing tourist-host interaction. From this literature review, the researches that examine the impact of tourism activities carried out during a trip on tourist-host interaction are generally fragmented and restricted to certain tourism activities.

Regarding the consequences of tourist-host interaction, the studies carried out in this field focused mainly on the impact of tourist-hosts encounters on visitors’ satisfaction and on their intention to return and, also, on hosts’ satisfaction (e.g. Pizam et al., 2000; Reisinger and Turner, 2003; Sinkovics and Penz, 2009). Studies that examine the impact of tourist-host
interaction on tourists’ perceptions of impacts of tourism on their QOL are very scarce.

2.4 Impact of tourism on QOL

There is no consensus in the literature regarding the concept of QOL (Sirgy et al., 2006). Several words have been used as synonyms of this concept, such as well-being and people’s satisfaction with life. According to Theofilou (2013) the QOL concept can be seen as the individual’s perceptions of how good his/her life is. This overall concept of good life includes several domains (e.g. work, family, leisure, social relationships, income and health).

Despite the potential positive impact of tourism on people’s QOL, little knowledge has been generated in this field. Moreover, studies that examine the factors that may influence the impact of tourism on youth tourists’ QOL are very limited. However, an increase in research on the role of tourism on tourists’ QOL has been observed in the last decade (e.g. Carneiro and Eusébio, 2011; Dolnicar et al., 2013; Eusébio and Carneiro, 2011; McCabe, Joldersma and Li., 2010; Moscardo, 2009). The nature and magnitude of the impact of tourism on youth tourists’ QOL will depend not only on individuals’ psychological and socio-demographic characteristics but also on their travel behaviour. However, the results of the few studies that, to date, examine the factors that influence the impact of tourism on tourists’ QOL are not consensual (e.g. Dolnicar et al., 2013; Eusébio and Carneiro, 2011).

Travel motivations emerge as one of the most analysed potential determinants of the impact of tourism on QOL. Despite the tourism activities carried out during a trip and the tourist-host interaction being identified as two important dimensions of tourism experience, a very limited number of studies have analysed their influence on youth tourists’ QOL. Moreover, no study was found using structural equation modelling to analyse the impact of tourism activities carried out and tourist-host interaction on tourism impacts perceived by youth tourists on their QOL.

2.5 Research model and hypotheses

In order to study the relationship between tourism activities carried out during a trip, tourist-host interaction and impact of tourism on youth tourists’ QOL, the conceptual model
presented in Figure 1 was designed. The model hypothesizes relationships among seven latent constructs. The empirical study presented in this paper aims to test the research model proposed and the hypotheses through a structural equation modelling.

3. Methodological Approach

In order to test the model presented in the last section a questionnaire was administered to university students. The questionnaire included questions related to travel behaviour, the impact of tourism on QOL and socio-demographic profile. In order to answer the questions about the travel behaviour and the impact of tourism on QOL, respondents were asked to consider their tourism trips undertaken in the last five years. As far as behaviour is concerned, respondents were requested to indicate, during the tourism trips, the frequency with which they undertook several tourism activities - including nature, cultural, recreational and training activities - and the frequency with which they were in contact with residents in various places - monuments, events, food and beverage establishments, places of nightlife animation, nature places and in the street. Both questions were answered using a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1 “never” to 5 “very frequently”. These questions were prepared based on literature concerning tourism activities undertaken by young visitors (e.g. Kim and Jogaratnam, 2003; Richards, 2007) and on tourist-host interactions (in this case, several items were selected in order to represent the contexts of interaction identified by De Kadt, 1979). Respondents were also asked to provide information about the impact of the tourism trips on several domains of their QOL - physical health, social relationships, psychological features and environmental conditions - and on overall QOL. In this case individuals had to indicate their level of agreement with several statements using a 5-point Likert scale from 1 “completely agree” to 5 “completely disagree”. The statements were created based on items of the WHOQOL-BREF scale and on some literature of QOL from the field of tourism (Carneiro and Eusébio, 2011; Eusébio and Carneiro, 2011). The questionnaire ended with questions regarding socio-demographic features.
The population of the study corresponded to the students of one university located in the centre of Portugal - the University of Aveiro. Respondents were selected using a quota sampling approach based on gender and area of study. In the period of April and May of 2011, the questionnaires were administered personally by researchers. A total of 412 completed questionnaires were obtained. In the sample there is a higher proportion of females (56%), singles (97%) and young tourists living in cities (58%). The respondents are very young (the average age was about 21.71).

4. Results

PLS path modelling analysis encompasses two stages. First, the evaluation of the measurement model, focusing on the analysis of each construct, is carried out. In a second stage
the structural model was assessed in order to test the hypotheses underlying the conceptual model proposed in this study.

4.1 Measurement model

The model proposed in this research includes both reflective and formative constructs. All first-order constructs are reflective, while the second-order constructs (participation in tourism activities and tourist-host interaction level) are formative.

4.1.1 Reflective constructs

As suggested by Hair, Hult, Ringle and Sarstedt (2014) and Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009), the assessment of reflective constructs was carried out by analysing reliability of the multiple-item scales, convergent validity and discriminant validity.

The reliability of the constructs was analysed using composite reliability, since it has been considered a more accurate measurement than Cronbach’s alpha (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). As presented in Table 1, in the measurement model under analysis, the composite reliabilities of all constructs are higher than 0.77, surpassing the reference value of 0.7 suggested by several authors (e.g. Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Moreover, all factor loadings are equal to or greater than 0.66, exceeding the threshold value of 0.6 suggested in the literature (Henseler et al., 2009).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct / indicators</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Indicator Loading</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nature activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting protected areas</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>1.161</td>
<td>0.816</td>
<td>34.290</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observing nature</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.227</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>32.573</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting historic villages</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>1.199</td>
<td>0.748</td>
<td>25.186</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walking on trails</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1.178</td>
<td>0.743</td>
<td>24.575</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting monuments</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.266</td>
<td>0.862</td>
<td>50.618</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting historic sites</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.162</td>
<td>0.809</td>
<td>38.352</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting museums</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.194</td>
<td>0.790</td>
<td>32.105</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in cultural events</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.174</td>
<td>0.774</td>
<td>31.209</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreation activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to nightlife places</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.209</td>
<td>0.706</td>
<td>5.549</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Going to the beach</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.208</td>
<td>0.902</td>
<td>16.489</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in training courses</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.010</td>
<td>0.886</td>
<td>32.834</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in seminars/congresses/conferences</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td>1.047</td>
<td>0.846</td>
<td>21.158</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction in attractions</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.042</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.806</td>
<td>0.676</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The convergent validity was evaluated through the Average Variance Extracted (AVE). As presented in Table 1, all first-order constructs have an AVE higher than 0.50, attesting to a good convergent validity of the scales used.

Finally, discriminant validity was assessed following Fornell and Larcker’s (1981) guidelines, to examine if a construct is more strongly related to its own measures than to any other construct. Table 2 shows the correlations between constructs, where the square root of each construct’s AVE (the diagonal elements) is higher than its correlations with any other
construct. These results indicate an appropriate discriminant validity of the constructs.

### 4.1.2 Formative constructs

Once the overall quality of the reflective constructs' measures was confirmed, the second-order constructs included in the conceptual model proposed (Figure 1) were considered. The assessment of the quality of second-order constructs comprised three stages. First, the quality of first-order constructs (which influence the second-order constructs), was tested in the previous section, and all requirements were met. In the second stage, the multicollinearity among the first-order constructs was examined. Finally, the weights and significance level of the first-order constructs on the second-order constructs were analysed.

#### Table 2: Discriminant validity of the constructs - correlations between constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Nature activities</td>
<td>0.777</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Cultural activities</td>
<td>0.568</td>
<td>0.810</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Recreation activities</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.810</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Training activities</td>
<td>0.207</td>
<td>0.234</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>0.866</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Interaction in attractions</td>
<td>0.307</td>
<td>0.472</td>
<td>0.005</td>
<td>0.143</td>
<td>0.822</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Interaction in tourism services</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>0.418</td>
<td>0.114</td>
<td>0.257</td>
<td>0.800</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Interaction in open air spaces</td>
<td>0.361</td>
<td>0.310</td>
<td>0.206</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>0.478</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Physical health</td>
<td>0.313</td>
<td>0.313</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>0.232</td>
<td>0.274</td>
<td>0.279</td>
<td>0.326</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Psychological features</td>
<td>0.244</td>
<td>0.246</td>
<td>0.172</td>
<td>0.148</td>
<td>0.223</td>
<td>0.294</td>
<td>0.323</td>
<td>0.748</td>
<td>0.778</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Social relationships</td>
<td>0.232</td>
<td>0.281</td>
<td>0.222</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>0.290</td>
<td>0.335</td>
<td>0.315</td>
<td>0.679</td>
<td>0.706</td>
<td>0.784</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Environment</td>
<td>0.401</td>
<td>0.463</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.412</td>
<td>0.366</td>
<td>0.514</td>
<td>0.676</td>
<td>0.626</td>
<td>0.605</td>
<td>0.743</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The multicollinearity was analysed through the Variation Inflation Factor (VIF). The VIF values vary between 1.003 and 2.859, and are lower than 5 as suggested by Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt (2012), thus revealing no collinearity problems. As shown in Table 3, all first-order construct weights are significant and higher than 0.10, positively influencing the second-order constructs, as suggested in the literature.
Table 3: Weights of the first-order constructs on the second-order construct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2nd Order Construct</th>
<th>1st Order Constructs</th>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participation in tourism activities</td>
<td>Nature activities</td>
<td>0.375</td>
<td>3.853***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cultural activities</td>
<td>0.541</td>
<td>5.566***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Recreation activities</td>
<td>0.393</td>
<td>4.155***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Training activities</td>
<td>0.185</td>
<td>2.404*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist-host interaction level</td>
<td>Attractions</td>
<td>0.405</td>
<td>5.618***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Open air spaces</td>
<td>0.530</td>
<td>6.063***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tourism services</td>
<td>0.352</td>
<td>3.857***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p < 0.001; **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05 based on 5000 bootstraps

4.2 Structural model

To evaluate the predictive power of the research model the explained variance ($R^2$) and Stone-Geisser’s $Q^2$ technique were used. Findings presented in Table 4 reveal that the model has a considerably good prediction power since the $R^2$ values vary between 0.182 and 0.406 and the $Q^2$ values range from 0.172 to 0.397, showing the predictive importance of endogenous constructs.

Table 4: Predictive relevance: Coefficients of determination ($R^2$) and Stone-Geisser $Q^2$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$Q^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourist-host interaction level</td>
<td>0.270</td>
<td>0.266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical health</td>
<td>0.223</td>
<td>0.215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological features</td>
<td>0.182</td>
<td>0.172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social relationships</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td>0.193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>0.406</td>
<td>0.397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall QOL</td>
<td>0.313</td>
<td>0.296</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first hypothesis predicted that participation in tourism activities had a positive impact on tourist-host interaction level, which was confirmed, registering the strongest impact of the model ($\beta = 0.52, p < 0.001$).

The findings also demonstrated a positive and significant influence of participation in tourism activities on all domains of QOL (hypotheses 2 to 5), especially on physical health ($\beta = 0.29, p < 0.001$) and on environment ($\beta = 0.29, p < 0.001$). When considering total effects (Table 5), this impact is greatly intensified in all the domains of QOL, with the total impact being higher on environment and on physical health.

Regarding hypotheses 6 to 9, tourist-host interaction level was found to significantly influence all the QOL domains, with
its highest impacts being on environment ($\beta = 0.43, p < 0.001$) and, understandably, social relationships ($\beta = 0.30, p < 0.001$).

Finally, hypotheses 10 to 13 proposed that the impact of tourism on all QOL domains analysed influences the overall QOL. Results show that only two domains of QOL reveal a significant positive impact on overall QOL. Psychological features recorded the strongest and most positive effect on overall QOL ($\beta = 0.27, p < 0.001$), followed by environment ($\beta = 0.21, p < 0.01$).

Moreover, it should be stressed that both participation in tourism activities and tourist-host interaction level also have a significant indirect impact on the perceived impact of tourism on youth tourists’ overall QOL (Table 5), which shows that it is of utmost importance to offer tourists the opportunity to engage in various tourism activities and to interact with hosts in several contexts.

Table 5: Direct, indirect and total effects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Direct</th>
<th>Indirect</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participation in tourism activities -&gt; Tourist-host interaction</td>
<td>0.520</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.520</td>
<td>12.885***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in tourism activities -&gt; Physical health</td>
<td>0.293</td>
<td>0.129</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>9.900***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in tourism activities -&gt; Psychological features</td>
<td>0.219</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td>8.478***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in tourism activities -&gt; Social relationships</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td>0.156</td>
<td>0.382</td>
<td>8.737***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in tourism activities -&gt; Environment</td>
<td>0.293</td>
<td>0.225</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>13.697***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in tourism activities -&gt; Overall QOL</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.269</td>
<td>0.269</td>
<td>8.248***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist-host interaction -&gt; Physical health</td>
<td>0.248</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.248</td>
<td>4.512***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist-host interaction -&gt; Psychological features</td>
<td>0.270</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.270</td>
<td>4.774***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist-host interaction -&gt; Social relationships</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>5.514***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist-host interaction -&gt; Environment</td>
<td>0.433</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.433</td>
<td>9.750***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist-host interaction -&gt; Overall QOL</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.207</td>
<td>0.207</td>
<td>6.075***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical health -&gt; Overall QOL</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>0.999 n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological features -&gt; Overall QOL</td>
<td>0.273</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.273</td>
<td>3.910***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social relationships -&gt; Overall QOL</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>1.077 n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment -&gt; Overall QOL</td>
<td>0.214</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.214</td>
<td>3.138**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Conclusion

The research model developed and tested in a sample of university students through PLS-SEM and presented in this paper, provides important insights regarding the factors that may influence the perception of the impacts of tourism on youth tourists’ QOL. The model examines the relationships between two important dimensions of the tourism experience - participation in tourism activities and tourist-host interaction - and perceived tourism impacts on youth tourists’ QOL.

The findings reinforce the relevance of the engagement in tourism activities to increase tourist-host interactions and the crucial role of both tourism activities and tourist-host interaction in improving the impact of tourism on all the domains of QOL considered in the study - physical health, psychological features, social relationships and environment - and, indirectly, to improve overall QOL.

This study provides several theoretical contributions that permit some advances in the research regarding tourism impacts on QOL. It enables to increase the knowledge concerning two important dimensions of the tourism experience - participation in tourism activities and tourist-host interactions - as determinants of the tourism impact on QOL. This study also permits us to expand knowledge on the youth tourism market that, as previously stated, is an important market segment, since it is very resilient to constraints such as natural features and acts of terrorism and is in the first stages of the travel career (Richards, 2007; WYSE Travel Confederation/UNWTO, 2011).

The findings of this study also provide important implications for planners and managers of tourism destinations that intend to attract the youth tourism market. First, as the results evidence that participation in tourism activities has an important role in increasing the impact of tourism on QOL, it is important to provide tourism products that promote the participation in various kinds of tourism activities (e.g. cultural, sportive and recreational activities). Considering the important role of tourism activities in stimulating tourist-host interaction it is crucial to offer tourism activities that involve the participation of local residents as guides or in co-producing activities (e.g. gastronomy and handicraft workshops) where both tourist and host may have an active role.
Despite the theoretical and practical contributions of this study, some limitations may be identified. First, the present study is limited in scope, since it focuses on the youth tourism market, specifically on students of a Portuguese university. It would be interesting to replicate this research and test the research model proposed among the youth tourism market in other countries to analyse the potential influence of cultural differences and to replicate it in other market segments (e.g. senior market). Finally, the model could be improved by incorporating other factors that may influence the impacts of tourism on tourists’ QOL (e.g. motivations) in order to increase the predictive power of the model. This is a promising research area which still is in its initial stages, and it is especially important to develop research that contributes to design tourism products that permit an improvement of the impact of tourism on youth tourists’ QOL.

6. References


23. WYSE Travel Confederation/UNWTO (2011). *The Power of Youth Travel*. WYSE Travel Confederation/UNWTO.

EXPANDING THE ICELANDIC TOURISM SATELLITE ACCOUNT AND ITS POSSIBILITIES OF USING FOR TOURISM POLICY

Cristi Frenț
Icelandic Tourism Research Centre, Iceland

This paper presents some recent developments of an expanded framework of Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) for Iceland consisting in an experimental calculation of TSA specific aggregates referring to tourism investments (Tourism Gross Fixed Capital Formation - TGFCF) and governmental consumption for some collective services (Tourism Collective Consumption - TCC). The paper will also try to illustrate the possibilities of using these aggregates for tourism policy. The results presented herein can be seen as a starting point for proving that TSA as a statistical instrument is strengthening its capabilities. Until now a number of 24 countries around the world have been identified to produce in a way or another estimates for TGFCF and/or TCC which represents more than one third of all countries that have TSA (around 60 according to the latest World Tourism Organization counts in 2010). Moreover, the usage of these estimates for tourism policy can hardly be identified.

1. Introduction

Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) is a world-wide popular method which allows the calculation of tourism contribution to the major economic aggregates (GDP, employment, value added, consumption). At the same time, TSA is an internationally-recognized statistical standard endorsed by United Nations World Tourism Organisation.
EXPANDING THE ICELANDIC TOURISM SATELLITE ACCOUNT AND ITS POSSIBILITIES OF USING FOR TOURISM POLICY

(UNWTO), Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and European Statistical Office Eurostat. The official document of this standard is called Tourism Satellite Account: Recommended Methodological Framework (TSA: RMF, 2008) and it provides major guidelines for constructing TSAs.

TSA: RMF (2008) comprises a set of ten tables recommended to be compiled by countries. Among these there are two tables which are not considered a priority and where “specific conceptual challenges” have to be faced. This is the case of TSA table 8 “Tourism gross fixed capital formation of tourism industries and other industries” (equivalent with investments) and TSA table 9 “Tourism collective consumption by products and level of government”. At the same time, it is important to underline the fact that these tables are not yet proposed by TSA: RMF (2008) to be used for international comparability because their compilation is recommended only in an advanced stage of the TSA implementation.

Tourism Satellite Account in Iceland has been produced in the period 2008-2011 by Statistics Iceland. However, no data on Tourism Gross Fixed Capital Formation (TGFCF) and Tourism Collective Consumption (TCC) were presented. Nevertheless, it should be considered that these aggregates provide valuable information about the value of investments in tourism and the expenditure made by government to support tourism by providing collective services. In fact, one might say that the macroeconomic importance of tourism would not be complete if these aggregates were not estimated.

Under these circumstances the purpose of paper is to present the recent developments of an expanded framework of TSA for Iceland referring both to TGFCF and TCC. The starting point is to provide some brief clarifications of the conceptual and methodological framework referring to these aggregates. Then, the international experience in compiling TGFCF and/or TCC is examined. The calculation of these aggregates, as an experimental exercise for Iceland for the reference year 2012 is also presented. At the end, the paper will try to show some possibilities of using these aggregates calculated for Iceland for tourism policies.
2. Some Theoretical and Methodological Issues

From the very beginning it is important to underline the fact that TSA as a method is strictly related to the framework of national accounts. Nevertheless, TSA is “much more than a subsystem of the national accounts” since a lot of additional information is needed (Smeral, 2015: 67). The principles of national accounts are used by the TSA to measure the direct impact of tourism (Frechtling, 2010).

It is the TSA: RMF (2008) the document where some guidelines on both TGFCF and TCC are presented.

Three main categories of “tourism driven investment” are proposed by TSA: RMF (2008): “Tourism-specific fixed assets”, “Investment by the tourism industries in non-tourism-specific fixed assets” and “Tourism-related infrastructure” (TSA: RMF, 2008:18). However, the category of “Tourism-related infrastructure” is not yet included in the TSA: RFM (2008) table 8, due to the “difficulties in identifying elements of tourism investments” (TSA: RMF, 2008:19).

It is stated that tourism-specific assets are “used exclusively or almost exclusively in the production of tourism characteristic goods and services. If tourism did not exist, such assets would be of little value as they could not easily converted in non-tourism tourism applications” (TSA: RMF, 2008: 18). TSA: RMF (2008) presents a list of these assets (Table 1). Mainly, there are five categories proposed out of which three categories are further classified in subcategories.

Before defining TCC it is important to know what collective consumption is. A collective consumption service is defined as: “a service provided simultaneously to all members of the community or to all members of a particular section of the community, such as all households living in a particular region. Collective services are automatically acquired and consumed by all members of the community, or section of the community, without any action on their part … by their nature, collective services cannot be sold to individuals on a market, and they are financed by government units out of taxation or other revenues (SNA, 2008: 179).
In general the most common examples of such services are “the provision of security and defence, the maintenance of law and order, legislation and regulation, the maintenance of public health, the protection of the environment etc.” (SNA, 2008: 191). For tourism, collective consumption of the government would include provision of legislation and regulatory framework for tourism or related to tourism (i.e. cultural heritage), tourism promotion, security and public order in the places visited by tourists, cleaning services of beaches, ski resorts or other areas visited by tourists and the production of tourism statistics.

Table 1: Classification of tourism-specific fixed assets according to TSA: RMF (2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Subcategories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Accommodation for visitors</td>
<td>1.1.</td>
<td>Hotels and other accommodation facilities for visitors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.2.</td>
<td>Vacation homes under full ownership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.3.</td>
<td>Vacation homes under other types of ownership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Other non-residential buildings and structures proper to tourism industries</td>
<td>2.1.</td>
<td>Restaurants and similar buildings for food-and beverage-serving services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.2.</td>
<td>Buildings and infrastructure for the long distance transport of passengers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.3.</td>
<td>Buildings for cultural and similar services mainly for use by visitors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.4.</td>
<td>Facilities for sport, recreation and entertainment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.5.</td>
<td>Other facilities and structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Passenger transport equipment for tourism purposes</td>
<td>3.1.</td>
<td>Land (including road and rail)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.2.</td>
<td>Sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.3.</td>
<td>Air</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Other machinery and equipment specialized for the production of tourism characteristic products</td>
<td>Not provided by TSA:RMF (2008)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Improvements of land used for tourism purposes</td>
<td>Not provided by TSA:RMF (2008)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


No precise definition of Tourism Collective Consumption is found in the TSA: RMF (2008) but an earlier publication of the World Tourism Organization did
present an important clarification: “Tourism collective consumption is comprised of those collective non-market services which unambiguously benefit visitors and/or those activities that serve them directly (i.e. the tourism industries)” (World Tourism Organization, 2000: 74).

An advancement from TSA: RMF (2008) is needed as more research on TGFCF and/or TCC is necessary and even recognized by the international standards. In this regard, three major proposals have been made by the author: the presentation of TGFCF according to the Central Product Classification ver. 2, identification of other non-market collective services and the usage of Classification of the Functions of the Government (COFOG) classification for tourism collective consumption (for more details see Frent (2014): 15-28).

The usage of COFOG classification has been proposed due to the fact that in a practical manner the expenditure related to collective services can be separately identified in the National Accounts only by using COFOG classification: “For the goods and services provided by government units, the borderline between individual and collective goods and services is drawn on the basis of the classification of the functions of government (COFOG)” (ESA, 2010:103).

Five categories of collective consumption called “largely related” to tourism are hereby proposed and each of them incorporates at least one related COFOG class. A generic category entitled “Economic affairs envisaging some tourism industries” includes the economic affairs which concern the businesses activating in the main tourism industries (hotels and restaurants, transport, recreation and culture). Another category proposed refers to “Public order and safety related to tourism” representing a pure collective service with relevance for tourism since one might consider that maintaining public order and safety is a service benefiting also visitors. A separate grouping is related to Research and Development (R&D) services and another one to Statistics in tourism produced by the statistical offices.

However, overall the advantage of these classifications is the fact that it follows strictly the classification of collective services as stated by the COFOG classification. In other words, there is no doubt that one can deal with a collective service. At the same time, the major disadvantage is that in
some cases the link with tourism (either visitors or suppliers from tourism industries) is not very evident.

3. International Experience in Producing Estimates of TGFCF and TCC

A number of 24 countries around the world that have developed estimates for TGFCF and/or TCC in one way or another has been identified (see Table 2). At the same time, there is a slight difference between TGFCF and TCC. It seems that more countries produced TGFCF than TCC (19 compared with 15); meanwhile ten countries were shown to produce both TGFCF and TCC.

It is important to mention that in 2010 UNTWO has identified worldwide a total number of 60 countries producing TSA (UNWTO, 2010). Considering this, one could say, grosso-modo more than one third of the countries had produced (in a one way or another) estimates for TGFCF and/or TCC.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries producing TGFCF</th>
<th>Spain, Portugal, Norway, Czech Republic, Estonia, Poland, Hungary, Slovakia, France, Netherlands, Indonesia, Philippine, Saudi Arabia, India, Thailand, Kazakhstan, Canada, Mexico, Morocco.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Countries producing TCC</td>
<td>Spain, Slovenia, Ireland, Denmark, Sweden, Poland, Netherlands, Indonesia, Philippine, India, Thailand, Kazakhstan, Mexico, Peru, Morocco.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Frent (2014): 112

Globally one can see rather an unbalanced geographical distribution of countries. Most of them are European countries, and all of these excepting Norway are EU member states.

It should be borne in mind the above situation should be taken with a sort of caution as it might happen that some countries not included in the list to provide estimates on TGFCF and/or TCC but this thing might not be disseminated in any form. An exhaustive survey on this topic at worldwide level was not the purpose of this paper since only international organizations such as UNWTO or
OECD might have the capabilities to undertake completely such an exercise. Until now there is no evidence that the estimates of TGFCF and TCC were used by countries in tourism policy purposes. This is not surprisingly since for some countries only experimental calculations have been presented. Moreover, as already mentioned, usually the compilation of these aggregates is usually met only in an advanced stage of TSA development in a country.

4. TGFCF and TCC Calculated for Iceland

Both TGFCF and TCC have been calculated for Iceland for the reference year 2012 on an experimental basis.

Compiling TGFCF was based on detailed information on the classification by types of assets and industries from the Enterprise Accounts Registers (EAR). However, a more restricted classification has been used in the Icelandic case than the one proposed by TSA: RMF (2008) entitled “Fixed assets related to tourism” (see table 3).

Table 3: The classification of “Fixed assets related to tourism” used in the experimental compilation of TGFCF in Iceland

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Proposed categories</th>
<th>Icelandic category from EAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Dwellings - vacation homes</td>
<td>0610 Summerhouses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Hotels and restaurants</td>
<td>0631 Guesthouses and restaurants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Other buildings and structures</td>
<td>0601 Offices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>for tourism industries</td>
<td>0605 Commercial buildings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0699 Other structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Passenger transport related to tourism</td>
<td>0111 Jeeps for less than 9 persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0199 Other automobiles for less than 9 persons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0501 Taxi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0509 Coach vehicles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0597 Snowmobiles ATV and motorbikes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0201 Airplanes and other aircrafts and accessories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0211 Boats under 12 tons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0239 Other ships and boats</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Frent (2014):54
In the year 2012 TGFCF for Iceland amounted to ISK 13,217.5 mil. Out of this, the tourism industries contributed with ISK 10,818.6 mil. representing 81.9% of total TGFCF. The rest of 18.1% represents the contribution of other industries to TGFCF. If one calculates the share of TGFCF in total GFCF of the Icelandic economy (which was ISK 283,456 mil. in 2012 according to Statistics Iceland) a share of 4.7% is obtained.

Regarding TCC the compilation procedure in this section follows the proposal to use COFOG classification. A new TSA aggregate entitled “Collective consumption largely related to tourism” can be derived as a sum of the proposed five categories. In total the share of this aggregate in total collective consumption for Iceland exceeded 20% in 2012.

It is important to mention that only a part of the aggregate “Collective consumption largely related to tourism” is in fact defined as Tourism Collective Consumption. For the beginning one can assume that for some categories this part is very low (i.e. Statistics in tourism produced by official statistical office or Research and development in tourism).

It was estimated that TCC for Iceland amounted to ISK 6,315.6 million in 2012 representing 4.1% of the total collective consumption in Iceland (Frent, 2014: 77). A breakdown by level of government was also calculated.

**5. Towards Using the Expanded Icelandic TSA for Tourism Policy**

Having presented above the results for Iceland, an attempt will be made to illustrate their possible usage for tourism policy. The following situations have been proposed:

- Benchmarking tourism with other economic sectors
- Presenting breakdowns of the TSA aggregates (in this case for Tourism Gross Fixed Capital Formation and Tourism Collective Consumption)
- Using some new indicators which were derived in the compilation process
5.1 Benchmarking tourism with other economic sectors/domains

This is perhaps the most needed data for policymakers when they try to illustrate the economic importance of tourism in comparison with other economic activities. Both through TGFCF and TCC can tourism be benchmark with other economic sectors.

In case of TGFCF tourism has been benchmark with nine other economic sectors (see figure 1). One can see that tourism ranks four after Manufacturing industry, Construction and Utilities. The most important issue is the fact that in Iceland tourism overpassed the fishing industry which has been the traditional economic activity of Icelanders over centuries. At the same time, tourism is superior to the following sectors: Agriculture and forestry, Real estate activities, Research and Development, Postal and telecommunication.

**Figure 1: Gross Fixed Capital Formation in tourism and other economic sectors in Iceland, 2012 (ISK mil.)**

![Gross Fixed Capital Formation in tourism and other economic sectors in Iceland, 2012 (ISK mil.)](image)

*Source: Frent (2014):76*

Regarding TCC, the benchmark can be other categories of collective consumption of the government which were derived from COFOG classification. In this case seven aggregations were made (Figure 2).
EXPANDING THE ICELANDIC TOURISM SATELLITE ACCOUNT AND ITS POSSIBILITIES OF USING FOR TOURISM POLICY

Figure 2: Tourism and other categories of collective consumption of the government in Iceland (2012) (ISK bn.)

One can see that in terms of governmental consumption for collective services, the expenditure for tourism in Iceland was rather comparable with the one for environmental protection although a little bit lower. At the same time it exceeded the expenditure made by government for housing and community amenities and the one for defence.

5.2 Presenting breakdowns of the TSA aggregates

This has rather an analytical value especially for those involved in different branches of tourism activities or different level of government (central, local, regional). In the Icelandic case, the TSA aggregate of TGFCF might be divided by types of assets, by industries or both.

For illustrative purposes the breakdown of TGFCF by types of assets is presented (see figure 3). It is observed that the category “Motor vehicles for passenger transportation” accounts for most of TGFCF (28.6%). Next is Hotels and Restaurants (18.3%) and thereafter Summer houses (vacation homes) (11.6%). Aircrafts account for 8.1% while the residual category for different buildings/constructions belonging to tourism industries (named “Other buildings and structures for tourism industries”) has 7.2%. Boats and ships have a minor contribution, only 1.5%. Other assets not identified previously belonging to tourism industries account for more than one quarter respectively 26.2%.
In a similar manner, TCC might be divided by levels of government (central and local) and specific aggregated categories from COFOG classification. The breakdown of TCC by level of government in Iceland shows that the majority of collective services came from the central government (86.7%) while the rest of 13.3% came from local authorities.

5.3 Using some new indicators which were derived in the compilation process

In the TSA compilation process a lot of data are used. However, not whole the data used are presented as final TSA results. This is the case of raw data coming from Icelandic Coast Guard (ICG) which allowed the calculation of some new indicators which were used to evaluate the related costs of rescuing tourists in Iceland (see Table 4).

It is important to mention that the services provided by the Icelandic Coast Guard are considered part of police services incurred by the government in the benefit of tourism. In Iceland, the Icelandic Coast Guard is also involved in Search and Rescue (SAR) operations both on sea and on land and in airborne emergency medical services. According to ICG in many cases there are clear evidences that tourists were subject of rescue missions, both foreigners and Icelanders. The cost of these missions is a clear governmental expenditure which has to be evaluated.
Another example refers to Research and Development (R&D) services for tourism. It was calculated that R&D services in tourism accounted for 1.5% from the total governmental consumption for R&D in Iceland in 2013. The same indicator was only 0.9% in 2009 while it has increased gradually up to 2.2% in 2012 (Frent, 2014: 65). This indicator has a very important analytical value when the government is allocating R&D funds and moreover, these are put in balance with other field of activities.

### 6. Conclusions

It is without any doubt that tourism sector needs more data and information to show its macroeconomic importance. Therefore, new data produced from an expanded framework of TSA (i.e. by including TGFCF and TCC) are more than welcomed to complete the outlook of the economic significance of tourism.

Tourism Satellite Account (TSA) provides a statistical tool, officially standardized at international level to quantify in a very comprehensive way the economic contribution of tourism. Statistics Iceland, as the official producer of statistical data has embraced the TSA system and published TSA data in the period 2008-2011. Nevertheless, there is a need to boost the future Icelandic TSA in order to incorporate estimates referring to investments (Tourism Gross Fixed Capital Formation) and governmental consumption for collective services related to tourism.

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**Table 4: Derived tourism indicators to be used by the Icelandic Coast Guard, 2013**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of tourism-related cases/missions</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of cases/missions</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism-related share of cases/missions</td>
<td>39.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of tourism cases involving Icelandans</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of Icelanders in total number of tourism-related cases/missions</td>
<td>48.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of tourism related rescued persons/patients</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of rescued persons/patients</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism-related share of rescued persons/patients</td>
<td>49.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of Icelandic rescued persons/patients in tourism-related cases/missions</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share of Icelanders in the number of tourism-related rescued persons/patients</td>
<td>60.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Frent (2014): 62
Moreover, the usage of these data for tourism policy will greatly enhance the capabilities of a TSA. This paper has shown that the expanded framework of TSA for Iceland can also be used to some extent for tourism policy. In this regard some specific examples have been provided.

The findings in this study might also strongly encourage other countries to approach the development of estimates envisaging tourism investments and governmental collective consumption of collective services in the benefit of tourism. It is time to start overcoming the conceptual and methodological challenges and producing estimates on TGFCF and TCC even if on experimental basis. These would have the potential to foster discussions and exchanges of practices between countries.

7. References

TOURISM AND POLYCENTRIC DEVELOPMENT IN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS. CASE STUDY: TRIPLE-POLE PROPOSALS IN BACĂU AND CLUJ COUNTIES (ROMANIA)

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In order to reduce socio-economic inequalities and to increase territorial cohesion, the polycentricity appeared to be the ideal solution for urban settlements with different functional and economic complementaries. Consequently, this article outlined a polycentric development scenario through tourism within the balneary area of Bacău County and the rural-mountain area of Cluj County. Thus, beyond the theoretical framework that approached key concepts such as polycentricity, tourist cluster, tourist co-operation and systems theory, other objectives involved the definition, features and deployment measures of the proposed concept, the analysis of the aforementioned settlements’ tourism supply so as to identify their specificity in terms of tourism products and services. The results highlighted that the first case study could specialize in health tourism, and the second one on recreational tourism, following the principles of polycentric development, the mediator between the complementarity and variety of tourist resources and services.

1. Introduction

Many regions of the world face uneven development, whether this situation is encountered at a local level or at a national one, such as in the case of all former communist
countries within which the development process was apparently misunderstood and the attention was focused on a centralised development, rather than on a integrated one.

The lack of an effective planning led to polarisation phenomenon, that solely encouraged the evolution of the urban centres that had already held influence on adjacent areas. Therefore, economic flows were only oriented towards polarising centres and, once again, the rest of territory did not receive the adequate amount of attention.

However, the specialised literature came up with a solution for combating the territory disparities, defining it as polycentric development, that is opposed to monocentricity.

Targeting urban centres, policentricity aims at territorial cohesion and economic performance improving through establishment of functional urban cooperation, taking into account the territory spreading and socio-economic relations between those settlements. In general, the polycentric development is favourable when two or more urban centres hold certain functions that complement each other (Olsson and Cars, 2011).

Being a complex phenomenon, both from a structural and a functional point of view, tourism targets not only an attractive heritage, in order to achieve an efficient development, but also an area that is characterised by a positive economic situation (Riley and Love, 2000). In this line, the polycentric development through tourism has a greater chance of success when it is implemented on urban centres.

Thus, the actual study attempts to outline a new concept that implies tourism and polycentricity. For achieving this goal, several objectives were engaged. Firstly, a series of concepts like polycentric development, tourist cluster, system theory, and tourist co-operation were taken into consideration by adopting a theoretical analysis.

Subsequently, a detailed look into the situation of tourist heritage, tourism infrastructure and tourism related services belonging to the examined settlements/resorts was presented, aiming to highlight the common and authentic aspects of each case study. Following-up, series of proposals were made to support tourist co-operation regarding tourist planning and the interrelations between operational elements of tourism infrastructure.
Moinești Municipality, Târgu Ocna and Slănic Moldova health resorts are situated in the western part of Bacău County, inside Subcarpathian zone (Gaman, 2014). The tourism supply of each destination is based on the curative type because all of them possess resources with high therapeutic values. Furthermore Moinești Municipality is also recognised for Tristan Tzara’s spirit along with the Jewish one and for the oil existence (first documentary mentioning of world’s oil extraction). On the other hand, while Târgu Ocna is also known for its salt mine (the deepest salt church in Europe), Slănic Moldova won its notoriety due to the presence of 21 mineral water springs and SPA Sanatorium services.

The second case study, which also targets a triple-pole proposal, focuses on Cluj’s rural-mountain area, Băișoara Mountain Resort, Beliș-Fântânele Resort, and Râchițele village being located in the northeastern part of Apuseni Mountains (Western Carpathians) (Ghinea, 2002). What made Băișoara Mountain famous was the homonymous tourist resort, mainly appreciated for the possibilities of practicing winter sports. Favourable conditions determined the emergence of sports competitions and events, not only ski-related, but also
running, mountain biking and off-road competitions (Răcășan, 2015). On the other hand, Beliș-Fântânele Resort became popular first because its location, on the shores of the homonymous water storage reservoir (Fântânele Lake), secondly due to the therapeutic benefits of the climate that mediated achievement of the “balneoclimateric resort” status (Ciagă, 2007), and thirdly because of the recreational activities and sports, mostly water-based. Răchițele village owes its notoriety to the homonymous waterfall (also known as Bride’s Veil), measuring 50 metres in height (Pop, 2007).

Figure 2: County contextualization of Băișoara, Râșca and Mărgău

2. Theory and Methodology

The main problem that urban and rural settlements are confronting, when it comes to tourism phenomenon, is the absence of a diversified tourism supply that is not capable to satisfy tourist needs. In this context, the polycentric development could be seen as a solution, in case if each settlement specialised itself from tourism point of view, in
order to materialise a tourist co-operation and to initiate a general supply.

This concept is clearly defined as the situation in which two or more cities can complement each other, functionally speaking, by providing citizens and companies in their conjoined hinterlands access to urban functions that would usually only be offered by higher-ranking cities; cities should co-operate by joining existing assets, especially the complementary ones (ESPON 1.1.1, 2005).

Related examples are given by several studies, such as “POLYCE- Metropolisation and Polycentric Development in Central Europe”, elaborated by ESPON in 2012, which brings into question five European capitals: Bratislava, Budapest, Ljubljana, Prague and Wien, "A Strategic Knowledge and Research Agenda on Polycentric Metropolitan Areas" study, done by The European Metropolitan Network Institute, that examines six metropolitan areas: Linköping-Norrköping (Sweeden), Gdańsk-Gdynia-Sopot (Poland), Leipzig-Halle-Dresden (Germany), Rotterdam-The Hague (Holland), Porto (Portugal), Milan (Italy), and "Tri-City Region" which investigates the case of a famous academic centre in Poland, where the three cities - Gdańsk, Gdynia and Sopot - are situated, the metropolitan region of Mitteldeutschland (Germany), integrating Dresden, Leipzig, Halle, Chemnitz and Zwickau cities, and the metropolitan region of Rotterdam-The Hague.

An eloquent study made by ESPON (2010) is “The case for agglomeration economies in Europe” which brings into question the metropolitan zone of Lyon and Rhone-Aleps region.

Concerning tourist collaboration, an eloquent definition refers to a process that includes durable and frequent interactions between government agencies, tourist enterprises, residents and NGO and follows gradual elimination of obstacles to reciprocity by transforming strategic settings, in order to market more destinations into a single one (Sonmez and Apostolopoulos, 2000).

On the subject of clusters, the tourism ones are characterised by interrelated companies, promoting joint actions, agglomeration formation (Jackson and Murphy, 2002). They represent a geographical concentration of interconnected institutions and companies in tourist
activities (Porter, 1998, Capone, 2004), are equipped with qualitative services and facilities, collective efficiency, social and political cohesion, network companies management that generate competitive and comparative benefits (Beni, 2003; Costa, 2005), and their objective is to bring together companies that usually act alone. Besides, in order to develop a tourism cluster requires the existence of competitive companies, favorable geographic location, natural potential, cultural traditions, gastronomy, favorable hospitality, various partners among which formal and informal links are established (Novell, 2006).

A proper definition that semantically approaches the proposed concept states that tourism clusters are geographic concentration of companies and institutions interconnected in tourism activities, whose value as a whole is greater than the sum of its parts, so that they can produce synergy, through their geographical proximity and their interdependence (Flower and Easterling, 2006).

The most basic definition of system concept refers "to a group of interacting components that conserves an identifiable set of relations, whose sum of components along with their relations, conserving some identifiable set of relations to other entities" (Macy, 1991: 72).

Regarding the methodology that mediated the objectives achievement several methods were employed, among which worth noting analysis, comparison, observation, graphic and cartographic ones. While the analysis method was mainly engaged within the theoretical framework establishment (from aspects regarding the evolution of the examined concepts to their definition and features), within the data procurement and interpretation related to both urban and rural triple-pole destination proposals; the comparison method focused more on revealing the results of the two case studies. Not only quantitative and qualitative aspects of the tourism supply were taken into consideration, but also proposals that were formulated on the basis of the current reality, which aimed to obtain a balanced tourism development inside each study area. In order to achieve a better perspective of tourism present and future status, graphic and cartographic representations, mediated by Microsoft Excel 2011 and ArcGis 9.3, were equally used. Thus, a general tourism supply integrating three compatible
sub-supplies was finally configured, putting on the map both the health supply of Bacău County’s balneary area (specialised in climatotherapy, saline microclimate, and hydrotherapy) and the recreational supply Cluj County’s of rural-mountain area (suitable for winter sports tourism, water-based tourism, and nature-based tourism).

Thus, through these research methods was aimed to create a general tourist offer at the level of each study case, where was tried to form a compatibility inside tourist phenomenon components. Subsequent were identified or proposed the specific elements of each settlement tourist potential in order to create a compatible offer of a case study. Each urban or rural center must participate in general offer level with different primary tourist products. Otherwise, one of them will fail because two similar offers will not survive inside a tourist triade presented in each case study.

3. Results and Discussions

Once completed the theoretical analysis of the previous concepts, the definition of polycentric development by through tourism was finally established. Therefore, the proposed concept refers to an ensemble of two or more settlements that through connectivity, ensured by transport infrastructure, complementarity, compatibility of individual tourist heritage, and through co-operation between main stakeholders could form a general tourism supply composed of different tourist contributions of all settlements involved, in order to market them into a single destination.

A notable feature of the concept of polycentric development through tourism concept concerns the existence of at least two settlements/resorts, which are characterised by a relatively high tourist value, a uniform distribution across a territory and a good accessibility.

All settlements/resorts, or at least most of them, possess similar tourist attractiveness levels and benefit from specific conditions of tourism development. If the inadvertences are minor, they could be eliminated through the proposals session so that the tourist would not be constrained to choose a destination based other considerations rather than the quality of tourist services.
All settlements/resorts taken into account form a general tourism supply based on a single type of tourism (health tourism, recreational tourism etc), but in order display a pertinent case study the sub-supplies must be different.

In order to complement each other, all settlements/resorts involved in a polycentric development process should equally bring their contribution to the configuration of the general tourism supply, by means of their tourist services.

All tourist destinations involved within a polycentric development tourism process act like a system whose interacting parts aim to create and develop a general tourism supply. These destinations are not only interrelated, sharing common goals, but they are marketed into a single destination. In this train of thought, the informational materials promote the entire area where these settlements/resorts are located, presenting them as a unitary concept of destination, not separately.

Other advantages of the implementation of polycentric tourism development retrospects to the fact that during a single stay one could benefit from tourist services in all settlement/resort.

In another train of thoughts the distance factor should be the last concern while travelling between settlements/resorts. Thus, given a general tourism supply integrating several destinations, whose tourist services appeal to a tourist, he should feel free to travel between destinations, without worrying about comfort and time spent on his way from a place to another.

Acknowledging the fact that interrationship is the key to a sustainable polycentric tourism development, all elements belonging to the material and technical base of tourism should be interraled, not only inside a settlement but also in-between destinations. In this circumstances, all accommodation units should be interconnected, holding and providing information about the status of each structure integrated within the destination. For this to happen, a software program should be developed and implemented, which would eventually contribute to monitoring other tourist receiving structures such as catering units, recreational ones and even auxiliary services. Interrelations should be extended also between travel agencies and tourist
information centres, whose services should include mutual promotion and support in terms of information (tourist attractions, activities, promotional materials) and staff sharing (tour guides, entertainers). Furthermore, the transport connection should be ensured (by a functional transport system integrating minibuses and buses), whereas within the entertainment sector, tourist events should benefit from updated information, displayed both within promotional materials (events calendars) and billboards in public locations which would provide visibility and promotion of both event and the host destination. Finally, the tourist marketing policy of each destination should ensure active promotion through informational materials (posters, brochures, video presentations, book-guides, tourist maps, albums) available in several international languages and active participation to national and international conferences, reunions and fairs which would ensure the valorization of the tourism supply of the related destinations.

Figure 3: The suitable areas for climatotherapy of Moinești Municipality
By having in common the possession of mineral water springs, the three destinations within the first case study brings into question health tourism, as a dominant tourism type.

Implementing the proposed concept, would imply that each destination creates a health-based supply relying on different therapeutic factors. Thereby, given the quality and the diversity of the mineral water springs in Slânic Moldova, the best solution for this health resort is to focus on the hydrotherapy component, whereas Târgu Ocna should contribute to the general supply with the salt mine microclimate component.

The first proposal refers to the specialisation of Moineşti Municipality on climatotherapy in order to complete the general health tourism supply within this case study. In this line, the related objectives dealt with the identification of suitable areas for climatotherapy, followed by the planning process of paths, terraces, solariums that enables terrain cures, aerotherapy, and heliotherapy.

The second proposal concerns the diversification of the accommodation sector in Moineşti Municipality. In this manner, in the absence of hotels, building of this kind of units with treatment base is fully recommended.

The next proposal is centred upon recreational base, the element that has the largest influence on the diversity level of a tourist stay, targeting all destinations from this case study. In this conditions, not only the planning of multipurpose halls that allow different sports activities (football, handball, basketball, table tennis, field tennis, billiards etc) is recommended, but also the planning of outdoor units.

The fourth proposal recommends the planning of specialised catering units providing specific food and beverage, health catering units, in all destinations.

Also noteworthy is the fact that although Moineşti is specialised on climatotherapy, Târgu Ocna on salt mine microclimate therapy and Slânic Moldova on hydrotherapy, the tourism supply must be composed of other types of treatment too. For example, besides climatotherapy, Moineşti can offer hydrotherapy as well, even though the quality level would not be the same as the one that Slânic Moldova provides.
In order to apply the concept of polycentric development, even in the case of rural localities, they should specialise their tourism sub-supply within the same tourism type, which in this situation is the recreational one, and even more specific, within the sports tourism one: winter-based activities in Bâișoara Mountain Resort, water-based activities in Beliș-Fântânele Resort, and nature-based activities in Răchițele village. Although predictable, the locality-activity relationship becomes more nuanced when the seasonality interferes.

Hence, during winter months, Bâișoara should focalise on downhill skiing (alpine skiing) and related competitions.

Conversely, Beliș’s contribution to the general tourism supply, in the same hibernal-recreational manner, should concern cross-country skiing (nordic skiing) and associated contests.

By contrast, Răchițele could put itself on the map of sports supply through an extreme winter activity that depends on the waterfall’s freezing process: ice climbing.

For the rest of the year, the general tourism supply, which joins together the three destination from Cluj County’s mountain sector, could consider other sports that would eventually customise each of the three component sub-supplies: mountain biking and off-road sports (Bâișoara Mountain Resort), fishing, boating, running competitions, orienteering and cyclotourism (Beliș-Fântânele Lake) (Râcășan, 2015).

A suitable proposal should aim to adapt the accommodation structural and functional features to the specific of the tourism sub-supply. In this line, the three examined localities should provide the possibility of renting ski and snowboard equipment, depending on the dominant winter sport activity unfolded during the hibernal season; both nautical and fishing equipment (in Beliș-Fântânele); off-road and bikes rentals, for hard activities (e.g. mountain biking, enduro etc.) and for soft ones (i.e. cyclotourism).

In order to fully enjoy their experience, tourists should be constantly informed of new opportunities to spend their vacation, inside and outside the destination, reason for why, the existence of a tourist information centre in each of the three locations is a must.

Other proposal that aims to improve the quality of the conditions in which sports are practiced involves reviewing
the current status of all marked trails and paths in order to make them more visible or to complete them where needed.

In spite of being specialised in one tourism form or another, each destination integrates within its general supply, the possibility of practicing complementary activities. Some of them are common to all resorts/villages, such as hiking and trekking, cyclotourism, sightseeing and photo-tours, rural tourism, event tourism, or winter sports that do not require special infrastructure; and others join together the two resorts or the village and one resort.

The former situation reveals the link between Beliş Fântânele and Băişoara Mountain whose therapeutic effect induced by climatic conditions put them on the map of climateric resorts. Furthermore, both of them host events such as winter sports competitions inside or within their surroundings which bring into prominence skiing and/or sledging (i.e. Dog Sled Racing Contest in Beliş), and cultural manifestations such as traditional celebrations (Răcășan, 2015).

4. Conclusion

The polycentric development through tourism represents an usefulness in tourism development practice, given that each destination should adapt its tourism supply to the preferences of modern tourists who look for continuity, diversity and quality services inside of his stay. Furthermore, the proposed concept promotes tourist co-operation between two or more destinations in order to create a general tourism supply, that would eventually integrate the sub-supplies of each co-destination.

A prerequisite for creating a general tourism supply consists in a pre-existing compatibility between a destinations’ tourist services, which lies in the specificity of each destination’s sub-supply, ensuring a functional tourist co-operation. Antithetically, the tourist coherence disappears because when two settlements/resorts offer identic services or services that do not belong to a common tourism type, one destination will end by facing a considerable recession, influenced by the services quality level previously offered.
Certainly, a general tourism supply can be based on all tourism types and forms, but the present study attempted to reveal development scenarios for health and recreational (sports) tourism, being quite complicated to ensure a compatibility between destinations. The health tourism needs natural therapeutic factors and the polycentric development through tourism depends on their location which not often are closely situated and presents compatibility in the same time. On the other hand, recreational tourism also depends on a destination's tourist resoucers which, similar to the previous situation, are quite hard to find in the circumstances under which a certain compatibility between settlements/resorts that are located near each other is being discussed.

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5. References


According to the Statistics Norway (2012), only 12 percent of the businesses within tourism report to have conducted product- or process innovation from 2008 until 2010. This is significantly lower than the innovation level of other sectors. However, there is "an incomplete understanding of how innovation processes take place in tourism enterprises and organizations, including what types of capacities and incentives they draw on" (Hjalager, 2010). This paper investigates further the innovation practices, with a particular focus on how academic research contributes to innovation processes within tourism. The empirical material is based on 70 qualitative interviews performed in 2014-2015, as well as in-depth case studies. The findings suggest that there is a high degree of innovation activities in tourism, although mostly incremental. In order for academia to contribute significantly and be relevant in innovation processes, it has to be able to cross and mix knowledge borders and researcher positions.
1. Introduction

The innovation survey of Statistics Norway (2012), which reveals that the tourism sector has a lower innovation level than other sectors, is a part of Eurostat’s Community Innovation Survey (CIS). The survey is based on the international standard of the Oslo manual from 1997, stating that innovation is:

The implementation of a new or significantly improved product (good or service), or process, a new marketing method, or new organisational method in business practices, workplace organisation or external relations (Oslo manual, 2005).

In a sector facing dramatic changes in its environment - e.g. the rapid digital developments and growth of the ‘shared economy’ - it is surprising that established companies only to a small extent seem to launch innovations. Could this be correct? According to Hjalager (2012:350):

It is asserted that tourism businesses and activities are not sufficiently represented in global analysis and surveys and that the results that come out of initial standardised, quantitative studies and surveys are contradictory to an extent that requires further examination (Hjalager, 2012:350).

This paper is based on research projects on, for and with nearly 100 companies within tourism, cultural and creative industries. From user-driven research projects co-owned by 11 industrial groups within the infrastructure (hotels, restaurants and transport), by 18 institutions and firms of content providers (art and cultural institutions), as well as a cluster of 100 companies representing an even wider value chain (from guest streams, distribution, content and infrastructure, as well as academic institutions as universities and research centers, and public actors), the findings suggested that the results from the SN survey were incorrect. All companies had extensive innovation activities (Aas and Hjemdahl, 2015; Hjemdahl and Frykman, 2016). However, this innovation activity was essentially incremental.

Worth noticing is that the radical innovations in large contains new global partnerships and digitalization, along with
the key words big data and streaming. It also suggests new partnerships or ownerships across wider fields of the value chain. There are rare examples of disruptive innovations.

Even if the innovations are not new to the market, they can still be new to the companies. The same innovation process might be considered as either incremental or radical for the companies, based on where in the value chain one is positioned. For instance, investing in new revenue management methods and systems are considered as incremental innovations from the infrastructural firms while most of the content providers regard implementation of dynamic pricing as highly radical.

Figure 1: innovation examples received during the interviews

Note: green = infrastructure (hotel, restaurant, transport), yellow = content deliverers (art, culture, experience)

Innovation research has documented that manufacturing firms may increase their innovativeness by involving academia in their innovation processes (Agrawal, 2001; Lim, 2004; Rubin, Aas and Stead, 2015). However, due to differences between manufacturing and tourism it is not obvious that this innovation strategy is relevant for tourism firms. As pointed out by Hjalager (2010), there is a knowledge gap as to how tourism runs their innovation processes, and what resources they utilize.

This paper focuses on how academic research can contribute to innovation processes in tourism. Thus, in this paper we raise the following research question: How can
2. Theoretical Overview

The discussion of the relationship between research and innovation has a long tradition in the innovation literature. In general, this literature suggests that research and innovation are like Siamese twins (hence the term R&D), and according to Branstetter and Ogura (2005) “the recent economics literature suggests that the linkage between frontier science and industrial technology is stronger and more direct than in the past” (Branstetter and Ogura, 2005:7). The literature suggests that research may play both a direct and a more indirect role in firms’ innovation processes. The indirect type is sometimes referred to as ‘knowledge spillover’ (Adams, 1990), meaning that knowledge produced by research are used by firms as input in their innovation processes. The more direct type is collaborations between firms’ innovation departments and research departments or collaborations with external research institutions, such as universities. The results of innovation management research suggest that such collaboration may be valuable from an innovation perspective (Rubin, Aas and Stead, 2015).

However, most research on the relationship between research and innovation are based on data from manufacturing industries. Research has indicated that the way service industries, including tourism, organize their innovation activities is different from the way manufacturing industries organize these activities (Droege, Hildebrand and Forcada, 2009). Already in 1986 Barras (1986) suggested that innovation activities in service firms were characterized by what he called a “reversed product cycle” (Barras, 1986:161). His findings suggested that radical innovations were developed by the manufacturing industry often in the form of new technologies, whereas firms in the service industry typically were only adopters of this technology. Furthermore, tourism firms rarely have R&D departments or other dedicated resources for innovation, and there are rarely spin-offs from universities (Drejer, 2004; Flikkema et al., 2007, Christensen (2008) and Sundbo (1997) recognize that service enterprises do innovate but that
search and knowledge acquisition processes take place in a more complex and informal manner (Hjalager, 2010:5).

Thus, due to differences between product innovation and service innovation it is not necessarily true that the insights provided by extant research are relevant for service innovation, including innovation in tourism. This paper addresses this literature gap.

3. Methodological Approach

By various entering points as researchers, through four specific research and development programs, the innovations processes are examined through different stages. The four R&D programs are so-called user-driven, which means co-financed by the firms and public funding.

Two of the projects focus on the innovation practice of the firms, and get access to the innovation projects and processes mostly after it is finished. In total 70 interviews have been conducted. Of these were 32 from the so-called infrastructural actors (hotels, transport and restaurants), while 38 were content deliverers (art and cultural institutions, niche experience companies). There were one to eight employees representing the companies by taking part in the interviews.

Figure 2: Resource- and practice-oriented practices in innovation

The interviews lasted two hours in average, and were structured according to a semi-structured interview guide based on Frohle and Roths (2007), Tidd and Bessant (2013), PDMA (Product Development Management Association) and practice literature (Orlikowski, 2002) (see figure 2). The focus of the interviewing were on ongoing and recently terminated innovation initiatives, innovation activities conducted and the
resources used during and after the innovation processes. This paper concentrates on the intellectual resources.

The 70 qualitative interviews represent a researcher position as “researching on” the tourism industry, and their innovation practice. Within the two research projects (Reisepol and Reason to Return), there is also a shift in researcher position towards a “researching for”. Based on the analysis of innovation practices, further ambitions and research needs, the projects continue a dialogue with the industry partners on in-depth case studies. Here the researchers enter innovation processes in earlier phases. A more action based research method (Greenwood and Levin, 1998; Tiller 2004) is used for this researcher position. Here vital elements are to provide adequate knowledge foundation, analyze the data inputs and its relevance to the ongoing innovation processes. This way, the researchers participate in high-risk processes, and the cases represent successful, failed and still ongoing innovation processes (Hjemdahl, 2016; Holst-Kjær, 2011; 2016).

Furthermore, a third position of the researcher framing a methodological base in this paper is the one “researching with”. Here the two additional research projects enter, the innovation program VRI from the Norwegian Research Council and the regional cluster called USUS. USUS is a cluster owned by pt 105 companies within tourism, cultural and creative industries, co-working with multiple academic disciplines and institutions and co-financed by the Innovation Norway Cluster Program. Within these programs, the companies own the research projects, and the researchers enter early phases of the innovation process. This might even be as early as helping the firms defining their research needs, and to search for relevant academic knowledge to address this. Both programs highlight the importance of research based innovation. The academics hold both strategic positions (as board members, project- and cluster leaders, and research teams mapping research needs) and operative (as competence brokers, researchers co-develop and conduct specific user-driven research projects). Many of these researcher positions are based on an applied phenomenological approach of “situated praxis”, “practical mimesis”, and following in the footsteps of (Frykman and Gilje, 2003; Hjemdahl, 2003; 201; Jackson, 1983; 1996).
4. Results

Our findings suggest that academic research may play an important role in tourism firms innovation processes. However, in order for academia to contribute significantly to ongoing innovation processes, and to be relevant in processes for stimulating further innovations in the industry, it has to be able to cross and mix academic knowledge boarders and researcher positions.

The empiric material from the 70 qualitative interviews shows an overall limited contribution from academic research. Regarding the process oriented practices, the innovation ideas come from many sources (employees, own management, customers, competitors surveillance, from other partners in the network, from actors outside the sector), but traditional R&D is seldom mentioned as a source. Only a few of the companies have their own R&D departments. Further, the innovation steering groups are professionalized, while the project teams are ad hoc. External commercial actors (ex-providers, consults) often play a central role in processing innovation projects, but academic milieus are rarely mentioned. These findings are in line with Hjalager (2010), suggesting that new approaches are needed to create a better insight.

