

ICOT 2013

LIMASSOL, CYPRUS 5-8 JUNE



PROCEEDINGS OF THE INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON TOURISM (ICOT 2013)

Trends, Impacts and Policies on Sustainable
Tourism Development

Limassol, Cyprus 5-8 June 2013

EDITOR
Konstantinos Andriotis

Organised by:

**International
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Tourism Policy**



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Konstantinos Andriotis
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ISBN 978-9963-9799-2-9
ISSN 1986-4256

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CONFERENCE AIM

Most destinations worldwide have been, and continue to be, subject to tremendous visitor pressures with both positive and negative consequences. As a result much debate has been raised on whether tourism is beneficial for tourism destinations or whether tourism creates the seeds of a destination's destruction. However, there is still discussion on philosophical stances on which are the appropriate policies and management techniques to ameliorate tourism problems and achieve sustainable tourism development, as well as on the significant role played by the local government in the development of tourism. Bearing all these 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 topics of the conference include but are not limited to the following:

- Theoretical Perspectives on Sustainable Tourism
- Tourism Development, Policy and Planning
- Public Administration of Tourism Development
- Local Government Role and Responses to Sustainable Tourism Development
- Community Responses to Tourists and Tourism
- Economic/Social/Environmental/Cultural Impacts of Tourism
- European Union Policies for Sustainable Tourism
- Tourism Education and its Role in Managing Sustainable Tourism Development
- Alternative and Special Forms of Tourism
- Case Studies and Applied Research on Various Types and Forms of Sustainable 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
- Marketing and Management
- 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

Chairman

Konstantinos Andriotis, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus

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- George Agiomirgianakis, Hellenic Open University
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- Henry A. Eisenhart, Georgia Southern University, USA
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- Kevin Hannam, University of Sunderland, UK
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- Amos S. Ron, Kinneret College on the Sea of Galilee and Ashkelon College, Israel
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- Marcantonio Ruisi, University of Palermo, Italy

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- Antonis Theocharous, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus
- Anastasios Zopiatis, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus

KEYNOTE SPEAKERS

PROFESSOR DALLEN J. TIMOTHY



Dallen J. Timothy is Professor of Community Resources and Development at Arizona State University, USA. He is also Senior Sustainability Scientist and Director of the Tourism Development and Management Program at the same university. In addition, Dr Timothy holds three visiting professorships at the University of Sunderland, UK; Universiti Teknologi Mara in Selangor, Malaysia; and Indiana University, USA. He has authored or edited 22 books and more than 150 refereed journal articles and book chapters on many

different aspects of tourism. He and his work have appeared many times in the national and international media, and he is a frequent speaker at international conferences. He serves on the editorial boards of eleven international scholarly journals and is Editor in Chief of the *Journal of Heritage Tourism*. He is a commissioning editor of the Aspects of Tourism book series by Channel View Publications, serves on the executive board of the tourism group of the World Leisure Organization, and is Secretary of the International Geographical Union's Tourism Commission. Professor Timothy has research interests in almost all aspect of tourism, but he is currently working on projects related to religious tourism, intangible heritage, heritage cuisines, heritage trails, geopolitics and tourism, and cross-border cooperation. At this time he has ongoing research field work in Nepal, India, Israel, Mexico, Belize, Canada, Republic of Georgia, China, Malaysia, and various locations in Europe.

PROFESSOR DIMITRI IOANNIDES



Dimitri Ioannides, PhD is Chaired Professor of Human Geography at Mid-Sweden University and also Professor of Tourism Planning and Development at Missouri State University, USA. He holds a PhD in Urban Planning and Policy Development from Rutgers - The State University of New Jersey. For over 20 years, Professor Ioannides has explored various aspects relating to tourism including the dynamics of the sector's development in peripheral regions (including islands), the economic geography of tourism, and sustainable development issues. He has published a number of articles in journals of geography, planning, and tourism on a variety of aspects including conceptual pieces relating to the management of tourism's development in a sustainable manner. He has edited two books, including a volume on sustainable tourism development in Mediterranean islands and is a co-author of *Tourism in the USA* (2010, with Professor Dallen Timothy). Although in the past his research has looked mainly at the tensions between achieving economic growth and environmental protection in destinations he is now branching out to pay attention to the social equity aspects of sustainability. Currently, he devotes most of his research time to a study on low-end tourism workers. He is Series Editor for Ashgate's New Directions in Tourism Analysis Series and serves on the editorial boards of several journals including *Tourism Geographies* and *Current Issues in Tourism*. Professor Ioannides has lectured at several universities worldwide, including the University of Beijing, Auckland University of Technology, Indiana University, Rutgers University, Aalborg University, and the University of the Aegean. He was also a key participant in two major EU funded projects, one of which relates to tourism's spatial dimensions in Europe.

SESSION MODERATORS

- Nikolaos Boukas, European University, Cyprus
- Peter Cave, University of Central Lancashire, UK
- Nan Chen
- Athinodoros Chronis, California State University, USA
- Noga Collins-Kreiner, University of Haifa, Israel
- Travis W. Heggie, Bowling Green State University, USA
- Sotiris Hji-Avgoustis, Indiana University, USA
- Yechezkel Israeli, Kinneret College on the Sea of Galilee, Israel
- Jan Louise Jones, Southern Connecticut State University, USA
- Martinette Kruger, North West University, South Africa
- Evangelia Marinakou, *Royal University for Women, Bahrain*
- Neil Robinson, Salford University, UK
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- Marcantonio Ruisi, University of Palermo, Italy
- Craig Webster, The University of Nicosia, Cyprus
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- Anastasios Zopiatis, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus
- Deirdre Dragovich, University of Sydney, Australia
- Christina Koutra, Bournemouth University, UK
- Hamish Rennie, Lincoln University, New Zealand
- Nicos Rodosthenous, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus
- Vasillios Ziakas, European University, Cyprus

SCHEDULE AT A GLANCE

WEDNESDAY 5 JUNE 2013

15:00 - 18:30	Registration (The Andreas Themistocleous building, Cyprus University of Technology)
16:00 - 18.00	Guided Walking tour of Limassol
18:30 - 18:50	Welcome Speeches (The Andreas Themistocleous Building, Cyprus University of Technology)
18:50 - 19.00	Presentation by Stavros Hadjisavvas, Executive Director of the First Cyprus Tourism website: www.cyprushighlights.com <i>Title:</i> The Cyprus Tourism Product as a Whole
19:00 - 18:30	Welcome Reception (The Andreas Themistocleous building, Cyprus University of Technology)

THURSDAY 6 JUNE 2013

08:50 - 09:20	Keynote Speech by Prof. Dimitri Ioannides, Missouri State University, USA <i>Title:</i> What About the Tourism Workers? Exploring the Equity Dimension of Sustainable Development
09:20 - 11:00	Parallel Session 1 (rooms A, B, C)
11:00 - 11:30	Coffee Break
11.30 - 13.00	Parallel Session 2 (rooms A, B, C)
13:00 - 14:00	Light Lunch
14:00 - 15:30	Parallel Session 3 (rooms A, B, C)
15:30 - 16:00	Coffee Break
16:00 - 17:40	Parallel Session 4 (rooms A, B, C)
18:30 - 20:30	Visit and Treat at the Holy Metropolis of Limassol

FRIDAY 7 JUNE 2013

09:00 - 09:30	Keynote Speech by Prof. Dallen J. Timothy, Arizona State University, USA <i>Title:</i> Islands and Microstates - Tourism Opportunities and Challenges to Sustainable Growth
09:30 - 11:00	Parallel Session 1 (rooms A, B, C)
11:00 - 11:30	Coffee Break
11.30 - 13.00	Parallel Session 2 (rooms A, B, C)
13:00 - 14:00	Light Lunch
14:00 - 16:00	Parallel Session 3 (rooms A, B, C)
16:00 - 16:20	Coffee Break
16:00 - 17.00	Poster Presentations-Titles
16:20 - 16:30	Awards' Ceremony
16:30 - 16:40	The next conference (ICOT2014) - Dalian (China)
16:40 - 16:50	Closing from Dr. KonstantinosAndriotis (Cyprus University of Technology)
17:30 - 21:30	Half Day Trip andConference Dinner

SATURDAY 8 JUNE 2013

09:00 - 17:00	Daytrip - Villages and Places of Interest in Cyprus
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ISLANDS AND MICROSTATES: TOURISM OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES TO SUSTAINABLE GROWTH

KEYNOTE SPEECH: DALLEN J. TIMOTHY, ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY, USA

Islands are fragile ecosystems, and microstates are geopolitically and physically unique. Both are vulnerable to the vagaries of social and ecological processes. Tourism as a volatile economic sector is also vulnerable to forces outside the control of tourism developers and destination managers. This presentation examines many of the contemporary tourism challenges facing islands and microstates. In particular, it highlights global climate change, nature's forces, geopolitics, migration, land scarcity and land degradation, cultural heritage issues, and accessibility. Climate change and other natural forces have created conditions whereby low-lying islands are particularly vulnerable. Several island states are seeing the most poignant effects of global warming. As the seas and oceans rise these small countries are more prone to flooding and tropical storms, and some are in danger of disappearing completely in the next few generations. As well, there are a number of small islands that are divided by international boundaries. This creates unique situations that challenge ecological and cultural stability as different policies and laws on opposite sides of the border created imbalances in resource use and protection. For many island states, particularly in the Pacific and Caribbean, cultural heritage has become a less relevant concept than in mainland areas, as the remnants of native island peoples have long ago disappeared from the cultural landscapes of the islands. As a result, most insular nations have tended to focus more on the sun, sea and sand tourism product at the expense of heritage. While little remains of any built heritage in many small-island archipelagos, living heritage is beginning to thrive, and a few places are beginning to see the benefits of emphasizing both colonial and indigenous heritage in their development efforts. Non-island

microstates face many similar challenges, particularly issues of accessibility, land scarcity and geopolitics. All of these will be examined from a tourism perspective with heavy empirical examples from Europe, Asia and the Caribbean.

WHAT ABOUT THE TOURISM WORKERS? EXPLORING THE EQUITY DIMENSION OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

**KEYNOTE SPEECH: DIMITRI IOANNIDES, MID-
SWEDEN UNIVERSITY, SWEEDEN, AND MISSOURI
STATE UNIVERSITY, USA**

Discussions on sustainable development over the last quarter century have concentrated overwhelmingly on two key dimensions of the sustainability triangle, namely the need to generate economic growth in destinations while balancing this with the necessity to protect and manage key resources (both natural and human-built). Unfortunately, the third dimension of sustainability, the issue of equity has been largely ignored by most observers. A number of reasons exist for the relative inattention to matters of social justice as this presentation will note. The key focus of the talk will be on tourism workers, particularly the ones occupying the lower rungs of the employment ladder. Among others, I will discuss why these workers have such a low status in many destinations around the world and, importantly, why tourism in a world where neoliberal strategies dominate has rapidly evolved in one of the most inequitable sectors. Several issues shall be addressed including labor migration and mobility, the division of labor that characterizes the industry, and the difference between front-of-the-house and back-of-the-house work and the people who perform this. I will also reflect briefly on the need that tourist workers have to discipline themselves in face-to-face interactions with clients. A final part of the talk will concentrate on how, in times of crisis, issues of sustainable development - especially as they relate to equity and social justice are relegated to the backburner. I will also provide examples as to why strategies used by hotels in an effort to "green" their product might actually have a counterproductive result on the labor force. Ideas of improving the labor force through certification

schemes that focus specifically on fair standards in employment practices will be offered.

ESTIMATION OF THE CLIMATIC CHANGE IMPACT TO BEACH TOURISM: THE CASE OF A MASS TOURIST DESTINATION

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Foundation for Research and Technology, Greece

CONSTANTINE MANASAKIS

University of Crete, Greece

NIKOLAOS A. KAMPANIS

Foundation for Research and Technology, Greece

Tourism services are a key source of economic growth for the global market. Especially among the Mediterranean countries, tourism is one of the principal industries driving national economies. With the majority of the mass tourism activities concentrated around coastal areas, coastal erosion, inter alia, poses a significant threat to economies that depend heavily on revenues from tourism. The economic implications of beach erosion are mainly focused to the cost of coastal protection measures, abstaining from any revenue losses considerations. In this context, by using a joint environmental and economic evaluation approach, the vulnerability of the coast to sea level rise and the associated erosion is identified, in terms of expected land loss and economic activities. The aim is to provide a managerial tool to mitigate the impact of beach erosion in tourism. The empirical investigation considers the city of Rethymnon in the island of Crete as the study area.

1. Introduction

One of the consequences of the global climatic change is the loss of coastal land, an area where many human activities are concentrated, due to a potential sea-level rise and the associated erosion. On a global scale, sea level rise has been predicted to be in between 38 and 68cm for the year 2100 (IPCC, 2007). Sea-level rise over the next century is expected to contribute significantly to physical changes along shorelines, enhancing coastal erosion particularly on low-gradient coastal zones (e.g. Muhs et al., 2004). Coastal erosion results in three types of risks: (i) loss of land with economic value; (ii) destruction of natural coastal defences (e.g. dune system); and (iii) undermining of artificial coastal defenses, potentially leading to flood risk.

Across the Mediterranean, coastal erosion has been a longstanding, large-scale issue, especially to resort beaches (Pranzini and Williams, 2013). More than 40% of beaches in France, Italy and Spain have been found to be eroding in the EU project EuroSION (2004). According to the Atlas of Italian Beaches (Fierro and Ivaldi, 2001), 27% of the Italian beaches are retreating. In Greece, generalized coastal retreat has already affected tourist beaches (Alexandrakis et al., 2013). As most of the tourist activities in Greece are located on coastal areas, sea level rise poses a significant threat to tourist beaches and the associated revenues from the tourism industry.

Regarding policy-making, beach erosion has been a concern for coastal managers for decades. However, beach management has received scant attention in studies relating beach erosion and property values (Gopalakrishnan et al., 2011).

In this context, the questions that arise are the following: Is erosion control cost justified so as to avoid revenue losses from business activities in resort beaches? Can policy interventions for stabilizing shorelines be sustainable in the long run? And finally, to what extent can policy interventions be capitalized into tourism revenues? Answers to these questions require reliable estimates of economic and environmental factors put along the geographical space.

The objective of this project is twofold: Firstly, to estimate the economic impact of beach erosion in the revenues from business activities in resort beaches. Secondly, to develop a managerial

tool, though a joint environmental and economics approach, so as to mitigate the negative economic impact of beach erosion and suggest cost-benefit scenarios for planning alternative protection measures.

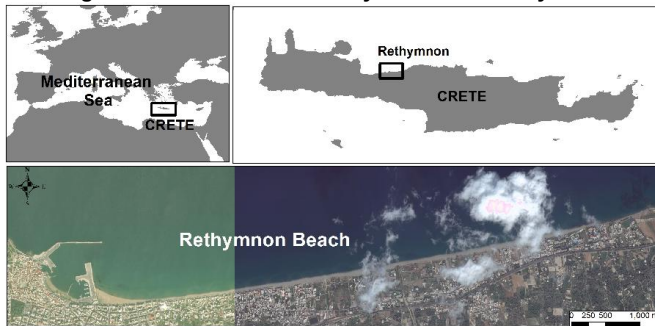
2. Study Area

The study area is the beach in front of the city of Rethymnon in the north coastline of Crete Isl., which is the largest Greek island and the fifth largest in the Mediterranean, with a population of approximately 603,000 inhabitants. Its coastline totals 1300 km, 15% of which consists of sandy beaches (Alexandrakis et al., 2013). In the last decades, Crete has become one of the most developed tourism destinations in the Mediterranean, attracting almost 2.8 million tourists annually (HNTO, 2008). Manasakis et al. (2013) cite evidence suggesting that the tourism industry of the island plays a leading role to its economic growth during the last decades. Moreover, it has consistently acted as the interface for strong inter-sectorial connections with further multiplying growth effects. It has been estimated that approximately 40% of the local population is, directly or indirectly, involved in the tourism industry (Anagnostopoulou et al., 1996). Briassoulis (2003) argues that tourism development in Crete started in the late 1960s when tourists were attracted to Greek destinations mostly for their natural and cultural attractions and local capital took advantage of state subsidizations for building large hotels. By 1981 the number of hotel beds had almost tripled in the island. Moreover, the “mass tourism” development paradigm followed in Crete led to sharp environmental stress, due to unequal seasonal and geographical distribution of activity, with 85% of tourist arrivals taking place from May to September on the north coasts of Crete (Andriotis and Vaughan, 2003). Today Crete holds a share of 25% of total foreign guest nights in Greece (HNTO, 2008).

The city of Rethymnon is situated at the northern coast of Crete and is the third town of the island, with about 40,000 inhabitants. In front of the city there is a sandy beach which provides a large number of hotel units of all categories as well as tourist facilities of all kind. In total, it has more than 200 accommodation establishments. The beach has 7,5 km length

and its width varies from 20 to 110 m (Figure 1), it has a West - East direction and receives waves induced predominately by the Northwestern, Northeastern and North origin winds. Northwestern winds are the most frequent, with an annual frequency of occurrence of 25.5%. Northern winds have an annual frequency of occurrence of 14.4% while the respective frequency of Northeastern winds is 3.0% (Soukissian et al., 2007).

Figure 1: The location of Rethymnon case study area



3. Methodological Approach

The estimations are based on a multipurpose approach, combining environmental and economic data. It is initially implemented through the estimation of the environmental characteristics of the study area and the estimation of the vulnerability to erosion of Rethymnon beach.

For this purpose, the Beach Vulnerability Index (BVI) (Alexandrakis et al., 2011) was used. It is a numerical approach of the parameters governing the sediment budget of beach zone and its evolution. It includes the natural processes of long-shore and cross shore sediment transport, the riverine inputs, the relative sea level change, the wave run-up and the aeolian sediment transport, also takes into account individual extreme events (e.g. storms), which often contribute considerably to the erosion of a particular beach. It characterizes those sections of a beach which are more liable to erosion.

Shoreline retreat has been estimated for time periods of 10, 20, and 30 years for the corresponding sea level rise of 0.038m, 0.076m and 0.116m, (A1B scenario of IPCC, 2007) with the use of Dean (1991) formula:

$$R_s = (S + 0.068H_b) \frac{W}{h_b + B} \quad (1)$$

Where: B : berm height, H_b : breaking height, S : relative sea level rise, W_b : profile length and d_b : breaking depth.

The economic value of beach width, which is capitalized in income from tourism business in vulnerable beaches, is estimated with the hedonic pricing method (Rosen, 1974). It is the most common method used to estimate the value of environmental amenities that are reflected in property values. More specifically, Beach Value (BV) is a function of:

$$BV = f(A, CBA, TA, W, U) \quad (2)$$

Where: A : Accommodation facilities (number of hotels, hotel beds, room price); CBA : Coastal Business Activities (number of enterprises that use the beach); TA : Tourism Area (beach area used for touristic activities); W : width of the beach; U : number of rental sun umbrellas.

3.1 Data

Three types of data are used: (a) Raw data, derived from maps and satellite images; field observations; laboratory analyses and economic features. (b) Analytical data, that are produced by analysing the previous categories and (c) thematic data, which, are created by interpreting the various types of data. In order to analyse large amounts of data in a variety of formats, produced by different methods, a database has been developed in a GIS form. The data used are shown in Table 1 along with the method used for their calculation. The econometric analyses were performed with the use of EViews 7.

Table 1: Data and method of calculation

		VARIABLES	METHOD
ENVIRONMENTAL	Profile length (m)	W	Field measurements
	Beach slope (degrees)	β	Field measurements
	Profile length subaerial (m)	W_s	Field measurements
	Maximum profile elevation (m)	B	Field measurements
	Wave breaking height (m)	H_b	Numerical modeling
	Wave braking angle (degrees)	α_b	Numerical modeling
	Significant wave height (m)	H_o	Numerical modeling
	Wave length (m)	L_o	Numerical modeling
	Wave period	T	Numerical modeling
	Wave run up (m)	R	Stockton et al. (2006)
	Sea level rise (m)	S	IPCC (2007)
	Closure depth (m)	h_c	Hallermeier (1981)
	Wind speed (m/sec)	U^*	Soukisian et al. (2007)
	River sediment flux (m ³ /year)	E	Hovius (1998)
	Fall velocity (m/sec)	w_s	van Rijn (1992)
	ECONOMIC	Grain size (subaqueous) (mm)	D_{50s}
Grain size (subaerial) (mm)		D_{50L}	Field measurements /Folk (1974)
Land value (€)		BV	Greek Economics Ministry (2006)
Coastal Business Activities		B	Field observations/Satellite images
Beach Area (m ²)		BA	Satellite images
Area used of touristic propose (€)		TA	Field observations/Satellite images
Hotel beds		HB	Web sources
Number of Hotels		H	Field observations/Web sources
Hotel room price*		E	Web sources
Number of sun umbrellas	U	Field observations/Satellite images	

4. Results and discussion

4.1 Econometric results

The Beach Value formulated in eq. (2) is estimated under eight specifications. First, the baseline values were estimated using ordinary least squares (OLS), for a semi-log and a double-log specification, treating beach width as exogenous. Then, the estimations were taken using two-stage least squares (2SLS) with the following instrumental variables for beach width: beach area; distance from the coastal road; beach attributes, e.g. existence of a dune field. Based on the statistical significance of

the variables, it proves that the value of the beach has the form of eq. (3) and the modeling results are presented in Table 2.

$$\ln(BV) = 4.67569 - 0.07643 \cdot \ln(CBA) - 0.30172 \cdot \ln(BW) + 0.85627 \cdot \ln(E) + 0.01950 \cdot H + 0.00140 \cdot HB + 0.54103 \cdot \ln(TA) - 0.36856 \cdot \ln(U) \quad (3)$$

The coefficients of the logarithmic expressions for Coastal Business Activities (CBA); Beach Width (BW), and number of sun Umbrellas (U) are negative. On the contrary, the coefficients of the logarithmic expressions for Tourist area (TA) and room price (E) are positive. The attributes of number of hotels and number of hotel beds are presented as non-logarithmic and their coefficients are positive.

Table2: Econometric specifications

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	4.67569***	0.3714	12.5902	0.0001
LOG(CBA)	-0.07643	0.0494	-1.5484	0.1655
LOG(BW)	-0.30172**	0.1194	-2.5263	0.0394
LOG(E)	0.85627***	0.0448	19.1186	0.0001
H	0.01950**	0.0063	3.0857	0.0177
HB	0.00140***	0.0002	9.1336	0.0001
LOG(TA)	0.54103***	0.1311	4.1284	0.0044
LOG(U)	-0.36856*	0.1667	-2.2115	0.0627
R-squared	0.99216***	Prob(F-statistic)		0.00001

Dependent Variable: LOG(BV)
White heteroskedasticity-consistent standard errors and covariance
*** Statistical significance at the 1% level ($p < 0.01$)
** Statistical significance at the 5% level ($p < 0.05$)
* Statistical significance at the 10% level ($p < 0.10$)

4.2 Vulnerability to erosion

The vulnerability to erosion was estimated with the use of the BVI method and the estimated values for each section of the beach zone are presented in Figure 2. The overall BVI values range from 25.27% (section 8) to 60.96% (section 4). The highest values are presented on the west and east parts of the beach zone while lower values are presented on the central parts.

Figure 2: Beach vulnerability values in each section of Rethymnon Beach



4.3 Shoreline retreat

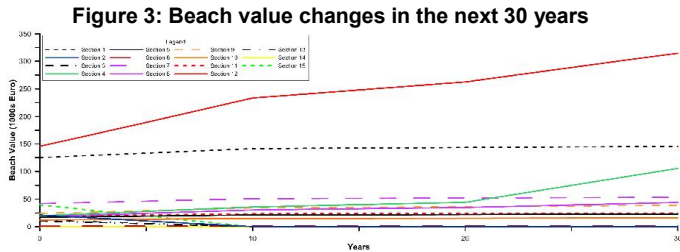
The estimated values of shoreline retreat for time periods of 10, 20 and 30 years in the each section of beach under investigation are given in Table 3. The estimations suggest that in sections 2, 3, 13, 14 and 15, the beach is expected to be totally eroded in the next 10 years, while in section 6 in the next 20 years. The other sections present a linear decrease in beach width. The largest shoreline retreat is presented in section 1 which is expected to have approximately 40% of the current beach width, after 30 years. The estimations for sections 5 to 10 suggest a reduced beach width to an average of 60% of their current state. In section 12, the beach width is estimated to be 2.65m, after 30 years, which is the 2% of the current situation.

Table 3: Changes in beach width for a 30 year period

Sections	Years			
	0	10	20	30
1	110	72.5	69.4	66.33
2	25	-	-	-
3	33	-	-	-
4	37	5.4	2.7	0.2
5	56	27.5	25.1	22.8
6	47	24.9	23.1	21.3
7	60	31.5	29.1	26.8
8	37	7.08	4.5	2.1
9	35	11.3	9.4	7.4
10	52	27.6	25.5	23.6
11	45	22.5	20.6	18.8
12	34	7.11	4.8	2.65
13	21	-	-	-
14	23	-	-	-
15	13	-	-	-

4.4 Estimate of economic loss in the next 100 years

Estimations for the economic loss in Rethymnon beach were performed for time periods of 10, 20 and 30 years in the each section of beach under investigation and are presented in Table 4. The estimations take into consideration the land loss in each section and the calculated value per m^2 for the beach area per section. Interestingly enough, the relevant estimations show that beach value increases as beach width decreases (Figure 3).



The biggest increase is presented in sections 4 and 12 where beach value (BV) in the next 30 years increases to 85.3×10^3 € and 169.0×10^3 € respectively. The decreasing beach width will result to losses in revenues from tourism business. Based on the beach value per m^2 in each section and the respected shore line retreat, it is estimated that in the next 10 years, the coastal erosion will result to revenue losses (RL) that will reach 94.6×10^3 €/m² each year (section 12). Note also that there are beach sections that are not expected to provide any revenues, since the coastal area will be totally eroded (sections 1, 2, 13, 14 and 15). As beach width deceases, for the next 30 years in section 12 revenue losses will reach 110.3×10^3 €/m² per year (Table 4).

Table 4: Revenue Losses (RL) and Beach Value (BV) in 1000s of euros per m² in each beach section

Sections	Years						
	Now	10		20		30	
	BV	BV	RL	BV	RL	BV	RL
1	124.9	141.5	56.6	143.5	61.4	145.4	66.1
2	21.6	-	21.6	-	-	-	-
3	10.5	-	10.5	-	-	-	-
4	20.2	36.0	18.8	44.3	20.4	105.5	21.9
5	17.5	21.7	10.8	22.3	11.7	22.9	25.5
6	0.8	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.0
7	41.9	50.9	23.4	52.1	25.4	53.4	27.3
8	18.6	30.6	11.2	35.0	12.2	44.1	13.1
9	24.4	34.3	12.5	36.4	13.6	39.0	14.6
10	12.7	15.3	5.6	15.7	6.1	16.1	6.5
11	19.3	23.7	9.2	24.4	10.1	25.1	10.8
12	145.7	233.6	94.6	262.5	102.6	314.6	110.3
13	12.5	-	12.5	-	-	-	-
14	0.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
15	39.7	-	39.7	-	-	-	-

5. Discussion

Climatic change and beach erosion can have various socioeconomic effects in beach tourism. There will be less coastal area available to host relevant tourist activities and several coastal businesses will lose their immediate accessibility to the beach. This can result in revenues and competitiveness losses related to nearby sections of the beach but also nearby tourist beaches. In the areas where beach width will be sufficient enough to be exploited, the increase of the value of the remaining beach can result to higher investment costs (e.g. municipality rental prices) and also losses from the exploitation of the beach.

Moreover, the degradation of the aesthetic of the beach in eroded areas can reduce the beach visibility and attraction rates, which, in turn, will reduce the revenues from the various tourism business activities located in the relevant area. Erosion phenomena can also be responsible for damages in tourist infrastructure and businesses, with can eventually increase the insurance cost against natural factors. Finally, beach erosion thought these effects will lead to an increased demand from stakeholders, for mitigation measures and coastal defense works.

Based on this analysis, mitigation measures and coastal defenses should be considered as part of a sustainable beach management plan, aiming at the preservation and sustainable development of coastal areas and resort beaches, facilitating their enjoyment by the public and their attractiveness for business of high added value. To attain the above objectives, it is important to understand past, present and future natural processes and to select solutions that will preserve the natural environment in a way increasing the potential of the area regarding its sustainable growth.

There are many engineering solutions addressing beach erosion but their comparison and final choice have to be undertaken in a cost-benefit framework. Hard engineering structures (e.g. seawalls, groynes, breakwaters) are expensive and reduce the beach aesthetic value. However, they may be necessary, especially if coastal erosion mean high value losses.

Soft engineering techniques, which are of lower cost and tend to work along with the natural processes, have less aesthetic influence and are more popular in the tourist industry. Among soft engineering techniques, beach nourishment has been used primarily for the benefit of the tourism industry. This is due to the fact that in a nourished beach, beach width is increased in a short period artificially and the tourist industry can exploit the result in a very short time. Especially, since the successful example of Miami Beach, in which in late 1970s, after the nourishment project and along with infrastructure improvements, the tourism industry had rejuvenated, after the severe losses caused from erosion in mid 1970s. In Miami Beach, the current annual revenue from foreign tourists alone is \$2.4 billion, about 50 times the \$52 million cost of the 20-year project (Houston, 2002). On the other hand, in Marina di Massa in Italy, the management plan has proven unsustainable since, due to bad planning and after the implementation of several hard and soft engineering techniques, beach erosion continued and tourism declined.

Based on the above discussion, it proves that beach erosion management plans can be sustainable, provided that all natural and socioeconomic attributes are appropriately considered.

6. Conclusions

Beach erosion is a serious concern for coastal economies that depend heavily on tourism revenue. As the beach width decreases, the value of the beach increases and makes the beach more difficult to allocate and manage. The increasing beach value and the reduced availability drive enterprises away and force them to change their model of growth. Wide beaches can provide benefits through storm protection and recreational amenity flow, but the magnitude of these benefits is yet to be fully understood. The value of beach width is, at least partly, capitalized in the tourism market, which is directly influenced by the dynamic physical processes that govern the coastal system. Climate change induced sea level rise and increased storminess dictate a systematic and delicate erosion control. A reliable estimate of the marginal value of beach width is a necessary initial step for the accurate benefit-cost analysis of erosion mitigation measures. Finally, future tourism investments in the coastal zone (e.g. marinas) should take into consideration the impact in the nearby area and future management plans on eroded tourist areas should take into consideration all natural and socioeconomic processes.

Acknowledgements

George Alexandrakis was supported by the Action "Supporting Postdoctoral Researchers" of the Operational Program "Education and Lifelong Learning" (Action's Beneficiary: General Secretariat for Research and Technology), and is co-financed by the European Social Fund (ESF) and the Greek State. Constantine Manasakis acknowledges the support by the COST Action IS1104 "The EU in the new economic complex geography: models, tools and policy evaluation".

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ECO-TOURISM IN BRUNEI: A HOLISTIC ANALYSIS ON A COUNTRY NEW TO THE FIELD OF TOURISM

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Brunei, a country new to the field of tourism, plans to diversify its economy and develop eco-tourism. This paper tries to understand its current tourism situation as well as to define and analyze to what extent the principles of eco-tourism are being followed. A qualitative case study approach based on semi-structured interviews and participant observation was applied in spring 2013. The results indicate that only parts of the principles of genuine eco-tourism are being met with the social dimension being the most difficult one to fulfill. It is currently lacking a sufficient involvement of the local community in the decision making as well as communication among the different stakeholders involved. To face these socio-cultural and political challenges it is recommended to establish a national eco-tourism certification program, an eco-tourism forum for all stakeholders and to conduct focus groups to better involve the local communities into the decision making process.

1. Introduction

Brunei is a unique Islamic sultanate located on the North-Western coast of Borneo. By developing eco-tourism, Brunei plans to diversify their economy away from the export of oil and gas currently resulting in 95% of its GDP (Euromonitor, 2013).

Eco-tourism is a way to protect their often pristine rainforest covering 81% of the country's surface (BFD, 2012). It also helps to showcase their unique culture based on different ethnic groups including several indigenous tribes. The first eco-tourism project in Brunei started in the region of Temburong, where also the first national park, the Ulu Tembuong National park (1991) is located (Borneo Tours, 2007). It is the 6th most visited place in Brunei receiving over 10`000 people every year (BTD and Research and Statistics Unit 2013). The members of the local communities living in the villages close by the national park mainly belong to the Iban tribe. The Iban, often known as the head-hunters, are the largest ethnic community in neighboring Sarawak, Malaysia, but only a minority in Brunei (US Department of State, 2011).

To the authors understanding, there exists only limited research on eco-tourism analyzing a country as a whole including its socio-cultural-political environment. On Brunei specifically nearly no research in regards to tourism exists. It is however a unique place to analyze, as it is considered a developing country while at the same time very wealthy, with one of the highest PPP (UNDP, 2013). This makes it one of the few places on earth where eco-tourism is just starting to be developed without any pressing need for it to generate revenue. This study therefore aims to analyze to what extent the principles of eco-tourism are being followed in Brunei and more precisely the Temburong district, with a special focus on the sociocultural aspect of eco-tourism and its relation with the local community.

2. Eco-tourism:A Theoretical Foundation

Tourism is one of the largest industries worldwide and often seen as a great labor intensive tool for development. The quantity and manner in which tourists are visiting a place can, however, be an enormous social and physical burden (Honey, 2008). The negative effects mass tourism often has on the culture and nature of a place have been heavily criticized resulting in the search for a more sustainable form of tourism. Sustainable tourism, built on three pillars: economic, environmental and social, reaches sustainability when the benefits outweigh the cost in every area (UNEP, 2005). Out of the different alternatives to mass tourism eco-tourism is often seen as the most sustainable

one, as does not only provide recreational activities but also aims at benefiting conservation and people in the host country (Honey, 2008). Newsome, Moore and Dowling (2001) illustrate this nicely by ranking the different types of nature tourism and their level of sustainability based on the role the environment plays for them. In the case of eco-tourism, an activity is not just taking place *in* the environment, nor *about* the environment but it is *for* the environment, attempting to conserve it.

The problem is that eco-tourism is often not performed to its full meaning resulting in green-washing. It is therefore important to not only look at eco-tourism as a theory but also to define the principles that need to be followed to put it into practice. The author believes that one of the best definitions of eco-tourism comes from Marta Honey:

Eco-tourism is travel to fragile, pristine, and usually protected areas that strive to be low impact and (often) small scale. It helps to educate the traveler, provides funds for conservation, directly benefits the economic development and political empowerment of local communities, and fosters respect for different cultures and for human rights. (2008: 33)

Based on the TIES (The International Eco-tourism Society) principles of eco-tourism (TIES, 1990) Honey (2008) developed seven characteristics that need to be taken into consideration when analyzing a country's or a region's performance in eco-tourism. These are:

1. Travel to natural destinations
2. Minimize impact
3. Build environmental awareness
4. Provide direct financial benefits for conservation
5. Provide financial benefits and empowerment for local people
6. Respect local culture
7. Support human rights and democratic movements

Several other authors have researched some of those principles in detail (Fennell and Weaver, 2005; Dawson, 2008; Cole, 2006; UNEP, 2005). The author believes that especially the last three principles covering the social aspect of eco-tourism and its relationship with the local community need some further explanation.

Tourism can potentially have a very negative impact on a host society, commodifying its culture (Mc Laren, 2003). The local community however, plays a very important role in eco-tourism. They do not only provide goods and services but they are themselves part of the eco-tourism product. For the success or failure of a project their satisfaction plays therefore an important role (Horochofski and Moisey, 2008) as they will support it if they feel that they are benefiting from it (Horochofski and Moisey, 2008).

The most obvious types of benefits for a community are economic. This might be through jobs or also by getting the possibility to sell local products or develop local businesses (Ahmad, 2011). Apart from income also other, tangible benefits such as potable water, roads or health clinics should help improving the quality of life of local communities (Honey, 2008).

There are, however, certain economic risks involved such as an increased cost of living or a dependency of local communities on the industry (Spenceley, 2008). Often a large amount of the benefits even leave the host community due to so called leakages resulting from an external capital control (Walpole and Goodwin, 2000).

In addition governments, funding agencies, NGO's as well as multi-lateral agencies agree that apart from making sure eco-tourism benefits the communities it is also very important to involve and let them participate in order to reach sustainable development (Kumar, 2002). By integrating them in the tourism industry the benefits for them increase and respond better to their needs (Cole, 2006; Moisey and Mc Cool, 2008).

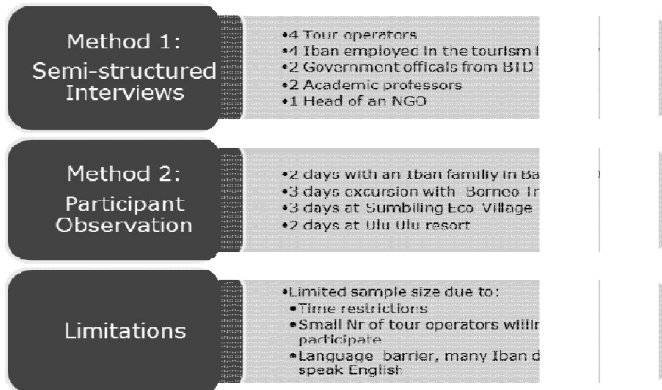
Pretty (1995) explained the different levels of participation among a local community. He defined that participation can go from passive to the control of the people but also be pretense or manipulative. Kumar agrees by stating: "while participation by manipulation and passive participation can disempower community, both interactive participation and participation by self-mobilization can be highly empowering" (2002: 26).

Oakley (1991) identified three different types of obstacles to the empowerment of the local community: structural, administrative and social. Structural obstacles are mainly related to the political environment of a country, which might be more supportive or hindering when trying to involve the local community. An administrative obstacle is a centralized

government with a centralized administrative structure controlling all decision making processes and resource allocation, making it time consuming to get any information. Social obstacles are generally given by a mentality of dependence, culture of silence or the domination of local elite that hinder the community's participation.

Another very important principle is the respect of the local culture. Tourism often threatens to change values or behaviours and to westernize a local culture resulting in a loss of indigenous identity and changes in the traditional lifestyle, ceremonies and values (UNEP, 2005). Eco-tourism, being less culturally intrusive and exploitative than conventional tourism, has the potential to revitalize the cultural heritage of a place (Honey, 2008). This is because the interest of tourists in the culture of a place can increase the pride of villagers over their own cultural inheritance (Cole, 2006).

Figure1: Methods and Limitations



This can provide incentives for the government to support indigenous people's traditional customs and values, by recognizing, protecting and respecting their sites and enhancing the legitimacy of traditional knowledge (Moisey and McCool, 2008).

A part from these 7 principles stakeholders need to cooperate in order to perform genuine eco-tourism and respect those

principles (Fennell and Weaver, 2005). We have seen previously that a partnership with the local community is imperative. However, that is not enough, for a good implementation of the principles of eco-tourism, all stakeholders, government, tour operators, NGO and park agencies need to cooperate. To improve communication, the constructive attitude of participants, trust and the diffusion of power as well as to reduce misunderstandings, stakeholders should meet on a regular basis and discuss all tourism related issues (Cole, 2006).

Based on several authors (Budowski, 1976; Valentine, 1997; Mc Cool and Moisey, 2008a; Cater and Lowman, 1994), it was seen that the three major stakeholders; government, tour operators and the local community need to work closely together in order to reach a common understanding of the term sustainability and their goals.

3. Research Design

The data for this study were collected through a qualitative case study approach. During one month of field research in Brunei the two methods, semi-structured interviews and participant observation were applied (Figure 1). In order to take into consideration the opinion of different stakeholders of eco-tourism interviews were conducted with tour-operators offering eco-tourism products, members of the indigenous tribe of Iban working in the tourism industry, government representatives involved in the development of eco-tourism in Brunei, academics familiar with Brunei and the concept of eco-tourism as well as NGO's. In total 13 interviews took place, including 3 women and 10 men ranging from the age of 19 to 70 years. All interviews took place in English in either the office or home of the interviewee and were recorded and transcribed. Additionally the researcher accompanied three tour-operators during several days on their eco-tourism trips in the region of Temburong observing the interaction between tour operators, Iban and tourists.

The data available from interview transcriptions, participant observation as well as secondary data was then analysed and reported in themes. The interpretation and interrelation of these topics was organised following Honey's framework of 7 principles

of eco-tourism (2008) for the analysis in a country, adding other relevant topics such as the cooperation of all stakeholders.

4. Results

The results from the research have shown tourism is something rather new in Brunei with very limited amounts of people who visit the country. Brunei is so far offering around 2000 rooms in the whole country and mass tourism has therefore never been a threat (BTD, n.d.). At the same time, because of its minimal scale, a large amount of Bruneians and especially the rural population have a very limited or no understanding at all of what tourism is.

The results from the analysis of Brunei based on the 7 principles of eco-tourism by Honey (2008) are summarised in Figure 2, assessing the fulfilment of each criteria.

As seen before the literature suggests that, for eco-tourism to be successful it is essential that different stakeholders cooperate (Fennel and Weaver, 2005). For the Temburong region the main stakeholders are the villagers living there, the tour operators offering products and the government providing rules and regulations. The governmental structure in Brunei is very complex with several different ministries. Concerning eco-tourism in the Temburong district there are three main governmental forces involved. Firstly, the Brunei Forestry Department, which manages and provides all guidelines for the UluTemburong National Park. Secondly, under the Ministry of Primary Resources, there is the Brunei Tourism Department, which is responsible for the promotion of tourism activities as well as the development of new products. Finally, there is the Ministry of Culture, Youth and Sports, which helps studying and conserving the indigenous cultures.