It is of particular interest to notice that the lack of academic involvement in the innovation processes is relevant also for firms and institutions that actually have their own research departments, such as the museums. Despite having the research departments in-house, these are not mentioned as contributors to the innovation processes. On the contrary, the research departments are by some in fact highlighted as a gate keeper for preserving the existing. Challenges of knowledge transfer and organisational silo formations are highlighted as well, in relation to the in-house research departments. As Barras (1986) pointed out while claiming that service innovation was different than manufacturing innovation by not being technology driven, and therefore the research also got a more indirect role in the innovation process. Maybe this also can be the situation for the tourism industry, particular among the content delivers?

As for the resource oriented practices, there is an acknowledgement that the sector is in need of becoming more
research based. The innovation director in one of the infrastructural groups that had its own innovation department claims: “The sector has an illusion of being customer driven, but the many individual guest meetings every day is perhaps more of a disadvantage”. By this he meant that lots of customer data is gathered, but seldom proper analysis, developments and evaluations are being done. Therefore one runs the danger of not being adequately market oriented.

A significant shift in the infrastructure industries was the centralization and globalization of nearly all marked oriented activities from local units to headquarters. Even if a need for more formalized knowledge was wanted, the majority found that there was not updated or relevant tourism education in Norway, particularly within business critical areas (such as digitalization, CRM, RM, big data). The operational resources were on the other hand more connected to attitude and skills than formal education.

However, there were explicitly expressed wishes from most firms to engage in development of the education institutions. Specific examples of contributions that were mentioned were: ‘strategically as board members’, ‘participants in specific user-driven R&D-projects’, and ‘defining common R&D-infrastructural needs such as innovation labs’. There seems to be a rising awareness of how critical relevant knowledge is for meeting the rather dramatic changes the sector is facing.

As mentioned, there are more incremental than radical innovations in the sector. Even if many acknowledge the need to address challenges of for instance disruptive innovation from third part providers, rapid technological developments or change making business models based on the ‘shared economy’, few act adequately towards it. In the few radical and disruptive innovations that is found within the research material, the firms seek “completely new” and complimentary combinations of knowledge resources. These are organized in temporary organizational formats such as advisory boards within the innovation departments, or more externally in form of different network cooperations or clusters. In these cases, research seems to play a role in contributing to and impact the innovation processes.

One such example is the USUS Cluster in Southern Norway, consisting of some 100 companies representing a wide value chain including content deliverers, infrastructural firms, academic institutions, and public actors.
The USUS cluster was initiated in 2010 by an experience industrial group where the holding company also was their innovation department, and where the cluster cooperation was a significant part of their innovation strategy. The purpose of the cluster initiative was that “it is vital to professionalize the entire sector that serves the guest flows, and for that, we need research based development and innovations”, as formulated by the CEO of this group.

The research resources are both strategically and operationally involved in the cluster development, and cover a broad specter of purposes. In cooperation with the cluster as a whole as well as with specific cluster firms, researchers contribute to identifying research needs and relevant academic competences, initiate and conduct user-driven R&D-projects. The number and ambitions of ongoing research projects has risen from 2010-2015. Annually there is approximately 8-10 high risk pre-projects running, co-financed through the VRI-programme. These low scale test-projects have been vital to the increased will to invest in main projects, including PhD’s and post-doc, in co-operation with regional and national research foundations.

Key contributions from the research resources are to challenge, translate, clarify, examine, explain, explore and implement. Relational competence seems to be almost equally important as specialist research competence, due to the high level of trust that is required to be let in on business critical matters. The firms demand specialist competences that from a wide range of fields of knowledge, which does not relate to traditional academic knowledge boarders as faculties and institutes. Most research projects have interdisciplinary teams. Often these include knowledge fields within both humanistic, social and natural sciences, such as economy, marketing, strategy, innovation, biology, culture and art.

Key findings from the USUS cluster are that there is an increased will to invest in relevant research from the cluster companies, when these are user-driven and owned by the companies. In the initial phase of the cluster activities, the larger companies reported to get return on research investments. “For the first time we experience to get return on investment on a shorter term than we are used to. The previous cooperations we have joined have not included researchers and academy. This makes the difference”, as the
board leader of the USUS cluster expressed. Later, smaller companies reported equal experiences. First and foremost these positive results seem to be connected to innovation processes that are new to the firms, but not necessarily new to the marked. In a recent strategic upscale of the USUS cluster, the research is highlighted as a vital enabler to increase more radical and disruptive innovation processes.

**Key challenges** are connected to an incoherent relationship between relational competence and specialist competence, both on a personal and institutionalized level. Although, there seems to be an increased will from academy to acknowledge business-driven knowledge building, the incitements within academy are inadequately rewarding such developments. The understanding of roles and positions in user-driven research projects are weakly developed within parts of the tourism sector and within certain academic disciplines.

Additionally, the funding criteria from the national research programs are a challenge. There are few national research programs addressing the sector of tourism, cultural and creative businesses, and the large so-called sector neutral programs are more tailored towards product innovation than service innovation. This is in line with findings from Lengrad (2002), who analyses different generations of innovation tools ability to meet different sectorial needs. Hjalager (2012) suggest that:

> Significant tourism sectors such as hotels, restaurants and transportation seldom carry out formal research activities, and hence, the idea of launching financial support, in line with the first generation of policy actions can hardly be regarded as efficient for the stimulation of innovation» (Hjalager, 2012: 349).

If our findings in the USUS cluster case represent a broader emerging interest in and willingness to carry out formal research activity within the tourism, cultural and creative industries, it might turn out to be efficient to develop more tailored programs to address the research needs of this sector. As seen from the USUS cluster case, there is a will of investment from the private sector to invest in research that exceeds the public willingness to co-finance.
5. Conclusion

This paper examined if and how academic research can contribute to and impact innovation processes in tourism. Our findings suggest that academic research holds a marginal role in the innovation processes, but also that there is an emerging acknowledgement of relevant research and knowledge production. There is a clearly expressed will from the firms to participate in defining what is relevant in the academic educations and research. Furthermore, our findings suggest that academic research may plan an important role in the firm’s innovations processes. If so, this presupposes the ability for academic research to be able to cross and mix knowledge boarders and researchers positions to come in position to contribute significantly.

6. References


TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR IN INTERNATIONAL STUDENT LANGUAGE TOURISM

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This paper offers a conceptualization of language tourism and the language tourism market system based on Ritchie’s model of educational tourism. A small scale quantitative survey was conducted at the School of Hospitality and Tourism Management EUHT CETT-UB, from the University of Barcelona (Spain). The participants were a group of 35 foreign students who joined the Bachelor’s Degree in Tourism Management, mostly for one term. For almost all of the non-native Spanish speakers learning Spanish was the main motivation for taking part in that international mobility programme. Three travel behaviour areas were analysed: the social immersion of non-native Spanish speakers in their academic destination, their use of tourist services and their associated costs. The results shed light on the limited interaction with the local students, the most popular accommodation and catering arrangements, means of transport and leisure activities among the respondents, and their average expenditure on a monthly basis.

1. Introduction

Language travel is a healthy sector, an industry whose value was estimated at US$11,516,055,060 in 2012 in the major English speaking destinations (Norris, 2013). Research on language travel has so far examined the benefits of study abroad stays in the field of second language acquisition viewing sojourners as language learners rather than as language tourists. On the other hand, the impacts of
academic mobility programmes are not usually analysed from a language tourism perspective either despite the fact that language learning is one of the reasons for international academic mobility, hence the need to revise the concept of language tourism and to design an unprecedented framework which can be used to study this phenomenon in practical terms.

Following Ritchie’s work on educational tourism (2003) a model of the language tourism market system has been developed taking into consideration the idiosyncratic features of this specific niche (Iglesias, 2014; 2015). The main constituents of the language tourism experience concerning both the demand and the supply will be outlined, with a special focus on language tourists’ travel behaviour. These are the principles underlying the survey which will be presented in this paper, along with future lines of research and steps forward.

The general research objective consisted in examining the travel behaviour of a group of international students by formulating specific objectives aiming at analysing three areas related to their travel patterns in particular: the social immersion of non-native Spanish speakers in their academic destination, their use of tourist services and their associated costs.

2. Theoretical Overview on Language Tourism

Following Ritchie (2003) and the UNWTO (2008) language tourism may be defined as a tourist activity undertaken by those travellers (or educational tourists) taking a trip which includes at least an overnight stay in a destination outside their usual place of residence for less than a year and for whom language learning is a primary or secondary part of their trip (Iglesias, 2014; 2015).

The model presented in this article aims at putting a spotlight on the main ingredients that make up the language tourism experience. Figure 1 offers an overview of the aspects related to the consumer as well as the product-related factors.

Focusing on the travel behaviour of study abroad sojourners, their past language tourism experiences need to be taken into account as they may influence their current perspectives. In this sense, first-timers’ beliefs and attitudes may be determined by different psychological factors, from eagerness, excitement and openness to new situations, to reluctance, shyness or even fear of the unknown. Conversely,
those who have previous experience may be conditioned by it as regards the various elements of the language tourism product: the travel component (i.e. transport, accommodation, catering and leisure) and the learning component (i.e. the educational input and the language learning complements). All in all, their previous experience in relation to a product or destination may cause a positive or negative interference if transferred to their present context.

Figure 1: The language tourism market system

As for the timing of the consumers’ stay, since the maximum duration of tourism activities is one year, it would be reasonable to consider that short study abroad stays can last up to one month, mid-term stays can take between one and six months, and long-term stays can extend up to one year. The length and period when study abroad occurs are relevant factors. A language tourist’s experience taking place in a specific season, particularly in the summer or in a destination’s peak season, may differ a great deal from study abroad programmes going on year round, for example in terms of perceived authenticity, trivialisation, massification or opportunities for contact with peer students or local residents.

When it comes to planning the language trip, mediation in terms of searching for information and making the necessary arrangements and purchase may be fundamental, since relying on intermediary agents involves a different line of action from independent planning. The search for information may
include turning to references provided by direct acquaintances (e.g. friends, relatives or teachers) or by indirect acquaintances (e.g. travel planners or institutions), which may have associated costs. Information details may be acquired through different channels, with a predominance of on line searching in today's globalised world.

As far as decision making is concerned, the final choice of the selected language tourism product is, of course, key. Whether the product is configured as a travel package including the above mentioned components or single components are picked up, making an appropriate selection will have a direct impact on the customer’s experience and satisfaction. The final selection may be the result of extensive market research or a simple process based on first choice.

With respect to the arrangements which need to be made once the language product has been picked up, besides the booking of travel services (including accommodation, transport, etc.) the language learning arrangements may encompass the reception of an admission letter or a letter of acceptance to a language course. This may be a compulsory requirement to enter certain countries. Language tourists may also be asked to fill in a registration form and/or take a placement test to identify their foreign language proficiency level. Some of these arrangements may be made through study abroad intermediary agencies, which are usually in charge of some legal formalities too. Such formalities can refer to the need to issue certain documents in order to travel to the language tourism destination (e.g. a passport or ID card), a travel permit or a visa, as well as other optional documents, like travel insurance. In addition, language tourists can also find a part-time job, do an internship as part of in-company training or work as an au-pair taking care of children or at a work-camp, so other legal formalities may be necessary, such as a contract or a temporary work permit.

When the language travel product is purchased different options are often possible, both in terms of financing (by means of bank loans, academic grants or corporate training schemes, for instance) and payment procedures, including the method of payment (bank transfer, credit card, etc.) and purchasing modalities (fragmented payment, discounted early purchase, etc.).

A very important aspect of travel behaviour is related to the consumers’ travel patterns once they have reached their
language tourism destination. On the one hand, their patterns of behaviour may refer to how language tourists actually use the services they have acquired with regard to the language learning components and the travel components. On the other hand, travel behaviour may also be analysed with respect to how language tourists interact with the local residents as well as other peer users. For a detailed overview of intercultural contact between language tourists and the target community see Iglesias (2014).

Continuous contact with the local culture may entail cultural and psychological changes for the language tourist through acculturation processes, and acculturation attitudes, i.e. how sojourners react to adaptation into new language and cultural communities (Culhane, 2004), must be considered. According to Berry's acculturation attitudes model (1997), four different attitudinal responses or acculturation strategies can take place. Assimilation is related to the fact that individuals do not wish to maintain their cultural identity and wish to interact closely and regularly with the host culture. In contrast, separation occurs when individuals wish to maintain their original culture and avoid connecting with the host culture. Integration takes place when individuals are interested in holding on to their original culture, while at the same time extending relations in the host community. Finally, marginalisation arises if individuals have little possibility or interest in maintaining their original cultural identity (usually because of imposed cultural loss), and are not interested in keeping contact with the host community either (usually due to exclusion or discrimination) (Berry, 1997).

The above mentioned aspects of language travellers’ behaviour have been summed up in Table 1, which categorizes all of them.

This article deals with the last category, i.e. the travel patterns in the language tourism destination, particularly with the use of travel services and the nature of both the interaction and the contact with the host community.

3. Methodological Approach

Data for this study were collected in April 2015 through a self-completed questionnaire distributed to a total of 57 foreign students who had joined the Bachelor’s Degree in Tourism Management at the School of Hospitality and Tourism Management EUHT CETT-UB, from the University of
Barcelona (Spain). They came from 26 different countries, most of them for 4 to 6 months in the second term of the academic year 2014-15, which ended in June. The questionnaire was e-mailed to these students, but as only 5 students filled it in on line and sent it back, a new approach was adopted. Thus, the rest of the respondents were addressed to in two ways: face-to-face before or after a class. They were instructed to fill in the questionnaires on their own and leave them at the school's reception when they finished.

**Table 1: The language tourist: travel behaviour**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Past experiences</th>
<th>1.1. First time</th>
<th>1.2. Previous experience</th>
<th>1.2.1. Language learning component</th>
<th>1.2.2. Travel component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.2. Period of stay</td>
<td>2.2.1. Year round</td>
<td>2.2.2. Specific season</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Planning</td>
<td>3.1. Mediation</td>
<td>3.1.1. Independently</td>
<td>3.1.2. Through intermediaries</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.2. Search for information</td>
<td>3.2.1. Direct acquaintance</td>
<td>3.2.2. Indirect acquaintance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.2.2. Channel</td>
<td>3.2.2.1. On line</td>
<td>3.2.2.2. Off line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.3. Selection of product</td>
<td>3.3.1. Selection process</td>
<td>3.3.1. First choice</td>
<td>3.3.1.2. Market research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.3.2. Product configuration</td>
<td>3.3.2.1. Package</td>
<td>3.3.2.2. Single components</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.4. Arrangements</td>
<td>3.4.1. Travel bookings</td>
<td>3.4.2. Language learning</td>
<td>3.4.2.1. Admission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.4.2.2. Registration</td>
<td>3.4.2.3. Placement</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.4.3. Legal formalities</td>
<td>3.4.3.1. Travel</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.4.3.2. Work</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3.5. Purchase</td>
<td>3.5.1. Financing</td>
<td>3.5.2. Payment procedures</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Travel patterns</td>
<td>4.1. Use of services</td>
<td>4.1.1. Language learning component</td>
<td>4.1.2. Travel component</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.2. Interaction</td>
<td>4.2.1. With locals</td>
<td>4.2.2. With other users</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.3. Contact with local culture</td>
<td>4.3.1. Integration</td>
<td>4.3.2. Assimilation</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4.3.3. Separation</td>
<td>4.3.4. Marginalization</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The questionnaire was elaborated following the travel patterns parameters we have seen and it consisted of 4 sections, each one made up of 5 questions, so it amounted to a total of 20 questions. The first 3 sections consisted of closed multiple choice questions which sometimes were combined with open-ended questions and required single answers or double answers, whereas section 4 exclusively posed open-ended questions.

The first section was related to the respondents' profile: 3 single choice questions on socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age and nationality), 1 question on travel motivations with up to 2 possible answers, and 1 single choice question on the respondents' perceived prior level of Spanish language proficiency.

The single choice options in the 4-scale questions included in the second section ranged from very positive to very negative: 3 of them were concerned with the respondents' interactive activity in Spanish (with their Spanish classmates, with other members of the local community, and with their international classmates), 1 with their immersion process and 1 with the perceived progress of their communicative competence in Spanish.

In the third section, questions of different nature were formulated relating to the tourist services that the international students had been using in Barcelona in terms of lodging, catering arrangements, transport and leisure activities.

To finish with, 4 questions in the last section referred to the expenses deriving from the above mentioned tourist services, while the last question intended to find out the respondents' expected total length of their stay in Barcelona, possibly beyond the academic period.

Eventually 35 questionnaires were collected, yielding to a 61.4% response rate. However, as 9 of the respondents were native Spanish speakers from Mexico and this study specifically aimed at focusing on language tourism rather than on educational tourism in general, the responses from these 9 Mexican students were discarded from the sample. Therefore, the data corpus consisted in the information provided by 26 international students coming from France (3), Romania (4), Germany (2), Netherlands (3), Switzerland (2), China (7), Australia (2) and Canada (3).
Each one of the 4 sections was processed separately by means of descriptive statistics in order to obtain data based on percentages and average figures.

4. Results

To start with the data analysis, we need to look at the respondents’ demographics. The initial filter questions Q4 and Q5 were particularly relevant when segmenting the data corpus on the basis of motivations and in terms of establishing correlations with the perceived improvement of communicative competence (Q10) and the complexity of the adaptation process (Q9). Table 2 illustrates the participants’ profile.

When it comes to the initial Spanish level of the students (Q5), one respondent marked the options for both intermediate and advanced, so it was assumed that her level really was in between.

Q4 was a multiple answer question concerned with the students’ travel motivations. The results show that for 88% of the international students who took part in this study learning Spanish was one of their main reasons for academic mobility, and for 23% of them getting to know the Spanish culture was also an important motivation. On the other hand, 35% of the students were attracted by the educational programme on offer at the target academic institution, and 15% had other various motives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2: Respondent profile</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Q1. Gender:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Q2. Age:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older than 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Q3. Nationality:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non European</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Q5. Spanish level:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper intermediate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The vast majority (89%) of the respondents did not have an advanced level of Spanish and considered that their prior level was basic (54%) or intermediate (35%), so there was room for improvement, since previous studies have revealed that language gains are possible even in short or mid term stays (Warden et al., 1995). Yet, most of them (58%) believed that their communicative competence in Spanish had improved a little and 15% felt their progress had been poor. On the other hand, a considerable percentage (46%) thought it had been quite easy, or even very easy (27%), to adapt to a Spanish speaking environment. The interaction with locals, reported as quite frequent by 42% of the respondents, may have facilitated such adjustment. Surprisingly, though, 19% never interacted with Spanish university students in Spanish, and 46% did, but not very often, while the interaction in Spanish with other Erasmus students was scarce, as it never (46%) or not very often (31%) took place. Table 3 shows the participants’ perceptions regarding their contact with the target community and culture from a very negative point of view (--) to a very positive one (++), including the ones in between, which may be rather negative (-) or rather positive (+).

Moving on to the findings related to the use of tourist services in Barcelona, 77% of the respondents reported to share apartments, and 19% lodged at a student’s hall of residence. As they could give a multiple response, other accommodation options were accounted for, such as a homestay or a student’s own apartment. For most of them (73%) meals were not included, so generally speaking they ate out one or twice a week (54%) or between 3 and 7 times a week (46%). All of them used public transport during their stay, in combination with taxis (38%) or private transport (12%).

Table 3: Interaction

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<th>++</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q6. Spanish students</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7. Local people</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8. Erasmus students</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q9. Adaptation</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10. Progress</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The respondents engaged in leisure activities such as night activities (77%), cultural visits (58%) and sport activities (62%). In terms of nightlife, the majority of the students (65%) used to
go to pubs, clubs or discos. They also did cultural visits, especially to local monumental constructions (27%), such as Sagrada Familia or Parc Güell, but also to other tourist attractions (15%) and museums (12%) in Barcelona. As for sport pursuits, the respondents practiced a wide range of sports, mainly jogging or walking (23%).

All in all, the academic stay in Barcelona had some associated costs for the respondents, principally regarding accommodation, which entailed a monthly average expenditure of €493, and catering arrangements (€223), followed by leisure (€167) and transport (€61 a month spent in a three month period, as a three month travel card costs €105).

To finish with, 62% of the respondents were staying in Barcelona for 4 to 6 months, and 38% intended to extend their stay for a longer period. In fact, those who stay for more than one year (15%) will no longer be considered tourists, eventually.

5. Conclusion

This study explored two different sets of impacts of the language tourism experience for the participants who took part in it. With respect to the socio-cultural impacts, it has been stated that almost all of them mainly had a linguistic travel motivation, so they can be considered language travellers.

In addition, nearly a quarter of the respondents were also motivated by the local culture. Socio-linguistic competence is concerned with the socio-cultural conditions of language use, and such competence is in turn one of the key components of communicative competence. Therefore, the cultural and linguistic motivations are interrelated, in fact.

Generally speaking, the results suggest that the international students who took part in this research experienced an integration process, according to Berry's acculturation model. Bearing in mind the role that the local language plays in the local culture, not only as a vehicle for communication but also in terms of socio-cultural identity, the fact that the respondents did not use it regularly means that they did not assimilate to the target culture. However, they did not feel separated or marginalised either, since contact with the host community was produced and their perceived adaptation indicators are high. Therefore, integration strategies took place,
although they did not necessarily entail resorting to the local language.

It is understandable that 77% of the international students interacted with their peers in a language other than Spanish, mainly in English, even though only two of them were native English speakers from Australia. English is nowadays a lingua franca used as a vehicle for communication not associated to a determined culture speakers are willing to identify with (House, 2003). Probably, this was regarded as convenient by both the local students and the visitors, or as an opportunity for the local students to practice their usually poor oral skills in English. Nevertheless, the lack of linguistic contact in Spanish between both groups of students can be seen as a drawback for foreign students, and might be one of the reasons underlying their perceived limited linguistic progress. If international students do not have access to enhanced language exposure in the target destination, they may not benefit from the enriching experience of cultural immersion in the target culture. Besides, the local students miss the chance to show their cultural wealth. Some of them might even elude their foreign classmates because of the language barrier and deprive themselves from the advantages of cross-cultural contact.

This deficiency of international mobility programmes needs to be reinforced, especially when learning the local language is a key motivational goal for international students. This shortcoming should be faced by the target academic destinations by promoting academic and extra curricular activities aiming at facilitating inter-student relations in the local language, for example by organising conversational tandems, cultural events and visits, project work to be carried out by a combination of local and international team members, ambassador student meetings (where students from different nationalities represent their countries of origin), or through peer mentoring, i.e. getting local students to act as hosts, tour guides, informers or referents.

As for the economic impacts of the language travel experience, taking into account that all the respondents spent a minimum period of 4-6 months in the academic destination and that over a third were staying for a longer period, the economic effects on both the students and the destination are not just short-term and are not to be overlooked.

The research findings indicate that the highest costs of the academic stay stem from lodging, so this aspect should be
particularly taken care of. Actually, the promotion of shared student accommodation with local students or residents might be one of the integration strategies that could be adopted by the target academic institution. If international students manage to build strong bonds with their academic destinations and are happy with the services they have used, they may become repeating visitors and the best promoters. Viewing them as educational or language tourists and keeping them satisfied with their experience is essential when it comes to customer retention and attraction.

To conclude, this research was subject to several limitations, mainly due to time constraints. One of the main limitations of this small-scale study lies in its restricted scope and representativeness, as the number of respondents does not allow for general conclusions or extrapolation. On the other hand, cost analysis was only preliminary and needs to be investigated more extensively.

The aim is continue investigating not only the economic, but also the socio-cultural impacts of this phenomenon through longitudinal research for increased validity and reliability. Thus, similar studies could be undertaken at the same institution or in other academic destinations, in the same region or abroad, in order to carry out a contrastive analysis that leads to a better understanding of the travel behaviour of language tourists and its implications for the academic destinations and the local communities. This might be the object of future research.

6. References


This study aims to examine the Korean government’s tourism policy and identify the current barriers to implementing effective Korean tourism policy related to the Hallyu phenomenon, the so-called Korean Wave. The findings suggest that until recently, the Korean government had no comprehensive tourism policies dedicated to the Hallyu and its impacts on tourism. Lack of a long-term strategy for Hallyu-related tourism, continuing ambiguity surrounding the definition of Hallyu-related tourism, little market segmentation research and analysis of its long-term trends, lack of integration and coordination with other national tourism agencies and lack of relevant stakeholders involvement have been identified as barriers to effective Korean tourism policy implementation.

1. Introduction

The tourism industry in Korea has recently undergone unprecedented growth and faced a series of changes since 2000, thanks to the recent emergence and continuing popularity and influence of the Hallyu phenomenon that broadly encapsulates a variety of popular cultural activities and
expressions (Kim et al., 2009; Shim, 2006; Yang, 2012). The Hallyu Future Strategy Forum (2012) estimates that the Hallyu is worth US$5.6 billion in Korean economic value and US$95 billion in asset value. According to the KNTO (2014), 64.6% of international tourists stated that the Hallyu influenced their decision to visit Korea. As such, the Hallyu phenomenon is the nexus of creative and tourism industries in Korea. The Hallyu phenomenon or the Korean Wave is defined “a new wave of Korean-generated popular cultural products that extends throughout South and East Asia and beyond (Kim et al., 2009: 312)”.

The Hallyu phenomenon also attracts significant interest from industry practitioners and academic researchers. Tourism studies associated with the Hallyu and its broader impact on the tourism industry become an important subject area (Kim, 2012; Kim et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2015; Lee and Yoo, 2011; Su et al., 2011). However, it is surprising to note that little attention has been given to investigate the Korean government’s tourism policy in response to the Hallyu phenomenon and to identify barriers to implementing effective Hallyu-related tourism policy, given the fact that the Korean tourism industry has been facing with the challenges and opportunities generated by the Hallyu phenomenon. As successful tourism policy to establish more comprehensive development of tourism destinations can be achieved with an understanding of barriers to implementing policies and their possible solutions, this study aims to examine and identify barriers to effective Hallyu-related tourism policy from the Korean government perspective.

2. Role of Tourism Policy and Barriers to Government Tourism Policy

Governments at all levels play a crucial role in planning and developing systematic frameworks for tourism products and infrastructure (Nyaupane and Timothy, 2010; Ruhanen, 2013). Their involvement and direction through formulating and implementing tourism policies to establish more comprehensive development of tourism destinations are widely documented (Dodds, 2006; Hall, 2007; Liu, 2003). Tourism policies implemented by governments have long term multifaceted impacts on the economy, socio-cultural structures and
the environmental stability of targeted destinations (Weaver, 2006).

Government’s failure to address challenges of a comprehensive tourism policy can, therefore, result in serious deterioration of attractions in tourism destinations, and even negatively influence the socio-cultural wellbeing of its residents (Dodds, 2006; Ruhanen 2013; Wang and Ap, 2013). Thus it is imperative for government officials to review their tourism policies and recognise a balanced and effective approach that takes account of the complicated processes and short- and long-term impacts of their tourism policies (Jeffries, 2001; Meng et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2008).

Furthermore, in reality government policies towards tourism destinations have often gained a negative and/or unfashionable reputation due to barriers to its implementation. Key impediments or barriers to government involvement and implementation of tourism policies include lack of community interest, lack of resources, lack of appropriate research and information, lack of commitment to implementation, lack of coordination and communication and lack of technical expertise (Dredge, 2001). Such difficulties result from the internal characteristics of tourism industry that is a sophisticated and multi-sectorial industry ranging from transportation, accommodation, food, entertainment and services (Jeffries, 2001). In addition, the complex definitions of tourism, unreliable predictions for tourism growth and the short-term views of political governments are also factors that make policy implementation difficult in tourism industry (Dodds and Butler, 2010).

3. Research Methods

The primary research data was obtained from in-depth semi-structured interviews with six experts who involved either directly or indirectly in Hallyu-related tourism policies since 2010, and interview data were supplemented by secondary data such as government reports and policy documentations during the period 2005-2014. The interviewees consist of two officials from the Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism (MCST), two from the Korean National Tourism Organisation (KNTO), and two from the Korea Culture and Tourism Institute (KCTI). The in-depth interviews were conducted between 8
and 18 July 2014, in Seoul and Sejong, South Korea. Each interview took approximately 45 to 60 minutes and was audio-recorded with verbal permission of each participant in order to avoid any loss of verbal replies of the respondents.

4. Findings and Discussions

The major challenges or barriers of the Korean government to effective and sustained responses to the Hallyu phenomenon and its relationships with the tourism and creative industries include: (1) lack of a mid- and long-term strategy for Hallyu-related tourism; (2) abstract and ambiguous definition of Hallyu-related tourism; (3) lack of research and follow-up evaluation analysis of its long-term trends; (4) lack of integration and coordination between national tourism and creative industries’ agencies; and (5) lack of relevant stakeholders’ involvement.

4.1 Lack of mid- and long-term strategy for Hallyu-related tourism

The foremost barrier to implementing effective Hallyu-related tourism policy identified by the respondents was the lack of mid- and long-term strategy with no or little solid set of visions, goals and objectives. As the Korean government has recognised the Hallyu as a key factor behind the unprecedented increases in international tourist arrivals to the country at least for last 10 years, it is expected that the government has already developed a mid- and long-term plan directly related to the Hallyu-related tourism’s sustainability. However, it is ironical that neither MCST nor KNTO have announced a comprehensive and systematic plan that would be the premise of Hallyu-related tourism development until 2011, when a new and first 5-year Hallyu-related tourism plan was released. It is difficult to understand, as a long-term vision and strategy is imperative for developing a competitive and consistent policy framework because many initiatives in tourism policy take many years before the effects of policy are seen (Dodds, 2006). Respondent #3 made specific comments on this:

There have been numerous efforts made by the government regarding the Korean tourism policies to create a synergy between the popularity of the Korean Wave and the tourism industry, but
that was never transferred into any macro-scale project. The visions and goals were neither clear nor properly shared, and also, there was no follow-up...It's true that all of the efforts made by the government focused on satisfying the demands of international tourists, rather than on the sustainability of Hallyu tourism, which is all about short-term strategies. A long-term vision and objective should be planned so as to create a virtuous circle between the Korean Wave and Korean tourism that can have a positive impact on each other (Interviewee No. 3).

As such, the previous and current Hallyu-related tourism policies merely focused on short-term solutions aiming at the current tourism issues mainly related to the demand of international tourists. Furthermore, although it is fundamental that regardless of political changes a long-term vision needs to be developed to ensure that tourism policies continue and long-term goals are realised (Ritchie, 1999), the Hallyu Tourism Team established by KNTO in 2007 as a ministerial division primarily responsible for promoting the Hallyu phenomenon and Korean tourism, was removed when a new president of KNTO was inaugurated in 2014 (KNTO, 2014). This has resulted in more difficulties for MCST and KNTO to implement the Hallyu-related tourism policies more effectively, and a participant commented that:

With the dissolution of the Hallyu Tourism Team in KNTO, there are now many difficulties in planning events and arranging for coordination with celebrities and other organisations. There were chances in the past to make use of the team’s know-how and the networks it had built up over the years. It’s gone and now this is getting more and more difficult (Interviewee, No.6).

4.2 Abstract and ambiguous definition of Hallyu-related tourism

As mentioned earlier, the Hallyu phenomenon broadly encapsulates a variety of popular cultural activities and expressions including TV dramas, movies, variety TV shows, Korean pop music (K-pop), computer games, fashion and food/cuisine, and thus Hallyu-related tourism can include a variety of touristic activities and products associated with the above cultural activities. Despite its nature, the current definition(s) of Hallyu-related tourism used by the Korean national tourism agencies (i.e. KNTO and KCTI) limits its scope to movies, TV dramas and K-pop music in particular.
Respondents collectively stated that Hallyu-related tourism needs to be broadly redefined in order to maximise its potential for the tourism industry, suggesting that there is no reason to limit its scope to the narrow definition of Hallyu and Hallyu-related tourism used currently. This is well explained by Respondent #3 as below:

The government needs to re-define the concept of the Korean Wave in a broader manner. It will become sustainable when the government focuses its support on the areas that will have a positive impact on the national image. It is more than just movies, soap operas and pop music that attract global interest. Cuisine, sports, beauty services and commercial products portrayed by media programmes are also gaining popularity amongst tourists, which is indeed considered as Hallyu-related tourism (Interviewee No. 3).

More importantly, there is no consensus on the concept of Hallyu-related tourism amongst the governmental agencies, as each organisation defines it from its own perspective. Likewise, the inconsistent, ambiguous and abstract or narrow definition of the Hallyu phenomenon and Hallyu-related tourism was identified as the second barrier to the effective implementation of Korean government’s tourism policies. Respondents claim that this hindering factor made the Korean Government and its tourism policy makers difficult to maintain a consistent policy on the Hallyu-related tourism. This particular concern and difficulty perceived by respondents are illustrated below:

Hallyu and Hallyu-related tourism need to be more clearly defined at a policy level, so that the Korean government can address relevant issues and execute appropriate policy more effectively, as a specific definition is the starting point to identify the issues, goals and objectives, and thus to formulate feasible and acceptable policies (Interviewee No. 4).

4.3 Lack of market segmentation research and follow-up evaluation analysis of its long-term trends

The third barrier to the effective tourism policy implementation for Hallyu-related tourism lies in the lack of market segmentation research and analysis of its long-term trends. Respondents of this study emphasised that market segmentation research is an important strategic tool for the tourism industry, and a long-term trend analysis is necessary to
identify changes in the structure of existing market segments as the tourism market is constantly changing and fluid. Related to the first barrier above, the Korean government, however, tends to focus on short-term solutions for current tourism issues. As a result, it is difficult for government officials and researchers in the government organisations to conduct the relevant research with a longer-term consideration that will provide research data for a more effective and sustainable policy formulation and implementation process. In this regard, Respondent #3 commented as below:

The demand and the desired tourism options can vary according to target market. Surveys should be carried out in the long-term to uncover the trends that vary depending on the age, social class, and nationality of tourists...Market research and satisfaction surveys should be regularly carried out. Many studies suggest that individual preferences for programs offered in some locations vary widely (Interviewee No. 3).

Furthermore, there has been little investigation into the long-term feasibility and sustainability of the implemented Hallyu-related projects with little or no follow-up assessments and evaluations from the central government body namely the MCST. This is because the effectiveness of Hallyu-related tourism policies has never been evaluated in practice, although the government budget related to the Hallyu has increased by 27.3% between 2012 and 2013; equivalent to US$68.7 million, bringing the total budget to US$319.9 million across 40 business areas, mainly the tourism and creative industries (MCST, 2013). Examples of this include the indiscriminate and uncontrolled promotion, support and approval of the construction of new TV drama and film settings as potential film tourism destinations (Kim et al., 2015).

4.4 Lack of integration and coordination between national tourism and creative industries’ agencies

A lack of systematic integration and coordination between the MCST and key national agencies of the tourism and creative industries’ sector (such as the Korean National Tourism Organisation (KNTO), the Korea Culture and Tourism Institute (KCTI), and Korea Creative Content Agency (KOCCA)), is noted as the fourth barrier. The Korean government recognised the longstanding connections between
the tourism and creative industries since the initiative of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism in 1996. The *Hallyu* phenomenon is one of the key factors in the recent Korean government’s policy for both the tourism and creative industries. Nonetheless, insufficient systematic communications amongst those government agencies and the MCST were evident, given that to a greater extent each agency works independently rather collectively. A comment on this matter is presented below:

While KOCCA specialises in a variety of content such as broadcasting, games, animation, comics and character licensing to expand the reach of the Korean Wave, KNTO focuses on the promotion of the efficient growth and development of *Hallyu*-related tourism. Another agent that contributes to *Hallyu*-related tourism is KCTI, which is tasked to investigate and research the tourism market in general. Can you see they exist with different purposes? We don’t know much about what each other does except the above roles I describe (Interviewee No. 1).

Likewise, respondents agreed that there is an urgent need for MCST, KNTO, KCTI and KOCCA to be more aware of each other, share the information they have collected, and communicate their needs and concerns for a prosperous tourism industry in Korea. Furthermore, there is little evidence that the MCST operates as a control tower of *Hallyu*-related tourism policy implementation in order to create a synergy between the KNTO, KCTI and KOCCA. More specifically, some participants noted that the MCST should functions as the centre point for the integration and cooperation of government agencies, since the MCST takes charge of *Hallyu*-related tourism within the Korean government, and the KNTO, KCTI and KOCCA are all MCST-affiliated organisations.

4.5 *Lack of relevant stakeholders’ involvement*

Lastly but not least, the lack of involvement of all relevant stakeholders in particular the entertainment agencies that most *Hallyu* stars belong to, was identified as another constraint in the improvement of *Hallyu*-related tourism policies implementation. Respondents commented that an effective *Hallyu*-related tourism policy could be formulated and implemented within a set of managed stakeholder relationships, given that the participation of stakeholders such as private businesses, travel agencies, NGOs, local
communities, and different levels of government is deemed to be imperative for the success of tourism policy (Getz and Andersson, 2010). The Korean government organisations are increasingly focusing on effective networking and stakeholder management to gain more information, to develop better designed tourism products and to ensure the adequacy of tourism policies. This is because the entertainment industry has become more commercialised and powerful due to the **Hallyu** phenomenon, making the government organisations more difficult to get the entertainment companies involved in the process of policy making.

At the initial stage of tourism policy enactment, entertainment agencies would actively join and cooperate with the policies in order to promote their cultural content and celebrities overseas. However, since the continuing popularity of the **Hallyu** they perceive neither help nor cooperation needed from the public sector, as they are already well known and can make a profit without the government support. Entertainment agencies have therefore attempted to maximise their economic profits through independently hosting their own concerts, fan meetings and showcases, charging high prices to their fans. The following comment by Respondent #5 demonstrates how difficult the Korean government was to encourage the entertainment agencies as equally important stakeholder to get involved in the process of formulating and implementing tourism policies related to the **Hallyu**-related tourism:

> With the increasing commercialisation of the **Hallyu**, private companies especially entertainment agencies have begun focusing their attention on the profits they can generate, and this has caused difficulties for the development of tourism products along with the government organisations. The government, on the other hand, looks at the development of the industry as a whole, so there is a gap between the perspective of private companies and that of the government. It’s becoming increasingly difficult to reduce the gap (Interviewee No. 5).

Related to the above, there is a growing criticism that the **Hallyu** phenomenon and **Hallyu**-related tourism might fail to remain within the mainstream culture and fade away as a passing fad, if it continues to become too commercialised (Lee, 2011). In this regard, respondents collectively suggested that
the government and businesses in the private sector will have to work more closely to maintain the positive impacts of Hallyu and Hallyu-related tourism. This is because involving stakeholders in the policy process can enable them to share in the vision and interests of policy makers, and to ensure cooperation between the parties in order to reach their respective goals. Thus, the Korean Government needs to persuade stakeholders such as entertainment agencies to participate in the policy process and cooperate with tourism policies in order to sustain and expand the Hallyu, which will also maximise profits in the private sector in the long-run. On this point, some respondents of this study commented as follows:

It's important for the public sector and private sector to share information and communicate through the development of a collaborative system that allows the government to learn about what's actually needed on the ground and the private companies to better understand the role of the government (Interviewee, No.2).

5. Conclusion

It is evident that the Korean government has faced with various barriers to implementing a more effective policy for the Hallyu-related tourism in response to the Hallyu phenomenon. The identified barriers from this study include: (1) lack of a mid- and long-term strategy for Hallyu-related tourism; (2) abstract and ambiguous definition of Hallyu-related tourism; (3) a scarcity of longitudinal approaches to market researches, long-term trend analyses, and little or no follow-up assessments and evaluations of the implemented Hallyu-related projects funded by the Korean government; (4) lack of integration and coordination between national tourism and creative industries’ agencies; and (5) lack of relevant stakeholders’ involvement.

Several implications arising from this study may be suggested. Firstly, it is essential that the Korean government needs to establish visions and goals within a comprehensive plan for the Hallyu-related tourism in order to create a more effective and efficient administrative process and achieve the objectives of the Korean national tourism policy. The Korean government should also design a long-term development strategy for the tourism and creative industries, rather than implementing improvised or one-off responses to market
changes, since the government’s role is crucial in controlling and monitoring the sustainability of these industries (Hall, 2007; Liu, 2003).

Secondly, it is equally important for the Korean government to monitor and respond to the diversity of Hallyu-related tourism products and constantly changing tourist characteristics, including their needs and wants associated with the Hallyu phenomenon. To do so, it necessitates developing a systematic communication channel through which effective collaboration and cooperation between relevant government organisations (e.g. MCST, KNTO, KCTI and KOCCA) should be encouraged to share information in the planning, implementation and evaluation stages. Lastly, the Korean government needs to become more proactive to coordinate and share information between all relevant stakeholders through their involvement with policy formulation, since each stakeholder has its own agenda and there may be a disconnection between the goals of tourism policy and what is achievable. In particular, participation of entertainment agencies will play a critical role in formulating and implementing more effective Hallyu-related tourism policies as it is a crucial part of policy management, especially with regard to key stakeholders such as Korean entertainment agencies at least in this study’s context who can determine the success or failure of the policy, or at least contribute to its long-term sustainability (Getz et al., 2007).

6. References


OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES FOR THAILAND MEDICAL TOURISM INDUSTRY OF NURSING CARE FOR THE ELDERLY

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The global aging population and the arrival of ASEAN Economic Community can threaten Thailand's healthcare and medical tourism industries due to their inability to cater the growing demand in nursing care services for the elderly foreigners. The current research aimed to mitigate abovementioned challenges of Thailand's medical tourism industry. Face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, and self-administered questionnaires were conducted in 29 nursing homes. In addition, responses from 226 medical personnel were investigated using descriptive statistics and SPSS software. Results show that shortage of medical personnel prevents Thailand to successfully fulfil growing demand of elderly tourists in nursing care services. Also, high-qualified medical personnel move from public to private hospitals, which prevent Thai citizens from accessing quality nursing homes. It was proposed to invite international nurses from Philippines, as well as to levy tax on foreign medical tourists with the aim to satisfy need in medical personnel and develop state Nursing homes.

1. Introduction

Nursing care for the elderly is becoming one of the most lucrative businesses nowadays providing twenty-four-hour health care to senior population (Potter, 2014). Notably, Asian countries, and Thailand in particular, are considered to be the main destination for those willing to receive high quality yet
affordable nursing care services (Doorenbos et al., 2013). Therefore, this research aims to analyse and explain the key demand-side drivers propelling Thailand nursing care sector. Apart from it, the impact of the factors like global aging population, the arrival of ASEAN Economic Community, and the growth of dementia prevalence on Thailand Domestic Healthcare sector will be investigated. This will make it possible to provide recommendations for Thailand Medical Tourism to cater prospective nursing care needs of foreign elderly customers.

2. Theoretical Overview on the key demand-side drivers propelling Thailand nursing care sector

The following data on demographic trends was taken from the Revision of the official United Nations world population estimates and projections (UN, 2013a). According to such estimates, the proportion of elderly people in economically developed countries will increase substantially in the next decades due to demographic change. At the root of the process of population ageing is the exceptionally rapid increase in the number of older persons, a consequence of the high birth rates of the early and middle portions of the twentieth century and the increasing proportions of people reaching old age (United Nations, 2013). Globally, the number of older persons (aged 60 years or over) is expected to more than double, from 841 million people in 2013 to more than 2 billion in 2050 (Figure 1).

According to projections of United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2013), the population aged 60 years or over has shown a consistent increase in both number and proportion of the world’s population (UN, 2013b). In the more developed regions, the older population had already surpassed the population of children and it has come to represent 23 per cent of the total population in 2013 (United Nations, 2013). The older population will steadily increase and its share in the total population is projected to be around 32 per cent in 2050, while the share of the working-age population will continue to fall during the next four decades, to about 51 per cent in 2050. Since the projections indicate that this trend will continue, in
2050, nearly 80 per cent of the world’s older population will live in the less developed regions (United Nations, 2013).

**Figure 1**: (Population pyramids of males (red) and females (yellow) of more developed regions in 2013, 2050)

The demographic old-age support ratio measures how many persons in the main working ages there are to support each older person (Haerens, 2014). The old-age support ratio is calculated as the number of persons aged 15 to 64 years divided by the number of persons aged 65 years or over. According to the most recent United Nations population projections, this ratio is expected to drop from 8 in 2013 to 4 in 2050 (UN, 2013c). The old-age support ratio is expected to continue to decline in all development regions from 4 working age persons per older person in 2013 to just 2 in 2050 (UN, 2013d), (Figure 2).

Increasing life expectancy raises the question of whether longer life spans result in more years of life in good health, or whether it is associated with increased morbidity and more years spent in prolonged disability and dependency (Kresl and
Ietry, 2010). The major causes of disability and health problems in old age are non-communicable diseases including the “four giants of geriatrics,” namely: dementia (including Alzheimer's disease), urinary incontinence, depression and falls or immobility, as well as some communicable diseases and injuries (Gulanick and Judith, 2011).

Figure 2: Old-age support ratio: world and development regions (1950-2050)

According to Maria Carrillo, Ph.D., Alzheimer's Association Vice president of Medical and Scientific Relations, Alzheimer's and dementia incidence and prevalence worldwide may be much higher than previously thought; therefore we must acknowledge the growing worldwide epidemic (IAGG, 2014). Worldwide prevalence of Alzheimer's disease is projected to increase in the decades ahead as the planet's population ages. Alzheimer's Disease International now estimates that 44.35 million people in the world were living with dementia in 2013, significantly up from the earlier estimate of 36 million people living with dementia in 2010 (ADI, 2014). They project that the number will rise to 75.62 million in 2030 — 15 percent higher than the 2009 estimate — and 135.46 million in 2050, which is 17 percent higher than the 2009 ADI estimate. Given that the new figures published in last year's World Alzheimer Report are based on the most up to date and comprehensive review of the evidence base, it is possible to consider these to be the most robust and valid figures currently available.
According to the results of the study conducted by Institute for Population and Social Research Mahidol University in 2013 (Prasartkul, 2013a), members of ASEAN community have the following proportion of elderly people (>65 years old), (Table 1).

Such results show a potential demand of nursing care services for the elderly members of ASEAN community. Considering the prospective arrival of ASEAN Economic Community in 2015, it makes sense to use such statistical data in the current research as it directly influences the amount of elderly medical tourists seeking for a Nursing care services in Thailand.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>% of people &gt;65 years old</th>
<th>Amount of people &gt;65 years old</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>246864000</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>14564976</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>66785000</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>6611715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>88776000</td>
<td>6.1</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Philippines</td>
<td>96707000</td>
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<td>3674866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>52797000</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>2851038</td>
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<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>29240000</td>
<td>5.3</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Singapore</td>
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<tr>
<td>Brunei</td>
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<td>16068</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the reports presented above, it is possible to make an assumption that the aging population, supported by significant growth of the dementia prevalence, will inevitably increase the demand of nursing care services for the elderly. Considering Thailand as a well-known leader in the nursing care market for foreign customers, it makes sense to expect a dramatic growth in demand of elderly medical tourists seeking for a nursing care services in Thailand (Prasartkul, 2013b). Apart from it, the arrival of ASEAN Economic Community is going to make Thailand responsible to cater nursing care needs of ASEAN elderly customers as well (Huskin and Meij, 2013). Therefore, despite giving the medical industry of nursing care for the elderly a promising prospective, without appropriate management the global aging population, dementia prevalence, and the arrival of ASEAN Economic Community can be a growing burden on Thailand's healthcare and medical tourism industries. For these reasons the main
intention of the author is providing practical recommendations, which will allow Thailand medical tourism market to successfully meet the rising and highly competitive foreign demand for nursing care services. Those critical adjustments will both relieve the external pressure on its Healthcare and Medical Tourism industries and secure the leadership of Thailand in offering the Nursing care services to the elderly.

3. Methodological Approach

Both quantitative and qualitative types of research were used to conduct this study. The author decided to use both approaches in order to gain clarity about current situation in Thailand’s nursing care market, as well as to effectively comprehend the impact of fast-growing adult-care industry for elderly medical tourists on Thailand domestic Healthcare sector.

The data collection period was during January - March 2015, in which face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, and self-administered questionnaires were used as primary sources of data. It was decided to collect qualitative data through both face-to-face and telephone interviews as it helps to gather ideas and perceptions not allocating numerical values (Hair et al., 2003). As it was published by Thailand Ministry of Health care, 2014, the total amount of nursing homes in Thailand is estimated at around 60 (TMHC, 2014). However, the contact information of only 46 officially registered nursing homes is available from open sources, therefore 46 nursing homes was considered as a size of population for nursing homes. The administrative staff and management personnel of Nursing Homes were interviewed in order to assess the impact of fast-growing adult-care industry for elderly medical tourists on Thailand medical system and healthcare sector. In particular, the author intended to collect the most up-to-date information about the labour market in the nursing care sector, its prospective trend, and the way nursing homes can mitigate expected pressure caused by the estimated amount of foreign customers seeking for a nursing care in Thailand.

The author made a decision to use both face-to-face and telephone interviews to gather qualitative data for the following reasons. Face-to-face interview is initially considered as a more reliable method of gathering data comparing to the
telephone interview (Bailo, 2011a). According to Hair et al (2003), the absence of nonverbal and contextual data is the main disadvantage of using telephone interviews. Face-to-face interviews are able to provide the researcher with effective probing, rapport, and therefore lead to a more comprehensive interpretation of the responses (Hair et al., 2003). On the contrary, telephone interviews make respondents feel more comfortable to disclose more relevant information, thus providing important insights into the research area (Hague, Hague and Morgan, 2004). Therefore, the emails with the official KKUIC letter were sent to 46 nursing homes in different provinces stating the purpose of the research and encouraging administrative staff to participate in the study through the telephone interviews. Having 63% percent response rate, the sample size of 29 nursing homes was chosen to conduct telephone interviews (Table 2).

Table 2: Amount of nursing homes involved in the study (divided by province)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Total amount of nursing homes in each province</th>
<th>Amount of nursing homes from each province that agreed to take part in the research</th>
<th>Response rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangkok</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>69.5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chonburi</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chiang Mai</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>42.8 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phuket</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonthaburi</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suratthani</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ayuthaya</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khon Kaen</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koh Samui</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pathumthani</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>63 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to (Bailo, 2011b), face-to-face interview is considered more expensive alternative comparing to telephone interviews and, therefore, require smaller sample. Considering the research budget limitations and the amount of nursing homes that agreed to participate in the research, 8 nursing homes from four most popular provinces were chosen as a sample size for conducting face-to-face interviews. In each nursing home the author tried to choose the administrative personnel that were closely related to the management of the
nursing home and have updated information about human resources and patients (Table 3).

**Table 3: The size of population for conducting face-to-face interview**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Amount of nursing homes chosen for face-to-face interview</th>
<th>Amount of face-to-face interviews in each nursing home</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangkok</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chiang Mai</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chonburi</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phuket</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The self-administered questionnaires, on the other hand, were used to provide important insights into the current situation of nursing care industry from the medical personnel perspective. The information of the amount of medical personnel in each nursing home was gathered through the telephone interview, which made it possible for the author to identify the size of population for conducting questionnaires (Table 4).

**Table 4: The size of population for conducting questionnaires**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nursing home ownership</th>
<th>Amount of nursing homes</th>
<th>Amount of medical personnel</th>
<th>Amount of responses</th>
<th>Response rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>50.48 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>61.29 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>51.24 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The questionnaires were distributed among the chosen size of 29 nursing homes in different provinces in Thailand. The questionnaire consisted of 10 Likert scale questions ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree where medical personnel were asked to indicate their workload, satisfactory level, and key drivers, which affect them to choose between private or state nursing organisations.

The author applied descriptive statistics to analyse the main features of quantitative data collected from self-administered questionnaire. Confidence intervals and significance level were used to estimate the true value of population parameters. The Likert scale was involved in this research to measure subjective criteria such as positive or
negative reaction towards the statement of the questionnaire. It was necessary to apply statistical measures such as standard deviation, mean, and frequencies with the aim to analyse the quantitative data. For these purposes, the software SPSS 14.0 (Statistic Package for the Social Science) was used as a tool to analyse statistical data that was collected through questionnaires. The questions were designed using five-point Likert scale with the interval level 0.80, which was calculated as the difference between the highest (=5) and the lowest (=1) ranks divided by the amount of levels (amount of levels=5).

The qualitative data collected through face-to-face and telephone interviews was analysed by content and thematic analysis to reveal meaningful information from the interview transcripts. Since the author applied triangulation technique by using multiple data sources such as face-to-face interview, telephone interview and self-administrated questionnaire; it makes sense to assume that the study results will be comprehensive and valid.

4. Results

Having conducted the online questionnaires with the medical personnel from various nursing homes, the author was able to discover important insights into the current situation of nursing care industry from the medical personnel perspective. However, it was important to investigate the differences in the workload, satisfactory level, and key drivers between medical personnel working in the private nursing homes and their colleagues from the state nursing organisations. For this reason, an independent T-test was performed to identify the main differences in the questionnaire results between medical personnel from state and private nursing homes (Table 5).

Before carrying out a T-test, the author stated a null-hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the responses provided by medical personnel from private nursing homes, and the responses provided by their colleagues from state nursing homes.
Table 5: Statistical comparison of the questionnaire results between medical personnel from state and private nursing homes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key indicators</th>
<th>Nursing home (mean)</th>
<th>T-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>State</td>
<td>Private</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I am currently working overtime to satisfy needs of all customers</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>4.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I think it is necessary to employ more nurses to relieve pressure on the medical personnel in our Nursing home</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>4.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. An increase of the number of patients will less likely affect my working hours as there are other nurses in our Nursing home to satisfy all patients</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>1.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I receive a satisfactory salary, which is considered competitive in the Nursing care industry</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I have fair English language skills, sufficient for working with foreign customers</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I need to take a test of English language proficiency to develop my career in the Nursing industry</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>4.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I regularly use English language in my day-to-day duties</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>4.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Based on my experience, Thai elderly patients and foreign medical tourists receive the same quality level of Nursing care services</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Our medical personnel receive regular medical trainings to improve professional qualification</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>3.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I believe that medical personnel working with foreign elderly patients in private nursing homes receive more benefits than their colleagues from state nursing homes</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>4.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* - Indicates statistically significant difference between two groups (state and private nursing homes), where p-value is less or equal 0.05 threshold (p ≤ 0.05).

Notes:
P-value: level of statistical significance (two tailed test)
The «bolted» numbers indicate the highest p-value for particular indicator, as well as the highest mean value for each group (state and private nursing home).

The results of the T-test showed that there are statistically significant differences between two groups - medical personnel from state and private nursing homes. For instance, medical
personnel from state nursing homes «Strongly Disagree» with the statement «I receive a satisfactory salary, which is considered competitive in the Nursing care industry» (mean = 1.78), while their colleagues from private nursing homes were more satisfied with their salary, thus rating such statement as «Neutral».

Also, medical personnel from state nursing homes «Strongly Disagree» (mean = 1.64) with the statement «I regularly use English language in my day-to-day duties». On the contrary, medical personnel from private nursing homes rated the above statement as high as «Agree» (mean = 4.03). Lastly, the statement «Our medical personnel receive regular medical trainings to improve professional qualification» revealed the difference in opinions between two groups of medical personnel. In this case medical personnel from state nursing homes «Disagree» with the statement (mean = 1.97), while their colleagues stated completely opposite opinion by rating the statement as «Agreed» (mean = 3.50).

Both management teams from private and state nursing homes stated that they can no longer allocate new customers due to the lack of the medical personnel. Considering the exodus of high-skilled medical personnel from the state nursing homes, the management team expresses its urgent demand in state funding as the current level of salaries in state nursing homes is uncompetitive. The administrative personnel proposed a recommendation to levy a tax on foreign medical tourists and spend the revenue on training medical personnel and retain the high-skilled doctors in public hospitals.

The medical personnel of Private Nursing Homes were more concerned about the lack of qualified specialists with sufficient English level on the labour market. Therefore, their recommendations were mostly addressed on how to find and employ eligible medical specialists with satisfactory qualification level and English language skills. The majority of private nursing homes are seriously considering the option to invite foreign medical specialists from other ASEAN countries. In particular, Philippines nurses were mentioned as the most likely candidates to work in Thai private nursing homes. Despite the additional requirements to be met, such as Thai language test and Thai medical licence, the management of private nursing homes believe that foreign nurses would significantly relieve pressure on Thailand nursing care industry.
5. Conclusion

An extensive study of relevant literature, various interviews, and questionnaires made it possible to explain the key demand-side drivers propelling Thailand nursing care sector. As it was discovered, the factors such as the growth of elderly population in the countries with well-developed welfare system, an increase of dementia prevalence, and the arrival of ASEAN Economic Community will most likely boost the number of foreign customers seeking for a nursing care service in Thailand. However, the results of this study revealed a list of flaws in Thailand domestic healthcare industries caused by the growing number of foreign customers seeking for more affordable sheltered accommodation in Thailand.

Thailand's shortage of medical personnel was found to be one of the main obstacles to successfully fulfil the prospective demand in nursing care services. The administration of the state nursing homes named low financial compensation and the lack of professional training in the state nursing homes as the reasons preventing state nursing homes to employ more medical personnel. The management of private nursing homes explained their shortage of medical personnel due to the lack of qualified candidates in the labour market that are able to meet high requirements of the private nursing homes. Therefore, if no measures are made, such shortage of medical personnel will most likely prevent private homes from satisfying the growing demand of foreign medical tourists seeking for the nursing care in Thailand.

Considering the fact that private nursing homes are mostly targeting foreign medical tourists, their nursing care fee is unaffordable for local Thai people. Furthermore, the results of interviews and questionnaires showed the exodus of medical personnel from state to private nursing homes due to higher salaries and regular professional trainings in the private medical organisations. Such situation revealed the problem of healthcare inequality between foreign elderly customers and local Thai people, where the latter ones have no access to quality nursing care service. Such healthcare inequality is yet another major problem of Thailand's healthcare and medical tourism industries.

Based on the results of collected data, it is possible to provide recommendations for Thailand medical tourism and
healthcare industries to cater prospective nursing care needs of both Thai and foreign elderly customers. The decision to invite foreign medical staff from other ASEAN countries, presumably Philippines, was proposed by private nursing homes as a solution to relieve an expected pressure on Thailand's nursing care industry. On the other side, state nursing homes proposed to levy a tax on foreign medical tourists, while using the revenue from this tax to train physicians and retain the best professors in medical public organisations. It will keep skilled medical staff in public nursing homes and hospitals and, therefore, allow Thai citizens to access quality healthcare facilities.

The main conclusion to be drawn is that Thailand has outstanding opportunities to develop its market of elderly medical tourists seeking for a sheltered accommodation; however critical adjustments must be made to relieve pressure on medical personnel and guarantee the access of Thai elderly customers to quality nursing care facilities. These necessary precautions will both relieve the external pressure on Thailand's healthcare and medical tourism industries and secure the leadership of Thailand in offering the Nursing care services to the elderly.

6. References


DESTINATION IMAGE: AN ANALYSIS OF CEPHALONIA’S TOURIST PERCEPTIONS - ATTITUDES

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University of the Aegean, Greece

Destination image induces emotions that attract tourists’ attention and affect tourists’ behaviour, from their psychological constructs regarding destination attributes to the decision-making process (Nicoletta and Servidio, 2012). This paper investigates the special features, the dimensions forming the image of a tourist destination, its importance for said destination, and the way in which it affects not only the attitude of tourists but also their future intentions. The research was conducted on the Greek island of Cephalonia. A structured questionnaire was distributed to 284 tourists that visited Cephalonia during the summer of 2014. The statistical analysis proves that a positive assessment of the destination image has a positive correlation with destination attachment and loyalty. Furthermore, the factors of the tourists’ expectations, the quality of the tourist destination and the perceived value, positively affect the overall satisfaction of tourists related to their visit and stay on the island.

1. Introduction

The ever growing international competition among tourist destinations poses an urgent need to form a distinct image for each individual tourist destination. Said image needs to be based on the distinguishable characteristics and competitive advantages of a destination. In order for a tourist destination to be preferred over its competitors it is required to have a policy that will distinguish this particular
destination, emphasizing its uniqueness and thus increasing the chances of being chosen by tourists (Chen and Phou, 2013). A basic element of that policy is the creation and handling of a unique and interesting, that is to say, appealing image of that destination.

Analysing and evaluating the image of a tourist destination has been the subject of numerous scientific studies and has substantially contributed to understanding tourist behaviour. Hunt (1975) was the first to indicate the significant impact of the image on the number of tourists a destination attracts. More recent researches have focussed on the direct or indirect influence of the image on tourist satisfaction, destination attachment, loyalty and perceived value (Lee et al., 2007; Veasna et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014; Ramseook-Munhurrum et al., 2015). Even though a few studies have suggested that there is a relationship between destination image, destination attachment and tourist loyalty, establishing a consistent correlation model for said multidimensional constructs has been difficult due to various factors, such as the use of different models of approach, the limited sample sizes, as well as the specific nature of the researched destinations, like world heritage sites or skyscraper areas.

Therefore, there appears the need to further investigate the correlation of tourist destination image with destination attachment and loyalty, by applying different methods and researching different destinations. Destination attachment can contribute to understanding the features of recreational behaviour and have a positive effect on tourist satisfaction (Su et al., 2011; Veasna et al., 2013), while loyalty greatly affects tourists’ attitude towards a destination and can help predict both their recreational behaviour, and their future behaviour (Su et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2014).

The present paper undertakes to identify the elements that set the image of islands as tourist destinations by means of collecting information via questionnaires distributed to 284 international tourists on the Greek island of Cephalonia. Following that, factor analysis was used to divide the collected data into two factors, so as to investigate their association with the destination attachment and conative loyalty.
2. Literature Review

The term of destination image has been subject matter of both social and behavioural sciences. In the literature of social studies the prevailing definition is considered the one given by Crompton (1979), according to which the destination image is the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination.

Numerous researchers have since dealt with identifying the factors which influence the formation of the destination image, while some of them have proceeded with grouping them and developing models of analysis (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli and Martin, 2004; Zhang et al., 2014). Baloglu and MacCleary (1999) claimed that the image is shaped by personal factors (psychological and social characteristics) and stimulus factors (information sources, previous experience and distribution). The former affect the cognitive aspect of a tourist's point of view, while the latter influence a tourist's perception and evaluation and depend on the extent and nature of the information regarding the destination that a tourist gathers. Beerli and Martin (2004) have grouped the factors that affect the formation of the image into information sources — either secondary (induced, organic, autonomous), or primary (previous experience, intensity of visit) — and personal factors (motivations, vacation experiences, socio-demographic characteristics). Said factors shape a cognitive and an affective image respectively, which interact in their turn and shape the overall destination image.

Similarly, Zhang et al (2014) studied 66 articles which explored the dimensions of a destination image and its relation to tourist loyalty and concluded that a destination image is most commonly analysed via the three-component approach, according to which an image is composed of cognitive, affective, and conative components. The cognitive component refers to the beliefs and the information a tourist has on the destination features. The affective component refers to a tourist’s feelings and emotional reactions towards the destination features. The conative component refers to a tourist’s behavioural manifestations, which can be understood as onsite consumer behaviour.
A destination image affects the decision making process and the final destination selection, the recreational behaviour, the destination evaluation and finally their future intentions (their intention to revisit or even recommend the particular destination to others) (Bigne et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2007; Su et al., 2011; Veasna et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014). Recent studies have focused on destination attachment and tourist involvement as predictors of satisfaction and loyalty intentions in the context of tourist destinations. A destination attachment can be regarded as the impressions the tourists have acquired based on their personal, every-day experience of the destination and consecutively the emotional bond they have developed with it. It is also related to a state of emotional euphoria during the tourists’ stay at the destination, as opposed to the stress they experience due to their departure (Yuksel et al., 2010). Factors like leisure involvement, tourist involvement and destination image seem to be antecedent variables to destination attachment (Prayag and Ryan, 2011). It is, therefore, easy to assume that the better the image of the destination tourists have shaped, the stronger the attachment they will develop (Veasna et al., 2013).

An equally important factor which affects tourists’ behavioural intention, i.e. their intention to revisit and recommend the destination to others, is tourist loyalty, which, as it has been established, is linked to the tourists’ motives, their satisfaction, the quality of services, the perceived value and the destination image (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Based on previous researches, Yuksel et al (2010) have concluded that destination loyalty can be divided in cognitive, affective and conative loyalty. Cognitive loyalty relies on the information the tourist has on the destination, on the evaluation of their experience and not least on the perceived value; it is considered a rather weak approach of loyalty. Affective loyalty is based on a tourist’s attitude towards the destination. If tourists have favourable attitudes to a destination, they will develop an affective loyalty to it. Affective loyalty constitutes a deeper and stronger function compared to cognitive loyalty but it does not suffice to predict behavioural loyalty. Conative loyalty, i.e. a tourist’s intention to remain loyal to a particular
destination in the future, is the most suitable for predicting behavioural loyalty compared to the previous approaches.

According to Zhang et al (2014) the predictability of tourist loyalty can be increased by knowing the image a tourist has formed of the destination. The authors conceptualize tourist loyalty in one of the following approaches: behavioural loyalty, attitudinal loyalty and composite loyalty. The first focuses on the results of tourist behaviour, the second refers to tourist psychological manifestations, while the third is actually a composition of the previous two approaches, according to which tourists, who manifest behavioural loyalty towards particular destinations tend to also have a positive attitude towards them. The present paper attempts to investigate the relationship between destination image and destination attachment, as well as conative loyalty, in order to trace the impact of the destination image elements on the emotional attachment the tourists develop and their loyalty to the destination. Understanding this relationship would render a destination more probable to attract tourists who are loyal and willing to revisit.

### 3. Methodological Approach

The primary research took place on the island of Cephalonia, using a structured questionnaire. The majority of the questions were closed (three and five-point Likert scale). Convenience Sampling was chosen as the statistical method of drawing representative data, where the sample is selected from a portion of the population (multinational tourists) because of its easy access (Veasna et al., 2013). The researchers conducted the survey upon the tourists’ departure at the airport, on different days and hours during the summer of 2014.

Cephalonia was chosen for conducting the primary research, since its tourism development on the one hand has improved the indicators of economic prosperity in recent years, this development on the other hand is in its early stages, rendering the shaping of an attractive destination image a pressing necessity towards the further development and competitiveness of the tourism product it offers.
Investigating the tourists’ views during their summer holidays, which represent the island’s greatest economic activity, contributes to drawing useful conclusions regarding the perceived image of the destination, the tourist satisfaction and the destination attachment as well as the future tourist behaviour with respect to their intention to recommend or revisit the destination.

The questionnaire was structured in three basic units based on the recent international literature (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli and Martin, 2004; Yoon and Uygal, 2005; Lee et al., 2007; Veasna et al., 2013). The first unit includes questions regarding the tourists’ motives of visiting the particular destination, their sources of information and their evaluation of the destination image dimensions. The second unit investigates the evaluation of their stay at the destination, their satisfaction, the destination attachment, as well as the future tourist intentions. The last unit deals with the sample demographic characteristics.

The methodology used in processing the data involves measures of descriptive statistics to determine the sample profile, factor analysis to categorize the factors that define the destination image, and nonparametric statistical tests, in order to search for associations among the above factors and destination attachment and tourist loyalty.

4. Research Findings

4.1 Profile of Respondents

The main purposes of visiting Cephalonia were relaxing physically and mentally, meeting new people and places and visiting friends and relatives. The majority of the sample were women (53.2%), aged 25 to 35, single, working, 47.5% of which having a higher education and 48.2% of which coming from Great Britain, which is the main country of origin for Cephalonia’s tourism.

4.2 Factor Analysis of Destination Image

Factor analysis was used to identify the factors that relate to the destination’s image. Twenty-two variables have been employed for its completion. The internal coherence of the variables of questions has been measured with the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient, the value of which was found
to be 0.887, a fact which means that the selected variables are reliable in evaluating the case in question. As to the process of factor analysis, the adequacy of the data was initially evaluated with the Kaiser Meyer Olkin measure.

Table 1: KMO and Bartlett's Test

| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy | .829 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</th>
<th>Appro. Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>954.940</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

During the process it was established that the KMO value was 0.829, which renders the data adequate for a factor analysis and that the factors that were selected as variables can interpret approximately 75% and 84% of the overall variability respectively. Moreover, it is concluded from the eigenvalue diagram (scree plot) and the table presenting the categories of factors (Table 2) that the variables which define the area’s image are divided into two categories.

Figure 1: Eigenvalues in relation to factors

The groups that resulted from the analysis include primarily cognitive items with common features. Specifically, two factors have been developed, namely “Attractions and Facilities” (Factor 1) and “Environment and General Cost” (Factor 2). Baloglu and McCleary (1999) have come up with three factors, namely Quality of Experience (F1), Attractions
(F2) and Value/Environment (F3), sharing several features with the present paper.

4.3 Destination Image’s Influence on Destination Attachment and Tourist Loyalty

The aforementioned two factors of destination image are subsequently examined as independent variables with regard to their correlation with destination attachment and tourist loyalty (behavioural intention and recommendation) being the dependent variables. The correlation will be determined with the $\chi^2$-test of independence. In the cases that the correlation does not asymptotically follow the $\chi^2$ distribution, the p-values have been calculated with the Monte-Carlo simulation.

Table 2: Factor analysis of Destination Image

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors/Items</th>
<th>Component</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 1: Attractions and Facilities</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Available Information</td>
<td>.504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Scenery/ Natural Attractions</td>
<td>.454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Cultural facilities</td>
<td>.696</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Shopping facilities</td>
<td>.668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Night life and entertainment</td>
<td>.430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Availability of sport facilities, recreational and various activities</td>
<td>.653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Offer of cultural and other events</td>
<td>.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Extent of Commercialisation</td>
<td>.595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Architecture/Buildings</td>
<td>.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Different Customs/Culture</td>
<td>.493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Social interaction</td>
<td>.489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Originality</td>
<td>.529</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Factor 2: Environment and General Cost</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Beaches (organized or not)</td>
<td>.472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Friendly Local People</td>
<td>.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Restful and relaxing atmosphere</td>
<td>.409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Climate/ Good weather</td>
<td>.477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Cleanliness</td>
<td>.613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Cost of the accommodation</td>
<td>.671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Entertainment cost</td>
<td>.706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Transportation cost</td>
<td>.719</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Food cost</td>
<td>.696</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Total transportation time</td>
<td>.494</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The tourism image can be considered as the general notion the individuals have regarding a destination. This notion is usually intensified by the competitive advantages
of a destination and constitutes a determining factor of shaping the general attitude of the tourist towards the destination on the one hand and of the decision making process regarding the trip on the other (Yoon and Usyal, 2005). Destination attachment is defined as a set of positive beliefs and emotional linkages of an individual to a particular tourist destination (Veasna et al., 2013: 513). The image of the destination appears to precede the destination attachment. It is, therefore, assumed that a favourable destination image has a positive influence on destination attachment. The present paper used six variables in order to define destination attachment, five of which relate to the high evaluation of the destination, while the sixth one with the intention of recommending the destination to others. Said variables have been overall very well received by the vast majority (>80%) of the sample. The statistical analysis revealed that the factor “Attractions and Facilities” is to a great extent correlated with five of the six variables that determine destination attachment, while the factor “Environment and General Cost” is fully correlated with destination attachment (Table 3).

Table 3: Effects of destination image on destination attachment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination attachment</th>
<th>Destination Image</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am pleased that I decided to visit this tourist destination</td>
<td>.060 (sig) .000 (sig)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The visit to this tourist destination exceeded my expectations</td>
<td>.000 (sig) .000 (sig)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will speak highly of this tourist destination to my friends &amp; colleagues</td>
<td>.000 (sig) .000 (sig)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, staying in this tourist destination has been very valuable to me</td>
<td>.000 (sig) .000 (sig)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had a great time &amp; experiences in this tourist destination</td>
<td>.000 (sig) .000 (sig)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staying at this tourist destination is worth every Euro paid</td>
<td>.000 (sig) .000 (sig)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of this study are also in line with recent empirical studies, like the one conducted by Prayag and Rayan (2011), which pointed out that tourism image has a positive impact on international tourists’ place attachment to Mauritius Island, which has also been confirmed among international tourists visiting Angkor (World Heritage Site-
Cambodia) and Taipei 101 (skyscraper-Taiwan) (Veasna et al., 2013).

At an operational level, the intention to revisit as well as recommend the destination to others is the most commonly used indicator to measure tourist loyalty (Zhang et al., 2014). In Table 4, the above factors are linked to the main dimensions of destination image. A strong positive correlation is indicated among the factors of tourist destination image and conative loyalty. According to Yuksel et al (2010), conative loyalty constitutes the most reliable indicator of predicting behavioural loyalty compared to cognitive and affective loyalty.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4: Effects of destination image on tourists’ conative loyalty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conative Loyalty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revisit intention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommend intention</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This finding confirms the conclusions of similar researches. In particular, in a research conducted by Bigne et al (2001) among tourists on Spanish islands it was revealed that there is a positive correlation between the overall destination image and the intention to revisit. Similarly, MacDowall and Ma (2010) studied the views of international tourists in Bangkok-Thailand, and established that the higher their evaluation on attractions, facilities, and service is, the stronger is their intention to recommend Thailand to friends and relatives. In a research conducted in Korean DMZ, Lee et al (2008) claimed that the image of a destination area significantly affects tourists’ intention to revisit the area. The overall destination image also plays a significant role in tourist loyalty, as revealed by the conclusions of a synthetic study that was published by Zhang et al (2014).

5. Discussion and Conclusions

The present paper underlines the importance of a tourist destination image and establishes its contribution to destination attachment and tourist loyalty. More specifically, the findings, which align with the conclusions of recent
empirical researches (Prayag and Rayan, 2011; Veasna et al., 2013), confirm that a destination image has a significant impact on destination attachment. The destination that has a powerful, positive image can prompt tourists to develop a more emotional attachment to the destination and therefore gain more satisfaction from their tourism experience.

In addition, the impact of a destination image on composite tourist loyalty is confirmed with respect to the behavioural intention of tourists, which consists of revisiting the destination or recommending it to others (Zhang et al., 2014). The research findings statistically prove a substantial correlation between the different dimensions of image and those of tourist loyalty, confirming the results of other studies as well (Lee et al., 2007; McDowall and Ma, 2010; Zhang et al., 2014). A destination image has a great effect on conative loyalty, which means that individuals who have developed a positive image of a destination are more likely to revisit and recommend it to their friends or relatives.

A destination image is a significant component of effective tourism destination marketing. It is widely recognized that a destination image induces emotions that attract tourists' attention and affects tourists' behaviour, from their psychological constructs about destination attributes to the decision-making process (Crompton, 1979; Chen and Tsai, 2007; Nicoletta and Servidio, 2012). In particular, the destination image influences the decision-making behaviour of potential tourists (Crompton, 1979), the destination choice, the post-trip evaluation, future behaviours and levels of satisfaction regarding the tourist experience (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Echtner and Ritchie, 2003). In this perspective, knowing the images of a destination that tourists bear in mind would increase the predictability both of tourist behaviour and of their loyalty. Substantially, both destination image and tourist loyalty have been identified as crucial elements in achieving competitiveness for tourist destinations (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). As a result, it is significant for destination marketers to focus not only on physical attributes but also on the primary variables of the relationship between tourist and destination, such as satisfaction, trust and attachment, and attempt to develop the unique characteristics of a specific
destination to better meet the actual and symbolic needs of tourists (Chen and Phou, 2013).

Islands are special destinations, in the sense that the contribution of tourism to their overall development is undoubtedly extremely important. Establishing high levels of tourist satisfaction in island destinations is important in order to generate positive behavioural intentions that contribute to the sustainability of a destination's tourism development and the strengthening of its competitiveness (Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2015). The findings of the present paper confirm the contribution of an image to destination attachment and tourist loyalty, which is related to the intention of tourists to revisit a destination or recommend it to others. Recommending a destination to others by word of mouth, which is directly linked to a destination’s reputation (Dmitrovic et al., 2008), constitutes the most reliable source of collecting information on a place to visit, since it has not been commercially influenced. In addition, tourists’ intention to revisit the island of Cephalonia (68.3%), has proved to be very advantageous, as according to relevant studies, the cost of acquiring new customers is five to seven times the cost of maintaining old customers (Appiah-Adu, 1999). There is, therefore, a need for a proper marketing plan to create a destination image that would be positive, reliable and able to live up to tourists’ expectations, by relying on the cognitive and functional elements of the image and by focusing on the destination’s distinctive features and locality. Such an image can lead to devoted tourists, who will be revisiting and recommending the destination, promoting the area in terms of saving costs, increasing its competitiveness and ensuring its sustainability.

6. References


FILM AND GASTRO TOURISM: AN OVERVIEW OF RECENT TRENDS

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This paper explores the relationship between film and food in a tourism context - thus bringing together two factors that on their own are important for tourism, but that have not been extensively studied together. In an age when tourists are increasingly looking for unique experiences, and where food has become a way of signifying identity, it is fruitful to look at the links between these seemingly separate areas. The paper makes use of a range of examples of film themed food outlets, and analyses them through an experience economy perspective. The discussion shows that film themed restaurants operate on experience rather than cuisine, and that - as opposed to gastro tourism per se - the level of authenticity attached to the restaurant experience is more dependent on the truthfulness to the filmic narrative than local gastronomy traditions.

1. Introduction

The link between film and tourism has long been recognised. Films can influence the way a country or city’s identity is perceived and is a powerful tool for creating a strong image. Food is also an exceedingly important factor for tourism, accounting for a large portion of tourism spending (Quan and Wang, 2004). People experience countries and regions through food, thus food represents cultures, like Spanish paella or Scottish haggis. Taking a deeper interest in food is increasingly popular, and has for many turned into a lifestyle and become part of what signifies our identity.
This paper explores the relationship between film, food, and tourism. A film can provide the inspiration for a theme where the restaurant becomes a prolongation of the fantasy on screen. Therefore, this way of experiencing film through food, or food through film, is a powerful aspect of the tourism experience. The paper provides an overview of this phenomenon, critically exploring some of the trends relating to film and gastro tourism and how they can be understood from a wider experience economy point of view. After discussing film and gastro tourism in general terms, the paper moves on to identify trends in the market. These trends are exemplified by restaurants and food outlets from various parts of the world, which are discussed in relation to key concepts such as post-tourism, the experience economy, authenticity, hyperreality, and identity.

2. Film and Gastro Tourism

Film tourism is a broad term and can incorporate many activities. Visiting film locations is arguably the most direct form of film tourism, but it can also refer to visiting television locations, studios, homes of actors and directors, film festivals, and theme parks. In addition, it can include visiting regions that films have raised an interest in, but that were not specifically used as filming locations (Beeton, 2005). As Urry (1995) points out, places are being consumed in a visual sense, tourists using the same gaze as when viewing the location on a cinema screen. Film can allow previously un-touristic places to be re-packaged so that they acquire new meanings (Britton, 1991). This opens up for new tourism locations, which become reconstructed as objects of visual consumption and experience centres where goods and services are purchased. New Zealand is an example of a destination that has capitalized on film tourism. The blockbuster Hobbit films, directed by New Zealander Peter Jackson, allowed the local landscape to be re-imagined as the fantasy land of Middle-earth. The sets have a new life as tourist attractions, and have put the (for many people) remotely located island on the tourist map. The Middle-earth restaurant The Green Dragon Inn has recreated the interior from the film, as the interior scenes were actually shot in a studio (Hobbiton Tours, 2012). The menu promises “traditional Hobbit fare”, which is remarkably similar to British
Cultural tourists are increasingly seeking authentic and/or novel experiences, and the importance of food for the tourism experience is widely recognised. Richards (2012) highlights that tourists are looking for food linked to the place they visit, as this provides a sense of authenticity. Local cuisine is at the same time becoming globalised (Richards, 2002). Bestor (2000) exemplifies this trend with sushi and points out that although sushi is available all over the world it is still perceived as Japanese food. The cultural symbolic value of sushi has not diminished; on the contrary, the wide proliferation of sushi restaurants increases the awareness of Japanese cuisine.

Ritzer (1993) coined the term “McDonaldization”, which entails the rise of fast food, a consequence of globalisation. Food has become standardised, cheap and predictable across the globe (Richards, 2002). This might be welcome among some tourists who value the safety of predictability, but as Symons notes, “when menus become the same the world over, gastronomic tourism becomes redundant” (1996: 336). This is contrasted by another trend - local food is thriving, thus stimulating regional development of gastronomic products (Mak et.al, 2012). As Green (2001) points out, the relationship between globalization and localization is dialectic, rather than a diametric opposition. The demand for regional cuisine is also changing the way nations are perceived. England, for example, was once famously described by Jacques Chirac as having the worst food in the world except for Finland - now London is one of the cities in the world with the most Michelin starred restaurants, and English food is no longer synonymous with only fish and chips. It has been argued that for food to be authentic, it has to be “true to place” (Symons, 1999: 336) as well as respecting local traditions and produce. This tourist quest for the authentic, a “nostalgia rush” as Urry (1990: 109) calls it, is a fruitless pursuit as cooking in all regions of the world are affected by influences from the outside, and therefore constantly changes.

Eating the “right” kind of food can be used as a way of positioning oneself within a group. Bourdieu’s (1984) work on the sociology of taste examines, among other things, food as a way of maintaining class differences. As Richards (2002) points out, today it is not enough to simply dine at a restaurant: it is crucial to be able to pick the right restaurant, order the right
dishes and pronounce foreign food names correctly. Culinary media is part of this trend, with many cookery shows that emphasise the link between travel and gastronomy. Eating supposedly authentic food - and being able to find the hidden restaurant gems off the beaten tourist paths - signifies cultural capital (Richards, 2002).

Postmodernism has deconstructed the concept of authenticity in tourism. Ritzer and Liska (1997) question if tourists really do want authenticity. They argue that tourists might not be interested in walking through the woods collecting berries and nuts to survive, however authentic it might be, but instead prefer the predictability of a chain restaurant or the hotel's dining option. Tourists might be interested in a wilderness experience, but only if it is controlled and safe. Therefore, Ritzer and Liska conclude, tourists are in fact in search of inauthenticity.

3. The Disney Experience and Post Tourism

As film locations are popular tourist destinations purpose built attractions based on popular films is the next logical step. We have seen a surge of theme parks based in part or fully on successful films, like *Harry Potter*. “Film motifs provide that crucial ‘what’s new’ element to the permanent structure of the theme park, preventing it from ossifying and becoming out of date” (Dicks, 2003:101). Visitors are not merely passive participants - active engagement is encouraged, and often required. In true experience economy fashion everyone joins in the game, even if it is “just for the sake of the children”.

In 2014, Disneyland Paris opened an attraction based on the 2007 animated movie *Ratatouille*. The ride makes use of 3D projections from the original film, as well as heat and smells, as it takes the visitors through the kitchen and restaurant featured in the movie. Afterwards, visitors can go straight to the Bistrot Chez Remy, decorated with giant jar lids for table tops and champagne corks as chairs, to “give you a rat’s view” (Disneyland Paris, n.d.). This blurring of lines between the real and apparent results in what Baudrillard (1983) calls hyperreality, where what is real and what is fiction is blended together and impossible to separate. Baudrillard describes hyperrealities as “models of a real without origin or reality” (1983:1) - a copy of a copy. The “copy” becomes the truth in its own right, “the authentic fake” as Eco (1986) put it.
Film and tourism are both abstract concepts representing something else, while still being part of the “real” world. As Beeton (2005:177) notes: “Such notions of film and tourism lend themselves to postmodern consideration.”

The post tourists embrace the inauthentic. They are in on the joke, and are aware of everything’s inauthenticity. In fact, they deliberately seek the inauthentic out, and relish in it. Urry (2002:100) argues that “the post tourist knows that they are a tourist and that tourism is a game in a series of games with multiple texts and no single, authentic tourist experience.” Post tourism accepts multiple interpretations of history and culture, and does not distinguish between high and low culture, or reality and fiction. Rojek (1993) describes the post tourist as someone who is interested in the attraction or experience in itself, and does not travel to pursue self-improvement or gain a deeper knowledge. Traveling is purely for enjoyment and escapism.

4. Restaurants as Experiences

Pine and Gilmore’s (1998; 1999) concept of the experience economy entails that the experience is more important than the product for consumers, and that the memory created is the actual product. Eating out has become a more common leisure activity, and restaurants and other food outlets often offer a package of food, entertainment and atmosphere (Richards, 2002). The Titanic Theatre Restaurant in Williamstown, near Melbourne in Australia, “sets sail every Saturday” according to their webpage (Titanic Restaurant, n.d., a). Diners do not book a table; they buy a ticket for either First Class or Steerage. Guests dress according to the class they are travelling in and are encouraged to wear period dress, appropriate to the class they have booked. The entertainment for the two decks also varies, with Irish gigs being one of the attractions for the steerage passengers, where the inspiration from the 1997 Titanic film is obvious.

The historic events of the night the Titanic sank provide a background, a colourful selling point, rather than a realistic representation. Although the restaurant’s slogan is “The only place in the world where your night is guaranteed to be a disaster” (Titanic Restaurant, n.d., a), the real tragic ending has been replaced by a happy one that even the movie did not have - when disaster strikes, the guests, or passengers, are
whisked away in lifeboats to a party in New York. The Titanic restaurant itself states on its webpage that they do not try to re-enact or reconstruct the night the ship sank, but instead present a spectacle based on movies, myths, reality and their “own sense of fun” (Titanic Restaurant, n.d., b) and reassures potential guests that they do not need to worry about getting wet or being sea sick as they do not actually sail off. The restaurant is not that different from a theme park attraction in that it requires active engagement, while at the same time being safe and predictable. The re-writing of history offers reassurance, and as death has been cancelled nothing can stop the fun. 

Food has “become a significant source of identity forming in postmodern society”, as Richards (2002:3) points out. In a way, we are what we eat - or, maybe more correctly, we shape our identity based on what we eat. Food has become trendy: “We don’t eat from dishes any more, but from fashion plates”, as food critic Terry Durack (2000) put it. The London luxury hotel Sanderson offers Mad Hatter’s afternoon tea, a must for London’s elite, or so they claim on their webpage (Morgans Hotel Group, 2015). The Alice in Wonderland theme puts a spin on the classic London tourist activity of taking afternoon tea at one of the city’s classic hotels.

The film Alice in Wonderland by British director Tim Burton created an Alice frenzy upon its release in 2010. Selfridges department store decorated their shop windows with an Alice theme, Donatella Versace designed a collection inspired by the movie and fashion magazines were filled with Alice inspired images. It was also in 2010 that Sanderson launched their Mad Hatter’s tea. Visitors are invited to “tumble down the rabbit hole” (Morgans Hotel Group, 2015) for tea served on specially designed china, with music boxes as sugar bowls, and drinks served in small bottles labelled “drink me”. With all the high fashion connotations, it is easy to see the appeal of the Alice theme for a luxury design hotel like the Sanderson. As it is located in a 1950s building, it does not have the classic opulent settings associated with a traditional afternoon tea experience, so the theme is the unique selling point. Sanderson describes the hotel’s concept as “new luxury that is smart, pared-down and tempered with a healthy dose of wit and irony” (Morgans Hotel Group, 2015), a phrase that clearly distinguishes them from the competition of the classic luxury hotels.
The film theme is treated differently compared to the Titanic restaurant. The Alice references are strictly limited to the food and the china. The setting is the courtyard of the hotel that has not been decorated to look like the visitors are inside of the rabbit hole. Fancy dress is not allowed, and pictures from Instagram and blogs shows that visitors dress smartly, although there is evidence of attempts to engage more with the quirky theme as diners pose with paper crowns on their heads or show off Alice inspired nail art.

As Richards (2002) has pointed out, the cultural capital we acquire on holiday regarding food distinguishes us from others and helps to develop our identity. The global tourist elite might not visit a place like the Titanic restaurant, but the way the Sanderson treats the film theme is clearly different. The distinction lies in the allowed level of engagement. Whereas the Titanic encourages visitors (or passengers, in their case) to engage to the level of pretending to be in the actual movie, Sanderson limits the fantasy to the food and does not allow costume and does not turn the setting into part of the film experience, thus managing to come across as more sophisticated while at the same time exploiting the film connotations.

Ehon no Kuni no Alice (translated as Alice in Fantasy Book) is one of several Alice in Wonderland themed restaurants in Tokyo. Compared to Sanderson, it takes a whole different approach to the Alice theme as the waitresses are all dressed as Alices, the interior is turned into a fantasy world and guests sometimes wear both bunny ears as well as more elaborate costumes. The restaurant looks like a hybrid between Alice in Wonderland and Japanese Lolita and Harajuku fashion. The familiar British elements of the story have been reinterpreted and blended with Japanese fashion that adds another layer of hyperreality to the experience - the copy of the copy is viewed through the Japanese looking glass.

5. Film, Food and Sense of Place

Film tourism is usually seen as place bound, as the attraction is often the location where a film was shot or other geographical locations that are closely linked to the film. But by adding food to the concept of film tourism, the location becomes less relevant. Forrest Gump was a big hit when it was released in 1994, and it also boosted tourism to the
Mississippi area in Louisiana (Beeton, 2005). In 1996 a restaurant based on the film opened in Monterey, California - the Bubba Gump Shrimp Co. It opened the first European branch in Leicester Square, London in 2014, demonstrating the long lasting appeal of the film. The restaurant has named the dishes after characters from the film, the waiters might quiz visitors on their Forrest Gump knowledge and guests enter the restaurant through a gift shop, selling among other things boxes of chocolate. From the outside, if you do not know your Forrest Gump, it looks like a regular tourist restaurant. If you do know your Forrest Gump though, you will be rewarded by recognising the quotes on the walls and getting the quiz answers right. Some branches have a bench with a box of chocolate outside where visitors can take pictures, but in London the experience is more based on facts, quizzes and familiarity than active participation.

In relation to the above, it is worth considering tourist motivations for visiting film-based food outlets more generally. As Beeton (2005) points out, the concept of film tourism is complex; it includes several forms of activities and many film tourists can be classified as “incidental” tourists, meaning that visiting the film location is not their primary purpose for travelling. The same is true of gastro tourism, as previous research has indicated that very few can be described as gastronomic tourists (Hall and Mitchell, 2005), but far more enjoy food and restaurants as a secondary motivation (McKercher et. al, 2008; Enteleca Research & Consultancy, 2000). Although the number of primary gastronomy tourists is small, food makes up for a large portion of the total tourism spending. It is therefore not surprising to see restaurants turning to experiences to stand out from the competition. Adding a film theme potentially attracts more guests and can be used as an effective vehicle for marketing, as the globalisation of food cultures has made it more difficult to compete merely on offering unique or excellent cuisine. Bubba Gump Shrimp Co have mainly received negative reviews, with The Independent rewarding it one star out of five for food and stating that it is “sucking up shoals of tourists in the catering equivalent of industrial fishing” (MacLeod, 2014) and The Guardian found that “a lot of the food (served here) should be classed as cruel and unusual punishment” (Rayner, 2014). Although this restaurant is not the kind where the visitor
acquires cultural capital, it is still a very popular food outlet with 40 branches on three continents.

Bubba Gump Shrimp Co and Bistrot Chez Rémy, the Ratatouille restaurant, were both started by production companies. A restaurant can be another way of capitalising on popular films long after their cinema run has finished, and these restaurants are part of the films’ worlds, rather than associated with a particular place.

6. Conclusion

This paper has examined the links between film and gastro-tourism by looking at examples of film themed restaurants. The influence of the experience economy on this segment is clear - it is the experience, rather than the food, that is emphasised. Films can add magic, glamour and fun to an otherwise ordinary restaurant experience.

As food and travel have become increasingly important factors for construction of identity, the expected level of participation is crucial - it is what determines if the experience is to be considered sophisticated or just plain cheesy. The post tourist might appreciate the over-the-top elements of pastiche and playfulness but, depending on the image food outlets want to project, some attractions are careful not to cross the line into ironic territory.

It is often claimed that tourists want authentic food when travelling, with authenticity being equated to locally produced traditional food. As Richards (2012: 28) puts it: “Creating ‘authentic’ experiences is often a question of careful framing and inventive and creative storytelling. Creating a strong narrative about place and the food culture that is linked to it can be an effective form of product development.” Richards is not referring to film when he talks about creating a narrative, but he does suggest (2011) that gastronomy can be considered to be part of the creative industries since it is possible to create narratives around food. This makes sense when looking at the connections between film and food as discussed in the examples in this paper. The fantasy element that film adds to the restaurants changes what is considered authentic both in terms of sense of place and local traditions. Authenticity in this context is defined by being true to the filmic narrative rather than local gastronomy traditions.
7. References

You Cook the Numbers! *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 25(2): 137-148


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MANIFESTATION OF VALUES AND IDENTITY IN TRAVELLING

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The paper deals with the significance of values and identity in travelling. Contemporary valuistic journeys are analysed. The concept of valuistic journeys consists of the agreement between the identities of the traveller himself and others, where the social identity is marked by the meanings and symbols. There are many reasons for undertaking valuistic journeys, the most important of them being personal values, personal and social identity, life experience of pilgrims, lifestyle, social and cultural influence. Travellers usually take a certain role during the journey, searching or demonstrating their identity. The manifestation of personal and social identity has different forms and rituals, constitutes different models of the specific behaviour. Valuistic journeys could serve as the instrument for life change. Key words: values and identity in tourism, valuistic journeys, rituals and behaviour of travellers, life changing journeys.

1. Introduction

Manifestation of values and identity is important element of our life. Travelling is one of the ways to demonstrate identity and values, outlook on the world. Various rituals and models of specific behaviour help to express travellers’ identity. Sometimes travels can offer opportunities even to change one’s life direction and to obtain new values or new identity.

The purpose oh this paper to overlook researches of values and identity in tourism, to highlight valuistic journeys as the instrument for expression valuistic ideals, and to discuss visible actions (mainly rituals) which help to show
internal values of travellers. Some examples expose transformative potential of valuistic journeys.

2. Values and Identity in Tourism

Values are essentially abstract beliefs that are culturally defined and serve as guidelines for worldview, principles, and behaviours. It is set of opinions what is social acceptable. Muller (1991: 57) noted, that values „govern a person’s lifestyle and provide a direct and useful explanation of the multitude of interests, outlooks on life, consumption practices and activities that define a lifestyle”. Values could be defined as strategies to adapt environment to one’s needs or strategies to adapt oneself to situations (Kahle, 1983). Taken together personal values forms leading set of value orientations.

Typically, values have been assessed and compared through the use of standard measures such as Rokeach’s Value Survey (Rokeach, 1973), the List of Values (Kahle and Timmer, 1983) and Schwartz’s Value Survey (Schwartz, 1992, 1994).

In tourism studies we can distinguish three main trends of researches of values and tourism. One of them is the impact of values on tourists (consumers) behaviour and choices, another is linked with the segregation of tourist’s types. Third trend research the impact of personal values to the tourist motivation and journey motives (Liutikas, 2014).

One of the main trends of researches of values and tourism is the segregation of tourist’s types according their values (Muller, 1991; McCleary and Choi, 1999; Mehmetoglu, and others, 2010, etc.). Pizam and Calantone (1987) examined a value scale related to tourist vacation behaviour. Li and Cai (2012) researched the effects of Chinese personal values on travel motivation and behavioural intentions. Jovanovic (2014) explored relationship between individual values and holiday preferences of Serbian students.

Jewell and Crotts (2001) used Hierarchical Value Map (HVM) technique to explore the underlying motives and needs of visitors to a heritage site. The HVM method is designed to identify both higher and lower psychological values and their connections via a series of probing questions. In the HVM interview process, subjects are
asked multiple questions. The results are visually presented in the form of a map, or tree-like structure, connecting different elements.

Social and personal identity could be defined as one’s consciousness of one self and others’ perception of one’s individuality (Yamin, 2008). In general, identity is related with the representation of one’s values, personal experience, memory, intelligence, etc. Identity helps to establish person as an independent individual and usually is constructed in relation to difference. Values and value orientations is important part of identities.

Researchers of identity and tourism are very different. Scientists try to find various interrelations of tourism and personal or social identity. The main research trends related with the connections of national or ethnic identity and tourism (Pitchford, 2008; Frew and White, 2011), search of personal identity (Timothy, 1997; 2008), tourism impact to hosts identities (Caneen, 2014).

3. Tourism as the Manifestation of Values: Valuistic Journeys

Tourism can be seen as instrument to manifest or construct one's identity through contact with others. Destination places could serve as reference points (Hinch, Higham, 2009: 66) that help tourists to (re) construct their personal identity.

Different approaches exist to values based tourism (Table 1). Conceptions of values based journeys could be described as pilgrimage, personal heritage tourism, holistic tourism, and valuistic journeys. However, in all these conceptions motivation for travelling is related with constructing or manifestation of personal or social identity, self-fulfilment of showing your values. These conceptions provide a framework for understanding values and identity impacts on motivation and behaviour of tourists.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Definition/Description/Stated position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valuistic journeys</td>
<td>Liutikas (2012)</td>
<td>An expression of valuistic ideals, as well as confirmation and demonstration of identity. Two major groups identified: a traditional (religious) pilgrimage and a modern secular (unrelated to religion) pilgrimage. Values fostered by valuistic travellers can be related to religion or quest for a personal spiritual path. They can also embody national, cultural or other collective ideals or the unique values of an individual. The destination of this kind of journey, which is carried out on the grounds of spiritual or valuistic motives, is sacred, estimable or a place related to personal values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holistic tourism</td>
<td>Smith (2003), Smith and Kelly (2006)</td>
<td>Holistic tourists are often more interested in „finding” their true selves. They increasingly use tourism as a means of improving their home life, rather than merely escaping from it. Although the focus of holistic tourism is largely the self, many destinations are located in aesthetically pleasing, environmentally lush and culturally rich surroundings. Some identified kinds of holistic tourism: religious tourism, spiritual tourism, holistic tourism, yoga tourism, and spa tourism.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal heritage tourism</td>
<td>Timothy (1997)</td>
<td>Personal heritage attractions draw people who possess emotional connections to a particular place. These also include heritage associated with specific interest groups to which a traveler belongs, including religious societies, ethnic groups, and career groups. For personal heritage tourism are important family history research, root finding, family reunions, and historical identity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pilgrimage</td>
<td>Morinis (1992)</td>
<td>Pilgrimage is as a journey undertaken by a person in quest of a place or a state that he or she believes to embody a valued ideal. The destinations are some ideal that the pilgrim values but cannot achieve at home. Most typically, this is religious ideals, and pilgrimage places have often been considered sites where the divine issues forth into the human realm. Pilgrimage could be collectively designated goal or places that represent a store of one’s personal ideals.</td>
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The term *pilgrimage* is the best known for religious travelling to the sacred places. However, today more and
more authors (Morinis, 1992; Hall, 2006; Margry, 2008, etc.) emphasize new secular forms of pilgrimage that go far beyond traditional religious practices. According Morinis (1992: ix), pilgrimage is a movement toward ideals known but not achieved at home. Pilgrimage becomes value-based journey mingling the *sacrum* and *profanum* spheres.

Holistic tourism, according Smith (2003), is directed towards inner harmony. These types of tourists seek personal enhancement or enlightenment, they enjoy natural experiences in harmony with nature. Their main value is physical, mental and spiritual well-being. Personal heritage tourists try to find personal families past, knowing family history is most important value for such travellers (Timothy, 2008).

The conception of valuistic journeys has been developed by Liutikas (2009; 2012; 2013; 2014). According him, valuistic journeys express values and identity of an individual and serve as an indicator of tourist value orientations.

Two major groups of valuistic journeys were defined: a traditional (religious) pilgrimage and a secular (unrelated to religion) pilgrimage. Secular pilgrimage carries a kind of religiosity that overtakes traditional religious meaning and is built on immanent but universal values. It can be divided into several types: sport fan journeys are related to supporting a team and/or an athlete during a competition outside their place of residence; cultural pilgrimages seek to express cultural values related to music, fine arts or other kinds of art; national identity journeys constitute travelling to a place or event of significance from the point of view of national history or statehood, seeking to pay tribute to political leaders or, if the place of residence is elsewhere, to visit one’s Motherland (Liutikas, 2012).

Valuistic travellers can be often distinguished from other travellers by the fact that in most cultures they are inclined to be recognised as such because the journey like this is part of their personal or social identity. The identity of religious pilgrims and sport fans is emphasised by the demonstration of specific clothing and attributes, chants, specific rituals.

However, the main difference distinguishing a recreational or cognitive journey and a valuistic journey is the motivation of the traveller and his/her inner disposition.
Valuistic motives are primary in religious or secular pilgrimages, and their idea is very clear, i.e. reaching the geographical destination and at the same time expressing personal or social identity and values, defining the features, which identify the self. Motives of valuistic journeys depend on many reasons. The most important of them are life experience of pilgrims, lifestyle, social and cultural influence.

So, in general each valuistic journey is comprised of three major elements.

1) an individual with his/her identity, values, motivation which he is ready to demonstrate and express during the journey,
2) the fact of travelling as such, mobility within geographical space characterised by different ways of travelling and effected by environment and fellow-travellers;
3) the destination point, which from the cultural, symbolical and special point of view embodies a certain value (Liutikas, 2013).

4. Rituals and Behaviour of Valuistic Travellers: Examples of Lithuanian Travellers

Manifestation of values and identity related with the use of specific actions or rituals. The most important characteristics of rituals: 1) they are performed in space at particular time; 2) they serve as social function - integrate individuals into a social structure and smooth social inequality; 3) they transmit symbolic codes within a cultural group. Schirch (2005) provided similar characteristics of rituals. According her, ritual is symbolic physical acts that require interpretation. They take place in unique spaces and are set off from everyday life. Also rituals “aim to form (build) or transform (change) people’s worldviews, identities, and relationships” (Schirch, 2005: 17). Special rituals could be associated with place, and may have forms of devotion, commemoration or festivity. Rituals are linking part between identity, personal values and place.

The identity is also emphasised by special symbols. These symbols are easily recognised by those who share the same social identity and values: special clothing, words, gestures, flags, etc. Ritualistic and symbolic action is to obtain and display souvenirs and memorabilia related to the
destination place. Different relics, talismans and amulets help “to reconstruct the sacred journey in the imagination” (Coleman and Elsner, 1995). Some valuistic journeys have repetitive feature. Travellers go to the same destination place every year and repeat particular actions and behavioural formulas.

The observation of the religious pilgrimages shows that pilgrims going to a journey based on religious and spiritual motives devote their journey to prayer or meditation, communication on religious topics, they analyse issues of the sense of life. Rituals of a traditional religious pilgrimage often mingle with the general rituals of religious practice. Their form and structure is typically stricter. The atmosphere of a secular pilgrimage is secular, resembling a tourist journey. However, at the destination point travellers also carry out different rituals, which vary depending on the visited place, their knowledge and experience.

The level of ritualisation and structuralisation in secular pilgrimage and religious pilgrimage differs. In contrast to the preferable formulas and rituals of traditional pilgrimage, secular pilgrims are often free to choose their behaviour during the journey (Liutikas, 2012: 51).

The methods of observation, qualitative and quantitative surveys were applied to identify behavioural features and rituals of Lithuanian travellers (Liutikas, 2014). The most known and visible are rituals and religious practices performed by religious pilgrims, but sport and music fans, and other secular pilgrims also have ritual-like behaviours.

All rituals performed during the journey of valuistic Lithuanian travellers could be grouped into several groups: 1) Internal (e.g. penance, contemplation, meditation, reading, etc.); 2) External oral (e.g. singing songs, chants, communication with other pilgrims, praying, etc.); 3) External physical actions (e.g. walking on the knees, clapping, trampling, touching relics, hands of sportsmen or musicians, etc.); 4) External attributes (e.g. special clothes, flags, banners, musical instruments, body painting, etc.); 5) Complex actions (e.g. participation in Holly mass, concerts or sport events, etc.); and 6) Actions to memorialise the journey (e.g. taking photographs, buying souvenirs, collecting signs of sportsmen, musicians, or politicians, leaving inscriptions, letters and flowers, etc.) (Liutikas, 2014).
5. Tourism as the Instrument for Value Change: Life Changing Journeys

Various journeys create different experiences to the tourists and their value orientations. Tourist journey can be turning point (Hutchinson, 2014) or life event for the traveller. Turning point is a time when major change occurs in the life course trajectory, it may involve transformations in how the person views the self in relation to the world and/or transformation of values and identity.

In general, pilgrimage and tourism quite often considered as ritual of transformation (Franklin, 2003). Many authors (Turner and Turner, 1978; Graburn, 1989; Burns, 1999) stressed the ritualistic function of tourism, which closely resembles rituals of passage.

Transformative potential of journeys was analysed by Morgan (2010). He underlines the importance of inner journey to transformative learning. The encounter with the different values and behaviours can be conducive to transformation. Important to understand, that not all types of journeys are equal efficacy in terms of transformation. “Existential” travellers and pilgrims are these types of travellers who will most likely result in transformation.

The process of the construction of identity involves internalisation of knowledge, beliefs and skills. Organized religious pilgrimages are suitable time for religious conversions. According Furseth and Repstad (2006) the concept of conversion suggests that inner changes have taken place in a person’s identity and meaning system. A conversion is often accompanied by a new lifestyle and social context.

Affiliation with a religious group through conversion is most dramatic form of religious internalisation (Johnstone, 2007). The group within which it occurs affects conversions. The process of the restructuring of the personal identity is very visible after conversion. This usually accompanied by external symbols and change of behaviour. In religious conversions these new signs of life change could be wearing of the religious symbols (as example, necklace with Cross), attending religious services, reading religious books, giving testimonies, etc.

The same changes of self-perception could occur during other organized valuistic journeys. Intensive interaction and
involvement with the group of particular values could facilitate acceptance of these values. However, it could be that person accepts new values not for doctrinal reasons, but because of the supportive attitude of the group of “fellow human beings who express warmth, acceptance, and support” (Johnstone, 2007: 115).

Conversions of famous people have an impact to whole society. For example, Lithuanian nobleman Mikalojus Kristupas Radvila the Orphan (1549-1616) during the trip to Italy converted from Protestantism to Catholicism. This conversion helped to strengthen Catholicism in Lithuania. Later in 1582-1584 M. K. Radvila ‘The Orphan’ as pilgrim travelled to Holy Land, Egypt, and Syria. His travel diary Hierosolymitana Peregrinatio (Pilgrimage to Jerusalem) was published at Braunsberg (East Prussia) in 1601 and received great interest by readers in various European countries. This book later appeared in translations and new editions.

The opposite process of deconversion could also happen during valuistic journeys. This goes together with disappointment and dissatisfaction discovering inconsistencies between group’s ideals they profess and their real actions.

Returning home with the new values and narratives is important element of valuistic journeys. Valuistic travellers can see the contradiction between the everyday world and their journey. So, after getting back home travellers try to integrate valuistic experience into their everyday life. Thoughts and attitudes formed on the road let to assess the daily problems with different view. Some pilgrims feel changed and renewed: “somehow feel that something changed inside me. You feel changed. Maybe truly purified and gathered authenticity” (female pilgrim, 38 years old). Clift and Clift (1996) pointed out that connection with holiness or value frequently experienced as healing.

Difficult pilgrimages on foot could show the wish for penance, purification or reconciliation. As for example, Lithuanian pilgrim J. V. Tūras made 4500 km pilgrimage on foot from Vilnius (Lithuania) to Santiago de Compostela (Spain) as the act of purification from alcohol consumption. In this case valuistic journey becomes as marker of the new period of life.
6. Conclusions

Valuistic journey is the way to express personal or social identity. Such kind of travels may be used to search or reaffirm identity, to maintain a relationship with specific values. Discussions on manifestation of values and identity during the journey have to include such elements as motivation of the travellers, choice of destination, behavioural characteristics during the journey and at the destination point, e.g. special rituals and use of symbols. These specific rituals and symbols help to emphasize an identity of the traveller. Transformative learning, internalisation of new values and identity may distinguish journey as the turning point of life. The most known life changing events in the travelling are religious conversions. It’s also important to discuss the impact of valuistic journey on everyday life and choice of journeys as markers for renewed life.

7. References


The purpose of this paper is to explore a knowledge-based approach to tourism policy formulation. Tourism policy formulation as a dynamic knowledge-based process has received limited attention in the tourism literature. Tourism practitioners make timely decisions to guide and direct tourism development and these decisions are policies built from data and information received from tourism activities. Tourism officials in the public sector of five Caribbean countries were interviewed regarding their use of tourism data within their agencies or departments and within the tourism sector. The findings reveal the important role of tourism data and information to guide tourism sector planning and development in areas relating to hotel investment, airline facilitation, strategic planning and forecasting, and marketing. There are implications for open data in the tourism sector as greater access to tourism data can improve the diffusion of key data and information for tourism policy formulation for the development and management of the tourism sector.

1. Introduction

Tourism policies form the basis of a tourism planning process and implementation of a plan results in tourism development (Cooper et al., 1998). Traditionally tourism policy formulation has been a consultation process such as policy networks (Dredge, 2006) from which a set of policies are derived to guide the development of the tourism sector.
Nonetheless, changes in the tourism sector are continuous in nature and therefore the knowledge that is needed to guide tourism development should be framed using a knowledge-based approach wherein greater access to tourism data can create timely decisions to direct tourism development. The body of work surrounding tourism policies can benefit from taking this knowledge-based approach that involves the use of context specific knowledge derived from shared data and information to achieve a purpose. Knowledge-based network approaches have been applied to knowledge networks within the tourism sector (McLeod and Vaughan, 2015) including the knowledge dynamics involved in the policy and planning processes (Dredge, 2015) and inter-business networks (McLeod, 2015).

A knowledge-based tourism policy formulation process, which involves opening tourism datasets as open data requires exploration. Open data are public datasets that are made available in machine readable format and are free for use and re-use by the public. Datum is the foundation of the knowledge hierarchy. Knowledge takes two forms, an explicit form that is codified and a tacit form that is personal and both forms of knowledge are simplified or codified within data. Types of knowledge through data and information can be shared, with data being shared through explicit forms and information being shared through tacit and explicit forms. Knowledge can be acquired through use of data and information but the mechanisms through which these processes occur require clarification. While there is debate as to whether knowledge can be managed as data and information are manageable (Wilson, 2002), it is certain that greater access to data and information enables the creation of knowledge. This access can be facilitated through open systems models of knowledge management and creation (Carlsson, 2003; Kogut and Zander, 2003; Novak and Toyama, 2003). An open system of data and information that contribute to knowledge can be made ‘public’, in other words not held in one particular business or organization. Openness of data and information can therefore form the basis through which knowledge can be created and applied in the context of tourism policy-making.

Tourism is the Caribbean’s premier economic activity with the receipt of about 25 million tourists spending an estimated US$28 billion annually in 2013 (CTO, 2014a). The first 6 months of 2014 showed an increase in visitor arrivals of 4.3%
(CTO, 2014b) and growth is expected to continue with the current decline in oil prices. From all prospects, Caribbean tourism is a growth sector and this has resulted in renewed attention being given to the sector’s sustainability. Six policy goals have been noted for the region and include capacity management, marketing, transportation, environment, economic linkages, and health, safety and security priorities (CTO, 2014c). Within this context, the policies that are needed to guide the sector in these areas become rather important and a new approach, which addresses the knowledge requirements for tourism policy formulation in the sector can contribute to successful tourism development within the region.

2. Theoretical Background of a Knowledge-Based Approach to Tourism Policy Formulation

The tourism policy formulation process is critical as it has been acknowledged that tourism policies need to be well-formulated to influence tourism development (McLeod and Airey, 2007) and contribute to tourism governance and sustainability (Bramwell and Lane, 2012). Policy formulation here refers to the process through which policy guidelines are derived to direct the planning and development activities within the tourism sector. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) suggest that tourism policy formulation requires an integrated system that will allow for the governance of the important issues in the tourism sector. Primarily tourism policy-making has been related to a political process that involves consultation with tourism stakeholders (Page, 2015). The set of tourism policies that results from the policy-making process should guide the growth of the tourism sector. In large part therefore, the success of tourism development starts with the relevance and appropriateness of formulated tourism policies for the destination. Jenkins (1991) suggests three categories of tourism policy directions including either public or private sector driven, international or domestic tourism, and integrated or enclave tourism. While this categorization of tourism policies is useful, the dynamic nature of the tourism industry requires emergent tourism policies that can achieve policy goals in the shortest possible time in any practical policy direction.

Policy formulation processes can be de-railed with the resultant policy failure. Policies should be representative of the
stakeholders’ viewpoints and particularly involve those communities where tourism development is to occur (Tosun, 2000), although, it has been noted that with consultation there can be failure in consensus building (Yüksel, Bramwell and Yüksel, 2005). Additionally, the dynamics within the sector require ongoing feedback from stakeholder groups and therefore governance of the sector should involve platforms for ongoing consultation. Continuity of collaboration for tourism policy formulation is important to realize tourism sustainability (Wong, Mistilis and Dwyer, 2009). Notably, Chambers and Airey (2001) made reference to an aspect of policy failure in Jamaica that resulted in the lack of an increase in employment in the tourism sector. In this regard, monitoring the performance of the tourism sector should be timely to avoid negative economic, social and environmental impacts and resultant adjustment to tourism policy directions. This monitoring requires data and information that should be provided on a continuous basis. After the policy has been formulated there can also be failure to implement the desired tourism policy such as a policy for sustainable tourism development in Cyprus (Sharpley, 2003). Based on these challenges the tourism sector requires new ways of undertaking the tourism policy formulation process for successful tourism development.

Herein is the value of a knowledge-based approach applied to policy formulation within the tourism sector. Knowledge-based relates to the acquisition and utilization of knowledge. Within the tourism sector there are repositories of knowledge that can facilitate knowledge-based processes. Scott and Flores (2015) suggest that knowledge in the tourism sector diffuses through stakeholder networks and categorize the knowledge domains in tourism as government policy, destination infrastructure planning, destination marketing and management for large destinations and destination marketing and management for small destinations. The knowledge within these domains need to be shared for the benefit of the tourism industry as a whole. There is therefore a need to build knowledge capacity in the tourism sector particularly in the domain of codified knowledge, which diffuses readily. Cooper (2015) notes that tourism knowledge codification is important for managing knowledge in the tourism sector and that this aspect has been ‘ignored’. The hindrances to codification of tourism knowledge relate to Cooper (2015: 72):
• organizational politics;
• knowledge hoarding;
• the fact that relevant knowledge in documents can be fragmented; and of course
• knowledge may not always present in the proper form, at the right time or may be incomplete.

Knowledge flows within the tourism sector contribute to performance and therefore approaches that can assist with improving knowledge sharing processes are needed to improve tourism policy-making.

The rapidly evolving Open Data movement, whereby government data are published online in a structured, machine readable format that are available for anyone to access, consume and reuse, presents an opportunity to mitigate some of the barriers to knowledge sharing in the tourism sector. As an industry, tourism functions most effectively with the free flow of information about the tourism product, service providers and consumer experiences that provide the basis for awareness, choice and improved service delivery between the prospective tourist and operators in the sector. On the other hand, poor data sharing practices between the state and operators within the sector, causes information asymmetry that leads to operational inefficiencies and impedes the quality of service delivery, decision-making and innovation in critical supporting sub-sectors such as transportation, entertainment and sectors such as agriculture. Information asymmetry occurs if one side is more informed than the other and this may be related to cost factors and information is needed to facilitate state interventions that strategically improve the performance of the tourism sector (Socher, 2001). In this regard, the use of Open Data as an explicit policy and operational initiative enhances knowledge fluidity and presents value-adding opportunities for the tourism sector in the Caribbean (Caribbean Open Institute, 2013).

3. Methodological Approach

This paper explores a knowledge-based approach that involves the use of data and information in the tourism policy formulation process and forms part of a broad piece of work
regarding Open Data in the Caribbean tourism sector. The research instrument was designed based on the Sector-Specific Assessment Framework for Open Data (ORDN, 2014). This paper reports on responses to questions about data use. Interviewees were asked regarding their use of tourism data including who are the primary users, who should be using tourism data and who could be using tourism data to bring value to the sector. Questions were asked to interviewees surrounding the main tourism datasets of tourism arrivals, tourism assets and tourism service providers and regarding their use of tourism data including the specific goals achieved within the agencies, departments and the tourism sector.

Tourism officials primarily in the Ministry of Tourism and National Tourism Organizations of five Caribbean countries including Antigua and Barbuda (AB), Barbados (BR), Dominican Republic (DR), Jamaica (JM) and Trinidad and Tobago (TT) were interviewed. In terms of annual tourist arrivals for 2010, the Dominican Republic and Jamaica received about over 4 million and 2 million tourists respectively and the other three countries receive altogether over 1 million tourists. A list of key contacts was developed and a letter of invitation to participate was sent to 16 individuals in the five countries. Interviews were conducted via Skype and use of a telephone. Four questionnaires were self-completed and were received via e-mail, one from Barbados and three (3) from the Dominican Republic, which is a Spanish speaking country. Thirteen (13) questionnaires were received. Those questionnaires that involved the researcher taking notes were typed and sent back to the interviewees for verification. Corrections to the questionnaires were then made. The qualitative data were analyzed using content analysis. Content analysis summarizes the text into themes that can then be utilized for understanding the subject under study. Highlighted interviewee responses are coded based on a country identifier such as AB for Antigua and Barbuda and the responses from the five countries provide a broad perspective on tourism policy formulation in the region.
4. Results

The findings reveal the users of tourism data and content of tourism policies in relation to the datasets utilized by the tourism professionals including policy-making officials and how changes in policies and programmes within the sector can emerge from the datasets. Both the internal and external users of tourism data are part of the tourism policy-making process as they can potentially inform that process. Overall, the results revealed that tourism policy content can guide the decisions made in relation to hotel investment, airline facilitation, strategic planning and forecasting, and marketing.

The users of the tourism datasets differed based on the content of the dataset. The tourism arrivals dataset with content about the tourist geographic, demographic and psychographic (purpose of visit) profiles is the most widely used. The primary users are the government agencies including the Caribbean Tourism Organization (CTO), tourism industry and other businesses, researchers and the media. Interviewees indicated that the planning agencies, overseas representatives and competing destinations in particular as ‘should be’ users of the tourism arrivals dataset. The ‘could be’ users who can bring value to the tourism sector include the financial sector, digital apps developers, small entrepreneurs, stakeholder associations and the public in general. While the primary users of the tourism assets and tourism service providers datasets were similar to the tourism arrivals dataset the other users differed in that the ‘should be’ and ‘could be’ users included visitors, manufacturing companies, media, Heads of associations, craft vendors, and investors (see McLeod and McNaughton, 2015).

Tourism arrivals dataset use is linked to tourism policy and planning, since for example, the monitoring of airline performance and opening of new gateways (BR), monitoring and evaluating the performance of the industry, marketing, planning and promotion to assess the achievement of strategic goals (DR), and profiling and forecasting visitors to plan for peak periods (TT) have been key uses of the tourism arrivals dataset. Within the sector, small properties utilize the information for marketing (AB), and to open up new areas for growth (JM). The specific goals achieved by using the tourism arrivals dataset include making changes to policies and
programmes and creating greater accessibility by negotiating airline loads (BR), and determining the funding allocation for marketing activities, such as the selection of publications for advertisements and track trends and destination performance (TT).

Tourism assets datasets are important for calculation of visitor expenditure (AB), marketing to the different niche markets (BR & DR), licensing, forecasting, planning and product development, the conversion of non-license to license establishments, interventions such as anti-harassment, and providing access and safety (JM), certification and training and tracking performance (TT). The specific goals achieved include better occupancy levels all year round (BR), guide investment in the sector (JM) and determine performance (TT). The sector can utilize the tourism assets data for marketing (DR), community tourism development, increase the number of attractions, create greater linkages with other sectors, inform transportation needs, and insurance companies can use the data for pricing (JM), and provide tour packages (TT). The tourism service providers’ dataset can be utilized in the same way as the tourism assets data, however it primarily provides general information (AB) about transport and tour operators and is an important source to assess the size and variety of the offer (DR).