Finally when looking at the relationship between the different stakeholders, one can see that there is still space for improvement. Figure 3 summarises the conflicts and common interests among the different stakeholders that were identified. Between the tourism industry and the environment there are definitely benefits for both parties involved, with nature being the main attraction of Brunei, and the interest in it helping to raise money and protect it. There is, however, a lack of communication

and cooperation between the different stakeholders. Overall, everyone seems to benefit. The local villages are very happy about the tourists coming. The environment is also benefiting with more and more measures being taken to protect it (i.e. UNESCO heritage sites, national parks). Finally, for the third stakeholder, the tourism industry, or more specifically the tour-operators, eco-tourism brings a possibility to create products and attract travelers.

Figure 2: Honey's 7 principle of eco-tourism - the case of Brunei








<p>1. Travel to a natural destinations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Involves a visit of to the Ulu Temburong National park, one of the most significant eco-diversity hotspots of the world. 	
<p>2. Minimize impact</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ There is only a limited Nr of buildings and all built in a sustainable way, using local material. ✓ Rubbish is properly disposed and mainly regional products such as vegetables and fish from the rainforest and river are used for cooking. ✓ The number of visitors/ day is not limited but so far less than 30 guests visit the national park each day. ✓ Generally visitors are briefed by the tour operators on how to act .So far no negative behaviour has been noted. 	
<p>3. Build environmental awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Eco-tourism should include educational elements, usually provided by the tour guides. Tour guides do not give enough, nor coherent information. * There is a lack of training among tour guides with the courses offered by the government not reaching the Iban in Temburong. 	
<p>4. Provide direct financial benefits for conservation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Eco-tourism should include conservational elements. The entrance fee of 5 Brunei Dollar does not seem enough to protect the environment. * Many trails are in a very bad condition or have decomposed. 	
<p>5. Provide financial benefits and empowerment for local people</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Eco-tourism helped to improve the quality of life in the Iban villages ✓ Presence of tourists accelerated the governmental support on infrastructure ✓ Generated employment with financial benefits generally well spread among members of a village. * The majority of Ibans are only working as service providers not being involved in any decision making. * Only passive participation due to social obstacles such as the political system, culture of silence and domination of the local elite as well as a lack of knowledge about tourism and different work ethics on the side of the Iban. 	
<p>6. Respect local culture</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ In Brunei traditional culture is dying and replaced by the western one, eco-tourism helps to reinvent culture. ✓ Young Iban are keen to learn about their traditions, plants and animals and are proud to show this knowledge to tourists. 	
<p>7. Support human rights and democratic movements</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Eco-tourism helps fostering the involvement of Iban into the decision making process . ✓ It also helped to improve the quality of life of the Iban, their pride over their origins and their role in society. 	

Figure 3: Common interests and conflicts among the different stakeholders

	Iban's perception	Government's perception	Tour operators' perception
Iban	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The Iban among them seem to be well organized with their village councils and heads. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Realizes the importance of involving local communities. ✓ Wants to support and advise them and encourages them to operate businesses themselves. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Tries involving the communities mainly the Iban working with them but also other members of the village (i.e. village head) ✗ Feels there is a lack of interest among Iban in revitalizing local traditions (handicraft)
Government	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✗ Feel the government is very centralized and does not involve the Iban into tourism planning ✗ They do not feel supported by the government. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✗ The government in itself is very complex with different ministries involved in eco-tourism. ✗ No integrated planning resulting in conflicting ideas and institutional fragmentation. ✓ Has been recognized with the creation of the Brunei Board of Tourism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✗ Would wish some more support to improve their business. ✓ Feel that they regularly meet with the government and get well supported in regards to marketing their products.
Tour operators	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Generally like the tour operators and appreciate the employment opportunities. ✗ Improving cooperation, but rather passive local participation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Checking on the quality of tour operators. ✗ Recognize lack of quality for tour guiding. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✗ Could meet through the Brunei Association of Travel Agencies. Do so very seldom, only in the case of a conflict. ✗ Conflicts due to "stealing" of guests, villages to cooperate etc.

5. Conclusion

The aim of this study was to better understand the current situation of Brunei in regards to tourism and analyze its performance in eco-tourism especially focusing on the social dimension.

This review concludes that there is definitely real potential for the development of genuine eco-tourism due to the unique characteristics of Brunei. Its large pristine rainforest, living and fascinating culture, the authenticity of the place, the fact that it has never been a mass tourism destination, the strict rules and regulations and the governmental funds available are all great preconditions for eco-tourism. However, genuine eco-tourism consists of a large list of requirements resulting in a promising but very demanding academic concept. As Walpole and Goodwin (2000) noted correctly, the concept of eco-tourism is much easier to prescribe than to actually practice.

What is often forgotten is the role the socio-cultural-political settings can play. As the case of Brunei shows they often form some of the main obstacles in the development of eco-tourism.

At its current stage eco-tourism in Brunei has not yet fulfilled all the criteria's of genuine eco-tourism, with its main problem being the limited empowerment of the local communities. This is, Brunei being an absolute Monarchy, partly due to the hindering political and cultural environment. The consultation of the society and their involvement into the decision making process has never been practiced. As a result the requirement of eco-tourism to include and empower local communities is something very new and villagers are, even if asked, not used to give their opinion. At the same time the lack of knowledge about tourism, or more specifically eco-tourism, the limited educational level, language barrier and sometimes the differing work ethics also complicate the participation of local communities. Moreover, the integration of communities fully depends on the cooperation of all stakeholders. As this study shows there is currently a large space for improvement. The lack of communication and information exchange between stakeholders' results in misunderstandings and the absence of a long-term strategy everyone knows about and aims for.

A second principle Brunei is currently weak at is the educational element eco-tourism should include. This is not that strongly related to the socio-cultural-political impacts but to the newness of eco-tourism in the country. The amount of information made available by the tour guides vary from one operator to another and explanations are sometimes contradictory. The field research showed that this is largely due to a lack of training and quality controls. The bureaucratic business

environment and the complexity of the political structure with several departments involved in eco-tourism further prevent quick adaptations and implementations of processes.

As a result Brunei is still far from offering genuine eco-tourism and its development shows to be very slow. Due to their gas and oil reserves the country is under no economic pressure, as it is the case for many other developing countries with an economy heavily relying on fast tourism development. This shows having its positive sides as it allows Brunei to reflect on and constantly rethink the strategies and avoid pitfalls and mistakes other countries have made.

Finally the author believes that Brunei still has a long way to go in order to achieve genuine eco-tourism. As this paper illustrates, already the intention, enthusiasm and commitment of several stakeholders to develop eco-tourism can benefit a region as it is the case of the Iban and the environment in the district of Temburong.

The quality of life of the Iban improved with eco-tourism providing new employment opportunities, improving the infrastructure, improving their role in society as well as fostering pride over and reinventing their culture. These economic, social, cultural and political benefits eco-tourism generated are being relatively equally spread among all members of the villages.

The focus on eco-tourism in the country also provides another argument for the protection of the rainforests covering four-fifths of Brunei's surface.

All in all, it can therefore be seen that genuine eco-tourism is a never-ending journey with a constant search for improvement in order to reach sustainability by protecting the environment, benefiting and empowering the local community and generating economic benefits. It is a hard and challenging goal but it is worth to pursue as it is probably the only way Brunei can diversify its economy into tourism without damaging its cultural and natural heritage in the long term.

6. Recommendations

The findings of this study show that eco-tourism is a challenging case, encountering many obstacles especially

because it involves human beings. Recommendations for Brunei, as well as any country with similar difficulties are the following:

The creation of a national eco-tourism certification program would greatly benefit the country by raising environmental standards as well as customer service and therefore improving the overall quality of the products offered. This might currently, with the limited amount of tour operators, not seem to be necessary but especially in the future when the amount of visitors as well as product offers might grow it facilitates the control.

An eco-tourism forum should be established where all stakeholders become members. This will facilitate the communication and exchange of information, and encourage cooperation. All members should benefit from newsletters about best practices and training opportunities. Finally, this forum should provide a platform for discussion and inputs in regards to the development of eco-tourism.

Tour-operators as well as the government should start conducting focus groups in order to help the local communities better understand eco-tourism, ask them for their opinions and encourage their participation and critical thinking.

7. Limitations and Further Research

This study was able to gather some primary information and opinions on eco-tourism in Brunei. The interviews conducted are however by far not representative for Brunei as a whole or even the region of Temburong. No conclusion in regards to gender, age, educational or ethical background can be reached. In a further research study it would therefore be interesting to conduct questionnaires in order to get a representative sample. In this study only Iban working in eco-tourism have been interviewed, other villagers, not at all involved, should also be asked for their opinion. Due to the time constraint only the Temburong region and the Ibans living there were analysed. Brunei has however many other regions, cultures and villages that are trying to get started in eco-tourism. An investigation of these places as well as the view of the tourists would help to generate a more complete picture of eco-tourism in Brunei.

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IMPACT OF THE LACK OF SECURITY ON HOTEL OCCUPANCY IN ACAPULCO, MEXICO

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Tourism as a boost of the natural and culture heritage is an axiom of behaviors and an important motor of economic the boom to Acapulco and therefore, consumption of spaces and landscapes emerge as pleasure and haventerritories faces a new paradigm of unexpected consequences when trying to survive in violent scenarios. The objective of the research is to analyze the impacts of insecurity on the Acapulco hotel occupancy, examining tourist flows, employment, crime and government credibility on a port that has suffered changes in the perception of its tourist image. The findings demonstrate that insecurity has collapsed the economy to a declining hotel occupancy in 2008 that reached 54.4% to 48% in 2012 of the 18 000 hotel rooms, affecting the development of tourism, a crisis that is expressed in closure of hotels and unemployment.

1. Introduction

The port of Acapulco in the 50's of the XX century was a quiet little village, rich in tradition, with a strong cultural identity and a stunning natural environment (Gomez and Aldama, 2007). In the 70's Acapulco was already recognized nationally and internationally as a tourist destination, this boom resulted in an increase in the 80's which brought continued growth requiring unique and independent urban attention at different times. As a result three geographical areas became defined in a natural way without an equitable provision of services to meet the needs of

mass tourism. Among the effects of this transformation are: changes in the landscape, social stress and pollution, consequence from rapid growth without planning (Tourism Secretary,2010).

As noted by (Gordon, 2002) this type of tourism boom has as a main characteristic; an uneven growth.This uneven growth causes slums in the outskirts of the city emerging social and criminal problems.Most notably where the young are easy prey for organized crime groups who recruit for the transfer and sale of illegal drugs; generating disputes between drug cartels who distribute across the country including tourist destinations and transfer to the United States power structures built for murder, execute, kill cruelly, to intimidate, creating panic among the local population and thus altering the destination's tourism image.

Acapulco Tourism development has severely changed natural geography; huge blocks give way to concrete building symbols of prosperity of the big cities.With 242 lodging establishments and 18000 hotel rooms, (compendium statistics of Acapulco, 2012) that by many years fed into government plans that "tourism would be the trigger" to eliminate the backlog and poverty of the population. Insisting that this would increase the levels of income of the population and create a blend of wealth, Acapulco"remains the main tourist strip, engaging income and the poverty remains behind the hills" (Avilez and Chavarria, 2011:2).

Acapulco is a destination with full tourism vocation receiving over 9 million visitors a year, thus it is of utmost importance to monitor the implications of violence in the developed known tourist areas and its impacts on the tourism image. According (Albuquerque and McElroy, 1999) the floating population of tourists on an international level is particularly sensitive to security issues; the perception of safety or not of a destination area can influence the decision to travel and the repetition or recommendation thereof.

Equally, during their stay, a visitor can fall victim to perpetrators of violence, which has resulted in countries such as the United States issuing travel warnings to some Mexican destinations including Acapulco. The United States is the largest emitter of international tourists with a destination to Mexico and essentially Acapulco where 70% of its economy depends on tourism flows from both domestic and foreign travelers.

The decline in tourist activity is evidenced by (Monroy, 2010) who quoting Luis A. Coppola J. President of the Senate Committee on Tourism in Mexico, says it was 11.28%, considered the worst decline in 27 years. The same source indicates that 67% of travelers from the United States and 81% of those in Canada report that their first reason not to visit Mexico is feeling unsafe.

2. The Tourist Image Affected by Violence

In several states of the Mexican Republic signs of violence were noticed since the first decade of the XX1 century. However, Acapulco in the state of Guerrero shows the first signs of notable violence in 2009 with the deterioration in socialization. Harmonious and peaceful coexistence of the population declines as crimes such as robbery, assault and kidnapping escalate with the aggravating circumstance that murders and executions of citizens are consumed throughout the geography of the city.

Why Mexico's violent picture emerges? According to (Aguilar and Castañeda, 2012:14) Felipe Calderón, President of Mexico (2006-2012) "decided to declare war on the drug cartels to legitimate his election as president of the Mexican republic was preceded by little transparency, by what President Calderon decided without necessity and foundation, for the war and announced that, that way he will end the cartels, violence and drug use".

It is not isolated or rare events, but a situation that becomes repetitive in everyday life. In the structure of society tolerating different manifestations, the mass media, nationally and internationally seem to have allowed continued reporting of crimes in Mexico. (Fannely, 2013) says that Acapulco has sheltered hotel companies in the world. Port that has been exploited in all its attractions by Intercontinental Hotel Group, Starwood and Wyndham Worldwide Corporation. Furthermore, Acapulco has seen its reputation damaged by the current security issues, so that violence is having a negative impact on the tourism sector.

According to the (compendium statistics of Acapulco, 2012:55) Acapulco has shown a strong downward trend in hotel occupancy, seriously jeopardizing the industry and the city that

depends significantly on tourist flows. This trend keeps lodging establishments in a financial crisis, threatening the jobs of thousands workers and firms in an equilibrium point of barely for the survival of the hotel sector as shown below.

Table 1: Acapulco hotel occupancy

	2009	2010	2011	2012
January	54.9	53.9	53.7	45.0
February	56.2	50.9	47.1	43.2
March	51.2	52.7	43.7	42.9
April	59.2	53.6	52.2	60.1
May	36.6	52.3	42.3	45.6
June	38.0	35.6	33.8	40.2
July	59.8	57.9	55.8	65.4
August	52.0	52.9	45.1	51.0
September	32.4	33.2	27.0	37.3
October	34.2	34.6	30.7	36.4
November	46.3	44.9	37.2	47.1
December	53.2	53.2	54.4	60.4
Annual Occupancy	47.80%	48.00%	43.70%	48.00%

Since 2009, Acapulco has seen an increase in violence by common crime and organized crime. This violence has its own characteristics, causes and circumstances. It is characterized by cruelty, revenge, the display of power and the intention to intimidate those who are considered rivals and the whole society is seen in the anguish and helplessness of being a victim at any time.

Some of the most common criminal activities in this context are: drug trafficking, kidnapping, human trafficking, money laundering, various types of extortion, auto theft and intimidation executions, which inevitably impact tourism flows in a community which was once a vibrant host to travelers.

The activities of organized crime are not new, they have deep roots in corruption and the impunity that is offered by the authorities is failing the city as a whole.

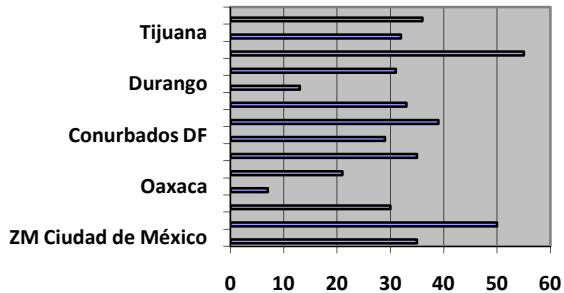
It is very regrettable and reprehensible, can not live on violence and understand that it is a social problem where the federal, state and municipal governments must work hard in the area of insecurity (Interview with Luis Walton mayor of Acapulco in 2013).

Perhaps for many years it was not as obvious as it is now; the cruel violence perpetrated on victims and on society. Ignoring that Acapulco is highly dependent on tourism flows, indulges the government to not recognize the state of emergency Acapulco is in. As a result of government tolerance of impunity and corruption according to (Soto, 1996:56) says that "impunity is the lack of punishment"

Strafford Consulting firm in its report (2012) states that Acapulco has become the most violent city in Mexico, with approximately 143 homicides per 100,000 people in 2012. Once the city experienced a massive consistent decline in tourism, residents began to take precautionary measures not to leave home after 6 pm. The city then issued a catalog of recommendations of precautionary measures to residents in response to their concern about the low number of tourists which automatically put the city in a state of siege.

The tourism industry and the organizations involved in tourism deeply regret that violence has been encountered. If at the time, omission, indifference, dissimulation or collaboration of public agencies was not tolerated the impacts of those decisions on local residents would not have resulted in now having to avoid promoting social responsibility to citizens and merchants who have decided to change cities or change economic activity for fear of violence as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Affectation in economic matter.



Source: Citizens' Institute for Studies on Insecurity A.C. (CIOSI) (2012).

The Index 33.5% of changes in the activities for fear of being victims of crime affects businesses forcing them to close. The fall of national and international tourism resulted in hotels at port locations laying off 60% of workers to reduce costs caused by lack of income (Knight, 2012).

The domestic tourism decline is a result of the ravages of insecurity that have deteriorated Acapulco's tourism image and lack of support from the Federal Ministry of Tourism, have been key to record a serious crisis in some hotels in Acapulco, which has forced to lay off staff, suspend operations until the closing of hotels (Interview with Javier Saldivar president of the Chamber of Commerce of Acapulco in 2011).

Stratford, a private American security consultant reports that port locations such as Acapulco and Manzanillo are increasing the violence, as several cartels are fighting for control of the same areas. Due to the low economic value of navigation and tourism through these areas, they have become perfect for money laundering, transfer of drugs, preparation of amphetamines, smuggling Asian products, and so forth.

The dispute between the drug cartels over more favorable territories, not only for cultivation, but for the production of synthetic drugs and drug dealing has led to clashes between criminal groups and has implemented the evil trade of the gunmen, who are hired to assassinate both to maintain control of the territory, and for settling scores. According to Salmeron (2013):

Although not many hotels have closed, we are paying half the wages to the workers, without the cooperation of the unions, we would otherwise have massive closures. We have reason to hope there will be a continuous improvement (p.19).

Organized crime to extend the reach of their influence has corrupted people and groups in society, as well as large and small businesses. To neutralize the intervention of authority, avoiding it, anticipating it, or distracting it, also have corrupted

public servants have infiltrated the structure of the various levels of government.

However, the cost of the Mexican government to address the drug has been immense

If you consider the damage to Mexico's image and tourist destinations, since it is difficult to justify the enormous human and material resources expended, the dramatic rise in violence and the terrible damage to Mexico's image in the world, caused by the war waged by the Mexican government against the drug when it was known beforehand that its resources were superior to those of the country(Aguilar and Castañeda, 2012:135).

3. Tourism is an Essential Activity for the Economy of the City

The economy is one of the areas in which you must find the factors that contribute to the existence of organized violence. Inequality and social exclusion, poverty, unemployment, low wages, discrimination, forced migration and inhuman levels of life, exposed to violence many people.

In a municipality with full tourist potential and millions of annual visitors is of utmost importance to monitor the implications of violence. The floating population, tourists are particularly sensitive to security issues, the perception of safety or otherwise of a destination can influence the decision to travel, or the repetition or recommendation thereof. Similarly, during their stay, visitors can be involved in the role of victims or perpetrators of violence. According to Pierre (2013) violence exists because we are violent, but also because we are unjust, because there is much corruption, because there is a lot of poverty.

Acapulco historically has been divided into three geographical areas, the first area called traditional or historical area that was the genesis of Acapulco, however, is the golden zone where the largest number of hotel rooms with 9733 hotel rooms that accounts for 54% of the number of quarters of fate, despite this most area businesses Acapulco Golden living an economic recession and this has been proven housing prices, selling

clothes and restaurants, which are plummet to the extent that most retailers offer discounts of up to 60 percent.

On a tour of the main tourist strip of the city is noted that several businesses offer low prices for their products and services. Knight (2013) requires that the gold zone lives a permanent devaluation. Only the strongest companies are surviving, while medium and small financial and operational juggle to survive with permanent discounts throughout the year, it is unacceptable and outrageous that only in 2011, nearly 800 have closed business.

There are more stores selling beer, taquerias and bars of environment degradation in the golden area art stores, jewelry, crafts and glamorous restaurants (Interview with Pablo Romero, President of the Chamber of the Industry of Transformation in 2013).

4. Government Credibility and Actions to Mitigate the Perception of Insecurity

For many years the police in Mexico are handled at the discretion and taste of each state, to the extent have been counted more than 1600 bodies that police acting under a lax regulations have led to the deterioration of the image of the country but especially that of tourist destinations that only in two thousand and twelve managed to attract about twenty-three million visitors and economic benefit uptake that exceeded twelve billion dollars, placing the tourism sector as the third source of foreign exchange for Mexico (SECTUR, 2013).

According to (Mansfeld and Pizam, 2006) security incidents are related to tourism and can destabilize and force it to operate with high risk and uncertainty, so it is necessary to discuss the subject in a multidimensional and develop a theory to provide explanations and predictions causal relations with other phenomena insecurity as: demand, motivations, behaviors of victims, timing, location to establish mitigation measures.

Among the few studies available on tourism and violence are some gain that connection in terms of a narco economy and in other cases under a clear complicity of institutional protection (Duffy, 2000), which throws into question the regulatory role of

the Mexican state, is easy to find on social networking internet thousands of entries to blogs narcos, profuse newspaper articles, few research reports, links Mexico, organized crime and tourism and it is possible to identify some major conditioning systems, as the penetration of the global economy, with money laundering amount between three and five percent global GDP (Gilbert, 2010; Barone and Masciandaro, 2008).

5. Conclusions

The obvious faults and dislocation that have been revealed through consecutive gun killings exclusive use of the army, do nothing to demerit the massive collusion between police authorities explained that given the disarray in which are handled, now face drug cartels and thugs that threaten to undermine all authority established for many years tolerated, protected and profited from illegal activities that exploit the inefficiency, lack of security expertise that governments are obliged to provide such certainty quality of life for all Mexicans and their visitors are now crossing borders to penetrate and get to know culture, cuisine and hospitality for many years has been touted as a Mexican own hospitable and friendly.

The country's geography is threatened at least, they are the organized crime groups that disrupts violating the structure of state and national governments that have violated clearly to meet course objectives outlawed. Several national magazines and newspapers have given strong evidence of how members of the military high trained and trained by the Mexican government where apparently enjoyed high salaries and privileges appropriate to their elite, now have defected to join the drug gangs that have impeded the ability government protection, guided by the greed of the millions of dollars that inexplicably cross across the country.

In these circumstances even though most Mexicans have this uncertainty and anxiety most highly vulnerable sector is the tourism sector, as a tourist has thousands of choices around the planet to decide where to spend their resources or spend days of recreation or vacation that will ensure the safety, tranquility now in the State of Guerrero and tourist destinations can not provide at

the inability of authorities unreliable or inexperienced in handling security essential to tourism destinations.

The positioning of a tourism product as beaches, colonial cities and prehispanic sites in the mind of the potential consumer can take years to build and that insecurity can destroy in a matter of days left alone or abandoned tourist destinations to a purely local demand as is the case Acapulco that despite its national and international reputation today is unbalanced by the constant crimes under recurrent remain impunity across geography of Guerrero.

The tourist image of a country can generate certainty to encourage citizens of the world to visit her to cross borders, to deal with a language and customs that under the constant promotional stimuli are encouraged to move those potential travelers to bring the economic resources to spend those obtained in other latitudes come to constitute the economic benefit of destinations creating wealth and prosperity that can be suddenly paralyzed or restrained to be directed to other routes or destinations to ensure their safety, poverty and chronic unemployment in those places who failed to safeguard the integrity of the property and its owners.

Distrust is conducive to acts causing insecurity are a huge burden that can lead tourist destinations for many years, as a negative or comments can prevail more definitely in the minds of people and undermine good tourism image formed by positive actions of its citizens and dismantled in a short time by unscrupulous humans can threaten millions and generating benefits only a few.

Unfortunately the state of Guerrero and tourist destinations already have this heavy burden of problems that have accumulated over a period of extremely short time and has finally been capitalized by large wholesale agencies, travel agencies, wholesalers who have achieved gradually decrement hotel rates to make the destination unprofitable for scarce benefits and profitability you get to the vicious cycle of fewer tourists, lower hotel occupancy reflected extensively on poverty and unemployment for Guerrero and Acapulqueños in particular.

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MANAGING A COMBINED USE OF NATURAL AND CULTURAL LANDSCAPES IN MEXICO FOR TOURISM AS KEY FOR LOCAL DEVELOPMENT

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We present the case of Izúcar de Matamoros Valley, a place in the south of the State of Puebla. This province in central Mexico meets several characteristics that make it potentially rich for sustainable tourism development. In our area of study, we found both a set of expectations and limitations. This paper is intended to make a model. We list both sides: potential and challenges in order to serve as a framework of analysis for different regions in which there is the same scenario: a rich cultural landscape that poses a great potential and requires different kind of solution. This paper attempts to present a list of tasks and to propose an agenda for regional tourism development. In addition to identifying the main challenges we are facing this activity. Our paper brings up proposals for the improvement of local tourism and ameliorating the quality of life in the area.

1. Introduction

Natural and cultural landscapes, cultural landscape, archaeological, architectural, and industrial heritage; seems an impossible puzzle to assemble. The use of this vast range of possibilities is seen as a major challenge, it is no less the coordinating efforts of the three levels of government that exist in Mexico. (Federal, state and municipal) Moreover, the participation of the public and private operators is another

factors to consider inescapably. How to achieve this if we do not start to show them? This short essay seeks to take this step, while making the list of factors and a hierarchy of putting it into action.

2. The Natural Landscape

As natural scenery can be seen all geographical space where human presence and activity is absent or restricted to traffic without intervention (OECD, 2001; Newson, Moore and Dowling, 2012). The literature emphasizes good practice to limit the impact of tourism in protected areas so that it is sustainable. In other words, it would be contradictory to talk about tourism in protected areas. In the Izúcar de Matamoros valley exist important areas with a high value ecotourism but the areas need that a declaration as protected areas. Even in the valley of Izúcar de Matamoros, an inventory of biotic resources is necessary urgently (Martínez-Carrasco and Ibarra, 2011).

The first step has been taken, the Department of Urban Development and land use in the municipality of Izúcar de Matamoros is clear about these needs and their dimensions were defined spatially on the maps produced for this office. Because the confidentiality of these documents, we can't publish this important figures.

However, it is necessary to establish guidelines for cooperation between the municipal body, experts, associations and institutions. This implies an interdisciplinary work that strengthens the performance of public administration at the same time the link with the higher education system. This task requires the participation of specialists from the University of Puebla and her Botanical Garden, the College of Architecture, Civil Engineering, and of course, Tourism and Gastronomy schools.

Another important and very difficult problem to solve is related to some prevailing routines in political culture of the country. We took of the lack of continuity between the public administrations of all levels. At the municipal level of our analysis the problem is of the brevity of government: in just three years. This means that large development projects require more encouragement than three years to take place, are not achievable. Every administration seeks to carry out projects involving short

deadlines of one or two years. It will be difficult to change the practice of self-promotion of members of the Mexican political class that, even with the administrations issued from the same political parties. Always, political men looking for to make their own public works while dropping previously launched projects. Their goal is pretending to show their own virtues leaving aside works initiated by a different political actor. A possible solution will be on the increase in the length of municipal administrations. This would allow for the development of big projects, not only those requiring execution times greater than two years. The increase in the length of municipal administrations also brings time to capture revenue; certainly that means more resources.

In the case of the municipality of Izúcar de Matamoros indeed, they are urgent tasks in order to transform the image of the historic centre. That means the refurbishment of existing roads, streets, pedestrian walkways in the banks, and bridges over the beautiful Nexapa River. These important public works can take advantage of the natural beauty of the river along the Izucar town and stop living behind this lovely view. These enormous works require not only an important amount of money. Maybe the hardest challenge is to solve legal problems such as the invasion of the federal zone of the banks of this splendid river by individuals how had been housing then paperless. However, we can say that the economic and political effort is worth it if we think of the results in the short and long terms.

3. Theoretical Overview on the Cultural Landscape

The Izúcar de Matamoros Valley is characterized by its semi-tropical climate, its fertile cane fields, crossed by several rivers and their environment surrounded by hills with a low forest and rangelands. Beyond the limits of the municipality of the same name rest the Epatlán lagoon with fish production and legends like the mermaid that lives and watch this natural beauty.

This environment, example of a human-nature interaction of several centuries, requires registration work of local knowledge about plants, animals, local legends like the siren and development proposals hostels, viewpoints, etc, in its many natural places, the courses of rivers, canals and aqueducts.

The study of landscape has requires interdisciplinary work. The first use of what we now call cultural landscape dates back to the pioneering work of Carl Sauer (1925). This method of analysis involves human or cultural events, the study of geography, the physical facts, natural resources translated into social, (such as agricultural land use), periods of transformation of the landscape and its processes (Jakob, 2009: 46-52).

These actions involving inventory and cataloguing of all this potential, i.e. tasks developing these resources are short and medium term where you can involve stakeholders in the region, to the holders of local knowledge. One such project of inventory can generate jobs for residents. The idea is not only open spaces for recreation for visitors but above all for the inhabitants of the towns so as to generate inter-regional, social spaces, family life, outdoor sports like hiking, backpacking, mountain biking, fishing etc. A world like that is highly desirable but not impossible.

Obviously, it is also necessary specialists from academia, individual farmers, community organizations, farmers groups and local government levels as Auxiliary Boards and municipal offices.

4. Methodological Approach

Interdisciplinary and inter institutional work is the key to manage the whole challenges of tourist development in our study case. We can account in the interest of municipal authorities, academic experts in ethnology, anthropology, biology, Architecture, and tourism managerial public school. Obviously, this is a teamwork that involves several interests. Our paper and participation in ICOT 2013 congress was possible thanks to the support of the University of Puebla. But this is just the first step in the definition of the task agenda. At the moment we collect existing information and scientific works and we start the impulse and assessing of specialized researching of participating students who can obtain a degree in the different fields from my position of member of National Research System (Mexico) and registered Researcher of the University of Puebla, in the State of Puebla. We also call as necessary too the establishment of a state agency responsible for collecting funds, with powers to propose drafts in the Puebla Heritage rescue and conservation.

An office like this need to exist above periods of municipal and state governments because their duties have some long term to realize.

5. Archaeological, Architectural and Industrial Heritage

The potential richest of our case study is related to the cultural landscape and the very diverse tangible and intangible heritage.

First is to consider remaining archaeological ruins of the first nations that inhabited the valley. Tepapayeca ruins are quite well known (García Moll, 1993). But there are many other sites with remains in children hood requiring more detailed records and a careful reading to prevent loss (Armella-Spitalier, 2008). During the time of Spanish colonization, the most important indigenous Manor related to the new elites of European origin. Even the agricultural wealth attracted the establishment of institutions of the Catholic Church and Spanish agricultural entrepreneurs. This colonization had transforming existing power structures, brought European material civilization of the time with new farming techniques and marketing products that remain high today as sugarcane. From this period remain monumental works of religious architecture (Paredes Martínez, 1991).

The most famous monuments are the whole former convent of Santo Domingo and the parish of St. James. However, the list of buildings is broader and also comprising former convent hospital of San Juan de Dios and former convent of the Franciscan Third Order, as well as the respective houses of the 14 indigenous neighbourhoods that made up the city at the colonial era and the temple dedicated to Lord of Calvary built on a nearby hill.

But equally noteworthy are undoubtedly the imposing ruins of old farms, an impressive series of 14 establishments in this valley (Sánchez Cruz, 2007). These buildings dating from the seventeenth century expect their remains are known, even the beautiful landscapes and contexts that surround them. This set of magnificent buildings can play the role of a real magnet for visitors, bringing an added value to the tours in the region. It is highly likely that once palpable visitor growth in the best

preserved old buildings, the recovery of the remains and ruins of others is given naturally.

Similarly, when recovered buildings will be ready operating as a transit stops for hikers, this will naturally induce its restoration to become hotels and restaurants. That's happens in the famous Yucatan peninsula where the almost one thousand abandoned sisal haciendas start to be transformed in hotels in 1992. Today we have a range of luxury inns connected as network of tourist resorts.

In this way we have not only the necessary investment for restoration and transmission to future generations, but also to enrich the cultural and recreation possibilities in the region. With this proposal we do not want to give an impression of that being embroidering in the air. The Izúcar de Matamoros Valley is in a strategic geographical position, that's makes, it easily accessible from major cities like Mexico and Puebla. These two major urban centres are actually the main tourist market.

Actually the big question is that: How to increase the tourist flow to give prominence at the potential of this Izúcar de Matamoros valley and its region? We joint here some elements for an initial strategy as proposal for public policy. Tourism, as we know, is the fastest way to improve local development but it needs strategic actions in order to give the transforming touch at reasonable costs (Palafox Muñoz, 2005).

6. Strategies and Synergies to Boost Tourism Potential

In this section we propose a series of options and opportunities for regional tourism development (Balanzá, 2004). It should be noted that although the emphasis is on city of Izúcar de Matamoros, the valley of the same name is composed of different municipalities. However, the same type of landscape and climate exist in mostly of the area.

Among some strategies that can produce a multiplier effect, we can make a list starting the definition of routes and tracks. The great diversity of elements, both natural landscape, cultural heritage, archaeological, architectural and industrial heritage, as well as festivals and religious traditions with local cuisine are an intangible cultural heritage, let raise an equally diverse range of

routes (Abellán Cebrian, 2008) These can be defined based on specific themes or integrate activities combined, either with visits to the archaeological, architectural, spas, landscapes and natural areas, as well as the nearby Epatlán lagoon, etc. The design of these pathways obviously depends on the geographical location of each site. The sequence of the sites included in the tours and the definition of issues, increases the chances of supply routes for different types of visitors.

In the specific case of Izúcar de Matamoros Valley, the existence of 14 old buildings and abandoned sugar plantations in the middle of territory is a real network of attractions, but it need restoring old properties in order to condition them as hostels and restaurants. However, the restoration of these monuments, despite how urgent it is, involves middle-class investments. The interesting thing here is that such investments commendable addition to the works of rescue and preservation of heritage, are likely to become profitable when used as resting sites such as recreational or sporting activities. And every one of the old farms has different arrangement and requires a specific project that achieves both the restoration and the respectful use of built spaces (Bergeron, 1996). In terms of its conservation status of our loved heritage, we can note the following from our visits and Cruz (2007) data.

In the very beginning we have 6 haciendas totally ruined abandoned. That means the haciendas of La Magdalena Tepeojuma, of San Pedro Mártir Ballinas, Hacienda de San Guillermo Jaltepec, Hacienda de San Cosme y San Damián, hacienda de San Juan Atotonilco Raboso and the almost disappeared hacienda of San Andrés. In these cases their rescue and conservation as well as costly is some urgency.

Then we have 5 more abandoned haciendas but whose sets retain most of their buildings so they can be recovered almost completely. In this case we have the haciendas of San José Teruel, San Juan Colón, San Felix Rijo, San Lucas Matlala, and San Nicolás Tolentino.

In a third group we have the haciendas in partial or total use of the old buildings, in this case is the former estate of Tatetla Holy Spirit, where works today a Rum Factory belonging to the Bacardi Corporation. It is also the case of Hacienda Atencingo where one of the highest performing mills in the country's sugar production. Finally is the case of the estate of Amatitlanes where

a spa which unfortunately has not taken advantage of the beauty of the old building.

The possibilities are endless; these places can have spaces for restaurants, inns, hotels, places of outdoor recreation, spas, hiking shelters, etc. (Alfrey and Putnam, 2013). Obviously it is necessary to conduct strategic planning to optimize resources, which provides that investments necessarily gradual produce benefits that are re-investible in continuous improvement and increase of the attractions. Obviously, this series so wide of ancient buildings require very large investments so that must be performed in different stages. This fact leads to the need to consider another aspect: the participation of the different levels of authority. This important task needs that combine work of state tourism office with municipal governments.

In this section we briefly mention aspects of legal and governance. These instances should be support for these regional development efforts and are the only ones with the ability to update the laws protecting historical and cultural heritage and to bring public finances in the infrastructure of the community.

The legal status of each set is crucial to ensure the investments required in the work of rescue and preservation of this old industrial heritage. Several cause that led to the abandonment of the old farms. Some were of a technical nature when left to operate the facility with which they had. Others were political-social when they are seized agricultural land for distribution to peasants, leaving the costly maintenance resources of the huge buildings. Currently, the real issue is securing the property of each of these historical monuments confidence conducive for investments rescue and conditioning of this heritage. In addition to the necessary laws that protect these buildings for their cultural and historical value, it is necessary to clear the property of each set. This means having very clearly what is private property and which have the status of state property seized. This classification is crucial to define the source of funding.

At the same time, it is necessary to establish a state agency responsible for collecting funds, with powers to propose draft Puebla Heritage rescue and conservation of which is above periods of municipal and state governments. As projects rescue are short, medium and some long-range beyond 3 years of

municipal administration and 6 of state administration. Naturally, an organism like that responsibilities require approval by the State Congress and a clear definition of its purposes, founding, powers and autonomy. For such a momentous work should be recognized by the state authorities of the importance of rescue, and conservation of cultural heritage. This involves not just a nostalgic point of view and even romantic. The preservation and transmission of cultural wealth we see in this case also as a lever of economic development tourism, strengthening local cultural life and quality of life for everybody.

Without state participation determined with the legislation, the regulatory and investment in infrastructure for the communities involved; wealth and tourism potential of the region will continue only in that, in the potential. At the risk of sounding alarmist, consider that if the estate is not redeemed within a short period, it will continue to deteriorate, at risk of disappearing and this loss is the cancelation of one good via that's can strengthening the development of new sources of wealth.

But how we can plan local development without involving farmers associations?

This section is very specific, it is a call to bring the inhabitants of the region, especially the ejidatarios and their organizations (Pierson, 2007). This implies participation of local workers from the cleanup and rescue of the sets in ruins until the formation of cooperatives to operate the properties owned by these groups. While training to do work in hospitality and tourism management (Berger et al, 2010), it is also necessary to help people appreciate their natural and cultural landscape in which they and their ancestors have influenced. Our list of participants seem endless, but it's even necessary involve tours agencies. Obviously, part of the strategic planning of the rescue and recovery projects of regional cultural heritage, is determining when you can invite wholesale travel agencies to include the proposed routes in our case of study in their promotions (Martínez and Benjamín, 2005).

Also we can say that it is impossible to have all the investment needed for this huge work in one step. Similarly, the development of tourist routes will be strengthened with visitor flows that gradually begin to incorporate, so that there is always an invitation to return and discover more and more the richness

of the cultural landscape of the beautiful valley of Izúcar de Matamoros.

7. Final Thoughts

The Matamoros Valley has an enormous potential in attractive, natural beauty and traces of human settlement dating back to pre-Hispanic times. Academic studies such as this seeks help define and enhance several possibilities of the thematic routes, specially the enormous and important industrial heritage of the region. However, it is necessary a combined development policy where federal, state, as municipal governments participate and, of course, the population of the villages living in the area. We start the first step and seek forward for the participation of convoluted participants.

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ORGANIZATIONAL AND SOCIO-CULTURAL FACTORS INFLUENCING HOTELPARTICIPATION IN A SUSTAINABLE PROJECT IN BALI, INDONESIA

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A recycling project by Caritas in Bali aims at purchasing used cooking oil from hotels, transforming it into biodiesel and selling it back to the hotels for their generators. However, many hotels are reluctant to participate in the project. The purpose of this study is to identify the hotel' motivations in choosing not to participate in the project and the socio-cultural and organizational factors influencing it. The author obtained data by carrying out a field research and semi-structured interviews with high-class, chain-affiliated hotels in Bali. Several challenges were identified and it was concluded that the main recommendation for a successful realization of the project in Bali is to implement a community-based approach. The research discloses potential threats and difficulties in similar projects and adds information on the willingness of companies to support green projects.

1. Introduction

Bali, a volcanic island in Indonesia, has experienced massive touristic growth from 30000 tourist arrivals in 1970 to 7.6 million in 2011 (BPS Provinsi Bali, 2012). This growth benefited the Balinese population with employment opportunities and regional development. However, it also had an adverse impact on the local communities and on the island since it contributed to

environmental pollution and the deterioration of natural and cultural resources (Exotic Property Magazine, 2009; Tang, 2004).

In response to the environmental and health issues caused by the waste management of the tourism industry in Bali, Caritas Switzerland, a Swiss based non-governmental organization, has launched a recycling project (Sertori, 2011). Caritas buys and collects used cooking oil from hotels and restaurants. The used cooking oil is transported to Caritas' recycling plant in northern Denpasar, where the oil is chemically and mechanically filtered and transformed into biodiesel (Christensen, 2012; Nurhayati, 2012). This biodiesel is resold to the participating hotels as industrial diesel that can be used for hotel generators. The hotels therefore benefit from reduced carbon emissions and are able to advertise their sustainability efforts in their annual reports. The project moreover protects the local environment by regulating the disposal of used cooking oil. Furthermore many oil collectors sell the used cooking oil to middlemen. Some of them illegally refine and mix the used cooking oil so that it appears to be new cooking oil (Biodiesel Magazine, 2013). This oil is sold on the local market to Warungs, which are small food stalls that reuse and reheat it for food production. As a result the reheated oil presents a significant health risk to the public which is minimized through the oil regulation of the project (Christensen, 2012; Sertori, 2011). The social aspect of the project is that Caritas employs socially marginalized people from the lowest economic strata of Bali's society in the non-profit social enterprise called Lengis Hijau which ensures the continuity of the project.