Based on the importance of the datasets to inform tourism policy formulation, greater access to tourism data can assist with more effective tourism policy formulation as there can be better policy direction and implementation across the tourism sector. If an Open Data policy is adopted along with the establishment of data standards and deployment of appropriate data infrastructures, inter-agency and across government collaboration will be more effective as an open platform will allow for effective integrated planning within government and the tourism sector. This approach can also facilitate ongoing consultative processes that are needed for effective tourism governance. Open Data as a policy can make the sector operate smoothly as it will provide avenues to create linkages and would allow transparency and collaborative governance.
5. Conclusions

Policies regarding the openness of tourism datasets can influence the capacity of tourism practitioners to make timely decisions to formulate and implement tourism policy that can contribute to tourism development. As tourism is an important economic driver within most Caribbean countries, governments of the region should consider application of Open Data policies to the tourism sector. As a relatively new phenomenon, governments will need to collaborate, stimulate and monitor impacts of open data initiatives (Zuiderwijk and Janssen, 2014). This will allow for better access to tourism data throughout the region and facilitate learning experiences that can improve tourism knowledge. Tourism is an information intensive sector where the free flow of data and information provides the basis for greater visibility, operational efficiency and improved service delivery within the sector. Integrating open data initiatives into the policy mix enhances knowledge production and sharing across the key tourism industry stakeholders, and ultimately informs a more relevant and responsive tourism policy framework. Furthermore, given the significant linkages and multiplier effects between tourism and other sectors in the Caribbean economy such as agriculture and manufacturing, the use of tourism sector open data can facilitate more effective integrated policy planning across sectors.

New ways of formulating tourism policies for the benefit of the sector are needed and hence the reason this paper has highlighted a knowledge-based approach and application of open data to the tourism sector. In addition, the required tourism knowledge domains can signal the data and information that are needed for the operation of the sector and new datasets can be developed to facilitate the operation of the tourism industry. The creation of these datasets will assist with the codification and diffusion of tourism knowledge in the sector. The provision of timely, up-to-date tourism data can assist with re-aligning the performance of the tourism sector and facilitate successful tourism practices since strategic initiatives are needed within the tourism sector to achieve the economic, social and environmental benefits that tourism can provide and an open data tourism environment is an important enabler. With the use of tourism data, knowledge-based
tourism policies can guide the path for the achievement of the tourism development goals within the shortest possible time.

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6. References


Children have been significantly absent from the tourism academic discourse and policy designs. Local children’s voices need to be heard if a more comprehensive understanding of tourism social dimensions is to be gained. This study aimed to gain initial understanding of children’s participation in tourism labour at the Monarch Butterfly Reserve in Mexico. Workshops, interviews and focus groups with local children were primarily conducted. The study revealed that children have active participation in remunerable work during the tourism season. Unlike what existing research commonly states, children’s labour in tourism may also represent a benefit in their lives.

1. Introduction

Analysing tourism related child labour is relevant in order to broaden the understanding of the socioeconomic impacts of tourism on local populations. It has important physical, mental, psychological, and emotional implications for the lives of the children involved (Edralin, 2002). Children’s labour may lead to physical and mental harm; illness and fatigue may have a negative effect on children’s well-being. Mental effects include psychological stress and limited opportunities to develop cognitive and social skills. Child labour may also have an effect on self-esteem, value systems, abuse, marginalisation and social stigma, which will eventually affect children’s development. However, there is no reason to believe that all
the effects of tourism child labour are negative. Children’s participation in labour can also make children more knowledgeable, skilful, particularly when such labour is voluntary and does not necessarily represent harm for them; yet, little research has been undertaken on the real and potential benefits of tourism child labour. Therefore, knowing how local children participate in tourism and the implications of such participation is necessary for tourism and social development policies.

Despite the importance of children’s work dimensions, children’s labour, and children in general, have been significantly absent from the tourism academic discourse and policy designs. This has taken place despite the fact that children are one of the most vulnerable groups, particularly in developing countries (Gössling et al., 2004). This paper aims to gain initial understanding of children’s participation in tourism labour in a socioeconomic and cultural context not yet explored and to analyse associated relevant social implications for children’s livelihoods.

2. Child Labour in Tourism

Children have certainly been the object of scientific research. However, as compared with other areas of tourism studies, they have been little studied. Furthermore, it is observed that most research has been about children as tourists, consumers of holiday co-decision makers. The views that children are a valuable source of income and can be influenced and can make their influence felt by their parents (Cullingford, 1995) explain why children have been studied mainly as tourism consumers. Therefore, children’s degree of influence on the decision making process in the holiday context (Gram, 2006; Thornton, Shaw, and Williams, 1997; Wang et al., 2004) has been one of the most studied areas within tourism-children relationships.

In this vein, local children in tourism destinations have been significantly excluded from tourism research. Up to now, local children in destinations have been studied from very specific perspectives; some of the issues studied so far are: children’s views of tourists and tourism (Gamradt, 1995; García et al., 2003), the socioeconomic importance of tourists for street children (Gössling et al., 2004); children’s representations of tourism space (Buzinde and Manuel-Navarrete, 2013); the
commodification and objectification of poor children as tourist attractions (Reas, 2012); children as a means to explore tourism impacts on culture, community and identity (Anglin, 2015); and, although fairly limited in number and contexts studied, children’s participation in tourism labour (Dunn, 2003; Edralin, 2002).

It has been reported that 215 million children worldwide are in child labour (ILO, 2010). Child labour may refer to “those activities that are socially useful and remunerable, requiring manual and/or intellectual effort, which result in the production of goods or performance of services” (Basllescas as cited in Edralin, 2002, p.1); it includes both visible and invisible work done by children (Plüss, 1999). In the context of tourism, children may work in all kind of enterprises, and is concentrated in semi-organised and informal occupations, especially in the developing world (Edralin, 2002). According to Edralin (2002), as opposed to other types of remunerable activity, tourism related child work is a reason of opportunity. Parents may encourage their children in the money-making alternative because it produces extra house-hold income; thus, in places with high levels of poverty, child labour is thus accepted as a “necessary evil” (Gopal, 2011). Poverty, legislative and social conditions as well as the idea of quick money and a wide range of job opportunities for young people without education or skills (Hagedoorn, 2013) are factors explaining why children get involved in remunerable work. Be in accommodation, food and beverage, recreational activities, tour operation or souvenir production and selling enterprises (Plüss, 1999), tourism labour may be unskilled work, performed in the evenings, weekends and holidays, and represent a chance for school-goers. While poverty may largely explain why child labour exists in several contexts, other factor may also explain children’s participation. Factors such as cultural issues and the perceived benefits (other than economic) of child labour may also explain why local children get involved in tourism.

Despite the social benefits and costs of child labour and the alleged number of minors involved in tourism as locals, very few efforts have been made to unveil the social dimensions of this. In the case of developing countries, including Mexico, scientific research on the types, figures, characteristics,
conditions and implications of child tourism labour is practically inexistent.

3. The Case Study

The Monarch Butterfly (Danaus plexippus) is a species characterised by its particular migration behaviour from the United States and Canada to west-central Mexico. The annual arrival of the wintering butterflies is quite an important tourist attraction in the region (Brenner, 2006). It attracts both national and international visitors. Due to its biological importance, the region has been declared a National Protected Area, namely the Monarch Butterfly Reserve. There are four official accesses in the Reserve open to the general public, and tourist services are offered; one of these accesses is located in the area of two rural communities pertaining to the State of Mexico, namely, El Capulín and Macheros. Both communities were taken as the research contexts for this study.

The tourist activity in the Reserve is seasonal; it takes place from November to March each year, the term in which the species arrive and stay in the region. Because it is a National Protected Area, tourism development in the communities is scarce. Visitors stay in the Reserve between five and eight hours on average; the majority of tourist flows are on weekends. Although other activities such as flora and fauna watching, hiking, cycling, horse riding and sale of local handcrafts are part of the tourist services, the main attraction is watching the Monarchs.

According to Brenner (2009), the Reserve is one of the most populated National Protected Areas in Mexico; it concentrates around 100,000 inhabitants belonging to thirteen indigenous communities with high levels of poverty and marginalisation (Serrano, 2008; Sedesol, 2013). Although the local economy is based on traditional productive activities, tourism, though at a small scale and seasonally, has become an important economic and social activity for the people involved in it; it has become an important means for improving employment opportunities in the localities.

All this suggests that the socioeconomic conditions of both communities are limited. Children are inevitably exposed to the implications of such limitations, and tourism for them and their families, albeit temporarily, plays an important role for their livelihoods.
4. The Study

By recognising that children may be the best informants about their own experiences, Poria and Timothy (2014) claim that almost no empirical studies based on children’s voices have been done. Data have tended to be collected from children’s parents and “even when researchers have collected data directly from children, there has been a tendency to analyse and interpret this information in terms of abstract questions that reflect adult researchers’ rather than children’s experiences and beliefs” (Carr, 2011, p.12). Children’s own voices, rather than parents’ or experts’ assumptions, are needed for a better understanding of their experiences in tourism.

Having said this, qualitative methods were adopted in order to hear children’s voices. Qualitative methods allow researchers to gain a deep and context-specific understanding of the phenomena studied. This allowed generating insightful data from children. Informants were children living in both communities; the target group was that in middle childhood, children who attended elementary school (1st-6th grade). Children were approached through their schools in late 2014 and early 2015; a total of 76 children participated in the study, 39 belonged to El Capulín and 37 to Macheros.

The researchers considered that “obtaining a child’s own consent in addition to that of the parent’s is an important step towards recognizing the child’s own right” (Khoo-Lattimore, 2015, p.855). Therefore, children’s will to participate in the study was a requisite for participation, and also permission was granted from parents and school and community authorities. Three main research strategies with children were used: workshops, interviews and focus groups; they were all undertaken at children’s school within their respective community. With regard to workshops, activities with children were based on drawings of butterflies and responding to the question “How do you feel when the butterflies arrive?” The interviews were mainly with children involved in tourism labour; questions regarding what exactly they do when the Monarchs and tourists arrive, what they like about tourists, how much they make out of this and how they spend this money, were included in the instrument. The focus groups were based on their collective experiences as hosts. Both the interviews and
focus groups were recorded and transcribed for analysis. Three researchers and two assistants participated in the study; as suggested by Decrop (1999), this allowed triangulating the collection and analysis of data.

5. Findings

As in many other destinations around the country, tourism in the two communities under study offers local children the opportunity for labour. Child labour in the area holds specific characteristics that may not be present, or at least experienced in the same way, at other destinations in other parts of the country. Firstly, children’s participation in tourism is temporarily defined; unlike other tourism work in other destinations, child tourism labour takes place during the presence of the butterfly, mainly during the months of February and March. Children participate mainly on weekends although they may do it in the evening too, depending on the number of visitors. So tourism brings the community the possibility for child remunerable work. Boys work basically as tour guides, pulling out the horse ridden by tourists up to the mountain where the Monarch phenomenon can be observed. Girls on the other hand help with the production and commercialisation of handicrafts as well as preparing and selling food for tourists. Some girls also participate by charging the entrance for toilets.

Additionally, local children’s participation is characterised by its relatively low pay. Boys receive approximately $15 USD for each guided tour, which may last up to five hours. Girls on the other hand do not receive any pay for their work. Furthermore, children’s participation is voluntary; children regard tourism as an opportunity to do something that entertains them, something they enjoy. Others however, regard tourism as an opportunity for alternative employment to get some money for their household. In either case, though, it was clear that children are not forced by anyone else to enter child labour in tourism.

Child labour in tourism has led to other socioeconomic implications in children’s individual and collective lives in the communities. Through listening to children’s voices, it was learnt that children’s local pride can be enhanced; on the one hand, they are proud for being the only place in the world receiving the butterflies and, on the other, for receiving tourists from different parts of the world.
Additionally, for children tourism becomes a means for developing social and cognitive skills. This was particularly the case for those who have direct contact with tourists. Because children need to communicate with tourists, it was clearly noticed that some have developed better verbal communication skills as compared with others. They have become more knowledgeable and aware of different cultures. Through the visitation of tourists, they have learnt that there exist other people who speak a different language and who come from different places around the world. Sixteen-year-old Cristian, who has been a guide for eight years, claimed: “I like to take tourists because I like to meet people from other places and I like to learn their language”.

Of course, as any other type of labour, tourism labour has economic impacts. Child tourism labour represents extra household income for local families. Boys give the greatest part of their relatively low income to their mothers. They keep one or two dollars for themselves and spend these mainly in sweets and other types of junk food; the rest is given to their family for food and other expenses. During a focus group, Jairo said “We take tourists so that they give us money, then we can pay our debts; we can also buy clothes”.

As any other type of physical work, child tourism labour has implications in the physical wellbeing of local children. Although the number of cases was quite small, it was reported that being a tour guide places boys at risk of physical harm. This is basically because children take tourists up to the mountain on foot and; because accesses to the reserve are uneven, they may stumble over the ground and get some kind of physical harm. Tour guide Luis narrated his own experience “once I was trying to reach my horse and the tourists, then I fell over, I scratched my chest”.

From a gender perspective, child labour in tourism has important implications for local gender constructions. In the local children’s mind, being a tour guide is considered a male activity. Boys were asked why girls did not participate as tour guides, basically the explanation was based on the boys’ beliefs that girls are not strong enough to go up to the mountain and pull a horse. Six-year-old Rogelio argued that “girls cannot be guides because they cannot stop horses; women are less strong than men.... and they are afraid of horses”. The preservation of traditional roles is of course not
exclusive to the tourism arena, as they are reproduced at home; it is mainly girls who help with housework and food at home.

In the same vein, children’s participation in tourism labour, in the context of the two communities studied, contributes to keep traditional roles in two ways. First, while girls are participating in tourism labour, it should be acknowledged that their work is basically an extension of domestic work or those activities that have been traditionally attributed to women (i.e. food processing). Second, because it is boys who give money to their mothers, it also strengthens the gendered idea that the productive role in societies belongs to males. Thus, it must be acknowledged that girls are being largely, if not totally, excluded from the direct and immediate economic benefits of tourism labour.

6. Conclusion

Based on children’s voices, children are certainly important social actors both for their own and their community’s lives. Through labour participation, children have been able to get extra income for their families; they can contribute to improve their everyday conditions, albeit temporarily, by being able to buy food, clothes and other basic products. Furthermore, their participation in tourism has allowed them to develop social skills and become more knowledgeable about cultural differences among tourists and locals, and to become more aware about their own natural environment. This of course challenges the idea that children are passive objects. Instead, children are capable to transform their everyday lives in an active way, at least during the tourist season. Furthermore, this challenges the common assumption that child labour is a “necessary evil”; while economic poverty plays a relevant role in defining children’s lives, their participation in tourism labour is voluntary. Thus positive outcomes within the social, cultural and emotional arena may also emerge from children’s participation in tourism labour.

However, real and potential implications of child tourism labour need to be analysed. In a context where unfavourable socioeconomic conditions and children’s own will to participate in tourism labour overlap, special care needs to be taken in order to safeguard children’s wellbeing. Children’s participation ought to be conditioned to safeguarding their physical,
psychological, emotional, educational and social wellbeing. Only through more research on children’s participation in tourism can more effective policies in tourism be designed and implemented in favour of children’s wellbeing.

7. References


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A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF MIGRATION-TOURISM RELATIONSHIP FROM MOBILITY PERSPECTIVE: A STUDY OF BANGLADESHI MIGRANTS IN THE UK

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International Migration and Tourism are growing phenomena. Both migrant and tourist numbers across the globe are reaching a new record high. This paper looks into the relationship of Migration with Tourism in the context of a globalised and increasingly mobile world. In this qualitative research, empirical evidences were gathered through semi-structured interviews and participants’ observations. Fifty Bangladeshi migrants participated. Findings suggest that Migration and Tourism are interrelated. The mobile nature of contemporary society provides the fundamental elements of this relationship. Visiting Friends & Relatives (VFR) Tourism is the key area where Bangladeshi migration is closely related with tourism. Empirical evidence shows that VFR tourism has socio-cultural and economic implications that require further understanding. While many developed nations are taking advantage of VFR tourism, it is not recognised enough or capitalized on in the UK. Instead, potential flow of VFR tourism is being restricted by strict bordering policies and practices.

1. Introduction

Historically people migrated from one region, country and continent to another for various purposes. The scale of international migration in the contemporary world has seen phenomenal growth due to globalization, freedom of movement, improved communication networks along with
conflicts, wars and natural disasters. Along with the rapid increases in migration, the number of tourist arrivals across the globe is increasing too (UNWTO, 2010). Despite the ever-increasing significance of these great issues, there has been very little or no understanding in empirical literatures on the relationship between migration and tourism. There are some stereotype racial explanations rather than understanding them in the context of mobile nature of the society, mobility of the capital, technology and knowledge (Fox, Morosanu and Szilassy, 2012).

Migration of people from the Bay of Bengal to Britain can be traced back to as early as the end of 16th century; however, the level of migration till 18th century was limited in number (Murshid, 2008). Although it increased significantly in 19th century, particularly after the official annexation of Indian subcontinent to British Empire, the large-scale migration of Bangladeshis happened during 20th century after the establishments of Bangladesh in 1971 following political transitions. Contemporary flows of Bangladeshis mostly include ex-soldiers, asylum seekers, students, skilled workers and professionals including doctors, lawyers and businessmen (Ullah and Eversley, 2010). The 2011 census recorded 447,201 people of Bangladeshi origin in England and Wales (BBC, 2012). It is noticeable that Bangladeshis have been migrating to Britain over the last 400 years; however, this empirical investigation looks into how contemporary Bangladeshis are maintaining their connections between two countries in the age of globalisation and increased mobility and to what extent their mobility relates to tourism.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Mobility

Mobility is a fundamental characteristic of modernity and postmodernity and a powerful discourse of the twenty-first century. Although the concept of mobility refers to as ‘both the large-scale movement of people, objects, capital and information across the world, as well as the more local process of daily transportation, movement through public space and the travel of material things within everyday life’ (Hannam, Sheller and Urry, 2006: 1); mobilities are not just movement, it in fact, it
is an embodied experience; it is also a duty, a reciprocal obligation of returning calls and visits, visiting elderly relatives (Urry, 2007). The meaning of mobility has been extended further by Adey (2010), who argued that mobility is not just a movement from one point to another; it is rather a meaningful movement and production of mobilities therefore refers to the process how movement achieves certain meaning and significance. Many tourism scholars are now considering mobility as a research paradigm to investigate the new spatialisations of social relationships that have long been depicted as static and fixed in a spatial social structure. Mobility perspective is also enhancing our ability to understand the process of globalisation, migration, tourism, homelessness, transport, mobile lives, politics, forced Immobilities in cities from the wider international context to the micro motions of individual's acts (Urry, 2007).

2.2 Mobility, migration and diaspora

Migration or geographical movement of people across the countries or continents is another form of mobility that depicts a horizontal sense of being on the move (Urry, 2007); migration studies also questions the static depiction of the nation, state, place, community and ethnicity drawn in the social sciences and lead us to better understand the migrant subjectivity and modern nomadism in the contemporary world (Hannam, Sheller and Urry, 2006). Concept of migration is being diversified increasingly as there are many forms of migration e.g. voluntary migrations, obligatory migrations, internal migration and external migration. Forces of globalization and new world order are contributing to new forms of migrations (Bauböck and Faist, 2010).

Arguably migration coin has mobility on the one side and immobility on the other. Migration has been fundamental to human experience and existence; there has always been natural instinct, desire to travel, explore, conquer and possess; in contemporary society, international migration contributing to globalised, feminised and diversified society (King, 2012). From immobility context, it is argued that although globalisation allows the free movement of goods, capital, knowledge, entrepreneurship and media, it does not allow people to move freely across the borders; in fact, as a result of increased political and institutional barriers, people are less free to migrate now than they were hundred years ago (King, 2012).
Therefore, it is difficult to understand mobilities without facing the way in which mobilities are restricted and regulated by borders and bordering practices (Richardson, 2013).

2.3 Mobility and tourism

Tourism itself is a form of mobility. Tourism mobility is better understood by acknowledging the fact that tourism is neither an ephemeral aspect of social life nor just exotic encounter, instead, it is integral to the wider process of economic and political development and even inclusive of the activities of everyday life (Hannam, Butler and Paris, 2014). Mobility paradigm is redefining tourism’s concepts of people, place and space; transforming the meaning of the concepts ‘Home’ and ‘Away’. Tourism has long been spatialised as a form of activity that take away from home, however, global mobilities of people and their experiences with many homes, second home and return home is challenging and deconstructing the traditional spatialisations of tourism; living in a second home and returning to the previous home can involve tourism of and at home (Uriely, 2010).

2.4 Migration-tourism relationship

Migration-tourism relationships are often viewed from economic perspective, particularly in the context of migrant worker and the role of remittance in origin and destination countries. However, it is argued that despite economic uncertainties e.g., unemployment and low wages, the vast majority of people in many countries do not migrate (King, 2012). In fact, mobilities of global tourism are closely associated with the broader geopolitical issues of migration; international tourism incorporates many aspects of migration and citizenship, both tourism and migration depends on the right to travel as well as the freedom of movements; there is also similarities in the processes how contemporary tourist’s and migrant’s mobilities are governed (Bianchi and Stephenson, 2013 and Hannam, Butler and Paris, 2014).

Over the last few decades, new forms of tourism mobility at many scales from the local and national to the global have been identified e.g. retired Canadians living in Florida; moving of British middle class people to Italy in the nineteenth century; owners of the second homes in Asia, Western Europe and North America; shifting of northern European citizens towards
southern Europe; are not only a cross border movement for work (Torkington, 2012; Richardson and Butler, 2013; Hall, 2015; Roca, 2013;). These concepts are embedded within the post-fordist society and nature of these this new forms of cross border human mobility is consumption-led, tourism related and leisure orientated.

**Figure 1: Migration-Tourism Relationship**

Note: The relationship between migration and tourism is depicted here based on the literary evidences that have been found & analysed in this research

Lifestyle migration is intertwined with the concept of second-home tourism. It is argued that second home is culturally oriented and mobile lifestyle is producing many dimensions of spaces and times; mobility between homes is considered to be socially produced motion that are practiced, experienced and embodied (Hiltunen and Rehunen, 2014). Tourism is one of the influential factors that are playing significant role in production and consumption of second home (Roca, 2013 and Hall, 2015).

Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR) is another form of tourism that is often depicted as a kind of travel that connects migration with tourism (Backer, 2012; Dwyer et al., 2014). Transnational global workers and individuals are now living geographically dispersed life and mobile individuals maintain their relationships through VFR (Palovic et al., 2014). Arguably, researchers in the UK have overlooked VFR. This research explores the relationship between migration and tourism in the
context of the mobile nature of the society and considers the issues of second-home tourism, lifestyle mobility and VFR travel.

3. Methodology

Philosophical perspective of this research is subjective and Interpretative. The process of induction has been followed in this qualitative research. Semi-Structured interviews and participant observations have been used for collecting primary data and analysis of data has been accomplished manually. A sample size of fifty Bangladeshi migrants in the UK was carefully considered to include various sections of Bangladeshi migrants and the information obtained represents the wider view of the research population. Participants include refugees, spouses, housewives, restaurant employees, restaurant owners, personal bankers, doctors, nurses, local TV channel employees, students, hospitality and catering industry employees. Questions were asked to understand their mobility and travel behaviour and social, cultural and economic ties with both countries. Majority of the questions were open-ended which allowed participants to express their wider view on the respective subjects. Participant observations were carried out throughout the interview process, which starts from approaching the participants for their consent to the end of the interview. Notes were taken wherever possible to record e.g. their expressions to better understand the meanings that were attached with the information obtained. All interviews were recorded and then transcribed. For meaningful analysis, common areas of data collected through the interviews were summarized and categorized. While presenting and analysing the findings, the researcher followed the thematic analysis techniques.

4. Findings and Analysis

The analysis of empirical data suggests that Bangladeshi migration to the UK relates to many aspects of international tourism. Bangladeshi migrants do not just connect through mobile phones and social media but are actively involved in travelling between two countries. The key area of this relationship is VFR travel. Most migrants travel to visit their
family and friends at least once in a year and sometime stay in commercial accommodation and participate in leisure and tourism activities. On an average every migrant family that travel for VFR purposes to their country of origin, spends two thousands pound for travel only. One of the participant’s said:

when I compare travelling to and from my country, it seems like having the most expensive holiday but it is not just about money, in our culture and values, family and friends are far more important, we feel more strongly about our parents, bothers and sisters, cousins, uncles and aunts, we will always visit them, care about them whatever it costs.

Although most of them are living for very long in the UK, surprisingly majority of the migrants maintain strong tie with their country of origin in different ways. As another participant said:

I have been living in this country (UK) for 16 years, I bought a house but still I do not feel at home, my feeling is I am a foreigner, that is way I have also spent money to build a good property in Bangladesh, almost every year I go there and spend time with my parents, relatives and friends and I feel like I can move there permanently anytime, it is safe and always available.

The majority of the migrants agree that while visiting friends and family, in most cases they participate in leisure activities. They acknowledge VFR brings the opportunity to get rid of stress through leisure.

Many migrants think that they would retire in Bangladesh. As one of the participants’s said:

You can see I live a better life, I live a comfortable life here, but I always think that I am not going to die in this country, I belong to where I came from, my plan is to save some money and retire in my country, I want to spend last days of life at my home country and be closer to my relatives and friends.

Mobility between homes is considered to be socially produced motion that is practiced, experienced and embodied (Hiltunen and Rehunen, 2014). Most of the participants agree that there are social and cultural differences between two countries that make them think to go back and retire in their country of origin. They think elderly people are very lonely in
the UK and friends and relatives do not have time to see them or care for them while they can get more respect and comfortable company in Bangladesh. It could be observed that many of the participants expressed the disappointment on the issues of elderly people’s care in Britain and they feel much more confident of getting more care and respect in their native society.

It is evident from the findings that Bangladeshi migrants are travelling on VFR purposes between two countries regularly and spending money to maintain relationships however their VFR travels are mostly one-way affairs due to the governance of the VFR tourism. It could be observed that Bangladeshi migrants are not happy with bordering policies and practices, which highly restrict their friends and relatives’ ability to visit them in the UK out of their reciprocal obligations and desire to visit the spaces occupied, embodied and experienced by their hosts. It defies Hannam, Sheller and Urry’s (2006) perceptions that travel is necessary for social life, enabling complex connections to be made, often as a matter of social or political obligation. Borders and bordering practices are intertwined with movement and mobilities and it is difficult to understand mobilities without facing the way in which mobilities are restricted and regulated by borders and bordering practices (Richardson, 2013). Migrants also mentioned about how keenly their friends and relatives want to visit them however, tough rules and regulations are in place which restrict their visit to the UK. One of the student participants said:

*My mum and dad miss me a lot just like I do, my younger sister and brother feel very sad too, I try to visit them whenever I get the chance but it is pathetic that they can not visit me because of the tougher immigration rules, they applied twice for visit visa but were refused every time, I wish the rules were easier to allow them to visit me as well as famous things in London.*

It also strengthens the observations of King (2012) and Bianchi and Stephenson (2013) that the mobility is unequal. In today’s globalized but unequal world, the rights and freedoms of mobility or movement are often determined materially and politically.

There are significant links between touristic nature of a destination city and migration that is often overlooked by researchers (Conradson and McKay, 2007 and Backer, 2012).
Analysis of the reason and nature of the Bangladeshi migration and migrant’s attachment with their countries depicts a broader picture of the basis of this relationship. Although remittance play different role in the society that are at the receiving end, it could be observed from the participant’s expressions that migration also represent a sense of pride. For example, a nurse participant said:

*In my society, it is assumed that the people who are working and living in London are very rich and for that reason they are more respected and most fathers are very interested to get a Londoni (Londoners) groom to send their daughter to London for a better life.*

However, there are other influential factors too. Shared history and traditions during the colonial era still remain influential to some extent. Most participant agree that Bangladeshis feel historical connection with the UK for many reasons, particularly being part of the British Empire, influence of the British scholars in the Bengali renaissance, connection of enlighten Bengali poets and social reformers with British scholars and their ideas left lasting legacies in the Bengali society. As another participants said:

*I hard a lot of stories about people going to ‘bilaat’ (London) from my parents and grand parents, those who went there become famous and came back as ‘sahib’ (gentlemen) and they were well respected in the society, all those stories sounded so prestigious that I always wished to come to this beautiful and rich country.*

Most participants argue that although there are many developed countries in the world, who are more migration friendly and offer better economic prospects, Britain remain more attractive than other countries to Bengali migrants. In many cases British heritage sites as well as the touristic image attract many people. One of the participants’s said:

*While growing up many things made me think positively about London and create desire that brought me here; who does not want to go to a city where you can see Big Ben, House of Parliament, British Museum, Madam Tussaud, Buckingham palace and many more attractive and historical things.*
British sporting events also have positive impacts on many Bangladeshis. Another participant said:

*I like football and I am a fan of Arsenal, I used to watch a lot of football match while I was in Bangladesh, English premier league football was my favorite, I used to think one day I will go there and watch a match in the stadium, and I did it.*

Some participants think that British media is also knowingly or unknowingly having impacts on the thoughts of Bengali minds. They argue that BBC Bengali radio service is one of the most popular and trusted media in Bangladesh, besides many follows the BBC News channel too. By listening BBC Bangla Radio, watching BBC news channel, reading English literature, English history, watching English movies and enjoying English music many people become aware about Britain and the attraction and desire grows subconsciously.

5. Conclusion

Outcomes of this empirical research demonstrate that there are strong evidences of the intricate relationship between international migration and tourism. Both online and offline mobility contribute to this relationship. While virtual mobility is enhancing migrant’s relationships with their country of origin, physical mobility is increasing through Visiting Friends and Family (VFR) travels. VFR travel to migrant’s origin country is increasing rapidly due to the advancements in the air travel facilities and enhanced relationships through social media. Many migrants own two homes, one in Bangladesh and one in Britain and they travel between their homes visits their friends and families and sometimes engage in tourism and leisure-based activities, which relates to common concepts of mobility driven leisure and tourism related activities in a globalised world. Although many developed countries including Australia, Canada and New Zealand are utilizing the significant benefits of VFR tourism, surprisingly it is not even recognised enough or untitled here in the UK. Instead, bordering policies and practices restricts VFR travel to migrant’s current country and limits the reciprocity of their relationship. Friends and relatives of migrants are less able to visit them and the new spaces and culture they occupy. Globalization may have connected the world better than ever before and negotiated the free flows of
goods and services but ironically humans enjoy less freedom of movement than ever before. It enhances the claim of many contemporary researchers that the world is globalized but unequal. From the findings of this research, it is evident that the tougher control does not restrict the movement of wealthy migrants but their friends and relatives. In an unequal globalised world, the wealthy people are more mobile than the less wealthy majority. Common fundamental principles for both Migration and Tourism, including freedom of movement and right to travel are restricted and controlled by materially and politically determined border, bordering policies and practices.

This research also indicates that remittance or better economic prospects might play effective role in the migration as reported by UNWTO and other world organizations, however there are other influential factors, which are to some extent touristic in nature. Findings of this research show that Bangladeshis feel historical connections with Britain due to the legacies left behind during the colonial times; the reputation of British education, the historical and touristic places, attraction, language spoken and the role of British media as well as the British council have also influenced the Bangladeshis too. Therefore, it is evident that Bangladeshi migration is not just an economic affair; it also relates to the touristic image of the destination country in many ways. For example, despite the fact that there are many other developed economic countries with more migration friendly policies, many Bangladeshis still prefer to migrate to Britain. This also echoes many scholarly arguments that that people are more likely to travel to countries or destination where there is past links or relations.

Recommendation of this research is that VFR tourism mobilities require further understanding. How VFR connects and reconnects disconnected relationship and how VFR travellers negotiate their understanding of place and the new cultures that surround their friends and relatives is important. What impacts does the governance of these forms of tourism have on travellers, hosts and the local communities can be further researched. That can lead us to better understand how different forms of mobilities are being defined by notions of friendship, family and community.

6. References


A HEURISTIC TECHNIQUE FOR SELECTING SARIMA MODELS FOR FORECASTING TOURISM TIME SERIES

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The problem of forecasting tourism demand is a well-timed issue in the tourism sector. One of the methods widely used is the well-known Box-Jenkins method. Another approach is the adoption of a "try-and-error" methodology for the analytical testing of all possible SARIMA models until a proper one is found. In this work, the problem of selecting automatically SARIMA models for tourist time-series is considered. In particular, a heuristic algorithm is proposed to test, exhaustively, all possible models until a SARIMA one is found. The stated algorithm is accelerated by proposing efficient termination criteria. These criteria are variations of classic metrics for the evaluation of forecasting models. The selected model is re-evaluated for the goodness of fit using some well-known evaluators. Finally, the performance of the algorithm is tested on a set of time-series data describing the tourism demand from the region of Western Greece.

1. Introduction

If someone tries to give an interpretation in the word "traveler" he could say that "traveler is a person that consumes the tourism product". This interpretation emerges from the tendency of modern people to consume such products, like e.g., airplane tickets, food and beverage services, overnight stays and museum visits, for traveling along the world for business, educational and entertainment reasons.
For all the specialists in the field of tourism beyond their major activities, there exists a crucial question that they should answer: what shall be the next place where these travelers will consume the tourism product? It is evident from this simple question that prediction plays a major role in tourist planning and policy making. So, the possibility of analyzing the current and past tourist trends, and making some accurate and reliable predictions for the future of tourism product, would be a great asset in the hands of specialist in the field of tourism.

Generally, for the problem of forecasting tourism demand in the form of time-series different methods and techniques have been proposed covering a wide range of different countries and locations, as well as different time intervals. The most widely used models (especially using monthly data) are univariate or time-series models (Gunter, and Önder, 2015). The most widely used technique in this framework is the (Seasonal) Autoregressive (Integrated) Moving Average (SARIMA) models (Box and Jenkins, 1976) because it can handle flexibly different types of data, it can produce reliable predictions when the appropriate model is chosen and it can be easily found and applied in many computational and statistical packages. An exhaustive review on forecasting time series can be found in (Song, and Li, 2008).

In this work we consider the problem of automatically selecting SARIMA models for time-series describing tourism demand. A naive but time-consuming implementation for this idea is the adoption of an exhaustive “try-and-error” methodology which tests analytically all the possible SARIMA models until a proper forecasting model is found.

Recently, Hyndman and Khandakar (Hyndman, and Khandakar, 2008) proposed an automatic way for identifying a SARIMA model for a given time-series, based on a series of tests and rules.

Under the above “try-and-error” framework, an algorithm is proposed for identifying SARIMA models. In particular, a heuristic algorithm is proposed to test exhaustively all feasible SARIMA models, employing time-series of tourism data. The proposed algorithm is accelerated by proposing some termination criteria. These criteria are based on some variations of classic metrics for the evaluation of forecasting models. The first model satisfying all the proposed termination criteria is selected and then is re-evaluated using some well-known evaluators for the goodness of fit of time-series models.
The performance of the algorithm is tested on a data set describing the tourism demand from the prefectures of the region of Western Greece.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: In the next two sections the proposed framework and algorithm are described. In the Section 4 a short description of the region of Western Greece is given and then the numerical results of the proposed algorithm are presented. Finally, in Section 5 some conclusions and issues for discussions are given.

2. The Proposed Framework

As described in the previous section, in this work an exhaustive “try-and-error” algorithm will be presented for identifying SARIMA models using tourism data. The adopted framework can be described by the following Algorithm 1 (Table 1).

The space model \( S \) is defined as the set of all feasible SARIMA models. Since the model space has already been defined, the parameters of all SARIMA models are estimated. The model that has the lowest value of an Information Criterion (IC) is considered as a candidate model. The Information Criteria are methods for model selection and in this work the Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC), the Corrected Akaike's Information Criterion (AICc) and the Schwarz Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) are used (Hyndman, and Athanasopoulos, 2015). Although in the most cases the model with minimum value of AIC, AICc or BIC is selected as the best model, in this work we prefer to check further the goodness of fit by using some well-known tests, as they will be described below.

**Table 1: Algorithm 1 - The proposed algorithmic framework**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Define the model space ( S ) and estimate all the corresponding SARIMA models.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Select the model with the lowest IC value and name this model as candidate model.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Check the goodness of fit of the candidate model.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>If the candidate model is not satisfying the goodness of fit criteria then remove it from ( S ) and go to Step 2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Evaluate the performance of the accepted model.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Forecast using the accepted model.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The selected model will be a candidate model. If the candidate model fails to pass the goodness of fit tests then it is discarded from the model space \( S \). The next model is chosen based on the same criterion and, if it is necessary, all the models will be examined until the goodness of fit criteria are satisfied. Finally, the performance of the accepted model is evaluated and a forecast for the given data is estimated.

The main advantage of the above Algorithm 1 is that, eventually, the best model will be delivered. However, its complexity indicates that with a moderate space model \( S \), more than 2000 models should be examined. So the challenge in the above framework is how to keep as complete as possible the size of \( S \) and at the same time to shorten the total number of examined models.

3. The Proposed Algorithm

In this section a step-by-step algorithm will be presented to optimize the proposed framework of the previous section. For this reason a time-series \( Y = \{Y_t : t=0,1,2,...,N\} \) of \( N \) observations is considered.

3.1 Data preparation

The collected data in the form of a time-series are distinguished into two sets: the training set, the set that contains the initial \( k \) of \( N \) observations, where \( k < N \), and the test set, the set that contains all the observations of the given time-series. The excluded observations of the training set will be used for the evaluation of the selected model. The forecast will be done using the test set.

3.2 Stationarity

The usability of SARIMA models depends on the stationarity of the given time-series. A common way to check the non-stationarity of a time-series is to plot the series and the corresponding autocorrelation function, and then, visually, someone to examine the graph for a visible trend or clear variable changes over time. Since, the purpose of this work is to identify a model in an automatic way, a series of tests are adopted to check the non-stationarity of the given time-series instead of a visual examination. Therefore, the number of needed normal and seasonal differences is estimated using some well-known unit roots tests (the Kwiatkowski-Phillips-
Schmidt-Shin (kpss) test, the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (adf) test, and the Phillips-Perron (pp) test, while the seasonal unit root tests are the Canova-Hansen (ch) test, and the Osborn-Chui-Smith-Birchenhall (ocsb) test (Inside-R, 2015).

It is clear that these tests can reduce significantly the size of model space.

3.3 A pre-processing step

The Step 2 of the Algorithm 1 says that the model with the lowest IC value is chosen for further consideration. However, this step requires the estimation of all models of the space model \( S \). So, it would be very convenient if we could define a threshold \( L \) for IC values, such that the models with IC value less than this threshold \( L \) can be considered as candidate models.

For this reason, a subspace \( S_p \) of \( S \) is defined with all the arguments of a SARIMA model to lie in \{0, 1\}, and then the Algorithm 1 is applied on \( S_p \). The stationarity arguments of SARIMA model are estimated using the test of the previous paragraph.

From the application of this algorithm, the lowest values of AIC, AICc and BIC information criteria are collected. These values can be used to define the threshold \( L \).

It is noted that for this part of the algorithm, the training set is used.

3.4 Termination criteria

The Algorithm 1 should be accelerated, especially for the case of Step 2 of the algorithm, and for this reason two termination criteria are proposed. The first one says that if during the search process a model \( M \) reveals

\[
M_{IC} < L
\]

then this model should be processed in the next Step 3 of Algorithm 1. However, since the threshold \( L \) is a user-defined parameter the criterion is turned into a more relaxed one. Therefore, for the enhancement of the current model selection, a second, complementary, criterion is proposed which says that if

\[
M_{Pred} < \varepsilon
\]
then this model should be processed in the next Step 3 of Algorithm 1, where $\varepsilon$ is a small, user-defined value and $p_{\text{index}}$ is a performance index that, in general, could be any of the metrics used to measure the performance of a model, e.g. the mean absolute error (MAE) or the mean absolute percentage error (MAPE).

Actually, the above criteria (3.1) and (3.2) can be interpreted as a single termination criterion and may be combined. Therefore, if

$$M_{\text{IC}} < L \quad \text{and} \quad M_{p_{\text{index}}} < \varepsilon$$

then the current model is considered as a candidate model and should be processed in the next step of Algorithm 1.

### 3.5 Normality of residuals

According to the Step 3 of the Algorithm 1, if the candidate model satisfies the tests of goodness of fit, this model should be accepted as the proposed model for the given data. In this work three tests were utilized and the satisfaction of, at least, one of them is required. These tests are checking the normality of the residuals.

The used normality tests are the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (ks) test, the Anderson-Darling (ad) test, and the Shapiro-Wilk (sw) test (R Core Team, 2015; Gross and Ligges, 2015).

### 3.6 Prediction and forecasting accuracy

After all the above steps a SARIMA model should be delivered and its performance must be measured. There exist a series of metrics that can be employed, however, in this work the prediction performance will be evaluated using the mean absolute percentage error (MAPE):

$$\text{MAPE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} \left| \frac{\tilde{Y}_t - Y_t}{Y_t} \right|$$

and the root mean square error (RMSE):

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} (\tilde{Y}_t - Y_t)^2}$$

where $Y_t$ represents the actual value of the time-series and the corresponding tilde $\tilde{Y}_t$ the predicted value. In addition, the performance is, also, measured using the mean error (ME):
MAPE and RMSE are used to measure the correctness of the prediction in terms of levels and the deviation between the actual and predicted values, while ME is giving us some evidence about the over-fitting or under-fitting of the proposed model. For all three metrics the smaller the values, the closer the predicted values are to the actual values. Finally, the delivered model is used to produce a prediction, usually, over a 12 month horizon.

Summarizing all the above notes, heuristics and observations we conclude to the following Algorithm 2 (Table 2).

**Table 2: Algorithm 2 - The proposed algorithm**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step 1</th>
<th>Collect the data and distinguished them to training and test sets.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>Define the model space S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 3</td>
<td>If it is necessary make the time-series stationary using the kpss, adf and pp tests for normal stationarity and ch and ocsb tests for seasonal stationarity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 4</td>
<td>Apply Algorithm 1 to a sample model space $S_p$ to estimate the heuristic parameter $L$. $L$ will depend on the value of ICs (AIC, AICc or/and BIC).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 5</td>
<td>Pick a model $M$ inside $S$ and estimate the corresponding IC value. If $M_{IC} &lt; L$ and $M_{Pr} &lt; \varepsilon$ then go to next step. Otherwise remove M from S and repeat Step 5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 6</td>
<td>Check the goodness of fit of the candidate model using the normality ks, ad and s tests. If any of them confirms the goodness of fit of the processed model then go to next step. Otherwise remove M from S and go to Step 5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 7</td>
<td>Evaluate the performance of the accepted model.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 8</td>
<td>Forecast using the accepted model.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4. Numerical Experiments**

For the performance of the proposed algorithm a set of tourism data from the Region of Western Greece were used. Specifically, the overnight stays from the three prefectures (Achaia, Etoloakarnania and Ilia) of the Region were used, from January of 2005 till December 2012. All data employed in this study were obtained from the official records of the Hellenic Statistical Authority. It is underlined that Hellenic Statistical Authority.
Authority has not released any similar data for the period 2013 until now.

4.1 The Region of Western Greece

The basic reason for selecting the Region of Western Greece is the inherent dissimilarities of the prefectures of the Region, the different type of visiting tourists, the available resources and infrastructures and the level of development and employment.

The region of Western Greece consists of three prefectures: the prefectures of Achaia, Etoloakarnania and Ilia. The land in these areas is mostly mountainous but with extensive coastline at all prefectures. The main economic activities in the region are agriculture and tourism services, with significant wine and olive oil production. The region accommodates many, various and significant sensitive ecosystems. Finally, the region has significant tourism infrastructures which include 2 airports and 6 ports.

The following time-series chart (Figure 1) describes the fluctuation of overnight stays over time for the three prefectures of the region.

**Figure 1: Overnights stays for the Region of Western Greece (2005-2012)**

For all three prefectures a strong seasonality with considerable variation in the number of overnight stays between summer and winter months is revealed. The maximum stays are observed in August and for the three summer months a significantly high number of overnight stays is noticed. For the winter months the overnight stays are very low. The greater volatility in overnight stays occurs in prefecture of Ilia, while the smallest fluctuation in overnight
stays between summer and winter months is observed in the
prefecture of Etoloakarnania.

The entire region of Western Greece discloses a
decreasing trend over the last 3 years of the observed data
(2010-2012): Etoloakarnania with 35%, Achaia with 17.91%
and Ilia with 6.06% in overnight stays.

4.2 The implementation

The implementation of the proposed algorithm needs some
settings to be considered, as well as some of the adopted
heuristics to be estimated. The used settings are the result of a
series of test over the given data.

Firstly, a log transformation is applied to the used time-
series to improve the model adaptation of SARIMA models.
Next, we have to define the model space $S$. Studying the only
previous work in this region (Panagopoulos and
Panagopoulos, 2005) we decided that the model space $S$
should have models with arguments lying in $\{0,1,2,3\}$. In
addition the search process should examine SARIMA models
with this priority order for their arguments: number of non-
seasonal differences needed for stationarity, number of moving
average terms, number of autoregressive terms, number of
seasonal differences needed for stationarity, number of
seasonal moving average terms and number of seasonal
autoregressive terms.

In the next, the value of heuristic parameter $L$ should be
defined. Thus, in this work the threshold $L$ was decided to be
set with a more relaxed value: $L = 0.9 \times BIC_{\text{min}}$
where $BIC_{\text{min}}$ is the minimum value of BIC criterion occurred
after the preprocessing step (Algorithm 2: Step 4).

As it mentioned in the previous subsection, one of the
characteristics of the Region of Western Greece is that the
maximum overnight stays occurs in August. So, we would like
models to perform well at the forecasting period and especially
at August, where the maximum overnight stays are observed.
So, the main idea behind the termination criterion (3.2) is that
the algorithm should suggest models that “catch” as accurate
as possible these months of the time-series. Therefore, the
following performance index is defined, named as Partial Mean
Absolute Error ($pMAE$), and it is based on the metric Mean
Absolute Error.
where $A$ is the set of indices corresponding to all Augusts of the test set.

The user defined value $\varepsilon$ seems to depend strongly on the studied time-series and the used performance index. The proposed algorithm was tested using various values of $\varepsilon$ ($\varepsilon$ varies between 0.025 and 0.1).

Lastly, the proposed algorithm was implemented in R (R Core Team, 2015). All the SARIMA models were constructed using the corresponding implementation from the forecast package (Hyndman, and Khandakar, 2008; Hyndman, 2015). The resulting models were compared with the resulting model of the auto.arima algorithm as it is implemented in the forecast package.

4.3 Numerical results

The proposed algorithm, along with the suggested settings was applied on the time-series from each prefecture of the Region of Western Greece. It is clear from Table 3 that the models from the proposed algorithm depend strongly on the selection of parameter $\varepsilon$.

The Figure 2a shows that every model derived from the proposed algorithm seems to be an over fitting in respect of the auto.arima procedure for the prefecture of Achaia. However, for the prefecture of Etoloakarnania (Figure 2b) we can observe that the proposed technique produces two models ($\varepsilon=0.065$, $\varepsilon=0.07$), which try to overcome the intense fluctuation of the time-series and produce a smoother approximations. On the other hand (Figure 2c), both procedures showed similar behavior for the case of prefecture of Ilia.

The performance measurement was realized in two ways: the metrics were applied in the whole test set and then only over the last 12 months, as it shown in the following Tables 2 and 3. For all prefectures the metrics for the last 12 months shows that there exists at least a model that behaves slightly better than the auto.arima's one. It is, also, noticed, that the proposed algorithm behaves better when a lot of fluctuations exist.
A HEURISTIC TECHNIQUE FOR SELECTING SARIMA MODELS FOR FORECASTING TOURISM TIME SERIES

Table 3: The resulting models of the proposed algorithm vs auto.arima

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ε</th>
<th>SARIMA</th>
<th>Models checked</th>
<th>auto.arima</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>(1,0,2)(0,1,0)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>(0,1,1)(0,1,1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>(0,1,2)(0,1,0)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>(0,1,1)(0,1,0)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>(0,1,0)(0,1,0)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>(1,1,0)(0,1,2)</td>
<td>74</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>(1,1,0)(0,1,1)</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>(2,0,0)(1,0,0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>(3,1,2)(0,1,0)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>(1,1,0)(0,1,0)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.0185</td>
<td>(2,1,2)(1,1,0)</td>
<td>150</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>(0,1,0)(0,1,1)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>(3,1,0)(0,1,0)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>(1,1,2)(0,1,0)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Ex-post forecasting for the Region of Western Greece for 12 months (2012)

a. Achaia  b. Etoloakarnania  c. Ilia

Table 2: ME, RMSE and MAPE errors on test set

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ε</th>
<th>0.025</th>
<th>0.03</th>
<th>0.04</th>
<th>0.06</th>
<th>auto</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ME</td>
<td>RMSE</td>
<td>MAPE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achaia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.0008</td>
<td>0.1079</td>
<td>0.7125</td>
<td>-0.0059</td>
<td>-0.0199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.0149</td>
<td>0.1091</td>
<td>0.7396</td>
<td>-0.0125</td>
<td>-0.0022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>-0.0125</td>
<td>0.1100</td>
<td>0.7427</td>
<td>-0.0008</td>
<td>-0.0008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.0059</td>
<td>0.1234</td>
<td>0.8401</td>
<td>-0.0005</td>
<td>0.0131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Etoloakarnania</td>
<td>ME</td>
<td>RMSE</td>
<td>MAPE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>-0.0019</td>
<td>0.1032</td>
<td>0.7577</td>
<td>-0.0008</td>
<td>-0.0005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.0022</td>
<td>0.1124</td>
<td>0.8169</td>
<td>-0.0008</td>
<td>-0.0005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>-0.0008</td>
<td>0.1315</td>
<td>0.9463</td>
<td>-0.0005</td>
<td>-0.0005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.0005</td>
<td>0.1388</td>
<td>1.0295</td>
<td>-0.0005</td>
<td>0.0131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilia</td>
<td>ME</td>
<td>RMSE</td>
<td>MAPE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>-0.0131</td>
<td>0.1478</td>
<td>1.0306</td>
<td>-0.0042</td>
<td>-0.0042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-0.0042</td>
<td>0.1530</td>
<td>1.1032</td>
<td>-0.0046</td>
<td>-0.0046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>-0.0046</td>
<td>0.1592</td>
<td>1.0994</td>
<td>-0.0154</td>
<td>-0.0154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.0154</td>
<td>0.1591</td>
<td>1.1382</td>
<td>-0.0154</td>
<td>0.0142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lastly, the forecasting charts (Figure 3) for 2013 are presented for all prefectures of the Region of Western Greece.

![Forecasting charts for 2013](image)

**Table 3: ME, RMSE and MAPE errors on the last 12 months**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefecture</th>
<th>ε</th>
<th>ME</th>
<th>RMSE</th>
<th>MAPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Achaia</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.2259</td>
<td>0.2827</td>
<td>0.0233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.1773</td>
<td>0.2432</td>
<td>0.0199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.1787</td>
<td>0.2444</td>
<td>0.0199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.1845</td>
<td>0.2487</td>
<td>0.0203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>auto</td>
<td>0.1817</td>
<td>0.2491</td>
<td>0.0193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Etoloakarnania</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.1128</td>
<td>0.1445</td>
<td>0.0120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.1026</td>
<td>0.1356</td>
<td>0.0116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.1343</td>
<td>0.1588</td>
<td>0.0139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.1523</td>
<td>0.1715</td>
<td>0.0154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>auto</td>
<td>0.1477</td>
<td>0.1659</td>
<td>0.0150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ilia</td>
<td>0.0185</td>
<td>0.0740</td>
<td>0.1128</td>
<td>0.0119</td>
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<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.1026</td>
<td>0.1356</td>
<td>0.0116</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.1343</td>
<td>0.1588</td>
<td>0.0139</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0154</td>
<td>0.1523</td>
<td>0.1715</td>
<td>0.0154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>auto</td>
<td>0.1477</td>
<td>0.1659</td>
<td>0.0150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 3: Ex-ante forecasting for the Region of Western Greece for 12 months (2013)**

5. Conclusion

In this paper a heuristic algorithm is proposed for the automatic selection of SARIMA models, using time-series describing tourism demand. The presented algorithm constructs an efficient space model and a search process is initiated. To accelerate the algorithm two termination criteria were proposed based on a heuristic threshold of the used information criteria and a performance index which is a variation of well-known performance measurements. The algorithm was tested on tourism data from the prefectures of Region of Western Greece using overnight stays from January of 2005 till December 2012.

The encouraging result of this work is that the proposed algorithm, under an optimized selection of ε, seems to result
more promising models in comparison with the models of auto.arima function, especially for the cases of time-series with intense fluctuations. Or vice versa, the proposed algorithm seems to produce efficient SARIMA models if a proper value of $\varepsilon$ is chosen. This issue is a crucial point for the presented work and should be thoroughly investigated. Furthermore, the performance and efficiency of the proposed algorithm should be tested in time-series with different characteristics. Finally, the used performance index in the form of a termination criterion can be extended to other metrics, used for the measurement of the performance of time-series.

Acknowledgement

This research has been co-financed by the European Union (European Social Fund - ESF) and Greek national funds through the Operational Program "Education and Lifelong Learning" of the National Strategic Reference Framework (NSRF) - Research Funding Program: ARCHIMEDES III, Investing in knowledge society through the European Social Fund. The data that involves the monthly occupancy of all tourist accommodations of both foreign and domestic tourists came from the official records of the Hellenic Statistical Authority (EL. STAT., www.statistics.gr).

6. References

the Internet: http://otexts.com/fpp/, [accessed 03.08.2015].


This paper presents a modified SERVQUAL model for Cross Border Reproductive Care, which was developed in order to test potential declinations between service expectations and service experiences of international infertility patients, as well as, critical factors that may affect patients’ willingness to advocate for the ART clinic. The research quantitative instrument measured respondents’ agreement on the quality dimensions, as well as their clinic visiting motives and advocacy willingness. The paper refers to a research sample of 100 cases of international patients from 18 countries, seeking infertility treatment in private clinics in Athens, Greece, which volunteer to participate in this research within a year’s period. The study’s major contribution is that it stresses the importance of RT peripheral services, in order to satisfy their patients. It also pinpoints to critical factors for achieving patient-customer attitudinal loyalty, which reflects ART patients’ willingness to advocate in favor of ART clinic to their acquaintances’ environment.

1. Introduction

Medical tourism is a niche form of special interest tourism. Medical Tourism and its rapid development highlight the benefits both for patients and the Host country. The importance of incorporating medical tourism to the county’s tourism strategy was recognized by the Greek Government, which proceeded to Joint Ministerial Decision (JMD no.
27217/26.11.2013) between Ministry of Tourism and Ministry of Health in order to support and regulate its development.

Increasing infertility rates, along with the advance of their treatment have rendered Reproductive Tourism a segment of medical tourism. The term Cross-Border Reproductive Care (CBRC), which was introduced by European Society of Human Reproduction and Embryology (ESHRE) in 2010, tends to replace previously used terms (reproductive tourism, fertility tourism, and procreative tourism) in order to comply with patients’ views. They consider their pursuit for treatment as a necessity to cure their infertility without the leisure aspects that tourism usually encompasses.

Regarding Greece, there is a large number of private ART clinics, which may serve international patients without causing a negative impact to the availability of treatments to the domestic population. Greek patients, lately, have turned towards the public sector health-care due to the economic crisis.

Fertility patients can be seen as buyers of a service who compose perceptions and attitudes via information provided by organizations, marketing mix, Internet search, word of mouth communication and previous experiences. Previous studies have identified key variables impacting the development of cross-border reproductive care. For example, Karayanni and Panas (2012) identified that a key problem of Greek ART clinics management is that this is mainly doctor-oriented, focusing on the medical aspect of the treatment, whilst, at the same time, it appears to underestimate the importance of peripheral services. Also, positive perceptions regarding personal experience are formed in case of high quality of service, in other services environment contexts. These perceptions can lead to positive attitudinal loyalty and advocacy. However, the aforementioned relationships between antecedents and outcomes in the specific ART clinics environments have not yet examined, to as far as we know.

This academic study was carried out within the framework of research on CBRC in Greece, in order to start filling this void, by attempting to measure and evaluate the quality of service provided by ART clinics. Specifically, the main research objectives were: a) to test potential divergences between service expectations and service experiences of CBRC patients, and b) to test a conceptual model which examines the
explanatory variables of patients’ attitudinal loyalty and advocacy.

The paper evolves as follows, first we provide the literature review on the subject under research. Following is the description of the methodology and the sampling characteristics. In turn, we provide the analyses, findings and the conclusions of the study. The paper ends with the implications to academics and practitioners, as well as with the future research prepositions and limitations of the study.

2. Literature Review

Medical tourism has emerged as a significant and rapidly growing phenomenon in the Health Care industry and is potentially very profitable for countries and business involved (Guiry and Vequist, 2011). Moreover it “has been one of the most popular and fastest growing trends in both healthcare and Tourism industries, generating nearly $60 billion per year, with a growing rate of 20% annually” (Han, 2013)

Cross border reproductive care (CBRC) refers to infertility patients who travel outside of the country they reside to seek assisted reproductive technology (ART) services and treatment. The key factors for CBRC are according to Symposium in CBRC (2011):

- Legal, religious, or ethical restrictions
- Denial of treatment to certain categories (regarding age, marital status & sexual orientation)
- High costs of treatment
- Lack of ART services, due to lack of expertise and technical resources
- Long waiting list
- Safety concerns
- Low quality of care and low success rates
- Proximity to support networks and family members
- Privacy concerns-minimize stigmatization
- Cultural comfort in destination country

In 2010, a research carried in Europe by the Ethics Committee of the American Society for Reproductive Medicine, counted about 24000-30000 of CBRC treatment, involving 11000-14000 patients (Hudson et al., 2011; Shenfield et al.,
2010). It is difficult to estimate the volume of CBRC due to lack of an accredited international reporting System (Nyrgen, Adamson and De Mouzon, 2010).

Service quality is a key element to making a difference in a highly competitive business environment. Indeed, Butt and DeRun (2010) point out that customers’ quality perceptions have an undisputed effect on selecting healthcare providers. In order to measure the quality of services, SERVQUAL scale is generally employed very extensively, yet, it has not been used to evaluate the quality of service in the ARTclinics contexts.

Specifically in these ART contexts, most literature focuses initially on the factors that lead to the increased demand of CBRC, the ethical and legal aspects of reproductive tourism and the availability of treatment methods. There is lack of research in the evaluation of service quality received in fertility clinics from patients’ perspective. Patient perceptions regarding quality of service that they received during CBRC need to be measured since it is difficult to improve a service that has not been evaluated by its users. Indeed, Essiam (2013) pinpoints that patients’ views should be sought on their experiences and expectations of healthcare.

In this sense, the most important quality dimension, which is also a key success indicator in CBRC, is patient satisfaction. Moreover, customer loyalty is customer’s intention or actual behavior to repeatedly purchase products or services, thus higher customer loyalty leads to higher profitability and more stable basis of customers (Tsaur, Chiu and Huang, 2002).

Boewn and Chen (2001) highlight that there is a positive correlation between customer loyalty and profitability, resulting marketers to seek information on how to build Customer loyalty.

Moreover, customer satisfaction can ensure future profitability, and is a key measure of performance for firms, industries and national economies (Anderson and Fornell, 1994).

Medical service providers must address quality issues in their business in the same way as other companies (Lee, 2005). Health care quality can be improved by evaluating patient preferences and customizing care provided to meet patients’ needs (Macario et al., 1999) Personalization of service is another major key factor that patients appreciate, as every couple or individual is unique (Karayanni and Panas, 2012), although often there is a tendency to view patients/
customers as statistics (Berry, Zeithaml and Parasuraman, 1985).

Service quality is a key management and marketing factor regarding private sector competitiveness (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry, 1988). Service quality is defined by Mangold and Babakus (1991) as “the outcome of a process in which consumers’ expectations for the service are compared with their perceptions of the service actually delivered”. The increased demand for higher quality services, accordingly, increased the need to provide quality services, in order to remain competitive (Cronin and Taylor, 1992). Moreover, Lafond (1995) realized that private healthcare sector growth is a result of patients’ negative perception regarding the quality of service provided by Public Health Systems. Gronos (1984) divides service quality into technical and functional dimensions. Patients may easier evaluate the functional dimension of quality, regarding the manner that the service is being delivered, rather than its technical dimension, due to their lack of technical knowledge and expertise. On the international patients’ perspective, the major weakness of healthcare clinics is the lack of travel conveniences, relatively weak continuity of care miscommunication etc (Han, 2013; Heung, Kucukusta, and Song, 2011).

In this research we hypothesize that:

H1: There is no gap between patients’ expected ART services and patients’ perceived ART services experience.

Couples or individuals receiving fertility treatment can be seen “as purchasing an increased probability of conceiving and bearing a child” (Neumann and Johannesson, 1994). Thus, it is important that CBRC patients must be satisfied by the service delivered, even if the treatment fails to achieve its core objective to achieve a pregnancy and become parent. This is essential, in order to return to this clinic for a future attempt, or advocate for the clinic to future patients.

Along similar lines, other researchers sustain that service quality is a key antecedent of customer satisfaction (Cronin and Taylor, 1992), which leads to customer loyalty and advocacy, promoting the firm via credible word of mouth communication (Guiry and Vequist, 2011). Stated formally:
H2: ART service quality dimensions will be related to patients’ advocacy.

3. Methodology

The research concerns an exploratory study, which was based on a quantitative research instrument, which was constructed following the guidelines of marketing research methodology literature. First, we made extensive literature review and preliminary personal data collection from a number of key informants (i.e., ART parents and doctors). The results of this qualitative research led us to the construction of the research instrument, which was then disseminated to the three largest ART clinic centers in Athens. The research respondents were kindly asked by the clinics’ receptionists to volunteer in completing the self-administered research questionnaire.

Data were analyzed using pair-wised T-test analyses of the statistical package SPSS for calculating significant differences between expected and experienced service quality dimensions. The paper also refers to a set of correlation and regression analyses used to test the hypothesized research model.

3.1 Sampling and data collection

Demographic questions were used to obtain information regarding patient’s age, gender, marital status, nationality, residence, ethnicity, educational level, household income, profession, religion, partner’s gender and age, as well as the length of stay in Greece and which people accompanied them during treatment. Medical data were collected regarding the method of treatment they received, identifying if it encompassed egg or sperm donation. Patients were either couples, or singles, following various reproductive treatments, from common IVF, to more specialized methods, including single or double donor IVF.

Specifically, this survey sample includes 100 CBRC patients that volunteered to participate in this research. These patients visited private clinics in Athens between September 2014 and April 2015 and completed their fertility treatment, no matter the outcome of the treatment. Patients were both Greeks and ART tourists. The place of their
permanent residence was excluded from the study. Participants completed the questionnaire either at the clinics, while waiting in the lobby, or at the privacy of their hotel room and returned it to the clinics administrative personnel in a sealed envelope which was provided to them, in order to ensure anonymity and eliminate bias of responses. The sample demographics outlining respondents’ profile are presented in Table 1.

3.2 Measurement

The SERVQUAL instrument was specifically designed to measure service quality. Service Quality should be measured by subtracting customer perception from expectation scores \( Q = P - E \). Positive scores identify high quality service while negative scores low service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry, 1985; 1988).

In its original form, SERVQUAL contains 22 pairs of statements focusing in five service quality dimensions: Tangibles, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance and Empathy (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1985; 1988). Previous research exploring customer satisfaction in the Healthcare industry identified dimension models focusing only on the Health industry. On the other hand, they did not identify travel and tourism dimensions. SERVQUAL model has been highly recognized as a valid instrument to measure service quality and patient satisfaction in particular. Thus, in order to achieve the main objectives of this study, we chose to use a modified SERVQUAL questionnaire, to address CBRC needs. The modified questionnaire measured respondents’ agreement on seven (7) quality dimensions, tangibility and professionalism, reliability and responsiveness, assurance and empathy, guidance, affordability, communication effectiveness and travel and tourism arrangements. In total 45 variables were selected to assess these quality dimensions. All research variables were constructs. All measures were tapped by five point Likert scales (1=strongly disagree - 5=strongly agree) and were based on both existing marketing scales and the marketing research theory for developing new scales.
### Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondent Age:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than 41</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-25</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner’s Gender:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>84.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>15.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner’s Age:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than 41</td>
<td>46.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>39.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>12.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.25</td>
<td>2.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>married</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in long time relationship</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>single</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 different Nationalities</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residence:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Countries</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 Ethnical groups</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>did not graduate from school</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household Income:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 50001 Euros</td>
<td>56.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40001-50000</td>
<td>21.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30001-40000</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20001-30000</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-20000</td>
<td>2.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Profession:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>professional &amp; managerial</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>occupation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intermediate occupation</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>routine occupation</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>full time parent</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>religious</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non religious</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian Catholic</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian other</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian Protestant</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian Orthodox</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Companion:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with someone else</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with their partner</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with all their family</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alone</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of stay in Greece:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than a week</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than two weeks</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>two weeks</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 days</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 days</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 days</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 days</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 days</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 days</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to verify dimensionality of measures reflecting the pull factors of CBRC, we performed Exploratory Factor Analyses (EFA) using principal component analysis with Varimax rotation. Variables with communalities less than 0.50 were excluded from further analyses. EFA produced four factors: image of Greece as CBRC destination, anonymity /stigmatization, legal environment, and culture familiarity. Total Variance explained was 68.98%, which means that variables extracted would explain the 68.98% of total variation. The reliability of the so produced constructs was then tested through a series of reliability analyses. All variables had Cronbach statistics higher than 0.60, thus indicating that our constructs were reliable.

4. Findings

In order to test our research hypotheses, our data were analyzed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS), version 21 for calculating T-tests, correlations and regression analyses.

The mean difference of the pair samples is nearly 1 unit while there is a 4-unit difference of the pair 5 on the benefit of communication effectiveness. Pair 5 is highly significant. There is no statistical significance between the means of Pair 2 and Pair 6, where significance is >0.05 (Table 2).

The gap scores were analyzed for each of the 7 dimensions of service quality. The scores were positive indicating that CBRC patient’s experiences were lower than their expectations. Paired samples T-test prove that the differences between CBRC patient’s perceptions and expectations were significant (p.05). Thus, the research findings partially supported H1 of the study.

Moreover, in order to test H2, concerning the conceptual model of the study, the relationship of ART services quality variables with attitudinal loyalty and advocacy towards the ART clinic was examined, using the correlation and regression analyses.
Table 2: Mean differences between expected and received services

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Samples Test</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 F16.1 Tangibility</td>
<td>Q16.1+Q16.2+Q16.4</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q17.1 Tangibility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q17.1+Q17.2+Q17.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 2 F16.2 Doctors’ Reliability</td>
<td>Q16.5+Q16.6+Q16.7+Q16.9</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>6.19</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q16.10+Q16.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F17.2 Doctors’ Reliability</td>
<td>Q17.5+Q17.6+Q17.7+Q17.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q17.10+Q17.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 3 F16.3 Assurance &amp; Empathy</td>
<td>Q16.15+Q16.17+Q16.19+Q1</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q16.18</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F17.3 Assurance &amp; Empathy</td>
<td>Q17.15+Q17.17+Q17.19+Q1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.18</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 4 F16.5 Travel &amp; Tourism Arrangements</td>
<td>Q16.37+Q16.38+Q16.39+Q1</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>7.08</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q16.41+Q16.42+Q16.43+Q1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.44+Q16.45</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F17.5 Travel &amp; Tourism Arrangements</td>
<td>Q17.37+Q17.38+Q17.39+Q17.40+Q17.41+Q17.42+Q1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.43+Q17.44+Q17.45</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 5 F16.6 Communication Effectiveness</td>
<td>Q16.21+Q16.23+Q16.27+Q1</td>
<td>-3.89</td>
<td>4.99</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Q16.30+Q16.34+Q16.35+Q1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F17.4 Communication Effectiveness</td>
<td>Q17.21+Q17.23+Q17.27+Q17.28+Q17.29+Q17.30+Q17.34+Q17.35+Q17.36</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 6 F16.4 Reachability</td>
<td>Q16.32+Q16.33+Q16.31+Q17.4</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F17.4 Reachability</td>
<td>Q17.32+Q17.33+Q17.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair 7 F16.6 Responsiveness</td>
<td>Q16.13+Q16.12+Q16.14</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F17.6 Responsiveness</td>
<td>Q17.13+Q17.12+Q17.14</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results of correlation analysis indicated that the service quality dimensions of ART were related with customer satisfaction and advocacy. As a next step, we performed a multiple regression analysis to assess the explanatory power of the independent variables (ART service quality dimensions) upon overall customer advocacy (dependent variable). Specifically, we used the backwards method of regression analysis. The overall regression model was robust and explained 47% of the variance of the dependent variable ($R^2 = 0.478$). Furthermore, the ANOVA analysis indicates that the F statistic is large and significant ($\text{sig} < 0.05$), indicating that our model was robust.

The regression findings, shown on Table 3, indicate that: a) Tangibility positively affects overall advocacy ($B = 0.422$, $p < 0.001$); b) Travel and Tourism arrangements are negatively affecting our dependent variable, which means that customers’ perceptions on quality performance does not contribute to advocacy; c) communication effectiveness and d) discretion on behalf of the ART clinic staff both have a positive impact upon customers’ advocacy for the ART clinic. Thus, from all the ART service quality dimensions, only the aforementioned four, were proved to be able to explain some of the variability of our dependent variable, thus providing partial support for H2.

5. Conclusions

Although the sample size used in this exploratory study was limited to 100 cases, it provides us with some indicative results that are valuable for further research. Moreover it provides an evaluation test for the service quality in CBRC clinics in Athens, Greece. The findings should be useful to CBRC clinics to improve their service quality, and assistance on international patients seeking fertility treatment.

Hypothesis 1 was rejected and Hypothesis 2 partially supported. Our findings indicate that there are declinations between patients’ expectations and actual services received. Furthermore, advanced statistical analyses supported our research model. The research revealed a sufficient gap between the patients’ perceptions of the quality of service experienced and their expectations. Moreover, the quality of service provided by Art clinics can lead to advocacy via word of mouth communication. As result, ART clinics in Athens have to
focus on improving every dimension regarding service quality. Especially, our research has identified that Greek ART clinics have to improve their support on travel and Tourism arrangements to international patients as this is a key factor to increase customer loyalty and advocacy.

Table 3: Regression analysis testing the conceptual model of the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Summary</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.691</td>
<td>0.478</td>
<td>0.453</td>
<td>1.43800771</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANOVA</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>160,73</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>40,183</td>
<td>19,432</td>
<td>.000e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>175,76</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2,068</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>336.5</td>
<td>89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized</th>
<th>Standar dized</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>7.929</td>
<td>1.327</td>
<td>5.977</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F17.1 Tangibility</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.424</td>
<td>4.473</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17.1+Q17.2+Q17.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F17.5 Travel &amp; Tourism Arrangements</td>
<td>-0.045</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>-0.157</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,797</td>
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6. Implications for Business Practitioners and Academics

Previous studies have identified key variables impacting the development of CBRC.

Art clinics in order to maintain or increase market share in a very highly environment need to focus on high quality services. Clinics that will fail to meet quality expectations to achieve patient’s satisfaction will not survive in the future.

This study empirically verified that quality dimensions regarding patients’ perceptions experiences on CBRC clinics can boost the level of loyalty and advocacy. International patients may not use a clinic in the future or may not advocate to other patients, in case they experience bad quality of peripheral services (such as unsuitable hotels for post treatment recovery, safety, privacy, meals)

Clinics executives should identify the quality dimensions stated in this study that need to improve in order to increase international patients’ satisfaction. They should implement a nonstop evaluation process of their services. Their management should not be completely Doctor-Oriented in order to increase the effectiveness of the peripheral services. Apart from the effectiveness of the reproductive treatments, per se, top executives of RT clinics that aspire to excel, should also focus on their marketing communications effectiveness and the quality of peripheral services provided.

7. Study Limitations and Future Research

The main limitation is the relatively small number of the study cases, which, however, does not limit the quality of the measurement validation and relationship identification among the research constructs. Furthermore, another limitation is concerned with the locality of the research sample, as the research respondents were limited to the CBRC centers of Athens, due to research process difficulties.

In order to achieve generalizability of the research results, we need to extend the research sample to a wider research sample from all over Greece.

Moreover, in order to achieve more robust models, regarding the relationships among the variables of CBRC tourism in Greece, there is a need to determine, a wider range
of variables, regarding their needs, motives etc. This research is still evolving. The use of academic and professional literature in the field, combined with the qualitative research that we carried in the past, as well as the expansion of the patients' quantitative survey, will enable us to provide a more complete and accurate picture, regarding the critical success factors of CBRC in Greece. This will lead to the formulation of complete marketing Communications strategy for CBRC in Greece.

**Acknowledgments**

We want to acknowledge professionals and private reproductive clinics for their contribution to this project, and mostly the anonymous volunteer patients that accepted to complete the questionnaires allowing is to evaluate the service that they experienced by Greek ART clinics.

**8. References**


The aim of this research was to investigate how a local community’s empowerment influences its perception of the impacts of community-based ecotourism (CBE) upon the people of Ban Na village in the Phou Khao Khouay National Protected Area of Laos. Qualitative data collected from in-depth interviews reveals that economic empowerment is the most significant dimension of empowerment to the development of CBE and influencing positive perceptions of the impact of CBE. Meanwhile, the social dimension of empowerment is the least important in the village. The study demonstrates that the empowered local community was more supportive of tourism development, and of equal chances for locals to have fair responsibilities for their work and to obtain comparable power over the decision-making process in the development of their jobs were driving force in enhancing living conditions and receiving substantial economic benefits from CBE participation.

1. Introduction

The community-based ecotourism (CBE) approach has gained growing attention from tourism researchers and
practitioners for rural community development, particularly in the developing world (Afenyo and Amuquandoh, 2014). It is widely known that ecotourism offers tourism development opportunities to rural areas whilst conserving the environment and social cultures of host communities. Meanwhile, continuing concerns over the distribution of the benefits of ecotourism and the power to govern tourism has led to the incorporation of community-based tourism into ecotourism development, so that the CBE approach not only seeks fair distribution of the income generated by tourism to the local community, in particular to poor people (Ardahaey, 2011), but also the transfer of power to the community to enable them to control both development and their own destiny (Stern et al., 2006).

The literature to date has examined the influence of power, which is a decisive factor, but CBE emphasises community empowerment, which is a process of building the capacities and decision-making abilities of community members. This transactional concept of empowerment ultimately helps the community take ownership of tourism development. In contrast to the prolific research on power and the perceived impacts of tourism, research on the role of empowerment in the community’s perception of tourism is scant. Moreover, the influence of community empowerment in the rural destinations of developing countries has received limited attention from tourism researchers. Thus, this research aims to investigate how a local community’s empowerment influences its perception of the impacts of CBE on the community through the case study of Ban Na village, in the Phou Khao Khouay National Protected Area (PKKNPA) of Laos.

2. The Phou Khao Khouay Ecotourism Project

The PKKNPA is located in Bolikhamxay province in the east of Laos and covers 2,000 square kilometres (LNTA, 2009). Phou Khao Khouay, designated as a National Protected Area in 1993, is seen as one of Laos’ most beautiful nature reserves. This extensive sandstone mountain range is only 40 kilometres northeast of the Vientiane Capital, Laos. Ban Na and Ban Hatkhai are the only two villages left inside the park. The residents in and around the park are of different ethnic origins from Lao-Tai to Mon-Khmer to Hmong-Mieu, but the majority of villagers in Ban Na village belong to the Hmong-Mieu groups. The
research site, Ban Na village, is located on the eastern edge of PKKNA in Thaphabath district, Bolikhamxay province.

The ecotourism project in PKKNPA was established in 2003 by The National Tourism Administration of Lao PDR (LNTA) in collaboration with the Management of Phou Khao Khouay National Park, Department of Forestry, and the German Development Service (DED), with the aim of gradually reducing any unsustainable uses of the nature reserve and supporting environmental education and active participation of CBE, whilst creating new income sources. A significant majority of the villages traditionally utilise natural resources in the park for their livelihood. With the financial, technical and advisory support of DED, the project began by implementing education programmes through which residents in villages received extensive information about the benefits and pitfalls of tourism in their village as well as about conservation of the nearby National Protected Area. Besides this, various training programmes such as tour guiding, food preparation and serving, and accommodation services were provided for villagers.

Locals in Ban Na village have formed a village CBE unit to operate and manage their own CBE services. The management of the CBE in Ban Na village is divided into three sections, namely tourist operators, a project secretary, and a project assistant, and most residents’ participation in tourism activities comes through the tourist operators sector. Tour guides and home-stay providers are the key players of the CBE tourist operating section along with handmade producers. There are currently 21 tour guides and eight home-stay providers in the village.

The project has been handed over to local communities in the park, and thus, local villagers in Phou Khao Khouay are given power and are encouraged to manage tourism in their respective villages according to the principles of CBE planning and implementation. Accordingly, residents were involved in tourism development and had the right to accept or reject some or even all activities if they were considered to be damaging the community.
3. Methodological Approach

A qualitative methodology was applied in this research as it focuses on understanding individuals’ interpretations of their social realities in terms of local community empowerment and perceptions of the impact of tourism. The primary data for this study was gathered by conducting semi-structured in-depth interviews in Ban Na village, Bolikhamxay Province, Laos in January 2014. The researchers obtained approval from the government to conduct these interviews in Ban Na village. The permission letter from the Tourism Division of the local authority informed all villagers and official staff in the area to participate in and support the research.

The head of CBE development was chosen as the key informant given that he had experienced the reality of implementing tourism activities in the village. By employing a snowball sampling method, one of the authors could continue to approach participants who had been working in CBE. There were only 13 women working and participating in CBE development in the village, and so in order to have gender balance in terms of the participants, interviews were conducted with 13 females and 13 males, resulting in a total sample size of 26. The interviewees were selected equally from among three different tourism operating groups (i.e. tour guides, handmade products, and home-stay groups). The interviews lasted about 50 minutes and each interview was recorded and transcribed. The interview transcripts were translated from Lao into English. The four steps of a thematic analysis entailed not only identifying the initial themes and labelling the data, but also sorting and summarising the data by theme (Spencer et al., 2013).

4. Results

This research revealed that empowerment plays a vital role in motivating locals to actively take part in CBE development and increases their positive perceptions of the impact of CBE on their community. Economic empowerment was the most important predictor of positive perceptions of CBE development, whereas the social
The dimension of empowerment had the least influence as the harmony of the villagers in the area was already strong.

4.1 Economic empowerment

A great majority of the local community expressed perceptions of the positive perceived impacts of economic empowerment through CBE on their community by pointing out three major changes: enhanced living conditions of the individual local villagers, the establishment of community development funds, and the enhanced economic status of women. In the past, local people primarily worked as farmers and their livelihoods relied on the forest. The average monthly income for growing and selling farm produce and livestock was about LAK 450,000 (approx. USD 55). Since the creation of the CBE project in Ban Na village, locals who engaged in tourism activities attained stable monthly incomes of about LAK 1,100,000 (approx. USD 135). Local residents who were given the opportunity to take part in tourism activities in Ban Na village indicated that:

I have been working as a tour guide since 2003. A tour guide job can enrich my family’s living conditions. I can gain more money from this activity. I also have additional income to deposit in the village fund to earn interest for my children’s education. I can say that my family condition is improved 100% (E2).

I am very happy that CBE was established in my village because it provides employment to the villagers. I can receive more money from a tour guide job and it helps to develop my family’s living conditions. (E5).

With steadier incomes, locals have been able to establish village funds which aim to help members of the groups and develop better conditions in their village. The funds were used to assist members who needed loans and to fix and improve the school, bridges, electricity and water supply, and village roads. Participants in this study commented that:

The members of the handmade products group created the handicrafts fund. All members of this group contribute 3% of our products sold to the fund. We are happy and
satisfied to pay because the money collected is used to help the group members who have problems and difficulties in their families (E11).

We paid 5,000 Kip to the home-stay group fund. The money is used to fix our children’s school, the bridge and the village road. We are glad to pay for the group because the money is expended to improve the condition of our village (E23).

In addition, the women of Ban Na village played an important part in assisting the men to improve their quality of life and the standard of living of their families. Most women were engaged with the handmade products group, which initiated educational training programmes in local crafts using local resources. These programmes nurtured the abilities of locals, especially women, to produce more saleable crafts. As a result, locals were able to produce a variety of products such as pen boxes, trays, tissue boxes, and bags. The handmade products group also helped group members promote their products and find wider markets for them. The women’s activities assisted in not only gaining steady revenues for local villagers, but also these local women became the owners of small businesses through which they were able to earn money independently.

Munro et al. (2010) observe that employment opportunities and degrees of economic dependence deeply affect local residents’ attitudes towards tourism development. The results indicate that financial security and stable incomes created feelings of happiness, which increased locals’ positive attitudes towards CBE development. Moreover, economic empowerment provided the community with more opportunities to establish small businesses and improve their skills; this was significant for low-status locals and women to help them improve their financial circumstances, and thus the fairer distribution of economic gains enabled the community of Ban Na village to perceive the positive impact of CBE.

4.2 Psychological empowerment

Psychological empowerment, which is evident alongside the benefits of economic empowerment, also impacted locals’ perceptions of CBE in their village. The two
most distinctive outcomes of the enhanced psychological empowerment were the protection of natural resources and the environment of the village, and the conservation of local lifestyles and ethnic cultures. In the past, locals relied on the forest for their livelihoods, clearing trees for farming and killing wildlife for food. Since 2003, CBE was established in the village and various jobs became available. As local people gained stable jobs, received regular incomes, and were educated about CBE development, the destruction of the forest and of wildlife decreased substantially:

I work as a tour guide and I have been trained by the CBE programme to protect the natural resources of my village. Since CBE was established in my village, most of the wild animals and the big trees have been conserved for the CBE project. Natural resources such as wild orchids, butterflies, birds and a variety of herbs for making medicine are also protected (E2).

Interactions with eco-friendly tourists also enhanced local peoples’ pride in their environment, and this psychological pride continues to drive the villagers to actively take part in conservation practices.

During the tour, most tourists show their interest in our natural resources. They respect and conserve our forest and wild animals. I can learn from them that, even though they are foreigners and are not residents in my village or even Lao people, they still love to protect our natural resources. This makes me feel proud to be a citizen of Ban Na village which has beautiful and rich resources (E7).

The local community sees CBE development as being able to make an effective contribution to environmental conservation as it promotes awareness in the host communities and amongst visitors (Bookbinder et al., 1998; Weaver, 1998).

Interactions with tourists enable local villagers to be aware of the significance of preserving their traditional lifestyles and ethnic cultures. Tourists were keen to ask about and discover the culture of the village and the lifestyles of the residents. This interest encouraged the home-stay hosts to share their way of life with the tourists. It
not only encouraged the villagers to promote their traditional culture, but it also boosted their self-esteem and pride, and generated increased respect for their own heritage. The local community noticed that CBE generated positive socio-cultural impacts, including the sharing and learning of new traditions, creating a sense of local pride, positive self-images among locals, strengthening the sense of ethnic identity, and creating friendships between local people and tourists; this is similar to what Wearing and Larsen’s (1996) study suggests.

4.3 Social empowerment

The locals in Ban Na village had a strong and harmonious domestic relationship before CBE was established, but they still perceived that social empowerment was strengthened by CBE development and it generated positive tourism impacts in their area. The respondents compared the different ways of manifesting harmonious relationships before and after CBE. In the past, the majority of the villagers spent most of their time on their own farms; as such, they helped each other for agricultural activities during the harvesting period and important family and cultural events. This collaborative culture in a farming village was in-keeping with the previous generation, as all villagers were in the same ethnic group and this behaviour was a characteristic of their ethnic culture. Since CBE was established in the village, friendly community relations have increased significantly as local villagers engaged in teamwork for sharing skills and knowledge as well as labour. In addition, local handicraft businesses boosted the social harmony of villagers, especially among local women and the elderly, because they usually worked together in the handicraft group and spent most of their time together producing products.

The harmony in our village has long been sustained, right through to the present day. Since tourism was established, good relations in the village have increased. I work in the handmade products group and I am a newcomer, I have learnt how to create new products from the senior women in our group. I spend most of my time with group members. We enjoy sharing ideas and skills to produce handicraft products together (E12).
This study proves that social empowerment entails the existence of strong community groups which involve women, young people and the elderly. With wider inclusion, community members not only foster a sense of harmony, but also generate social obligations for the common good (Timothy, 2007). Crucially, the handicraft products made in Ban Na village, such as the sticky rice containers, won a local government a prize for their outstanding, unique, and high quality products. This prize bolstered local pride and confidence in their abilities to create valuable products. Thus, social empowerment not only increased the locals’ optimism regarding engaging in tourism activities, but also boosted positive attitudes and perceptions of CBE development in their village.

4.4 Political empowerment

This research found that local residents in Ban Na village were politically empowered to make their own decisions over the process of CBE activities and development. A preliminary to the transfer of decision-making powers was for a great majority of villagers, who mostly engaged in agriculture, to be offered education programmes and workshops in tourism services and businesses. Education and training programmes not only boosted the locals’ confidence to participate in CBE activities, but also increased their capacity to work effectively as well and be aware of the significance and purpose of their involvement (Alkan et al., 2009; Jim and Xu, 2002).

Sufficient understanding of community development in association with tourism development motivated locals to be more willing to engage and have a voice in CBE activities. All three tourism groups had monthly meetings, the main purposes of which were to report on the strengths and weaknesses of the activities in which they had engaged, as well as on the progress of their jobs. During the meetings, both men and women identified existing issues in their jobs and shared possible solutions to deal with these problems. For example, almost all of the participants in the tour guide group commented that authorising villagers to indicate the difficulties of the tour guide activities and their possible
solutions could influence their attitudes towards tour guide jobs. In addition, the community were empowered to express their ideas for future plans and implementations with regard to CBE development. More than half the participants from the handmade group stated that locals were convinced that expressing ideas for future plans assisted in improving their jobs:

During the handmade products group meeting, I shared my idea with group members that we should produce a wider variety of products. We need to study tours in other areas where they are good at producing handmade products (E14).

Accessible political empowerment allowed all community members, including local people, women and the poor, to have equal opportunities to decide their own future by expressing their concerns and perspectives about the decisions that affect their lives (Timothy, 2007). As a result, empowered locals have positive perceptions of CBE development, and thus, they actively take part in CBE activities as they had a sense of engagement and belonging with, as well as ownership of, the process of CBE development in their region.

5. Conclusion

The findings of this study demonstrate that CBE development offers equal opportunities to all community members to contribute to tourism activities, which largely results from having empowered local people to take part in the decision-making process of tourism planning and implementation. Community empowerment, in turn, leads to more positive perceptions of the impacts of ecotourism development among local people, and thus supportive attitudes towards, and more active participation in, tourism development are achievable. Arguably, the substantial benefits of economic empowerment were identified as triggers for other dimensions of community empowerment that collectively influence the perceived impact of CBE development in the rural village. Given the context of the village, populated as it is by minority ethnic people in a less developed country who rely on natural resources for their
livelihoods, the community’s perceptions of tourism development plays a significant role as the community needs to make lifestyle changes through new types of economic activities. Empowerment encourages the community to build their economic capabilities by enhancing awareness, knowledge and skill transfers, and also promotes self-efficacy in terms of tourism services and businesses. In contrast to the previous literature, this study finds that community empowerment is significant for CBE practices as the practice of this transitional concept gradually builds a sense of community and the economic and political capacities of minority groups in a poor area. Accordingly, local people have more awareness and more positive perceptions of CBE that is closely linked to their living environments, and thus the impacts of CBE that result from their decisions are more positive.

6. References


INTERACTIONS AND RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN VOLUNTEER TOURISTS AND HOSTS: A CASE OF THE SPECIAL EDUCATION CENTRE OF RANONG PROVINCE

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This study explores the interactions and relationships between the volunteer tourists and their hosts by using social exchange theory. A qualitative research utilizing semi-structured, in-depth interviews and participant observation was adopted. The informants included eight volunteer tourists, on a working vacation at the Special Education Centre of Ranong Province and nineteen staff members of the centre. The analysis of the data revealed that the interactions and relationships between the volunteer tourists and the hosts were reciprocal and rewarding, which brought benefits to both groups in and was sufficient for them to decide to be involved in volunteer tourism in the future For the volunteer tourists, they had gained desired experience, whereas the hosts had an opportunity to learn English and skills in taking care of the children from the volunteer tourists.

1. Introduction

Volunteer tourism has emerged and gained popularity as an alternative to mass tourism. The concept of volunteer tourism is starting to attract attention from researchers and practitioners from many countries (Wearing, 2001). This is in contrast with the case of Thailand, where volunteer tourism is still in its infancy stage. Empirical research on volunteer tourism in Thailand is currently fairly limited. Little is yet known
about this area. With the aim to fill the gap in the literature and contribute to the existing knowledge on volunteer tourism, this study was conducted by focusing on the nature of interactions and relationships between volunteer tourists and hosts by using the volunteer tourism program at the Special Education Centre of Ranong province as the case study.

2. An Overview of Volunteer Tourism

Volunteer tourism can be defined as an integrated combination of ‘travel’ and ‘volunteerism’ (Raymond and Hall, 2008). Specifically, it is defined by McGehee and Santos (2005: 760) as “utilising discretionary time and income to go out of the regular sphere of activity to assist others in need”.

Volunteer tourism is viewed as a more sustainable form of tourism (McGehee and Andereck, 2009) which provides mutually beneficial experiences for the tourist as well as the host community (Wearing, 2001). In other words, it not only contributes to the interests of the volunteer tourist but also positively contributes to the social, natural and economic environments of their host communities (Broad, 2003; Raymond and Hall, 2008; Wearing, 2001).

The emergence of volunteer tourism is argued to be a result of the phenomenal growth of mass tourism in the global scale in the late 20th century together with the power of the media (Callanan, and Thomas, 2005). These two factors have unveiled people, especially those from developed or Western countries to other cultures, which consequently make them more aware of “explicit divisions between the ‘haves’ and the ‘havenots’” of the society (Callanan, and Thomas, 2005). Generally, volunteer tourists come from developed or Western countries, of which United State of America, United Kingdom, and European countries appear to be the major supply for this type of tourist (Tourism Research and Marketing, 2008).

Volunteer tourists are argued to be those who seek a tourist experience that provides reciprocal benefits for themselves and the host communities where they visit (Wearing, 2001). As one of the main aspects of the volunteer tourists is working with pay, the question of whether they should be considered volunteers or a type of tourist arises.
Although existing literature (e.g., Brown, 2005; Gray and Campbell, 2007; Lepp, 2009; Proyrungroj, 2014) agrees that volunteer tourists should be considered a type of tourists, they argue that volunteer tourists are different from other tourists in many ways. A number of factors are used to differentiate the volunteer tourists from other tourists. For example, Lepp’s (2009) study points out that some volunteer tourists use the nature of their volunteer work to differentiate themselves from other tourists. Proyrungroj’s (2014) study states that volunteer tourists differ from leisure tourists in the sense that they are generally motivated by a desire to help others and a desire for personal development. In addition, they tend to visit poverty stricken destinations or areas which have an image of being effected by disasters. In line with this, Brown (2005) argues that volunteer tourists are different from other tourists in terms of their greater sense of environmental responsibility and their choice of destinations, which tend to be remote and untouched, or poverty-stricken.

3. Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory is conceptualized by Ap (1992) as:

a general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interaction situation. Interactions are treated as a process in which ‘actors’ supply one another with valued resources (p.668)

Ap (1992) further explains that, the term ‘actor’ refers to ‘a person, a role-occupant, or a group that acts as a single unit,’ whereas ‘resources may be of a material, social, or psychological nature’, which ‘become the object of exchange among people’. In the context of tourism, social exchange theory views an interaction occurred between tourists and hosts as a form of exchange of valued resources between these two groups, from which each group seeks benefits potentially arising from such resources (Sharpley, 2003). Furthering to this, it is said that such exchange requires a bidirectional transaction which means that when something is given, there should be something
that is returned (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). For example, while tourists may seek the benefit in a form of a desired experience and local people in the form of an economic gain, both parties also provide one another with resources needed by one another (e.g. tourists buy souvenirs and local residents arrange a cultural show) or while tourists have gained positive experiences offered by hosts, they tend to value the destinations which are beneficial to the hosts (Luekveerawattana, 2012).

Social exchange theory is useful in understanding why volunteer tourists and hosts decide to take part in volunteer tourism, the nature of interactions and relationships between them, and the consequences of such interactions. According to Ap (1992), the social exchange process between tourists and hosts consists of four main components: (i) the identification of need satisfaction; (ii) exchange relation; (iii) consequences of exchange; and (iv) determination of the consequences. The social exchange process is initiated with the ‘identification of need satisfaction’ which serves as the rational for actors to engage in such exchange. This component represents the needs and expectations or motivations of the actors that direct them toward goal-oriented behavior. The identification of need satisfaction is linked to the second component, the ‘exchange relation’ by a process of initiation of exchange where both groups of actors commence the exchange.

Exchange relation consists of two subcomponents: antecedents and form of exchange relation, linked by a process of exchange formation. The antecedents refer to forms of opportunities perceived by at least one of the actors before the exchange occurs. The antecedents or perceived opportunities normally occur in forms of: (i) ‘rationality of behavior’, when the actors believe that they can gain potential rewards or benefits derived from exchange; therefore, tending to act in a rational manner that leads them to obtain such benefits; (ii) ‘satisfying of benefits’, in which actors attempt to gain a satisfactory and acceptable level of benefits from the exchange, since the ideal maximized benefits may not always be possible; (iii) ‘reciprocity’: a situation in which each actor provide benefits that are important to one another equitably; and (iv) ‘justice principle’: the exchange must be perceived by both parties as reasonably fair.
If either party perceives that the results of exchange will be unrewarding, dissatisfied or unfair, withdrawal of exchange process will occur, so that there will be no exchange between actors. Alternatively, if both parties feel that the exchange will provide fair, satisfactory and reciprocal rewards, they continue to undergo the exchange process and the transfer of resources between them occurs.

Exchange relations can occur in either a form of balanced or unbalanced exchange between two parties based on power or dependence of the actors. Power refers to the ability of one actor to exert control over the outcome of another’s experience. The power arises from having resources that are important and valued by another actor. If both parties perceive that they both gain reward from the exchange and have similar levels of power, the exchange relation is considered balanced. However, if one actor has high levels of power, comparative to the other, the exchange relation is unbalanced, placing the former in an advantageous position. In the latter situation, the disadvantaged actor may develop negative attitudes to the advantaged actor.

The nature of the interactions or exchanges between the tourists and their hosts can take one of three paths: ‘where the tourist is purchasing some good or service from the host, where the tourist and host find themselves side by side, for example, on a sandy beach … and where the two parties come face to face with the object of exchanging information or ideas’ (De Kadt, 1979). In relation to social exchange theory, the last situation is the situation where exchange relation is balanced or where the tourist and the host interact on the basis of equality and mutual respect and are mutually rewarded.

Once the exchange process is completed, or at the end of the holiday, both tourists and the hosts evaluate the exchange of resources. The consequences of the evaluation can be either positive or negative. If positive, future exchange is likely to occur; that is, for the tourists, they tend to engage in a particular type of tourism activity or visit that destination again, and for the hosts, they will continue to welcome the tourists to their community and/or
provide on-going support for tourism development in their community.

Alternatively, if the consequences are evaluated as being negative, the exchange is unlikely to occur in the future; that is when the tourists do not want to visit the destination and/or the hosts are not willing to welcome the tourists. The consequences of the exchange evaluation can take the form of a sequence: examining outputs from the exchange; determining the action to respond to another party based on the outputs; and evaluating the psychological outcomes (feeling) of the consequences.

The outputs are the benefits that the actors have gained from the exchange. For example, if the evaluation of the exchange is positive, the outputs for the tourists can be gaining new experiences or having learnt about local culture, and for the hosts, they can be in the form of income or employment. For the actions, the tourists may recommend their friends to visit the community, and the hosts may extend their friendliness, courtesy, and hospitality to tourists, or adapt themselves to some inconveniences caused by tourism, such as long queues for purchasing goods and services, sharing local facilities with tourists, overcrowding, noise, and traffic congestion. As far as outcome is concerned, either a positive attitude or a negative attitude held by either group towards the other is a good example of outcome.

The consequence of exchange leads to the decision of both parties about their future exchange; if the exchange is a positive one, they are likely to engage in the future exchange, but if negative, the possibility of the future exchange is very low or may not happen.

4. Research Methodology

This study adopted an interpretive paradigm utilizing qualitative research. This approach is determined to be suitable for this study because its main aim was to gain a rich and in-depth understanding of the nature of interactions and relationships between volunteer tourists and the staff members of the Special Education Centre of Ranong Province who were their hosts. This study collected data from eight volunteer tourists, on a working vacation at the Special Education Centre
of Ranong Province and nineteen staff members of the centre. The respondents were selected by using purposive sampling.

The respondents from each group of respondents were interviewed individually by the researcher using semi-structured interviews. Each interview lasted between 45-70 minutes. Each interview was tape recorded and later transcribed. In addition, participant observation by the researcher was also conducted with the aim to gain more complete findings.

The interview transcriptions and the field notes taken from participant observation were analyzed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is “a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The data analysis followed the six phases of thematic analysis, as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006), namely: (i) familiarising oneself with the data; (ii) generating initial codes; (iii) searching for themes; (iv) reviewing themes; (v) defining and naming themes; and (vi) producing the report.

5. Findings

The data analysis reveals that both volunteer tourists and the hosts initially decided to get involved in the volunteer tourism program at the Special Education Centre of Ranong Province because they expected to gain benefits from volunteer tourism. For the volunteer tourists, they expected to gain experiences in taking care of children with special needs and wanted to learn Thai culture. As for the hosts, they needed assistance from the volunteer tourists and gain knowledge in taking care of the children with special needs such as how to provide physical therapy.

When the volunteer tourists arrived at the centre and engaged in volunteer tourism activity, they had interactions with their hosts. It is evident from the data that both volunteer tourists and hosts interacted with each other in a rational manner, or in a manner that they believed could lead them to fulfill their expectations. This explains the form of ‘antecedents’ in terms of ‘rational behavior’ which occurs during the process of interactions.

For the volunteer tourist, to ensure that their expectation would be satisfied and they could gain satisfactory benefits from their actions, they worked hard on preparing for the
lessons, used their skills and knowledge, and tried to use different techniques in taking care of the children. For the host, it was found that they also acted in a rational manner in order to fulfill their expectations by developing and assigning tasks to the volunteer tourists which they believed would bring benefits to them.

It is evident that the behavior of each group and the interactions between them brought about the benefits that were perceived to be satisfactory, acceptable, and reciprocal from the points of view of both groups. Neither acted only for the purpose of satisfying their own needs and expectations, but acted in a way that could benefit one another. In other words, they did not just seek to ‘take’, but also ‘intended’ to ‘give.’ This may be the unique nature of volunteer tourism, which tends to provide mutual benefits for both volunteer tourists and hosts.

Perhaps an altruistic motivation or a desire to help children on the part of the volunteer tourists, and the perception of the hosts that volunteer tourists were different from conventional tourists, could explain this situation. For the volunteer tourists, although they took care of the children with the purpose of fulfilling their own desire to gain experiences which would be beneficial for their future study or career, these behaviors evidently benefited the children and the hosts. For the hosts, they not only sought to benefit from the volunteer tourist, but also regarded them as ‘friends’, and were willing to share knowledge of taking care of the children and their culture to them, and facilitated them in a process of personal development and growth.

Additionally, in terms of feelings or attitudes, both parties were greatly satisfied with each other. These positive feelings were primarily based on the characteristics and behavior of both parties. For example, the volunteer tourists were impressed by the hospitality, friendliness of the hosts as well as their dedication and performance in taking care of the children, whereas the hosts were impressed by and grateful for the generosity and dedication of the volunteer tourists. Moreover, it is also evident that both parties shared an interest in the well-being and improvement of the children as well as the enhancement of knowledge in taking care of the children, which caused them to have positive feelings and attitudes towards each other.

The consequence of the interactions between the volunteer tourists and the hosts in this study was found to be positive.
Based on social exchange theory, this evaluation of the consequence of the interactions can be explained by using the form of a sequence: examining outputs from the interactions; determining the action to respond to another party based on the outputs; and evaluating the psychological outcomes (feelings) of the consequences.

The outputs were in the forms of benefits that each party had gained: for the volunteer tourists, they had gained a desired experience and learnt local culture; and for the hosts, they had gained knowledge in taking care of children with special needs from the volunteer tourists and had also learnt English language from them.

In terms of action, the data showed that some volunteer tourists recommended that their friends participate in volunteer tourism at the center; for the hosts, the examples include extending friendliness and hospitality to the volunteer tourists and giving souvenirs to them.

As for the psychological outcomes or feelings, it was found that both parties had positive feelings toward one another, and these outputs, action, and outcomes determined their future involvement in volunteer tourism. It is evident that both groups showed an intention to engage in volunteer tourism in the future. Some volunteer tourists mentioned that they intended to volunteer at the centre again and some said that they wanted to visit the staff members of the centre as a close friend in the future. For the hosts, all of them were willing to welcome volunteer tourists again. To conclude, the interactions of the volunteer tourists and the hosts in this study was a reciprocal and rewarding one, which brought benefits to both groups in and was sufficient for them to decide to be involved in volunteer tourism in the future.

6. Conclusion

The interactions and relationships between the volunteer tourists and the hosts in this study were found to be reciprocal and rewarding, which brought benefits to both groups and was sufficient for them to decide to be involved in volunteer tourism in the future. For the volunteer tourists, they had gained desired experience, developed themselves and learnt local culture, whereas the hosts had an
opportunity to learn English and skills in taking care of the children from the volunteer tourists.

The reciprocal exchanges or interactions between the volunteer tourists and the hosts found in this study, add another piece of evidence to support the argument that volunteer tourism provides reciprocal benefits for both volunteer tourists and host communities made by other researchers (Brown and Morrison, 2003; Uriely, Reichel, and Ron, 2003).

Based upon the satisfactory, reciprocal interactions between the volunteer tourists and the hosts as discussed above, it can be argued that the interaction between them was in the form of a balanced exchange. This is because each party had resources that were significant and valued in the view of the other and had shared those resources in an equal and fair manner: for example, the volunteer tourists had experiences and skills in taking care of the children with special needs and had shared these with the hosts, and the hosts had places where the volunteer tourists can gain the benefits they sought after.

Although both the volunteer tourists and the hosts had a perception that there was inequality between them in terms of their socio-economic background, this perception did not cause unbalanced interactions between them. On the contrary, both felt that they could benefit from this inequality: the volunteer tourists had learnt a lot of things from the lives of the local people, whereas the hosts had gained benefits from the skills, knowledge and wealth of the volunteer tourists. This study contributes to the development of knowledge in that it argues that the interactions between volunteer tourists and hosts are different from those occurred in mass tourism. In mass tourism, it was argued that both tourists and hosts seek to gain benefits from one another to satisfy their own needs as much as possible, but in the context of volunteer tourism, where the volunteer tourists’ main motivation is to help out, and the hosts generally view volunteer tourists as being different from other tourists, it was found that both groups did not just seek to ‘take’ or to satisfy their own needs, but also intended to give or to do something that could benefit one another.
7. References


This paper introduces a framework for evaluating the vulnerability of coastal destinations to climate change using public policies as indicators and policy analysis techniques as a method of analysis. From a contextual perspective, vulnerability is a product of the characteristics of a locality. Policy formulation and decision making are a result of the destination context including the local political context of planning decision-making. The confluence of multiple interacting factors, in a specific situation and at a specific moment, leads to specific decisions, strategies and policies that determine vulnerability. This paper aims to: (1) address the ambiguity that characterizes the concept of vulnerability; (2) increase the utility and operability of this concept for framing research by recognizing its capacity to combine with both human and biophysical systems and to link multiple dynamic and complex dimensions; and (3) highlight non-physical stressors, since physical determinants frequently dominate evaluations of vulnerability by decision-makers and researchers.

1. Introduction

The sustainability of coastal destinations is conditioned by the characteristics of the sun sand and sea tourism model (e.g.
seasonality, mass demand and the coastal littoralization) and through global dynamics such as the economic crisis, changes in the energy consumption model, emerging destinations and climate change. To manage new global change scenarios and enhance tourism sustainability, it is crucial to determine how vulnerable destinations are to the above stressors. First, however, we need to clarify what vulnerability is and how it can be evaluated. Theoretical perspectives on vulnerability encompass several academic fields (i.e. risk management, famine, public health and security). In the last few decades the popularity of the concept in research on global change has increased due to its capacity to include both human and natural systems, the possibility of linking multiple dynamic and complex dimensions, and its potential for embracing forecasted impacts. However, these advantages complicate methodology and research (Polsky, Neff and Yarnal, 2007).

The aims of this paper are to: address the ambiguity that characterizes the concept of vulnerability; increase the operability of this concept in order to frame research; and highlight non-physical stressors, since physical determinants frequently dominate evaluations of vulnerability.

To achieve these aims, in section 2 we describe the complexity and ambiguity of the concept of vulnerability. In section 3 we present some guidelines to frame evaluations of the vulnerability of coastal destinations to climate change. In section 4 we justify the usefulness of using the contents of public policies as indicators and policy analysis techniques as a method to evaluate the vulnerability of destinations. In the final section we summarize our conclusions.

2. Vulnerability: An Ambiguous and Complex Concept

We make several assumptions when seeking to address the ambiguity of the concept of vulnerability. First, vulnerability, as a noun derived from the adjective *vulnerable*, has negative connotations. To be vulnerable is to be exposed to the possibility of being damaged or badly influenced. Evaluating vulnerability is therefore the same as evaluating the degree of exposure to harm. A person or a thing is vulnerable when threatened by another person or thing that is likely to cause damage or present danger. The threat of adverse impacts is
only potential since these adverse impacts may or may not occur. In fact, threats are analyzed through future projections and scenarios with a different range of confidence.

Moreover, there is no consensus on the concept or how to evaluate it. However the basic characteristics of its meaning have been expressed, but in practice academics use the term in numerous ways and for diverse aims. The concept of vulnerability needs to be narrowed in order for it to be operative.

Some scholars have reviewed glossaries in order to assess vulnerability to climate change (Thywissen, 2006); these glossaries illustrate the difficulty in capturing every dimension of the concept. Other scholars have proposed frameworks (Calgaro, Lloyd, and Dominey-Howes, 2014; Moreno and Becken, 2009; Füssel, 2007; Perch-Nielsen, 2010; Polsky, Neff and Yamal, 2007; Schröter, Polsky and Patt, 2005; Turner et al. 2003) or made evaluations with regard to coastal areas and climate change (Bosom and Jiménez, 2011; Cinner et al., 2012; Huebner, 2012; Moreno and Becken, 2009; Scott, Simpson and Sim, 2012). All these studies, with a variety of purposes, indicators and methodologies, produce different perspectives on vulnerability. Yet one thing they have in common is a framework that is too complicated to be effective, mainly due to availability of datasets on vulnerability, a lack of accurate indicators, and the length of time needed for implementation of approaches to measure vulnerability.

The concept of vulnerability has evolved over time. Füssel (2010) and O’Brien and Wolf (2010) highlight the two most renowned frameworks of vulnerability due to climate change: contextual vulnerability and outcome vulnerability. The contextual approach is based on the internal characteristics of the vulnerable subject that condition the probability that it will be harmed by external stressors. It focuses on the social, political and economic conditions that determine exposure, sensitivity and adaptive capacity. Outcome vulnerability, on the other hand, is understood as the result of both climate projections and the responses to cope with them. It emphasizes how climate change damage can be reduced via adaptation or mitigation strategies.

Eakin and Luers (2006) detected three main lines of thought for addressing vulnerability assessments: risk-hazard, political economy or political ecology, and ecological resilience.
The first, which is related to the outcome approach, aims to determine “to what we are vulnerable, what consequences might be expected, and where and when those impacts may occur” (Eakin and Luers, 2006:369). The second, which is related to the contextual approach, is a response to an overemphasis of natural issues in risk-hazard research. It focuses on why populations are vulnerable, how they are vulnerable, and who is vulnerable. The third, which is the last line of thought to be incorporated into discussions of vulnerability, aims to answer how human and natural systems combine, what the capacity to cope with change is, and which processes condition that capacity.

Füssel and Klein (2006) identified the evolution of the concept from the assessment of biophysical impacts to climate change associated with mitigation policies towards an analysis that focuses predominantly on evaluating adaptation strategies. Such an approach also highlighted the importance of local scale studies and the significance of non-climatic factors and social science approaches from a wider, interdisciplinary perspective. Moreover, the involvement of stakeholders in these studies has also increased due to changes in information needs “from science-driven assessments that estimate potential climate impacts (in order to inform mitigation policy) to policy-driven assessments that recommend specific adaptation measures (in order to inform adaptation policy)” (Füssel and Klein, 2006:309).

Reflecting upon progress in science and taking into account the relevance of IPCC reports as a systematic and outstanding scientific summary on this issue, the definitions of vulnerability provided by the IPCC have also evolved (IPCC, 2007; 2014). However, they are still too wide to be operationalised.

To advance and improve the usefulness of the concept, synergies with other terms (e.g. sustainability, adaptation and resilience) need to be incorporated into the evaluation (Adger, 2006; Turner et al., 2003). A review of the literature shows that concepts such as sensitivity, exposure, mitigation and stressors are commonly used and that these terms are also defined in numerous ways. We have opted to use them as the IPCC did in its last report (IPCC, 2014), which has broadly been endorsed by academia.

Several challenges for research into vulnerability exist. It is important to enhance integrated methodologies that can
combine socio-ecological systems as well as to include perceptions of risk and governance studies. The involvement of stakeholders and attention at the local scale are the keys to successful assessment (Füssel, 2007; Moreno and Becken, 2009; Schröter Polsky and Patt, 2005). We need to incorporate values-based approaches, which are strongly related to decision-making and responses to climate change (Huebner, 2012; O’Brien and Wolf, 2010). According to Kelly and Adger (2000) we also need to go beyond studies that focus mainly on physical conditions (Bosom and Jiménez, 2011; Scott, Simpson and Sim, 2012), are conducted on a national scale, or rank territories according to a numerical index (Brooks, Adger and Kelly, 2005; Perch-Nielsen, 2010) because they fail to acknowledge the contribution which locality based attributes add to the debate. Using a quantitative approach to simplify the result or to make generalizations from too large a scale leads to explanations that are too imprecise to help improve decision making and guarantee sustainability.

We assume, therefore, that the concept needs to be adapted to each case study and goal since any definition that is intended to suit all cases will be too wide and too ambiguous and therefore not able to be operationalised.

3. Some Guidelines to Frame Evaluations of the Vulnerability of Coastal Destinations to Climate Change

Taking into account all the above, we propose to take into account five components that determine vulnerability with the purposes of guiding the selection of indicators and evaluation. As stated earlier, as the conceptualization of vulnerability depends on each specific case and purpose, these components must be adapted to each assessment. The five components are (for the case of this paper):

C1) the subject that is considered vulnerable (coastal destination);
C2) the threat that causes vulnerability (climate change);
C3) the characteristics of the threat (complexity, global dimension, frequency of impacts, duration of impacts, magnitude or intensity, distribution and probability);
C4) the specific determinants of the subject that condition the degree of vulnerability (exposure, sensitivity, resilience,
geophysical conditions, socioeconomic conditions and risk perception); C5) and external stressors that intensify the threat studied (other dynamics of global change, e.g. economic development, emerging destinations or environment degradation).

In this framework, the last three components (C3, C4 and C5) determine mitigation and adaptation capacity, i.e. the potential to reduce the intensification of climate change due to tourism activity and new global change scenarios. Mitigation and adaptation capacity is conditioned by decision-making and non-decision making. At the same time, decision-making processes are influenced by factors related to vulnerability components such as available information on the characteristics of the threat, specific determinants to the subject (e.g. the training of decision-makers and economic, social and physical factors) and the dynamics and variables of global change, such as external stressors. The cause-effect relationship is therefore mutual.

Going deeper into coastal destinations vulnerability to climate change, we can distinguish three causes of vulnerability produced by climate change:

1) it produces direct negative impacts,

2) it generates indirect negative impacts associated both with global warming effects and adaptation and mitigation strategies, and

3) it intensifies other socioeconomic negative impacts that also condition the vulnerability of destinations.

Climate change, while also due to natural causes, is mostly due to socioeconomic drivers. The main consequence of climate change is global warming. However, socioeconomic drivers also influence external stressors (i.e. urbanization, littoralization, environmental degradation and seasonality) that intensify the secondary effects of climate change, which are due to global warming. Important consequences of global warming in coastal destinations are: an increase in energy consumption for cooling purposes; an increase in prices due to greater demand for water for cooling and recreation purposes and to more frequent and more intense droughts; the greater need for insurance due to more frequent and more intense extreme events and the proliferation of organisms, illnesses and insects; sea level rise; and ocean acidification, which as well as global warming, affects coral bleaching and species migration.
The above direct impacts of climate change also have three main indirect impacts on coastal destinations: higher prices, a greater risk perception by potential tourists, and a reduction in the quality of natural resources. The first is mainly linked with energy and water consumption and a greater need for insurance. The second is due to more intense extreme meteorological events and the increase in organisms, insects and illnesses that may disturb tourists. The latter is related not only to the deterioration of the sea, the beaches and the landscapes but also to the increase in climate discomfort for tourists, all of which are key factors at coastal destinations.

These three indirect impacts of climate change reduce the attractiveness of destinations. Destinations are therefore vulnerable to climate change and require adaptation and mitigation strategies. However, both types of strategy can modify tourists’ preferences. Examples are measures affecting the cost of accommodation (e.g. energy costs for air conditioning) and travel (e.g. taxes on air travel) or reducing the quality of natural resources (e.g. beach artificialization to combat sea level rise).

4. The Usefulness of Policy Analysis to Evaluate Vulnerability

From a contextual perspective and according to research derived from political economy and political ecology, vulnerability is conceived as a product of the destination context. Policy formulation and decision making are also outcomes of the context. The confluence of multiple interacting factors, actors, resources, institutions, ideas and information in a specific situation and at a specific moment, leads to specific decisions, strategies and policies (Sidney, 2007). Therefore, if both vulnerability and policies are determined by the context, vulnerability can be evaluated through the contents of decision-making, which are materialized in documents detailing policies, strategies and plans.

Indicators to evaluate vulnerability must also be complex, forward-looking (since impacts are potential), available, reliable, and comparable between different cases. They must also prioritize the local scale but be aware of the nesting of scales (Polsky, Neff and Yarnal, 2007; Schröter, Polsky and Patt, 2005). All these requirements are also satisfied by the
contents of policy documents, which also contain other advantages as indicators. According to Santos-Lacueva and Saladié (2013) and Velasco González (2004; 2011), policy documents contain numerous ideas and values that conduct and justify actions that are implemented in a specific sector. They are based, or at least should be based, on the characteristics of socio-ecological systems, the availability of resources, potential impacts, and stressors. Moreover, they show the perceptions of policy makers regarding context and risk: the existence and magnitude of problems and their potential solutions. Plans must ensure the participation of public and private entities in order to reach a consensus for achieving success. They should also make their objectives, tools and resources clear. Policies, which are conceived as indicators of decision-making - the result of multiple complex, diffuse and dynamic variables and interactions - are able to reflect all of these issues.

With regard to Policy Analysis techniques as a methodology, we focus on the evaluation of policy contents. We define policy evaluation as a holistic process of observation, measurement, analysis, interpretation and assessment that aims to improve our knowledge of complex public interventions from the setting of the agenda to the final results. Its conclusions are useful for decision-making, planning, public management and citizenship in general. In fact, it must be motivated by public interest.

In this definition complexity is highlighted because it is an attribute of public interventions and is therefore also a characteristic of the techniques used to evaluate them. The design of the evaluation has to be in line with specific purposes and incorporate the degree of complexity of the case study in order to guarantee the quality of results. Indicators and method are both justified because they share complex, diffuse and dynamic attributes with vulnerability as a variable, global change as a phenomenon, coastal destination as a territorial system, and both tourism activity and tourism policy. In fact, several scholars have recognized the gap in research on tourism policy that is characterized by cross-cutting processes and diffuse boundaries (Dredge and Jenkins, 2011; Elliott, 1997; Hall, 1994; Hall and Page, 2002; Mkono, Jenkins and Hall, 2014; Kerr, 2003).
5. Conclusion

This paper recognizes the importance of considering global stressors in order to guarantee the sustainable management of destinations. Both tourism activity and the complexity of global dynamics force the use of concepts such as vulnerability, which has the ability to frame research by incorporating multiple dynamic and diffuse variables. Indicators and methodologies must be able to cope with these attributes. At the same time, they must reflect contextual and specific peculiarities of the case study. However, overarching concepts could become ambiguous and inoperative. The academic challenge therefore exists to improve functionality and utility.

Moreover, the specifics of tourism activity make public management essential for tackling negative externalities and ensuring sustainable development. The second academic challenge, however, is to bridge the gap in tourism policy research that highlights the scarcity of the effective tools and accurate information that are needed for planning purposes. In fact, policy evaluation is not only an instrument of accountability but also a process for improving the information available for addressing decision making on strategic and managerial issues.

Additionally, research into global change dynamics needs to go further than quantitative physical evaluations to describe the reality of the situation. It must also adopt a multidisciplinary perspective by incorporating a social-science approach and generate results that can be applied to improve this reality.

In this context, this framework is expected to deal with these scientific challenges and guide future research to enhance our knowledge of the public-sector tourism management and adaptation and mitigation strategies needed to cope with the dynamics of global change. It is also expected to generate and analyze information in order to raise awareness among decision-makers regarding global change and obtain better planning tools that take into account both public interest and sustainability.

Acknowledgment

7. References


HOST COMMUNITY RESILIENCE TO NIGHTCLUB TOURISM

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Ibiza is world-famous for its nightclubs, parties (legal or not) and its nightlife. No research or studies have ever been carried out in order to verify the attitudes of the host community towards this form of leisure tourism. The aim of this paper is to analyze and segment the attitudes of the residents of Ibiza towards nightlife tourism through a quantitative study based on a large survey. Results show a high recognition of the importance of clubs and nightlife on the economy and image of the island, and a resigned opposition to this kind of tourism: residents would prefer to prioritize other tourism activities. It can be stated that Ibiza’s host community is developing some sort of social resilience defined as the ability of groups or communities to cope with external stresses and disturbances as a result of social, political and environmental change.

1. Introduction

Tourism depends largely on the good will of local residents and the support of the local community is essential for the appropriate development of the sector (Besculides, Lee and McCormick, 2002; Gursoy, Jurowski and Uysal, 2002). It is also widely recognized that destination tourism planners should take into account the views of residents if they want to develop a sustainable industry (Allen et al., 1988; Ap and Crompton, 1998; Maddox, 1985). The vast majority of the studies concerning the attitudes of the residents analyze the tourism sector as a whole and there are very few cases where there has been a focus on a specific type of tourism activity.
There is not much academic literature concerning clubs and nightlife, and in most cases the clubs are an element of a wider context in which another particular phenomenon is analyzed. Studies focusing on nightlife and clubs are very scarce. There are some descriptive studies about the nightlife in Taiwan (Huang, 2011), South London (Andersson, 2011), Belgrade (Todorovic and Bakir, 2005), Milwaukee (Campos and Ryan, 2008) and Los Angeles (Hong and Duff, 1997) and some studies on servicescape (Kubacki et al., 2007; Skinner et al., 2008; Skinner, Moss and Parfitt, 2005) as the only academic publications focusing on the analysis of this type of leisure tourism. No research has been undertaken up to the present concerning the attitudes of the host community towards clubs and nightlife in sun and beach destinations.