2. Problem Statement and Research Question

Even though the hotels and the Balinese environment benefit from the project, a major challenge for the project team was - and still is - to convince the hotels and restaurants to participate. Currently a sufficient number of hotels and restaurants participate in the project and in January 2013 Caritas started transforming the used cooking oil into biodiesel (Nurhayati, 2012). However, fewer hotels than expected have been willing to join the project resulting in not enough amount of used cooking oil for the project to be economically successful (Caritas Switzerland, 2011).

The purpose of this research is to investigate the socio-cultural and organizational reasons for the hotels' reluctance to participate. The research question is: "To what extent do socio-cultural and organizational factors impact the project?" The objectives are to analyze Caritas' project in Bali, Indonesia; to give an overview of organizational decision-making factors in hotels; to provide an insight into underlying cultural and societal factors and to assess their impact on the project and the decisions made by the hotels.

3. Literature Review

Organizational decision-making to participate in a sustainable project depends on internal and external drivers. The degree of environmental commitment is significant. This commitment depends internally on organizational objectives and characteristics (Bonilla-Priego et al., 2011; Poudyal et al., 2012) as well as on priorities, vision, mission and policy statements of a company (MacLean and Abeel, 2011). Especially the decision-making of hotels is highly dependent on the personal motivation of the management team (Tzschentke et al., 2008). An internal barrier for decision making is the threat of change. Individuals may resist change because they have worked in a company for a long time and are afraid to abandon established behavior (Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2007).

The main external drivers influencing organizational decision-making and participation in projects are legitimization, stakeholder pressure (Henriques and Sadorsky, 1999) and environmental regulations (Kirk, 1995). Legitimization means that penalties and reputation damage can be avoided through environmental actions. Participation in a sustainable project can thus reduce risks (MacLean and Abeel, 2011) and improve the image of the hotel. In general, environmental regulations are drivers for sustainable practices. Since in developing countries environmental regulations are not prioritized, being secondary to poverty reduction and economic growth (Euromonitor International, 2012), the government struggles to enforce them (Flodman Becker, 2004). In Indonesia, the national law on waste management was only adopted in 2007 and there is no

regulation on the disposal of used cooking oil (Sertori, 2011). Another external driver is stakeholder pressure for greener behavior which is increasing; nevertheless developing countries lack government pressure and the experience and resources to tackle environmental problems (Kasim, 2009). In Indonesia, the most influential pressure is religious and social pressure from the family, the community and the neighborhood (Martin and Thomas, 2002).

Important factors influencing the project are socio-cultural factors. They are analyzed with the nine dimensions identified by the GLOBE Project Team: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future, human and performance orientation as well as institutional and in-group collectivism (Chhokar et al., 2007). This set of dimensions is according to Connerley and Pedersen (2005) the most comprehensive set and extends Geert Hofstede's four cultural dimensions.

The Indonesian society is organized in rigid hierarchies with age and status as main characteristics (Lee, 2007). Existing power relations are not questioned (The Hofstede Center, n.d.) and decision-making is centralized (Martin and Thomas, 2002). Indonesians try to avoid conflicts driven by the desire for a harmonious lifestyle (Irawanto, 2009). So, they do not show negative emotions and communicate indirectly and ambiguously, meaning that they would never refuse by saying "no" (Foss, 2009; Lange, 2010). In addition, they are short-term orientated and the future is considered secondary. Therefore they live without planning and focus on achieving quick results and short-term gains (Ruppert, 2004).

Indonesia is a collectivist society where the interests of families and communities are more important than individualism (Dickson et al., 2001; Irawanto, 2009). Hence, many positions within companies and business deals are awarded to group or family members (Martin and Thomas, 2002). This implies nepotism and collusion (Robertson-Snape, 1999). The collectivism leads to groupthink which is a phenomenon of poor decision-making within a deeply involved group (Johnson, 2001). Communities in Bali are powerful structures, such as the *Banjar* which is the civil community. This structure not only unifies the group and families, but also rescues the cultural heritage from destruction through mass tourism. Even though several

generations of families have lived in urban Bali, the traditional *Banjar* still plays an important role in their life. This community involvement is embedded in the cultural heritage of the island and supported by the Hindu religion (Lietaer and DeMeulenaere, 2003). Due to this consistent system and structure, the Balinese have the ability to borrow suitable foreign values and maintain their identity at the same time (Picard, 1990).

4. Methodology

Qualitative research explains social aspects, cultural differences, opinions and attitudes (Joubish et al., 2011). It increases the possibility of gaining an understanding of the research subject (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000) and is essential, when explaining human actions (Genzuk, 2003). Therefore the qualitative research approach is considered appropriate for this research, as the factors influencing the hotels' decision-making are not yet clearly identified. Semi-structured interviews and six weeks of field research in Bali must therefore be conducted in order to understand the context of the project and the Balinese cultural behavior. The interviews are based on the organizational factors identified in the literature review while the cultural analysis relies on the field research.

To understand the factors for the reluctance to participate in the project, only high-class chain-affiliated hotels that had already been contacted by Caritas and were unwilling to join the project were included in the sample. These hotels were chosen for their category, their internationality or their affiliation to a chain, because businesses with varying characteristics have different attitudes towards sustainable initiatives (Álvarez Gil et al., 2001; Claver-Cortes et al., 2007; Poudyal et al., 2012).

15 interviews with 19 representatives were conducted. 14 of them were face-to-face interviews and one was carried out by email-conversation due to time constraints. 13 interviews were conducted with hotel management staff and 2 with Caritas representatives. The field research in Bali included site visits to the recycling plant in Denpasar and hotel visits with Caritas to familiarize with the project.

With the audio tape recordings the quotations for the thematic analysis were identified. Summaries about the themes discussed

in the interviews were created and the quotations coded (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Further codes from the observational data were integrated in the analysis. These codes were then clustered into themes starting with basic themes moving towards global themes (Attride-Stirling, 2001).

5. Analysis

A major challenge for Caritas and the researcher was to communicate with the hotel representatives. It became evident that communication behaviors in Bali differ greatly from those in Western countries. The representatives gave ambiguous answers to Caritas and to the researcher in order to avoid conflicts (Irawanto, 2009; The Hofstede Center, n.d.). For example they never refused to participate in the project by answering “no” in order not to upset anybody (Lee, 2007; Ruppert, 2004). This led to confusions during the interviews.

Another difficult fact was the constant change of the contact persons. Several times the researcher or Caritas were redirected from one to another employee which illustrates an Indonesian cultural characteristic: Indonesians do not like to take decisions or initiatives (Martin and Thomas, 2002). No manager felt responsible for the project since sustainability was not mentioned in his job description. Responsibility shirking is probably more pronounced because of the hierarchical structure and the society's centralized system of decision-making. Moreover the hotel representatives did not discuss the project internally with the management. So many decision-makers in the hotel did not know about the project due to an internal communication gap.

Balinese are not aware of the urgency of the oil issue. Half of the interviewees stated however that other things are more urgent. This lack of environmental awareness influences the project negatively. According to Kirk (1995) states that environmental awareness is not the decision factor but hotels generally implement sustainable practices only when they receive a direct financial benefit. In the informal economy in Bali, the collectors pay for collecting the waste and sell it to middlemen (Flodman Becker, 2004; Tang, 2004). This is a source of revenue for the hotel and for the collectors. So there is no financial incentive to participate in the project either.

The ability of a company to implement changes is essential for organizational decision-making. For the hotels in Bali it is a challenge to implement internal changes as employees are working for a long time at the same place. They are loyal to the hotel. Hotel representatives tend to support their staff and do therefore not participate in the project, as in collectivist societies employees' interests are protected and the hotel prefers not to upset the staff with changes (Irawanto, 2009).

Henriques and Sadorski (1999) and Thomas-Hope (1998) agree that stakeholder pressure is a way of bringing about changes in sustainability management. Yet, Indonesians want to be in harmony and there is a lack of urgency (Foss, 2009; Lange, 2010). The interviews revealed that pressure from associations and from the government is lacking, but the support to implement sustainable measures is there. The only influential pressure is from Balinese religious and social networks (Ruppert, 2004).

Even though the hotels are located in urban areas, the community in Bali is so significant that many traditional relationships have survived the external influences of urbanization and mass tourism (Lietaer and DeMeulenaere, 2003). Consequently, the majority of Balinese work within the circle of their family and community. To support them, business deals in or with hotels are made within that group. For example in eight of thirteen interviewed hotels the used cooking oil was sold by the kitchen team to the community (Mr. Muhadir, Human Resources Manager, personal communication, March 19, 2013). From groupthink results that a highly involved group is taking poor decisions to support each other. In this case it is not the most sustainable and economic decision to sell the used cooking oil to personal contacts within the community.

In addition, those business deals have an impact on the *Suka Duka* of the hotels which is another outcome of this collectivist society. *Suka Duka* is a specific concept which may only exist in Bali. It refers to a group-organization set up in the villages of Bali, which is now used by the hotel employees for internal matters. Some call it an employee welfare organization (Nurhayati, 2012). Generally in hotels, *Suka Duka* appears in the food and beverage and housekeeping departments due to the high number of staff and high percentage of locals (Mr. Widy, Accounting Manager, personal communication, March 20, 2013). Each month, a representative collects money from every member. This money,

together with the money from the sale of the used cooking oil, plastic bottles, etc. is gathered in a fund and shared for *Suka Duka* "good and bad times". Mostly it is used for *Duka* "sadness", which means that the staff is given money if a family member passes away, has an accident or needs help (D. Arimbawa, Restaurant Manager, personal communication, March 18, 2013). For *Suka* "happiness" the fund is used if somebody gets married, for Hindu ceremonies or the *Suka Duka* community undertakes trips and organizes activities (Mr. Widy, Accounting Manager, personal communication, March 20, 2013).

Thus, the kitchen staff managing the used cooking oil sells it to its private contact - collectors from their communities. The money for the oil is added into the food and beverage *Suka Duka* fund. This means that the kitchen staff is not responsible for the money or for any decisions linked to it. The hotel management avoids interfering with this traditional *Suka Duka* system of personal contacts and social structure because of the desire for harmony and the threat of change.

Due to its strong involvement and societal power, the community should be considered a primary stakeholder. The community connections and its collectivism give Caritas a great opportunity to implement the project with the help of the community. The project should therefore be community-based.

6. Conclusion

This research paper provides the opportunity to learn about the difficulties which arise in sustainable projects. Caritas demonstrated its ability to implement the project and to reach the main goal which was to present a recycling solution for used cooking oil. Despite this, many hotels are reluctant to join the project and the amount of used collected cooking oil is still not enough high to make the project economically efficient.

The organizational and socio-cultural factors influencing the hotels' decision-making such as legislation, pressures and communication characteristics were discussed and the researcher concludes that the collectivism and groupthink of the Balinese society are the major issues. The Balinese communities including the *Banjar* neighborhood, the *Suka Duka* group and the close relationship between the hotel staff and the waste

collectors are social structures which affect the decision-making of Balinese people. Furthermore, the lack of regulatory enforcement and pressure hinder a successful execution of a sustainability project in Bali. In the end it is not the hotel managers who decide how the used cooking oil is used, but the *Suka Duka* group because the managers do not try to implement changes.

Caritas is advised to contact the food and beverage *Suka Duka* teams directly and to raise awareness about the project. With increasing awareness, the communities may embrace the values of sustainability while keeping their cultural identity (Lietaer and DeMeulenaere, 2003; Picard, 1990).

Another recommendation to overcome the barrier of relationships between the hotel staff and the waste collectors is to work more closely with the communities in Bali. To implement a development project, the support of the community is needed, since it is best able to exert pressure on the inhabitants (Irawanto, 2009; Martin and Thomas, 2002). This approach is difficult as there are different communities and *Banjars*. Such an approach may require more resources and skills from Caritas, but it would increase public awareness and ensure a long-lasting project.

7. Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study investigates the example of Caritas' project, which operates in a unique social, economic and environmental context. Thus, the findings might not be entirely applicable to other projects or locations. A precarious part is the sample size with only fifteen interviews and the limitation on upscale hotels. Therefore, the researcher is unable to draw general conclusions from the actual results. Yet, the knowledge gained from this research is applicable to intercultural projects in Bali or Indonesia as the circumstances are similar to the project. They may additionally be used as a comparison for projects in other locations and cultures. Throughout the analysis, the *Banjars* and communities appeared to be the primary stakeholders in any development project. Future research on this stakeholder and the organization of *Suka Duka*, its sustainability awareness level and

its influence on development projects would add great value to projects implemented in Bali.

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CULTURAL TOURISM AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: STRATEGIES FOR THE SUSTAINABLE MANAGEMENT OF MUSEUMS IN CYPRUS

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Cultural tourism is a form of tourism development that not only exploits the cultural assets of a destination and therefore, projects its image worldwide, but also, under the appropriate management, can lead to sustainable development. The paper aims to examine the potential of Cypriot museums, as the gatekeepers of the cultural heritage of Cyprus, for the sustainable tourism development of the island, by focusing on their impact on cultural sustainability. Based on exploratory research through telephone interviews and document analysis, the paper identifies the necessary strategies in order for museums to fully operate in a sustainable manner. Findings illustrate that the cultural heritage of Cyprus is an important attribute for the island that can act as a catalyst for promoting its identity. However, emphasis needs to be given on the managerial aspects of museums, such as effective training of the staff, synergies among the various museums of the island, and marketing and communication techniques in order for museums to reveal the various forms of cultural heritage's value to the public and the local communities, and hence become significant contributors to the island sustainable tourism development.

1. Introduction

Cultural heritage is one of the main providers for tourism of many destinations while their interconnected relationship leads to mutual benefits since the one generates income for the other (Hughes and Allen, 2005; Misiura, 2006). In fact, cultural tourism has been considered by several authors as a way to differentiate from the traditional mass tourism model of development and therefore comprises a 'good' form of tourism that could lead to environmental, economic and social sustainability (Richards, 2001). For instance, visitors in cultural heritage destinations come closer to the place itself, learn about its history and have the possibility to gain a deeper understanding (Boukas, 2012, 2013; Richards, 2001), and in the end, a more enriched tourist experience.

In this regard, museums as the gatekeepers of cultural heritage comprise the means for selected meanings of cultural heritage to be transmitted to visitors (Uusitalo, 2006). The value of museums for cultural tourism is unquestionable and in multiple levels; museums not only generate revenues from their thousands of visitors but they also signify various types of values to the community and society. As such, museums can be important contributors for cultural sustainability of a place since they can enhance and project cultural heritage to future generations at the local and global level. The aim of the paper is to explore the potential of Cypriot museums for sustainable tourism development and management by focusing on their impact on cultural sustainability. Specifically, the paper identifies the necessary marketing managing strategies in order for museums to be fully exploited towards more multifaceted sustainable manner (environmentally, economically, socially as well as culturally).

2. The Importance of Culture for Tourism and the Role of Museums

Culture is a multifaceted notion that is open to diverse interpretations. Jenks (1993:9) argues that: 'the dominant European linguistic convention equates 'culture' largely with the

idea of 'civilisation'. Additionally, according to Burns (1999), culture encompasses several components, from religion, myths, values, ideologies, education, language, legal and political frameworks to economics, technology and material culture, as well as social organisations and kinship. As such, culture characterises the identity of different nationalities and therefore is one of the most important ambassador of destinations, in regards to tourism.

Indeed, visits to cultural destinations or visits to destinations for experiencing culture, is an activity seen in humans since ancient times. UNESCO (2003: 12) defines cultural tourism as the: 'travel concerned with experiencing cultural environments, including landscapes, the visual and performing arts, and special (local) lifestyles, values, traditions, events as well as other ways of creative and inter-cultural exchange processes'. According to Feifer (1986), people were travelling for what is nowadays called 'cultural reasons' since the Roman era. Yet, cultural tourism began to be considered as a distinct tourist category in the late 1970s when the tourist industry understood that a percentage of tourists travel to gain knowledge on the culture and heritage of another destination (McKercher and du Cros, 2002). Down the years, cultural tourism has been transformed from a specialised niche activity for well-educated people to a mass interest, high profile phenomenon. In the late 1980's and 1990's cultural and heritage assets contributed to the satisfaction of tourists' preferences to a great degree (Francis et al., 2001).

According to McKercher and du Cros (2002), the act of movement to another place for tourist purposes largely involves an element of culture: people that leave their home for visiting other destinations experience temporarily something new in a different cultural dimension. The presence of culture in contemporary tourist activity is obvious while even travels that are not focused on culture as an attraction may be composed of cultural elements and experiences. The importance of cultural heritage assets for tourism can be signified by the World Tourism Organisation's (WTO) estimate that 37% of international tourists are cultural tourists (Graton and Richards, 1996). In countries with rich cultural resources, like Cyprus, culture has always played an important role as an element for the tourist product of the country. Culture, either as a motive or as an attraction, brings tourists to certain destinations. In this sense, culture is a dynamic

resource that can be planned and promoted to attract tourism to a destination.

In this respect, the role of museums as the safeguards of cultural heritage is crucial. Museums, not only protect cultural heritage but they also project it worldwide. As Fernández-Blanco and Prieto-Rodríguez(2011)suggest:

Any definition of museum must take into account that it has a multioutput production function, including conservation, exhibition, research and so on... all of these outputs can be considered as market goods, which, when combined with inputs and time, allow visitors to obtain desirable commodities such as knowledge, aesthetic experience and/or simply enjoyment(p.290).

Therefore, museums are important actors for cultural tourism since a museum visit is one of the most significant cultural tourism activities. Additionally, their role is not limited only to the tourist product enrichment and their economic contribution for a destination. In fact, museums support cultural heritage, and hence contribute to a multidimensional holistic value. Graham et al. (2000) and Wills and Eves (2005) argue that heritage has several forms of value, significant also for tourism. For them the total economic value of heritage (which is highly supported by museums) can be categorised into: (a) user value, which could be direct (measurable value that a museum can have such as income, tourism, leisure, etc.) and/or indirect (frequently larger than direct value but difficult to be measured such as destination image and local community, environmental quality, etc.); (b) option or potential value which reflects the benefit that consumers might derive from resources or the public willingness to pay for the preservation of heritage; (c) existence or non-use or intrinsic value which is difficult to be measured, such as sentimental value, uniqueness, etc.; and (d) bequest value which includes the ability to pass heritage on to successive generations. As such, museums not only provide economic benefits to a community and destinations but they also constitute the carriers of history, symbols and identities, and actively contribute to the environmental, social, economic as well as cultural sustainability of a destination.

3. Methodological Approach

The paper is part of a preliminary study that aims to explore the role of museums in sustainable tourism development of Cyprus emphasising their identification and their impact on cultural sustainability. Moreover, the paper aims to provide implications regarding the appropriate management strategies in order for Cypriot museums to be fully exploited in a sustainable manner.

The main methodological approach for the specific study was exploratory research through scanning of various official documents. The purpose of the research was to find out existing information regarding the museums of the free part of Cyprus, their types and status, as well as identifying their situation analysis. Moreover, exploratory research included also the examination of the literature regarding museums in Cyprus and the analysis of documents and reports from various ministries and authorities of the island.

Specifically, the sample included all the museums in the free part of Cyprus. In total, from the 108 museums that were identified from the literature as the active museums in Cyprus, the researchers could reach only 90. An interview guide was prepared to facilitate the conduct of the interviews. Finally, all the interviews were recorded, transcribed and analysed manually by the researchers in order to identify themes and important associations.

4. Findings and Discussion

From the 90 museums contacted, the 36 are private museums, the 32 municipal museums, and the remaining 22, national museums. Figure 1 illustrates the types of museums currently operating in Cyprus.

According to the Figure, the majority of the museums in Cyprus are ethnographic and/or folklore (28%), followed by 'other' (21%), historic (14%) and archaeological (12%). Moreover, regarding their ownership and type, Table 1 indicates that the majority of the private museums of the island are ethnographic and other, underlying the dominance of private collections, while the majority of municipal museums are ethnographic/folklore.

Finally, it appears that national museums of the island focus on archaeology. This indicates the important role the state plays when it comes to this kind of museums.

Figure 1: Types of Cypriot museums

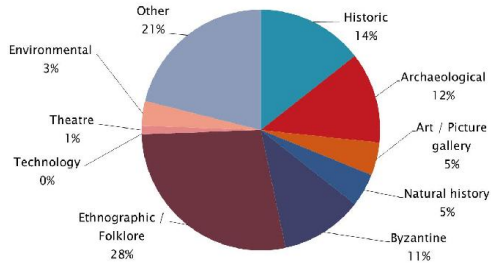


Table 1: Types of Cypriot museums by ownership

	Private	Municipal	National	Total
Historic	17%	16%	9%	14%
Archaeological	0%	3%	45%	12%
Art / Picture gallery	6%	3%	5%	4%
Natural history	6%	6%	0%	4%
Byzantine	19%	9%	0%	11%
Ethnographic / Folklore	25%	38%	18%	28%
Technology	0%	0%	0%	0%
Theatre	0%	0%	5%	1%
Environmental	3%	6%	0%	3%
Other	25%	19%	18%	21%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

According to the situation analysis there is an impressive intensive competition among the museums in Cyprus. This competition can be met in various levels. As Kotler et al. (2008) argues, museums may face competition on four levels: (a) desire level, related to the desire that people would like to satisfy such as work, exercise, fun, aesthetic, recreation etc.; (b) generic level, related to the means of having an aesthetic experiences such as TV, art on the internet, experience public art, or create own art; (c) type of experience people would like to have, such as theatre, symphony, concert, museum, or dance; and, (d) enterprise level,

related to which museum people would like to visit, such as national, municipal, private, virtual, university exhibition, etc.

Adjusting these levels of completion on Cypriot museums, the findings of the study indicate that Cypriot museums face high competition on the desire and generic level. Specifically, on the desire level of competition, many visitors/tourists visiting Cyprus are mostly leisure travellers that visit the island for recreation reasons. As such, museums struggle to attract tourists to their premises who actually visit the island for recreational purposes. This is something that tourism policy needs to concentrate on since the majority of tourist activity on the island has different focus, usually mass tourism (Boukas and Ziakas, 2012). The second level of competition is met on the generic level. This has to do with the various other activities people would like to engage with, others than visiting museums. This is something that cultural heritage management need to manage.

Generally, the findings of the study illustrate that the most important internal strengths of Cypriot museums are their variety in terms of quality and quantity, their distribution around the island which is harmonic, and the relatively easy accessibility to them. On the other hand, the main weaknesses of Cypriot museums are the passive exhibition of their cultural assets, the insufficient know-how by museum staff, the ineffective and in many cases inexistent marketing, and the existence of many small units around the island. These elements need to be adjusted by tourism and cultural authorities. However, there are certain opportunities that would benefit the museum development of the island, such as the increased tourist activity on the island, the potential of museums to really diversify the existing mass tourist product of Cyprus, the nature of museums as the means for economic, environmental, social and most importantly cultural sustainability, and the fact that museums as carriers of cultural heritage can really provide, under the appropriate management and circumstances, real in-depth experiences (Boukas, 2012).

Therefore, in order for museums to be really competitive in the tourist sphere of Cyprus, a series of strategies that would concentrate on sustainable practices should be adopted both by tourism policy and cultural heritage management. As such, there is a need for reinforcement of services provided such as the training of the museums' staff or the enrichment of services through other secondary activities, such as selling of souvenirs.

Moreover, there is a need to diversify the product mix of museums, providing experiences that would be more meaningful for the visitors, as well as communicating the value of the exhibits in an entertaining and exciting way (McKercher and du Cros, 2002). Additionally, micro-events and exhibitions would enrich the product offered by museums (Waltl, 2006) while dynamic prices for special groups of visitors would make the 'museum tourist product' more attractive to various markets and visitors.

Another strategic implication would be the introduction of multiple visits' (family) ticket for different museums in neighbour locations in order to vitalise visitation to many smaller museums and create synergistic approaches among museums and other tourist stakeholders in rural areas. Finally, the integration of the local community in some of the museums' activities, such as event organisation in the museums' areas, would create positive public relations in the local community and would encourage locals to become more active in their local museums. This would have a twofold positive impact. On the one hand, it would provide more positive experiences to the visitors and therefore create a positive attitude towards Cypriot museums, and on the other hand would lay the ground for the active participation of the local community to the museums' activities and the reinforcement of the existence and bequest types of values, highly appreciative for cultural sustainability.

5. Conclusion

This study examined the role of museums for cultural tourism in Cyprus and their contribution to the sustainable development of the island. The most important conclusion is that the quality of artefacts Cypriots museums house is granted and therefore there is a significant comparative advantage. Though, attention needs to be paid to their appropriate sustainable management in order for them to be more competitive and, therefore gain competitive advantage (Sharpley, 2009). Moreover, in order for museums to be more important for Cypriot tourism, there is an urgent need to exploit cultural heritage and its meanings, and therefore increase awareness for the cultural heritage visitors. As such, the status, mission, and significance of heritage should be fully perceivable not only to the public of the museums, but also to the

communities that these museums are located in as main contributors to the overall sustainable tourist experience. In order for museums to really appeal to more tourists, exhibits and cultural content provided by museums should be presented in a unique, intriguing and interesting way. Finally, cultural heritage management should concentrate on those ways that would generate knowledge offered by museums and strengthen their relationship to their various publics, tourists and locals. This would create positive attitudes for museums, would improve their image, and would shape and increase visitor awareness towards museums' exhibits and collections, demonstrating in this way, the course towards cultural sustainability.

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**GOLF TOURIST MOTIVATION AND
SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: A
MARKETING MANAGEMENT APPROACH FOR
PROMOTING RESPONSIBLE GOLF TOURISM
IN CYPRUS**

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The paper aims to examine the motivational attributes of golf tourists for their activities in Cyprus by identifying those characteristics of the island that are rated as important determinants to their overall experience. To do so, quantitative research techniques were used through a self-administered questionnaire submitted to golf tourists in three golf tourist destinations of Cyprus. Findings reveal that factors such as the natural environment, atmosphere and landscape play a significant role for golf tourists, while features such as artificial grass golf courses or courses without grass make them more skeptical. The study concludes with the marketing management strategies that need to be implemented in order for golf tourism to be developed and managed in a responsible and sustainable fashion, hence not only fully meeting tourist expectations but also achieving the destination goals of economic, social and environmental sustainability.

1.Introduction

Golf is one of the most significant sport tourist activities which can contribute positively to the economic welfare of a destination (Hudson and Hudson, 2010; Readman, 2003). Golf tourist market is a promising segment for a destination since golf tourists are of higher income levels, high spenders and tend to repeat their visit (Correia et al., 2007; Tassiopoulos and Haydam, 2008). The positive impacts of golf tourism were also considered by tourism authorities in Cyprus when they decided to include golf tourism in the island's tourist product portfolio. In the case of Cyprus, golf constitutes a niche tourism activity that aims to target high-end clientele bringing therefore more income to the destination. Indeed, tourism policy considered golf as a diversified element to the existing Cyprus tourism product-service mix as a means of overcoming the problems of seasonality and lack of competitiveness and thereby, upgrade its overall quality (Boukas et al., 2012).

In this regard, golf tourism development can become an appropriate element for improving Cyprus' image as a contemporary destination while it can help the island face its chronic structural problems, that the current economic crisis now highlights even more (Boukas and Ziakas, 2013). However, in order for any type of development on the island to be successful in the long-term, it needs to consider also sustainable practices that would lead towards responsible tourism. As such, for designing a comprehensive golf tourist product several variables need to be considered that will not only incorporate experiential elements that are necessary for tourists' satisfaction, but will also include sustainability characteristics that will provide holistic benefits to the destination.

The paper aims to examine the motivational attributes of golf tourists for their activities in Cyprus by identifying those characteristics of the island that are rated as important determinants to their overall experience. For doing so, the study highlights those marketing management strategies that need to be implemented in order for golf tourism to be developed and managed in a responsible and sustainable fashion, hence not only fully meeting tourist expectations but also achieving the

destination goals of economic, social and environmental sustainability.

2. Golf Tourism: Characteristics and Challenges

With almost 60 million golfers and 32,000 golf courses in 140 countries worldwide, golf represents a significant tourism activity (Hudson and Hudson, 2010; Readman, 2003). Golf tourism constitutes the largest market concerning sports (Tassiopoulos and Haydan, 2008) while according to Markwick (2000), only in 2000, €14.5 million were spent by golfers. Additionally, Rees (2008) suggests that the 5 to 10 per cent of approximately 59 million golfers travel overseas annually to participate in golf activities. As such, the international scale of the golf tourism market is between 2.9 and 5.9 million, making golf tourism as one of the most important segments among the tourism industry.

The definition of golf tourism is quite simple. Readman (2003) argues that it includes travelers to destinations in order to partake golf activities for non-commercial purposes. Additionally, it also includes professionals as well as their fans. In this regard, golf tourism is a significant activity that brings significant income to the economy. Hudson and Hudson (2010) suggest that there is a golf economy which includes the core products and the enabled industries. The core products of golf economy include the facility operation needed for golf, the capital investment for golf courses, the golf supplies, and finally the media tournaments, associations and charities. On the other hand, the enabled industries by golf are related the hospitality sector and its operations, tourism, and real estate. In this respect, golf is not only a sport but an important medium for economic development on an area.

Even though any typology can lead to generalizations, the characteristics of golf tourists create the golf tourist profile. In this respect, golf tourists spend more on their vacations in comparison with leisure travelers and generally are of higher-spending social groups (Hudson and Hudson, 2010). As Hennessey et al. (2008) suggest, golf tourists can be categorized into three types of groups: infrequent, moderate, and dedicated. Dedicated golf tourists are usually elderly people, enthusiastic players characterized by higher income, less price sensitiveness, and higher spending than the other two categories. This group of

golf tourists can generate serious growth in an area's tourism (Henessey et al., 2008). Correira et al. (2007) in their description of golf tourists in Algarve, Portugal conclude that golf tourists in the destination are older males and repeat visitors that visit to participate in golf activities mostly because of the desirable weather conditions and the quality of the courses. This travel profile represents an ideal type of tourist for Cypriot tourism. Cyprus, after almost 12 years of negative paces in terms of tourist arrivals and revenues wants to capitalize on alternative forms of tourist development, among them golf tourism.

In this regard, golf tourism in Cyprus is not a new case. In fact, the first traces of developing golf tourism on the island goes back in 1993 when the Council of Ministers of the time established a policy of golf courses development as well as the foundation of 750 bed-spaces (Archontides, 2007). Yet, due to the lack of interest this plan was not implemented, and only in 2005 this policy was updated in order the existing tourism product to be updated and included also the construction of golfs. Today, five golf courses are operating and 11 more have been taken license to build on the island (Archontides, 2007). Yet, many debates have been raised regarding how sustainable is the development of a sport like golf on a territory whereas the main resources for its existence are limited (Boukas et al., 2012). Moreover, queries are turned up about the experience of golfers and their opinion about how sustainable practices can alert their travel to the island for golf. In this respect, the following study tries to shed light on these phenomena.

3.Methodological Approach

For fulfilling the purposes of this study quantitative research techniques were applied. Specifically, a self-administered questionnaire was submitted to golfers in three golf courses in Cyprus in Paphos and Limassol area during October 2011. The sample incorporated all those golfers that visited the specific golf courses for playing golf during the given period. Convenience sample was used due to the exploratory nature of the study that tried to explore golf visitors' important determinants to their overall experience. Overall, 130 questionnaires were submitted. The questionnaire was submitted after the completion of the golf

round at the exit point of each golf course. From them, the 103 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 the attributes of the golf destination and the motivation of the sample to travel to Cyprus.

4.Results

The majority of the respondents were males (86%) in the age of 61 years old and above (38%). The 52% of them were from the U.K., followed by Germans (13%) and Russians (10%). Regarding their education, the most of the respondents possessed a high school diploma (45%), with those with bachelor degree (30%) to follow. As far as income levels are concerned, there was a wide distribution, with the highest concentration on respondents with annual income of €60,000 and above (40%). Finally, the most participants were full-time employees (63%), followed by pensioners (33%).

Regarding the travel characteristics of the respondents, the majority had visited another golf course the last three years (87%). Additionally, a significant percentage had visited Cyprus for golf again in the past (71%). The 32% of the respondents visited Cyprus with their family and the 27% visited the island as a couple. Moreover, the 71% of the respondents arranged their visit to the certain golf course independently. Concerning the type of accommodation the majority indicated that they stayed in an accommodation outside the golf course (35%) while many of them stayed in their own residence either inside the golf course premises (29%) or outside of them (30%).

Regarding the reasons for travelling to a golf destination the majority of respondents (81%) claimed that they do that for playing golf. The top sources of information for golf activities in Cyprus are friends and relatives (30%) and the internet (21%). Finally, the top reason for choosing Cyprus for golf was because of the weather (27%), the natural scenery (12%) and the friendly environment and/or hospitality (10%). The most important reason

for visiting Cyprus for golf is because of the weather (4.85, $p=0.00^*$) (1=Unimportant and 5=Very important). The natural beauty and the friendly environment (hospitality) of the island are ranked in the second (4.36, sig. value 0.00^{*}) and third place (3.92, $p=0.00^*$) respectively. The unique/memorable experience (3.63) and to accompany friends (3.62, $p=0.00^*$) follow. The rest reasons have lower mean scores (below 3.50, $p=0.00^*$) and are considered less important. Finally, the respondents claimed that golf is an important motive for travelling to Cyprus (3.62, $p=0.00^*$)

In regards to the determinants of golf visitors for golf activities in Cyprus, the respondents stated that 'playing golf in Cyprus brings me together with friends' (4.32, $p=0.00^*$) was the most important determinant, followed by 'playing golf in Cyprus brings me into the nature' (4.27, $p=0.00^*$), 'golf tourism contributes to the social well-being of Cyprus' (4.21, $p=0.00^*$), 'playing golf in Cyprus is one of the best forms of relaxation for me' (4.20, $p=0.00^*$), and 'practices used in Cypriot golf courses to prevent environmental degradation are important to me' (4.02, $p=0.00^*$). On the other hand, the least important determinant for golf activities in Cyprus was 'playing golf in a Cypriot golf course with artificial grass is fine for me' (2.03, $p=0.00^*$), followed by 'playing golf in a Cypriot course that doesn't have grass (e.g., ground) is fine for me' (2.11, $p=0.00^*$), 'playing golf in Cyprus is an opportunity to do business' (2.80, $p=0.00^*$), and 'instruction is an important factor when being in a Cypriot golf course' (2.93, $p=0.00^*$).

Finally, Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to find associations between the important attributes of the Cypriot golf destinations and the motivation of golf tourists to travel to Cyprus (Table 1 and 2).

According to Table 1, the most important attribute that affects visitors' motivation is 'playing golf in Cyprus brings me together with friends' (4.33, $p=0.00^*$). Overall, the ten attributes of the table are grouped according to their meaning into the four main categories: attributes 1,2,7: Self Expression and Lifestyle, attributes 3,5,10: Sustainability, attributes 4,6,8: Facilities and Amenities, and attribute 9: Authenticity. In this respect, it appears that attributes related to Self Expression and Lifestyle are considered as the most important for the motivation of golf visitors in Cyprus.

On the other hand Table 2, indicates that the least important attribute that shape golf tourists' motivation is 'playing golf in a Cypriot course with artificial grass is fine for me' (2.03, $p=0.03^*$) (Table 2).

Table 1: Most important attributes shaping golf tourists' motivation

	Motivational attributes	N	Mean	Chi-Square	Sig. Value
1.	Playing golf in Cyprus brings me together with friends	100	4.33	21.062	0.00*
2.	Playing golf in Cyprus is one of the best forms of relaxation for me	100	4.21	41.283	0.00*
3.	Golf in Cyprus needs specialized management to avoid environmental degradation	100	3.99	12.868	0.01*
4.	Service provided in golf courses are important for choosing Cyprus to travel	100	3.98	14.87	0.01*
5.	Golf is good for the environment of Cyprus	100	3.95	15.862	0.00*
6.	Golf facilities are important for choosing Cyprus to travel	100	3.95	28.871	0.00*
7.	Playing golf in Cyprus is one of the best forms of competition for me	100	3.93	37.202	0.00*
8.	Additional services and amenities enrich my experience in Cyprus	100	3.82	13.963	0.01*
9.	Cyprus is an ideal golf destination to me	100	3.74	27.087	0.00*
10.	Golfers and spectators should have an active role to the environmental protection of Cyprus	100	3.71	12.007	0.02*

Overall, the ten attributes of Table 2 are grouped according to their meaning into the same four categories: attributes 3,5: Self Expression and Lifestyle, attributes 1,2,10: Sustainability, attributes 4: Facilities and Amenities, and attributes 6,7,8,9: Authenticity. In this respect, it appears that attributes related to Sustainability are considered as the least important for the motivation of golf visitors in Cyprus.

Table2: Least important attributes shaping golf tourists' motivation

	Motivational attributes	N	Mean	Chi-Square	Sig. Value
1.	Playing golf in a Cypriot course with artificial grass is fine for me	100	2.03	11.031	0.03*
2.	Playing golf in a Cypriot course that doesn't have grass (e.g., ground) is fine for me	100	2.11	9.731	0.05*
3.	Playing golf in Cyprus is an opportunity to do business	100	2.8	18.715	0.00*
4.	Instruction is an important factor when being in a Cypriot golf course	100	2.93	12.906	0.01*
5.	Playing golf in Cyprus gives me prestige	100	3.04	12.435	0.01*
6.	Golf gives me the opportunity to know more about Cyprus	100	3.36	8.588	0.01*
7.	I did choose Cyprus because of the unique experiences I receive	100	3.48	17.294	0.00*
8.	Golf gives me an opportunity to experience the culture of Cyprus	100	3.5	12.222	0.02*
9.	Playing golf in Cyprus is a unique experience for me	100	3.53	12.474	0.01*
10.	Ecological friendly design of golf courses in Cyprus is important to me	100	3.66	13.133	0.01*

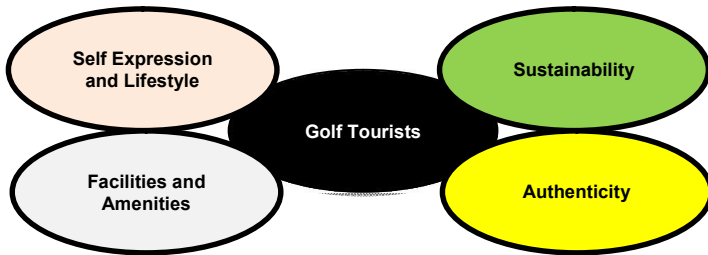
5.Implications and Concluding Remarks

The findings of the study tried to explore the motivational attributes of golf tourists for their activities in Cyprus and demonstrate those elements that are considered important determinants to their overall travel experience. From the findings it appears that the environmental features of Cyprus as a golf destination are strong enough to attract golf tourists to the island. However, in regards to sustainable practices on golf activities in Cyprus, while golf tourists consider that ecological friendly design for courses is important for the sustainability of the island, they tend to pay less attention to measures that would implement those practices because they consider that this would alter their

overall golf travel experience. As such, it appears that there is a conflict on golf tourists' opinions that lies between their concern for using environmental practices in golf courses and their reluctance to play golf in more environmental friendly courses (i.e., artificial grass, ground).

However, the overall travel experience is important to be positive for golf tourists in Cyprus but sustainability measures need to also be implemented for the island's long-term development. In this regard, marketing management strategies should consider all these elements that affect the experience and the destinations when designing golf tourist products (Figure 1).

Figure 1: Important elements for golf tourist product in Cyprus



From the findings it appears that while self expression and lifestyle elements are important motivators, sustainability is considered of less important for golf tourists. As such, while enhancing self expression and lifestyle attributes should be the main axis for marketing management of golf destinations in Cyprus, sustainability issues need to also be emphasized. Towards this direction communication elements should be utilized. According to Fall (2004) public relations are an efficient communication tool because they create a feeling of connectedness with the destinations. As such, a communication scheme that would integrate the softer overtones of individual values of golf tourists (motivational attributes) would be an important strategy for communicating the importance of the sustainable management of golf destinations. For doing so, tourism policy needs to observe, realize and understand the behavior and tendencies of golf travellers. Additionally, it should assist golf facilities to incorporate sustainable principles, practices

and technology into daily decisions and operations. For instance, tourism policy should promote environmental tactics such as walking the course when possible or recycling, and promote the connectedness of Cyprus to golf in order to construct a golf attitude for Cyprus.

In conclusion, golf tourism is an important activity that has the potential to be successful for Cyprus but also to be developed sustainably. Communication and promotion messages aimed to direct the behavior of golf tourists towards the importance of adhering to sustainable practices are crucial and need to be seriously considered when designing golf tourism products. Finally, the development of sustainable policies should be based on encouraging the involvement of different stakeholders by fully appreciating their perceptions about golf tourism. In this respect, future research needs to explore further those ways that would lead to the long-term sustainable development of golf tourist products on destinations with limited resources, such as Cyprus.