This paper sets out to intend to provide a descriptive study of the attitudes of residents towards the nightlife and clubs on the island of Ibiza. We believe the interest for the study of this specific sector in this particular tourism destination lies in the worldwide importance of Ibiza's clubs and the size of this sector on the island.

2. Residents Attitudes Towards Clubbing Tourism

Ibiza is an island situated in the Western Mediterranean with an area of 572 square kilometers and over 130,000 inhabitants, with an economy extremely dependent on tourism. Every year Ibiza receives between 1,700,000 and 2,000,000 tourists, mostly concentrated from June to September. The emergence of tourism in Ibiza can be traced back to the first third of the 20th century, but it was between the mid-1950's and the 1970s when the island went through its great ‘tourism boom’. The rapid growth of the tourism sector was due to the fact that it provided a means to overcome the state of relative poverty at the time. Tourism arrivals continued rapidly increasing until the capacity growth was hindered by legislation at the early 1990s. The volume of tourists stabilized by the year 2000, remaining fairly constant since then.

From the outset, Ibiza has always been associated to an image of liberalism which attracted the European artistic avant-garde at first and, later on, beatniks and hippies. This atmosphere of freedom fostered the surge of private parties and clubs that were unthinkable in the 1950s in Spain and abroad. The hippie parties, which took place in the 1960s and
1970s, drew much attention and some became traditions which are still maintained. Between the late sixties and early seventies the first nightclubs were opened on the island. These establishments grew rapidly in size, technology and prestige and some are still operating.

It would be difficult to explain the image Ibiza projects worldwide nowadays without referring to the 80's, when the large nightclubs surged. Clubs increased in number and also in size, a phenomenon which was spurred on by the rise of similar clubs in the United Kingdom and other sun and beach Mediterranean destinations (Costa, 1989; Ryan, 2002). The surge and evolution of this type of clubs slowed down in the early 1990s, partly due to changing trends in the United Kingdom but also because of a more general crisis in the Balearic Islands’ tourism sector. Also in the 90’s, attempts were made by Ibiza’s DMOs to change the image of a “wild-crazy-party tourism destination” so as not to close doors on other types of tourism. Nevertheless, Amnesia, Eden, EsParadis, Pacha, Privilege and Space, clubs which today are essential attractions, were all set up in the 90’s. At present, the global image of Ibiza as a nightlife destination originates from a group of mega-clubs and small nightclubs, bars and pubs with particular facilities which have led to the perception of a typical lifestyle on the island.

Despite the global importance of the nightclubs of Ibiza, existing academic studies have had the same approach as in the rest of the world, where clubs have been a mere context for studies on drug use (Bellis et al., 2003; Bellis et al., 2009) and high-risk sexual interaction (Bellis and Hughes, 2004; Hughes and Bellis, 2006). There is no prior study on nightlife or clubs in Ibiza from the social sciences perspective. This work provides a first quantitative approach for understanding the attitudes of residents towards the nightclubs of Ibiza.

3. Methodology

The analysis of the attitudes of residents towards nightlife and clubs in Ibiza was carried out by means of an array of items integrated into a broader survey on attitudes of residents towards tourism. A Likert scale of 5 points (Maddox, 1985) was used: 1 being "Strongly disagree", 3 "Indifferent" and 5 "Strongly Agree". Fieldwork took place between February and March 2012 (low season) and July and August 2012 (peak
season). As a result 418 valid questionnaires were obtained, representing a sampling error of 4.89% at a confidence level of 95.5%, taking the assumption that \( p = q = 0.5 \). The demographic profile of the sample was very similar to that of the population with regard to age, and quite good in level of studies and gender (Table 1). Given the small size of the island and the dispersion of the nightlife scene, residents are at a distance less than fifteen kilometres from any of the big clubs on the island.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Man</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>36.21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Woman</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>63.79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 25</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>14.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From 25 to 34</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>26.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from 35 to 44</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>25.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from 45 to 54</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>22.51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 or more</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>12.28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of studies</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary studies</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>22.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Studies</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>42.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University studies</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>35.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual household income</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 15.000 €</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>13.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From € 15,001 to € 30,000</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>42.74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From € 30,001 to € 45,000</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>27.35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From € 45,001 to € 60,000</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>10.54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From € 60,001 to € 75,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>More than € 75,000</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.85%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the items relating to nightclubs, we proceed to carry out a descriptive analysis and segmentation of the sample. The main part of the present analysis corresponds with the descriptive analysis. But attitudes of residents are heterogeneous and should not be analyzed as a 'homogeneous whole'. Several studies over the past few decades, have carried out segmentations of residents according to their attitudes towards tourism (Brida, Osti and Barquet, 2010; Davis, Allen and Cosenza, 1988; Fredline and Faulkner, 2000; Ryan and Montgomery, 1994; Weaver and Lawton, 2001; Williams and Lawson, 2001). Of the various existing segmentation methods, the most widely used is the cluster analysis (Brida, Osti and Barquet, 2010; Davis, Allen and Cosenza, 1988; Fredline and Faulkner, 2000; Ryan and
Montgomery, 1994; Weaver and Lawton, 2001; Williams and Lawson, 2001). In this particular case, it was decided to carry out a segmentation of the residents through a cluster analysis, followed by the calculation of the corresponding ANOVA table, cross tabulation of groups with other variables and discriminative analysis where appropriate. This allows the generation of segments and the definition of their most significant characteristics.

4. Results

Table 2 shows the averages and frequencies obtained for the various items.

It can be seen that the vast majority of residents (83.25% of responses) are in agreement that the large clubs are an essential part of the image of Ibiza. Those with greater economic dependence on tourism are more in agreement. Therefore, the importance of the clubbing sector in the image of Ibiza and the importance of Ibiza in the global clubbing sector are very evident and the residents are very aware of this.

But, just 47.85% of the sample likes the nightlife tourism on the island. Residents that like the nightlife are mostly men (55.63% like it and 25.16% do not) and people working with tourists (50.28% like it and 26.95% do not) or are economically dependent on tourism (the more susceptible their income to a tourism crisis, the more they like the nightlife).

Although the proportion of residents who recognize the importance of the sector in the image of the island is overwhelming, just 35.41% think the clubbing sector should be further encouraged.

The vast majority of sample (74.40%) considers that clubber tourism cannot be seen as quality tourism, understanding by quality tourism those tourists that do not cause conflicts and with a high daily expenditure at the destination.

The majority of sample (70.81%) considers that activities and special promotions of the clubs are aimed solely at tourists. And, again, an overwhelming majority (70.57%) think that the residents are not been taken into account by the industry when planning and managing Ibiza’s nightlife and clubs in particular.
Table 2: Frequency and average of the answers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Opinion not clear</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I like the offer of nightlife leisure on the island</td>
<td>31.82%</td>
<td>20.33%</td>
<td>47.85%</td>
<td>3.160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clubbers tourism (tourists who come for the discos) can be considered quality tourism</td>
<td>74.40%</td>
<td>11.00%</td>
<td>14.59%</td>
<td>2.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discos design leisure offers and special promotions only aimed at tourists</td>
<td>14.59%</td>
<td>14.59%</td>
<td>70.81%</td>
<td>3.763</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The major discos of the island (Pacha, Space, Amnesia, Privilege, etc.) are a very important component of the image of Ibiza</td>
<td>10.53%</td>
<td>6.22%</td>
<td>83.25%</td>
<td>4.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nightlife (bars and discos) tourism generates inconvenience from noise, dirt and jams at tolerable levels</td>
<td>14.35%</td>
<td>10.05%</td>
<td>75.60%</td>
<td>3.856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sector of discos, nightlife and electronic music should be encouraged with the purpose of consolidating Ibiza as a world reference</td>
<td>46.65%</td>
<td>17.94%</td>
<td>35.41%</td>
<td>2.806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexible opening hours of nightclubs should be allowed in order to ensure survival of a key sector in the tourism image of Ibiza</td>
<td>68.18%</td>
<td>11.72%</td>
<td>20.10%</td>
<td>2.299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resident population views are taken into account when managing the nightlife leisure offer</td>
<td>70.57%</td>
<td>12.44%</td>
<td>16.99%</td>
<td>2.203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The owners of large discos are an example of good business practices</td>
<td>51.67%</td>
<td>27.27%</td>
<td>21.05%</td>
<td>2.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The owners of large discos have little power when negotiating with the authorities</td>
<td>53.59%</td>
<td>33.25%</td>
<td>13.16%</td>
<td>2.421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The musical cluster Ibiza Music Cluster is well known by the population</td>
<td>45.45%</td>
<td>42.34%</td>
<td>12.20%</td>
<td>2.526</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most residents (53.59%) feel that the club’s owners/managers have too much bargaining power when dealing with the local authorities. A majority (51.67%) have a negative view towards their management practices. The strongest criticism comes from women, middle-aged people, those who do not feel from Ibiza and those who do not work with tourists or are not economically dependent on tourism. Only 21% of the sample feels that owners of the main clubs are an example of good business practice.

The vast majority of residents (75.60%) agree that tourism based on nightlife generates inconveniences but at tolerable
levels. The biggest complaint is noise, which makes it difficult for neighbors to rest on summer evenings. Probably because of the later, 68.18 % of respondents consider that flexible opening and closing times should not be allowed, even if it is argued that is the only means for keeping the sector afloat.

Finally, it is worth to mention that in 2011 the islands’ Administration, launched a project called *Ibiza Music Cluster* which consists in a technological grouping of public administrations, universities and businesses working together to make Ibiza the world’s leader in electronic music. The Ibiza Music Cluster is little known: only 12.2 % of the sample believes that it is really well known, 45.45 % consider that it is not very well known and the remaining 42.34% do not answer or do not know. The result is that 87.8 % of the population is either unaware or considers the cluster little known.

Overall, results show a high recognition by the host community of the importance of clubs and nightlife in the image of the island but residents would prefer to prioritize other tourism sectors. Just like the casinos, nightclubs are poorly assessed by residents because of the potential negative effects.

Although the descriptive analysis shows a very detailed image of the assessment of the residents on club tourism, it should be remembered that the population is not homogeneous and has different views. Therefore, it is of interest to perform a segmentation of the sample in order to identify and analyse this diversity, bearing in mind that segmentation is still somewhat of a generalization. This segmentation has been done through a cluster analysis applied to the 11 items relating to the nightlife scene. The cluster analysis method used was the Howard-Harris algorithm which is a downward and sequentially hierarchical technique. Three relevant groups were identified:

"Supporters" (27.3%). They are individuals with a more favourable view of the sector and consider its development acceptable. They like the nightlife on the island, do not see the clubbers as tourists of poor quality, and stress the importance of mega-clubs in the image of the island. They believe that the industry should be encouraged and are in favour of flexible opening hours in the clubs. They also feel that the residents are not excluded and are sympathetic towards the developers in the business, who they consider to have a bargaining power which is by no means excessive. This group is characterized
by an increased presence of men, people who work directly with tourists and whose income depends heavily on tourism.

"Opposers" (29.2%). These are the most strongly critical of the sector and consider its development unacceptable. They dislike the island's nightlife offer, see the clubbers as tourists of poor quality, consider that activities and special promotions of the clubs are aimed solely at tourists, and hardly stress the importance of the big clubs in the image of the island. They strongly object to flexible opening hours for clubs and feel that residents are excluded from the strategic planning of the industry. They are unsympathetic towards the developers in the industry. This group is characterized by a greater presence of women, people who do not work directly with tourists and whose income does not depend heavily on tourism.

"Mild Opposers" (43.5%). They have opinions which coincide with both groups, similar to the average of the sample. They like the nightlife on the island, but see the clubbers as poor quality tourists and feel that the sector should not be encouraged and are against flexible opening hours for the clubs. They feel that the views of the residents are excluded when decisions related to this leisure sector are implemented, have a rather negative view towards the club owners and think developers in the industry have sufficient leverage. They consider nightlife tourism acceptable but only by a small margin. This group has some demographic characteristics similar to the total sample.

Although this segmentation is only an initial assessment of the varied opinions among residents, it does present some interesting facts. There are two groups made up of nearly 30% of the sample, supporters and opposers. Opposers have very strong objections towards the sector, something which is compounded by the fact that the mild opposers are fairly critical and have a very narrow approval rate. The fact that over 70% of the residents are either strongly or moderately critical poses a problem for the future of the sector.

5. Conclusion

There are hundreds of articles analyzing negative impact related to clubs and nightlife. These studies show nightclubs as context for alcohol, drugs and tobacco, violence or high-risk sexual intercourse. There are also dozens of ethnographic studies that describe human behavior in a nightclub.
environment, some studies analyzing accidents in night clubs. But there are only a dozen studies that describe the nightlife supply of a destination, analyze the servicescape or study the history of this sector. To date, there have been no studies on the attitudes of residents towards this type of tourism offer. Ibiza is a world reference in the sector and an appropriate place to begin these studies.

Some results of the present study are in line with previous research findings: those with higher opposition are those who do not work in the tourism sector, with no economic dependence on tourism, those living closer to the clubs, those with high community attachment (born or long time living in the island, speaking Catalan, the original language of the island). In more favor, those working in the tourism sector (particularly trade union members).

This work shows that the negative impacts associated with nightclubs cause a low appraisal of the sector by the host community. Only casinos and gambling are comparable to the clubs as shown by other research.

Residents are clearly aware of the economic importance of nightclub tourism for Ibiza. But the views shown by the host community seems to indicate that a large part of the population would prefer another type of tourism to be predominant.

The negative appraisal of club tourism is reinforced by the results of the third part of the survey where we asked for the degree of acceptance of various forms of tourism. Results show that diverse types of tourism analyzed can be divided into three types: very positively valued by residents (rural tourism, nature tourism, nautical tourism, sports tourism, cultural tourism, sun and family beach tourism, etc.); positively (second homes and houses for rent) and a group negative or only marginally positive (golf, clubs and all inclusive).

Thus, in some way, it seems that the host community in Ibiza has developed some sort of social resilience defined as the ability of groups or communities to cope with external stresses and disturbances as a result of social, political and environmental change. The following sentence could summarize the host community feeling: ‘we do not like it very much but we will cope with this… if there is no other alternative’

But, in terms of managerial implications, the fact that over 70% of the residents are either strongly or moderately critical poses a problem for the future of the sector. The current ‘Ibiza’s tourism model’ depends heavily on clubber tourism and
to ensure its future it is necessary to take into account the attitudes of the host community. Without a majority support from the residents it will be increasingly difficult to sustain the development of this type of tourism.

Nightclubs imply many potential risks: drugs and alcohol abuse, violent behavior, risky sexual intercourse, health problems and labor risks (noise, smoke snuff, etc.). If we consider that the Social Exchange Theory considers that the overall assessment is a comparison between costs and benefits, the poor ratings for nightlife are logical given the perceived risks. If this sector is to remain at the global forefront and to continue to be a representative image of Ibiza, it is necessary to adopt measures to reduce these poor ratings among residents, as they are at the ‘reasonable limit’ and a further deterioration should be avoided.

Therefore, it seems that some adjustments should be implemented by the industry in order to reduce disturbances and improve residents’ appraisal and support to this type of tourism. 

In recent years, managers of the leading nightclubs have taken different actions to improve their image. However, residents perceptions of the industry seem not to improve significantly, except among the regular clients of nightlife, the group of supporters in this study. Therefore, it seems evident that Ibiza’s tourism policy makers should pay more attention to the resident’s opinion about this type of tourism in the island, not analyzed previously. During the last decade, they have been constantly claiming to be looking for a more sustainable tourism model. But when nearly half of residents think clubbing tourism should not be encouraged, it seems that their voices are not being heard. This fact breaks one of the basic rules of any sustainable tourism development: resident’s involvement in tourism planning.

The mere action of asking residents periodically about their opinions about tourism in general and the clubs in particular would probably improve their appraisal. But this should be complemented with the clubs actions towards residents (reducing nuisance and preferential treatment, mainly), accompanied by government actions aimed at raising awareness of residents about the importance of nightlife for the island’s economy and image.
6. References


EASING LIQUOR REGULATIONS IN THE BIBLE-BELT: THE EMERGENCE OF CRAFT BEER TOURISM

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George Mason University, USA

Craft beer is an emerging tourism attraction, although its arrival to the Bible-Belt of the Southern USA has been a long, slow process. The Commonwealth of Virginia has just changed their traditionally strict liquor laws to allow for on-farm production and sale of craft beers. As the state that spearheaded Prohibition in 1920, the passing of this bill has resulted in the opening of over 100 craft breweries in the past 3 years. While there are recent studies accessing visitor characteristics for craft beer, to date there has little research into brewers, their interest in tourism markets and the grassroots development of a craft beer trail. Using qualitative interviews of 17 craft breweries in Virginia, this study looks at the growing interest in a craft beer trail in Loudoun County and discusses the implication in an area where craft beef is a recent addition to the tourism offer.

1. Introduction

Food, culinary and agri-tourism have seen rapid growth in academic studies. Additionally, there is a growing interest in wine tourism and wine trails. However, the craft beer movement, in relation to tourism potential, is just beginning to be recognized (Murray and Kline, 2015). Beer tourism can be defined as “visitation to breweries, beer festivals and beer shows for which beer tasting and experiencing the attributes of a beer region are the prime motivating factors for visitors” (Plummer et al., 2005: 450). According the Brewers Association (2015), craft beer in America is defined as:
• Small - With an annual production of 6 million barrels of beer or less (approximately 3 percent of U.S. annual sales),
• Independent - Less than 25 percent of the craft brewery is owned or controlled (or equivalent economic interest) by a beverage alcohol industry member that is not itself a craft brewer.
• Traditional - A brewer that has a majority of its total beverage alcohol volume in beers whose flavor derives from traditional or innovative brewing ingredients and their fermentation.

In 2012, Virginia passed regulation that allowed breweries to “offer samples of the brewery’s products to individuals visiting the licensed premises” and where “the brewery is located on a farm in the Commonwealth on land zoned agricultural and owned or leased by such brewery or its owner” (Commonwealth of Virginia, 2012: 1). The change in brewery regulation has resulted in a tripling of craft beer facilities in the state, resulting in a $623 million economic impact for Virginia (Virginia Craft Brewers Guild, 2015). Using qualitative interviews with craft brewers, this paper looks at the challenges, constraints, and opportunities facing new agricultural craft beer producers in Loudoun County, Virginia. In particular, craft breweries face a competitive market with little collaboration outside of yearly beer festivals. Craft beers are playing catch up behind the established wine tourism industry and, while brewers believe tourism is the cornerstone of growth and success, many breweries lack information on accessing the tourism market.

2. Alcohol Policy in Virginia

The term "Bible-Belt" has been applied historically to the Southern parts of the United States stretching from Texas in the west to the Atlantic coast in the east. It begins just north of the Florida border (although some consider Florida a part of the Bible-Belt) and encompasses Virginia, Kentucky, parts of southern Ohio and Missouri in the north (see Figure 1). Zelinsky (1961) defined the Bible-Belt region as an area where Protestant denominations, especially Southern Baptists, Methodists, and evangelicals, are the predominant religious
affiliation. Today, the Bible-Belt is traditionally associated with the Baptist religion, which gained popularity in the 19th century.

**Figure 1: The US Bible-Belt**

The Commonwealth of Virginia has a long history with alcohol. In an era when water could not be trusted, English settlers were exploring new wine producing regions as a means to reduce their dependence on French imports. Jamestown, the first colonial settlement established in 1607 in what would become the United States, began to explore the possibilities of wine production as the British crown required every male settler to plant a minimum of ten grape vines. According to Holloway (2002), “The Virginia Company colonists who sailed down the Thames for the Chesapeake in 1606 took along a taste for the grape . . . and for beer, for aquavitae, for Madeira, for porter, for Canary, for sack, for ale and for drink in most of its forms and flavors, fermented or distilled, in general and in particular” (p. 1). However, the European grape varietals struggled in the New World due to climate, soil, lack of equipment, and browsing deer, and tobacco became the staple crop of Virginia (Holloway, 2002). In 1773, Thomas Jefferson cultivated over 2,000 acres of grapes for wine production on his estate at Monticello, although he never produced a single bottle of wine from his crops. However, further investments in the early 1800s resulted in a prosperous wine industry for Virginia. By 1873, Virginia Norton wine was recognized as the “best red wine of all nations” at the Vienna World’s Fair (Holloway, 2002). Beer has been produced in Virginia since the early days of settlement, starting in 1587 when colonists made ale out of corn. A 1609 ‘Help Wanted’ advertisements appeared in
London asking experienced brewers to consider relocating to the Virginia Colony to assist local brew production (Hernandez, 2012). Gorman (2014) notes “The first evidence of a dedicated brewery near Richmond is that of the Westham Foundry. This brewery was likely destroyed when Benedict Arnold’s Redcoats sacked and burned Richmond (after drinking the Richmond taverns dry) in 1781” (p. 1). In 1754, George Washington developed his own private beer recipe (Hernandez, 2012). Virginia history is steeped in beer.

The alcohol heyday in Virginia was quickly disbanded with the rising temperance movement of the day. “Americans adopted prohibition in response to a strong religious lobby for whom all intoxicants were direct competitors for control over the minds of men” (Hall, 1989: 9). Virginia was the first state to embrace the anti-alcohol fervor through the passing the Mapp Act which closed all the saloons in Virginia in 1916. It allowed households to import alcohol from neighboring states until the passing of the Eighteenth Amendment by the US congress in 1919. Prohibition essentially destroyed the alcohol industry in Virginia, as wine and beer production did not return to Virginia until the 1970s. In 1933, Virginians voted to ratify the Twenty-first Amendment repealing prohibition and established the first state-run monopolies on liquor sales and production in America (Hanson, 1997). Until recently, all locally produced alcoholic beverages were sold to the state for distribution. Alcohol is still heavily controlled in Virginia, as it is currently a class-6 felony crime to produce moonshine (Graff, 2012). In 2009, the State Legislature passed the Virginia Farm Winery Act which allowed on-farm wineries to operate tasting rooms.

In the last three years, the craft beer scene has exploded in popularity in the Commonwealth of Virginia. This was enabled by a law passed by the General Assembly in 2012 that allowed breweries to sell their product for on-site consumption, like wineries, no longer limited to sampling or selling beer to go (Commonwealth of Virginia, 2015). Furthermore, a bill passed in early 2014 allows Virginia farmers to brew, grow and maintain residence on the same property, giving farmers the opportunity to grow grains and expand their beer selection. Today, nearly 100 breweries are open around the state (Commonwealth of Virginia, 2015) resulting in $623 million economic impact for Virginia (Virginia Craft Brewers Guild, 2015).
3. Craft Beer Tourism

The craft beer industry is currently undergoing extraordinary growth across America. In 2012, there were almost 2,400 craft breweries throughout the country (Godard, 2015). The retail sale of craft beer generates $14.3 billion in sales annually (Godard, 2015). California, Texas and New York generate the largest economic contribution from craft beer sales, and Oregon and Colorado generate the highest economic output per capita (Brewers Association, 2013). Virginia is a newcomer to this expanding industry.

Drink tourism provides an opportunity for regions to promote and capitalize on traditional beverage production and supports an opportunity to enhance tourist experiences (Hall and Sharples, 2003). Alternative forms of tourism can accommodate the changing supply needs and demands of the tourist and offer an experiential component to the tourist experience (Mason and Mahoney, 2011). One of the main alternative forms of tourism is alcohol trails, specifically wine trails. The wine trail is a dominant form of cultural and food tourism (Ilbery, and Kneafsey, 1998) and is well established throughout Virginia and in Loudoun County. However, craft beer as a form of tourism is under investigated in academic literature (Murray and Kline, 2015).

A beer trail is defined as a collaboration of breweries, located in close proximity (Plummer et al., 2005). Mason and Mahoney (2011) explain that problems that may arise when developing a beer tourism trail include an understanding of what kind of experience to create for the tourists. The producers of the trail have to create the experience and target their product to a relatively unstudied demographic to create a positive experience for their guest. Beer tours often feature a combination of well-established breweries, as well as promising new venues to create involvement for beer connoisseurs and novices alike. Tour companies may offer services, including self-guided tours, day trips, or bus tours. Private tours may be offered for special events such as birthdays, company outings, or bachelor and bachelorette parties. Tours may include visits to local breweries which may comprise of a tasting of select beers, brewery tours, and meal pairings.

In recent efforts to increase tourism to Virginia, the Governor’s Office, and the Virginia Tourism Corporation (VTC)
dedicated August as Virginia Craft Beer Month and revealed the new “Love on Tap” marketing campaign. Additionally, there are several trails already established in Virginia such as Nelson 151 Trail (Lovingston, Virginia), the Red, White and Brew Trail (Lovingston, Virginia), Brew Ridge Trail (Nellysford, Virginia) and Virginia’s Brew Ridge Beer Loop (Roanoke, Virginia). This research was designed to investigate the needs of Loudoun County breweries to determine if a craft beer trail was an appropriate tourism development strategy for the area.

4. Methodological Approach

While Loudoun County, a suburb of Washington DC, is known for its population density, rural areas in the western part of the county are continuing the agricultural traditions. Loudoun County has 142,452 acres of farm land with a market value of production totalling $33.8 million (Loudoun County, 2015). There are currently 1,427 farms in operation. Loudoun County already operates a wine trail that includes 40 vineyards and tasting rooms and is the leading Virginia producers of vinifera and New World grape wines (Loudoun County, 2015). With the recent changes in agricultural regulation, Loudoun County now houses 12 craft breweries. Strother and Allen (2006) stated that “over the past two decades, the Washington (DC) area has experienced the largest growth of any region, with its production level of grapes for wine nearly tripling. This suggests that drink tourism is a good model for Virginia, which hopes to double its market share by 2015” (Strother and Allen, 2006: 254).

Qualitative research allows for a deeper understanding of pervasive issues relating to community development, entrepreneurship, and relationships (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). Therefore, in order to understand the specific issues facing craft brewers, structured qualitative interviews were used. Breweries were selectively chosen from the Virginia Craft Brewers Guild website. In total, 11 breweries in Loudoun County and one brewery located in Arlington (another Washington DC suburb) participated. Additional interviews were conducted to assess potential issues from breweries located along an established craft brewery trail or that receive a large percentage of tourists in order to understand issues related to craft beer trails in more established areas. Therefore,
two interviews were conducted with breweries in Richmond, part of the Richmond Brewery Tours, and four breweries along the Brew Ridge Trail in Charlottesville. Table 1 shows the breakdown of the 17 interviews which were conducted by phone during the month of April, 2015.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brewery</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>County</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barnhouse Brewery</td>
<td>Leesburg, VA</td>
<td>Loudon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belly Love Brewing Company</td>
<td>Purcellville, VA</td>
<td>Loudon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beltway Brewing Co</td>
<td>Sterling, VA</td>
<td>Loudon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catocin Creek Distilling Company</td>
<td>Purcellville, VA</td>
<td>Loudon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corcoran Brewing Co</td>
<td>Purcellville, VA</td>
<td>Loudon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corcoran Brewing</td>
<td>Waterford, VA</td>
<td>Loudon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crooked Run Brewery</td>
<td>Leesburg, VA</td>
<td>Loudon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lost Rhino Brewing Co.</td>
<td>Ashburn, VA</td>
<td>Loudon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old 690 Brewing Co</td>
<td>Purcellville, VA</td>
<td>Loudon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old Ox Brewery</td>
<td>Ashburn, VA</td>
<td>Loudon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capitol City Brewing Co.</td>
<td>Arlington, VA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardywood Park Craft Brewery</td>
<td>Richmond, VA</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strangeways Brewing Co</td>
<td>Richmond, VA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Champion Brewing Co</td>
<td>Charlottesville, VA</td>
<td>Charlottesville</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C’Ville-ian Brewing Co.</td>
<td>Charlottesville, VA</td>
<td>Charlottesville</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Street Brewery</td>
<td>Charlottesville, VA</td>
<td>Charlottesville</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three Notch’d Brewing Co</td>
<td>Charlottesville, VA</td>
<td>Charlottesville</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Results

All the breweries interviewed had opened between 2012 and 2015. Of the 17 breweries interviewed, the facility size ranged from 3,300 to 15,000 square feet, with an average facility size of 5,839 square feet. Brewery production for the 17 facilities varied greatly from 60 to 4,000 annual barrels, averaging 3,568 barrels. Because production drives how many employees are needed by each facility, the number of employees varied between 1 and 40. The average was 8 employees per facility. Almost all of the facilities (15) offered some activities for tourists such as a tastings, tours, and special events.

Most of the facilities agreed that tourism is a good development strategy for their business. One brewery noted “It doesn’t hurt to bring in more people; if we were involved with tourism it would benefit us, as well as the area. The area is expanding”. Another brewer commented “tourism is a good development strategy both for the business and community”. While almost of the breweries did offer a tasting room, few
hired a specialist or need additional resources to run it, making tourism an easy diversification strategy. However, the larger breweries, such as Blue Mountain and the Barrel House, use additional resources, such as hiring a Tasting Manager and on-site brewers, when running tours and tastings. A number of breweries received tourists by coach, putting pressure on limited staff during peak visitation times. Urban breweries offered a full-service restaurant menu and one brewery contracts a food truck during tourist visits. There was no general consensus on running tours, as only nine of the 17 breweries offered a tour.

Most of the breweries use grassroots marketing techniques, such as brochures, word of mouth and social media, to market towards a small group of people. Their main strategy is word-of-mouth advertising, hoping that their customers will bring in potential visitors. The idea of a large scale marketing strategy that had the larger reach necessary to draw tourists to the area was outside the scope of most breweries. Advertising dollars are limited. Only two breweries used radio advertisements and none mentioned television advertising. Four breweries received coach tours on a regular schedule.

Many of the breweries were collaborating with other organization to help promote their facility or the regional industry as a whole. Breweries in Charlottesville, where a beer trail currently exists, showed the highest rate of collaboration. In particular, the more established breweries appear to mentor younger breweries in some areas. One manager stated “we are always willing to help other breweries and feel that the rising tide of craft beer will raise all ships”. In Purcellville, four breweries currently help each other out by loaning equipment and talking about weekly sales. They also provide support for new start-up brewers in the area. One trail member, in particular, says that their relationships with the other breweries in the area are definitely advantageous. The manager adds, “Two breweries wash kegs, since other facilities do not have the equipment. Our goal is to produce great products all together”. However, most breweries stated that the beer industry remains very competitive and trade secrets are highly guarded. One Loudoun County manager stated “the working relationship is somewhat non-existent in our area”.
There appeared to be less interest in working with tourism organizations. One manager said he would like to investigate partnerships with hotel and bus tours, but “a lack of facility space is a main barrier to tourism partnerships”. Many of the Loudoun County breweries were already working with Visit Loudoun as well as Reston Limousines, a local tour company. However, many breweries thought it would be expensive to work with tourism organizations. In particular, they thought their advertising expenses would drastically increase.

The idea of a beer trail resulted in mixed opinions amongst the facilities. Although many of the breweries were intrigued by the idea, they were not interested in being the front-runners of the project. Only the four interviewees from Charlottesville were currently members of a beer trail. There was a lot of discussion on beer trail ideas that have yet to materialize. More importantly, breweries were concerned that the number of participating businesses in a beer trail could dilute the specialness of any single brewery as participants would be too drunk to remember the variety of beers they sampled. One manager estimated that “about 4-6 partners sounds about right (for a trail). Too many stops may make guests way too drunk”.

The idea of Loudon County implementing a beer trail raised excitement, but scepticism amongst the respondents. All of the facilities agreed that if implemented, they would need financial backing, promotional materials, and advertising support. One brewer stated, “one barrier is that other people are trying to develop trails, but they need to come together to become one official trail. Have one responsible person or party that is a part of the organization and marketing”. Not a single brewery manager was willing to take on the project and many suggested that the involvement of local governments would be necessary.

The idea of combining a beer trail with a wine trail was well received. One interviewee stated “There are no foreseeable barriers in developing a craft beer trail especially farm breweries; wineries have already set a precedent. Breweries wouldn’t need to do anything to participate”. In other words, breweries see joining the existing wine trails as the easiest and least costly avenue to develop a beer trail. Some breweries believed that the craft beer customer was the same as the winery customer; however others thought the clientele held distinctly different characteristics. Unfortunately, this study did
not involve wineries to assess if they would be interested in including craft breweries in their trails.

Respondents were asked if they would be willing to contribute towards a joint marketing campaign. Advertising is a key constraint along with leadership to spear head a craft beer trail project. Therefore, having someone take the lead was appealing to the interviewees. Another issue that became prevalent in the interviews was the sense of competition in the craft beer industry. One interviewee commented that “typically the campaigns are geared around tours that the company organizing makes a profit, not us”. Breweries were not willing to make a financial investment towards a joint marketing campaign that involved partnering with tourism organizations until they could be assured a good return of their marketing investment.

6. Conclusion

Since Virginia is very new to the craft beer industry, this study provides insight into producer concerns relating to tourism trails, especially in an area known for stringent alcohol regulations. While Virginia is still in the heart of the Bible-Belt, and has a long tradition of alcohol production, the hiatus over the past 80 years has resulted in little experience in promoting beer trails to tourists. The results showed that marketing is a key concern for craft brewers. There is no general consensus if craft beer trails are similar to wine trails or if new market data is needed. While many breweries are interested in exploring partnerships, collaborating with tourism organizations was not well received. In particular, brewers feel that the tourism agencies will require high advertising payments but will keep the potential profits to themselves. Instead, the idea of merging with the existing wine trails was more promising, although this study did not access the wine industries interests in a partnership. While breweries located on existing trails appear to have formed unique working relationships, the craft beer industry is still very competitive, with craft secrets closely guarded. This characteristic has translated into a lack of trust between industries. There was also a lack of clear leadership, which derives from the lack of experience craft brewers possess with this emerging market. It appears that an outside organization, such as a government agency, may be required
to push this development plan. While the tourism destination marketing organization appears well placed, due to the success of their wine trails, trust will be the barrier to overcome.

7. References


THE EFFECT OF EMPLOYEE EDUCATION- TRAINING ON HRM PERFORMANCE IN THE HOTELS OF ATTICA

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University of the Aegean, Greece

The present paper aims to contribute to the international literature and research on the effect of education and training on HRM performance by investigating the case of the hotels of Attica. The main research hypothesis is that “education and training policies have a positive impact on HRM performance”. To achieve the aforementioned aim and test the hypothesis, a primary research was conducted using a structured questionnaire, which was distributed to and completed by HR managers of five, four and three star hotels in Attica (and Athens) during January and February 2015. According to the research results, effective and integrated HR education and training policies can make the difference in HRM and hotel performance. The HRM performance is particularly connected with training objectives.

1. Introduction

The hospitality industry is currently operating in a highly globalized and competitive environment, with a constant effort on the part of tour operators to expand their domination and increase their control (Koutoulas and Stavrinoudis, 2006). Human Resources (HR) and its characteristics are key elements of service quality, productivity, customer satisfaction, loyalty and the success of the hotel (Nickson et al., 2002; Stavrinoudis and Floras, 2012). HR is considered as the businesses backbone...
capital and their skills can affect all the operations and results of a hotel (Baum, 2007). In recent years, research is increasingly focusing on the effect of Human Resources Management (HRM) on important management issues, such as HR performance (Ahmad et al., 2010; Alleyne et al., 2006), organizational performance (Tavitiyaman et al., 2012), job satisfaction (Fisher et al., 2010) etc. Hotels must develop the characteristics of HR in order to ensure their long-term development and expansion in the market (Kyriakidou and Maroudas, 2010) and their qualitative improvement (Stavrinoudis and El Chanoun, 2013).

In this context, the role of education and training of HR is particularly important because it can influence many performance parameters of both the enterprise and HRM. Despite its importance however, a lack of a concrete goal has been observed regarding the direction in which HR education aims to move, especially in developing countries. At the same time, there is a lack of corporate commitment towards the creation and consolidation of long-term investment in tourism education and training (Mayaka and Akama, 2007). This lack is intense in the Greek hotel industry and it was the main reason for conducting this research, as it is clear that there is a need for additional data to confirm the connection of HR education-training with the performance of HRM and hotels.

The aim of this paper is to investigate the effect of education and training on HRM performance by studying the case of hotels in Attica. The main research hypothesis is that "education and training policies have a positive impact on HRM performance". The impact of three variables (training needs analysis, training evaluation and training objectives) on HRM performance was statistically investigated.

2. Literature Review

2.1 HR education and training

One of the main responsibilities of an HRM department is to create the conditions and prerequisites for a coherent and comprehensive framework of sustainable development and improvement of HR, through the adoption of a corporate culture that focuses on lifelong employees
training. This can be done by providing a tailored environment, where employees are encouraged to learn and develop, not only on an individual but also on a corporate level (Armstrong, 2006; Stavrinoudis and Livadioti, 2011). The application of HRM practices, which are characterized by "great commitment", "high participation" and "high performance", such as education-training, has been proven to have a significant and positive impact on organizational performance and HR performance (Ramsay et al., 2000).

HR training must guide employee skills (input) towards predefined behavior (distribution), which in turn leads to performance results (outputs). The objective of these procedures should be to strengthen the organizational outcomes of education in order to enhance the knowledge, skills and competence of the staff which are required for the adoption of appropriate behavior that will affect the overall performance of the organization (Chalofsky, 2008).

In many small and medium-sized hotels, several HRM practices (including training) are conducted in an informal and unplanned manner in order to achieve short-term results (Kotey and Sheridan, 2004). The education-training of HR should be continued for as long as an employee remains in the business, especially when this employee advances in the hierarchy. The HRM practices should be complementary and interrelated, in order to develop the HR unique skills that will assist and improve the organizational efficiency of the enterprise (Vlachos, 2008).

2.2 HR education and training, importance and advantages

The necessity for education-training largely results from the weaknesses of hotel executives. These weaknesses usually result from the absence of incentives and opportunities for development, lack of devotion to the hotel objectives, and particularly the lack of adequate training (Meliou and Maroudas, 2011). Meanwhile, the international hotel industry is characterized by high employee turnover, low wages and a high percentage of jobs requiring skilled employees (Marco-Lajara and Ubeda-Garcia, 2013). This requires hotels to continually spend money on increasing their employees' knowledge-skills (Guthrie et al., 2002). Especially in the case of four and five star hotels, HR training plays an important role in adjusting staff knowledge.
and skills to the quality requirements of the product offered (Ramos et al., 2004). Training covers performance issues, employee behavior towards customers and familiarizing employees with the culture and values of the company (Wilkins et al., 2007).

Enterprises which support staff training programs are more productive and competitive, as education-training helps to improve HRM performance. Employees appreciate the efforts of the business to enhance their knowledge and skills and they are encouraged to go beyond the limits of their position and role, thus ensuring positive results for the company (Elmadag et al., 2008).

2.3 Managing education

Managing the education is of particular importance. In order for a hotel to organize and effectively manage a program of HR training, it must analytically determine the training needs of staff in accordance with the business mission and the characteristics of its employees. Once this has been done, the individual educational goals, the participants’ profile, the educational content of the program and the training methods should be established (Maroudas et al., 2013; Papakonstantinou and Anastasiou, 2013). It is also necessary that this process takes account of the particular training needs of vulnerable groups of employees, such as single parents, women with children, foreign workers, etc. and that the training program be adapted to ensure active participation of these specific groups (Callahan and Kiker, 2003).

International experience shows that the heads of departments and line managers are usually responsible for identifying training needs through performance testing of staff. However, these needs can also be identified through the training gap that exists between the current performance of a hotel and the desire level of performance (Armstrong, 2006). The educational needs of HR can be divided into the following levels:

- Training aimed at increasing the productivity of HR and the hotel.
- Training to perform specific tasks.
• Performance training to improve the HRM performance.
• Training for the achievement of corporate strategic objectives (strategic training). (Papakonstantinou and Anastasiou, 2013).

2.4 Research hypothesis
At a time of intense international competition, the training of HR and the development of their skills are essential requirements for a hotel's survival, growth and competitiveness (Salas and Cannon-Bowers, 2001). Through their participation in training programs, employees can develop their skills, introduce new ideas and evolve by improving their performance. At the same time, an efficient organizational culture and effective teams are established within the company, improving the quality of services and thus the overall performance of the enterprise and HRM (Daniels, 2003).

In order to confirm that education and training helps the hotel to remain competitive, we must first check if the training policy is linked to the hotel performance and HRM performance. Since the mid-1990s, several specialized researches confirmed this relationship. Huselid (1995) stated that training is related to the overall performance of the enterprise and HRM in many ways, as training programs enhance the workers' skills, which in turn, increases their productivity and reduces their dissatisfaction. In this paper we examined and tested the following hypothesis: "Education and training policies have a positive impact on HRM performance".

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Sample design and data collection
We selected the region of Attica to conduct our research, since it is a particularly dynamic tourist destination which, despite the decline in arrivals due to the economic crisis, managed to strengthen its position in the last two years (2013 and 2014). At the same time, a large percentage of high class hotels are situated in Attica, some of which are members of international and Greek hotel chains.
The research focused on five, four and three-star hotels. Accommodations which fell under the category of two and one star were excluded, because they are either small family units, or they do not have the necessary administrative organization. Furthermore, they lack an HRM department and usually they do not have an organized HR and training policy. All the hotels situated on the islands were also excluded from the survey, as they were not operating during the period of research (January-February 2015), as were units like youth hostels, motels, furnished apartments and hotels under single management. The final research sample reached the one hundred and seventeen hotels. Questionnaires were sent to all these hotels in order to be filled in either by HR manager, or the executive who deals with HR issues. We received 104 adequately completed questionnaires, a very satisfactory percentage (88.9%).

3.2 Data analysis
The data was processed using the statistical package SPSS Version 20, while the "Multiple Regression" method was adapted.

3.3 Questionnaire design
The questionnaire design was partly based on earlier research of Ubeda-Garcia et al. (2013), which was held in Valencia Autonomous Region of Spain. The questionnaire was divided into three sections, the first of which incorporated questions concerning the hotel's profile. The second section investigated the hotel strategy and in the third section the HR training policy was investigated. The majority of the questions were closed Likert scale questions.

4. Analysis of Results

4.1 Hypothesis testing
Initially, we tested the hypothesis that there is a positive relation between education-training policies and HRM performance. We attempted to present the relationship between HRM performance (dependent variable) and: training objective, training evaluation and training needs
analysis (independent variables). The multiple regression analysis (Enter method) tests the predictability of HRM performance on the objective, the evaluation and the training needs analysis.

Table 1: Regression model summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>107.200</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>35.733</td>
<td>58.872</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>44.309</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>.607</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>151.508</td>
<td>76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was found that the slope of the regression line is significantly different from zero, \( F = 58.87, p < 0.001 \). The multiple correlation coefficients “R” is equal to 0.84 and the adjusted coefficient of determination \( R^2 \) is equal to 0.71. Therefore, 71% of the variance of the number of HRM performance can be explained by the influence of the independent variables. The hypothesis "education and training policies have a positive impact on HRM performance" confirmed as the variables show a significant positive result (\( R^2 = 0.71, p <= 0.01 \)). An overview of regression coefficients, showed that the training objectives is the independent variable that contributes significantly to predicting the dependent variable (\( b = 0.59, t = 5.52, p < 0.001 \)). Therefore, the larger and clearer the training objectives are, the higher the HRM performance.

Table 2: Structural model of education-training policies and HRM performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>.396</td>
<td>.531</td>
<td>.747</td>
<td>.458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Objective</td>
<td>.615</td>
<td>.111</td>
<td>.592</td>
<td>5.526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Evaluation</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>.089</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>1.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Needs Analysis</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>.115</td>
<td>.176</td>
<td>1.688</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Training objectives focus on the following:

1. increasing the participation of employees in business events
2. increasing employee job satisfaction
3. increasing awareness of HR on issues related to the business culture
4. disseminating new knowledge acquired within the company
5. developing of the multifaceted nature of the company.

Incitement to achieve all the above consequently has a great impact on improving HRM performance.

Similar results were found in the research of Katou and Budhwar (2007) which confirmed the relation between the HR training policy and business performance. This research also proves that relation in the hotels of Attica. Employees can acquire more knowledge and specialized skills through a comprehensive education-training policy. This positively affects the HRM performance and the business performance, especially in times of economic instability. Since HRM performance is significantly influenced by the objectives of education and training, integrated planning of educational programs that will include, among other points, adapting HR to future changes and developing multi-skilled employees is needed.

4.2 Analysis of the effect of education-training on HRM performance

From the current analysis, it has become clear that effective HR training can significantly enhance the competitive position of the enterprise and substantially improve its performance. The following table presents key dependent variables related to the performance of the hotels in Attica and influenced positively by education-training.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3: Positive effects of HR education-training in hotel performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing productivity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reducing non-productive periods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strengthening the competitive position of the hotel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing profit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of the survey's respondents recognize the multiple and significant effects of education-training in the hotel performance. They believe that the biggest advantage for hotels is to strengthen their competitive position and
secondarily to increase their profitability. Attica’s hotels face strong price competition. The price differences are related both to the location of the hotel and to the services offered. Therefore, an effective HR training can be a strategic move towards diversification of the hotel and the enhancement of its competitiveness.

To a lesser extent, HR training enhances business productivity and enables the reduction of non-productive periods, which is extremely important for hotels. Managers and executives who participated in this research believe that while education plays an important role in these matters, maybe it is not enough in itself to improve them, but should be combined with other hotel actions. HR training cannot by itself reduce or eliminate non-productive periods. It should be combined with marketing and strategic planning, to increase the length of the working season for hotels. In this case there is a need for fruitful cooperation between different hotel departments, which will bring positive results not only to the employees but also to the entire organization.

Table 4: Positive effects of education-training on HRM performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increases staff motivation for development within the hotel</td>
<td>7.1039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduces labor absenteeism</td>
<td>6.0260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increases the ability of employees to face possible changes in the future</td>
<td>7.6623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improves the working environment</td>
<td>7.3636</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents believe that HR training decisively influences employees' ability to be prepared and face changes in their business environment, while enhancing their working environment. At the same time, providing education and training to employees is a key motivational factor, which has a significant effect on employee expectations for growth and development within the company. In contrast, training seems to have a much smaller effect on reducing labor absenteeism.

5. Discussion and Conclusions

Processing the results of this research allows us to draw useful conclusions. The most important among these is the
positive and close relation between education-training policy and HRM performance and consequently business performance. This fact confirms the view of Mullins (2007) that an organization must respond to the need for education, as it is an essential investment for the future. The more well organized and effective the training of HR is, the greater the increase in the overall performance of the hotel.

Training should not be an end in itself, but should rather be subject to specific and clearly defined training objectives, covering any needs and shortcomings related to HR. Only then employees are able to cope with future changes, which in the case of hotels are numerous and immediate, due to the rapid development of the sector. Training enhances the knowledge and skills of the staff and prepares HR for future changes that will occur in the internal and external environment of the hotel. Research on Attica hotels confirms the view of Lopez-Cabrales et al. (2006) and Preissl (2000).

Attica offers a wide range of hotels, which puts customers in the advantageous position of having the power to choose accommodation establishments which stand out from the rest and satisfy their needs. The international standards of quality in four or five-star hotels have risen, with tourists now requiring the best service at the most favorable price, thus increasing competition between hotels. HR training can create unique competitive advantages for hotels, strengthen their competitive position and thus increase their profits. The hotel acquires a competitive advantage over its competitors, which is not easily measurable and cannot be imitated in the short term. Through training, employees improve their skills, and in many cases they develop new ones. The results of this research also agree with the conclusion of Guthrie et al. (2002) that the multiple skills of employees can serve as a competitive advantage and enable tourism enterprises to differentiate themselves significantly from the others.

HR training increases the economic performance of hotels and revenues in the longer term. However, significant wage cuts in the Greek hotel industry, because of the financial crisis, have weakened employees' interest in increasing their performance and having greater
participation in the production process. This is one of the main reasons for absenteeism from the workplace. This trend can be reversed through a fairer payment policy, enhancement of labor rights, while training can also play an additional and complementary role.

However, training should not be an isolated process of HRM and should not be applied in a haphazard way under any circumstances. The planning, organization and implementation of education-training policies is a demanding and complex process. It must take under consideration the educational needs arising from the overall strategy and future plans of the hotel, but also the expectations of staff for growth and development within the company, so that is can serve as a motivational factor, among other things.

The education-training policies must be linked to the real needs of each employee in every department of the hotel, serving a range of cognitive and organizational business goals. Each department and each job requires specialized training methods, in order to strengthen and improve the trainee. The knowledge and skills gained from the training programs should be implemented and used in the work performance in the future. The choice of an appropriate training program, its progress and the degree to which the employees respond to it, are all of particular importance.

6. References


This study explores the interrelationships between tourism dependence, government management of tourism, perceived tourism benefits and perceived tourism costs, and support for sustainable tourism development (STD). A quantitative research design was adopted. The data collection was performed through a personal survey conducted to 300 residents of a small historic town within the Douro World Heritage Site (Lamego town). The results suggest that government management of tourism has a positive and significant impact on perceived tourism benefits and costs. The effect of government management of tourism in fostering residents support for STD was also empirically supported. Additionally, the effect of perceived tourism benefits on residents support
for STD was also supported empirically. However, economic dependence on tourism does not have a significant effect either on perceived benefits, on perceived costs or on the residents support for STD. Also, perceived negative impacts are not a predictor to measure support for STD.

1. Introduction

Tourism is an activity of strategic importance in most countries in their economic, social and environmental aspects. We have been witnessing to a growing interest in sustainable tourism development (STD), either by public and private bodies. To develop tourism in a sustainable manner it is vital the participation of relevant stakeholders as well as strong political leadership. It is an ongoing process that requires constant monitoring of impacts, so it is crucial the existence of an adequate planning process and adjusted to local conditions and an effective and continuous management of tourism activities.

There is increasing interest in literature on the residents support for STD (Ko and Stewart, 2002) and its antecedents. Understanding the antecedents of residents support for STD is crucial both for local government and policy makers and tourism businesses. The success of any effort of sustainable development depends on an active support from local communities (Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004). However, to the best of our knowledge, there are few studies that analyse the residents support for STD in historic towns, especially in relation with economic dependence, management government of tourism and perceived tourism impacts.

The main aim of this study is to gain an insight into residents’ perceptions about economic dependence, government management of tourism and perceive tourism impacts and the role it has in supporting STD.

In the remaining parts of this paper, the conceptual framework and research hypotheses are reviewed. The methodology is then explained and the results are explored. Finally, some conclusions are presented.
2. Theoretical Overview and Proposed Hypotheses

Over the past several decades, interest in tourism as a tool for regional economic development has grown dramatically. Community leaders and economic development specialists have increasingly treated tourism as an important industry that can enhance local employment opportunities, tax revenues, and economic diversity (Kim, Uysal, and Sirgy, 2013).

Several studies related the positive and negative effects of tourism on economic well-being of tourism communities (e.g., Allen et al., 1994; Liu, Sheldon, and Var, 1987; Perdue, Long, and Allen, 1987; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Um and Crompton, 1987).

Economic impacts include positive elements such as tax revenue, increased jobs and additional income, as well as negative elements such as tax burdens, inflation and local government debt (Chen and Chen, 2010).

Economic dependency is defined as residents’ and/or their family household income is dependent on tourism-related business (Perdue, Long, and Allen, 1990). Few studies were examined the influences of community tourism development level and tourism industry dependency on tourism impact perception (Gursoy, Jurowski, and Uysal, 2002).

Some studies have found a positive and significant effect on resident attitudes, where those standing to gain more financially from tourism tend to have more positive attitudes towards tourism (Harril, 2004; Ko and Stewart 2002; McDowall and Choi, 2010; Perdue, Long, and Allen, 1990).

Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: There is an effect between economic dependence and the perceived positive tourism impacts.
H2: There is an effect between economic dependence and the perceived negative tourism impacts.
H3: There is an effect between economic dependence and the residents support for STD.

The government management of tourism has a key role in the building of a sustainable model for the destination (Gorica, Kripa, and Zenelaj, 2012). Assante, Wen, and Lottig (2012), tested and confirmed empirically the positive relationship
between public management of tourism and the perception about the environmental impacts of tourism and concluded that residents tend to be more receptive to tourism impacts when they feel that the government makes effective management.

On the other hand, we can expect the existence of a relationship between the government management of tourism and the residents support for STD. Assante, Wen, and Lottig (2012) argue that government management and stakeholders’ cooperation are needed to achieve consensus on how to manage future tourism developments. The authors conclude that if residents perceive that there is effective management in control of tourism, on the part of public administration agents tend to have positive feelings about the STD. Having regard to the above, we established the following hypotheses:

H4: There is an effect between the effective government management of tourism and the perceived positive tourism impacts.
H5: There is an effect between the effective government management of tourism and the perceived negative tourism impacts
H6: There is an effect between the effective government management of tourism and the residents support for STD.

Over the past two decades several authors have conducted studies on the relationship that can be established between the perception on the part of residents, the tourism impacts and their support for the development of tourism (Gursoy, Jurowski, and Uysal, 2002; Gursoy and Rutherford, 2004; Ko and Stewart, 2002; Nicholas, Thapa, and Ko, 2009; Sharma and Dyer, 2009). These studies, based on the social exchange model, suggest that residents with a perceived positive impact (benefits, for example) are more likely to support the development of tourism. In this context, we established the following hypotheses:

H7: There is an effect between the perceived positive tourism impacts and the residents support for STD.
H8: There is an effect between the perceived negative tourism impacts and the residents support for STD.

Figure 1 shows the theoretical framework of this study and the hypotheses proposed.
3. Methodological Approach

This study was conducted in a small historic town in northern Portugal (Lamego) within the Douro World Heritage Site. It is one of the most ancient towns in Portugal with different heritage that represents several historic stages. Considering the life cycle of the destination proposed by Butler (1980), this town is at its development stage, where the negative impacts of tourism are almost unnoticed by all those involved.

![Figure 1: Proposed model](https://via.placeholder.com/150)

This study adopted a quantitative approach, in the form of a survey questionnaire administered to a sample of residents of the historic town of Lamego. Face-to-face survey administration was limited to a convenience sample distributed and collected at resident’s homes. A total of 300 completed questionnaires were collected.

In the questionnaire, we have analysed the perceptions of the local population in regard to: economic dependence, management government of tourism, perceived tourism impacts and support for STD. Scales that were used previously in tourism impact and STD studies were adopted to measure the constructs proposed in the study.

Economic dependence was operationalize through the scale developed by Chen and Chen (2010), with two items. We use the scale of Assante, Wen, and Lottig (2012) to measure government management of tourism, with three items. Perceive tourism impacts (positive and negative) were measure by Chen and Chen (2010) and the support for STD construct was operationalize by the scale developed by Lee.
(2013), which was based on the work of Nicholas, Thapa, and Ko (2009).

A 7-point Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree) was utilized in all of the variables except economic dependence (1= without relation; 7= totally related).

To test the hypothesized relationships between the constructs, we used the structural equation modeling technique. The descriptive analysis was performed using SPSS - version 22 for Windows, and the structural equation models using Amos - version 22 for Windows.

The socio-demographic characteristics of respondents are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female (51.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male (48.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (years)</td>
<td>Minimum = 18; Maximum = 81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean = 37.5; Standard Deviation = 14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place of birth</td>
<td>In the region (78.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other (21.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time in the community (years)</td>
<td>Minimum = 1; Maximum = 81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean = 28.8; Standard Deviation = 18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Middle school or less (26.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secondary school (41.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>University degree (32.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment status</td>
<td>Working people (63.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student (22.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unemployed (7.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Retired (6.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly income (Euros)</td>
<td>≤ 1500 (67.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1501 - 3000 (28.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 3000 (3.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Results

The quality of the instruments was assessed using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) through the estimation of a measurement model with the maximum likelihood method.

To assess the convergent validity we analysed the standardized factor loadings, the average variance extracted (AVE) and the construct reliability (CR) (Table 2). The standardized factor loadings were all statistically significant (p < 0.001) and ranged from 0.602 to 0.912, above the cutoff point of 0.50 suggested by Hair et al (2010). The AVE measures the
amount of variance explained by the construct and should be higher than 0.50. In this study, the AVE ranged from 0.510 and 0.812, above the cutoff point. The CR estimates, above 0.88, suggest high construct reliability, which indicates that internal consistency exists - meaning that all the measures consistently represent the same construct (Hair et al., 2010). These results constitute evidence of convergent validity of the constructs.

**Table 2: Standardized factor loadings, average variance extracted (AVE) and construct reliability (CR) of the measurement model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs and Items</th>
<th>Factor loadings</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>CR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceive Positive Tourism Impacts (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased job opportunities for your community</td>
<td>0.647</td>
<td>0.579</td>
<td>0.953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has created more tax revenue for the local government</td>
<td>0.650</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism is useful for promoting local products</td>
<td>0.602</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has raised the level of life for residents</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has given economic benefits to local people</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has given economic benefits to small businesses</td>
<td>0.787</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has encouraged residents’ participation in cultural activities</td>
<td>0.744</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has enriched local nightlife</td>
<td>0.671</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has led to a balanced local community development</td>
<td>0.833</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has led to more understanding of local heritage</td>
<td>0.808</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased local cultural identity</td>
<td>0.790</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has made intercity transport more accessible</td>
<td>0.744</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased infrastructure and facilities</td>
<td>0.813</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has raised more awareness of protection for heritage resources</td>
<td>0.850</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased local recreational facilities and resources</td>
<td>0.840</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Negative Tourism Impacts (1)</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.510</td>
<td>0.925</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has raised local product price</td>
<td>0.621</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism has increased the inequality of</td>
<td>0.616</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Dependence</td>
<td>0.812</td>
<td>0.896</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job is closely related to the tourism industry</td>
<td>0.912</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My household income is closely tied to the tourism industry</td>
<td>0.890</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Government Management of Tourism  
(1) | 0.741 | 0.895 |
| The local government does a good job balancing residents' and tourists' needs | 0.892 |
| The local government listens to residents about their concerns with tourism | 0.877 |
| The quality of public services has improved in Lamego due to tourism | 0.811 |
| Support for Sustainable Tourism Development  
(1) | 0.620 | 0.889 |
| I support the development of community-based sustainable tourism initiatives | 0.570 |
| I participate in sustainable tourism-related plans and development | 0.828 |
| I participate in cultural exchanges between local residents and visitors | 0.752 |
| I cooperate with tourism planning and development initiatives | 0.897 |
| I participate in the promotion of environmental education and conservation | 0.847 |

(1) Measured on a 7-point scale from 1 = “Strongly disagree” to 7 = “Strongly agree”;
(2) Measured on a 7-point scale from 1 = “Without relation” to 7 = “Totally related”.
The discriminant validity was verified by comparing the square root of the AVE values for any two constructs with the correlation estimate between these constructs. According to Hair et al. (2010), the square root of the AVE estimates should be higher than the correlation estimate. The values in Table 3 show that all the constructs met this criterion, providing evidence of discriminant validity.

Table 2: Correlations between the constructs and the square root of average variance extracted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
<th>5.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Perceived Positive Tourism Impacts</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Perceived Negative Tourism Impacts</td>
<td>0.248</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Economic Dependence</td>
<td>-0.040</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.901</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Government Management of Tourism</td>
<td>0.544</td>
<td>0.178</td>
<td>-0.130</td>
<td>0.861</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Support for STD</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>0.154</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
<td>0.338</td>
<td>0.787</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Diagonal values indicated the square root of average variance extracted of each construct.

Overall, these results showed that the measurement model had adequate psychometric requirements with convergent and discriminant validity.