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PLANNING OF TOURISM AND CULTURAL HERITAGE MANAGEMENT IN HISTORIC TOWNS

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With the impressive development of cultural heritage tourism there is an increasing need to investigate the relationship between tourism and cultural heritage management, avoiding the conflicts that may occur by parallel, independent developments of these two activities. The Romanian historic towns face a process of fast tourism increase, especially after joining the EU in 2007. Assessing their tourism potential in a realistic way may help in developing a sustainable tourism activity. The assessment matrix method for tourism potential, proposed by McKercher and Du Cros, has been applied to five case studies of Romanian historic towns, examining the relation between the two main elements - the market appeal of a place and its capacity to cope with tourism activity impact, without endangering the cultural values. The results show that correlating the two directions in the market appeal - robusticity matrix represents a useful tool for planning the future development activities in both tourism and heritage management in a well balanced manner.

1. Introduction

As mass tourism became a global industry during the second half of the XXth century, it became clear that besides its positive economic outcomes it also has negative effects. In time, different forms of culture became promoted for tourism, changing the

pattern of general tourism consumption. Thus, cultural tourism, based on the attraction exerted by cultural heritage, started to dominate the tourism market, becoming an important direction of development. However, the cultural tourism, sometimes prized as a good form of tourism (with less negative effects), is not a universal remedy to all ills attributed to mass tourism. It also has a potential of negative impacts on its basis, which comprises different forms of cultural heritage. This is because the growing tourism industry regards the major cultural attractions that form the cultural heritage as goods that can be transformed into cultural products for consumption (marketed and sold). The pressure of these tourism requirements often contradicts the needs of heritage conservation (Orbaşlı, 2000; Edson, 2004). Because the tourism development is a phenomenon that cannot be stopped, it should be accepted as it is, but trying to find the best ways that its economic force is used for the preservation of the cultural heritage.

The cultural tourism is usually an important component of the urban tourism (ETC 2005), and in the case of historic towns (HT), the cultural attraction lies not only in the physical heritage components, but also in their character of contemporary living environments. Tourists find them interesting for their past atmosphere, more and more difficult to find in the modern world, while locals value them for giving the feeling of belonging to an old civilisation that is continued in the present. Therefore, their conservation comprises also the actions necessary for the development and harmonious adaptation to contemporary life of the town areas (ICOMOS, 1987).

In the same time, urban tourism represents the most dynamic aspect of the increasing European tourism. Inbound travel in Europe had a growth by 4% in 2012 (after a strong growth of 7% in 2011, in spite of the negative economic climate), with exceptional growths of Iceland (+20%), Lithuania (+12%), and Romania (+10%) (ETC, 2012). For a developing country like Romania, this is due both to the character of novelty, and to the official perception of tourism as an important economic opportunity. However, a fast development which mainly emphasizes the economic aspects often disregards the dangers of accentuating the conflict between tourism development and cultural heritage conservation. This is especially the case of historic towns, which, in order to survive, must find an efficient

way of using tourism as a support for conservation. The conservation problems of the cultural heritage in developing economies is not easy, because it often encounters problems that differ from those of the Western European towns, where the conservation is supported by well established legislation and control mechanisms (Orbaşli, 2000). Usually, the towns undergo a much faster and uncontrolled growth, often dominated by the desire to modernize toward the Western style of living, thus disregarding the traditional aspects still present. In addition, the protection of the architectural heritage faces problems such as lack of funds, inadequate legislation, and wrong interventions (many of them during communism times). In many cases, the town authorities welcome any tourism development, with its fast economic benefits, but do not treat with proper attention the assessment of the tourism potential: the evaluation of the capacity of the destination to cope with the negative impacts of developing tourism is considered of secondary importance, eventually to be dealt with later, if problems appear (when it may actually be too late).

This work deals with the problem of a correct balance between tourism development and cultural heritage conservation in historic towns. Every historic town constitutes a unique case of a complicated system, therefore to propose a unique line of approach is rather difficult, if not impossible. But it is clear, nevertheless, that the assessment of tourism potential in historic towns is a first, very essential step. This means that it is equally important to evaluate the real attraction for tourism (market attraction), but also the capacity to deal with the impact from tourism activity (without its quality as a tourism destination being threatened). Only by assessing these two directions and correlating the results one can propose well balanced actions in both sectors.

The tourism potential matrix proposed by du Cros (2001) and then detailed and applied to cultural heritage assets (McKercher and du Cros, 2009) was chosen as an assessment method for historic towns. The method is based on a model which takes into account two variables (directions of assessment). Thus, it can be systematically performed for a number of cases and used to establish groups of historic towns according to the relative degrees of importance of the two investigated directions. The method is applied to the analysis of five Romanian historic

towns and concludes that it represents an efficient tool, suitable as a first approach, which should be used as a guide in the process of future planning for both tourism development and cultural heritage management.

2. Presentation of the Case Studies

It is a recognized fact that the capacity of towns to cope with developing tourism, with large numbers of visitors is, in general, rather high for big cities but lower for the smaller towns (Andras, 1993; Jamieson, 1993). The medium and small size towns with high tourism attractiveness may be especially sensitive to increasing tourism activity (e.g., larger number of visitors, tourism commodification). Therefore, an uncontrolled development of tourism may lead to the destruction of its most valuable resources.

In classifying and analyzing the Romanian historic towns there have been used various criteria (Curinschi, 1967; Papageorgiou, 1971; Gheorghiu, 2000, Ashworth and Tunbridge, 2000), such as:

- *size*: this criterion is given by the number of inhabitants (large cities, over 150,000; medium: between 20,000 and 150,000; small: below 20,000);
- *longevity*: this criterion is characterized by the presence of defining elements from the main stages of the urban evolution phenomenon, since the antique, medieval, or modern periods;
- *type of the centre*: this criterion is based on the degree of compactness of the historic centre (polycentric and mono-centric towns);
- *state of conservation of the historic centre*: this criterion may take as an assessment basis either the initial stage of development (the medieval period for the most cases in Romania), or a later stage of development, with new interventions that acquired an intrinsic value in time;
- *character of the urban image*: this criterion is based on the value of the urban and architectural image, and reflects the

aesthetic concepts and the architectural styles of the times when it was created;

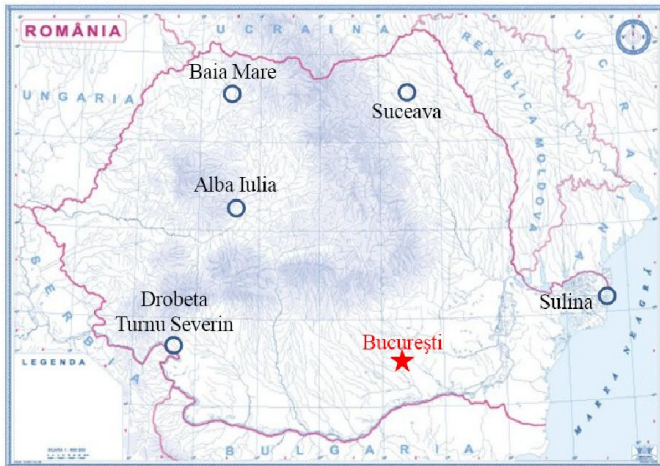
- *present functions of the historic centre*: the urban area that fulfils today the functions of a civic centre may coincide with the limits of the historic center or it can be larger (the urban ensembles that fulfil the functions of civic centre are outside the area of historic importance);
- *system of settlements*: a geographic criterion that considers the possibility to link together more towns due to their location in the same region, or due to their common features that may link them by cultural routes;

By analyzing the historic towns from Romania according to the mentioned criteria, there have been selected for an analysis of their tourism potential a number of five case studies, covering various criteria, as well as the important ethnographic areas of the country. For the reasons discussed above, these are medium and small size towns. These towns, displayed in Figure 1 within the contour of Romania, are the following (in alphabetical order, number of inhabitants as given by the 2011 census):

- *Alba-Iulia*: medium HT (58,681 inhabitants). The most preserved XVIIIth century Vauban type fortress in the south-eastern Europe, still inhabited today. Exceptional historical value within the Romanian unification events;
- *Baia Mare*: medium HT (114,925). Medieval architecture typical to a mining town, situated in the proximity of UNESCO wooden churches from the ethnographic area of Maramureş;
- *Drobeta Turnu-Severin*: medium HT (86,475). Regionally isolated HT, harbor at Danube, with a maximum longevity (with elements from all its urban stages of evolution, from the Roman to the modern period). Its present historic centre took shape after the urban developments of XIXth century, having a high value for modern urban planning;
- *Suceava*: medium HT (86,282). High historical value, being the former capital of Moldavia, but with a very weak conservation of its historic centre (isolated monuments within the new town), including inadequate interventions during the communist period;

- *Sulina*: small HT (3,541). Fishers' town, with multi-ethnic character and specific vernacular architecture of a harbor. Very isolated, the only town in Romania with access exclusively on water, situated in the Danube Delta (an outstanding ecosystem and natural reserve from UNESCO heritage);

Figure 1: Location of the five historic towns chosen for case studies, on the map of Romania



3.Methodology of Assessing the Tourism Potential of Historic Centers

For a correct assessment of the tourism potential in a cultural heritage destination one has first to identify the key factors that affect both tourism and the cultural heritage management. The problem is how to integrate the needs of the two domains that often function independently and in parallel (Orbaşli, 2000; Mc Kertcher and du Cross, 2009), with the purpose to develop a sustainable tourism. This means that one has to assess the delicate balance between the two fields, and decide which one has the leading role in a given case. As shown in detail in (McKercher and du Cross, 2009) there is a long list of factors to

be considered in order to make a realistic assessment of the tourism potential, and these factors must take into account both the intrinsic tourism value (market potential), and the ability to withstand the impact of tourism activity (robusticity) of the considered destination. Only by considering and correlating both these dimensions one can have a realistic basis for planning and development.

The model of du Cros(2001) is based on examining two main issues, the tourism marketattraction and the heritage conservation requirements, which may determine a sustainable heritage tourism planning if there is a clear understanding of the relationship between them. The relationship between tourism development and heritage management can be easily seen by plotting them into a matrix formed by the two dimensions. In order to do that, one must define criteria which allow an assessment of the two variables (or directions) within their continuum of values. It has been adopted the assessment method proposed by (McKercher and du Cros, 2009) and tested on different heritage objectives from Hong Kong. From the long list of factors characterizing both tourism and cultural heritage management, a reduced list of key factors that must be evaluated was selected and adopted for practical evaluations. For self-consistency of this work the list is presented below, with some of the factors (or sub-indicators) being slightly adapted to the use of historic towns:

TOURISM

Market appeal

Ambience and setting

Well known outside area

National icon or symbol

Can tell a “good story” (evocative place)

Has some aspect to distinguish it from nearby attractions

Appeals to specific need or use (pilgrimages, festivals, sports)

Complements other tourism products in

area/region/destination

Tourism activity in the region

Destination associated with culture or heritage

Political support

Product design needs - tourism infrastructure

Good transport/access to asset from population centers

Access to asset's features

Proximity to other heritage attractions
Amenity (toilets, parking, pathways, refreshments, information)

CULTURAL HERITAGE MANAGEMENT

Cultural significance

Historical value
Aesthetic value (including architectural/urban value)
Educational value
Social value
Scientific value
Rare or common (locally, regionally, nationally)
Representativeness (locally, regionally, nationally)

Robusticity

State of repair
Fragility of the asset
Management plan or policy in place
Regular monitoring and maintenance
Potential for ongoing involvement and consultation of key stakeholders
Potential for negative impacts of high visitation on:
 Cultural heritage assets of the historic centre
 Lifestyle and cultural traditions of local community(ies)
Potential for modifications (as part of product development) to have negative impacts on:
 Cultural heritage assets of the historic centre
 Lifestyle and cultural traditions of local community(ies)

An examination of this list shows that all these indicators are appropriate for the assessment of historic centers of towns as well. The first step of the method consists in grading each of these indicators: the grading may be qualitative, by assigning a *yes/no* value, or more quantitative, by choosing a graded scale of values. In the present investigation it has been chosen a scale running from 0 to 6 (meaning: 0 - *inexistent*, 1 - *very low*, 2 - *low*, 3 - *medium*, 4 - *high*, 5 - *very high*, 6 - *exceptional*). After grading each of the indicators, one derives a total grade separately for the tourism and the cultural heritage management, which is transformed into a total score representing the percentage of the obtained total grade from the maximum possible value. It has been chosen the same weight for all indicators (in principle, if

some indicators would be considered more important, one can increase their weight in the sum). As discussed above, a powerful method to disclose the relationship between the two investigated directions is to represent the two obtained scores into a matrix that has been called the Potential Matrix. This matrix is an easy visual means: the position of the resulting point in the matrix is a first, very important indication on the status of the investigated asset, that is, on the relative role that the two dimensions must play in the planning of the future management activities. McKercher and du Cros describe four large categories of cultural heritage assets within this matrix (du Cros, 2001; McKercher and du Cros, 2009): (A) with moderate to high market appeal and high to moderate robusticity, that attract tourists and have a large capacity to be used for tourism, therefore they need just special conservation activities; (B) with moderate to high market appeal but low robusticity (interesting for visits, but sensitive to high visitation levels, therefore recommended for actions of both conservation and management of visitors); (C) moderate tourism attraction and high to moderate robusticity (support significant development to enhance the tourism market appeal); (D) small or limited market appeal, in this case the most recommended attitude is to suggest development for other reasons than tourism. All these categories are displayed in the example of matrix shown later in Figure 2: A) the squares marked with A1 and A2; B) squares B1 and B2; C) squares C1 and C2; D) squares D1, D2 and D3.

The authors of the method emphasize that, because most of the indicators have a qualitative nature, their assessment is subjective. In the same time, the assessment is more valuable if the person that evaluates is able to act from the perspective of a tourist that may know little about the investigated asset, as well as from the point of view of a cultural heritage manager.

The assessments of the five case studies were all made by the author, who was an external person in all cases. This also ensured the consistency of the application of the method to all chosen case studies. For all historic towns chosen for study, information were first collected from various sources (local and regional public records, government and tourism agencies, libraries, web pages) both for tourism attractions and their use, and for heritage conservation aspects. The data were completed with observations made according to a checklist during personal

visits when this information could be confronted with reality and new features could be evaluated and added.

One should emphasize that although such an assessment may be considered too simple because of its bi-dimensional character, it is nevertheless valuable as a first step in an integrated approach. In this way one can avoid the extreme attitudes when the tourism is blamed for all negative impacts in cultural heritage places, or when the heritage management considers that any tourism development is unacceptable.

4. Results of the Case Studies

Examples of the detailed assessment process made for each of the case studies are given in (Bucurescu, 2012). Here it is presented only a synthesis of the results for five case studies, and the main results are presented in Table 1 and graphically displayed in Figure 2. Table 1 specifies for each case the main values as well as the main impediments for both analyzed dimensions.

Table 1: Main features of the tourism potential assessment within the potential matrix method (McKercher and du Cros, 2009), for the five case studies

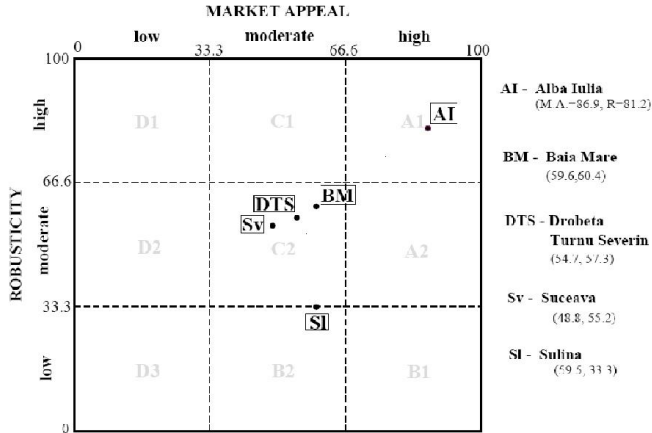
HISTORIC TOWN	VALUES	IMPEDIMENTS	MARKET APPEAL SCORE	ROBUSTICITY SCORE
ALBA IULIA	Tourism: - The most important archaeological site from Roman Dacia; - Representative XVIII th century Vauban fortress from South-Eastern Europe; - Important historic events; Robusticity: - Exceptional architectural and urban features of the Vauban-type fortress;	- Relatively difficult access to the location; - Fragile argumentation of commodification works at the Alba Carolina fortress tourism product;	86.9	81.2
BAIA MARE	Tourism: - Urban centre of Maramureş county with wooden churches (UNESCO); Robusticity:	- Tourism infrastructure under development; - Difficult access to the location; - Fragile state of degradation of the	59.6	60.4

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mining town typical medieval architecture; - Local economy and working places restructured towards tourism; 	existing built housing;		
DROBETA TURNU SEVERIN	<p>Tourism:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - First large Romanian town on the Danube; - Spectacular historic and architectural evolution, interspersed with periods of decline or stagnation. <p>Robusticity:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Representative for Roman and medieval architecture; - First town with modern urban planning in Romania; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Weakly developed tourism infrastructure; - Difficult access to the location; - Fragile state of degradation of the existing built housing; - Lack of a global policy for interventions; 	54.7	57.3
SUCEAVA	<p>Tourism:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Historic town in Bucovina region with painted churches (UNESCO); - Rich historic context; <p>Robusticity:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dispersion in town of the main historic monuments. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Less developed tourism infrastructure; - Lack of promotion of the town and of its values; - De-structured historic centre, without a value as an ensemble; - Aesthetical urban value destroyed in the communist period; 	48.8	55.2
SULINA	<p>Tourism:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Unique geographic position, exceptional neighbourhood-Danube Delta (UNESCO); - Unique cultural landscape (natural and anthropogenic) <p>Robusticity:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Unique historical, architectural and urban values; - Outstanding multiethnic and multicultural context; - Great fishing tradition and gastronomy; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Tourism infrastructure under development; - Seasonally - difficult access to the location (only on water). - Fragility of the existing built heritage; - Poor management; - Fragility of the local traditional life style 	59.5	33.3

The relative importance of the two scores (which lead to the placement of the towns in the matrix of Figure 2) represents a

first indication on the weight that should be given, in a future planning, to the tourism development and to the heritage conservation measures.

Figure 2: Position of the studied historic towns within the potential matrix



Note: The two scores for each case are those given in Table 1

5. Conclusions

It has been presented the application of the potential matrix method (McKercher and duCross, 2009) to five Romanian historic towns. The main result of this analysis is constituted by the potential matrix shown in Figure 2. By applying this method to various historic towns that have rather different characteristics, one obtains a meaningful comparison between them.

Three of the studied cases group around the moderate range of both market appeal and robusticity, although for different specific reasons. One historic town is in the A1 square, indicating an outstanding potential for tourism, and the last historic town shows a good marked appeal, but a low robusticity. One can observe that the distribution in robusticity of the studied cases generally follows the size of the town, thus confirming the general consensus that smaller towns are more fragile respect to negative impacts of tourism development.

Based on the tourism potential assessment with this method, one can make specific recommendations on how tourism should be developed in each case, taking into account the needs of the cultural heritage management - some examples are given in (Bucurescu, 2012). The suggested balance between the two activities, resulting from this kind of analysis, may constitute a first basis for the development planning. The analysis can be deepened for each historic town by assessing its different cultural heritage assets (buildings, monuments, historic ensembles) with the same method, as originally proposed in (McKercher and du Cros, 2009).

The assessment based on this method may be reasonably fast, and it allows a first, direct comparison of different cases. Romania is divided at present in 41 territorial - administrative units (counties). During this year (2013) a new division of the country will be adopted, comprising only eight regions, which will better answer the needs of development and efficiency in the allocation of state or European development funds. Thus, situations in which towns will compete for development funds will be more often met in the process of deciding the development policy at regional level. In this respect, this assessment method may be considered as a first, very helpful tool in choosing the right balance between tourism development and cultural heritage management.

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STRATEGIES AND TOOLS FOR SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DESTINATION MANAGEMENT: APPLYING THE EUROPEAN TOURISM INDICATOR SYSTEM IN MALTA

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This contribution investigates the process and the implications of the European Tourism Indicator System (ETIS) in Malta, which has been launched by the European Commission. ETIS is a tool aimed to improve the sustainable management of destinations through a set of indicators, based on the direct involvement of public and private stakeholders. The research focuses on how to build up the local group, as well as on the forms in which ETIS may be discussed and applied whether at local level or European level. Bearing in mind that any successful strategy for sustainable tourism requires full participation of the main tourism stakeholders and a significant attention upon the specific characteristics of the tourism destination, this contribution aims to enhance sustainable tourism destination management practices.

1. Introduction

Since the publication “Limits to Growth” (Meadows et al, 1972) and the Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987) sustainability has become an essential issue within the discourse of policy makers and private stakeholders. In the last two decades there has been an increasing body of knowledge for providing theoretical and practical contributions to policy makers and

tourism operators in order to tackle the unsustainability of tourism. Public and private stakeholders need tools for managing the negative impacts of tourism on destinations. In this perspective, various efforts have been promoted by diverse organizations such as governments, European organizations (EU) international tourism organizations (e.g., UNWTO, OECD) for enhancing sustainable tourism practices. These efforts have however led to a lack in sharing standardized indicators among destinations as well as in comparing non-homogenized data. Thus, tools for sustainable management of tourism destinations still remain a crucial issue for tourism stakeholders and scholars.

The European Tourism Indicator System (ETIS) presents an interesting opportunity to improve the sustainable management of destinations through a set of indicators. This paper, rather than presenting a detailed description of ETIS focuses on a road map for its implementation in Malta. One such implication aims to engage stakeholders in a common process to reach goals for sustainable tourism development. In fact a clear lack in sustainable tourism practices regards "(...) a failure to pay more than a lip service to stakeholders participation" (Miller and Twining-Ward, 2005: 281). As the next section shows, sustainable tourism development is often seen as a panacea for solving environmental, economical and social unsustainable issue. The central point of this contribution relies in the strong conviction that efforts addressed at improving sustainable tourism should be shared among different players of the tourism system. A common objective among tourism stakeholders should be engaging people for promoting awareness on sustainable tourism principles, as well as taking concrete responsibility for minimizing any unsustainable effect of the tourism industry.

2. Overview on Sustainable Tourism Development

Sustainable tourism derives from the concept of sustainable development referred to as the Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987), which defines sustainable development as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs". Moreover, an important inspirational source of sustainable development can be identified in the broader movement of ecologists that arose in the

Western Countries in the 1960s and 1970s (Hardy et al., 2002) which gave a contribution in creating ideological and political content as well as ecological and economic content. Contemporaneously, the Club of Rome commissioned a report to investigate the increasing population, pollution, and exploitation of nonrenewal resources around the world (Pezzoli, 1997). The result of this study, "Limits to Growth" (Meadows et al., 1972), exposed the risk of global depletion based on unlimited economic growth. Unfortunately the proper meaning of growth has been misused and it is not surprising if nowadays politicians apply "growth" or "sustainable growth" to justify policies that are a far cry from sustainable basis.

The literature contemplates a variety of definitions of sustainable development. Sharpley states that "any form of tourism should itself be environmentally sustainable and be able to contribute indefinitely to broader sustainable development policies and objectives" (2002: 327). Despite the popularity of sustainability, both overall and in the context of tourism, its implementation has remained elusive (Ioannides et al., 2001). Perhaps the most important obstacle, barring the transformation of sustainable development in action, derives from the fact that there is no consensus as the term's precise definition (Butler, 1999). The difference between the goals of sustainable tourism and the actualities of tourism impacts clearly shows the presence of an implementation gap or deficit (Hall in Gossling et al., 2008).

Sustainable tourism can be considered "one of the great success stories" (Gossling et al., 2008; Mowforth and Munt, 1998). The term is utilized in discourse of planners and politicians and it has been used in the business sector as marketing argument. Analysts generally agree that while the concept has merit as a long-term principle for ensuring that a society does not live beyond its means, it is impossible to achieve, given that it remains unclear what needs to be sustained and how (McCool and Stakey, 1999). Although during the past four decades academics have been involved in debates on sustainable development definitional issues and perspectives, there is no doubt that a variety of actors spanning the public and private domains are now familiar with the concept. Table 1 below highlights the main principles of sustainable tourism.

Table 1: Principles of Sustainable Tourism

Minimizing environmental impacts
Achieving conservation outcomes
Being different
Achieving authenticity
Reflecting community values
Understanding and targeting the markets
Enhancing the experience
Adding value
Having good content
Enhancing sense of place through design
Providing mutual benefits to visitors and hosts
Building local capacity

Source: Sharpley (2009: 62).

Although sustainable tourism development arose as the opposite of mass tourism in the form of alternative tourism (Sharpley, 2005) nowadays it is clear that sustainable tourism does not only refer to a specific type of tourism, but involves forms of it. The main principles of sustainable tourism contemplate key concepts such as holistic approach, long-term capacity, and equity (Telfer and Sharpley, 2008). Sustainable tourism aims at the improvement of quality of life, the satisfaction of basic needs, the self-reliance approach, and is based on endogenous development. Realizing sustainable tourism requires the adoption of a new social paradigm, technological systems, and a global alliance facilitating integrated development (WCED 1987, IUCN 1991). In this context, working together with public and private stakeholders, represents a key strategy for pursuing sustainable tourism development policies at destination level.

3. Tools for Sustainable Tourism Management: the European Tourism Indicator System

Tourism indicators are praised for relying primarily on demonstrated implementation of sustainability principles, rather than on “documented intent” to act on sustainability principles such as policies, plans, and strategies. Indicators represent an evaluation tool orienting activities toward sustainable development (Hunter, 1997). According to the UNWTO (1996),

indicators measure information with which decision-makers may reduce the chances of unknowingly taking poor decisions. They could be considered as a useful policy learning tool - policy learning being defined as a deliberate attempt to adjust the goals or techniques of policy in response to past experience or new information (Hall, 2011).

Indicators are not only useful for destinations having already structured planning; they can play a catalyst role for destinations where no plans are in place, through identification of state of actual conditions, goals to reach and potential issues needed to be regulated. Indicators are a form of an education tool - helping to highlight key concerns for public information and fostering demands for action. Sustainable Tourism Indicators (STIs) are not an end on their own but could be the beginning of a collective consciousness.

While elegant in theory, however, STIs are complicated to implement for the actual process of selecting, measuring, monitoring and evaluating a viable set of relevant variables (Jovicic and Ilic, 2010). The development of sustainability indicators is a process of both scientific “knowledge production” and political “norm creation”. Incompatibility between the needs and objectives of the academic versus the political world often challenges the need for indicators. That is why some authors considered that indicators have to be achieved through political consensus resulting from discussion among the stakeholders (Tanguay et al., 2011). On applying STIs two main keys for success can be identified: the importance to formulate clear objectives for implementing an indicator system through establishment of a multi-disciplinary advisory panel, and the necessity to design an effective and flexible implementation framework for converting indicator results into management action (Twinning-Ward and Butler, 2002).

The European Commission (EC) has produced several policy papers emphasizing the need to integrate sustainability in tourism planning. In its Communication “Europe, the world’s No 1 tourist destination - a new political framework for tourism in Europe” (2010), one of the four priorities for actions is dedicated to sustainable tourism development. Particularly, for achieving the goal of promoting development of sustainable, responsible, high-quality tourism, EC is working on sustainable tourism initiatives such as NECSTouR or EDEN.

Table 2: Framework of ETIS' Indicators

A. Destination management indicators

- A1 Sustainable Tourism Public Policy:
- A2 Sustainable Tourism Management in Tourism Enterprises
- A3 Customer Satisfaction
- A4 Information and Communication

B. Economic Value

- B1 Tourism Flow (volume and value) at Destination
- B2 Tourism Enterprises Performance
- B3 Quantity and Quality of Employment
- B4 Safety and Health
- B5 Tourism and Supply Chain

C. Social and Cultural Impact

- C1 Community/Social Impact
- C2 Gender Equality
- C3 Equality/Accessibility
- C4 Protecting and Enhancing Cultural Heritage, Local Identity and Assets

D. Environmental Impact

- D1 Reducing Transport Impact
 - D2 Climate Change
 - D3 Solid Waste Management
 - D4 Sewage Treatment
 - D5 Water Management
 - D6 Energy Usage
 - D7 Landscape and Biodiversity Protection
 - D8 Light and Noise Management
-

Source: European Commission, European Tourism Indicator System, Toolkit (2013).

Thus, STIs are not new in the European agenda, even if ETIS was formally launched by DG Enterprise and Industry in February 2013. ETIS was designed by the University of Surrey through the development of the Tourism Sustainability Group (TSG) indicators and tested at regional level in NECSTouR network and at municipal level in EDEN destinations. The instrument has been planned to be easy to use thanks to a "Toolkit" which explains step-by-step the implementation process. ETIS is composed of 27 core indicators and 40 optional ones that can be adapted to the needs of the destination. Four subjects are

monitored: destination management indicators, economic value indicators, social and cultural indicators and environmental impact indicators (Table 2). The Tourism Policy Unit's is monitoring the operability of the system in voluntary pilot destinations during the period July 2013 to December 2015.

Substantially ETIS implies a deal with politicians, private entrepreneurs, researchers, NGOs operators based on a fundamental principle of sustainable development, as well as of sustainable tourism development: being directly involved in sustainable management destination process both at local and international level. The main core of the tool focuses on taking direct responsibility for making possible the social, cultural and economic change. ETIS is a versatile tool that takes into account the specific characteristics of each European destination, thanks to its feedback mechanism.

4. Applying ETIS to the Maltese Tourism System

Malta has marketed itself internationally as a sun, sea and sand destination (Dodds, 2007), although cultural and historical goods occupy a significant role in the Maltese tourism system (Theuma, 2004). With a population of 419,000, Malta is the most densely populated country in Europe. The islands, made up of Malta, Gozo and Comino, cover an area of 316 km², located in the Mediterranean Sea. According to Malta Tourism Authority (MTA), tourism contributes 25% of GDP and 41,000 full time jobs (27% of total employment) (MTA, 2007). Tourism is the country's 3rd largest industry and consumes 10% of total lending from local banks (MTA, 2007). Tourism arrivals account 1.4 million, there are 12.6 million of tourist nights, and the average length of visitor stay is 8.7 nights (MTA, 2013). Tourism arrivals in Malta increased steadily since the mass tourism boom of the 1960's until the late 1990's. Malta still depends mainly on the UK market for tourist arrivals, and the Italian market represents the second share, overcoming the German's share (NSO, in Tourism Policy for the Maltese Islands 2012-2016: 5).

Table 3: Main tourism characteristics in Malta, 2012

1,443,762 tourists visiting Malta
12.6 million touristnights
8.7 nights average duration of stay
€1.3 billion total spent by tourists
€931 average per capita expenditure
Total cruise passenger traffic advanced by 9.4% over 2011, and reached 608,786 passengers
322 cruise liners called in 2012 with an average of 1,891 passengers per vessel

Source: MTA (2013).

Comparing the tourism arrivals from November-April 2006 to November-April 2011, there has been a little increase in tourist arrivals during the shoulder months resulting in a better seasonal spread (NSO, 2013). Although this is a positive outcome, seasonality still remains a characteristic of the Maltese tourism system. For completing the short overview on the Maltese tourism feature, a significant aspect is here underlined: hotels represent the backbone of the Maltese accommodation sector, with 33,234 bed places, while other collective accommodation such as apart-hotels, guesthouses and hostels, own the remaining 6,262 bed places (NSO, 2012). Moreover, considering the spatial distribution of hotels and resorts, there are areas characterised by heavy concentration of accommodation facilities and consequently of tourists.

The Maltese tourism system shows the unsustainability of its model, which is characterized by evident impacts on environment (Briguglio, 2008). Dodds highlights a clear “lack of commitment to sustainability”, as well a “lack of stakeholder support and participation” (2007: 58, 60). Examining barriers to sustainability, Dodds states that there are 3 key causes for these barriers to implementation: an over-focus on rejuvenation and marketing, and a lack of political will (2007: 60). Regarding the lack of political will, McElroy (2002) stresses the absence of a holistic measure of tourism impact in Malta.

The latest Governmental tourism policy (Tourism Policy for the Maltese Islands 2012-2016) points out a list of economic, environmental and social goals that are clearly addressed at reaching sustainable goals. Moreover, the recent political change in the government (March 2013) may represent an opportunity for

implementing sustainable policies and practices with the direct engagement of both public and private organizations.

5. Strategy for Building up the ETIS' Local Group: A Road Map

Usually sustainable tourism policies are - or should be - centred on stakeholders' participation. However as indicated in section 2 above, this is not often the case and Malta is no exception. Although the Tourism Policy currently in place advocates sustainability there are no indicators in place. Through ETIS, Malta will have the opportunity to adopt a system of measuring its sustainable tourism practices. ETIS is aimed at assessing sustainability in tourism regions.

The aim is to present and test ETIS for enhancing sustainable tourism practices in Malta as well as to create enough awareness among stakeholder groups to encourage the adoption of sustainable management practices within the tourism sector. The process, led by the Institute for Tourism, Travel and Culture (ITTC) of the University of Malta, will entail a bottom-up approach whereby open consultation with stakeholders ensures that all participants are fully involved in the process. The ITTC is the ideal body to lead such an exercise due to its position as an academic entity and its links with the industry, local communities and the government.

A preliminary list of stakeholders has been drawn up and this is outlined in Table 4 hereunder. Having identified the stakeholder groups, a public meeting will be organised by ITTC to introduce ETIS to the Maltese tourism stakeholder group. Following this a series of focus group sessions with the individual stakeholder groups will be held.

Since ETIS calls for quantitative data, an analysis of the routine data currently collected by the NSO, the MTA and the MHRA, is required. Data which is not currently captured will need to be collected. Since the indicators also involve visitors and the visitor awareness of sustainability measures current visitor surveys need to be modified.

A calendar of meetings will be set up with individual stakeholder groups. Apart from participation in the discussions it is envisaged that stakeholders are also involved in capturing of

certain data and for this aim it is foreseen that the process will entail the design of data gathering tools that will enable the respective stakeholder groups to collect the required information. Through this process, it is planned that the respective stakeholders become more aware of the fact that sustainability is an internal process that can be planned and directed. As the process will evolve the respective authorities in Malta will be informed of the progress being made as will be the ETIS Core Team of experts and DG Enterprise.

Table 4: List of Stakeholder Groups to be involved

Entrepreneurial Group

Malta Hotel and Restaurant Association
 Cultural Organisations such as private museums
 Civil Aviation Companies
 Retail outlet representatives (GRTU)

Public Bodies

Ministry for Tourism and Culture
 Ministry for Sustainable Development
 Malta Tourism Authority
 Heritage Malta
 Malta Resource Authority
 Malta Transport Authority
 Malta Environment and Planning Authority
 Local Councils
 Local Councils Association
 Local Action Groups (LAGs)
 Waste Serve
 Building Industry Consultative Group
 Gozo Tourism Association

Civil Society

Resident representatives
 Cultural NGOs
 Nature NGOs
 Tourists

The proposed process challenges the traditional mode of tourism planning whereby stakeholders are often passive participants. Indeed, ETIS implementation in Malta will be an active process involving stakeholders at all stages, by identification of responsible organisations for the four main areas

tackled by ETIS. ITTC together with the stakeholders will work towards first understand the full impact of tourism, and secondly through the results obtained determine how tourism can be managed better to ensure sustainability.

6. Conclusions

Since sustainability has become a key factor of any socio economic system, there have been several attempts for planning sustainable tourism development programmes. Indeed tourism destination management requires effective participatory approaches for improving sustainable and responsible practices both at international and local level. Researchers and scholars are aware of “the need for more holistic and integrative frameworks, the overcoming of narrow academic disciplinary boundaries, recognition of nonlinearity of tourism impact, and planning as an adaptive and collective learning process” (Bramwell, 2007:73). Although sustainable tourism principles are clearly identified, less clarity seems to be reserved to the ways through which making them real. In other words, while there has been a flourishing production of studies in sustainable tourism definitions, it seems that there still is a lack in sustainable tourism tools and practices able to deeply affect the unsustainability of tourism. Weaver states that “whether we intervene or not, unsustainable tourism cannot stay in that condition indefinitely” (2013: 233). In his view, local stakeholders, who have the most to lose or gain from local tourism activity, find ways to solve problems.

ETIS may represent a tool to solve unsustainable problems through embracing holistic and collective visions that private operators and single stakeholders often do not manage. Rather than collecting data, a crucial aim of ETIS is bridging the gap among different stakeholders in order to create a shared vision of sustainable tourism. The next and more ambitious step of ETIS’ implementation processes will hopefully bring the creation of shared Action Plans for Sustainable Tourism among European destinations. Considering that ETIS aims to gather stakeholders and to enhance awareness because of sustainable tourism development as a collective process rather than an individual

one, it is important to stress that such awareness should be achieved through an effective bottom up approach.

ITTC will implement ETIS within the Maltese tourism industry for enhancing sustainable practices in a sensitive and restricted physical space characterised by a strong sea side mass tourism, such as Malta. The crucial innovative element in the Maltese tourism system is the effective opportunity to undertake a bottom up approach. The direct involvement of ITTC in the ETIS implementation process may also be considered as a positive example of an academic body who takes part in the reality for the social change, according to Weaver's suggestions (2013). Hopefully the Maltese implementation of ETIS will create and share different types of knowledge - expert knowledge and scientific one - among various players, and experiment the building up of a working model based on horizontal relationships such as a bottom up approach should concretely be.

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CULTURE AS CONDITION AND CIRCUMSTANCE FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: A THEORETICAL APPROACH APPLIED TO TOURISM

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The concept of sustainability has traditionally been based on three dimensions: environment, society and economy. In the last years a new trend on sustainability has emerged. It considers culture as a fourth pillar of sustainable development. This study aims to explain how these views represent only fictitious solutions to achieve sustainable development. A new "vision of the world", known as *transdisciplinarity*, will be applied as a starting point to achieve sustainable development as a common goal for human beings entailing the assumption of a common meaning. This assumption requires a "journey" from one level of reality to another, in accordance to a new logic based on included middle, one axiom of transdisciplinarity. Finally, based on the premise that culture is the essence of man that goes beyond their diversities and contradictions, can allow human beings to consider their planetary destiny as their common meaning, and achieve their common goal.

1. Objectives

Sustainable development is a common goal pursued by all human beings. However, despite the fact that strategies, actions, pillars, dimensions and indicators of sustainability were being debated for nearly 30 years, there are no concrete results in this direction, as demonstrated by the economic crisis, the irreversible

damage to the environment, the lack of equity in our society, etc. The objective of this study is to review the current model of sustainable development and propose a new vision in which man recovers the role that he deserves in the development process, being both responsible for it as well as its beneficiary. In order to achieve this objective, culture is taken into account, not as a fourth pillar of sustainable development but as a condition and circumstance of sustainability.

2. Methodology

The study introduces the transdisciplinary approach explaining its methodology axioms. In a second phase, this approach will be used as a new vision, to reveal the lacuna that the traditional reductionist view of sustainable development has created. Among experiments of transdisciplinarity approach, that stands out to understand tourism. In this study, the significance of tourism starts from the recognition of its contribution to the sustainable development. In order to achieve this objective, it is necessary to recognize the value of the Subject for tourism. This recognition is extendible to all human activities, thanks to the logic of included middle that implies a "journey" from one level of reality to another. Moreover, to apply this logic, it is necessary to assume a common meaning which corresponds to the unity of all human beings regardless of their diversity and contradictions. Based on the premise that culture encompasses all human attributes, it can allow the human beings to understand their common planetary destiny and find solution to achieve the common goal.

3. Transdisciplinarity Theoretical Approach

It was necessary to wait for the Symposium "Science and the boundaries of knowledge: the prologue of our cultural past", held in Venice on March 1986, for the development of transdisciplinarity approach (TD). It concerns, as the prefix "trans" indicates, knowledge between the disciplines, across different disciplines, and beyond all disciplines. Its goal is the

understanding of the world, of which one of the imperatives is the unity of knowledge.

Transdisciplinarity, as the Romanian quantum physicist NiclescuBasarab argues, is one of the four arrows from a single bow, that of knowledge. The others arrows, not antagonistic but complementary, are disciplinarity, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinarity.

As Blevis and Stolterman (2009) affirm:

Disciplinarity is an approach to a particular problem space using a single, identifiable collection of methods informed by or in the service of a single body of Knowledge. Multidisciplinarity is an approach to a particular problem space using coordinated outputs from distinct collections of methods informed by or in the service of respective distinct bodies of knowledge. Interdisciplinarity is an approach to a particular problem space using integrated outputs from combined collections of methods informed by or in the service of combined bodies of knowledge (p.48).

As a theoretical approach, more than a definition, it implies a well-defined methodology of transdisciplinarity. In the absence of a methodology, transdisciplinarity would be just talking; while the formulation of its methodology has been accepted and applied by researchers in many countries around the world, as indicated in the website of Centre International of Transdisciplinary Research and Studies.

The three axioms of the methodology are:

1. The ontological axiom: There are, in Nature and society and in our knowledge of Nature and society, different levels of reality of the Object and, correspondingly, different levels of reality of the Subject.
2. The logical axiom: The passage from one level of reality to another is ensured by the logic of the included middle.
3. The complexity axiom: The structure of the totality of levels of reality or perception is a complex structure: every level is what it is because all the levels exist at the same time” (Niclescu, 2010b:24).

Reality resists our experiences, representations, descriptions, images, or even mathematical formulations. Reality is not merely a social construction, the consensus of a community or some inter-subjective agreement but it also has a trans-subjective dimension(Nicolescu, 2009:6).

Furthermore Reality is dynamic and it is impossible to arrive at an exact and complete point of reality(Nicolescu, 2010a).