The structural model was estimated to test the hypothesized relationships between the latent constructs. The chi-square test of the structural model ($\chi^2 = 1212.592; df = 579; p < 0.001$) was significant, but the chi-square/df ratio ($\chi^2/df = 2.094$) was lower than the threshold of 3 suggested by some authors (Hair et al., 2010; Kline 2005). The CFI of 0.930 and RMSEA of 0.060 were also lower than the recommended cutoff point. Given the sample size and the number of items, the model fit indices indicate an adequate goodness-of-fit (Hair et al., 2010). Despite the good fit, the structural model has only supported four of the eight proposed hypothesis (Figure 2).
5. Conclusion

This study was motivated by the need for research that can lead to a better understanding of the role of management government of tourism, economic dependence and tourism impacts in fostering residents support for STD in a historic town context.

The findings supported four of eight proposed hypotheses. Evidence was found to support the direct and positive relationship between the effective government management of tourism and perceived positive tourism impacts. Support was also found for the hypothesis that a direct positive relationship exists between the government management of tourism and perceived negative tourism impacts. Also, government management of tourism has a positive direct effect on support for STD. Economic dependence has not a significantly effect on perceived positive tourism impacts and the effect of economic dependence on perceived negative tourism impacts was not empirically supported. Lastly, perceived negative tourism impacts do not significantly contributes to residents support for STD.

This study offers additional research on the role of economic dependence, government management of tourism and perceived tourism impacts on resident support for STD, presenting interesting challenges for further research among practitioners and academics. This study may contribute to the literature on STD in small historic towns, since it emphasises this problem within an urban context by highlighting
sustainability issues related with the economy and social aspects rather than focusing only on environmental sustainability. Local authorities and tourism managers and planners should recognize the importance of analyzing residents’ perceptions in the decision-making and planning policy for tourism development.

To conclude, this research was subject to several limitations, such as: convenience sample, cross sectional nature of the study, the analysis of only one stakeholder group. Future research is required with the introduction of new variables related to STD, which would allow the improvement of the proposed model and enabling the discovery of new factors influencing the residents perceptions and attitudes.

6. References


IN INDIVIDUAL PERCEPTIONS OF THE VALUE OF LEISURE TIME: DEMOGRAPHICS, ATTITUDES, AND COUNTRY DEVELOPMENT LEVELS

CRAIG WEBSTER, CHIH-LUN YEN, SOTIRIS HJI-AVGOUSTIS AND KELSEY SHAPIRO
Ball State University, USA

In this work, the authors intend to show that the level of development of a country conditions individual perceptions of the value of leisure. The authors look into the cross-national variations of the perception of the value that individuals place on leisure, using a database with over 84,000 observations from the World Values Survey from 2010-2014. Using two common frameworks to explain culture change in societies, the authors postulate that those countries that are more “developed” will have individuals who tend to put substantial value upon their leisure. The dependent variable in the analysis is a four-point Likert scale measuring the importance an individual places upon leisure time, there are several key independent variables examined both at the individual- and country-level. The key country-level variables are indicators of development and several individual-level indicators are used, to ensure that individual-level explanations are taken into account. The authors show that leisure values are clearly influenced by the level of development of a country but are also influenced by some of the other key demographic and attitudinal variables investigated.
1. Introduction

Without leisure, there would be no opportunity for leisure travel/leisure tourism. In this piece, we delve into the data to see if there are indeed important or noteworthy variations in ways in which populations seem to value leisure in their lives, using data from the World Values Survey. The intention of the piece is to determine the extent to which country-level variables explain variations in how individuals seem to value leisure.

To begin with, we look into the relationship between leisure and tourism. While comparable statistics are sometime hard to come by, Table 1 below illustrates for using EU and OECD statistics the general relationship between per capital leisure hours a year and the percentage of an adult population taking part in tourism for personal purposes every year. A casual scanning of the data may not immediately suggest a strong relationship, although a Pearson correlation indicates $r=0.584$. Although there are only 18 data points, the correlation and the relationship of the correlation are suggestive that the quantity of leisure that populations have in a year leads to higher levels of participation in tourism for personal purposes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Annual Residual Leisure (in hours)</th>
<th>% population over 15 partaking in tourism for personal purposes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>7,435</td>
<td>83.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>7,393</td>
<td>83.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>7,301</td>
<td>72.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>7,299</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>7,282</td>
<td>77.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>7,243</td>
<td>88.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>7,230</td>
<td>65.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>7,224</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>7,219</td>
<td>84.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>7,217</td>
<td>70.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>7,170</td>
<td>75.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>7,159</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>7,142</td>
<td>83.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>7,085</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Rep.</td>
<td>7,006</td>
<td>73.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovak Rep.</td>
<td>6,985</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>6,977</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>6,872</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: OECD (2009), Eurostat (2015)
2. Theoretical Background and Previous Works on the Issue

There are different reasons for why there would be variations in how people in different countries value their leisure time. Here we explore two major frameworks that could be used to explain how societies develop and explain how there are differences in the values systems of people in different types of societies.

One of the most commonly used frameworks to explain why some countries develop and why countries do not develop is modernization theory. Modernization theory stems out of the work of Walter Rostow (1960), an influential writer and a Kennedy Administration member. In his seminal work on development, he suggests that societies go through a developmental process, in which societies begin as poor traditional societies. These traditional societies are introduced to new ideas that cause them to have the preconditions for an economic “take-off.” Once there is a full “take-off,” these societies experience a “drive to maturity,” a period in which the economy becomes integrated and mature. Finally, Rostow believes that countries reach the stage of “high mass consumption.” The societies which have reached “high mass consumption” are wealthy societies that have populations that are wealthy, democratic and have sophisticated welfare states. The societies, themselves, have social problems (such as suicide and alcoholism) but they have largely escaped the very desperate basic needs that traditional societies suffer from.

This framework is important and contentious. It is important because it is one of the leading ways in which social scientists understand the development process. As a tool for understanding policy, it is used as a framework for encouraging the “preconditions for take-off” in poorer countries. These preconditions may include laws encouraging private property rights, investment in infrastructure, or other preconditions, all of which are envisioned as ways that lead to economic development that should lead to wealthy countries with societies at the desired stage of “high mass consumption.” This approach is also contentious for several reasons. Firstly, it is an approach that is opposed by World System/Dependency theorists who see countries as linked within a global framework in which development is not necessarily a positive sum game.
Secondly, it contends that history is teleological and that all societies, more or less, are fated to go through such a developmental process, a process that the Western societies went through first.

A more recent theory pertaining to values systems in societies was developed more by Ron Inglehart (1990; 1997), one of the key people in the founding of the World Values Survey. In his approach, Inglehart gathered data from around the world and found that there are different clusters of values in different types of countries. What he found in his work is that societies go through a developmental process and that wealthier societies attain “post materialist” value systems, as opposed to other value systems that are premised upon economic scarcity. What he finds in his research is that there is the emergence in wealthy societies of value systems that emphasize autonomy and self-expression, rather than physical and economic security-related values.

As such a framework pertains to leisure and tourism, it would follow that those population that have passed through a process of economic development have changed their values systems and develop value systems that move away from stressing survival and move towards value systems that stress the autonomy and self-expression of the individual. Leisure and value upon leisure then would be expected to be associated with those economies that have successfully developed enough to enable their populations to be largely insulated from concerns about their physical and economic security.

Both of these approaches, the modernization approach and post-materialist approach, are frameworks that would predict that those populations in more developed countries would place greater value upon leisure either because they would have more leisure (from a modernization perspective) or have value systems that place their autonomy and self-expression in a central position in their value systems. While these frameworks are not mutually exclusive, they both supply frameworks that explain why it is that individuals in more developed countries are expected to place greater value upon leisure, as they presumably live in countries in which the lower rungs of Maslow’s hierarchy are fulfilled and secure. But now we turn to the literature to see what has been done previously to assess the variations in perceptions of the importance of leisure throughout the world.
There are many scholars who have dealt with explaining the variations in perceptions of leisure, either as the product of social and economic change within a society or in terms of explaining differences between societies. The evolution of perceptions of the importance of leisure and how people perceive leisure has remained and will likely remain of interest to scholars for some time to come. Some authors have taken the route of looking at the differences between countries and have looked at this from a theoretical perspective (Hollander 1966; Zowisło, 2010) while others have looked upon the development of the field of leisure and have reviewed how the field has perceived the issue of leisure motivation (Chick, 1998; Chen and Pang 2012).

As Asian economies and societies have gone through substantial development in recent years, there is an understandable amount of interest in how perceptions and practices have changed among Asian populations in recent years. There is a great deal written about leisure in China (see, for example, Chick et al., 2008; Yan, 2013; Xiao, H. 1997). But others write about Korea (Lee and Kim 2005) and Japan (Fuess, 2012; Mitani, 2012). Interest in Asian leisure values is so substantial in the academic literature that there is even concern about ethnic Chinese leisure in Canada (Walker, 2009). There are various other pieces that focus on international tourists and their leisure (Gursoy and Gavcar, 2003) or look into how religious/cultural differences impact upon leisure practices (see for example Engel-Yeger, 2012).

However, the most relevant and interesting questions regarding leisure deals with cross national differences and the generational/gender divides in terms of perceptions and practices of leisure. Craig and Mullan (2013) deal with issues of gender and leisure in five countries, while Gagliardi et al (2007) focus upon older peoples’ leisure activities in several countries. There are some other noteworthy pieces that look at how values change over generations and how this is reflected in relationships and attitudes toward leisure (Sicilia-Camacho et al., 2008; Tweng et al., 2010). However, there are two noteworthy pieces of research that take a multilevel approach towards the analysis of leisure (Wang and Wong, 2014; Verbakel, 2013). Verbakel’s (2013) research is most relevant, as it specifically looks into how the modernization process
seems to impact upon attitudes towards leisure, taking into account individual-level control values.

3. Methodological Approach

For this analysis, World Values Survey data were used. The World Values Survey is a global survey that is done in many countries in the world and is probably the most comprehensive global project on human values in the world. The data gathering for the project takes place in waves. For this project, the Wave 6 data were used, utilizing data from 2010-2014 and include data gathered from approximately 60 countries. As there are many countries in the analysis and many interviews in each country take place, there are a little over 85,072 interviews in the database for this wave.

The dependent variable for the analysis is the responses based upon the question “For each of the following, indicate how important it is in your life. Would you say it is…?” One of the issues asked about is “leisure time” with response categories that are in a Likert scale that measures the level of importance from “very important” to “not at all important.” So responses to the question range from "1" leisure time is “very important” to “4” leisure time is “not at all important.” The descriptive statistics of this variable are shown in Table Two below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very Important (1)</td>
<td>30987</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather Important (2)</td>
<td>35498</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not very important (3)</td>
<td>13956</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all important (4)</td>
<td>3689</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Valid</td>
<td>84130</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The independent variables for the analysis are of two types, the country-level ones and individual-level ones, a summary of all the independent variables considered for this analysis are shown in Table Three below. The central point of the analysis is to determine whether a country’s level of development is linked with perceptions of individuals on the value of leisure time. In order to measure the level of development, several independent variables are considered in the analysis. The most noteworthy are the four different categories of development, according to the World Bank’s
Human Development Index (very high, high, medium, and low). Other country-level and individual-level indicators were included in the analysis, many of which are demographic and attitudinal in nature.

Table 3: Independent Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Level of Measurement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Human Development Index</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Life Expectancy</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gross National Income</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employment to Population Ratio</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Standard of Living</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Education Quality</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall Life Satisfaction</td>
<td>Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Feeling of happiness</td>
<td>4-Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>State of Health</td>
<td>4-Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Life Satisfaction</td>
<td>10-Point Likert Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of Children</td>
<td>Interval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employment Status</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nature of tasks: manual vs.</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>intellectual</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social class</td>
<td>Ordinal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Income</td>
<td>5-Point Ordinal Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Interval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highest Education</td>
<td>Interval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ethnic Group</td>
<td>Nominal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Materialist/postmaterialist index</td>
<td>6-Point scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post-materialist index</td>
<td>3-Point scale</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Results

The analysis shows that when comparing country-level variables, there were statistically significant differences among groups as determined by one-way ANOVA. A Tukey post-hoc test revealed that countries with higher HDI index score have longer life expectancy, gross national income, standard of living, and overall life satisfaction. However, a higher HDI index score does not equate to higher employment to population and education quality. When comparing the perceived importance of leisure time in life, there were statistically significant differences among groups as determined by one-way ANOVA. A Tukey post-hoc test revealed that countries with individuals from countries with higher HDI index scores perceive leisure life as more important than individuals from countries with lower HDI index scores. A simple
regression with the HDI as an independent variable indicates that the level of development of a country is statistically linked with the perception of the importance of leisure, although this alone does not explain much of the variation (Adjusted R-Squared = .021).

A multiple regression model was run, taking country-level and some of the most successful individual-level indicators into account. Table Four below illustrates the outcome of the multi-level multiple regression with HDI as the country-level indicator and the most successful four individual-level variables from correlations. The findings illustrate that the model does not explain much of the variations in the dependent variable. However, what is noteworthy is that all of the independent variables are successful and are clearly statistically significant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4: Multi-Level Regression - Critical Independent Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized Beta</th>
<th>Unstandardized Std. Error</th>
<th>Standardized Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.377</td>
<td>.015</td>
<td></td>
<td>89.508</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HDI</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>36.698</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling of Happiness</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>24.873</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State of Health</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>18.988</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Level</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>16.484</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of children</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>13.102</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjusted R-Squared = .05

The findings indicate that high levels of development are, indeed, linked with high levels of importance that people place upon their leisure, even when multiple individual-level indicators are taken into account. In terms of the individual-level indicators, the most successful ones in terms of conditioning the dependent variable are how happy report that they feel, the subjective state of health of the respondent, the education of the respondent, and the number of children the respondents have. In terms of these findings, we see that those that report higher levels of happiness also report placing greater importance on their leisure, as do healthier and more educated respondents. What is interesting as well is that those with more children report placing less importance upon how they view the importance of their leisure time.
5. Conclusion

This study is interesting and echoes what has been found in other literature on the topic (Verbakel 2013), that populations in more developed countries are more likely to place value upon their leisure time. However, it seems that there are many other factors that play a role at the individual-level impacting upon how individuals place value upon their leisure. One interesting finding is that happier and healthier people are more likely to place importance upon their leisure. There is also a finding in terms of education that suggests that either the educational process plays a role in terms of increasing the way that people put value in their leisure, or is suggestive of a class bias in terms of the valuation of leisure. What is most interesting is the finding that having children seems to undermine the importance that people place in terms of their leisure. This is likely because parents begin to place their energies and attention upon the raising of their children rather than making their own hedonistic pursuits the central focus of their lives.

There are positive things to be said about this investigation. While many different plausible variables at the individual level were explored to determine whether they play a role in the conditioning of how people put value upon their leisure. What is a bit of a concern is that little of the variation is actually captured by the various variables used in the analysis, meaning that their seems to be a missing variable or missing variables that may explain more of the variation in terms of how they perceive the importance of their leisure. However, what is interesting and reassuring is that the findings echo the findings of the Verbakel (2013), although this analysis is much more global in scope and not just focused upon Europeans and their perceptions of the importance of leisure.

While this research is very global in terms of investigating the determinants of the causes of different perceptions of the importance of leisure, future research will need to look more into the political and physical circumstances of people around the world and how this conditions their perceptions on leisure. Future research should look into how welfare states condition populations’ value systems, as the most developed countries also have very different styles of welfare states (conservative, liberal democratic, and social democratic). It may be that a
social democratic welfare state may influence different perceptions on leisure and (more importantly) the right to leisure. There may be other political and cultural aspects to look into that may help explain some of the variations either between countries (political culture and cultural/civilizational characteristics) and within countries (political attitudes and importance placed upon traditional institutions such as the family and religion).

Mostly what has been learned is that wealthy countries have populations that seem to value their leisure more than poorer countries. Why this is especially interesting is that even when the age of respondents is taken into account, there seems to be no generational impact upon how people view the importance of their leisure. What is also interesting is that we see that adults with children place less value on their leisure, presumably because they live in service to their children, rather than pursuit their own pleasures in life. What stands out most, though, from the findings is that happy and healthy people in wealthy countries place value their leisure. This seems to echo with the work of Rostow (1960) and Inglehart (1990; 1997), suggesting that the well-being of populations that is fostered by a development process and a welfare state leads to societies which have value systems different from the value systems of those populations that live with a daily struggle for material basics and allow people to value time to “stop and smell the roses.”

6. References


WHAT MATTERS IN A HOTEL IN CENTRAL AUSTRALIA? CLUES FROM CUSTOMERS’ ONLINE REVIEWS

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The positive e-WOM associated with higher customer satisfaction will deliver positive images and potentially contribute to an increase in tourist numbers and consumption. Yet, little is known about the role and impacts of e-WOM in tourism development and hospitality management in regional areas where there is a big difference with urban areas. Focusing on direct assessment of online customers’ reviews, this study investigates customers’ satisfaction and the determining hotel attributes affecting the satisfaction in Central Australia, and discusses the implication of e-WOM on hotel management in relatively isolated regions. The research will help hotel managers to understand better customer’s preferences to different services, and therefore to inform hotels to improve their services and satisfy their customers.

1. Introduction

The tourism industry is primed to take advantage of social media outlets. The electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) has been broadly recognised to have the influence on many aspects of tourism development including destination management and tourist behavior. The positive e-WOM associated with higher customer satisfaction will deliver positive images and potentially contribute to an increase in tourist numbers and consumption. Yet, little is known about the role and impacts of eWOM in tourism development and
hospitality management in regional areas where there is a big difference with urban areas.

Although there has been an argument that online user-generated contents (UGC) are perceived as having lower credibility than traditional WOM due to the absence of source cues on the Internet, the influence of consumer reviews can never be neglected. Many consumers consult online reviews before making travel arrangements. Focusing on direct assessment of online customers’ reviews, this study investigates customers’ satisfaction and the determining hotel attributes affecting the satisfaction in Central Australia, the seasonal changes and variation in different types of customers, and discusses the implication of e-WOM on hotel management in relatively isolated regions.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Understanding the role of customer reviews

Social media plays an increasingly important role in many aspects of tourism, especially in information search and decision-making behaviours (Zeng and Gerritsen, 2014; Fotis, 2012) from the demand side, and also challenges existing customer service, marketing and promotional processes throughout the tourism sector from the supply side (Bradbury, 2011; Sigala, Christou and Gretzel, 2012). Although social media is not a panacea, it is an effective marketing channel able to be wisely used in integrated communications and marketing of tourism services (Sotiriadis and van Zyl, 2013).

Social media is important not only for consumers to acquire information but also for generating their own content to communicate with others. As one of most important eWOM, the UGC on social media platforms and product search engines is changing the way consumers shop for goods online. Simms (2012) found that a higher percentage of travellers turned to user-generated content when visiting a destination for the first time, as well as when visiting an international destination.

The importance of eWOM has been widely documented in the existing literature. The influence of eWOM is directly applicable to tourism and hospitality as online user-generated reviews are an important source of information to travelers (Pan, MacLaurin and Crotts, 2007). Xie, Miao, Kuo and Lee (2011) argue that electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) is
prevalent in today’s lodging market and has potential to influence consumers’ decision making. Litvin et al. (2008) point out that interpersonal influence and word-of-mouth (WOM) are ranked as the most important information source when a consumer is making a purchase decision. These influences are especially important in the hospitality and tourism industry, whose intangible products are difficult to evaluate prior to their consumption. Ye, Law and Gu (2009) in their study showed that positive online reviews can significantly increase the number of bookings in a hotel, and the variance or polarity of WOM for the reviews of a hotel had a negative impact on the amount of online sales. Öğüt and Taş (2012) suggested that a higher customer rating significantly increases the online sales of hotels. From the company perspective, the impacts of eWOM could be classified as opportunities, because if the companies analyze and manage these impacts properly, they can obtain competitive advantages in their business (Dickinger, 2011; Ye et al., 2009). Otherwise, the companies would be affected by the negative impact on consumers.

2.2 Customers’ satisfaction with hotel attributes

There have been many empirical studies on how hotel attributes contribute to customers’ satisfaction. Studies suggested the “convenience of the location” was the most important criterion, followed by “service quality”, “reputation”, “friendliness of staff”, “price”, “room cleanliness” (Dolnicar and Otter, 2003; O’Neill 2015). Different hotel attributes may contribute to customer satisfaction in different ways (Slevitch and Oh, 2010; Lu and Stepchenkova, 2012). The critical role of service efficiency as a dissatisfier has been discussed in the literature (e.g. Choi and Chu, 2001; Li, Ye, and Law, 2013). Zhou, Ye, Pearce and Wu (2014) suggested that the features of the hotel room itself rather than the supporting hotel facilities were important and poor facilities or inadequate comfort levels in the hotel room itself were specifically associated with lower levels of satisfaction.

3. Tourism Development in the Alice Springs Region

The research area of this study is the Alice Springs region including the Alice Springs Town and surrounds. Situated in
central Australia, Alice Springs is a small town at the middle of desert, with population of 27,000 (Figure 1). There have been a large number of tourists visiting Alice Springs region. Since 2002, the annual tourist number has been over 400,000. Recent statistics suggested the tourist numbers has dropped significantly (Tourism NT 2014; Carson et al. 2012). In 2012-2014, total visitors were annually 348,000 (303,000 of them were overnight visitors), including 227,000 domestic visitors and 121,000 international visitors.

Figure 1: Indicative map of location of Alice Spring

There is a range of accommodation options in Alice Springs, from camping or staying in a cabin to motel/hotel rooms to apartments with full kitchen. There are around 50 accommodation properties in Alice Springs and surrounding areas. According to Tourism NT (2015), in general, the occupancy rate of accommodation in Alice Springs is lower in summer (Dec-Feb) and higher in other seasons, which aligns with seasonal changes in tourist numbers.

4. Methodology

This study investigates 10 hotels in Alice Springs. At TripAdvisor, I searched “Alice Springs” for “Hotels”, then accessed to “Accommodation”. From 15 hotels/motels, I chose first 10 properties with more than 100 reviews for this study. I selected reviews made in last five years (i.e. between March 2010 and February 2015).
Key information was collated and rechecked, including reviewer level (such as “contributor” or “senior reviewer”), reviewed date, stayed time, helpful votes, reviews and hotel’s response. For review ratings, the overall rating was recorded in first stance, but the ratings on given hotel’s attributes (such as value, rooms, service…) had to be collected by revisiting the individual reviews. It was time consuming but this process ensured the accuracy of data.

All data were retrieved and input into excel datasheets. SPSS was used to test the differences of hotel attributes’ contribution to customers’ satisfaction. I used “stayed time” rather than “reviewed time” to define the time they stayed and commented, given customers reviewed hotels always days or even months after they stayed. Thus it makes more sense to link the reviews with their stay during the specific time.

5. Results

5.1 Differences in reviews and ratings

In the analysis, I use H-1, H-2, … H-10 representing the ten selected properties. The average customer’s rating was 3.73. Interestingly, the lowest rating was in summer (3.66), the highest was in winter (3.78). By customer type, the “Couples” customers rated the lowest which is 3.66, while the “Business” customers rated the highest (i.e. 3.82).

The results suggest that in summer (Dec-Feb) and autumn (Mar-May), customers seem to be less satisfactory, compared to the year average, as there are higher proportions of negative ratings. In summer, the positive ratings are at the lowest level—the lowest proportion (60.79%) of reviews is positive, while the negative ratings are at the highest level (i.e. 12.41%). Comparatively, winter (Jun-Aug) and spring (Sep-Nov) time seem to satisfy better the customers. In winter, 67.46% (the highest level in a year) of ratings are positive, while 9.77% (the lowest level in the year) of ratings are negative (Figure 2). Statistical analysis suggests that compared to in autumn, customers significantly more likely rate hotels “Very Good” in winter (sig=0.023, i.e. <0.05) and in spring (sig=0.037, i.e. <0.05). It is interesting to notice that the seasonal variation of satisfaction ratings aligns with the seasonal change in tourist numbers in the region which can reflect by hotel’s occupancy, that is: in the peak season (winter and spring when hotel
occupancy is higher), there are relatively higher customers’ satisfaction (positive rating) and relatively lower of dissatisfaction (negative rating), and in off season (summer and autumn when hotel occupancy is lower), there are relatively lower customers’ satisfaction (positive rating) and relatively higher dissatisfaction (negative rating).

**Figure 2: Seasonal differences in customers’ satisfaction**

![Seasonal differences in customers’ satisfaction](image)

Considering different customer categories, while “couples” travellers tend to rate hotels more conservatively, “business” travellers seem to more likely rate “very good” (44.5%). “Solo” travellers seldom rate “terrible” (only 1.53%), significantly lower than 5.59% of “families” travellers’ reviews rating their hotels as “terrible” (the highest percentage of reviews compared to other travellers) (sig=0.019, i.e. <0.05), they are most likely to rate their hotels “excellent” (28.82%) too (Figure 3).

**Figure 3: Ratings by different categories of customers-5 levels**

![Ratings by different categories of customers-5 levels](image)

If categorizing the ratings as positive (i.e. rating above average: “excellent” and “very good”), neutral (i.e. average) and negative (i.e. below average: “poor” and “terrible”), overall around 11% of reviews are negative, 65% are positive and the
rest 24% are neutral. "Families" travellers are most likely negative (12.90%) while "solo" travellers are least likely negative (7.67%). "Business" travellers are most likely positive (69.65%), compared to "couple" travellers who are least likely positive (61.81%).

5.2 Hotel attributes and customers' reviews

Taking one property as example, this study analyses the reviewers’ profiles, detailed comments on hotel attributes and hotel management’s responses to reviews. There were totally 539 reviews collected for this property.

Quality of rooms and facilities seem to be on the top of complaint list. Complaints about staff are unexpectedly listed among the top three (Table 1). One third of customers who rated hotels “terrible” were dissatisfied with hotel staff, in particular with front staff’s unprofessional and unhelpful attitudes. More than half of customers who rated hotels “poor” were complaining about the room and hotel facilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highlights of comments</th>
<th>Terrible</th>
<th>Poor</th>
<th>All Negative comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outdated/ Poor facilities/not well maintained/ No lift/ Internet/wifi problem</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unprofessional/unhelpful/cold/unfriendly/rude staff</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Room not clean/not good and/or unprofessional/improper room service/housekeeping</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overrated/overpriced -service is not as good as it should be-it can’t be &quot;resort&quot;</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad food/food services</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpleasant experience with some services</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All comment points</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall “value” and “service” are lowest scored (Table 2). Statistical analysis suggests that “value”, “services” and “rooms” are first three attributes contributing to the overall ratings, and location seems less weighted. However, for different overall ratings there have been differences in determining attributes, “cleanliness” and “rooms” have much
greater influences on positive reviews, and “value” contributes most to negative reviews, and “service” and “value” are determining attributes to people with average reviews.

Table 2: Average scores to nominated hotel attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall rating</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Rooms</th>
<th>Cleanliness</th>
<th>Service</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>4.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>2.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrible</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.3 Hotel management’s responses

Among all 539 reviews on the sampled property, there were 141 of them responded by the hotel management. The hotel management seemed to more likely respond to positive comments rather than negative comments. For the sampled hotel, overall response rate of customers’ comments from the hotel management was 26.16%. More than 28% of positive reviews were responded, while only less than 18% of negative reviews got feedback.

Although one third “terrible” comments were responded, only less than 10% “poor” comments received responses, compared to 32% of “excellent” and “27%” of “very good” comments were responded. Considering the responded time, it generally took around 10 days after reviewed when the hotel management attended and responded to reviews. However, the hotel management responded to negative comments much more quickly (only 1-4 days after reviews made), compared to 10-12 days for the positive comments.

5. Discussion

Room quality and service are mostly mind in customers’ negative comments, followed by staff’s professionalism and consistency. This suggests that customers mind not only hardware but also software of a hotel. Quality of service is strongly associated with staff’s professionalism and service consistency, which are criticized by most of negative comments. While in many cases the facility-related complaints might be less easily addressed, the staff associated services
could be uplifted with more kindness, helpfulness and professionalism. This would relieve customers anxiety, anger, annoy and grumpiness which might contribute to a negative reviews and less satisfaction.

There are differences among different group of customers in making positive or negative reviews. This does not suggest the hotel will pay more attention to which groups, but it does make sense for hotels to target the issues minded by all or most groups, for example more professional and helpful staff. Value is always on the top of the complaint list, not only because of the high price of accommodation in central Australia, but also because of under the expectation. This could be offset to some extent by improved staff’s services.

Seasonal variance in customer’s satisfaction aligns with local tourism seasonality. This probably raises an issue of off-peak season hospitality management. Fewer customers stay in the hotel, but it does challenge the staff’s professionalism and service consistency. If hotels pay less attention on customers or less concentrated, then they will more likely get higher rate of negative feedback. On the other hand, given the nature of extreme climate in central Australia, some adaptive/flexible services might be helpful, such as even a cup of cold water even just a kind greeting. This suggests that professional development targeting service professionalism and service consistency is necessary.

Hotel management’s response to online reviews seems to be asymmetrical in this case. The hotel failed in sufficiently and effectively responding to negative comments. Any negative phenomenon conveys a message that can cause other negative phenomena to spread. When corporations are ineffective or improper in reacting to negative phenomena, other consumers may rush to echo these sentiments, thereby causing the negative phenomena to spread (Wilson and Kelling, 1982). Hence, customer complaints and negative eWOMon a hotel can act as broken windows, which may become magnified or exaggerated. Although hotels cannot manipulate the occurrence of eWOM, they can respond to the questions and dissatisfaction of consumers in a timely manner, which could help to enhance the quality of online service recovery. A proper and timely response from the hotel management to online reviews is able to either enhance the positive image or to convert negative comments to positive
impressions and therefore contribute to the positive eWOM. A successful online review management approach would positively function as a supplementary tool of social media marketing.

As information resources and marketing tools are relatively limited in regional (remote) tourist destinations, it is even more important for social media and other IT application in tourism development and especially in tourism marketing. Meanwhile, given there exists spontaneously limitation and constraints or disadvantages in applying IT such as lack of funding and skilled personnel, it is obviously a dilemma in enhancing the e-marketing effects. However, how to more wisely use currently available resources to generate fully utility from the e-information such as online reviews is surely worthy of pursuing.

5.1 Possible future study directions

From hotel management perspective, it is helpful to better understand the comprehensive connection between guests’ satisfaction and their emotional responses, and behavioural intentions like their willingness to recommend the hotel, intention to repeat purchase and other desirable outcomes. A special focus on in-depth analysing online customer complaints and negative opinions would be helpful for hotel management to improve their services to improve the hotel e-reputation, particularly in terms of responding to service failure and recovery.

From a broad perspective of social media use in tourism, the obvious research gaps as identified by Zeng and Gerritsen (2014) in the current research literature, include: social media’s implication for and impacts on travel behaviours during the trip, the local community’s social and cultural aspects, and the different impacts of social media between social media users and non-users. Therefore, while comparative case studies are needed, it is critical to encourage comprehensive investigation into the influence and impact of social media on all aspects of the tourism industry, and to demonstrate the economic contribution of social media to the industry. Future research will have to provide solid evidence to demonstrate the impacts of social media on a range of tourism components, such as tourist numbers, travel patterns, spending behaviour, stakeholder” perspectives, destination images, economic return of investment in social media usage of tourism industry and so on. As most current studies employ a micro-approach,
focusing only on particular aspects of the issue, such as the social media type, its specific application and at travel planning or decision-making process stages, obviously, there is a need for a comprehensive macro approach to explore the overall impact and role of social media, focusing equally on each stage of the travel planning process, and attempting to cover all stages of the decision making process.

Comparative study has been always attractive. It is important for future study to use different cases to explore the differences and similarities in the role and impacts of user generated contents on tourism development in urban and regional tourist destinations, on different type of tourist businesses and on different stages of tourism industry development.

6. Conclusions

The tourism industry is primed to take advantage of social media outlets, as the industry has long relied largely on destination reputation, consumer opinion, spread of information, and positive word-of-mouth advertising. Social media has been also used in regional tourism destinations and played a very important role in the tourism industry.

This study identified some important hotel attributes which have more influence on customers’ satisfaction, including “room” and “service” and “staff’s professionalism”. The characteristics of seasonal changes and customer group variance of customers’ online reviews provided an insight into customer service and performance management. The findings will help hotel managers to understand better customer’s preferences to different services, and therefore to inform hotels to improve their services and satisfy their customers, for example training staff more professional and more helpful when customers needing help, developing some tailor-made services targeting different customers. The findings also indicate a need for quality management efforts including a smarter social media strategy as well as service recovery procedures to ensure that the property is better represented. An integrated social media development strategy for regional tourism industry is necessary as it directly impacts on individual businesses and therefore eventually affects the entire tourist destination.
Social media continues to grow. It increasingly influences on many social and economic aspects including tourism development and management. Research on social media in tourism is still in infancy. A comprehensive investigation into the influence and impact of social media on all aspects of the tourism industry is important.

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SPECIAL SESSION 1: PLACE MARKETING AND SUSTAINABILITY

ORGANISED BY:

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**SCOPE**

Intense competition between places on the national and international stages has elevated the role of place marketing in the agenda of urban management. Place marketing strategy should be based on a variety of elements, including extensive research on the city’s assets and opportunities and formulation of a vision for the image of the city with the collaboration and agreement of a broad range of stakeholders. Researchers, in particular, suggest that for place marketing to succeed it is necessary not only that the expectations of visitors and investors be met, but also that residents and businesses be pleased with their communities. Therefore, prior to commencing place marketing, local authorities and marketers should ensure that all voices are heard and that the projected place image fulfils the needs of all the critical stakeholders. Only then will sustainable development of a place, its tourism industry, and its image be warranted. The special session “Place Marketing and Sustainability” aims to investigate the various stakeholder groups’ place image and to identify and examine how these images can be incorporated in the sustainable marketing, planning and development of tourism destinations. This special session will give the opportunity to academics, researchers, practitioners, and policy makers from around the world to exchange ideas and methodologies concerning sustainability,
PLACE BRAND MANAGEMENT AS THE PROCESS OF REALIZING A PROFITABLE DESTINATION

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This paper studies the relationship between place brand management and tourism destination development. An exploratory case of how a Norwegian destination and host-environment, collaborating in an ICCT cluster USUS (2010-2015), aimed at repurchase by creating an experiential brand is studied. The destination’s new place brand was strategic: a way to locate the place’ resources in order to create a sustainable tourism destination. The ambition was to become one of the top three family destinations in Northern Europe by 2020 - eventually expanding a loyal domestic market to an international one. Through an analysis of the cluster-activities it is discussed how family-themed tourism activities were envisioned, planned for and tested out in a minor digital pilot marketing campaign. The conclusion is that clusters can collaborate through the experiential aspects of a brand in order to develop a destination’s profitable tourism products.

1. Introduction

A place brand is created by several - and often contradicting - versions of local identity. In this paper we will be discussing the crucial link between experiential marketing, approached in a digital destination campaign, and a collaborating cluster’s reflexive ways to realize a profitable destination (Barbini and Presutti, 2014:200).
Since the regional tourism industry in general - and also in this particular case - suffers from upholding a sustainable economy: profitability is weak (Wallevik and Svarstad, 2015) and affecting the guest stream on a firm-level in order to build loyalty and attract revisits is difficult (Lind, 2014) it is worth analyzing different developmental processes on becoming economically sustainable. In this paper we will discuss how a brand developing process and a minor marketing campaign management (#LoveSouthernNorway) associated with it, can be viewed as a cluster’s cohesive collaboration output process on realizing a destination’s experience products.

In 2010 the cluster USUS was established in southern Norway. In 2015 it contained of 101 small- and medium sized tourism, cultural and creative industries (TCCIs) and had expanded to the eastern Norway. The cluster-companies contained of hotels, restaurants and infrastructural actors, while more experience-based commercial actors were theme parks, aqua worlds, adventure-parks, science-centers and ski-resorts. The cluster was located in a rather small Norwegian rural region covering 16.5 square kilometers and with a population of 290,000 residents. Besides the renowned archipelago and picturesque coastal villages, the region had mountains in the north. The cluster’s contract partner was the regional DMO (Visit Sørlandet), while the regional research institute (Agderforskning) owned partly by the local university, was the project manager. The establishment of the cluster was initiated by the destination’s largest commercial attraction - a children’s theme park ‘The Zoo’ (Dyreparken) - which had been a strong guest-stream driver for the region since 1965. For the youngest generation, the ‘Captain Sabeltooth experience’ - a Caribbean pirate dramatizing the theme park and providing numerous merchandises - was probably the most famous personification of The Zoo’s enterprise - and in many ways, the pirate worked as its unofficial brand. Drawing around one million visitors a year, The Zoo was very famous. In a national context it was amongst the top three attractions in Norway and was approached by tremendous domestic loyalty which the cluster wanted to transfer to the rest of the destination.

The process of designing a new place brand was intended to influence and support the regional development strategy: The new brand should serve general ambitions of the region, namely to attract families as new residents (Hjemdahl, 2015).
The holiday-destination of southern (and partly eastern) Norway has developed from the beginning of the 1900 (Johnsen, 2011; Kjær, 2013). It is associated with summer and has traditionally been connected to a ‘maritime nostalgia’ symbolized by the harbor; the wind-beaten fisherman and the pictorial ocean view and sunset. Several public attempts have been made to follow this historic profiling and support the image with maritime events, such as presenting the ‘real’ Norwegian pirate period (1600-1700) (Johnsen, 2011; Hjemdahl, 2013; Kjær, 2013).

The destination-vision was to become amongst the top three children’s tourism destinations in Northern Europe by 2020 (Hjemdahl, 2015) expanding to the international family-market.

The cluster’s ambition corresponded with the region’s culture-political intentions and the region’s capital, Kristiansand, aimed at becoming “the best Nordic cultural city for children, both when growing up as well as visiting the city as a child or family” (The Cultiva Foundation: Strategy 2011-2022).

Creating a profitable success on the basis of brand management contains many uncertainties (Munar, 2012). Nevertheless, here we will raise the question on how place brand management can work as a process of discovering a destination’s profitable potential.

2. Theoretical Overview

The Internet has had profound consequences for the management and marketing of destinations: There are numerous touristic experience offerings and digitally based service business models within the sharing economy. The tourism industry grows, but traditional actors lose terrain to the new share-based tourism products (Aas and Hjemdahl, 2015). Still, because of ‘digital transparency’, creating a competitive, unique and profitable experience base for the image can be highly complicated (Munar, 2012).

The relationship between place brand management and destination development, stresses the methodological process of participants becoming aware of the resources available as profitable experience products. Branding in a developmental perspective is not ‘just’ the promotion of a destination (Munar, 2012) where an attractive brand-story is modifying the tourist’s perception through selectively packaging the positive elements
of a destination (Ren and Ooi, 2013). When branding becomes a work-method for destination development, the chosen brand story is used as a ‘gaze lenses’ which interprets the geography’s resources. As a method, the brand decision is not (only) about affecting the tourists but about redirecting attention to and reflection upon the destination’s performances in relation to the promoted brand-story.

Branding as a working process for becoming a clear cut destination seeks to avoid the problems of ‘ordinary’ place branding: attractive images can become ‘empty’ or ‘too general’ because they are not supported by (enough) available and thematic experience products (Ooi, 2004; Ren and Ooi, 2013).

In order to adjust perceptions of a place brand and ultimately of the destination, loyalty has become a buzz-word in tourism marketing. Loyalty is essential both in purchase and repurchase-strategies. In emotional marketing-theory ‘loyalty’ can be defined as the customer having a strong positive feeling of liking. Strong brand loyalty triggers sales and involves emotional sentiments. Because of the many touristic experience choices available on the Internet, loyalty - choosing one destination over another - can actually be expressed. Loyalty can also be singled out as ‘emotional habit’ or ‘cultural ritual’. Thus, there is no such thing as decision-making without an emotional component and this makes it worth studying how loyalty can be fused into a brand (O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy, 2003).

Working with a place brand, loyalty means becoming aware of a brand’s accreditation meanings. Recognizing the brand as a symbol of importance to tourists often follows (at least) two loyalty-approaches:

Firstly, the brand can work as a globally recognized ‘add on’ to a destination. Here, loyalty follows the tourists’ pre-conceptions and sympathies toward a famous product, corporation or celebrity and the destination seeks to associate these symbolic meanings to the geography by ‘franchising’ the brand-value. Examples of this are Guggenheim in Bilbao or Disneyworld in Paris. The ‘add on’ of these globally recognized brands is often viewed as a way to recycle products, identities and corporations and by doing so, hopefully, transferring well-tested successes elsewhere to the destination (Ren and Ooi, 2013).
Secondly, brand-loyalty can work as a more locally oriented ‘add on’ - or, to be more precise: the only-famous-to-some products, corporations or celebrities which originate from, or can be associated with, a particular geography, can be used to create the experience products of a destination. Personalization and authenticity is often the locally oriented brand’s accreditation-meaning. Locally oriented place branding has become very widespread exactly because it promotes the destination’s corporate or cultural heritage and tourists’ travel to experience various “identity myths” (Mossberg and Johansen, 2008:59). Loyalty towards a destination can be created by using commercial brands: The Lego Company in Denmark has an associated theme park close by the factory (Lunde, 2012) and the whiskey brand Southern Comfort has a visitor center near to the factory in Tennessee, America (Barbini and Presutti, 2014) just to mention two examples. Commercial brands support the creation of e.g. visitor-centers, guided tours, souvenir and merchandise around a company’s production activities and can create a profitable destination. Mozart in Austria, H. C. Anderson in Denmark, Astrid Lindgren in Sweden or Shakespeare in England can exemplify destinations’ strategic re-use of well-established personalized ‘brands’ and the loyalty connected to them initiate the production experience content such as festivals, events and jubilees (Sjöholm, 2011). Brand-stories are meant to direct the attention to collective pre-conceptions and imaginations in order to produce ‘reasons to go’ and ‘reasons to return’. Locally - as opposed to globally - oriented brand-stories, although already referring to pre-conditioned brand-loyalty, are having the risk of being too esoteric and too narrowly appealing to smaller groups of consumers.

Family holidays are “a relatively under-researched issue” (Gram 2005:8). Recreational family outings have been given little attention in research (DeVault, 2000; Carr, 2011). The various interests of children and adults have also received little consideration (Hartl and Gram, 2008). Still, families spending time in theme parks as a way to actualize social emotions and ideals has been highlighted (Hjemdahl, 2003). Children are nevertheless having a great influence on consumer-decisions being made in the family (Gottdiener, 1997) and research even suggests that children are the main decision makers in family tourism (Gram, 2007). In addition, it has been investigated how children’s and families’ loyalty towards choosing a holiday-
destination can be based on the familiarity of children’s literature in their everyday life setting. Tourist attractions such as Moomin World in Finland or Astrid Lindgren’s World in Sweden use the literary products to create significant guest-streams because of the literature’s unique relation to the destinations. Thereby, the offerings of site-specific experience products are lucrative because they cannot easily be consumed elsewhere (Hjemdahl, 2003; Braunerheim and Cassel, 2009; Müller, 2009).

In order to ‘cope’ with brand-based developmental uncertainties, tourism researchers’ suggest following the targeted consumer - children and their families - and investigating their preferences in relation to their specific life world context. Thus, “experiential branding” can be defined as the creation of a brand - image, slogan, ambience - based on the tourist’s experiential desires. Joe Pine’s and James Gilmore’s (1999) influential paradigm for developing tourism experiences can be used to structure to findings. They suggest that successful experience production involves taking the ‘4 E’s’: educational, escapist, aesthetic and entertaining aspects into thorough consideration. In the process of linking the consumer with the destination’s experience products - and with the aim of creating loyalty and secure (re)visits - the 4E’s can thus function as a working method to identify a profitable potential (Barbini and Presutti, 2014). Still, a consumer, with his or her limited knowledge of a destination’s entire experience chain, is not likely to suggest how the mixing of experiences or interpretations of resources can produce surprises, newness or uniqueness in a brand.

3. Methodological Approach

Cluster-collaboration is a relevant way to discover how value-creation can work through relationships and teamwork (Frosse and Normann, 2015). Acknowledging each other’s position in a value-chain, the transference of knowledge and the ability to reach larger markets by joint efforts are promoted as important for creating a profitable destination. Nevertheless, there is no ‘one best’ collaboration practice and if financial success is not discovered during the process, collaboration projects do not necessarily change the long-term innovation behaviours of an industry (Hjemdahl, 2013). Still, cluster-
collaboration is the basis of the empirical collection: Mixed data and multiple case studies and doing participant observations during cluster activities.

Qualitative interviews with management from the USUS cluster’s 101 businesses were also systematically collected between 2010-2015 by a team of researchers and advisors. Managers were interviewed about how they would develop their ‘family-signature’ - e.g. how they would adapt experience products; collaborate with the other cluster-members in experience packages, and; expand from a domestic to an international market.

In addition, public utterings in newspaper clippings, meeting-protocols, policy-documents and conference-presentations referring to the destination’s specific touristic and general developmental strategies on attracting and providing for families, and how they corresponded with the cluster’s ambitions, have also been collected. The minor digital test pilot and output of the cluster’s vision: the marketing campaign #LoveSouthernNorway, created by the regional DMO (Visit Sørlandet) was launched in 2015 and has correspondingly been followed. All effects from this campaign have not been collected yet.

4. Results and Discussion

Several aspects of the destination’s performance suggested a strong experience base for a children’s destination brand. Besides The Zoo and the destination’s other theme parks (e.g. Mineralparken, Knertenland, Eliasland and Den lille dyrehage), science (eco) centers, a children’s wooden toy factory (Støa Leketøysfabrikk), aqua worlds (e.g. Aquarama and Sørlandsbadet), adventure parks (e.g. Troll Aktiv, Adventure Norway) and ski-resorts (Hovden), there were also a full scale children’s culture festival (Ravnebarn) and several of the cluster-companies already did - or wanted to - accommodate for the family segment by having targeted family-activities at museums and arts-institutions or having a family-signature profile added to their camping site, hotel-services or restaurants such as a Nordic children’s menu.

On a general level, providing for children and families can be viewed as a way to create ‘escapism’ - the holiday as an escape from everyday life.
The cultural norms of a ‘family tourism’ include ‘excessive spending’ on experiences, services and products and that this is viewed as both respectable and appropriate. From an expenditure-perspective, Norwegian customer surveys also indicate that family tourism can be one of the most lucrative segments to accommodate for (Innovation Norway: Tourism Survey 2013). This might have to do with the social and emotional ideals of the family-holiday as a form of escape from and compensation for the middle class family-members’ (imaginations of a) demanding late-modern everyday life.

Thus, an emotional-economical link between the social media campaign #LoveSouthernNorway and the cultural norms of a family holiday where children are allowed to become the main decision-makers in consumer-choices was found. An the presentation “The Future Role of a DMO” at the #SoMe14 Conference (2015) in Nashville, USA, the manager from Visit Sørlandet discussed the established domestic loyalty towards The Zoo:

In Norway, you can risk the social authorities to be knocking on your door if your children haven’t made a visit to The Zoo. This is how established the zoo-visit convention is in Norway.

In the LoveSouthernNorway marketing campaign “blood fans” become “an ambassador” which meant being rewarded a free tour testing the destination’s various experience offers. In the local newspaper Fædrelandsvennen (7th of June, 2015) the manager elaborated:

We want people who are active on Facebook, Instagram and Twitter and who has many followers. They have to write about the destination in an heartfelt and trustworthy way.

Although taking advantage of user-driven marketing by loyal ambassadors can create validity problems in the marketing-message (Munar, 2012) the intention was to test how ‘personalization’ can affect repurchase. The young tourists’ narratives performed on their private social media pages also had aesthetic components - the style should be “heartfelt”, as the manager stressed.

Several of the cluster-companies wanted to launch their story-based experience products through the global film industry. Using the motion picture industry to promote a
destination through artistic resources was - by the cluster-companies - viewed as a very effective way of reaching international markets through entertainment and aesthetization while, at the same time, doing place marketing and destination development.

This was also a way of coping with the specific regional circumstances: through the process of leaving behind the original place brand of maritime heritage and expanding a loyal domestic market to an international one, it became clear that not only was ‘coastal nostalgia’ low-profitable because it mainly ‘sold’ a natural scenery which is not possible to commoditize on in a Norwegian context since nature ‘belongs to everyone’ (‘allemandsretten’). The image of the renowned archipelago was, in addition, almost only present in Norwegians’ pre-conceptions. Thus, the coastal images of ‘The Southern Riviera’ were not found on the Internet, but existent only in old postcards and classic posters which had not been used in digital marketing.

Technological innovation is identified as a major driver of competitive advantage for tourism destinations (Munar, 2012; Hjalager, 2010) which made it even more compelling to understand how this ‘brand-absence’ should be turned into an advantage. Even more difficult though, was that the national DMO (Visit Norway/Innovation Norway) also added to the destination’s digital brand-absence. To global tourists, the national DMO only promoted certain northern and western regions of the country which left the southern and eastern regions’ tourism industry to carry all expenses on global advertising. On a structural level it is clear that competing interests on a regional and a national scale, created disadvantages towards a global market expansion (Dredge and Jenkins, 2003).

It is not unusual that a purely commercial brand ‘takes over’ the marketing of a destination and thus makes up for the entirety of a tourism-geography. Though this often happens when there are no local tourism policies available, the theming a place through customers’ brand-loyalty, several destinations live very well, or solely, on being associated with famous products or people by their so-called brand enthusiast (Perugini and Bagozzi, 2001, Pringle, 2004). The Zoo’s experience with commercial branding was extremely relevant to the entire cluster and necessary in order to envision the destination as economically sustainable. Still, the destination
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could not just ‘take over’ The Zoo’s unofficial brand of the Caribbean pirate, since the idea was to become a total children’s destination. Tourism is ultimately place-based (Dredge and Jenkins, 2003) and on a global scale, the Caribbean pirate brand could create misplaced geographical associations. In heritage-perspective, this maritime interpretation of a pirate seemed inauthentic in a Norway context, because the country had its own pirate-history (Johnsen, 2011). Although it did not live up to traditional educational ideals, this brand was both an economic and experiential success.

Experimenting with the marketing pilot #LoveSouthernNorway -approaching the international market of “blood fans” to become ambassadors for the destination, the regional DMO used several images of children dressed in - not just Caribbean pirate costumes - but also other colorful costumes related to many of the different themed experiences at the destination. The digital image-overflow of children’s activities visualized abundance of children-related happenings. In this way, the regional DMO coordinated the cluster-companies’ children’s activities (Munar, 2012) by scaling up the ‘many children’s experience themes’.

5. Conclusion

The vision was to become amongst the top three family-destinations in Northern Europe in 2020 and use child-leisure experiences as a way to become economically sustainable. The cluster-companies’ opinions of and practices on developing experience products was defined in relation to the region’s overall culture-political goals of being the best Nordic place for children to visit and growing up in. By having a double ambition of attracting family-tourism and, by doing this, also assisting the region in providing for new family-residents’ leisure life, the cluster not only participated in the general trend of creating sustainable regional development through tourism, the cluster also influenced and was influenced by regional, culture and tourism policy-planning.

On a national level, however, tourism policies, contested the cluster’s ambitions on a global market expansion. Taking the point of departure in consumer-experiences and consumer-loyalty, the cluster-companies’ developmental
processes, evaluating child-related experience-products, family-signatures and experience-package collaborations in order to support of the place brand was mapped and analyzed through participant observations and qualitative interviews.

The focus was on the capitalizing of already established domestic consumer-loyalty and expanding this devotion to a global one though digital, consumer-driven marketing campaign in social media. Through this campaign, the cluster’s ambitions’ of performing children’s experience richness was tested out on ‘blood fans’. In a brand-perspective though, the ‘plentiful’ of activities could risk being too broad and unfocussed and hence loose that ‘cutting edge’ - or aesthetics - which a brand is supposed to have.

6. References


BIG DATA ANALYSIS SOLUTIONS FOR SUPPORTING TOURIST’S DECISION MAKING

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The continuous progresses in technology, in terms of improvements in hardware performance and sensors, rapid diffusion of ubiquitous and mobile technologies, prompt changes in the traditional information sharing, by supporting the user-generated contents and dissemination via social networking services (SNSs), including reviews, comments, etc. This large amount of information available online generates the so-called “big data”. Since humans usually are able to process only a subset of possible information, consumers would need additional supporting tools for processing the useful information, while managers would need tools and methods for providing information able to satisfy consumers’ requests. This study, theoretical in nature, aims at deeply understanding the extent to which big data analyses might support tourist decision making, by selecting only the most useful information falling into individual evaluation criteria. Starting from the current predictive models, our study identifies the most useful ones for tourist industry while declining a possible application.

1. Introduction

The continuous progresses in technology (including improvements in hardware performance and sensors) and its rapid diffusion prompt changes in the traditional information
access and sharing (Pantano, 2014). From a consumers’ perspective, the novel technology-enriched scenario provides innovative virtual spaces for supporting the user-generated contents and dissemination via social networking services (SNSs), including reviews, comments and past experiences. This means that consumers might easily access to others’ opinion for collecting information able to support their decision-making process. As a consequence, the electronic channel is shifting from a marketing-push medium to a distributed place characterized by the peer-to-peer generation and sharing of information. In fact, currently consumers make an extensive use of Internet channel, with emphasis on social media, for collecting data able to support the choice of the right tourism destination (Pantano and Di Pietro, 2013; Xiang et al., 2015).

On the opposite, this large amount of information, or “big data” would require specific characteristics for being useful for consumers. In fact, despite the huge availability of information, humans usually are able to process only a subset of possible information according to individual selection criteria, which involves a certain cost for users in terms of time, mental efforts for searching, selecting, interpreting, etc. (Johnson et al., 2003). Hence, consumers would need additional supporting tools for processing the useful information, while managers would need tools and methods for providing information able to fill into individual information selection criteria. In fact, an effective selection of reliable and trustworthy information from big data would generate useful knowledge for taking decision and improve business performances (Nguyen and Cao, 2015). For this reason, big data analyses have been successfully introduced into many sectors, such as the manufacturing one for identifying the best purchase order size (Bock and Isik, 2015), or the urban planning for developing new more efficient cities (Khan et al., 2015), while it seems to be a still under investigated topic from a tourism perspective (Phillips-Wren and Hoskisson, 2014). In fact, the proliferation of numerous online communities devoted to travel discussions (i.e. TripAdvisor and social networks like Facebook and Twitter are providing new apps for soliciting travel discussions), the new ways for tourists to both search information and plan travels push tourism managers to develop new marketing approaches and models for hospitality, as well as to implement more customized and efficient strategies (Pantano and Di Pietro,
This study aims at deeply understanding the extent to which big data analyses might support tourist decision-making, by selecting only the most useful information falling into tourist’s individual evaluation criteria. In the one hand, it contributes to the investigation of the emergent phenomenon of big data; whereas in the other one, it shows how tourism industry would take advantages from this emerging phenomenon, with emphasis on the tourists’ decision-making process. The paper is structured as follow: the first part focuses on the support systems for tourist decision, while the second one is devoted to the introduction of predictive models, basically Support Vector Machines (SVM) (Cortes and Vapnik, 1995), for predicting future directions on the basis of the past data. Finally, we provide a framework for exploiting SVM for tourism purposes. Implications for scholars and practitioners are further discussed.

2. Theoretical Background

Due to the intangible nature of tourism products, tourists decision, in terms of destination, travel mode, etc., involves a certain level of risk and uncertainty related to the purchase of a service or tourism experience that can only be experienced after the effective payment (Liu and Park, 2015; Williams and Balaz, 2015). In fact, planning a trip, including the choice of destination, travel mode and accommodation is time and effort consuming process for selecting the best option (Hsu et al., 2012; Li et al., 2015). This selection can be made on the basis of expectations, preferences, purposes, previous accommodation experience, costs, transport mode, etc. (Li et al., 2015), or even on the basis of others’ past experience, which is translated in online reviews and judgments that everyone can freely access and use (Liu and Park, 2015). In fact, Internet is dramatically changing the tourism industry in several ways: in the one hand it has become one of the most efficient channel for gaining and retaining visitors (Pan et al., 2011), on the other it has become the leading information source by supporting many online communities (such as TripAdvisor) for tourists (Pantano Di Pietro, 2013; Liu and Park, 2015). The abundance of online tourists’ reviews in online social communities (not limited to tourism purposes) in the one
hand make easy for tourists to find information, in the other one they could overexpose tourists to information making hard to select the most useful ones. As anticipated, individuals are able to process only a part of available information, according to certain personal criteria (Johnson et al., 2003). This implies that among available data they can process only the information falling into their selection criteria, which might exclude a large amount of information. For this reason, current progresses in information and communication technologies are developing new tools for supporting consumers in finding the right information for finalizing the holiday planning. This leads tourism industry to the adoption of intelligent systems, viewed as new generation information systems able to provide more relevant and customized information, improved decision support systems, and, ultimately, enhanced tourism experience, encompassing recommender systems, context-aware technologies, autonomous agents searching and mining web resources (Gretzel, 2011). In particular, recommender systems consist of personalized information filtering technology able to identify and predict a set of interesting items on behalf of tourist able to tourism and leisure places of interest and attractions with his/her preferences (Al-Hassan et al., 2015). Their strength relies in the ability to automatically learn these preferences through the analysis of his/her answers or the behavior (Noguera et al., 2012; Borras et al., 2014). Moreover, these systems can be further improved for supporting tourists while at the destination by proposing attractions and places of interest dynamically, by achieving data in real time on the “state of the tourist” (i.e. location) and adapting consequently (context-aware) (Borras et al., 2014). These elements lead to the intelligent autonomous agents able to (i) analyze the behavior of a tourist, (ii) learn automatically his/her preferences/needs, and (iii) provide proactive recommendations according to the current context (Borras et al., 2014). Therefore, there is a new trend in tourism based on the usage of smart technologies for creating, developing, managing and delivering intelligent tourism services/products/experiences, characterized by the intensive information sharing and value co-creation among tourists, tourism managers, organizations, etc., where processing and transferring tourism-relevant data is the core process (Gretzel et al., 2015).
To date, only few studies anticipated the possibility to further exploit big data as instrument for supporting tourism (Wang et al., 2013; Phillips-Wren and Hoskisson, 2014). Moreover, the process of trustworthy information selection able to better meet user’s requirement represents also one of the most critical challenges for big data extraction techniques (Nguyen and Cao, 2015).

As a consequence, the future progresses in technology in terms of ubiquity, connection, context-awareness, and capacity to process more data would avoid the problem related to the information overload and provide a more customized and efficient service for tourists (Borras et al., 2014; Gavalas et al., 2014).

3. Predictive Models and Support Vector Machines

As anticipated, the present study, theoretical in nature, aims at understanding the extent to which big data analyses might support tourists’ decision making by delivering only the information falling into individual evaluation criteria. To achieve this goal, it is necessary to introduce the predictive models that support information selection within a huge amount of data (big data).

A predictive model is a mathematical tool able to find a mathematical relationship between a target or “dependent” variable and other features or “independent” variables, with the goal of predicting future values of the target variable based on future values of the features. In other words, it allows predicting future elements on the basis of the past ones. Literature proposes several models in this direction, such as the decision trees (DT) (Rokach and Maimon, 2008), regression models (RM) (Freedman, 2005), neural networks (NN) (Rojas, 1996), k-nearest neighbour (k-NN) (Shakhnarovich et al 2005), and support vector machines (SVM) (Cortes and Vapnik, 1995), etc. In particular, DT is usually employed for categorical datasets (e.g. not numerical data); whereas RM, NN, k-NN and SVM are high performing when numerical datasets are available. The selection of the right predictive method is a complex task involving several issues: analysis of referring context, nature of data (if numerical, strings, mixed, etc.), computational cost (including the speed of program execution), etc.
The present study focuses on an application of SVM. SVM are able to analyse data and recognize patterns, which can be used for classification and regression analyses. More in details, given a set of training examples, labelled by a Boolean value (true/false, positive/negative, +1/-1, on/off), an SVM training algorithm builds a model able to label new examples as true or false. In particular, SVM model is a representation of the examples as points in space, mapped in order to make the true examples and the false examples be divided by a clear gap as wide as possible. New examples are then mapped into that same space and predicted to be true or false based on which side of the gap they fall on.