In respect of the level of reality, disciplinary research concerns a single level of reality, while transdisciplinarity concerns the “dynamics engendered by the action of several levels of reality at once” (Nicolescu, 1997: 3). When there is a break in the laws and in the fundamental concepts, there are two levels of reality.

Two neighbouring levels of reality are connected by the logic of included middle, a new logic when compared with classical logic which uses the logic of excluded middle. These logics are complementary. In order to understand the included middle logic, it is useful give an example. The colour black is the A element and the white is non-A element. In the same level of reality these are extremes. If one considers another level of reality, achieved by the included middle logic, it is possible to see all range of other colours (T element). It is just an example to indicate that if one insists on a single level of reality, the contradiction arises and is nurtured over time. The logic of included middle serves to find the cause of a particular problem. In terms of sustainability, if there are some conflicts in the society, that means that society has been unable to solve contradictions and to find the cause of them.

In respect of the third axiom, it is difficult to understand complex system behaviour due to a multiplicity of highly interrelated elements, influences and patterns, and even if the behaviour of each part by itself may be fully or partially understood.

4. A Phenomenological Transdisciplinarity: Conditions and Circumstances for Transdisciplinary Sustainable Development

Transdisciplinarity is not only a theoretical approach; there is also phenomenology TD which implies:

Building models that connect the theoretical principles with the already observed experimental data in order to predict further results(Nicolescu, 2010b:23).

Even if transdisciplinarity started as a need to transgress disciplines boundaries, especially in the education field, nowadays, it is used to face problem and challenges of our world. Transdisciplinarity could prove crucial in building sustainable development (SD).

At the moment, the SD concept is built upon reductionist or binary thinking which asserts that all phenomena or events can be reduced and disassembled sequentially into more basic elements. It considers that it is possible to break a problem into a sub-problem and build its solution upon the aggregation of solutions to the sub-problem. Reductionist or Binary Thinking (classical or linear) recognizes the existence of just one level of reality, reducing it to society, economy and environment.

It falsely assumes that ecological, social and economic spheres are independent systems (Mulder and van den Bergh, 2001; Cerar, 2012: 3). The problems of these spheres are still considered in separated environment and their solutions are sought in an independent way.

Nicolescu (1996) argues that most of the academic disciplines consider only one level of reality based on the classical logic; they accept a Reality as being the ultimate truth. For that reason, the content of single academic disciplines cannot find complete and valid solution to the current SD of global problems, such as uneven income distribution, overpopulation, neo-imperialism, destruction of ecosystems, lack of vision of human development, etc. These problems are complex systems problems requiring system solutions that claim such changes as the adoption of a new non-reductionist view of human development, and a system thinking in order to unite

traditional disciplines “beyond the classical notion of science and fill the knowledge gaps between them” (Cerar, 2012: 2). The meaning of SD is hidden in connections between different disciplines and beyond all discipline (Cerar, 2012). In other words, SD requires not only rational logic, but human values (Meadows, 1996:117, Cerar, 2012: 2).

In regards to transdisciplinarity, academic disciplines are located on different levels of reality, which passage from one level of reality to another, is insured by the logic of the included middle. This logic favours the reconciliation between two or more contradictory disciplines thus creating a new temporary T term representing the emergence of new non- disciplinary knowledge which is called transdisciplinarity Knowledge (TD Knowledge). The reconciliation between contradictory disciplines is temporary and its process is never ending. TD knowledge does not impart the final truth because it is always evolving, unifying disciplinary knowledge.

According to MaxNeef(Cerar, 2012: 4)“TD is a new way of thinking and understanding of complex systems problems”.

In order to understand the issue of sustainable development, it is necessary to reflect deeply on its three levels:

1. Elementary-individual level
2. Organizational-institutional level
3. National-global level

At the elementary level, there are three elements that are not separable: Transdisciplinarity Object (TD Object), Transdisciplinarity Subject (TD Subject) and the Hidden Third.

TD Object represents the outer world, or circumstances, and it is composed of physical elements which provide the flow of information without paying attention to relations between them. The physical world is focused on Dionysian values which include hedonistic values (sensual and material pleasures), and the values of power (achievement, success, reputation, and also patriotism). In other words, TD Object considers the content of the elements but ignores their meaning. TD Object implies fields of eco-sphere (atmosphere, geosphere, hydrosphere and biosphere)and economy.

TD Subject represents the human inner world, or conditions, and it is characterized by flows of consciousness. The inner world

is the source of tolerance, justice and other Apollonian values which include: moral values, consisting of traditional and societal values (democratic and social values, honesty, love, equity); and fulfilment values related to personal, cultural and spiritual growth (cognitive, cultural, self-actualizing and spiritual values, creativeness, knowledge, beauty and self-realization). TD Subject gives the meaning to the physical elements of the TD Object and to human activities, from the individual, political, social and historical point of view. TD Subject develops human relations and relationships towards TD Object. TD Subject represents the socio-sphere, formed by all human beings on the planet and their interrelationship.

The result of different states of consciousness, which are induced by our physical structures and our sensorial organs, is the activation of new levels of perceptions. The existence of these levels of perception favours the access of human Knowledge to different level of reality. TD knowledge is concerned with the correspondence between the outer world and the inner world.

The Hidden Third is the point of connections between outer and inner world, where it is possible to unify that knowledge necessary for developing holistic sustainable future. The flows of Information and Consciousness are interrelated due to the fact that they share the same Hidden Third point in the zone of non-resistance. This zone, where there are no levels of reality and perception, plays the role of the included middle enabling the unification of the TD Subject and the TD Object, even preserving their differences.

At the elementary level, there is a crisis of human perception as regards the common goal of the inner and outer world, due to the lack of Apollonian Values that lend new meaning to Dionysian ones. The change in attitude toward Apollonian values can be the solution to pursue a common goal. This change, at the elementary level, can be favoured by TD integration at organizational level. Only an organization-institution with Apollonian values is able to solve contradictions, while those with Dionysian values create conflicts because they are not ready to accept new perceptions.

This diversity of views favours a better understanding of a system in which organizations and institution have to operate.

At the organizational level, successful TD cooperation starts from the concept of Knowledge. It should go beyond science, such as imposed by the modernization, especially in the western countries (Costa, 2006:35), and also includes empirical aspects. Indeed TD cooperation is likewise based on the integration of non-academic actors such as civil society, local community leaders, partners, and stakeholders from different backgrounds.

At the national-global level, the lack of Apollonian values favours fictitious solutions for SD because they are concentrated on TD Object and not to TD Subject. This situation affects the flows of consciousness and perceptions of the Subject, thus his knowledge. These problems can be faced through holistic and unified knowledge, the TD Knowledge. A Transdisciplinarity approach tries to develop a common concept and vision unifying Apollonian levels of perception. Through the unity of different levels of reality, humanity is closer to a holistic sustainable solutions passing through the Hidden Third and not through devastating conflicts.

5. Experimental Transdisciplinarity Applied to Tourism

The application of transdisciplinarity to Tourism is still in the experimental stage and it is directed to understand tourism as a system.

Experimental transdisciplinarity can imply:

Performing experiments following a well-defined procedure, allowing any researcher to get the same results when performing the same experiments(Nicolescu, 2010b: 23).

In this study, TD application to tourism starts from its contribution to sustainable development (UNCTAD, 2013), but it is also an experiment for all human activities, based on the recognition of the importance of the Subject for tourism and all human activities.

Indeed, tourism, as Panosso(2007) suggested is a human activity, starting well before the voyage when a person is still collecting information about the destination, to when he returns

back, and remembering the experience. The human being is involved in tourism as a tourist, travel agent, pilot, receptionist, entrepreneur, public tourism manager, and also as a resident who affects, and is affected by tourism, directly or indirectly. The unique factor that differentiates them is the way in which each one is experiencing the tourist experience during the relevant time; but what they all have in common is the fact of their being human. The subject is one that gives meaning to the objective aspects of tourism, such as infrastructure, the target area, etc. which are fundamental in the construction of the system of tourism but do not have a meaning by themselves.

Who determines their meaning for their use is the human being that, on the contrary, has an existential value by himself.

This vision should be extended not only to tourism, but likewise to all human activities through an ethical platform. As Macbeth (2005) pointed out the Ethics platform has to guide policy, planning, development, and management of tourism.

Ethics, as one recognizes in transdisciplinarity, is the conscience of the human beings who assume that they are also individual, forming part of a society and a species (the one that shares the same biological traits of *Homo Sapiens*). In order to achieve this assumption, or common meaning, and find a concrete solution for SD, the human being should pass from one level of reality to another. In other words, to build his knowledge, which is always evolving, the human being has to make a continuous "journey" that can be physical, mental, spiritual, and with senses, etc. that does not have a final point.

It is also true that the tourist can also return to the same physical location from which he departed, such as his habitual environment, but his inner world will be different, enriched by a new experience and then by new perceptions of reality which improve human knowledge.

Furthermore, if the inner world of Subject changes, even his Apollonian values change that again will influence the outer world, including the physical place where he returns.

6. Culture as Condition and Circumstance of Sustainable Development

As it was been mentioned above, the traditional reductionist view with which the sustainable development is approached, does not allow one to find a concrete solution.

Furthermore, from the Summit Rio+10 held in Johannesburg on 2002, France, Mozambique and UNESCO started to discuss the cultural component of sustainability. On 2004 United Cities and Local Government (UCLG) approved the Agenda 21 for culture, a worldwide declaration of cities and local governments for the role of culture in our societies. On 2010, culture is officially recognized as the fourth pillar of sustainable development by a Policy Statement approved by UCLG, on 17th November 2010, in Mexico City.

However the addition of another pillar does not guarantee a valid solution to SD.

Instead, this study aims to recognize culture as a condition and circumstance of sustainable development, as a connection between subject and object. In other words, according to a TD vision, it aims to consider culture as the included middle, permitting the overcoming of contradictions and the identification of causes to the problem of SD.

In order to achieve this aim, this study started from the vision of culture held by Pupo (2011) who considered it a guide to understand the world, which is the aim of TD vision. Culture is the essence and means of ascent of man as expressed in human activities, needs, interests, objectives, means, and conditions that characterize the becoming of man as a complex system. A cultivated man, more than his reason and intellect, has also an aptitude to sensitivity, to spiritual welfare, and he is able to look both within and outward with human eyes. In other words she is capable of learning to understand, to do, to live with others, and to be. Jacques Delors (1994:34) defined them as the "Four pillars of Education".

Furthermore, this hypothesis is also based on the idea of the American anthropologist Geertz (1973) who believed, like Max Weber, that humans weave the plots of meaning and culture is composed of these plots. For Geertz, culture is an interpretive science in search of meaning.

If the meaning is assigned by Subject to Object, as TD affirms, it is possible to argue that culture, through meanings, gives value to Subject and his level of perception promoting the access to human knowledge at different levels of reality. In other words, through culture and its meanings which are attributed to the Subject, it is possible to change the attitude toward Apollonian values and find the solution to pursue our common goal of sustainable development.

However, it makes no sense to talk about searching for meaning if there is no object to interpret. TD Subject and TD Object are non-separable and dependent on each other. They restrict and modify each other. In culture, Subject and Object encounter each other because culture does not represent just meaning, as the symbolism of Geertz claims, but also the physical elements and contents through which various cultures are materialized.

If culture expresses meanings and contents, it is possible to affirm that culture can represent the connections between disciplines and beyond all discipline and the meaning of SD which is hidden in these connections. Indeed, as Cesar (2012) argues, each discipline gives a new meaning and a new content to other disciplines.

In culture it is possible to find the point of integration between Subject and Object and Apollonian and Dionysian values which give the opportunity to people to improve and open to new systems of perspectives, ideologies, human values and beliefs. Furthermore this integration can work not only at individual level but also at organizational, national, and global level, but it depends on the understanding of the common meaning. What do human beings have in common? They have human culture as the capacity shared by all people regardless of their diversity of content and meanings.

Therefore, it is possible to affirm that through human culture, human beings become conscious of their role as citizens of the Earth with a common planetary destiny and they can pursue a common goal.

Finally, it is possible to see culture as the hidden third in which they connect the inner world and the outer world where it is possible to unify the knowledge which is necessary for the development of holistic sustainable future at all levels. In other

words, culture represents the condition and the circumstance for sustainable development.

7. Conclusions

In conclusion, it is possible to affirm that, nowadays, at all levels of social integration, conditions and circumstances are not in favour of a new vision of sustainable development. In order to change this situation, transdisciplinarity proposes to recognize the role of the Subject to achieve the common goal. This recognition, essential to tourism as well as to all human activities, needs to be supported by the assumption of the planetary destiny as the common meaning of human beings. This assumption can be achieved through human culture.

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MANAGERIAL APPROACHES TO SUSTAINABLE TOURISM AND DESTINATION DEVELOPMENT

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The aim of the paper is to deeply understand the different strategic choices a destination management organization (DMO) can make with a managerial approach in order to ensure the development of the destination by systematizing local resources according to a long run vision. Once the “sustainable tourism” is identified, it is necessary to understand which are the main strategic initiatives a DMO can put in place taking into account the stakeholders directly or indirectly involved in tourism activities, according to a responsible tourism approach. In order to identify common procedures and successful policies, the paper uses a comparative case study analysis in order to describe several existent best practices with some possible generalizations. The findings of this research highlight strategic governance choices, as well as the role of public and private actors, in facilitating destinations sustainable development.

1. Introduction

Sustainable tourism can have different possible declinations, according to its three traditional pillars (environmental, economic and social). The aim of the paper is to deeply understand the different strategic choices a destination management organization (DMO) can make with a managerial approach in order to ensure the development of the destination by

systematizing local resources according to a long run vision. Once the “sustainable tourism” is identified, it is necessary to understand which are the main strategic initiatives a DMO can put in place taking into account the stakeholders directly or indirectly involved in tourism initiatives, according to a responsible tourism approach. These initiatives regard not only the identification of resources but also the definition of the necessary skills and competences, in a systemic approach that allows activating development mechanisms (Della Corte, Sciarelli, 2012; Trevis, 2011). For this reason, a part of the paper refers to the analysis of some cities for which strategic choices and several specific governance policies stated them as must-see destinations, critically analyzing the existing sustainability models using some proxies that allow identifying both the destination position and its strategic policies in sustainability.

2.Theoretical Overview on Sustainable Tourism Development

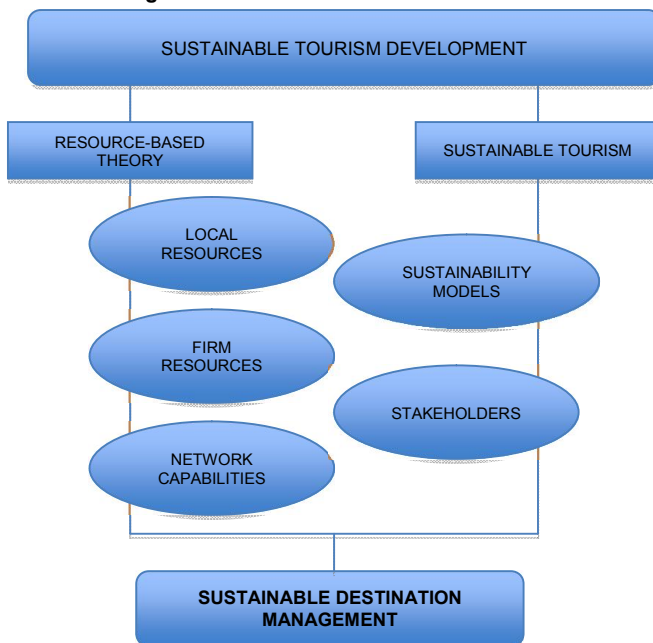
Tourism is a phenomenon encompassing sociocultural and economic dimensions and affecting on various aspects. The aim of the paper is to deeply understand the different strategic choices a destination management organization (DMO) can make in a managerial approach in order to ensure the development of the destination by systematizing local resources according to a long run vision. Once the “sustainable tourism” is identified, it is necessary to understand which are the main strategic initiatives a DMO can put in place. These initiatives regard not only the identification of resources but also the definition of the necessary skills and competences, in a systemic approach that allows to activate development mechanisms. For this reason, a part of the paper refers to the analysis of some cities for which strategic choices and several specific governance policies stated them as must-see destinations, critically analyzing the existing sustainability models using some proxies that allow identifying both the destination position and its strategic policies in sustainability.

The research tries to answer the following questions:

- 1) According to a sustainable destination development, what are the main strategic initiatives a DMO can put in place?
- 2) Which are the strategic assets, not only in terms of resources but also of skills and competencies in a systemic approach, that allow to activate development mechanisms?
- 3) Which are the strategic choices and governance policies that state a city as must-see destination according to the sustainability approach?

For this reason, a complex theoretical framework is identified (Figure 1).

Figure 1: The theoretical framework



Studies on sustainable tourism deepen their roots on the comprehension that it is necessary to deal with the potential economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism activities on a destination (Jafari and Shanthikumar, 1989).

The link between sustainable development and tourism comes out from the Brundtland Report of the WCED, which defines sustainable tourism, with particular reference to tourism activities, as “forms of tourism which meet the needs of tourists, the tourism industry, and host communities today without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”. In this sense, it is necessary to adopt different sustainable tourism perspectives in order to deeply understand the complexity of this phenomenon.

During the years, many scholars have analyzed the phenomenon and provided their contributions, but most of these definitions have been similar to the one provided by WTTC, for at least two main reasons, according to the main features of the phenomenon:

1. the WTTC gives importance to the “time dimension”, referring to the qualitative and quantitative conservation of the existing resources for an unlimited period;
2. they assume an overlapping perspective between the three pillars of sustainability, overtaking the environment and promoting an equilibrium (and often, an overlapping) among economic, social and environmental sustainability.

The first contributions on the theme are focused on the environmental feature of sustainable tourism in ecological terms (WCED, 1987; Wight, 1993). Some scholars, in fact, link sustainable tourism to ecotourism, stressing the importance of the ecological component. This view implies an inadequate consideration of the management dimension and of the necessity of mechanisms for feedback (Choi and Sirakaya, 2006; Ko, 2005; Douglas, 2006). Since further contributions on the theme have emphasized the importance of evaluation models and indicators, there is no single tool that allows addressing all environmental, social and economic issues at all levels (Schianetz et al., 2007). Other studies instead stress the importance on stakeholders and, in some cases, on the visitor as one of the key factors facilitating sustainable tourism because of the experience he/she lives.

During the years, the concept of economic sustainable tourism springs out as the investments in the tourism sector necessary to ensure sustainable development (Richards, 1996). Further contributions highlight the importance of a long-term perspective, not only for resources' preservation but also because the effects of current decisions can affect future situations in a long-run vision. According to this statement, the contribution of McElroy and Albuquerque (2002) seems to be the most useful since it underlines that "sustainability ideally seeks to preserve a permanent and widely shared stream of income by creating an adaptive competitive destination niche market through the ongoing guidance of participatory community planning without unacceptably sacrificing the socio-cultural and natural integrity of the asset base". This contribution highlights the link between sustainable tourism and the development of a destination according to a networking perspective in which communities are included.

Comparing the different definitions, it is possible to underline that most of the scholars have dealt with the sustainable tourism agreeing with the assumption of WCED, whether the one which have reworked the definition have stressed the attention on both the relationship between tourists and residents and the importance of preserving and respecting the local community from tourism processes (Swarbrooke,1999; Lim and Cooper, 2009).

During the years among the different contributions on sustainable tourism, the focus changes, referring not only at the ecological dimension of sustainability but also at the different stakeholders with which a destination interacts. In this way, scholars put in place new definitions of sustainability in which stakeholders have an active role for the well-being of the destination, as well as a sustainable destination is recognized as the key point for the well-being of the different stakeholders. New contributions on sustainable tourism remark the importance of the different stakeholders, here including partners from the tourism industry, governments and communities as groups and individuals which have different interests, goals and values but which have to be part of the process of tourism planning and development (WTO, 1995; Long, 1997; Timur and Getz, 2008).

Table 1: Main contributions on sustainable tourism

Year	Author(s)	Definition
1987	World Commission of Environment and Development	Forms of tourism which meet the needs of tourists, the tourism industry, and host communities today without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.
1995	World Travel and Tourism Council	Sustainable tourism has economic, ecological, and social and cultural sustainability dimensions. Economic sustainability ensures that development is economically efficient and that resources are managed in such a way that they can support future generations. Ecological sustainability is concerned with ensuring development that is compatible with the maintenance of essential ecological processes, biological diversity and biological resources. Social and cultural sustainability ensures that development increases people's control over their lives, is compatible with the culture and values of people affected by it, and maintains and strengthens community identity.
1995	WTO	Sustainable tourism is defined as a model form of economic development that is designed to: - improve the quality of life of the host community - provide a high quality of experience for the visitor, and - maintain the quality of the environment on which both the host community and the visitor depend
1999	Swarbrooke	Sustainable tourism means tourism which is economically viable but does not destroy the resources on which the future of tourism will depend, notably the physical environment and the social fabric of the host community.
1996	Richards	Sustainable tourism is tourism which develops as quickly as possible, taking account of current accommodation capacity, the local population and the environment...The development of tourism and new investment in the tourism sector should not detract from tourism itself...New tourism facilities should be integrated with the environment.
2002	Icomos	Sustainable Tourism refers to a level of tourism activity that can be maintained over the long term because it results in a net benefit for the social, economic, natural and cultural environments of the area in which it takes place.
2002	WTO	[...] tourism which leads to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be filled while maintaining cultural integrity, essentials ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems
2002	McElroy and Albuquerque	Sustainability ideally seeks to preserve a permanent and widely shared stream of income by creating an adaptive competitive destination niche market

		through the ongoing guidance of participatory community planning without unacceptably sacrificing the socio-cultural and natural integrity of the asset base
2005	Beech and Chadwick	Sustainable tourism is tourism that is economically, socioculturally and environmentally sustainable. With sustainable tourism, sociocultural and environmental impacts are neither permanent nor irreversible.
2006	Weaver	1) [...] tourism that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs 2) [...] tourism that wisely uses and conserves resources in order to maintain their long-term viability.
2012	Lozano-Oyola, Blancas, González, Caballero	Sustainable tourism is as such not a specific form of tourism but more an approach that can be used to make all types of tourism more environmentally, socially and economically beneficial.

In order to develop powerful tools for destination management, it is necessary to start identifying the key factors which can act as facilitator of a sustainable development. In this optic, the resource-based theory (RBT) is of fundamental importance since it focuses on the strategic role of local resources, of firm resources and network capabilities in gaining competitive advantage in a sustainable way.

According to this optic, RBT is the expression of several links between strategic firm resources, network resources and competitive advantage. At destination level, it is useful to understand what are the key network's competences and capabilities for the deployment of tourist services. Indeed, from the degree of specialization of these capabilities spring out the image of the destination perceived by tourists during their phase of resources' fruition (organic level). In this way, it allows focusing on the strategic role of local resources, of firm resources and network capabilities in gaining competitive advantage in a sustainable way.

3. Methodological Approach

In order to identify common procedures and successful policies, the paper uses a comparative case study analysis in order to describe several existent best practices with some possible generalizations. Through several data collections,

matching statistics, archives and observations, the paper identifies the major findings and qualitative results of the cases.

4. Empirical Research and Findings

The empirical research is conducted on five cities that have affirmed themselves as “must-see destinations”, in order to understand the role of DMO’s in this development process and the link to sustainability: Barcelona, London, New York, Sydney and Paris.

The cities have been chosen for the strategic role the DMO has assumed in favoring their development.

In Barcelona, for example, the pivotal actor is the Consortium, which is responsible for the tourism development. This government entity has involved lots of members (trade associations and local actors, among the others) during the years. The Chamber of Commerce has a strategic role for the initiatives and the policies they put in place.

In Sydney, the DMO has included the tourism development in its development plan in 2010, demonstrating the importance of this sector for the destination development.

For what concerns London, London and Partners has the strategic role of creating and implementing marketing strategies for the tourism development, also thanks to the support of Visit London. The same is for New York, for whom the NYC and Co’s work is mainly focused on destination marketing.

According to the development processes of these destinations, it is possible to assess that when the pivotal actor is created with a public-private partnership, it is easier to create an *ad hoc* entity for tourism development, as in the case of London and Sydney, for whom there is a dedicated subject assuming the leading role. In the case of a private or public actor, as for Barcelona or New York in the first case and Paris in the second one, there is a single subject responsible for the development. These cities demonstrate that, apart from the nature of the configuration of the DMO, right policies in management and marketing can lead to destination development.

Table 2: Different configurations of the DMOs

Destinations	Nature	DMO
Barcelona	Private	Turisme de Barcelona
London	Public-private	London and Partners
New York	Private	NYC and Co.
Paris	Public	Paris Info
Sydney	Public-private	Destination New South Wales

But what is the link with the sustainability?

The focus on sustainability is well recognized in their strategic plans. These different cities give great importance to sustainability. Analyzing their different strategic plans, it emerges that:

- Consorcio Turisme de Barcelona has created a strategic plan with a medium-range planning, aiming at a sustainable tourism development, limiting the anti-tourism phenomena that can take place when the carrying capacity is overtaken. Consorcio Turisme de Barcelona built a road map for a sustainable tourism development, starting from the achievement of Biosphere certification, being so the first destination in the world to be labeled under this name. This certification comes from the Institute of Responsible Tourism. Furthermore, Consorcio Turisme de Barcelona acts on the social component, with a special focus on disabled people, also creating an *ad hoc* website certified according AAA Website Accessibility Certification;
- London and Partners has created a specific framework for the development of the city that gives great importance to the safety of the city and to the improvement of the quality of life for citizens and tourists. In particular, London and Partners underlines the importance of the economic and social pillar of sustainability. The governance actor, starting from the importance of the concept of “gross value added”, builds the contents for both social and economic wealth. The creation of jobs is due to the ability of the company to attract foreign investment, recording 2000 new job opportunities in 2013. In economic terms, the gross value added of London and Partners indicates the “difference between the price paid for a good or service and the cost of inputs used in its production”. Furthermore, there is an ‘additional gross value added’ linked to the spending capacity of leisure tourists and businessmen, event

organizers, travel trade operators and foreign direct investment;

- New York represents an useful example of the application of the concept of sustainable development of the city and, of course, of tourism. In this direction, PlaNYC is a strategic plan about sustainability introduced by Mayor Michael Bloomberg in 2007. The focus is on the environmental component of sustainability in order to reduce all the negative impacts. More precisely, the philosophy is to achieve “a greener, greater New York” (PlaNYC Progress Plan Report, 2013) according the monitoring of some variables such as housing and neighborhoods, parks and public space, brownfields, waterways, water supply, transportation, energy, air quality, solid waste and climate change. The identification of these variables has allowed to monitor the path that lead to the reduction of environmental resources, ensuring an improvement of their quality;
- the sustainable tourism is a key concept that leads the strategic policies of the Paris Info. First, it is an important dimension in the hotel industry, which works hardy in reducing CO² emissions and managing wastes. Citizens have a key role in improving tourists' experience in Paris since they support tourism activities through volunteering and local associations, showing them emblematic and unknown places. The overall city activities, including transports, ancillary services and shopping experiences are managed according to the responsibility principles. This has led Paris to partner to the 6th edition of the Responsible Tourism trophies organized by Voyages-sncf.com together with 20 partners. The aim of these events is to support local actors to activate forms of tourism that respect the environment and the local people, in order to demonstrate that “there are responsible travel options to suit all desires and pockets” (www.parisinfo.com);
- as regards Destination New South Wales (DNSW), one of the main role of the governance actor is to support the development of sustainable destinations. Due to the presence of numerous natural resources of New South Wales located all over the region (Blue Mountains, Central Coast, Central NSW, Hunter, Inland, Mid North Coast, Murray, Northern Rivers, Riverina, Snowy Mountains,

South Coast), the task of DNSW is to preserve these resources and promote a sustainable tourism in that areas, also in the form of eco-tourism .

Therefore, the empirical research, conducted on some must-see destinations, highlights that:

- a systemic approach at a destination level can favour the sustainable development process, integrating local and state government plans and policies, in terms of natural resource management, social, cultural and economic development, infrastructure and risk management plans and so on;
- in order to achieve competitive advantage, public actors have to cooperate with the other stakeholders, favoring the relations between them and assuming a leading role;
- sustainable destination management has to develop strategic and operational plans to guide tourism initiatives affecting the development, management and marketing of the destination.

5. Conclusions

The findings of this research highlight strategic governance choices, as well as the role of public and private actors, in facilitating destinations sustainable development. In particular, 1) a systemic approach at a destination level can favour the sustainable development process, integrating government plans and policies, in terms of natural resource management, social, cultural and economic development, infrastructures and risk management plans etc; 2)in order to achieve competitive advantage, public actors have to cooperate with other stakeholders, favoring relationships between them and even assuming a leading role; 3) sustainable destination management

⁷ According to Isaacs (2000) "ecotourism is a proxy market designed to align consumers' preferences for recreation with the protection of environmental assets." Furthermore, he adds that the benefits are linked to the protection of natural areas and it donates "an effort to minimize external costs of tourism".

has to develop strategic and operational plans to guide tourism initiatives affecting the development, management and marketing of the destination. These results can be really helpful for DMO managers in order to define more mindful sustainable tourism policies and to identify the most relevant initiatives able to ensure this development.

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ARTISTIC AND RELIGIOUS EXPERIENCES IN ONLINE TRAVEL REVIEWS ABOUT SAINT PAUL OUTSIDE THE WALLS (ROME)

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Word-Of-Mouth (WOM) is a social dynamic naturally occurring in the interaction among people, and represents the elective channel to share experiences. Thanks to web 2.0, WOM has gained a new significance: users now have a number of opportunities to voice their opinions and, conversely, to inform their decision thanks to advice from other users. The study presented is a first investigation of tourism experiences at a religious site shared on an online review platform. A corpus of Online Travel Reviews about the Roman Basilica of Saint Paul outside the Walls published on TripAdvisor served as a case study, to answer questions related to functional, content and semantic-linguistics aspects of religious tourism experiences reported online. In particular, the role of artistic religious sites as *mediator* for religious experiences is investigated.

1. ICTs, EWords-of-Mouth and Tourism Experiences

Tourism is an experience which needs to be communicated. In fact, both if it was wonderful or terrible, a travel experience is usually shared with others; telling it, discussing it, comparing it with previous experiences is nearly a need for someone who just came back from a journey. Tourism is an experience of freedom, since it gives the tourist the opportunity to decide where, how and with whom to spend her free-time, fulfilling those desires which are usually subordinated to the duties and rules of the daily life. Tourism

driven by religious motivations, then, is expression of the personal quest for meaning, and singles out the most inner values and beliefs. Many elements of a journey contribute to shape a unique experience, but each journey is usually fixed in the memory because of one or a few more aspects, which makes it special and different from all the others.

Experience is shared, mostly, by means of Word of mouth (WOM), which has always been an elective channel to spread and collect information, since it is a social dynamic naturally occurring in the interaction among people. WOM can be even considered as the primary enabler of economic and social activity in most of the ancient and medieval communities, which had not yet established formal law systems of contract enforcement. WOM has been showed to play a major role for customers' buying decisions, and WOM from friends and relatives has been found to be the most commonly used information source for travellers before they make a travel decision (Beiger and Laesser, 2004).

Web 2.0 – or 'read and write web' – is giving new significance to WOM, providing consumers with a number of opportunities to voice their opinions, which encompass a variety of media forms and types of websites: blogs, personal Web spaces, podcasts, wikis are only some of them. Such contents are known as User Generated Contents (UGC) and can equate electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM). The Internet provides easy access to word-of-mouth discourses about almost every kind of consumer and experiential goods, since almost every kind of product or consumer experience can now be reviewed or commented online directly by the user. Consumers increasingly rely on eWOM to make a variety of decisions, thanks to their easiness of access and multiplicity of contributors.

Dellarocas (2003) identifies three characteristics which make online feedback mechanisms different from the non-mediated WOM networks: the scale that can be achieved; the possibility information technology gives to control and monitor feedback mechanisms, through proper engineering of information systems that mediate them; new challenges introduced by the very nature of online interaction, as the difficulty of identifying the author, because of the lack of contextual cues and the easiness of changing online identity.

In addition, eWOM includes many-to-many communication, since a comment may be left by a user, read by many, answered back or followed through by other users.

Tourism-related UGC usually reflect the experience of the tourist at specific destinations, her evaluations and reactions about the experience as well as about the destination itself. Prospective tourists use the net for gathering the necessary information to make decisions about the many different aspects of the journey; studies show that they trust more contents generated by other tourists – like online reviews or forum posts – than official sources, because they are considered more credible, genuine and not business-driven (Dwyer, 2007).

Online Travel Reviews (OTR) are a form in which content is created online; they are, indeed, the most accessible and prevalent form of eWOM in the field of tourism (Chatterjee, 2001). They represent people's wish to share their travel experiences online, recommending a tourism product or complaining about it. When reporting a travel experience, people do not just tell their stories nor do they only provide information about places and services, but make claims about those places and services and give reasons supporting their claims (De Ascaniis and Greco Morasso, 2011). OTR are, indeed, an argumentative type of text, where the opinions given are backed by values, beliefs, expectations about the very idea of travel and tourism. Analyzing OTR allows, thus, to get closer to people's most personal experiences and better understand them.

2. Religious Tourism Attractions and Pilgrimage Shrines

One of the “classics” in the field of pilgrimage and comparative religion is the monograph by Nolan and Nolan (1989) *Christian Pilgrimage in Modern Western Europe*, which reports a long-term study when, during over ten years of research, the authors visited nearly 1'000 pilgrimage sites, talked with pilgrims, tourists and service personnel, and made comparisons at geographical as well as devotional level. According to the results of that study (see also Nolan and

Nolan, 1992), the universe of religious tourism attractions can be conceptualized in three overlapping categories: a) *pilgrimage shrines*, that are sites having mostly no particular historic or artistic significance, visited for religious reasons by people from beyond the immediate locality; b) *religious tourist attractions*, that are sites of religious significance drawing visitors because of their historic or artistic value; c) *religious festivals*, associated or not with pilgrimage shrines, that are sites where special celebrations are organized during religious occasions. As the authors point out, these conceptual categories are overlapping, and they exist various blends of the three basic categories. The classification is useful, however, to investigate and understand tourism-related dynamics of religious sites in terms of their main characteristics, in terms of public, tourists' motivations, site attractions.

For the study presented here, a religious tourist attraction was taken as case study: it is the Roman Basilica of Saint Paul Outside the Walls. The site is, indeed, for many visitors, primarily a pilgrimage shrine; in particular, in the occasion of the 2000th anniversary of his birth, Pope Benedict XVI dedicated a special Jubilee year to the Apostle Paul, which started on June 28th 2008, and was officially closed on June 29th 2009. The Jubilee year attracted to the Basilica a number of pilgrims from all over the world, because “questa Basilica vuole essere la testimonianza viva e vitale dell’insegnamento e dell’esempio di Paolo per additarlo a tutto il mondo e continuarne la sua opera” [trans. by the authors: “this Basilica intends to be the living and vital testimony of Paul’s teaching and model, to show it to the whole world and to carry on Saint Paul’s missionary work”] (Cordero Lanza di Montezemolo, 2009, p. 23). In the following section, some historic and artistic aspects of the Basilica are presented.

2.1 Saint Paul Outside the Walls: Between Religious and Heritage Tourism

Saint Paul’s Basilica is one of the most visited attractions in Rome: TripAdvisor ranks it at the second place (out of 649) of all the attractions in Rome reviewed by the users community, with over 1350 travel reviews (as at the end of 2013). The greatest majority of those reviews gives an

excellent (over 1'000) or very good (over 260) rate to the attraction.

It is Rome's largest patriarchal basilica after St Peter's in the Vatican. It is located at about 2 Km outside the Aurelian Walls surrounding Rome and is property of the Holy See, enjoying extraterritorial rights. It was founded over the burial place of Saint Paul, immediately after the Emperor Constantine issued the Edict of Milan in 313, which marked the end of the Christian persecutions and conferred on them freedom of worship, encouraging the construction of places of prayer. It was initially a small church with three naves, but immediately became a place of veneration and prayer during years of Christian persecution, so that a bigger basilica was built. The actual Basilica has an imposing Byzantine structure, 131.66 metres long by 65 metres wide, rising to a height of 30 metres, comprising five naves, supported by 80 monolithic granite columns. Throughout the centuries many Popes restructured and embellished the Basilica with frescoes, mosaics, paintings and chapels. Famous is the series of papal portraits, which go round the top of the nave and the transept with 265 round mosaics. On the night of July 15th 1823 a terrible fire almost entirely destroyed the Basilica leaving hardly any of the structures and works of art intact, and most of the walls had to be rebuilt. The "new" Basilica was consecrated on December 10th 1854 by Pope Pius IX (1846-1876), on the occasion of the proclamation of the Dogma of the Immaculate Conception.

The Basilica has been designated as a National Monument by the Italian Government due to its artistic and aesthetic value and is part of the UNESCO World Heritage since 1980, together with the historic centre of Rome.

3. Research Questions and Methodology

Different aspects of the relationship between tourism and religious experience are worthy to be considered; in the study reported here, four of them were systematically investigated. The research questions, which drove the study were:

a) can different types of OTR be distinguished according to the main communicative function they accomplish?

b) does the artistic and/or the religious experience emerge from OTR?

c) can the artistic aspects of a religious attraction be drivers for a religious unsought experience?

d) is the artistic or religious experience 'revealed' by certain keywords?

The corpus of analysis comprised all the OTR in English about Saint Paul Outside the Walls, ever published on TripAdvisor until May 25th 2013. 400 OTR were retrieved, 388 of which were considered for the analysis. The corpus was coded and analyzed using UAM Corpus Tool, version 2.8.12, a software for semi-automatic annotation of texts and images. UAM allows to explore linguistic patterns and linguistic features in a text, which cannot be explored with simple concordances, and which cannot be automatically tagged because they pertain to the semantic or pragmatic level. UAM also provides statistical functionalities.

The corpus was undergone to a three steps analysis:

1) a *functional analysis*, aimed at distinguishing the reviews in terms of their main communicative goal, that is the effect the text was conceived to bring on reality (for instance, to give an advice or to describe an event);

2) a *content analysis*, with the aim of identifying passages in the reviews where the author reported his/her experience at the site, paying attention, in particular, to artistic and religious aspects of the tourism experience;

3) a *semantic-linguistic analysis*, aimed at identifying keywords particularly representing of the artistic and the religious experience.

4. Results

4.1 Functional Analysis

Three types of OTR were distinguished, according to the main communicative function they accomplish (Searle, 1969):

a) *practical reviews*, which mostly give trip planning-related advices, as indications to reach the site, means of transport, time to allocate for the visit. An example is the following:

“Another Major Church”

5/5 Reviewed April 2, 2013

(...) It's fast, maybe 15 minutes, to get to this church on the Metro Blue Line from the Termini. This same Metro train stops at the Colosseum, so in the Termini you can follow the signs to the Colosseum train. There is also a bus from Rome with this church as its ultimate destination. The bus parks in the street right in front of the front of the church. (...)

b) *attraction outline reviews*, which report mostly about historical or artistic aspects of the site, or provide details about tourism services and facilities. Below is an example:

“Portraits of all Popes”

4/5 Reviewed November 25, 2012

Monumental complex, very scenic! Inside there are the portraits of all Popes, included the current one. You can find how many Popes might find their places before... Domsday!

c) *first person account reviews*, which focus on the tourist's experience, reporting his/her travel story, opinions on the attraction and recommendations to prospective tourists. This type of reviews represents the major source of insights for users seeking for travel advice and looking for the touristic value of specific sites. The following review is an example of this type of texts:

“Beautiful Church!”

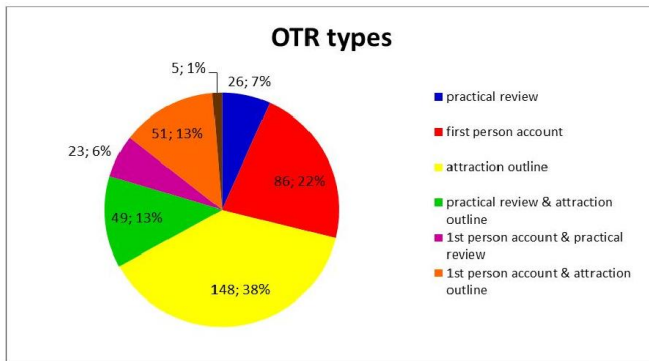
5/5 Reviewed March 31, 2013

Loved it! What a beautiful church! This was not on our tour, but we had some extra time on the way to the catacombs and made this stop. I was so glad we did! Loved the history

behind this church. And now can say I was at the place St. Paul is buried.
Make sure to see this beautiful church!!

Figure 1 shows frequency results for each category, including frequencies for mixed categories.

Figure 1: Types of OTR according to their main communicative function.



The majority (38%) of the OTR about Saint Paul are descriptions of the site, providing details about historic, architectural and other artistic aspects, such as the fact that it is the burial site of the apostle Paul, the interior is enriched with mosaics and paintings of all the Popes, the naves are sustained by massive columns. The description of the Basilica is often accompanied by practical hints on how to reach it, the best time to go or how to plan a visit within a wider tour. Summing up OTR which give practical hints and attraction outline, it amounts to nearly 60% (precisely 58%) of the whole corpus; in all the remaining OTR, some level of personal account about the experience at the attraction is reported. In particular, in almost one fourth of the reviews (22%) the account of the personal experience prevails on other elements. These results show that OTR do not only provide informative content about a specific tourism site, but might be a source of *opinionated information* (De Ascaniis, 2013). When reporting on personal experiences, in fact, people give

value judgments and express opinions; such judgments and opinions entail a persuasive power, in that they are claims supported by reasons, thus, they may influence the reader's perception of the site being reviewed and give a base for pondering about it. OTR contribute to shape the reputation of a tourism site and, this way, to lead travel decisions.

4.2 Content analysis

The analysis of the content of the corpus of OTR aimed at identifying the parts of the texts where the reviewers commented about their visit to the attraction in terms of an artistic or religious experience. The corpus was annotated classifying tourism experiences according to the following types:

a) *artistic experience*, that is when the reviewer commented about artistic aspects of the attraction giving an esthetical judgment, as in the following example:

- "During masses, the front part of the church is lighted and the gold mosaic art work on the walls and ceiling is spectacular." (*Another Major Church*, April 2, 2013)

b) *religious experience*, that is when the expression of an emotion caused by or related to a sacred object/event/environment was reported, as in:

- "Have been now a few times for mass and even as a non Catholic I can say the mass is quite uplifting. Wonderful voices and setting." (*Spiritual!*, September 4, 2012)

c) *combination of artistic and religious experience*, that is when comments about artistic aspects of the attraction were intertwined with expressions of personal emotions, as in:

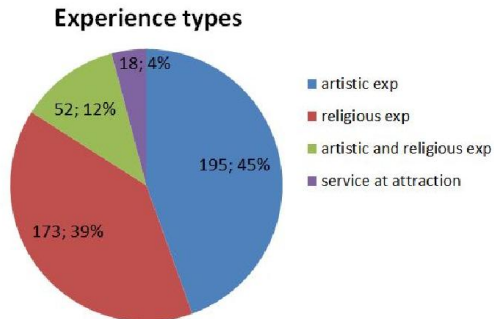
- "This is a definite pilgrimage site for Christians everywhere, and the decorations are beautiful too." (*The tomb of St. Paul!*, March 14, 2013)

d) *service at attraction*, that is when the reviewer commented about services for tourists at the site, or generically about his/her experience as a tourist, as in:

- "The reason this church gets two stars is (...)the very nice gift shop selling abbey made products". (*Disappointing ...*, March 5, 2012)

Inter-coder reliability was measured, to check the consistency of the categories. Two coders coded a sample of 40 reviews, and agreed both on the passages of the text to be annotated and on the categories assigned, except that in 5 cases. Figure 2 reports the frequencies for each category.

Figure 2: Types of tourism experiences reported in the OTR about Saint Paul Outside the Walls



Nearly half (45%) of the tourism experiences reported in the OTR are related to some extent to the spiritual dimension or religious life, and a bit smaller amount (39%) concerns artistic or aesthetic aspects of the attraction. In 12% of the annotated assertions, then, comments on religious experiences at the attraction are combined with comments on the reviewer's artistic experience. These results show that when reviewing a religious tourism attraction, beyond describing it and giving practical information, people share their personal stories, pointing out those elements, which impressed them the most and made their visit worth to be communicated. Even the most intimate of the experiences, that are those related to the religious and spiritual life, are put to the fore and shared. This might not be due only to the type of attraction – i.e. a religious site –, since one could only comment about artistic aspects of the site, without revealing his/her spiritual experience. In addition, the religious experience should not be taken for granted just because the reviewer was visiting a religious tourism attraction, in fact, as often reported in the reviews making up the corpus “you don't

have to be religious to enjoy!”. The artistic dimension of a place precedes the religious dimension, and this is why tourists visiting religious sites neither need to have pilgrimage motivations nor to belong to the religion representing the site to appreciate it.

A different matter is, then, the question if artistic aspects of a religious attraction can be *drivers* for a religious unsought experience. To answer this question, the analysis of the keywords used to describe the artistic and respectively the religious experience at the Basilica might be of help.

4.3 Semantic-linguistic analysis

The UAM Corpus Tool allows compiling the absolute frequency of words, the frequency of keywords and the frequency of key-phrases in the corpus. The absolute frequency of words lists usually place on top words such as “the”, “of” or “and”, while the keywords and key-phrases frequency orders words or phrases (called *n-grams*) in terms of their ‘specialness’ for the corpus, that is in terms of how important each word is for a specific corpus when compared with other corpora. The ‘specialness’ of words is measured in terms of *propensity*, that is the likelihood that a word occurs in the annotated texts that are under investigation compared with everything else in the corpus; a propensity value of 100, for instance, indicates that the word appears 100 times more in the annotated texts than in the corpus as a whole. UAM CT also allows to visualize keywords in the form of a tag cloud, that is highlighting more important words using a bigger font.

Words that are representative of the reviewers’ artistic experiences at the attraction particularly highlighted:

1) the *overall impression of the church*, given mostly by its size and architecture, that is described with words as ‘huge’, ‘gorgeous’, ‘spectacular’, ‘amazing’, ‘impressive’, ‘astonishing’. These words speak of an intense emotion of surprise; a surprise because, maybe, the architectural beauty and greatness of the church was not expected, or maybe because, even if expected to some extent, such beauty and greatness moved the soul towards transcendent realities.

2) *singular artistic elements*, such as the garden, the paintings of the popes, the mosaics, the sculptures.

When revealing elements of their religious experience, reviewers mostly speak about two aspects:

1) Words as 'peaceful', 'peace', 'moving', 'inspiring', 'quite' and 'holy', all refer to the *atmosphere* surrounding the Basilica. Such an atmosphere raises feelings of peace and quietness, drives intense and deep reflection, allows an intimate experience.

2) Words as 'pilgrimage', 'tomb', 'apostle', 'buried', point to the fact that the Basilica is the *burial place of Saint Paul*, and let emerge one core aspect of pilgrimages, that is the encounter with a witness. Saint Paul, in this case, is the witness of a faith and the icon of a way of living; he is a person, who others would love to emulate.

5. Conclusions

The paper presented a first investigation of the tourism experiences shared online by visitors to a religious tourism attraction, the Roman Basilica of Saint Paul Outside the Walls, that is also part of UNESCO World Heritage. The blend between the artistic value and the religious nature of the site, allowed to see, in particular, if and under which respect the artistic experience might become mediator of a religious experience. Three kinds of analysis were performed, which pointed out functional, content and semantic characteristics of the reviews published on TripAdvisor about the Basilica. Results show that, beyond providing practical tourist information and describing the site, online reviewers give first person accounts of their visit, even sharing intimate experiences as those pertaining to the religious dimension. OTR are, indeed, a source of opinionated information and contribute, this way, to shape the reputation of a site and to lead travel decisions. The fact that reviews of a religious attraction tell of personal religious experiences should not be taken for granted, since they represent a sort of 'revelation' of the reviewer's most intimate dimension; one, indeed, could limit him/herself to comment on artistic aspects. The wish to share the religious – intimate – experience provoked by the site is a cue of the value attributed to it; the religious experience, maybe unexpected and unsought, enriches the

visit and makes it even worthier to be communicated. The Basilica of Saint Paul, in particular, strikes visitors for the majesty of its architecture and the beauty of its works of art as well as for the atmosphere that these aesthetic characteristics combined with the religious aspects create. The peace and serenity of the place, in fact, make the artistic experience more intense, facilitating the very role of the art, that is to break the narrow and painful fence of the reality and to open a window towards the transcendent.

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A SUSTAINABLE APPROACH TO TOURISM IMPACT: GURA HUMORULUI - CAMPULUNG - VATRA DORNEI - BARGAU TRANSCARPATHIAN CORRIDOR CASE STUDY

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The sustainable tourism paradigm is an actual issue that determined important debates over the last decade and was approached by both scientists and practitioners preoccupied to find solutions to reduce tourism negative impact and to maximize its “panacea” effects. One of the factors that determined the appearance and the crystallization of the concept of sustainable tourism in the first place is its impact with both positive and negative variables. Under the influence of sustainable development paradigm a three dimensional perspective on tourism impact was embraced being perceived economically, ecologically and socio-culturally through sets of quantitative and qualitative variables developed in order to operationalize it. Considering international references in the domain the present study illustrates the three dimensional sustainability of tourism activities at local and micro regional level within Gura Humorului - Câmpulung - Vatra Dornei - Bârgău transcarpathian corridor located in northern Romanian Carpathians.

1. Introduction

The sustainable tourism paradigm is an actual issue that determined important debates over the last decade being approached by both scientists and policy designers preoccupied to find solutions in order to reduce the negative impact of “golden

hordes” and to maximize the “panacea” effects of recreational activities, capable of reviving less developed regions, without neglecting social equity. One of the factors that determined the appearance and the crystallization of the sustainable tourism concept in the first place and at the same time a key issue of tourism concept from a sustainable perspective is the impact produced by recreational activities with its positive and negative variables. Under the influence of sustainable development paradigm the concept of sustainable tourism adopted a three dimensional perspective being approached economically, ecologically and socio-culturally through sets of both quantitative and qualitative variables developed by scientists, profile organizations and practitioners in the need to operationalize the concept and translate it into practice, sometimes even through handbooks and guides (Miller, 2001, Choi and Siracaya, 2006, UNWTO, 1998, 1999, 2000, 2002, 2004, 2005, etc.). All these references remarked and underlined the need to downscale territorial analysis to micro-regional or local level in order to understand mechanisms and to be able to measure and estimate elements of tourism sustainability in a real context. Moreover new trends that orient sustainability perspective over the community long term and equitable benefits are a supplementary argument pointing out the importance of local territorial analysis.

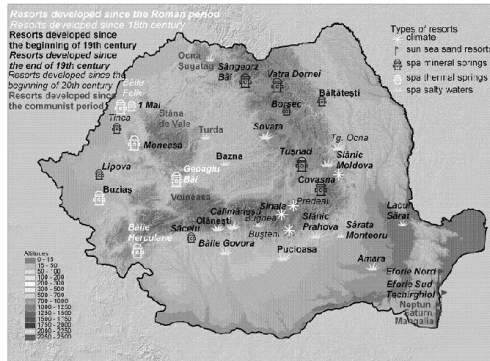
2. Aim and Location of the Study

Based on the above enumerated bibliographic references, mentioning appropriate indicators for the operationalization of sustainable tourism concept in a given territorial context, the present study attempted to evaluate the impact of recreational activities in the micro regional area of Gura Humorului - Campulung - Vatra Dornei - Bargau transcarpathian corridor. The area is part of the famous Romanian tourism region of Bucovina, representing in fact its most attractive part from resources, tourism infrastructure and demand point of view and consequently justifying its choice from tourism industry's perspective. However from the geographical point of view the territory corresponds to a ‘continuum’ underlined since ancient times through the existence of trade routes among the historical provinces of Moldavia and Transylvania. The space function was

a key argument for choosing a study territory corresponding nowadays to two different administrative units (Suceava and Bistrita counties) and made the territory to perfectly respond to goals of a practical research work on tourism impact. Local results of different development policies within the corridor homogenous territory were emphasized underlining also various cultural arguments for community tourism development within the present context. The study was part of an extended research work enterprised in view of elaborating a PhD thesis centered on the theme of sustainable tourism concept application. Besides considering the recommendations in the theoretical international reference works the study depended also on the availability of statistical data reflecting the official Romanian socio-economic reality. In order to illustrate the quantitative variables describing economically, ecologically and especially socio-culturally the studied area, the present research paper also appealed to ample surveys with key stakeholders for tourism activities in the area (e.g. local authorities, accommodation units' representatives, inhabitants, etc.) The study innovatively included inhabitants within the local communities as one of the most important actors on the tourism market in the area within the sustainability perspective (Swarbrooke, 1999). The research on tourism impact within Gura Humorului - Campulung - Vatra Dornei - Bargau transcarpathian corridor was structured on the tridimensional pattern of sustainability and considered as illustrative territory for the concept theoretical aspects and its indicators the 22 settlements representing the local communities in the area. Quantitative indicators and data on the three main sustainable dimensions of tourism impact were obtained from official statistics provided by the National Institute of Statistics and its county offices (Suceava and Bistrita respectively) but also through surveys applied at the level of the 22 city halls representatives, of the regional tourism industry representatives (152 representatives of different accommodation units and 4 representatives of the 6 local tourism agencies were interviewed) as well as of representatives of local households (381 answers from representatives of households in the corridor's settlements were gathered). Supplementary quantitative data and qualitative aspects were underlined by interviews with key persons in different domains and institutions related with sustainable aspects of the tourism sector in the area (e.g. urban ecologic

services, local cultural museums, public policy departments, etc.) and through personal observations made during field trips on the corridor's territory. All the survey and field trip campaigns took place on an extensive 4 years period between 2005 and 2009, their results describing a recent image of the socio-economic situation and of tourism impact at the level of local communities in the micro regional area of the Gura Humorului - Campulung - Vatra Dornei - Bargau transcarpathian corridor (Figure 1).

Figure 1: The location of Gura Humorului - Campulung - Vatra Dornei - Bargau transcarpathian corridor



3. Economic Impact of Tourism

The economic impact is undoubtedly the most important one if tourism development is considered on a territorial scale no matter the extension of the area (Dinca, 2013). Both investors and public authorities follow a main common economic interest tightly connected with tourism development goals from which they expect financial gaining and local social benefits such as labor force employment respectively. Economically tourism is reflected by specific indicators such as revenues, turnover, share of the sector in total regional GDP, VAT or other quantitative indicators and is supposed to generate both direct and indirect effects (Dwyer, Forsyth și Spurr, 2004) as a

consequence of its connection with different other economic branches through the so called multiplier effect. Generally tourism economic impact is analyzed through the multiplier effect of 'tourist expenditure (tourism receipts) and for investments...which would measure the changes that occur at the level of revenues, outputs, employment and payments and are determined by changes in tourists spend' (Minciu, 2004). 'According to experts evaluations tourist expenditure/revenues multiplier index, expressed as a multiplying effect for initial expenses takes in general values of 1 - 2.5' (Minciu, 2004: 307). An indicator with an opposite economic effect and measuring the sustainability of tourism impact would be the one of leakage which reflects the losses in tourism revenues at the regional level through taxes, imports etc. Both indicators are included by Choi and Siracaya's list (2006), next to labor force variables (e.g.. share of employees working in tourism sector) or to indicators characterizing the behavior of tourism demand (e.g. seasonality, percentage of revisiting tourists etc.), as main measurement statistics for the economic impact of tourism. One of the most used formulas to calculate tourism economic effects is Keynes investment multiplier (Dinca, 2013):

$$k = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{\Delta c}{\Delta v}}$$

where: $\frac{\Delta c}{\Delta v}$ is the marginal propensity to consume which may

be reflected by the intermediary of the elasticity coefficient of consume based on total revenues. If applied to the corridor's area one may use arrivals as an indicator characterizing tourism demand and revenues from tourism. The second indicator was in one variant the revenues generated by the hotel and restaurant branch alone and in a second variant the revenues of this branch plus those of tourism agencies and of recreational event activities. Consequently the elasticity coefficient was calculated on the formula (INCDT, 2006, cited in Dinca, 2013):

$$m = \frac{\frac{T_n - T_{n-1}}{T_{n-1}}}{\frac{V_n - V_{n-1}}{V_{n-1}}}$$

where:

m – the elasticity coefficient

T– tourist demand (arrivals/overnights)

V– tourism revenues

n– reference year (n – 1 – the previous year).

The next step was to calculate the multiplier according to the previously stated formula: $k=1/(1-m)$. Analysing tourists arrivals in the settlements of the transcarpathian corridor and revenues obtained by commercial units from tourism sector (based on the ONRC – The National Trade Register Office figures) one may notice the fact that the indicator could be applied for a continuous stable period (2002 - 2006) only for Vatra Dornei resort. For other settlements its calculation was possible only for some years (e.g. 2005) when the majority of companies active in the tourism sector registered an increased tourist demand and consequently increased revenues for this economic branch as a whole. The value obtained for revenues multiplier within the 2002 - 2006 period was for Vatra Dornei resort of 1.44 if only the branch of hotels and restaurants is considered and of 1.5 if NACE 63 (tourism agencies) and NACE 92 (recreative activities) are added to core tourism activities taking place in accommodation and catering units. In 2005 the indicators' value was of 1.57 for Campulung Moldovenesc resort and of only 1.02 for Gura Humorului resort compared to 1.64 in Vatra Dornei for the same year. All the three cities are Romanian resorts of national interest and the most important tourist settlements in the mountain area of Suceava county concentrating traditionally most part of tourism demand in the corridor. If arrivals are replaced with overnight stays in the above mentioned formula slight differences are observed.

Another important variable to be considered for the economic impact in the analyzed territory is the contribution of different recreational segments to generate the total revenues in tourism

sector. The highest share is generated by accommodation services (e.g. Vatra Dornei - 80.2%, Gura Humorului - 62.7% as well as in many other rural settlements). For settlements where tourism demand decreased and which depend mostly on hospitality services addressed mainly to inhabitants and their events, important contributions belong to the catering units segment (e.g.. Campulung Moldovenesc - 64.3%, Frasin, Iacobeni - as rural settlements with tourism function and ex mining activities).

If the *capital formation at the community level* is regarded one should notice the fact that at present there is a reduced share of foreign property in the tourism sector within corridor's area. Foreign investments are limited to very few scattered accommodation units hosted by the settlements of the transcarpathian region. *The share of reinvested revenues in the tourism sector* represents an important percentage of over 50% from the total revenues, according to the 152 answers of representatives of accommodation units in the corridor, as a consequence of permanent maintenance and modernization costs (Dinca, 2013).

In conclusion one should state the fact that tourism has a reduced positive economic impact at the level of Gura Humorului - Campulung - Vatra Dornei - Bargau corridor. There is a low inconstant multiplier effect which may be calculated only for the most important three previously mentioned urban tourism settlements whereas rural tourism activities are less profitable and more seasonal. Inconstant tourism demand, practicing mostly itinerant tourism in order to visit UNESCO monasteries with external frescoes in the area and with an average stay of only 1 or 2 days, lacks the power to generate important tourism profits which could be reinvested in a real tourism development to be reflected by economically specific constant and reliable indicators.

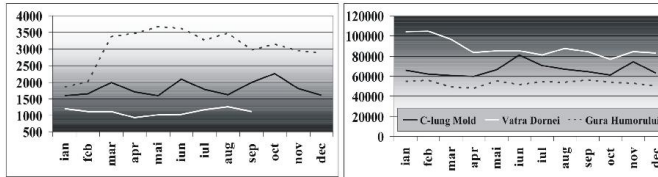
4. Ecologic Impact of Tourism

The ecologic impact of tourism is one of the key domains of sustainable development as tourism activities generate important water and thermal energy consumes and produce large quantities of waste. If inappropriately managed they may though

lead in time to irreversible negative effects, depending on the scale tourism develops on the one hand and on the environment fragility on the other. There are numerous cases in which unmanaged and non organized tourism demand led to important losses of natural resources that finally determined a diminishing of recreational activities and of the socio-economic sustainability of tourism. In order to evaluate the ecologic impact of tourism activities within Gura Humorului - Campulung - Vatra Dornei - Bargau transcarpathian corridor data obtained from urban ecologic services were analyzed in the first place. However the lack of relevant results for tourism domain from limited sets of data which were recently perfected and gathered in order to characterize the local environmental dimension made compulsory also the application of extensive surveys for both local communities and authorities. In this way the present study managed to reveal illustrative data for locally applied and adapted indicators extracted from the international Choi and Siracaya's (2006) reference list and treating the ecologic dimension of sustainable tourism.

If the waste quantity and water consumption generated by tourism demand are concerned one should notice that they do not have important shares within the total amounts measured at the local level for the three resorts of national interest within the corridor's area (Figure 2). The graph showing the monthly quantities for the two indicators for Gura Humorului, Campulung Moldovenesc and Vatra Dornei resorts have more or less a linear evolution not emphasizing a clear upraisal during tourism peak season, registered in the area during the summer season. The seasonality of tourism activities and consequently of quantities of waste or water produced respectively consumed by tourism demand could be underlined only at the level of individual commercial societies with tourism profile. Some examples could be offered by great hotel units such as: Zimbru Hotel in Câmpulung Moldovenesc that registered in 2007 a 52% higher water consume in August than in February; S.C. Casa de Bucovina Gura Humorului S.A. which administers Best Western Bucovina Hotel in Gura Humorului that registered for the same months a difference of 30% in the water consumption; Intus Hotel and S.C. Dorna Turism Vatra Dornei that registered a difference of water consumption of 90% and 52% respectively between the months of August and February of the same year.

Figure 2: The evolution of monthly waste and water quantities (2007) produced/consumed in Gura Humorului, Campulung Moldovenesc and Vatra Dornei

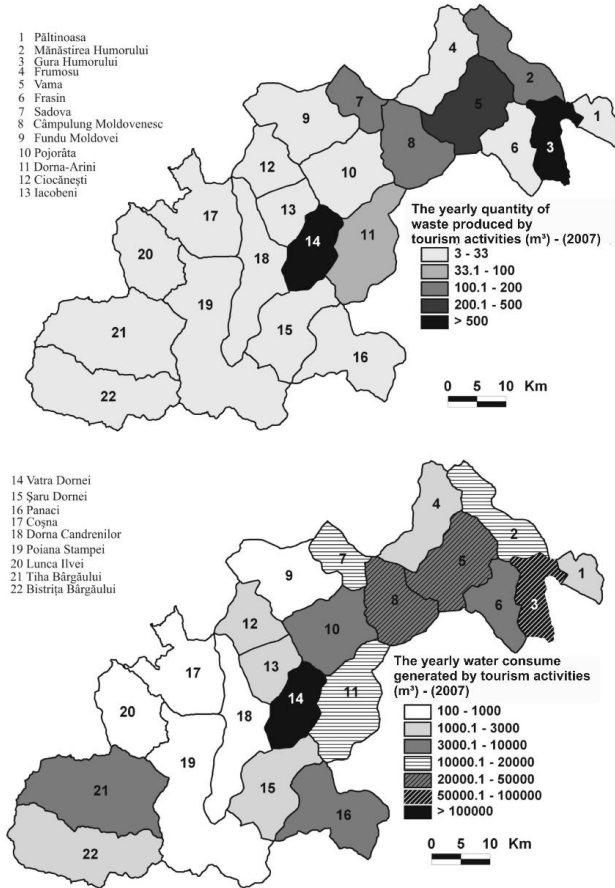


Source: Dinca (2013).

Ultimately the study evaluated waste production and water consumption for tourism sector at the level of each settlement within the transcarpathian corridor. The evaluation was based on the data gathered through ample field research work performed in order to accurately estimate the real accommodation capacity of the studied territory. In this way it was possible to calculate a total number of accommodation rooms with common or private bathroom for each settlement and to further estimate tourist water consumption and production of waste based on official standards and occupancy rates. The official standard quantities of waste and water produced respectively consumed by a person are of 0.1 m³ waste/person/month (translated into 1.2 m³ waste produced by an accommodation place occupied 100% during the year) and of 4.5 m³ water/accommodation place/month in the case of a room sharing a common bathroom or of 15 m³ water/person/month in the case of a hotel room with a private bathroom. One should also state however the fact that standard norms have been calculated for non limited consumptions in practice accommodation units trying to limit their expenses through comptoirs. On the other hand there are units that do not have a registered consumption as they benefit from private springs and which generate in the end an unregistered water consumption without paying for it. That is why estimated figures are even of a greater importance in the given conditions (Figure 3). Based on these assumptions, the calculations revealed however in the end a reduced tourism impact on the natural environment at present for Gura Humorului - Campulung - Vatra Dornei - Bargau transcarpathian corridor territory. Low figures are explained through reduced occupancy rates of accommodation

units during the year and low average stays for a tourism demand practicing mostly an itinerant tourism.

Figure 3: The yearly quantity of waste produced by tourism activities (m³) - estimations; The yearly water consume from tourism activities (m³) - estimations



Source: Dinca (2013).

Obviously the greatest figures for both waste production and water consumption are displayed by Vatra Dornei resort for which the importance of tourism as an economic activity at the local level is also reflected by a greater pressure of this sector upon natural resources. As a complex profile spa resort Vatra Dornei registers an average stay of approximately 4 days for tourism demand in general being the most developed tourism territory at the corridor's level and concentrating 7% respectively 20% of its total waste volume respectively of its total water consumption. On a second place from the point of view of waste production and water consumption in tourism sector it stands Gura Humorului resort, registering a gradually increasing volume of tourism demand and of its average stay as a consequence of its recent development as a main destination of cultural and also business tourism in the region. The ecological impact of Campulung Moldovenesc resort is more reduced compared to the other two resorts of national interest in the area due to diminished tourist arrivals and of tourist activities in general. The resort lost the race with its traditional western competitor Vatra Dornei and even with its eastern more recent but explosively developed eastern competitor Gura Humorului because of the lack of amusement facilities and the loss of its ski domain. Both Vatra Dornei and more recently Gura Humorului appear as tourism spa respectively cultural attractors in the area owning also important local winter sports infrastructure which diminished in time tourism demand for the unmodernized Campulung Moldovenesc resort (Dinca, 2013).

In conclusion one should state the fact that tourism effects on environment are reduced in the studied area at least if official statistics and estimations on waste and water indicators are analyzed. The very young local ecological services may also indicate a certain environmental vulnerability of settlements not used to traditionally apply modern ecologic measures. On the other hand, even if at the moment low occupancy rates do not threaten through tourism activities ecological resources in the area, one should remark a constant pressure from local population on natural resources (e.g. forest cutting, throwing of waste on natural areas etc.) The interviews with representatives of local ecological services showed that efforts are still made to convince people to pay local central managed services for waste disposal. At the

same time results from the surveys applied on both local authorities and inhabitants in the area reveal the fact that at present inhabitants have higher, worrying impacts on the environment resources threatening on a long term the natural attractiveness of the region in general and for tourism activities in particular. In fact more than half of authorities and households representatives considered the present natural environment more degraded if compared with its past estate (registered in the '90s). Higher shares belonged to urban respondents. Among the reasons mentioned as causes for local environmental degrading respondents talked about the uncontrolled forest cutting and the inappropriate waste disposal, both generated almost entirely by inhabitants and not by tourism activities. Asked to mention if they noticed negative tourists' ecological behavior in the area the local authorities' representatives and inhabitants answering the survey referred to waste throwing in natural places, accidental fires, unauthorized camping or air pollution through the excessive use of car transport. Obviously in the case of an increased tourist demand if codes of conduct and management measures are not introduced these negative environmental effects are to increase in future in the area.

4. Socio-Cultural Impact of Tourism

The socio-cultural impact of tourism on local communities is quantified through the intermediary of the social carrying capacity as a complex indicator expressing 'the number of people beyond which social disruption or irrevocable cultural damage will occur' (Swarbrooke, 1999) measured by Doxey's irridex (1976). Otherwise the overpassing of social carrying capacity would determine a negative perception from behalf of the local community for its natural and cultural life environment. The degrading generated by tourism activities would ultimately determine hostile reactions of inhabitants towards tourists who will be rejected.

Taking into consideration local low profitability rates and reduced negative ecological effects of tourism, both authorities and inhabitants answering surveys, declared their interest for the development of recreational activities. Consequently inhabitants answered in an almost 100% percentage that they are not

disturbed by tourism activities taking place in their settlement during the peak tourism season. Tourists are perceived almost entirely by both locals and authorities as a positive factor through the economic benefits they bring at the local level. For these reasons representatives of public authorities and of host communities respectively considered in a proportion of 95% and of 76% respectively that in the future the number of tourists should increase to a high extent compared to the actual level. In fact tourism is clearly seen as a 'panacea' solution for destabilized socio-economic local environments affected by profound social and economic transformation after 1990 and facing a severe deindustrialization process, high unemployment rates, youth emigration and population ageing and lacking important investments for developing other economic sectors (after Dinca, 2013). One may state that members of local communities within the settlements of Gura Humorului - Campulung - Vatra Dornei - Bargau transcarpathian corridor are characterized at present by Doxey's stage of 'euphoria', especially in the rural environment (Dinca, 2013) where tourism activities are less developed inscribing themselves in the new trends of recreational consumerism oriented towards ecologic and cultural authentic products.

5. Conclusion

The present paper focuses on the tridimensional concept of tourism impact perceived through both its positive and negative variables within a sustainable development perspective and attempts to analyze it at the level of local communities of Gura Humorului - Campulung - Vatra Dornei - Bargau transcarpathian corridor located in northern Romanian Carpathians. The study appealed to both official statistics and stakeholders surveys to illustrate the three dimensions of tourism impact at this territorial scale. No matter the size of the territory and the type of tourism effects the optimal solution in order to minimize negative consequences of recreational activities and to maximise the positive ones would be the agreement among different stakeholder groups which should compulsory include inhabitants. Synthetic results of the present study show a present low negative impact of tourism activities in the area, recreational activities

being seen as a solution for socio-economic recovery in the region by both inhabitants and local authorities. However if appropriate management measures are not taken, ecologic and social negative effects are to grow if an increase of tourist arrivals is registered in the future. An important actor to be coped with as it puts a great pressure on tourist natural resources at the moment is represented by local population. These aspects emphasize the need for efficient adequate strategies and actions in order to ensure tourism activities sustainability in the area and to counterpart or diminish their possible negative effects.

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Power and Tourism: Negotiating Identity in Rural Cyprus

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The aim of this paper is to examine the emergence of rural tourism discourse in the 1980s in Cyprus, and how is it intertwined with the legitimisation and maintenance of power, on a global and local level. My research consists of a discourse analysis of the most significant and relevant policy documents of the Cypriot state, along with ethnographic data collected from the field. The main argument of this paper is that native elites in the 1980s adopted and reproduced the western principles on environment, heritage and development, which changed the dominant tourism narrative and rhetoric in Cyprus. The local experts' rhetoric of the 1960s, which supported the rapid development of mass, packaged and standardized tourism in coastal areas, was transformed in the 1980s in the discourse of 'reflexive tourism', which preached for small scale, quality development focused on rural areas.

1. Introduction

Over the last few decades social scientists have treated tourism and identity as two notions intertwined in a broader cultural process of constant interaction. From this perspective, tourism defines identity and identity defines tourism, leading inevitably to a conflation of these notions in the wider tourist environment and literature. Tourism, along with the wider phenomenon of globalization, is responsible to a great degree for the mass movement of populations and increasing cultural

interaction, which in turn give rise to self-awareness and cultural distinction. In other words, tourism enhances identity-formation mechanisms (Urry 2004: 433). In addition, the increasing desire of tourists to experience local culture has brought to the fore questions about identity, among social scientists. As a result of the increasing demand for consumption of culture, natives face the need to strategically construct an essentialised, coherent representation of their identity, to be 'consumed' not only by outsiders (MacCannel 1976, 1992) but also by locals. This paper focuses on the disputed identity of rural Cyprus. The ultimate goal of this ethnographic study on tourism is to illustrate how Western hegemony is maintained in the cultural setting of Cyprus, even when the meaning of modernity is reversed. By focusing on identity politics and tourism in the Troodos mountainous region, this paper examines the conflict between native elites and locals over the definition of modernity, and thus material expressions of their identity.

In order to explore in more detail the conflicting notions of modern identity in rural Cyprus, I focus on tourism as a process that enhances self-awareness and self-representation. The main questions raised are the following: What does the development of large-scale tourism reveal about identity in Cyprus? When did Cyprus emerge as a cultural tourism destination and which social groups have re(produced) this discourse and why? What do resistance and friction between native elites and rural residents signify about culture and identity on the island? And to what extent are identity politics at the local level intertwined with global power relations?

2. Methodological Approach

By selecting tourism as the main focus of this research, I was well aware that the traditional ethnographic method, which is bounded to the field, would be inadequate for analysing the complexity of the external connections and power relations involved in this domain. Tourism as a social phenomenon is intertwined with the notion of globalization, and its analysis requires 'linking the particular research moment to the broader historical context, and the particular

research site to the broader transnational forces and processes that constitute the global' (Wonders and Michalowski 2001: 546). I consider the approach of global ethnography as a method that can overcome the challenges posed by globalization for traditional ethnographic methods. Global ethnographies can illustrate how 'global processes are collectively and politically constructed, demonstrating the variety of ways in which globalization is grounded in the local' (Gille and Ó Riain 2002: 271).

Let me explain in more detail how this new mode of ethnographic research has contributed to the end result of this research. My plan in this paper is to combine three of the features of global ethnography identified by Wonders and Michalowski (2001: 546-7) and Gille and Ó Riain (2002). In particular, theoretical insights about global and transnational phenomena, which are connected with the subject under study, a historically contextualized approach and an ethnographic analysis of the Troodos region. In order to answer the questions raised, I spent 9 months in Kakopetria and 3 months in Kyperounda, both villages are located in Troodos region. When I use the term 'Troodos region' I refer to the wider area and communities that stretches around Troodos mountain.

3. Discussion

This paper is divided in three sections: In the first section, I will briefly sketch the colonial context in which tourism emerged in Cyprus. The second section will deal with the post-independence period from 1960 until late 1970s and the development of mass tourism and the last section will focus on the early 1980s until today and the cultural conditions in which cultural tourism emerged in.

The political, social and economic reforms promoted by the British around the turn of twentieth century, along with the diffusion of cultural traits from western societies to Cyprus, contributed in the development of urban culture. From the late 1940s onwards, Cyprus experienced a period of increasing prosperity and structural changes and as a result urban culture and modernity were adopted and reproduced by the vast majority

of urbanites. The intellectual urban elite defined themselves as *proodeftikoi* (progressive) and *democrates* (democratic) and shared a particular set of ideas that were strongly influenced by the European Enlightenment and left-wing concepts such as secularism, cosmopolitanism, individualism and gender equality. They considered themselves the 'real' moderns who were culturally superior to other groups in society that were exclusively focused on a superficial consumption of modern material goods and did not share the emancipatory elements of modernity.

The poor living conditions in rural Cyprus did not permit to the vast majority of Troodos' residents to fully engage with the process of modernization, as the town bourgeois did. Rural residents experienced the town largely through rare visits and word of mouth. Their preconceived notion of what it meant to be modern was based on the consumption of the material outcomes of modernity, such as technological advancements (e.g. television, radio, motor vehicles), fashion and architecture. The paradox is that while the supporters of modernity in rural areas were eager to consume its material outcomes, they were less willing to accept its emancipatory elements, such as gender equality. Consequently, an ambivalence is traced in the modern identity as (re)produced by the rural residents of colonial Cyprus.

Despite the terrible living conditions in rural Cyprus, six villages of Troodos, namely the 'hill resorts', attracted the vast majority of tourists on the island, including British colonials and native urban elites. The prosperous visitors to hill resorts enjoyed 'European' and 'modern' amenities such as asphalt roads, electricity, running water, and theatrical and musical performances. The development of tourism was initiated by the private sector and restricted in the specific hill resorts. Thus, tourism benefits were not shared at the time by the surrounding communities of Troodos region.

In the post-Independence period, the narrative and practices employed by the native elites who were now leading the newborn state centred on the consumption of material goods, technological advancements, infrastructure, economic growth, entrepreneurship, individualism and competitiveness. In other words, domestic elites adopted and reproduced their own understanding of the western paradigm of modernity that emerged in Europe after the Second World War. The native elites saw the development of coastal mass tourism as a means to

achieve rapid growth and progress and thereby to 'catch up' with the 'more advanced' western world. In the context of growth fetishism and 'unhindered' mass tourism development, native elites maintained a utilitarian approach towards the environment and cultural heritage of the island. The elites' ultimate goal was to transform Cyprus from a 'developing' country into a 'developed', First World country, using as a benchmark the 'more advanced' societies of the West.

It is important to emphasize that just like in other postcolonial contexts (Argyrou 2005: 22), there was a paradoxical acceptance and rejection of European superiority in Cyprus. I suggest that the Cypriots selectively criticized western modernity for its intellectual and spiritual potential, with a particular focus on religion, family values and gender roles. Nevertheless, the dominant vision of 'modernity' and 'development' was not challenged at its core. Rapid development and modernization based on the western model was perceived as the 'natural', 'expected' way forward.

To this end, the tourism authorities and brokers promoted Cyprus as a 'Mediterranean sea and sun destination'. In the postcolonial setting, the beach was transformed from a downgraded, unwanted, unproductive space to a symbol of modernity, cosmopolitanism, progressiveness and individual liberation. In this context, natives had strategically reproduced their own indigenous version of Mediterranean identity by partly rejecting the Northern Europeans' essentialized representation of the region as being stuck in time. The image of Cyprus projected by the authorities was of a Mediterranean island with an ancient history but a modern lifestyle. In addition they also capitalized on the perception of a warm, hospitable, laidback culture.

In the framework of the 'rapid' development vision, Troodos was represented as a low-priority region since it was considered 'irrational' to invest in an area with limited 'advantages and resources' for the development of tourism (Republic of Cyprus 1967). The prolonged neglect of Troodos by the authorities at a time of growth and prosperity for the coastal resorts created a stronger urge among locals to 'catch up' with the developed and modernized seaside towns by following their 'successful' development model. The so-called economic miracle and prosperity that followed the events of 1974 gave rural residents the opportunity to make visible to everybody their modern identity

and lifestyle. Local authorities and the vast majority of Troodos' residents were actively involved in the process of modernizing the cultural landscape. Among other things, old houses were demolished and replaced by modern ones, high-rise buildings and houses were constructed, trees and mountains were leveled for the creation of car parks and stone paved streets were asphalted.

In the meantime, in the 1980s native elites were engaged in a process of reversing the definition of modernity. The majority of intellectuals, local experts and active citizens adopted and (re)produced the new discourse of 'modernity' and 'development' that emerged in the 1960s in the so-called more advanced countries. The dominant rhetoric and narrative was now focused on the urgent 'need' to develop sustainably so as to preserve the environment and heritage of Cyprus. I suggest that the narrative that is still employed by the 'experts' produces a 'securitized' discourse, according to which environmental degradation and the loss of tradition constitutes an existential threat since it is believed to be an integral part of the identity of every individual in Cyprus.

By the 1990s, the official rhetoric of national authorities came to terms with the dominant discourse employed by native elites. The rhetoric of the 1960s, which supported the rapid development of mass, packaged and standardized tourism in coastal areas, was transformed in the late 1980s into the discourse of what I call 'reflexive tourism', which advocated small-scale, unregulated, high-quality experiences of rural environment and culture undertaken in a sustainable and responsible manner. In this context, nature is until today reconceptualized as a 'fragile environment' that in its 'pure' form is considered an 'asset' to the tourism industry. Rural landscapes such as Troodos are romantically represented as 'nature's miracle', to be consumed by gazing. Similarly, tradition, which was once associated with backwardness, is transformed into cultural heritage, which according to native elites should be protected, preserved, conserved and above all organized and displayed for tourist consumption. As a result, the definition of what it means to be modern or traditional is reversed in such way that the 'real' moderns are conceived as those who respect tradition while the true traditionals are those who do not respect tradition and still strive to achieve the early version of modernity.

On the one hand, in the Troodos region, a small minority of young people and tourism brokers adopted the discourse of 'reflexive tourism' with a strong belief that this is 'the way forward'. On the other hand, the larger part of Troodos' residents are less willing to reproduce the new discourse of modernity. The following ethnographic data reveal in more detail the conflicting views of native elites and locals.

On one of my walks in Omodos, a village in the Troodos region, I had a long discussion with a woman in her mid-seventies. I asked her why the community council did not restore a nearby path which was covered by cement in the late 60s, to its earlier stone paved form, to which she replied as follows:

Why should we do that my dear? For us older people, it is much easier walking on the cement...our walking sticks do not get stuck between the stones. It is dangerous; we may fall and break a leg with these stones. ... It is also cleaner; we throw water on the cement and it is easily cleaned. If you ask younger women, they will tell you the same. They cannot walk on the stones with high heels.

After expressing my agreement with her and admitting that her concerns were well founded, I asked as to how she felt about the efforts of the authorities to persuade locals to replace their plastic chairs with the old-style wooden ones. Her response was again revealing:

I don't know what others are doing; the only thing I know is that I am not going to replace them. Are they willing to pay for the wooden chairs? Do they have any clue about how much these wooden chairs cost? They are very expensive! It is not only that. ... These plastic chairs will live longer than me! You can leave them outside in the sun, the rain, the dust, and nothing happens to them! What do you think will happen if you leave a wooden chair in the rain and the sun?

Rural residents reject the intellectual shift of modernity towards the protection of tradition and environment and their persistence to achieve material modernity leaves them once again exposed in the eyes of native elites. Through out my discussions with native elites, I created a list of adjectives that they use to describe in a downgrading mood the rural residents in

general. For example: “xorkatoi” [peasants], “asxetoi” [clueless], “amorfotoi” [uneducated], “axaparoï” [ignorants] and “palavoi” [stupid]. The adjectives that native elites use to describe the Other, reveals a lot about their own perceptions of who they are. The representation of rural residents by native elites, it is done in such a way that they maintain their superiority in the Cypriot society. Thus, their role and their power is not only upgraded but also legitimised.

Paradoxically, the native elites do exactly the opposite by adhering to material tradition (as manifested in architecture, crafts, cuisine) while rejecting the intellectual aspects of tradition, such as traditional gender roles. Thus, I argue that there is a contest between native elites and rural residents, as to what modernity is, and as a result, multiple modernities and traditionalities exist across space and time, which result in conflict and friction in the local society.

4. Conclusions

One of the research questions raised in this paper concerned the extent to which identity politics at the local level are intertwined with global power relations. To answer this question, I illustrated how native elites in both the colonial and post-colonial periods adopted and (re)produced the western vision of modernity and development, even when the definition of these concepts was reversed by the European elites. Based on the ethnographic data collected, I argued that the power of western hegemony not only defined but also reversed the definition of ‘modern’ identity in Cyprus in such a way that the superiority of western culture is maintained and legitimized.