In addition to performing linear classification, SVMs can efficiently perform a non-linear classification using what is called the kernel trick, implicitly mapping their inputs into high-dimensional feature spaces.

Formally, a support vector machine builds a hyper-plane, which can be used for classification, regression, or other tasks. Intuitively, a good separation is achieved by the hyper-plane that has the largest distance to the nearest training-data point of the true and false classes (Figure 1).

Given some training data $D$:

$$D = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) | \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, y_i \in \{true, false\}\};$$

SVM finds the maximum-margin hyper-plane dividing the points having $y_i$=true from those having $y_i$=false; any hyper-plane can be written as the set of points $\mathbf{x}_i$ satisfying the equation (see again Figure 1):

$$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} - b = 0;$$

**Figure 1: An example of support vector machine**
if the training data are linearly separable, two hyper-planes can be selected in a way that they separate the data and there are no points among them, and subsequently it is possible to maximize their distance.

The region bounded by them is called “the margin”. These hyper-planes can be described by the equations:

\[ \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} - b = 1 \]
\[ \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} - b = -1, \]

the distance between these two hyper-planes is given by \( \frac{2}{\|\vec{w}\|} \) and then minimizing \( \|\vec{w}\| \) can maximize the distance. Moreover in order to prevent data points from falling into the margin, the following constraints have to be added:

\[ \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} - b \geq 1 \text{ for } \vec{x} \text{ belonging to the "true" class} \]
\[ \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} - b \leq -1 \text{ for } \vec{x} \text{ belonging to the "false" class}, \]

and if \( y=\text{true}=+1 \) and \( y=\text{false}=-1 \), then the above constraints can be rewritten as:

\[ y_i (\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_i - b) \geq 1, \]

(the techniques used to minimize \( \|\vec{w}\| \) with the above constraint are outside the scope of this paper, thus they are not included in the present research). SVMs might further perform a non-linear classification; the resulting algorithm is formally similar, except that every dot product is replaced by a nonlinear kernel function \( k(\vec{x}_i, \vec{x}_j) \). This allows the algorithm to fit the maximum-margin hyper-plane in a transformed feature space; thus the classifier is a hyper-plane in the high-dimensional feature space, but nonlinear in the original input space (Boser et al, 1992). Typical kernel functions are: polynomial, Gaussian, hyperbolic tangent, radial basis function (RBF), etc..

Finally, it is important to note that SVM can be easily generalized in order to be able to predict more than two (Boolean) classes; this modified version of SVM (named multiclass SVM) is obtained by reducing the single multiclass problem into multiple binary classification problems (Duan and
Keerthi, 2005). A common method for such reduction builds binary classifiers that distinguish between:

- one of the labels and the rest (one-versus-all); in this method classification of new instances is performed by a “winner-takes-all” strategy, in which the classifier with the highest output function assigns the class;
- every pair of classes (one-versus-one); in this method classification is executed by a “max-wins voting” strategy, in which every classifier assigns the instance to one of the two classes, then the vote for the assigned class is increased by one vote, and finally the class with the most votes determines the instance classification.

4. SVM as Supporting Tool for Tourists

Since social networks (i.e. Facebook, Twitter, TripAdvisor, etc.) provide an impressive amount of information that could be used to predict the choice (or rather help in the selection) of the next holiday of a user, such of them (properly processed) could be the input features of a SVM able to predict the ideal holiday to propose to a new user according to its characteristics. Figure 2 summarizes this process of information processing.

Figure 2: An overview of the predictive system for selecting the tourism destination that best match tourist’s requirements

Data from different sources are processed and converted into a format well matched with the SVM. Data can also be previously cleaned, normalized and optimized to make the learning and prediction processes faster and even more accurate. Once learning phase has ended, the predictor can be used for acquiring data from new users and then suggesting
(as if it was a prediction) the best destination for the holidays. The prediction is based on the principle that users with similar needs, interests and requirements probably will want to visit similar places, thus the prediction would be more accurate if initial data used for learning are accurate enough.

A meaningful example can rely on the exploitation of this process for the choice of a balneal destination. The steps would be summarized as follows (Figure 3):

- software collects knowledge concerning tourist sea destinations, including photos, comments, likes, etc. (posted on Facebook, Twitter, TripAdvisor, etc.); this operation can be carried out by an automatic system able to connect to social networks and extract such information;
- once retrieved, information is converted into data readable by a SVM, thus algorithms able to extract numeric values from heterogeneous data must be implemented. These ones might differ in nature, consisting of image processing for photos, semantic/sentiment analysis for texts, video analysis for videos, etc.;
- once the data numbers are obtained, a SVM can be properly trained;
- user declines his/her requirements (usually involving personal preferences, desires, needs, expectations on vacation, etc.), which are converted into digital data to be processed by the SVM;
- initial data becomes points into the $\mathbb{R}^n$ space, simultaneously user’s requirements becomes a point into the $\mathbb{R}^n$ space. Finally the SVM will tag this point with the more suitable class (in this case a location). Therefore, SVM predicts the possible destination that should best fit user’s requirements as resulting from the process.

Although the continuous progresses in technology provide new supporting tools for tourism decision-making (Gretzel, 2011; Pantano and Di Pietro, 2013; Borras et al., 2014; Gretzel et al., 2015), they also provide new challenges based on the large availability of data and their still limited usage from tourism managers.
5. Conclusion

In fact, in the one hand several current technologies aims at supporting consumers’ decision making of the best destination, such as customized recommender systems and context-aware technologies, in order to reduce the risk that dramatically emerges from this choice (Williams and Balaz, 2015); in the other one, the large availability of information on possible destinations emerging from online scenario (Pantano and Di Pietro, 2013; Liu and Park, 2015) might cause an excess of information that tourists are not able to successfully analyse (Johnson et al., 2003). Moreover, current recommendation systems are not able to integrate the analyses of big data for including in the information selections those emerging from tourist-generated contents available on social networks (Borras et al., 2014). In fact, the exploitation of big data for tourism purposes is still limited (Wang et al., 2013; Phillips-Wren and Hoskisson, 2014). Our research extends these preliminary studies by providing a new perspective on the analyses of big data for tourism purposes, by considering
the extent to which these tools can be beneficial for tourism industry, as anticipated in other sectors (Bock and Isik, 2015; Khan et al., 2015), and the extent to which these analyses might enhance the effectiveness of actual tourism decision support systems.

Despite the new perspective provided by the present paper, there are some limitations that should be taken into account. The main one concerns the validation of the theoretical model that the paper builds. Therefore, this model should be effectively tested within a convenience sample of users would recommended, by also focusing on the development ad hoc programs for rapidly collecting and converting big data. Similarly, future studies would test and compare the models in order to figure out the one with the best performances for tourism purposes, considering ability to collect data, the speed of response, and the quality of the output.

6. References


SPECIAL SESSION 2: POLITICAL SYSTEM:
THE DRIVER OF TOURISM POLICY

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SCOPE

The political system in a particular country largely influences the organization of its tourism. Effective development, operation and management of tourism require certain institutional elements that provide direction to tourism development. Tourism policies provide the framework within which tourism in a country works, it relates to the structure of the industry and is concerned with the issues involved in, and approaches to, tourism. The priority which a country accords to tourism in the national economy, and its assessment of the potential value of tourism to the economy, in relation to other industries, also determines the character of its organization of tourism. In countries which have a unitary constitution, or centralized government, tourism is controlled by the central government. On the other hand, in countries with a federal constitutional form, the tourist organization comprises one or more cooperative bodies at the national level and individual provinces enjoy a great deal of freedom in tourism matters. However, even in some countries with a federal system tourism is central and subordinate only to the central government. Some countries have two parallel systems- one central system and several state or regional tourist organizations, which may be subordinate only to state authorities, forming a provincial or local network, or both may be subordinate to the central government and the local authorities. Having the potential of earning precious foreign exchange and generating employment, governments in general are unable to resist the temptation to keep control of policy directions. Political interference in management of tourism is seen to be increasing whereas tourism is playing a significant role towards diversification of national economies. This special session invites contributions on
political, economic, social, cultural or environmental policy commands that chart the course of tourism development in a country or destination.
INNOVATION PRACTICES IN PERFORMING ARTS AND CULTURE ORGANIZATIONS

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This paper explores the innovation practices in a distinctive set of tourism organizations; performing arts and culture organizations. The experiences delivered by these organizations are often the reason why tourists decide to travel to a particular destination and return to the same destination at a later time. Performing arts and culture organizations are therefore a vital part of the growing tourism industry. However, these organizations have received limited attention from prior in-depth qualitative innovation practices research. The investigation in this paper is based on in-depth interviews with key-employees in 42 performing arts and culture organizations. The results suggest that the innovation practices when performing arts and culture organizations carry out incremental innovation activities differ from the practices used during more radical innovation activities. While the sources of incremental innovations often are stakeholders external to the organization, such as the audience and governmental policy regulations, the sources of more radical innovations are often internal employees, and in particular the artists themselves or the artistic management. The paper discusses the implications for general managers of performing arts and culture organizations and other tourism organizations, as well as implications for innovation policy.
1. Introduction

The ability to develop new and innovative offerings is acknowledged as an important source of superior performance and competitive advantage for firms in the service sector, including tourism (e.g., Aas and Pedersen, 2010). Empirical research indicates, however, that there is no automatic link between conducting innovation activities and earning superior performance (e.g., Aas and Pedersen, 2011). To succeed in innovation activities have to be managed in a relevant manner and relevant innovation practices need to be implemented (Froehle and Roth, 2007). Thus, a fundamental question from an innovation management perspective is how relevant key innovation practices look like.

Recent research has indicated that the answer to this question depends on several contextual factors. In particular it has been argued (e.g., Keuster et al., 2013) that there are large variations between different sectors in what constitutes relevant innovation practices. However, the number of qualitative in-depth studies of innovation practices in different sub-sectors is still relatively limited. Examples from service sub-sectors include Zomerdijk and Voss (2011) and Aas et al. (2015) studying experiential services and production-intensive services respectively.

However, tourism has received particularly little explicit attention in such qualitative innovation practices studies and a recent literature review by Hjalager (2010) concludes that “there is an incomplete understanding of how innovation processes take place in tourism enterprises and organisations, including what types of capacities and incentives they draw on” (p. 9). Tourism is a broad sector consisting of sub-sectors as diverse as accommodation and transportation and different types of experience provision. Therefore to contribute in filling the literature gap related to innovation practices in tourism we argue that several in-depth qualitative studies focusing different parts of the tourism sector are needed.

In this paper we have chosen to focus on one part of the tourism sector that is particularly important as a visitor attraction and “reason to visit” for many tourism destinations, namely performing arts and culture organizations. To contribute in filling the literature gap related to innovation practices in these organizations we raise the following research question (RQ):
- RQ1: What are the key practices implemented by performing arts and culture organizations when they develop new services, products and processes?

The identified innovation practices may have implications both from a managerial perspective and for innovation policy in tourism. We therefore raise two additional RQs:

- RQ2: What implications do the innovation practices in performing arts and culture organizations have for innovation management in tourism?
- RQ3: What implications do the innovation practices in performing arts and culture organizations have for innovation policy in tourism?

The paper is organized in the following manner: The innovation practices literature is reviewed in Section 2. The empirical methodology is described in Section 3. The empirical results are presented in Section 4 and the RQs are discussed in Section 5. Section 6 concludes.

2. Theory

The term “innovation practices” refer to the activities organizations undertake when new offerings or production processes are developed (Dooley, Subra and Anderson, 2002). Different key aggregated dimensions of innovation practices have been suggested in the innovation management literature. Most suggestions are based on research on manufacturing firms. One example is Kahn, Barczak and Moss (2006) who suggest that the key dimensions of innovation practices are 1) culture, 2) strategy, 3) portfolio management, 4) process, 5) front end, 6) tools, 7) market research, 8) people, and 9) metrics and performance measurement.

Frohle and Roth (2007) suggest that the innovation practices dimensions resulting from studies in manufacturing is somewhat skewed in the innovation process direction and they therefore suggest a more balanced resource-process framework of service innovation practices. This framework has two key dimensions: 1) the innovation processes (process-oriented practices) and 2) the management of the resources necessary to support the innovation processes (resource-
oriented practices). Frohle and Roth (2007) further suggest that the resource-oriented practices may be subdivided into 1) intellectual resources, 2) organizational resources and 3) physical resources, and that the process-oriented practices may be subdivided into the stages of the innovation process such as 1) the design stage, 2) the analysis stage, 3) the development stage and 4) the launch stage.

In the framework of Frohle and Roth (2007) the perspective of all practices is seen from the firm level. More systemic innovation practices for example related to establishing innovation networks or related to integrating with innovation policies are not explicitly included in the framework. Based on Borras and Edqvist (2013) it may be suggested that firm level system oriented innovation practices for example include systematic knowledge interactions with external actors (e.g. R&D institutions). These more systemic aspects of service innovation have been addressed by several authors. One example is Sundbo and Gallouj (1995). They used the “loosely coupled system” metaphor to describe the service innovation system.

We therefore suggest that a system dimension may be added to the framework of Frohle and Roth (2007) to make it more complete. Thus, the resulting framework of innovation practices that will be used in this paper has three dimensions; 1) process-oriented practices, 2) resource-oriented practices and 3) system-oriented practices.

On this aggregated level it may be argued that the key dimensions of innovation practices in service firms are relatively similar to those of manufacturing firms (Hydle, Aas and Breunig, 2014). It is often on the more detailed level, inside the different key dimensions, that empirical research indicates that variations between different sectors and sub-sectors exist (de Jong et al., 2003). This is confirmed by the results of detailed qualitative studies of innovation practices. Based on a qualitative study of innovation practices in providers of production-intensive services Aas et al. (2015) for example state that “our findings confirm the suggestion of prior authors (e.g., Kuester et al., 2013; Zomerdijk and Voss, 2011) that innovation management practices are contingent upon the type of industry and setting” (p. 25).

Differences in innovation practices between sectors and sub-sectors are often explained by the fact that there are some fundamental differences between the operations in different
sectors and sub-sectors and that these differences and characteristics in turn affect the innovation practices (Gallouj and Weinstein, 1997; Johne and Storey, 1998). Some service offerings, for example, such as experiential services, have a high degree of intangibility, heterogeneity, inseparability and perishability (IHIP) (Zomerdijk and Voss, 2011), whereas other service offerings such as production-intensive services have a lower degree of IHIP (Aas et al., 2015). Thus, from this perspective it is not surprising that the innovation practices identified in the study of Zomerdijk and Voss (2011) focusing experiential services differ from those found in the study of Aas et al. (2015) focusing production-intensive services.

The particular type of service organizations focused in this paper, performing arts and cultural organizations deliver a type of offerings or value propositions that may be distinguished from other service offerings. Some offerings, such as a scene show or music performance, often have a very intangible and heterogeneous nature and they are difficult to store (Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry, 1985), whereas other offerings may be more tangible (e.g., the design of the stage itself, the visual arts in a gallery etc.). Some offerings, such as a scene show or music performance, are typically consumed and produced at the same time, often with the audience (customers) physical present, whereas other offerings, e.g. visual art, are often produced at one time and then displayed to the audience at a later stage. Common for most offerings is that the customer experience is not only a result of the quality or characteristics of the services/products provided by the performing art or culture organization, but also a result of interactions between individuals in the audience (Zomerdijk and Voss, 2010).

Furthermore, performing arts and cultural organizations often experience particularly high demand uncertainty (Caves, 2000). The mission of these organizations is often also different from the mission of pure for-profit organizations, and performing arts and cultural organizations have a tendency to develop “art for art’s sake” and not for economic value generation (Caves, 2000). Another characteristic is that there often is a particularly strong relationship between the skills of the employees and the success of performing arts and cultural organizations (Caves, 2000).

Based on this discussion, it seems clear that performing arts and cultural organizations may be distinguished from the service organizations that have been focused in prior
qualitative empirical innovation practices studies. It is unclear how these characteristics affect innovation practices and the present study was undertaken to fill this gap in the literature.

3. Method

To explore the innovation practices of performing arts and cultural organizations we deployed a qualitative case study approach (e.g., Yin, 2003). We purposely selected 42 performing arts and culture institutions in Norway as case organizations since we expected these to offer learning opportunities. The type of offers provided by the 42 case organizations varied and the sample of case organizations spanned many different types of art and cultural forms including for example theatres/stages, museums, art galleries, literature houses, music ensembles (jazz, classic, opera), events and festivals. The size, mission (profit vs. non-profit) and ownership (public vs. private) of the case organizations also varied much.

The CEO’s of the case organizations were contacted and asked if they were willing to contribute as informants in the study or alternatively if they could appoint another employee at the management level that could act as our informant. In most cases the CEO decided to act as informant him-/herself, but in some cases other members of the managerial staff, such as for example the CMO or CFO, were appointed. In many case-organizations the informant decided to invite also other members of the staff to the interview and in these cases the interview took the form of a group-interview.

Data was collected through in-depth interviews with the selected informants. An interview guide was used during these interviews (see annex 1). During the interviews the informants were first asked to provide examples of ongoing or recently terminated innovation activities. Thereafter one or two examples were selected and the informants were asked open questions about the process-oriented practices, the resource-oriented practices and the system-oriented practices. Follow up questions were asked to get details. Each interview lasted approximately two hours and the interviews were recorded and transcribed. The data were coded and mapped onto the three service innovation practices dimensions, i.e. the process-oriented practices, the resource-oriented practices and the system-oriented practices.
4. Results

4.1 Innovation examples

During the interviews we received a high number of innovation examples. Figure 1 shows an aggregated picture of these examples. In Figure 1 the examples have also been categorized in relation to the degree of newness (as perceived by the informants) in two dimensions; the new to the market dimension, and the new to the organization dimension.

Figure 1: Innovation examples received during the interviews

As illustrated in Figure 1 the examples spanned from incremental innovations, such as new program concepts and new booking systems to innovations with a higher degree of newness. The innovations perceived most radical by the informants were typically related to development of new core products, i.e. development of new art.

4.2 Process-oriented practices

The innovation processes were organized in a relatively similar manner across the sample, meaning that the organizational mission, size and ownership did not seem to affect the innovation process considerably. However, the type of innovation to be developed seemed to affect the innovation process. In particular we found that the process when new art was developed seemed to be different from the process when
other types of new products, services or processes were developed.

Our findings suggest that new art often emerged through an artistic creative non-planned process, where the artists themselves were the source of new ideas. According to our informants the artists often strived towards developing cutting-edge art (often that’s why they became artists), surprising their audience, challenging and engaging their audience and giving their audience a deeper meaning/a message. They were typically also aiming to provide what they perceived a “high-quality” artistic product for their audience, but the artists often did not allow the audience to define what a “high-quality” artistic product meant. Instead artists were often aiming to be recognized by their peers.

To what extent artists worked alone or in teams during the innovation process varied. The findings suggested that artistic team-work was more common for performing art-forms such as theatre and opera and less common in more creative art forms such as visual art. When the development of new art was done by an artistic team (and not by an individual alone), the team was often lead by an artistic manager, a so-called “maestro”, recognized by peers.

General (administrative) managers of performing arts and cultural organizations were to a very little extent involved during the development process of new art. Typically they accepted that the outcome of the innovation process leading to new art was uncertain, and they recognized that artists needed a certain “freedom” and autonomy to be able to develop new and innovative high quality art. In other words; the artists were to a large extent allowed to work undisturbed during the development process.

Nevertheless, to a certain degree some parts of the administrative staff, such as marketing personnel and technical personnel, were involved to assist in carry out specific tasks during the development process, especially in the later stages of this process. In many ways these persons acted as the link between the artist or the artistic team and the performing art or cultural organization. Sometimes a tension was also experienced between the administrative staff and the artistic team, perhaps mainly due to conflicting aims. For example whereas artists aimed at developing cutting-edge art recognized by peers, marketing personnel wanted to attract the audience and fulfil their expectations. The administrative
personnel were allowed to give input during the development process, but they were to a little degree allowed to affect the outcome of the development process, i.e. the new art. The findings also suggested that the potential audience, customers or users were seldom involved in the process of developing new art.

The process when other, typically more incremental, innovations, such as new program concepts, new booking systems or new infrastructure, were developed was very different from the process of developing new art. The sources of these innovation ideas came from various internal (e.g. the managerial staff and front-line employees) and external (e.g. the audience and governmental policy regulations) sources. General management were typically heavily involved during this development process. Notably, however, the artistic staff was seldom involved in these development processes neither as a source of ideas, nor as a resource during the development process.

4.3 Resource-oriented practices

As explained in the previous section we found that the human resources involved when new art was developed were different from the human resources involved when other innovations were developed. The development of new art was driven by artists and artistic management. Whether these resources were permanently employed in the organization or hired/contracted on a more temporarily basis varied. Most organizations studied, however, had a combination of permanent and temporary artistic staff, and it was argued by several informants that this combination was important from an innovation point of view. It was also argued to be important that the artists had good skills in their art-form, either as a result of education or training or demonstrated through peer recognition.

The human resources involved when other innovations were developed varied on a case to case basis. However, two personnel categories seemed to be contributing in most projects; marketing and technical personnel. This may be due to the fact that most innovation projects identified through our interviews, except those related to new art development, seemed to have an ambition to increase customer attention and/or satisfaction and the implementation of new technology was often needed to reach this ambition.
4.4 System-oriented practices

Our findings also suggested that the innovation system when new art was developed differed from the innovation system when other innovations were developed. When new art was developed most organizations in our sample searched for a partnership with an external private or governmental institution/organization that could fund parts of the development process. Our findings suggested that most organizations preferred that the funder did not aim to affect the outcome of the development process (i.e. the art), due to the fact that the organizations wanted to secure the “freedom” of their artistic staff. Thus, a deep trust between the organization and the funder was needed. Perhaps surprisingly the organizations interviewed had experienced that private funders/sponsors were often willing to provide this freedom to a higher extent than public funders, and for this reason private funders were often perceived preferable by the organizations in our sample.

The innovation system when other more incremental innovations were developed differed from that of art development. Here external funders were seldom involved or searched for. Instead the organizations often searched for commercial partners that could complement the offering.

5. Discussion and Conclusions

The innovation management literature (e.g. Johne and Storey, 1998) suggests that it is particularly important to involve front-line personnel and customers in innovation processes in the service sector. The reason for this is that services are often produced and delivered simultaneously. Our empirical findings from performing arts and culture organizations moderate this recommendation. Indeed the involvement of customers and front-line employees seem to be important for the development of incremental improvements of the operations of these organizations, but the development of more radical new core offerings in the form of new art is driven by the professionals of these organizations, i.e. the artists and the artistic management. These professionals have a very high autonomy and other stakeholders are to a very limited degree involved in the development process.
These findings have implications both for innovation management in performing arts and culture organizations and for innovation policy for these organizations. From a managerial point of view it seems important to accept that radical innovations emerge through artistic processes. Thus, general managers need to give professional artists, and artistic managers, freedom, autonomy and resources to enable radical innovations to prosper. Likewise, (radical) innovation policy instruments for this sector should be designed in a way that does not reduce the autonomy of the artists.

Some recent research from other service sectors, such as scale-intensive services (Hydle et al., 2014), has provided results that to some extent are similar. However, whether the findings are also applicable for other parts of the tourism industry is still an open question that future research should address.

6. References

POLITICAL IDEOLOGIES AS SHAPERS OF FUTURE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

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In this paper, the authors investigate how political ideologies will impact upon tourism and the tourism industry in the future. First, the authors survey the various political ideologies (conservatism, liberalism, anarchism, Marxism, fascism, environmentalism, and others) and their relationships with tourism management. The authors then critically evaluate the future developments in political ideologies and their expected impact on tourism development, namely: increased politicisation of tourism, tourism wars among tourist destinations and tourist generating regions, greater role of environmentalism, greater control on populations, thriving nationalism and the use of tourism for nation-building. The authors conclude that the political tensions in tourism would increase in the future.

1. Introduction

This paper analyses the impact of political ideas and systems of thinking on tourism in the future. There is a continuing interest in academic circles in the role of ideas on political outcomes and institutions (see for example; Campbell, 1998, 2002; Lowndes and Roberts, 2013) and political ideologies (Heywood, 2012, 2015; Schwarzmantel, 2008), although this is rarely looked into in the field of tourism, with
some exceptions (such as, Britton, 1991, 1982; Desforges, 2000; Hall, 1994, 2004; Jeffries, 2001; Kim et al, 2007; Stevenson et al., 2008). This work does not look particularly at ideologies of political economy, as this has been done elsewhere (e.g. in Nunkoo and Smith, 2013; Webster and Ivanov, 2012; Webster et al., 2011). Although the theoretical perspectives on political economy are related to the theoretical perspectives on politics, the thinking systems are also separate and can be understood separately.

2. The Ideologies of Politics and Tourism

Table 1 illustrates the language and categorisations with which several leading authors on political theory have isolated specific ways of thinking.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conservatism</td>
<td>• Traditional Conservatism</td>
<td>• Contemporar y Conservatism</td>
<td>• Conservatis m</td>
<td>• Conservatis m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberalism</td>
<td>• Classical Liberalism</td>
<td>• Contemporary Liberalism</td>
<td>• Democratic Liberalism</td>
<td>• Liberalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anarchism</td>
<td>• Anarchism</td>
<td>• Anarchism</td>
<td>• Anarchism</td>
<td>• Anarchism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marxism</td>
<td>• Marxism</td>
<td>• Communism</td>
<td>• Democratic Socialism</td>
<td>• Socialism</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fascism / National Socialism</td>
<td>• Fascism and Nazism</td>
<td>• Fascism and National Socialism</td>
<td>• Fascism/ Nazism</td>
<td>• Fascism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmentalism</td>
<td>• Environmentalism</td>
<td>• Environmentalism</td>
<td>• Environmentalism</td>
<td>• Ecologism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other ideologies referred to</td>
<td>• Feminism</td>
<td>• Nationalism</td>
<td>• Nationalism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Fundamentalism</td>
<td>• Feminism</td>
<td>• Feminism</td>
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</table>

What is most noteworthy is that there are notable overlaps in terms of the language and concepts between the various authors. For example, while all the authors have mentioned conservatism as an ideology, those who are not particularly in the field of the study of political theory would likely find it hard to
imagine that conservatism is a system of thought and could be thought of as an ideology. What is also noteworthy is the recurrence of anarchism as a concept, while the language of the ideology seems to be remarkable stable between these authors. A further interesting issue is the delineation of environmentalism as an ideology.

In terms of assessing the major current ideologies and what they say about tourism, many things can be said, as Table 2 illustrates. To begin, because the role of the state in liberal and anarchist ideologies remains minimal in scope, there is very little room for the state. Thus for these ideologies, the role of the state is minimal based upon the perception of the desirability or importance of the state. While liberals view the state as a necessary evil, anarchists simply view it as an evil that acts as an impediment to human freedom. From this very basic standpoint on the state, the state cannot really be an attractive vehicle to supply or support tourism. However, the nature and logic of how tourism is appreciated in both these systems of thought, is a bit different, as liberalism views leisure and tourism as things that are consumed and purchased through a market mechanism by individuals. Anarchists, on the other hand would stress the communal aspects of tourism and leisure. The differences between liberal and anarchist thinking are critical in terms of understanding the role of tourism in a society. From a liberal perspective, tourism is not particularly important in a society, apart from the role that it may play in the economy. In addition, a liberal perspective would stress the market in its ability to provide tourism opportunities. Opposed to this is an anarchist’s viewpoint that tourism is important, as it would be reflective of social values of leisure and social interaction, although it would be understood that much of this would be supplied by a society, rather than a market.

The other ideologies all have a more state-based approach towards tourism. While the communist approach envisions a post-socialist future that will be very similar to the utopia envisioned by anarchists, the pathway to that utopia for communists consists of stages in which the state plays a critical role in the supply of many things in the society. Communist, social-democratic, and fascist approaches all envision the state as being deeply involved in tourism for various different reasons. From a communist approach, tourism is envisioned as an entitlement of the working class, something that implies that the state should work in ways to
ensure that there is adequate provision of this for all, but especially the working class. Much of the same would be expressed by social democratic thinking, as they are from the same Marxist roots. However, social democratic thinking enables the market to also be involved in the provision of leisure and tourism opportunities for all. What is intriguing is that the fascist approach uses much of the same mixture of market and state forces to provide tourism. This is no coincidence, as fascist thinking is always in a competitive situation with socialist thinking to achieve the loyalty of the working class.

We shall now look how the future developments in political ideologies and their impact on tourism.

3. Future Developments in Political Ideologies and their Impact on Tourism

3.1 Politicisation of tourism

The economic and social importance of tourism has long made it a tool for achieving political goals. Furthermore, the existence of many stakeholders in tourism with countering interests has made it a highly politicised area of public debate. For example, being non-local residents, tourists are a lucrative target for taxation - it is politically convenient to levy taxes on non-voting non-residents (e.g. via hotel room tax, entrance fees to museums and attractions) than on voting local residents. Local authorities in New York, Jamaica, Dubai, Bulgaria, among others, use room taxes/tourist taxes to fund projects and generate revenues in local budgets. However, tourist services are often subject to lower VAT tax and tax refunds in order to make the destination price competitive and attract more tourists (for example, in Bulgaria the VAT on tourist services is 9% while the normal rate is 20%). Furthermore, tourism is sometimes perceived by politicians as an instrument to generate votes and win elections through satisfying the interests of some of the stakeholders - for instance, subsidising the infrastructure construction, renovation or expansion (conservative/social democratic approach), vouchers to local residents to be used for domestic tourism (socialist approach), tax breaks for investors in municipalities with high unemployment rate (conservative/liberal approach), removal or simplification of regulations towards tourism businesses (liberal approach), etc. Political ideologies differ on
the basis of: a) who would be supported - the tourist companies (conservatism, social democracy, liberalism) or the tourists (socialism); and b) how would the support be provided - indirect support: elimination of tax and regulatory burden on tourist companies (liberalism), provision of public assets and services needed to tourists and tourist companies (conservatism, social democracy) or direct support: vouchers for use of tourist services, subsidies for tourist companies (socialism).

Table 2: Major political ideologies and tourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ideology</th>
<th>Role of the State</th>
<th>Role of the Individual</th>
<th>Priority of Tourism in the Society</th>
<th>How it Should be Enjoyed/Supplied</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liberalism</td>
<td>Limited</td>
<td>Purchased and enjoyed by the individual</td>
<td>Low, except for economic development purposes</td>
<td>Market-supplied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anarchism</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Enjoyed communally</td>
<td>High, as it is linked with the high value of freedom</td>
<td>Society-supplied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communism</td>
<td>Provision of Tourism and Leisure of time during Dictatorship of the Proletariat, no role after socialist phase is past</td>
<td>Enjoyed communally</td>
<td>High, as it is linked with entitlements of the working class</td>
<td>State-supplied, society-supplied (in later historical stages)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Democracy</td>
<td>Provision of legal framework to ensure leisure and tourism opportunities, state regulation to ensure leisure and tourism</td>
<td>Purchased and enjoyed by the individual</td>
<td>High, as it is linked with entitlements of the working class</td>
<td>Mostly market-supplied but such supply ensured by substantial state interventions into the market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fascism / National Socialism</td>
<td>Provision of legal framework to ensure leisure and tourism opportunities, state/party intervention to ensure leisure and tourism</td>
<td>Provided by the state and market and enjoyed communally</td>
<td>High, as it is linked with a system of rewards for the loyalty of the working classes</td>
<td>Mixture of state and market forces supplying tourism opportunities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Additionally, tourism is used for promotion of political ideologies (e.g. communist heritage tourism in North Korea and China) and stimulating nationalism and sense of national identity (domestic tourism, visits to museums and important historical places by children) which makes it politically burdened. In the Russian Federation it has even been considered as the tool for quick economic and social integration of Crimean peninsula after its cessation from Ukraine in March 2014. Furthermore, extremist and fundamentalist groups might perceive foreign tourists as carriers of unwanted social and cultural influence which could make them targets for terrorist attacks. And foreign tourists are lucrative targets for terrorist attacks because of the high visibility of such attacks due to their extensive media coverage and the ‘popularity’ extremists’ gain.

For the future we expect further politicisation of tourism. As tourism grows and reaches more geographic areas and involves more social strata, either as tourists and/or as employees/owners of tourism enterprises, it expands its social reach which increases the number of tourism stakeholders and the diversity of interests which public authorities need to face. However, we think that governments would not adopt a one-size-fits-all ideology in dealing with tourism but they will use different mechanisms from the arsenals of different ideologies depending on the situation and their political convenience. This means that sometimes one government would provide tax breaks to big investors in tourism in order to decrease the unemployment, other times it would invest heavily in infrastructure, while in third cases it may provide incentives to local residents to undertake domestic trips. Such situational pragmatic ideological approach by public authorities seems more probable as it is satisfies the interest of many stakeholders although not necessarily the interests of society as whole.

3.2 Tourism wars

A natural consequence of the politicisation of tourism is the tourism wars. They relate to the aggressive destination marketing and in general can be applied by both destinations and tourist generating countries. When applied by destinations tourism wars refer to the diverting (‘stealing’) of inbound tourists from competitor destinations. When applied by tourist generating countries tourism wars include redirecting outbound
tourist flows from one destination to another) as a substitute and extension of political ‘wars’. As discussed above, the transition of the Autonomous Republic of Crimea in March 2014 and the subsequent international economic and political sanction on the Russian Federation resulted in stimulation of domestic tourism and recommendations by the Russian officials to citizens not to travel to countries that support the sanctions (BurgasNews, 2015). As Russian tourists contribute significantly to the economies of Greece, Cyprus, Turkey, Bulgaria, Egypt and other countries, the governments and tourism enterprises in these countries worried about the expected plummeting numbers of tourist arrivals from Russia. The reactions included: subsidising charter flights from Russia to Turkey (social-democratic approach) (Vestnik Kavkaza, 2015), simplified visa issue process for Russian tourists visiting Greece (liberal approach) (Greek Travel Pages, 2015), or even voices from Bulgarian tourism industry for compensation from the EU for missed revenues (socialist approach) (News.bg, 2015). For the future we expect such tourist wars to continue and sometimes even worsen. They would be used by major tourist generating countries as a powerful economic tool to redirect tourist and financial flows from one (inconvenient) destination to another. Destinations that depend heavily on tourism to create employment for its citizens and for foreign exchange earnings would be highly vulnerable.

3.3 Environmentalism

Environmentalism has permeated the agenda of political parties, governments and NGOs. It is no longer just 'save the planet' way of thinking emphasising economic use of resources, use of renewable energy, waste separation, recycling and so on. Environmentalism has now received the qualities of a political doctrine per se - it is organised (e.g. Greenpeace and other organisations), influences our daily life (e.g. compulsory home waste separation), regulates the economic activities (e.g. ISO 14000: Environmental management; EU requirements about renewable energy’s share in total energy production within the union) and its issues are discussed on top political and global level (e.g. UN’s Agenda 21). Tourism is largely perceived as one of the major contributors to global warming/climate change (Simpson et al., 2008). Therefore, tourism’s interactions with global warming/climate change and the sustainable tourism
development have been widely discussed both by practitioners and the academia (e.g. Borges, Eusebio and Carvalho, 2014; Lopez-Sanchez and Pulido-Fernandez, 2014; Scott et al., 2012; Weaver, 2006) and have been included in the goals and activities of various tourism organisations. For the future we expect much greater role of sustainability thinking in governments and local authorities, leading to the infusion of even more ‘aggressive’ green thinking in tourism organisations - e.g. compulsory offsetting of the carbon footprint for every tourist, compulsory minimum percentage of renewable energy in the total energy consumption of tourism enterprises, expansion of protected areas and limited access to them, severe regulations on water consumption and transportation in resorts, etc. The outcome would be increased costs of tourist services and, probably, decreased affordability of tourist trips, but in exchange of better quality of the environment. In general, tourism would benefit from the greater role of environmentalism in the political system. However, environmentalism should not be hindrance to the economic development of local communities and the latter should not be put into the position to choose jobs or environment. In the future, we think, the potential choice ‘jobs or environment’ (e.g. the ecologists stopping the development of resorts and infrastructure) would be transformed into ‘jobs and environment’ (tourist go to places with proper environment management).

3.4 Greater control on populations
The political goal of achieving greater control on populations might lead to the use of tourism as a tool to introduce and spread faster the human radio-frequency identification (RFID) microchip implants (Ivanov et al. 2013). Through tourism, neo-conservative governments might popularise the benefits of implanted RFID microchips - smooth and fast passage at airports and frontier control points, electronic visa, no need of carrying physical ID/passport/cash/credit or debit cards, greater security of travel, no need of foreign exchange, etc. Therefore, tourism would be the instrument through which governments to achieve higher goals - i.e. greater control on populations’ movement, purchases, daily lives. We have already observed RFID human microchip implants used to access offices and use various appliances (Reuters, 2015) and believe this tendency would continue in the future in larger scale.
3.5 Thriving nationalism

New nations find nationalism and domestic tourism as tools for nation-building. The heritisation, antiquisation and the glorification of the past become vital steps in the process. The governments construct monuments, dedicated to the victorious ancient rulers and prominent figures from nation’s history, sometimes regardless of the historical facts, use tourism to promote the real and invented national heritage. The new city centre of Skopje, the capital of the FYROM, is a good example - the nationalist ideology and the aim of the political elite of the country (creating a new nation and giving it past it could be proud of) led to the erection of monuments disputed by Greece (e.g. Alexandre the Great) and Bulgaria (e.g. King Samuil). Domestic tourism to these new places of national worship strengthens the sense of national identity of residents. We envision this heritisation process to continue in the foreseeable future due to the growth of heritage tourism demand in general and its sub-segments (e.g. communist heritage tourism - Ivanov, 2009) and the cessation processes in many countries leading to new nations that need ‘new pasts’ (Webster and Ivanov, 2015).

4. Conclusion

This research has looked into how ideology is set to play a role in future tourism. We do not see the impact of political ideologies on future tourism development through pink eyeglasses. On the contrary - we expect that tourism would be used to achieve various political agendas like greater control on populations through RFID microchip implant normalisation. In the future we may envision greater politicisation of tourism development and intensified “tourism wars” conducted both by tourist destinations and tourist generating regions. Tourism would also be used as a tool to develop new national identities of the forming nations.

5. References


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SPECIAL SESSION 3: PILGRIMAGE AND PILGRIMS: JOURNEYS, DESTINATIONS, MEANINGS

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In order to complement the regular program with emerging topics of particular interest, the ICOT2015 Conference will include a Special Session on “Pilgrimage and Pilgrims: Journeys, Destinations, Meanings”. Tourism that is motivated by faith and spirituality is on the rise. Pilgrimage is one of the oldest and most basic forms of population mobility known to human society, and its political, social, cultural and economic implications have always been, and continue to be, substantial. But today, pilgrimage is defined differently, as a traditional religious or modern secular journey. The phenomenon is currently experiencing resuscitation throughout the world, as longstanding shrines act as magnets to those in search of spiritual fulfilment. This special session aims to focus on the foreseeable future of religious, civil, and secular pilgrimage and other forms of spiritual journeys. The emphasis will be on both sites (e.g. sacred sites, memorials, monuments) and human activities (e.g. pilgrimage, devotion, and visitation). The session offers the opportunity to elaborate on these issues in an interdisciplinary way, by bringing together researchers who share an interest in pilgrimage (broadly defined) but come from different fields of study, such as geography, anthropology, sociology, psychology, management and economic related fields. The discussion is open to researchers from all backgrounds, and the aim is to present research which is both case study oriented and theoretical.
Based on pilgrimage diaries (Itineraria), this article investigates the contemporary Holy Land guide’s roles from a historical perspective. The Itineraria serve a dual function: (a) as a direct source for descriptions of actual guides; (b) as a source perceived as a substitute for the live guide. We claim that both as descriptive and prescriptive documents, they can be viewed as significant precursors of the roles assumed by current guides. We charted a shift over the centuries from minimal collaboration among the separate guides who fulfilled the functions of pathfinder and mentor to closer collaboration among them. In contemporary Catholic pilgrimages, this process has led to a single priest-guide who encompasses all functions.

1. Introduction

“The key to a successful pilgrimage to the Holy Land is the priest guide accompanying the group.” This observation by the director of the Delegazione di Terra Santa, who organizes pilgrimages for the Franciscans, highlights the importance of the guide and frames our investigation of the contemporary guide and his roles from the fourteenth century to the present. This paper is part of a larger study of
Catholic Holy Land guides from a historical and ethnographic perspective, in collaboration with Dr. Jackie Feldman, funded by the Israel Science Foundation.

For the purposes of the current paper we consulted *Itineraria* (pilgrimage diaries). Although itineraria have been examined in the scholarship from various perspectives (Beebe, 2014; Badone and Roseman, 2004; Cohen, 1992), the figure of the guide in the itineraries has not been the focus of either historical or sociological studies.

The itineraria serve a dual function in this study: (1) as a direct source for descriptions of actual guides during various stages of the narrated pilgrimage: in other words, a descriptive document of a pilgrimage that has already taken place; (2) as a source that views its author as a substitute for the live guide, giving advice to pilgrim readers: in other words, a prescriptive document for a journey that has not yet taken place. We claim that, in both forms, they can be viewed as significant precursors of current guides, who are responsible for the modern pilgrim’s practical and spiritual needs.

Our study begins when Franciscan friars first assumed the role of Custodians of the Holy Land. Note that the “Custody” still plays a major role in Holy Land pilgrimage, including the training of guides. Nowadays, training is open only to those ordained as priests or ministers. An additional requirement is participation in a course specifically geared to Holy Land pilgrimage. A collaborative effort by the *Studium Biblicum Franciscanum* in Jerusalem, the *Ufficio Pellegrinaggi* in Rome, and the *Custodia Terra Santa* in Jerusalem, the month-long course, offered either in Rome or Jerusalem, covers historical, biblical, geographical, and practical aspects (presented frontally) plus two weeks of guided visits to Holy Land pilgrimage sites (oral conversation, Padre Gianfranco Pinto Ostuni, 27 Jan 2015).

2. **The Figure of the Guide in the Historical Itineraria**

   The historical itinerary can be viewed as an independent genre. In his *Evagatorium*, the fifteenth-century Swiss theologian Felix Fabri notes his sense of belonging to a long written tradition:
I did not have so much labour in making my pilgrimage from place to place as I had in running from book to book, in thinking, reading and writing, correcting and correlating what I have written (Beebe, 2014: xvii).

In his sixteenth-century itinerary, the Belgium pilgrim Jean Zuallart similarly describes a long written tradition starting from the Bible, early Christian writings, classical literature, and other Itineraria (Zuallart, 1586, Proemio).

Although the historical itineraries do not dwell on the various guides, nevertheless, they provide a coherent picture of the people who filled these roles. Because pilgrimage is a dynamic event which moves between different geographic spaces and experiences, the “accompanying figures” shift accordingly. We can extract from the Itineraria a schematic division of roles: patron, scribe, interpreter, and spiritual guide.

It was the patron’s obligation to oversee the safe transportation of the pilgrims to and from the Holy Land. Some itineraries, such as Bernard von Breydenbach’s fifteenth-century Peregrinationes (1999: 16-18) or Jost von Meggen’s Pellegrinaggio a Gerusalemme, 1542-43 (1999), describe the essential points of the contract signed with their patron. These and other itineraries indicate that not only must the patron guarantee to bring the pilgrims from the port of departure to the Holy Land and back, he and his crew are in charge of the pilgrims’ physical needs, safety, and belongings. He is also responsible for the legal aspects of the journey: obtaining permits, including the license from the Vatican for each of the pilgrims on his boat to take part in the pilgrimage (Cardini, 2002: 374).

The scribe of the boat is charged with announcing the pilgrims’ arrival in the Holy Land to the authorities and obtaining a safe conduct, as found in Mariano da Siena’s itinerary: “As soon as we reached the port, the scribe alone got off the boat and went to Rama [Ramleh], twelve miles away, and took the safe conduct” (1991: 79; see also Zuallart, 1586: 105).

The latter two roles - the interpreter and the spiritual guide - are the focus of what follows. Many itineraries refer to the interpreter, whose expertise in languages essentially mediated between pilgrim and place. Witness Niccolò di
Poggibonsi’s description of the procession to the Holy Sepulcher on Palm Sunday, in which olive branches substituted for palm branches. He writes:

And I asked an interpreter what the meaning of the olives was and he answered that he did not know very much about it, but that those who were holding the olives were screaming in Arabic, and the other group with the olives [was screaming] in the Ethiopian language, and that he was an interpreter of the Hebrew and Saracen languages (Lanza and Troncarelli, 1990: 55).

There is a discrepancy here between the pilgrim’s expectations that his interpreter will also act as a cultural go-between and what is reflected in the text. The interpreter was probably unaware that the procession differed from the Western Catholic usage on Palm Sunday and cites his function as restricted to knowledge of specific languages. Often the interpreter (or “turciman”) functioned as a guide, both with respect to the travel route and explanations of the sights. The turciman who mediated between the Christian pilgrim and the Moslem authorities was often a Christian convert to Islam, as noted by Lionardo Frescobaldi regarding the “grand turciman” of Alexandria in Egypt, who was originally from Venice (Lanza and Troncarelli, 1990: 181). This guaranteed that the turciman would be knowledgeable about Christian holy sites, whereas his current Moslem identity contributed to maintaining good relations with the Moslem authorities. Many of the historical sources describe him as a local guide, who was exchanged for another as the pilgrims moved around. In totaling his expenses, the fourteenth-century Tuscan pilgrim Gucci, who traveled with Frescobaldi and Sigoli, listed the payments to the various guides. He mentions the different prices paid to each of the turcimen from Cairo, Gaza, and Jerusalem, and also to each of the turcimen who guided them from Cairo to Jerusalem, from Jerusalem to Damascus, and from Jerusalem to the Jordan River (Lanza and Troncarelli, 1990: 306-7).

In later diaries, perhaps as a result of accumulated experience, we find pilgrims hiring one turciman for several places, as Zuallart recommends (1586: 51). By the early nineteenth century we find itineraries speaking of hiring one
turchiman for an entire trip, which included Syria, Lebanon, and the Holy Land (Failoni, 1833: 22). Another type of interpreter who appears rarely in the itineraries is the interpreter who joins the group for the entire trip, starting from the country of origin (Bernard von Breydenbach 1999: 17-18).

On arriving at the holy or “highlight” sites the role of the guide passes to what we term the “spiritual guide,” referred to in the itineraries by his religious title (friar, guardian, etc.). Often the head of the local religious order assumed the role of guide at these sites. Most itineraries reflect a hierarchy among the several spiritual guide “figures,” of whom the most elevated was the Guardian of the Franciscan monastery on Mount Zion. He organized the convergence of numerous groups of pilgrims in a procession to the center of Christian pilgrimage: the Holy Sepulcher (Mariano da Siena, 1991: 105-6), an effective communitas experience (Bilu, 1988; Turner, 1973). He also assigned Franciscan friars from different nationalities to guide their fellow nationals and hear their confessions.

Adopting Erik Cohen’s terminology (1985), the contemporary pilgrim guide to the Holy Land can be viewed as combining two traditional models: the pathfinder and the mentor. In the historical itineraries, however, he usually does not embrace both realms: instead, these roles are divided among two or more figures. For example, Zuallart advises: “Do not take a path without having your interpreter with you, as well as a friar, especially in Jerusalem” (1586: 57).

If greater weight is assigned to the spiritual aspects of contemporary pilgrim guiding, in historical itineraries until the eighteenth century we find more frequent mention of the guide who functions as a pathfinder. He appears under different names, as Zuallart observes: “the dragoman or turchiman, or rather guide and interpreter (who are all the same thing)” (1586: 51). The spiritual guide or mentor appears less often; and when both figures appear, they usually do so separately and they carry different social statuses as compared to the pilgrims: the interpreter is considered inferior; the spiritual advisor, superior. Fra Niccolò da Poggibonsi exemplifies the interpreter’s inferior status: when the pilgrims ordered the interpreter to tell the
amiraglio (commander) of Jerusalem that, like the friars of Mount Zion, they were too poor to pay for entry into the city, the amiraglio ordered that the interpreter receive a beating (Lanza and Troncarelli, 1990: 39). Pilgrims also demonstrated a disdainful, suspicious attitude toward the turciman. In the fourteenth century, on leaving Santa Caterina, Frescobaldi turned to their turciman and blamed him for betraying them to Arab bandits (Lanza and Troncarelli, 1990: 197).

But, for his part, the religious guide, mentioned less frequently than the pathfinder, is definitely seen as the pilgrim’s superior. One itinerary refers to a religious guide as a “spiritual father and light” (Rustici, 1441-1442:192r).

The itineraries voice the pilgrims’ need for inspirational discourse throughout the journey. The diary of the Florentine goldsmith Marco di Bartolomeo Rustici, available only in an illuminated Florentine manuscript (figure 1), describes his pilgrimage in 1441-1442, with his friend Antonio di Bartolomeo and a Servite friar, Maestro Leale. Although not officially hired as a “spiritual guide,” his companions seek Leale’s contribution in this sphere. The friend, Antonio, explains Leale’s importance: “a good speaker is like an ambling horse - he removes the fatigue from the spirit” (88v) and Rustici praises Leale as “his companion who opened his intellect” (ibid). As the “religious figure” of the group, Leale conducted mass (162v), initiated chanting, offered spiritual comfort, and conducted long conversations on practical and philosophical questions.

This and other itineraries describe how religious pilgrims supplied spiritual support to the lay pilgrims travelling with them, especially with respect to ritual. The Codice Rustici refers to a group of religious pilgrims who, together with Maestro Leale, initiated singing (187r). Santo Brasca’s itinerary describes how thirty bishops, friars, and other religious men led the singing and the orations every evening, loudly calling: “May God grant us a good trip” (Lepschy, 1966: 52).

Examination of the itineraries demonstrates the presence of intensely liminal moments (Turner, 1973), that spark a need for a spiritual guide: embarking on the journey, or entering the Holy Land or the Holy Sepulcher. Yet, when those explicitly assigned the role of spiritual guide were not present, others from the group substituted for them. We also
learn of the nomination of a lay person: in describing the consolidation of a group of Florentine pilgrims, Frescobaldi recounts the nomination of Remigi Soranzi, a high-ranking pilgrim, as their leader (Lanza and Troncarelli, 1990: 171). This attests to the spontaneous election of a guide to oversee group social aspects, termed an “animator” by sociologists of tourism (Cohen, 1985; Pompl, 1983).

Note that the dividing line between the responsibilities of the various guides was not rigid; yet, at the same time, a clear hierarchy was maintained between pathfinder and spiritual guide. Sixteenth-century traveler Jost von Meggen describes the patron’s role as incorporating that of the interpreter but, at the same time, as limited by the authority of the Guardian:

In addition, the patron is obliged to disembark at Jaffa and to guide the pilgrims to the Holy Sepulcher, to the Jordan river, and to the valley of Hebron, but … if the Reverend Father Guardian of the Holy Sepulcher advises against or prohibits the pilgrims access to the valley of Hebron, the patron … should lead them to another equally visited site instead… (von Meggen, 1999: 24-25).

Another example of a guide expanding his roles appears in *Codice Rustici*, where Maestro Leale gives not just spiritual but also practical guidance, such as decisions depending on weather conditions, or finding a doctor for a converted Christian in Gaza (Rustici, 1441-1442: 190r).

The *Codice Rustici* fosters awareness of the multiple situations in which the spiritual guide was indispensable, among them the ability to perform miracles in the face of constant danger. Thus, after visiting Santa Caterina, when the pilgrims sat down to a meal, Arab thieves were seen coming their way. Maestro Leale, together with another religious man, recited a magical oration and miraculously, the thieves passed right by them (187v).

But, in combining the guide’s spiritual as well as practical roles, the figure of Maestro Leale is unusual. Indeed, there is some discussion in the scholarship regarding his actual existence. In her doctoral dissertation, Kathleen Olive (2004) argues that Leale is merely a literary construct. If so, Rustici’s depiction reflects the image of the “ideal guide,” attained only in the modern period. Yet, even if
we accept the prevailing opinion that Rustici was accompanied by a real person named Maestro Leale, clearly many of the dialogues found in this “devotional diary” (Gai, 1982) are elaborations by the author. In any case, Leale is not the “official” guide of the pilgrimage.

In the nineteenth century we find the itineraries mentioning both types of guide: the pathfinder and the spiritual guide. But here we chart a change: we also find collaboration between the two, as described by Giovanni Failoni in his *Viaggio in Siria e nella Terra Santa*:

As I wanted to visit the city [Jerusalem] and get a first impression, I took with me, aside from the dragoman, also a well-instructed guide from the [Franciscan] monastery, who was accustomed to taking foreigners from all countries all over Palestine (Failoni, 1833: 68-69).

Later he refers to him as his “devout guide” (ibid., 88).

Failoni also mentions the contribution of local religious figures to his spiritual experience. He enjoyed the Mass conducted by the local priests, or in the case of the Holy Sepulcher, run by the Guardian, who also offered to guide our pilgrim around the sites (ibid., 87). Yet, as opposed to earlier itineraries where we find no contact between the the dragoman and the guide, Failoni speaks of collaboration between them; thus, before his visit to Bethlehem: “... I assigned my dragoman to prepare in concordance with the guide” (ibid., 114).

3. The Guidebook as a Substitute for the Live Guide

We have until now focused on itineraries as descriptive texts: of "live figures" who fulfilled different guiding roles. Yet, at the same time, an analysis of the written diary or itinerary shows that the written “guide” often substitutes for the “live guide” as pathfinder or mentor, even in the historical *Itineraria*. At times we find attempts to construct a unified figure that fulfills all the various guiding roles. Thus, the experienced author (who has already participated in one or more pilgrimages) takes the place of the guide in “leading” a virtual journey. In many cases we find that he considers not just the pilgrim’s physical, but also his
spiritual, needs and creates a detailed, guided tour that parallels an actual guiding situation. This type of written guide can prepare the pilgrim in advance, as well as accompany him throughout the trip. For example, Zuallart’s six-part Italian guide—*Il Devotissimo Viaggio di Gerusalemme (1586)*—starts with practical advice: who should not go on this type of trip and the necessary preparations for those who do—how many shirts, sheets, food products, etc. they should pack. Starting with the second book he describes the trip from Venice and the dangers encountered on this leg of the journey. With the arrival in the Holy Land and the visits to holy sites we find descriptions of the “devout, mysterious ceremonies” (Zuallart, 1586: 107), which, were he a live guide, he would be reciting in front of, or with, his group of pilgrims.

Another itinerary that partly belongs to the category of a guidebook substituting for the live guide and partly to that of a written document by a live guide is Francesco Suriano’s *Il Trattato della Terra Santa e dell’ Oriente*. Suriano was twice the Custodian of the Holy Land (1493-95; 1512-15). Parts of this treatise are written in the form of a dialogue between him and his sister, a nun who assisted him in writing the text. Their questions and answers transform his written words into an oral voice. He gives very precise information on distances and describes the processions conducted by Franciscan friars and the cantatrice who invites everybody to join in a lament. At this point Suriano speaks of his part in the procession: the oration. While Suriano’s active role was probably limited to a specific moment, through his dialogic writing he fully assumes the total role of a guide.

In conclusion, the prescriptive texts present us with the “ideal” guide: one not restricted by the constraints of reality, actual dangers, or social and religious divisions. His pen allows him to be both dragoman, as well as spiritual guide; interpreter, as well as friar. Both guide and pilgrim ideally envision a unified figure who encompasses all the roles and has a guide’s authority, and tend to blur the boundaries between the spiritual and material spheres. Yet, while the author of the written guides embodies the different roles of the pilgrim guide throughout the entire tradition of the written itineraries, only in the nineteenth century do we learn of an actual, closer connection and collaboration between the
pathfinder and the spiritual guide. This leads us to the contemporary period where we observe that the guide merges into a single figure in the descriptive and prescriptive texts.

In a conversation with Padre Gianfranco Pinto Ostuni, whose insight opened this paper, he noted that the contemporary guide is “the man of the hour.” As sole leader it is up to him to decide on the spot whether or not to change a pre-defined itinerary, because of danger or political developments, or because he feels the group is more inclined to a different itinerary. Thus, over the centuries, the pathfinder and the mentor have coalesced in the figure of the priest-guide.

4. Conclusion

Returning to the roots of the guiding phenomenon, namely to the historical guide, we note a certain correlation between Erik Cohen’s four components of the modern tourist guide’s role (Cohen, 1985) and the roles that emerge from the descriptive historical texts. The role of the interpreter (dragoman) corresponds to both the instrumental component - he who leads the way and protects the pilgrims from danger (ibid., 11) - and to the interactionary component - he who mediates between the pilgrim and the local population (ibid., 13). The role of the spiritual guide corresponds somewhat to the communicative functions - namely the dissemination of knowledge and religious content (ibid., 14). Yet not all the aspects of the spiritual guide which we identified in the Itineraria belong to this category, such as liturgical and magical functions, which, as shown in this study, are supplied spontaneously by members of the group possessing those abilities. The social component (ibid., 12-13) - the role of an animator - is rarely mentioned in this genre, yet we did find reference to the spontaneous nomination of an animator. In our participant-observation of modern groups of pilgrims we noted an animator sometimes complementing the religious guide in the background. We also observed a shrinking of the role of the pathfinder, presently assumed by service-providers such as the bus driver, who, although transporting the pilgrims to the sites, has no real influence on the itinerary.
In conclusion, a study of the definition of the roles of the pilgrim guide in the historical *Itineraria* reveals a dynamic process. What determines this process are the pilgrims’ needs against the backdrop of the changing political, social, and religious conditions in the Holy Land. The *Itineraria* contain descriptions of the guide’s roles, both formal and informal. Whereas various roles were officially programmed and were provided by professional figures from outside the pilgrim group, others were created spontaneously during the pilgrimage and were provided by members of the group.

The official establishment of the priest-guide who combines the different historical roles can be perceived as the realization of an ideal expressed by the authors of the historical *Itineraria*. But, at the same time, in our eyes this marks the end of a dynamic process in which all functions have converged in the figure of the priest-guide, contributing to the greater passivity of the pilgrim participants. Looking beyond this study, which focused on the historical roots of the contemporary Catholic priest-guide and his interaction with his flock, an ethnographical study of the modern guide remains a desideratum.

5. References


Following the success of the previous four International Conferences on Tourism (ICOT) held in China, Greece and Cyprus and the support by the international scholarly community, the 5th ICOT conference will be held at the Department of Marketing, Branding and Tourism, Middlesex University in London, UK.

Conference Aims and Scope:

There has been a growing interest in tourism studies, which has resulted in implications for policies and practical recommendations for end users including practitioners, policy makers, the industry and tourists. Policy is particularly important in tourism due to its multi-faceted nature and the complexity in inter-organizational relations and collaborative policy-making. Moreover, policy implementation is important as many tourism plans and regulations are not applied or are only partially implemented. Some recent attempts of scholars to link their academic debates and empirical studies have focused on connecting marketing and branding research and practice adopting a global and more multidisciplinary approach, bringing the subject of tourism branding outside of the conventional domains of marketing and destinations. Special attention has been given to the role and expectations of the main tourism stakeholders, particularly residents, business, and government in the hosting community. In addition, theoretical considerations on the role of tourism as a tool for development-related public and private policies are followed by a methodological framework for tourism policy and governance and application of these in real-world situations.

Bearing all these questions in mind, this conference aims to add to this debate by stimulating discussion and exchange of ideas between tourism professionals, academics, researchers, policy-makers, consultants, practitioners, government officials and postgraduate students from all tourism-related fields.