In this thesis, the concepts of western hegemony and modernization have been used in a Foucauldian context, in which power relations are identified within the West itself (Argyrou 1996, 2000). Specifically, modernity is approached as ‘an idiom through which *the dominant groups in western societies* sought to distinguish themselves from the European past and from the dominated groups of the present – the Other within’ (Argyrou 2000: 22, my emphasis). Hence, modernization is the effort of dominant groups in the West to

'universalize their culture' both within the West itself and throughout the rest of the world.

Cypriots, like many other colonized people, have embraced the idea that western culture is superior to their own and thus endeavour to achieve 'modernity' using the 'more advanced' countries of the West as a benchmark. The native elites' 'truth' is already defined and constrained by the power of western hegemony, to the degree that the western model is considered the 'natural' and 'rational' way forward, even as it is reversed over time. As Argyrou (2005: 160) argues, hegemony is 'consent based on the socio-historical unconscious – the taken-for-granted, the undisputed and undiscussed, what goes without saying because it appears natural and necessary'.

As a rule, more powerful cultures have the authority to define the 'socio-historical unconscious'. It seems that for now, the West holds the power to define the dominant discourse, according to which western civilization is superior to Others. Hegemony constitutes itself as extremely difficult to challenge by what Foucault calls 'process of division' (Rabinow 1984: 8). During this process, the groups who have the power to define concepts, objectify and categorize the world around them, based on binary systems of thought, such as West/East, First World/Third World, modern/traditional, developed/underdeveloped, progressive/backward and urban/rural. Based on this classification system, the world acquires meaning and social attitudes are regulated. Following Foucault, I claim that Cypriots have constituted themselves as subjects of western hegemony, by adopting and reproducing the discourse of modernity and development as evolved in the West.

Following (Argyrou 2005), the emergence of mass tourism discourse in the 1960s and its transformation into reflexive tourism discourse in the late 1980s is a reproduction of the 'same paradigm', namely the western paradigm. Hence, Cyprus and its people are involved in a vicious cycle of self-victimization and self-reproduction of the cultural conditions that constitute them as subjects of the West.

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ZINACANTAN'S ETHNIC TOURISM AND HIS ECONOMIC PROFIT FOR CHIAPAS, MEXICO.

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Chiapas, Mexico, has ethnic representative because of his a wide variety of ethnic cultures. Tzotzil Indians in Zinacantan are specialized in textile art that has been developed through generations. Those contains in some parts, a mystical reference that reveals the artist's personal cosmic view. The elaboration of these textiles has an important role in the economic development of this region. The problematic issues are: the lack of information about the costumes, their impact on the traditions, the process and materials used. A qualitative investigation method was applied a through in-depth interviews with artisans, having as a result a catalog with the aim of preserving Zinacantan costumes with the creation of tourism product. It has been proposed that Zinacantan textiles can be used as a trigger for a touristic activity, which enables artisan's direct economic incomes for the benefit of their families that need to improve their quality of life.

1. Introduction

Chiapas is located in the southeast of México; at north it has Tabasco, to the west Veracruz and Oaxaca, in the south the Pacific Ocean and in the east part Guatemala. It is the number 8th of the larger states in the country.

Chiapas has 74,415 km², has 122 municipalities divided in 15 economic regions: I. Metropolitan; II. Valles Zoque; III. Mezcalapa; IV. De los Llanos; V. Altos Tsotsil-Tzeltal; VI. Frailesca; VII. De Los Bosques; VIII. Norte; IX. Istmo-Costa; X. Soconusco; XI. Sierra Mariscal; XII. Selva Lacandona; XIII. Maya; XIV. Tulumá Tzeltal Chol; XV. Meseta Comiteca Tropical.

Chiapas is one of the 32 states in Mexico; it is a state with great importance in the country because of the touristic activity, the natural beauty and cultural variability. In the last years the touristic promotion of Chiapas has been improved around the world with positive results. Is a state where the textiles represent the beauty, delicateness and exclusivity of the culture and the ethnic people, this handicrafts are made mostly by the women, they preserve the traditions and the tactics of the elaboration process full of symbolism (Government of Chiapas, 2011).

One of the principal municipalities in Chiapas is called Zinacantan; it is an ethnic community located 11Km north east of San Cristobal, well known because of the colorful textile handcraft elaboration. It is located near Ixtapa and Chamula by the north, San Lucas in the south, San Cristobal de las casas and Acala in the east, and Chiapa de Corzo by the west. (Comunacion and Transportation Secretary, 2005). The geographic coordinates of Zinacantan are: 16° 46' latitude north y between 92° 43' longitude west. Zinacantan is 1,160 meters above the sea level; has an extension of 171.4 km²; and a population of 36,484.

The community usually receives 657,361 tourists in the year: were 512,507 are national and 144,854 are international. (Tourism Secretary of Chiapas 2012). The people living in the community are mostly from an ethnic culture called maya-tzotzil; the thing is that they have not lost their essence of the culture origins. They administrate one of the most important floricultural businesses in the south part of Mexico. The cultural importance, green landscapes, and development potential are the motivators of tourism in the municipality.

Zinacantan is an ethnic Indian community, they talk tzotzil, but some of them speak Spanish too because of their education, which is in Spanish. It is located in the mountains of the sierra, with mud houses, wood houses, surrounded by the fields full of farms with domesticated animals such as hens, horses, sheep, goats and turkeys (Chiapas Agenda of the United Nations).

Although Zinacantan is the last place in the of the human development chart in Mexico, which means that the citizen do not have the resources to satisfy their basic needs, such as health or education, this aspects are really alarming because despite of the normal income coming from agriculture and flowers, touristic activity can be improved to help people have and extra income to

the municipality (Regional Statistic and Geographic Information Comitee, 2010).

Because of that this investigation work is focus in analyze the economic impact and propose methods to improve the touristic activity and their ways of living. The traditional clothes in Zinacantan conserve the main idea from years ago of the traditions, never the less, some of them have suffer some changes or been improved for the new generations but without loosing the colors and meanings of the symbols.

Vestuario de Zinacantan: Gómez (2002: 35) “the traditional men’s wear in Zinacantan is a tunic with red and white stripes. The women use the colors blue and white but they always add a pink line in the edge. This is the normal day clothing; men usually use a palm hat with color strips and women wear black skirts made of wool and a purple hupil.”

2. Art and Handcrafts

Handicrafts are mostly defined as “Items made by hand, often with the use of simple tools, and are generally artistic or traditional in nature.” They are also objects of utility and objects of decoration.

Zinacatan has fame because of the colors artisans use in the elaboration of their handcrafts, we can say that the most important textiles handcrafts are the “Tapetes, shirts, skirts, and traditional huipiles” all of them made whit cotton strings and wool, tinted with colors, some of them have goose feathers, this is a Teotihuacan influence, other handcrafts are made with an artifact suited in the artesian waist and putted against a tree or wall.

The women with ancestral ways make the hupil with feathers of Zinacantan; it is used to cover them with it because of the cold weather. This huipil known as “k’uk’umal chilil” is used only when the woman is getting married. There is a cultural meaning for the feathers in the huipil, it needs to be from a bird that cannot fly or from a domestic animal like the hen or the goose; they go around with two legs, depends of the humans care, they are always nearby despite of being without a chain, and the people want the same behavior from the woman. The feathers usually are added to the huipil by the artisans really carefully with the most sophisticated tools they have in the community (Gómez, P. A.

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3. Methodological Approach

A qualitative focused investigation was needed to get the information; this data was recollected by a summary that took in count the touristic activity. This one is located in the economic sector of Chiapas: into the service area. The recollection of the data was made by observation and description of the main objet too. A determined number of people were selected by the no probabilistic method to make this summary.

The investigation team went to the community from time to time, so they can get to know the real potential of the touristic element in Zinacantan. A summary was applied to the people living there and to the tourists, each one with specific aspects about the trade of textile handcrafts. After 1 month of continuous research the investigation gave these results.

4. Results

Most of the people are owners of a handcraft establishment, and they mostly agree with the hypothesis, “the main income of this community is the tourism”. But only 64% agreed with the tourism as a good choice to make for a business. The artisans told that they sell more between November and December season, none the less 83% earn less than \$3000.00 MXN monthly, and that is insufficient for the basic needs.

A summary for the tourist was also applied: The visiting people knew about Zinacantan by T.V., and arrived looking for the handcrafts the people make, but most of them stayed less than 3hrs at the community, although the 48% liked the textile art, and also spend more than \$500.00 MXN. At the end 54% of them will definitely recommend Zinacantan back home.

Table 1: Author’s Results of the summary (Population)

Ownership of the handcraft-textile	83% are the owners of the	17% are not the owners				
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Main income from tourism	72% agreed	28% did not agree				
Is the tourism a good choice of business?	64% agreed	36% did not agree				
What is a better choice?	61% handcraft textiles shop	28% food and beverage	11% touristic guides			
Which is the best season for the handcraft selling?	43% Nov – Dec.	22% Jan - Feb	17% Jul - Agu	10% Mar - Apr	5% May - June	3% Sep - Oct
What do they need?	65% capacitation	20% equipment	15% Promotion			
How much do you earn?	83% less than \$3,000.00 MXN	17% from \$3,001.00 to \$6,000.00 MXN				
What they earn, is enough for their elemental needs?	87% It is insufficient	13% it is ok				

Table 2: Author's Results of the summary (Tourist)

How did they know Zinacantan	48% T.V.	23% Recommendation from an extranger	17% Travel agency	7% Internet	5% magazines
What was the motivation of the visit	47% Handcrafts	23% culture	14% architecture and landscapes	10% museums and history	6% religion
The best thing they found?	48% Handcrafts	23% ethnic culture	14% museums and history	12% architecture and landscapes	3% religion
How long was the stay?	61% less than 3 hrs	27% from 3 to 6 hrs	12% more than 6 hrs		
How much did they spend?	46% more than \$500 MXN	32% from \$201 to \$500 MXN	22% less than \$200 MXN		
Was it a fair price?	51% yes	37% not fair	12% it is too much		
Would you recommend Zinacantan?	54% Definitely	38% Probably Yes	6% Definitely No	2% Probably no	

5. Economic impact

Economic aspects, the natural consequences of the touristic activity are the income of money, foreign currency and the creations of new jobs for the people. García.

Foreign Currency: "One of the advantages of the development programs in the touristic centers, is the income of foreign money, the extreme tourism is the most popular between the international public here in Chiapas." Without a doubt, we can find more advantages in a touristic project than in another, because most of them are focused in the foreign currency, this causes a fine economic development. These touristic projects need less money of inversion and have a little maturation time because of the massive income they have.

Job Generation: Government can start an activity to generate jobs, but the one that benefits the most is tourism, because of the needs and low inversion price. The touristic factor is not a fashion, is an intelligent inversion we can make to generate new jobs and increase the working population. The inversion in the infrastructure, organization, equipment and the construction of hotels can create high occupation levels.

The seven towns that conform Zinacantan are: Navenchauc with 4,944 habitants representing 15.92% of the population, Zinacantan 3,686 habitants with 11.87%, Paste 2,886 habitants representing 9.29%, Apas 1, 453 habitants with the 4.68%, Patosil 1,290 Hab. 4.15%, Bochojbo Alto with 1,033 hab. 3.33% of the total population. Like the other parts in the Mexican republic, the landscape and natural view is rocky mountain and irregular, almost an altitude of 800 m, which causes a variability of weather in the region. The normal climate is Template sub humid with rain in summer, around 17.2°C.

According to the data reported in the municipal profile, during the 2006, the fecundation rate was 144.60 and the nativity rate was 38.40, which suggest a high number of Childs for each woman in Zinacantan Municipalities Enciclopedia of México: Chiapas, National institute of Federalism and Municipal Development (2005). The population of Zinacantan has a high disoperation rate, because there are some files that explain at least 11 towns with less than 100 persons living on them, which means they do not have the basic services such as: electricity, water, and telephone. This situation makes people migrate. Zinacantan has the infrastructure to give a good education level, at least for the elementary and jr high school. The lack of literacy rate in 2000 was 54.39% and in the 1990 was 63.00%.

The 50% of the habitants are young between 0-20 years old which means they all need to go to school, but the community would not be able to cover the needs. According to the INEGI 2004, the community death rate was 3.10 and the living hope rate was 70 years old. Talking about kids health, the desnutrition is the main problem in Zinacantan; 46.30% of the children under 5 years old are considerate into the normal rate but 27.30% are into the low desnutrition rate, 14.84% in the moderate desnutrition rate, and 5.63% in the high desnutrition rate (The National Institute of Medical Science and Nutrition Salvador Zubira, 2000).

In the 2000, Zinacantan was divided by the construction of the highway connecting Tuxtla Gutierrez with San Cristobal, it was a nice inversion but it did not came with a positive impact because all the services were adapted to the old highway (Comunacion and Transportation Secretary 2005).

In 2005, the total of houses, 62.05% had earth floor. The 35.94% counted with cement floor and 1.3% with another

material. In the municipalities most of the houses were made of mud, bricks and tile; and did not have the principal services. Talking about social infrastructure, in 2005 in the second count of population, they reported 5,560 houses in total around Zinacantan. In the sewers working, we can observe a great improved in the last years, in 2005 the 51.46% of the community; Zinacantan counts with at least some city services like, telephone, radio, T.V., buses, taxis and public transportation. (Regional Geographic and Stadistic Information Comitee, 2010).

The community has the basic infrastructure to satisfy the need to communicate with other cities around the state. According to the Comunacion and Transportation Secretary (2005), this community had 178.24 km of highway, 48.80 km to other cities, 2.6 km inside the town and 126.84 km of rural ways. Another economic activity that has importance in Zinacantan is the agriculture, we are talking about: Corn, beans, flowers, fruits and vegetables. And some animals that make the farm business there are: Cows, Goats, some pigs, turkeys, hens, roosters, and geoses.

According to the Mexican Finances Secretary (2009), Chiapas has 14% of the extreme poverty in the country, and it is one of the 28 municipalities with the lowest rate in Human Development. There are 638,000 Hab. Concentrated in 28 municipalities with the lowest rate, most of them are ethnic Indian population, which were benefited by the Development Objectives of the Millennium places in the Agenda Chiapas UN, with 4,128.1 millions of pesos, focusing in health, education and income.

Now Zinacantan is located between the 100 municipalities with the highest rate of poverty in the Mexican republic 1.8066 and 0.5251 of the human development. In contrast of that, some impediments are caused by the culture they have, the lack of invested money, poverty, lack of literacy, equipment, and infrastructure, even politic and social issues (Regional Geographic and Stadistic Information Comitee, 2010).

They need a place where they can sell their textile handcrafts, a place with a direct contact with the costumer that is why they cannot improve this activity. Taking advantage of the diversity of the multicolor full handcrafts and the wealth in the culture of Zinacantan, they need to work in an alternative of income for the people living there because: It will help the artisans to have the space to sell their art (textiles and

handcrafts) and promote them, so they can be able to sell them without doing a negotiation with the tourist, also improving the quality of life they have now (Tourism Secretary of Chiapas, 2012).

6. Social Impact

Chiapas reached the highest poverty rate in Mexico, in 2008, with 76.7% of the general population in the state. Now a days Zinacantan is populated by Tzotil ethnic culture in a 100%, They dedicated their time in the comerce of flowers and handcrafts selling because of the touristic activity and the economic potencial they have.

Zinacantan presents high rates of marginalization and social backwardness, as we can see in the next table (National Social Development Policy Evaluation Council, 2008).

Table 3: Marginalization and social backwardness rate

Concept	Index	Grade	State Location	National Location
Marginalization	1.8066	High	12	105
Social Backwardness	2.4200	High	8	33
Human development	0.5970	Medium	110	2 413
% de Alimentary Poverty	74.76	N/A	18	41
% de Capacity Poverty	81.99	N/A	17	34
% of Patrimony Poverty	93.35	N/A	16	35

Source: National Social Development Policy Evaluation Council (2008).

The education is taken as the principal way to adquire, transmit and to increase the culture of the people in order to help the regional development. It is really worrying, the results of the tables about Chiapas including the educational table that says: the state has 39.3% of the population older than 15 years old has an illiteracy problem, taking in count the witing and reading habilities.

Table 4: Illiteracy

Education, 1997	Chiapas	Mexico (2)	Relation (1) (2)
Illiteracy rate (%)	60.7	89.6	67.75

Source: National Social Development Policy Evaluation Council (2008).

As we can see, Chiapas shows a big contrast with the Mexican Republic, but the national rate is not yet really high as it should be. In the state, there are 5 municipalities that have the highest rates:

1. Sitalá, 23.34 %
2. Chamula, 29%
3. Zinacantán, 36.28%
4. Pantelhó, 36.34%
5. San Juan Cancuc, 33.46%

Why do these municipalities have these percentages, the most obvious reason is the lack of education the people of the rural zones have, this people represents the 60% of the population in Chiapas. In the rural zones, the working need exist in a very young age so they can help paying the family spendings and needs; such as: education, food, and other needs.

The distribution of the population into many small communities along the area makes hard the access to educational centers to get study, at for the elementary school; including the fact that big part of the population is Indian ethnic talker, so they do not have the opportunity to get the educational service because it is in Spanish.

It is vital that the professor get the knowledge of the Indian language, so they can provide the cultural education they need, despite of the need or the right the people have, it is hard to get access to an educational program by just talking an Indian language. The Spanish is a communication tool that opens doors to the Indians in Mexico, so they have to learn it quite well.

The inversion and effort Chiapas had made during the last decades, is not enough to adjust to the situation we have now with the demand of education, the educational centers and its distribution is a problem as we can see in the next table.

Table 5: Educational Institution in Chiapas

Kinder garden	Elementary school	Jr. High School	High School	Tecnitian school	University
3,611	6,749	880	222	114	21

Source: National Social Development Policy Evaluation Council (2008).

As shown in the table, the level that we can find the most in the state is the elementary school, making a great decrease of institution along the table. The mayor part of the people in Chiapas have reached the primary school, where they get the basic knowledge but is not enough to get a good way of living even in the urban part of the state. The monthly national average of the people older than 15 years old that has not got the elementary school education is 29.31%, and in Chiapas is 62.08%. The Municipalities that present the worst situation are:

1. Sitalá, 93.32%
2. Ocoatepec, 91.69%
3. Francisco León, 91.51%
4. Chamula, 91.20%
5. Zinacantán, 86.53%

The percentage is really alarming for the citizen of Chiapas; The efforts to get a better education system is a reality, the government should make better strategies including the rural zones, because this inversion in the education will return in few years with a better productivity when this people take charge of the economic production of the state or even the country.

The educational level in the Superior or University in Chiapas is exclusive and only for the urban zones where the high school improve the knowledge capacity of the students. The advantages of the education should be impulsed and promoted in the whole region, because it is too much the number of students that decline and abandon their studies during the jr. High or the primary school.

In the other hand the true economic and social reality of tit, the textile art of the women living in Zinacantan is a solid support for all the community, where it can be seen the diversity and richness of their handcrafts and textiles; by making a mix of the new tecnics and the tradition. The different traditional styles,

combine the colors and patterns that allow them to make new compositions that harmonize with different types of landscapes.

The textile art perceives the continuity and evolution of the Mayan culture. The symbols and patterns of the classic age, are continuously making presence in the textiles handcraft work. The rhombus which means the sky and the earth as one; the undulate shapes that symbolize the blossoming floor; the three vertical elements that represent the foundation of the world, the community and history; the frogs, singers of the rain and the saints representing the protection of the community.

This is Zinacantan, a poor town that has a lot of beliefs, but full of textile art, with cultural and ancestral testimonies, offering the citizen and the world a better chance to improve.

7. Discussion and Conclusion

If Zinacantan is one of the most visited communities in Chiapas, Mexico why is it located in the lowest Rank of the Human development rate in the country?

An economic policy that helps the handcraft and textile artisans around the community with giving them first a place where they can sell their work, and give them the chance to improve themselves and learn more about the commercial treatment and economic benefits. This people need to be helped by the government, by giving them the opportunities they need to be better.

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TOURISM AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: THE TWENTY YEARS LONG WAY FROM THE RIO CONFERENCE (1992) TO THE RIO CONFERENCE (2012)

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The UN Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio + 20), held in Rio de Janeiro in June 2012, marked twentieth anniversary of the Rio Conference, 1992, at which the concept of sustainable development gained its full recognition. Consequently, the paper discusses the key issues in the implementation of sustainable development in the context of tourism, that have been occurred during the last two decades. Special attention is paid to concept of carrying capacity, indicators of sustainable tourism, the role of local communities, and ethical bases of sustainable tourism. Adequate understanding of such issues could be a significant support for the concept of sustainable tourism to be more theoretically and practically developed. The emergence and development of the concept of sustainable tourism has contributed, in general, to a significant change in relationship between our population and the environment, which suffered serious negative consequences due to uncontrolled industrial development, including tourism.

1. Introduction

The original definition of sustainable development was created by the World Commission on Environment and Development, at which the aforementioned term means 'development based on the principle of meeting needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to

meet their own needs' (WCED, 1987). Such definition has introduced the concept of sustainable development into the political arena, causing a positive reaction of the governments and NGOs. The document 'Our Common Future', in which it is published, represents a significant change in the conceptualization of sustainable development, mostly because, in addition to economic and environmental dimension, it stresses an important role of the human community in process of sustainable development implementation.

Further on, the concept of sustainable development has gained its full recognition at the UN Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro (1992) when it was discussed as the subject of debate, including participation of respectable worldwide delegations which agreed about certain basis for the application of the concept in real life. Rio Conference is the historical event because it has managed to set the basis for proper perception of environmental issues as inseparable part of the development. As well, it gave a new impulse for creating the broadest forms of partnerships between development and environment.

The UN Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio +20) was held in Rio de Janeiro in June 2012, and marked twentieth anniversary of Rio Conference, 1992. The dominant themes were focused on a green economy in the context of sustainable development and poverty eradication, and the institutional framework for sustainable development (UN/DESA, 2012).

It is familiar that wide acceptance of the concept of sustainable development in many cases is misinterpreted, and very often related to simplistic phrases without accepting its binding implications. Accordingly, there are also some critical views and doubts that concerns the interpretation and implementation of sustainable development. Wilbanks (1994) claims that "sustainable development is, predominantly, not more than just a slogan or a curtain behind which resources are allocated and decisions were made, regardless if the relevant term is interpreted properly or not". Critical attitude toward sustainable development is expressed in Butler's (1999) opinion as well, who doubts in global support of the concept, noting that the existence of sympathy for the goals of sustainable development cannot guarantee the acceptance of all costs and sacrifices that are necessary to be invested into this concept in

real life. Wall and Mathieson (2006) represent the view that sustainable development becomes a form of ideology, philosophy, process and product and that it is often treated as political phrase, depending on the context in which it is used.

2. The Meaning of Sustainable Tourism

The document 'Our Common Future' which launched the concept of sustainable development, does not take into account tourism. Rio Conference discussion (1992) as well puts the role of tourism in the implementation of sustainable development to a very limited extent. Specifically, in Chapter 11 of Agenda 21 it is suggested to the governments to promote ecotourism as a way of promoting sustainable forest management. This resulted in the emergence of different interpretations of sustainable development in the context of tourism.

Coccosis (1996) points to the existence of four modes of interpretation of tourism in the context of sustainable development. These are the following: (a) the sectoral approach, such as the economic sustainability of tourism, (b) ecological approach focusing the importance of environmental sustainability of tourism, (c) approach to long-term sustainability of tourism taking into account the competition between tourist destinations, (d) approach that treats tourism as a segment of a strategy for sustainable development according to conditions of natural and socio-cultural environment. In addition to this, Bramwell et al. (1996) cite seven dimensions of sustainable tourism: ecological, cultural, political, economic, social, managerial and government. It is clear that researchers and decision makers in each of these dimensions manifest different interpretations of sustainable tourism, which explains its widespread acceptance, followed by great confusion and even abuse of the underlying concept.

In accordance with the above, it is hard to believe that globally accepted definition of sustainable tourism, will ever be agreed and universally applied, mostly because it is complex to define the term, and it is difficult to achieve the consent of the numerous stakeholders, whose goals and interests are different, in tourism development (Hardy et al., 2002). For example, in the tourism industry, sustainable development is the successful model of general development and for the experts of

environmental protection, it provides a significant justification for the protection of the environment from severe economic development effects, while when it comes to politicians, sustainable development provides an opportunity for more talk and less action that is about to be taken. Only tourists can have benefits such as the ability to feel good and enjoy their movements in preserved and unpolluted areas (Weaver, 2006).

Butler (1999) gave a valid basis for discussion on the related topic, pointing out the distinction between two terms: (a) sustainable development in the context of tourism and (b) sustainable tourism. According to this author, sustainable development, in the context of tourism is defined as tourism that is developed in a certain region in a way that will allow its sustainability for an indefinite period, without damaging the environment, and with the aim to allow the successful development of other activities'. On the other hand, sustainable tourism is 'tourism that is developed in such a form that can be maintained for an indefinite period'. Accordingly, one can conclude that tourism on the Côte d'Azur is certainly sustainable: it has been developed since the 18th century and shows no signs of disappearing. However, this understanding of sustainable tourism ignores the fact that tourism might cause significant changes and degradation of natural and socio-cultural environment. Really, the authentic look of the Côte d'Azur and its ecosystem has changed significantly over the past 150 years. Despite the presented differences between the two related terms, numerous authors think that sustainable tourism cannot be realized if its development provokes serious damage in socio-cultural and natural environment.

3. Sustainable Tourism in Different Types of Natural and Socio-Cultural Environment

Numerous papers and discussions that were held at the beginning of the 1990s, were dominantly determined by the opinion that sustainable tourism should be related to small, new and environmentally-preserved destinations, where compatibility of tourism and the principles of sustainable development can be efficiently monitored and evaluated, as opposed to the larger, urban destinations that have a long tradition of tourism

development. However, we must be aware of the fact that poorly organized tourist destinations with facilities located on small or “wrong” places can produce equally severe effects, incompatible with sustainable development, like the ones that are on large locations but also without properly developed principles (Eagles, 1992; Butler, 1999).

Relating the concept of sustainable development exclusively from the environmental aspects of development is also a matter which was the subject of tourism discourse during the 1990’s. This can be explained by the emergence of the concept of sustainable development at the time when negative environmental effects of mass tourism were in the focus of the public, especially in cases of popular destinations (i.e. Balearic Islands) After such crisis the activities of conservation of nature and ecosystems were strongly politically supported. However, it must be taken into account that oversized and uncontrolled tourism development, in addition to environmental issues, can cause a range of adverse socio-cultural effects of tourism destinations (Weaver, 2006).

Until the beginning of the 21st century most authors and political documents discuss the relationship of tourism and environmental protection, in a manner of their clear statement that sustainable development considers small-scale development, primarily associated with areas with preserved and attractive natural environment (Eagles, 1992; Hunter and Green, 1995). Not many papers were dedicated to possibilities of applying the concept of sustainable development in different conditions of socio-cultural circumstances, which requires their proper adjustment to such environment.

In the late 1990s and at the very beginning of the twenty-first century, the awareness of the implementation of sustainable development into different types of tourist destinations (with different natural conditions and socio-cultural environment protection) is more present. At the same time, range of current and potential tourist destinations is very wide, considering locations from highly populated urban areas to wilderness areas with preserved natural environment. Since the environmental conditions of destinations with high tourist activity are characterized by large variability, the concept of sustainable development must be implemented with the highest degree of adaptability (Muller, 2004).

Theoretical debates on sustainable development as an “adaptable paradigm” have led the experts to divide sustainable tourism in two dimensions (types) - minimalistic and comprehensive type. Experience indicates that particular examples of these types are very difficult to find in practice, because the majority of tourist destinations are still trying to achieve sustainability and certainly are far away from many of the mentioned types of sustainable tourism” (Weaver, 2006).

The minimalist dimension of sustainable tourism gives priority to eco-centric (ecological) or anthropocentric (socio-cultural and economic) effects of tourism, whether it is the case of entire destination or just particular facility and without taking into account the interests of other branches except tourism. Attention is focused on maintaining the existing condition and monitoring short-term effects as the direct result of tourist activity. This type of sustainable tourism can be developed in destinations where authentic environment is already been changed (such as large urban centers), and in degraded rural areas (for example: abandoned strip mines) where large-scale tourism may even contribute to the improvement of existing environmental conditions.

Comprehensive dimension of sustainable tourism involves a comprehensive/holistic approach which simultaneously takes into account environmental, socio-cultural and economic effects of tourism in order to achieve interconnections and dependence of tourism and other activities. It also recognizes fair development for future generations and develops proper approach to both, direct and indirect effects of tourism in the long term frame. The comprehensive type strongly relies on the precautionary principle (to avoid any activity that might have negative impact on the environment or which effects cannot be reliably predicted).

3. Key Issues in the Implementation of Sustainable Tourism

Estimation of carrying capacity is a tool for measuring the impact of tourism development on the area and the environment, and it is, also, considered to be one of the key mechanisms while setting standards in sustainable tourism. Although the interpretation of “carrying capacity”, on a global scale, is

significantly modified since the 1960's, when the concept was first introduced in the literature, in most cases, it's essence was related to the search for the number of tourists that can be properly accepted in particular destination (Butler, 1999). Insight into the available literature shows that many authors/ institutions were involved in defining problems of carrying capacity of tourist destinations, particularly considering recreational areas. The World Tourism Organisation defines three levels that are necessary for the estimation of carrying capacity: environmental, socio-cultural, and psychological (UNWTO, 1997). Mitchell (1979) and O'Reilly (1986) offer a similar definition of carrying capacity. Wall and Mathieson (2006) point out that the carrying capacity can be defined as the maximum number of tourists who can stay in a particular area, without unacceptable and irreversible changes to natural environment and other social, cultural and economic structures, and without diminishing the quality of tourist experiences.

Until now, numerous research projects have been made in order to define theoretical approach to the carrying capacity but in terms of its practical application, there are certain difficulties detected. Although the concept is very attractive and useful, experience has proved that its practical application often brings the abandonment or replacement of this approach by other concepts such as: limits of acceptable change in destination, managing systems devoted to visitors etc. Some authors even deny that the sustainability component of tourism development and the concept of carrying capacity are inevitably linked (Butler 1999, Cooper 1996). According to them, sustainable development should be focused, instead on carrying capacity, to defining borders of a tourist area, before significant decline in the quality of tourist resources and tourist experiences. If those borders are crossed, it is understandable that there will be certain consequences, like decreasing the attractiveness of destinations or changing authenticity of landscapes, and thus the sustainability can be questionable. If oversized usage of tourist area is continued, without taking any corrective action, it can be expected that any form of tourism in a particular destination becomes unsustainable.

Estimation of carrying capacity is closely linked to the need for monitoring the tourism development and defining indicators of sustainable tourism. In the early 1990's, incorporation of

indicators into plans and strategies for tourism development is suggested by Inskip (1991) and Gunn (1994), and institutions such as World Tourism Organization. According to UNWTO (1997), indicators measure or value specific information, allowing decision makers (administrative authorities) reduce the possibility of unconscious making poor business decisions. This means that without such indicators, the use of the term sustainable development loses all its meaning and essence. Without the qualitative and quantitative measurements of the effects of tourism, it is difficult to confidently conclude whether tourism development is on a sustainable basis or valid management decisions are agreed.

Indicators, or variables that can be measured and monitored to reveal the changing condition of a particular phenomenon, are means through which existing information can be filtered and new information collected. This new body of essential condensed information makes it easier to recognize trends as well as more immediate threats and to take appropriate actions (Mowforth and Munt, 2009). Indicators provide an indication of the state of a certain phenomenon (e.g. tourism), or a particular aspect of it, at a given point in time, that cannot be the definitive estimation of the state of the related phenomenon. Consequently, indicators measure information with which decision-makers may reduce the chances of unknowingly taking poor decisions. While elegant in theory, however, an indicators-based sustainable tourism strategy is complicated by the actual process of selecting, measuring, monitoring and evaluating a viable set of relevant variables. Besides, WTO, EU, OECD and other relevant institutions, numerous teams of experts have been working hardly in the last two decades, in order to analyze completely the issue of sustainable tourism indicators.

Given the complex nature of tourism systems, there are in theory an infinite number of tourism-related indicators to choose from. Factors that influence the actual selection of working indicators in a particular destination or business include policy relevance, the type of approach to sustainability that is adopted (i.e. weak or strong, minimalist or comprehensive), measurability, financial and other resource constraints, stakeholder interests, level of public support, politics, etc. (Weaver, 2006). Thus, a wealthy beach resort utilizing a comprehensive approach toward sustainability requires an indicator set that overlaps but is

generally distinct from the set required by a large, financially constrained inland urban centre where more of a minimalist model is followed.

Referring to sustainable development more generally, it is important that the indicator set should be compact yet comprehensive, so that it is not too time-consuming and expensive to operate but still captures critical information. In addition, individual indicators should be understandable, practical, clearly defined and reproducible (Miller and Twining-Ward, 2006). A useful analogy can be made with statistical sampling, wherein the characteristics of a few hundred carefully selected and surveyed respondents can be considered an accurate representation of a much larger overall population (Bendell and Font, 2004). Similarly, a handful of carefully selected and monitored indicators can accurately depict the condition of an entire tourism system.

An indicator set should incorporate variables that describe the condition, viability and potential influence of the system itself (e.g. number of tourists, annual growth, units of accommodation, percentage of labour force employed in tourism) as well as those that show the effects of the target system on the viability of other systems (e.g. levels of water pollution and greenhouse gas emissions produced by tourism activities). Especially where a comprehensive sustainability approach is taken, it is additionally important to include indicators that measure the overall condition of external systems (e.g. percentage of overall labour force unemployed, per capita GDP), since problems in these areas could have direct consequences for tourism whether or not the latter significantly contributes to those values. In essence, these three types of indicator combine to capture the internal and external dimensions of a tourism system (Weaver, 2006).

Shortly after the Rio Conference in 1992, it turned out that the optimal alignment of heterogeneous goals of sustainable tourism (economic profits, preserving the social integrity of local communities, the affirmation of cultural identity of the receptive areas, environmental protection and satisfaction of tourists) in real life is like the attempt to calculate square in the circle. Due to problems of implementation of the concept of sustainable tourism, some authors (Tribe, 2009; Fenell, 2005) plead for another interpretation of this concept. Given that the objectives of sustainable development can be equally difficult to implement

because of the conflicting interests of the participants in the tourist economy, emphasis should be put on the adoption of norms and principles, particularly the ethical, which would be respected by all stakeholders in tourism. This means that the concept of sustainable tourism requires a fundamental change in the ethical interests among all stakeholders in tourism industry, from those who create the tourism supply to the consumers of that supply. If such consensus is reached and thought as a precondition for action, and if it becomes a key component in the decision making process, it can be expected that positive results and the development of tourism on a sustainable basis will appear.

Modern theorists of tourism (Tribe, 2009; Fenell, 2005; Holden, 2009) are trying to define the concept of ethical tourism. The essence of these and similar definitions lies in the fact that the ethical tourism is the tourism that incorporates the principles of ethics, and that allows to all the stakeholders (public sector, direct holders of supply, tourists, residents of the receptive areas) to distinguish between good and wrong components of their behavior. Similar point of view is shared by Macbeth (2005), who claims that application of a new 'ethical paradigm' imposes a need for careful examination and evaluation of the morality of all decisions related to policy, planning, and management in tourism.

Ethical foundations of sustainable tourism are closely related to two categories: 'need' and 'responsibility'. Today, the tourist need or need to travel is considered to be primary human need, and if this need is satisfied, the population in receptive areas can easily meet their economic and social needs. This arises the question: How to treat tourist needs? The concept of sustainable development indicates that these needs should be met in such a way that future human generations will be allowed to meet their needs, at least, to the same extent as the present generation does. Thus, the present generation should respect the right of future generations to satisfy their travel needs and develop tourism, in the same or greater extent. This is the fundamental ethical principle of sustainable tourism - 'the principle of intergenerational equality', which derives from the original definition of sustainable development created by the WCED (1987).

5. Conclusion

In previous attempts to apply the concept of sustainable tourism in practice, more emphasis was placed on the consideration of the economic effects of tourism and its impacts on the natural environment, while the socio-cultural impacts on the local community were not in the primary focus. This situation does not correspond with the original definition of sustainable development which points that sustainable development should respect the subjective needs of local communities. Accordingly, it is very important to suggest that future conceptualization of sustainable tourism issues involve local communities as much as the issues of environment and economy. This can be achieved only by including the active participation of all stakeholders. If tourism suppliers do not accept that in their own interest is to adapt their business to principles of sustainable development, then the efforts of other stakeholders will have small effects. If the public sector is not willing to provide efficient training activities, and to implement a policy of sustainable development, it is difficult to expect the interest and active role of other stakeholders in the implementation of sustainable development. If local people do not recognize the short and long term benefits that will bring policies for sustainable development, public sector policy will not have their support.

Finally, if sustainable forms of tourism cannot adequately meet the needs of tourists, they will ignore destinations that are trying to place that type of supply on the market, and choose something else instead.

Afore said leads to conclusion that the achievement of optimal satisfaction of all stakeholders, is the key issue in sustainable tourism development. Moralization of tourism and the adoption of ethical attitudes among stakeholders, can be a significant step towards reasonable solution. On the other hand, the absence of ethics, takes us back to the above exposed premise, that developing sustainable tourism seems like 'squaring the circle'. I.e. we can discuss on 'sustainable tourism', but 'sustainable development in the context of tourism' seems to be fluid and elusive concept.

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WILDERNESS AND DOMESTIC VISITOR EXPECTATIONS

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Wilderness tourism occupies a small niche within ecotourism. Areas designated as wilderness in Australia are large, often remote, little changed by human activity, and form part of the national parks system. Although both parks and wilderness areas are managed for conservation, public recreation has equal importance in parks while ecological disturbance is minimized in wilderness areas. Visitor expectations of wilderness areas were investigated in Royal National Park (RNP), Australia. A visitor questionnaire (115 respondents) found that most people visited RNP “to observe nature” and “enjoy peace and quiet” (97% and 94% respectively). In terms of their expectations of wilderness, 62% regarded remoteness as key attribute, 75% considered within-wilderness access should be only by walking, and a majority did not favour the presence of developed recreational facilities like picnic areas, campsites and hotels (60%, 50% and 83% respectively). RNP in its entirety thus did not meet expectations for a wilderness area but Wilderness Perception Mapping may in future identify specific areas within RNP where visitor expectations of a wilderness experience could be met.

1. Introduction

Wilderness areas contain native plants and animals which are conserved by a legal designation of ‘wilderness’. In such areas, management is directed towards ecological protection and minimization of human disturbance: visitor facilities are therefore absent or severely restricted. However, designating

areas as wilderness in both Australia and USA allows for visitation and thus some level of tourism. In USA the Wilderness Act states that wilderness areas “shall be administered for the use and enjoyment of the American people in such a manner as will leave them unimpaired for future use and enjoyment as wilderness” (Wilderness Act 1964). Managing areas for ecological protection and public accessibility creates potential conflict, as all visitations will have some impact on natural environments. This raises the issue of whether tourism is compatible with areas having a wilderness designation, especially if visitors expect facilities equivalent to those found in National Parks.

A variety of protected areas exist in New South Wales (NSW), Australia and most of these are managed by the State’s National Parks and Wildlife Service. The most common protected area designation is that of National Park which refers to areas having relatively unspoiled landscapes and which incorporate the dual management objectives of conservation of native plants and animals, and public enjoyment. Unlike National Parks, some areas - Nature Reserves, Aquatic Reserves and Wilderness - are managed mainly for protecting native plants and animals.

Wilderness areas in NSW are described as being “large, remote and essentially unchanged by modern human activity” (NSW Department of Environment and Heritage, 2011a), providing “places of solitude and inspiration in wild, untamed surroundings away from the pressures of modern life” (NSW Department of Environment and Heritage, 2011b); these areas generally form part of National Parks or Reserves. Wilderness areas have legal protection under the *NSW Wilderness Act 1987 No 196* which has the objectives of providing for the permanent protection and proper management of wilderness, along with promoting public appreciation of such areas (New South Wales, 2010). The wilderness designation requires that these areas have “not been substantially modified by humans and their works”, are of sufficient size, and allow for solitude and suitable self-reliant recreation like walking, camping, canoeing, studying nature and picnicking (NSW Department of Environment and Heritage, 2011c). Maintaining wilderness areas so that their natural characteristics can be sustained, while at the same

time allowing for visitations, requires restrictions on those human activities that are likely to cause damage or disruption to natural systems. So-called high impact activities like horse riding or driving off-road vehicles are not permitted, although in some cases bicycles are allowed on designated pathways.

The requirement for public enjoyment and recreation in Royal National Park (RNP) near Sydney, Australia has resulted in numerous facilities being provided for visitors, including within-Park access roads, sign-posted walking and hiking tracks, tracks for mountain biking, formal parking areas, rubbish bins, camping areas, boat hire, visitor centres, toilets, picnic areas, cafés and shelters. These facilities tend to be concentrated in spots having access to waterways, beaches, cliffed promontories, and sometimes forested areas. At present it is estimated that RNP has approximately 4 million visitors annually (mXNews, 2013), with probably only about 10% of those being international tourists (Dragovich and Bajpai, 2012).

Recent changes to the NSW *National Parks and Wildlife Act 1974* have impacted on the management of wilderness areas, placing these areas in the same category as National Parks which allow for a system of licenced tour operators (NSW Department of Environment and Heritage, 2011d). In the case of wilderness areas, commercial operators may now conduct small group tours in remote parts of the wilderness, if the activities undertaken are consistent with the wilderness designation (NSW Department of Environment, 2012). In practice this allows for walking and canoeing groups to be led into places where they would probably not otherwise venture. Tourism Victoria (2008) described nature tourists as belonging to one of two groups. 'Skilled in nature' tourists were prepared to stay in areas with limited or no facilities, and were mostly self-guided, knowledgeable about nature, and actively sought physical challenges. This 'skilled in nature' group constituted only 15% of all park visitors, being outweighed by the 85% of 'comfort in nature' tourists, who also produced greater financial returns to investment in tourism. The NSW Taskforce on Tourism and National Parks (State of NSW and Department of Environment and Climate Change, 2008) recommended that guided wilderness experiences be encouraged under a licencing system in order to increase tourist numbers to protected areas.

2.Aim

This study aimed to investigate domestic visitors' expectations of wilderness, using a survey of visitors to a National Park near Sydney, Australia. This information was then used to address the question of whether people's expectations of wilderness could be met in parts of RNP, an area covering about 15,000 hectares on the southern outskirts of Sydney, Australia, where public recreation has equal importance with conservation. This Park, declared in 1879 and placed on the National Heritage List (Australia) in 2006, is suitable for the study as it includes extensive areas of natural vegetation and rugged terrain but with none of its area being designated as wilderness.

3.Results

A visitor survey was conducted in 2012 using questionnaires to gain information about wilderness perceptions and broad-ranging assessments of Park management. In total 115 questionnaires were completed and analysed. The importance of nature generally in motivating people to visit the Park was overwhelming - 97% of respondents indicated that their reason for visiting was "to observe nature", 94% wanted to "enjoy peace and quiet", and 90% wanted to observe native plants and animals. In evaluating reasons for visiting the Park, respondents were provided with eleven options and asked to indicate how important each reason was in making their decision. Responses to "Very important" and "Quite important" were grouped together under "Important" in Table 1; "Not very important" and "Not important" were categorised as "Not important". Responses have been listed according to the rank order of grouped "importance" for each reason, which for repeat visitors would represent a longer-term rationale for visitation compared with a first-time visitor. This longer-term view is emphasised by the 66% who noted that camping was an important reason for visiting the Park, although far fewer respondents on the interview day would have been camping

on that visit. In an earlier survey, approximately two-thirds of respondents indicated they were 'repeat' visitors (Dragovich and Bajpai, 2012).

Table 1: Visitor responses (n=115) to the importance of particular reasons for visiting RNP, 2012

Reasons for visiting RNP	Important (%)	Not important (%)
To observe the beauty of nature	97	3
To enjoy the peace and quiet	94	6
To observe native plants and animals	90	10
To relax and spend time with family and/or friends	84	16
To exercise and experience physical challenge	82	18
To get away from the pressures of life	77	23
To educate my kids about nature	67	33
To picnic with friends or relatives	67	33
To camp	66	34
To observe evidence of aboriginal occupation	47	53
To satisfy my spiritual cravings	44	56

People's expectations of wilderness were investigated by providing respondents with five wilderness definitions, with the largest single group (30%) indicating that wilderness is a natural land area, not much modified, and meant for conservation (Table 2). Other definitions which included the landscape descriptors of "natural" and "unchanged" together attracted 43% of responses.

Table 2: Descriptions of wilderness and people's expectations (n=115)

Wilderness is -	Yes (%)*
a forested area with dense tall trees, one experiences fear here and can get lost	2
a vast piece of natural land where one experiences solitude and freedom of spirit	19
a natural land area, not much modified, and meant for conservation	30
a scenic and largely unchanged area where one feels close to nature	24
none of the above. It is.....	26

* Rounding may result in total responses exceeding 100%

The majority of visitors believed that wilderness areas are different from National Parks (66%) and should therefore be managed differently (80%). Such areas were likely to be in

remote locations (62%). However, many people responded “Don’t know” (“can’t say”) to the issue of remoteness (Table 3).

Table 3: Wilderness and National Parks: (a) are they different?(b) should they be managed differently? (c) should wilderness be remote?

	(a)Are they different?(%)*	(b) Managed differently?(%)	(c) Wilderness remote?(%)
Yes	66	80	62
No	22	11	17
Don't know	12	9	22

* Rounding may result in total responses exceeding 100%

The general expectation was that the extent of management involvement in provision of facilities within wilderness areas should be less than would exist in a National Park. A majority did not favour the presence of developed recreational facilities like picnic areas, campsites and backpacker/star hotels (60%, 50% and 83% respectively) (Table 4). However, half the respondents felt that huts should be provided in wilderness areas, with this response probably being influenced by public awareness of survival huts in the Snowy Mts, one of the few areas in Australia where severe snowstorms can occur. The presence of huts was thus viewed positively in the context of human safety. Other facilities like toilets, bins and signage were also deemed appropriate for wilderness areas (81%, 50% and 84% respectively) (Table 4).

Table 4: Provision of facilities within wilderness areas

	Picnic areas (%)*	Camp sites (%)	Hotels (%)	Huts (%)	Toilets (%)	Bins (%)
Yes	36	38	3	50	81	50
No	60	50	83	40	17	40
Don't know	4	12	9	11	2	11

* Rounding may result in total responses exceeding 100%

Attitudes towards solitude in wilderness settings produced two groups of responses: 43% did not want to encounter more than 3-4 individuals or groups in a day, while 48% were unconcerned about meeting many other visitors in wilderness

areas so long as over-crowding did not occur. A minority (8%) indicated that they enjoyed coming across other people.

4. Discussion

Sampling of the population of domestic visitors to RNP did not differentiate between those who had previously visited wilderness areas and those who had not. All respondents thus had experience of a National Park but not necessarily of a wilderness area. Because of this, an unknown number of respondents could be described as members of the general public whom Shultis (1999) found often equate wilderness with National Parks. A changed legal designation of part of RNP would thus not affect their perceptions of wilderness.

Different expectations of wilderness for different national or cultural groups would be anticipated (Buijs et al., 2009), since different cultures consider wilderness to symbolize different values or virtues (Ouderkerk, 2003). Moreover, these cultural values are known to change with time, and they vary from individual to individual within a culturally similar community. The survey did not include international tourists partly because they represent a small number of visitors but also because of the potential complexity introduced by the cultural factor. Even so, Australia's population has a relatively high proportion of recent immigrants - about 27% of the population was born overseas (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012) and many others have parents born overseas. This is likely to influence people's perceptions of what constitutes wilderness and the kind of experience they would want in such areas. The national/ethnic background of visitors was not sought, so the extent to which these variables influenced survey outcomes is unknown.

Wilderness legislation has an intention of ensuring minimal ecological disturbance in wilderness areas. The practical question is whether niche tourism in such areas is possible with low levels of ecologically sensitive visitors. One of the challenges is to attract only this category of visitor, and 'pre-sorting' tourists may be assisted by appropriate marketing. In Australia, a not-for-profit, non-government organisation (Ecotourism Australia) provides three levels of ECO

certification for ecologically sustainable tourism, commencing with the category of 'Nature tourism', rising to 'Ecotourism', and then to the highest category of 'Advanced ecotourism' (Ecotourism Australia, 2013). All levels involve developing facilities in natural areas which foster "an environmental and cultural understanding, appreciation and conservation" (Ecotourism Australia, 2013). From the perspective of tourism operators, the ECO certification allows for marketing and promotion to those groups considering environmental sustainability to be important. For example, EcoLodges of Australia is a marketing consortium which "offers the ECO conscious traveller responsible, ethical and sustainable ECO experiences in Australia's most amazing natural locations" (Eco Lodges of Australia, 2013) and all EcoLodges have Advanced Ecotourism certification. The ecotourism category is thus more wide-ranging than wilderness tourism, which focuses on individuals or small groups that are relatively independent and do not require extensive constructed facilities (whether sustainable or not). Wilderness areas in Australia often have few or no roads, no accommodation, no picnic areas or public shelters, no rubbish bins, no guides, and informal walking tracks with minimal sign-posting. Such areas attract the 'skilled in nature' visitors who, because of their limited numbers, independence and lack of need for facilities, do not provide generous financial returns for tour operators.

Conflict may arise between traditional and legislated wilderness values, generated by the dual aims of governments for the public to appreciate wilderness and for publicly-held land to be commercialised to achieve equitable access. The NSW government wants increased numbers of the public to experience wilderness and for greater numbers of financially high-value tourists be attracted to wilderness areas. As all visitation has ecological impacts, greater numbers of visitors are necessarily associated with ever-increasing impacts. Determining the point at which damage to ecosystems causes a wilderness to become an area which no longer meets its legislated definition of "essentially unchanged by modern human activity" becomes an issue. As much ecological change is not instantaneous, managerial intervention in the short term acts as a buffer between visitors

and the visited environment. Measures such as controlling the size and number of groups, the routes they take, and the activities in which they are engaged, can reduce immediate impacts; and high visitation routes or sites may be treated as sacrifice areas, allowing the remaining wilderness to be retained in its previous condition. In that latter case the wilderness does not disappear but becomes smaller, although at some point the reduced size would render the area unsustainable ecologically.

5. Conclusion

On the basis of visitor expectations of wilderness, RNP does not meet the criteria of remoteness and general absence of recreational facilities. The size of RNP in relation to current access roads, tracks and parking areas is sufficiently large to allow for within-Park areas that would meet a number of people's expectations about wilderness. By combining the results of this visitor survey with physical information including constructed facilities and noise levels, the Park will be mapped according to wilderness perception values in which respondents will be grouped into Purist, Moderate purist (Neutralist) and Non-purist. This categorization of visitors is based on the level of tolerance expressed towards modification of an area (Kliskey and Kearsley, 1993). Quantification of this tolerance level is accomplished by using visitor surveys and allocating a "Purism scale" to responses. Once visitors are grouped using the Purism scale, different parts of a protected area can be translated into zones of perceived wilderness. Higher Purism scores represent low tolerance for human modification to natural conditions and result in decreasing extents of perceived wilderness. This Wilderness Perception Mapping will assist in deciding whether any of the more remote parts of RNP meet visitor expectations for wilderness, even though no areas within the Park currently have that designation. If some parts are categorized as wilderness, greater interest and access may result in the creation of new walking trails. Any marketing of a wilderness destination within a National Park like RNP which is located near a major population centre would therefore need to be planned carefully and strictly monitored to maintain wilderness conditions. Even minimal signage with few formal trails in presently inaccessible areas may

thus nullify the potential for a wilderness experience by 'skilled in nature' visitors.

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INVESTIGATING HEALTH SPA TOURISM AS A POTENTIAL USE OF SAGOLE THERMAL SPRING IN LIMPOPO PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA

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South Africa is well endowed with thermal springs. One third of the springs have been developed, while those in rural areas remain undeveloped. The Sagole thermal spring is undeveloped. It is located in the Limpopo Province, and has a water temperature of 45°C. The spa flourished in the 1980s in recreation and tourism, but its condition declined after 1994. However, the water temperature remained the same since the 1980s. The research study investigates the potential for health spa tourism. The following research methods were used: literature review, site visits and observation, water sample collection and analysis and cost-benefit analysis. The results include: classification of thermal water as alkaline; identification of some minerals and trace elements with curative properties; build more infrastructure, and a positive cost-benefit analysis. Based on the results of the investigation, it is concluded that health spa tourism can be of economic benefit to the area.

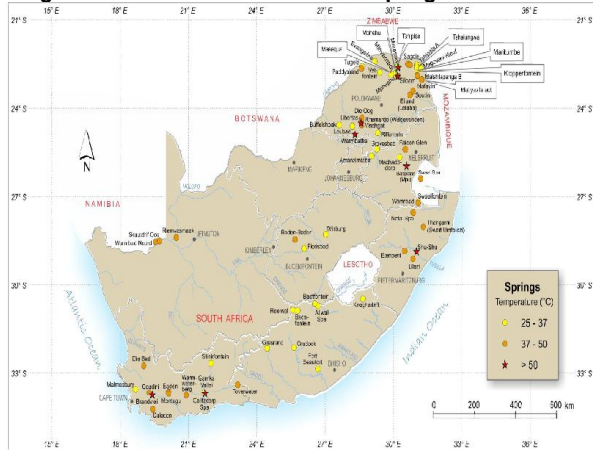
1. Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

South Africa is located in a geologically stable zone. Despite this, the country is relatively well endowed with thermal springs. The actual number of thermal springs in South Africa is not known. To date about 80 have been identified. While about one third of the springs have been

developed, mainly as recreational and tourism resorts, many are located in deep rural and remote areas and remain largely undeveloped. Figure 1 shows the distribution of thermal springs in South Africa. The water temperature is divided into three categories, namely: 27-37°C, 37 - 50°C, and 50°C and above.

Figure 1: The distribution of thermal springs in South Africa



1.2 Geographical location of sagole thermal spring

As shown in Figure 1, the Sagole thermal spring is located in the extreme north-east section of the Limpopo Province. The northern part of the Kruger National Park lies east of the Sagole Spa. The absolute location according to the grid reference is the 22°, 31' 30" South and the 30°, 40' 40" East (Olivier, Van Niekerk and van der Walt, 2008).

1.3 The physical characteristics of the area

The terrain morphology consists of closed hills and mountains with high relief and low hills. The types of vegetation in the area include Mopani veld, mixed bushveld and sourmixed bush. The beautiful baobab trees are dominant in the area, including "The Big Tree", so-called because it is the biggest tree in South Africa. The baobabs are uniquely interesting and make

the area beautiful and attractive to anyone who loves the natural environment.

The area receives an average annual rainfall of between 200mm and 500mm. The rainfall occurs in summer which extends from October to the end of March. The average annual temperature is 22°C. Summers are very hot and dry, while winters are cool and dry ((Development Bank of Southern Africa, 1989).

2. Motivation for the Study

During the period 1979-1993, Sagole was developed as a recreation and tourism centre by the Venda Development Corporation (VDC). The built infrastructure included: conference halls, chalets, the kitchen, sleeping halls and swimming pools. The situation changed in 1994 after the VDC was dissolved by the new democratic government. The number of working staff was reduced from a large team of fifty to a crew of four. The maintenance and quality of the infrastructure declined. The swimming pools and the lawn deteriorated. The number of visits to the centre declined accordingly. The decline of the centre prompted the researcher to investigate the potential development of health spa tourism at Sagole.

3. Data and Methodology

The aim of this study is to investigate health spa tourism as a potential use of Sagole thermal spring in Limpopo. In order to address this issue appropriately, an extensive literature study was conducted on the uses for thermal spring and health spa tourism. For the researcher to collect realistic data on the uses and physical requirements of health spa tourism, national and international geothermal resource sites, resorts and projects were visited. Data were collected by personal communication with managers of resorts and geothermal projects. Research field trips were undertaken to the Sagole thermal spring where the temperature was measured at source and water samples collected for later analysis by the Agricultural Research Council in Pretoria.

4. Data Analysis and Results

4.1 Chemical properties of the water at sagole hot spring

The literature study and water sample analysis resulted in the figures reflected in Table 1.

Table 1: Chemical properties of the Sagole hot spring

Minerals in Water	Mg/l
Temperature °C	45.9
SAR	8.11
TDS	173.98
Conduct.(mS/m)	33.00
pH	8.72
pHs	8.91
Silica (SiO ₂)	75.00
Sodium (Na)	58.46
Carbonate (CO ₃)	16.50
Bicarbonate (HCO ₃)	64.05
Sulphate (SO ₄)	17.78
Potassium (K)	1.05
Calcium (Ca)	3.93
Magnesium (Mg)	0.00
Fluoride (F)	0.72
Chloride	44.09
Phosphate	0.10

Source: Olivieret al.(2008).

The water temperature at the source is 45, 9°C. The water is not highly mineralized as the TDS content is only 173, 98 mg/l. According to Bond's (1946) classification system, the spring water is alkaline with a pH of 8.72. The water is potable and is used by the local community as their main source of domestic supply (Kent and Groeneveld, 1962; Winfield, 1980).

A brief discussion of the main chemical properties at Sagole hot spring will include the Total Dissolved Solids (TDS), Sodium Adsorption Ratio (SAR), pH, Sodium, Chlorine, Carbonate, Sulphate, Potassium, Calcium, Magnesium and Fluoride.

Total Dissolved Solids (TDS)

According to the World Health Organization (2003,p.1), a total dissolved solid (TDS) is "the term used to describe the inorganic salts and small amounts of organic matter present in solution in water". The principal constituents are usually calcium, magnesium, sodium, and potassium cations and

carbonate, hydrogen carbonate, chloride, sulfate and nitrate anions.

Total dissolved solids (TDS) at Sagole are 173,98mg/l. According to Bond's (1946) classification, the measurement is above pure water classification (limited to <150mg/l). The water at Sagole is therefore highly mineralized compared to pure water. It is claimed that alkaline water helps to neutralize acids and remove toxins from the body. It also acts as a conductor of electrochemical activity from cell to cell (Bridgeford, 2006). Water at Sagole meets the South African TDS limit of 450 mg/l for Class 0 of water quality. Class 0 water is described as ideal water quality suitable for lifetime use, with no adverse health effects on the user (Kempster, van Vliet and Kuhn, 1997). Higher concentrations of TDS (above 500 mg/l) may affect taste adversely and cause plumbing and appliances to deteriorate (Johnson and Scherer, 2009).

Sodium Adsorption Ratio (SAR)

Sodium Adsorption Ratio is the amount of sodium relative to calcium and magnesium in the water. Water with high levels of SAR can damage the soil structure, and reduce permeability and crop productivity. The SAR value at Sagole is 8.11mg/l which is ideal for most plants. Levels above 9 can cause severe problems in some soil types. The fact that it is below 9 at Sagole makes the water suitable for the irrigation of most plants (Johnson and Scherer, 2009).

pH

pH is a measure of the concentration of hydrogen ions in water. The pH value determines whether water is hard or soft. A pH value of 7 is neutral or indicates pure water. Water with a pH value lower than 7 is considered acidic, and higher than 7 indicates alkalinity. The ideal pH level for drinking water (Class 0) is between 6.0 and 9.0 (Kempster, ... *et al.*, 1997). No adverse health effects are expected in this range. The pH value for water at Sagole is 8.72 which is within the recommended ranges for Class 0 drinking water. Therefore the water is safe for drinking. According to Johnson and Scherer (2009) water with a pH value above 8.5 may require more chlorine treatment for the destruction of pathogens.

Sodium

Sodium is a common salt found in ground water which can impart a salty taste at concentrations of over 250 mg/l. It can contribute to hypertension and high levels in drinking water should be noted by users on low sodium diets. A slight taste may be apparent above 100 mg/l (Class 0) (Johnson and Scherer, 2009). The Sodium concentration at Sagole hot spring is 58.46 mg/l which is lower than the Class 0 level limit. The water at Sagole is therefore suitable for drinking by all (including individuals on salt-restricted diets).

Chloride

Chloride is a common natural salt found in ground water. High concentrations of chloride ions can cause water to have a salty taste, corrode hot water plumbing systems and have a laxative effect on some people. A concentration of below 200 mg/l has no undesirable health effects. The chloride concentration at Sagole thermal spring is 44.09 mg/l, which is suitable for drinking without further treatment (Kempster, ... *et al.*, 1997; Johnson and Scherer, 2009).

Sulphate

Sulphate is a common salt found in ground water which can impart a salty taste. Drinking water with high quantities of sulphate can result in diarrhoea. With a concentration of 0 to 200 mg/l (Class 0) sulphate, no adverse health effects are anticipated. Sulphate concentration at Sagole is 17.78 mg/l, which is within the recommended value for drinking water. In this regard, water at Sagole is safe for drinking purposes (Johnson and Scherer, 2009).

Potassium

Potassium is a common salt found in ground water, which is essential in the human diet. Excessive amounts in drinking water may have a laxative effect on humans. Acceptable concentrations in drinking water can range from 0 to 8 mg/l. The concentration at Sagole is 1.05 mg/l. This concentration falls within the acceptable range of drinking water, so water at Sagole is safe for human consumption (Johnson and Scherer, 2009).

Calcium and magnesium

Calcium is a naturally occurring metal essential to the human diet and is common in groundwater. Calcium concentration alone is not of major concern but with magnesium, they are the main contributors to water hardness. According to Johnson and Scherer (2009), maximum limits have not been established for calcium. However, magnesium concentrations above 125 mg/l may cause diarrhoea in some people. Calcium concentrations at Sagole are 3.93 mg/l and the magnesium is 0.00 mg/l. The concentrations cannot cause health risk to users (Johnson and Scherer, 2009).

Fluoride

Fluoride is a non-metal which occurs naturally in ground water. It promotes dental health at concentrations of between 0.7 and 1.5 mg/l. At concentrations above 1.5 mg/l, dental fluorosis (a brownish staining of the teeth) may occur. The fluoride concentration at Sagole is 0.72 mg/l. Because the concentrations fall within the recommended range for drinking water, thermal water at Sagole is suitable for drinking. This is one of the few thermal springs in Limpopo with fluoride levels below the recommended limit (Olivier et. al. 2008).

In general, the chemical properties discussed above fall within acceptable standards for drinking water, therefore the water can be used for a variety of purposes such as drinking, cooking, irrigation and aquaculture.

5. Health Tourism

The literature study revealed the following information about health tourism. The International Union of Official Travel Organizations (1973), cited in Vajirakachorn (2004), defined health tourism as “the provision of health facilities utilizing the natural resources of the country, in particular of mineral water and climate (p.8)”. Kusen (2002:178) gave a broad definition of health tourism which can be paraphrased as follows: health tourism is a complex economic activity that aims to foster the skilled, controlled use of natural health remedies, as well as

medicinal practices and physical activities for the purpose of maintaining and improving the physical, psychological and spiritual health of tourists and thereby contributing to quality of their lives. In his conclusion, Vajirakachorn (2004:45) defines health tourism as “a form of tourism which attempts to attract tourists who travel for ... health purposes by providing health facilities and activities that suit health tourists’ needs”. A spectrum of health tourism includes physical healing, beauty treatments, relaxation and rest, leisure and entertainment, life and work balance, psychological and spiritual activities (Smith and Puczko, 2009).

5.2.1 The importance of health tourism

There are many benefits related to health tourism. According to Smith and Puczko (2009,p.75-76), the important benefits of health tourism include: addressing the problem of obesity among young people, special fitness especially for older adults, functional fitness to improve performance for activities for daily living, strength training, mind/body exercise for physical improvement of muscular strength, weight loss, disease management and changes in negative lifestyle behaviours. Health tourism can generate wealth. World Bank estimates show that health and wellness tourism worldwide exceeds US\$40 billion a year (Caribbean Export, 2008).

5.2.2 Health tourism suitable for Sagole

There are many types of health tourism. They include spa tourism, leisure tourism, thalasso tourism, yoga and meditation, holistic tourism, spiritual tourism, occupational wellness and medical tourism (Smith and Puczko, 2009). In order to select the type of health tourism suitable for Sagole, the characteristics of Sagole were compared with the requirements of each type of health tourism. The characteristics of Sagole are: thermal spring, curative water, thermal pools, natural beauty, physical space, cultural art and accommodation. In this regard, health spa tourism meets all the characteristics of Sagole.

5.2.3 Characteristics of health spa tourism

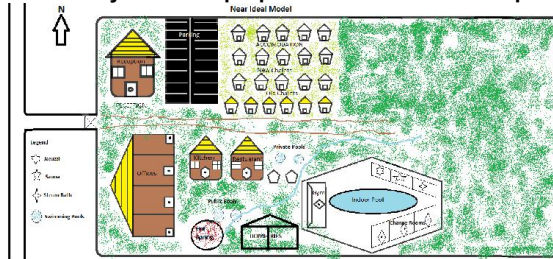
The basic requirements of health spa tourism are: water, food or nutrition, exercise or movement, massage or body work, mind/body physical benefits, natural therapeutic agents, an environmentally suitable area, climate, cultural aspects, management and staff, beauty treatments, spa baths, hydrotherapy and relaxation techniques (DeVierville, 1998, cited in Lund, 1999; Kusen, 2002). Treatments found in health spa tourism include: preventive health care, herbal remedy programmes, fitness programmes, balneotherapy (underwater massage) hydrotherapy, destressing treatments, detoxification programmes, vitamin complex treatments and dietary programmes (Goodrich, 1993, Spivack, 1997). Facilities found in health spa tourism include, accommodation, restaurants, hot and cold swimming pools, thermal spas and hydros, saunas and jacuzzis.

5.2.4 Ideal development for health spa tourism (near-ideal model)

The near-ideal model for development describes favourable conditions for health spa tourism that indicate the potential for profit and sustainability. The main objective of the near-ideal model is to reduce costs and maximise profit. Recommendations for the model are as follows:

1. Accommodation facilities should meet the highest expectations of hygiene and create a welcoming atmosphere;
2. The location and atmosphere of the area should be conducive to relaxation;
3. All polluting activities should be absent or minimised;
4. The environment should be protected;
5. Catering should provide healthy food;
6. Health improvement facilities and treatments should be available; and
7. Health facilities should include: individual small thermal pools at each chalet, hydrotherapy baths, indoor rheumatism baths, for example, and outdoor pools, jacuzzis and steam rooms. Figure 2 is the layout of the proposed near-ideal health spa model.

Figure 2: The layout of the proposed near-ideal health spa model



5.2.5 Suitability of health spa tourism at Sagole

This section discusses the suitability of Sagole for health spa tourism in terms of the availability of the curative chemicals and trace elements in the thermal water. Table 2 gives the chemicals and trace elements found in Sagole’s thermal water:

Thermal water at Sagole is suitable for medicinal use as shown in Table 2 above. According to the health centre manager, persons bathing in the public thermal spring pools do not suffer from skin diseases. Only two malaria cases were recorded in the health centre. The two cases involved persons who visited malaria areas outside the Limpopo Province.

5.2.6 Development plan for the health spa tourism at sagole

For Sagole to be suitable for health spa tourism, more infrastructures need to be built. The development plan can take place in two phases. These are Phase 1 Project and Phase 2 Project. The Phase 1 Project should focus mainly on the renovation of the existing infrastructure, adding new buildings, buying new office furniture, computers and communication equipment. Recruiting, hiring and training new management and administrative staff are part of Phase 1 of the Project. The Phase 2 Project focuses on the building of new 15 chalets, a natatorium and fitness centre with 20 bicycles for hire. Table 3 gives a summary of estimate costs for both the Phase 1 and Phase 2 Projects.

Table 2: Curative chemicals/trace elements in water

Chemical/Trace Elements	Potential Curative Power/Essential in Human Health
Calcium and Magnesium	Essential in human diet
Fluoride	Promotes dental health
Carbolic water	Has significant medical importance for circulatory and heart disorders
Sulphated water	May heal hepatic insufficiency (inability of the liver to function properly) and problems with the accumulation of organic waste
Bicarbonate water	May relieve gastrointestinal illness, hepatic insufficiency and gout
Sodium Chlorinated water	May cure chronic infection of mucous membrane (Ledo, 1996)
Mineral water	Recommended for diseases such as gout, kidney stones and urinary complaints (Murken, 2006)
Trace Elements	
Selenium	Essential for AIDS, arthritis, asthma, cancer, cardiovascular diseases, reproduction, thyroid, and viral infections
Strontium	Reduction in bone pain from patients suffering from osteoporosis; improvement observed in patients with postmenopausal osteoporosis
Iodine	Builds thyroid hormones, the nervous system and metabolism
Lithium	Lithium salts treat manic-depressive illness, (bipolar disorders) or may be used as an antidepressant
Manganese	Important in human diet
Molybdenum	Can be used as food supplement mineral
Nickel	Dietary requirement for many organisms
Platinum bonds	Applied as medicine to cure cancer; compounds are used in tumour therapy

Table 3: Summary of Phase 1 and Phase 2 Costs

Phase 1	Rands
Renovation, new buildings, equipment, labour and training	3 033 000
Phase 2	
New buildings and equipment	7 770 000
Total	10 803 000

5.2.7 Cost-benefit analysis

Cost-benefit analysis is a technique that is used by decision-makers to compare the various costs associated with an investment or project with the potential benefits that it proposes to return. A project should not be undertaken if expected benefits exceed costs (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism,

2004: 4). The costs and benefits of the proposed health spa tourism project are analyzed in this section.

The labour cost per annum for 2 managers, 2 personal assistants, 2 office administrators, 2 receptionists, 2 electricians, 2 IT technicians, 1 plumber and 5 cleaners was estimated at R1 418 000.00. The costs are related to the salary scale with the local municipal area.

Potential financial benefits were estimated and calculated as shown in Table 4. Phase 1 and Phase 2 costs were not included in this analysis. It is assumed the South African Government will fund the projects as a strategy for job creation by the Department of Trade and Industry.

Table 4: Labour Costs and Benefits Estimates

Visits	DaysVisitsPer Annum	Cost p/p	Income in Rands
90 (Dec/Jan)	30	R500	1 350 000
50	200	R400	4 000 000
Bicycle hire	20 x50x12	R50 per day	12 000
Total benefits			5 362 000
Labour			1 418 000
Surplus			3 944 000

The benefits of having such a project far outweigh the costs. The surplus of R3 944 000 is big enough to cover maintenance and other services in the health tourism venture.

6. Conclusion

The current infrastructure at Sagole which includes the tarred road, six chalets, outdoor swimming pools, ablution facilities, a reception office and kitchen are strengths for the development of health spa tourism. Non-toxic thermal water bubbling at a temperature of about 46°C is an added advantage. A strategy needs to be developed to manage and market the new venture. Local people, the local municipality, the national and provincial Government and the private sector need to work together to address the challenges facing the development at Sagole. The analysis provided in this paper supports the development of health spa tourism at Sagole.

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THE IMPACT OF SEA LEVEL RISE ON THE TOURISM FACILITIES IN THE ANDALUSIAN COAST, SPAIN

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Despite being often located in coastal areas, the factors to allocate tourism facilities have not commonly included the risk of sea level rise (SLR). The spatial exposure to sea level rise of these facilities is analyzed in this work in the Andalusian coast. This analysis took into account the location of the tourism facilities and the identification and spatial interpolation of local sea level rise trends registered by tide gauges located in the Andalusian coast. Present day (1990) and projected (2100) high tides have been spatialized over a DEM of Andalusia, with a horizontal spatial resolution of 10 m and a vertical accuracy of 0.68 m RMSE (root mean square error). The simulations of present and future high tides considering the impacts sea level rise are based on a bathtub model, which accounts for the effect of vertical barriers. The results reveal that a significant percentage of the hotels located nearby the shoreline might be flooded by future high tides during the next century. The risk of flooding is not only evident for spring high tides but also for average high tides. Moreover, a risk of future flooding has been identified for the roads that lead to certain hotels located away of the area of future potential damages caused by sea level rise. These findings demonstrate the necessity of making urban planning that deal with the future sea level rise.

1. Introduction

The studies of vulnerability and risks advised by all the documents and reports at international level (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change), National (National Plan for Adaptation to Climatic Change) and Regional (Andalusian Strategy for Climatic Change) frequently suffer data at suitable scales. This is a problem for spatialize the impacts linked to Climatic Change in general, and the potential sea level rise, in particular.

Sea level rise (SLR) is one of the main consequences of climate change leading to four main physical impacts: the increase of the processes of inundation by tides, floodings, erosion and intrusion of salt water (IPCC, 2007). Indeed, key national and international authorities (e.g. IPCC 2007; European Environmental Agency, EEA 2010) have encouraged the development of study projects to address this problem at both regional and local scales, particularly in view of ever-increasing urban pressure and the urgency of effective coastal management in, for example, highly populated deltaic settings and touristic hotspots (e.g. Sánchez-Arcilla *et al.* 2008; Flocks *et al.* 2009; Miner *et al.* 2009; Hansen 2010).

A common technique for assessing SLR impacts is the use of digital elevation models (DEMs) to identify potential flooding areas for various future SLR scenarios (e.g. Titus and Richman 2001; Mazria and Kershner 2007; Dasgupta *et al.* 2007; Rowley *et al.* 2007; Thieler 2009; Zhang 2011). The use of this methodology in Andalusia has shown a high increase of the flooded areas in all the region (Fraile 2011; Fraile and Ojeda 2012).

On the other hand, the tourism weight in the economy of Andalusia is higher than in other regions in Spain (11% of GDP), and tourism activities are especially intense in coastal areas. Thus, any adverse natural event on tourism facilities might mean high economical losses in the region. However, despite this fundamental importance, there are not detailed spatial data for this activity in order to implement accurate assessments, and the municipality is the maximum disaggregation entity for regulated tourist places.

The aim of this work is to identify the potentially damaged tourism facilities and golf courses in the Andalusian Coast due to SLR in the year 2100. To resolve this it is envisaged to use the analytical capabilities of GIS for the regionalisation of sea level rise and the use of geocoding software for the spacialization of tourism facilities in the Andalusian Coast.

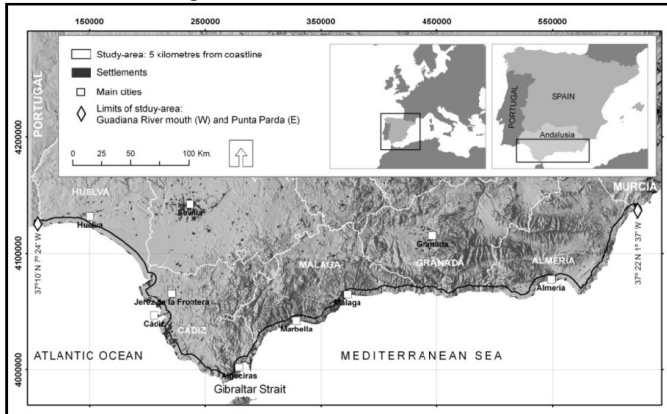
2. Study-Area: The Coast of Andalusia

The study area was the Coast of Andalusia (Spain). This area is limited by Portugal at West and the region of Murcia at East. It extends along 917 km, a 17,5% of the total Spanish coastline. Beaches, cornerstone of coastal tourism and central object of this work, represent a large percentage of its littoral, a 67,4% (Díaz *et al*, 2012).

This area is very diverse and unique within Europe because occupies a transition zone between mid-latitudes and inter-tropical zones, and between the Atlantic Ocean and Mediterranean Sea.. There are two very different sectors in this coast: the Atlantic coast, mesotidal (3 m), very open and flat, and the Mediterranean coast, narrow, with high steps and with microtidal ranges.

High trends of sea level rise have been recorded in the tide gauges located along the andalusian coast. The tide gauges of Cádiz and Málaga have recorded SLR trends of 4.0 mm / year, values which are 2.3 higher than the global value for the period 1961-2011. On the other hand, the tide gauges located in the Gibraltar Strait (Tarifa and Algeciras) have shown very low SLR trends, with rates no higher than 1.0 mm / year, which is significantly lower than the global trend. Those differences might be related not only to different characteristics of the sea surface, but also to an important tectonic influence, which accelerate or moderate the global component of SLR (Fraile, 2011). Even there are other tide gauges with higher sea level rise trends (Huelva, Bonanza), the length of their time series is not enough to be used in this study, since they began to measure sea level in the decade of 1990.

Figure 1: The Coast of Andalusia



This coast is subject to a complex coastal dynamic that together with other phenomena, such as its neotectonic macrostructure and past sea level changes, have enabled the formation and development of diverse coastal environments such as beaches, barrier islands, saltmarshes, embayments, and rocky and sandy cliffs during the Holocene (Ojeda, 2003). The evolution, dynamics and landscape forms of this coast have been well documented (Ojeda, 1988; Zazo *et al.*, 1994; Goy *et al.*, 1996; Dabrio *et al.*, 2000; Ojeda, 2003; Zazo *et al.*, 2008, 2012).

3. Methods

The applied methodology involved three steps: i) calculating present and future SLR linked to climate change, ii) spatialization of tourism facilities at detailed scale and ii) finally spatialization of SLR values and identification of affected tourism facilities.

The use of the analytical capabilities of the Geographical Information System (GIS) is essential for the feasibility of this methodology.

3.1. Gauging and spatialization of future sea level rise

Future sea level rise surface were obtained from published previous works (Fraile, 2011), in which average an maximum high tides in the present and in a 2100 SLR scenario were compared. Essentially, this method consists of a surface analysis by the comparison of the heights of a flooding surface (defined by the height of inundation), and the elevations of a DEM, resulting in the identification of the areas lying below a predicted future inundation level.

The definition of the height of the future inundation is a task that requires the analysis of 4 different variables:

i) The future global SLR, obtained by a global SLR model. For the purpose of this analysis, the SLR model made by the Environmental Protection Agency of the USA in 1998 (Titus and Narayan) was used, since it allows a very simple definition in terms of probability and relationships with the other 3 variables used.

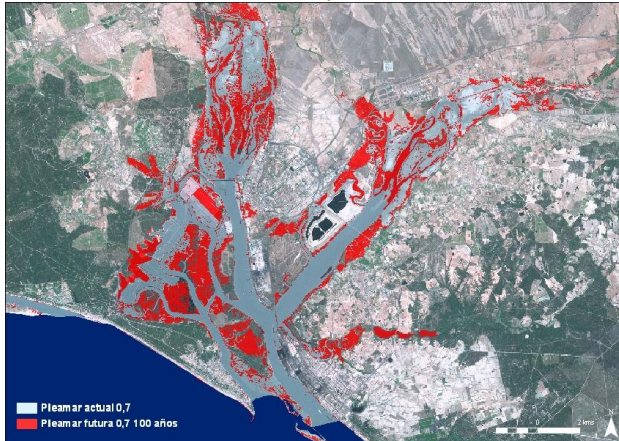
ii) The local SLR, measured from the data provided by the Permanent Service for Mean Sea Level (PSMSL), that allows to consider the expected effects of acceleration in SLR (Titus and Narayan, 1998; Fraile, 2011).

The local height of the spring tides, obtained from the two national sea and harbour authorities (Instituto Español de Oceanografía and Puertos del Estado).

The vertical difference observed between the local mean sea level registered in the tide gauge and the national levelling datum, which even does not use to be too high, it has values ranging from 0 to 41 cm in the andalusian coast.

The future inundation surfaces were obtained from the spatial interpolation of the four previous variables. Then, a comparison of the heights of each cell of a DEM and the total sum of the four variables was performed, identifying the cells that might be inundated in the future according to the model of EPA (Figure 2). A present situation scenario was developed too, by analyzing only the last two variables (iii and iv), removing the future effect of SLR.

Figure 2: Present (in blue) and future (2100) average high tide (in red)



Source: Fraile (2011).

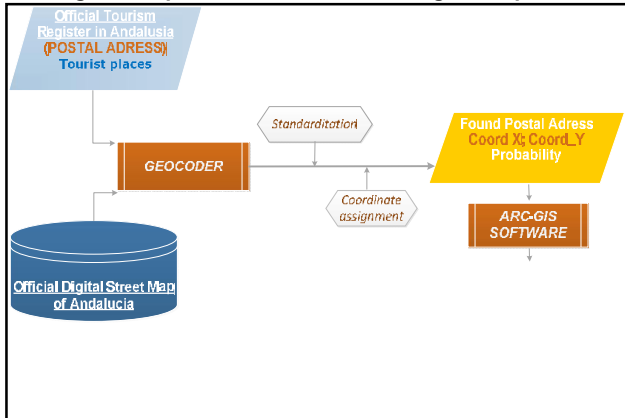
3.2 Spatialization of regulated tourism data

Spatialized tourism data in the coast of Andalusia at detailed scale were obtained using “Geocoder”, a spatialization tool implemented in GIS by Junta de Andalusia (Zabala et al., 2010).

The application works mainly in two steps: i) standardization of postal addresses of each tourism facility provides from The Official Registry of Tourism of Andalusia and ii) assignment of the facilities coordinates through a comparison of their addresses to existing addresses in the Official Digital Streets Map in Andalusia (Moreno, 2011).

The application returns for each record a probability value between 0 and 1, meaning 1 “exact locations” and 0 “not found addresses”. Intermediate values were applied based on the similarity between the two sources. When Geocoder returns 0 locations were manually assigned (using secondary sources of information like Google Maps, Google Street View or field work). Finally, assigned coordinates were mapped using ARC-GIS tools (Figure 3). Once all the locations were obtained, each record was filled with thematic data relative to Total Tourist Places assigned to every facility.

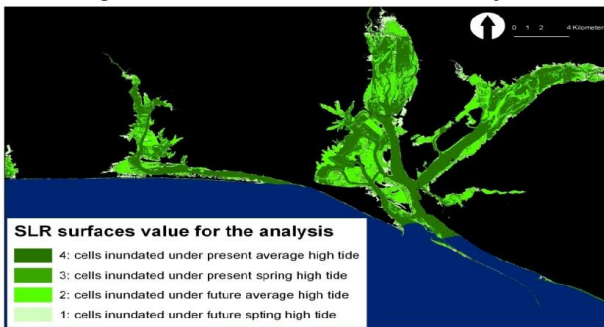
Figure 3: Spatialization method for regulated places



3.3 Spatial analysis

Hotels and golf courses that intersect to the surfaces of present high spring tide, future average tide and future high spring tide were identified. A relative index was built in order to identify the exposure of each element (Figure 4), assigning a maximum value of 4 to the hotels and golf courses that might be flooded even in the present conditions of mean sea level, and a value of 1 to those that only might be flooded under the extreme conditions of a high spring tide in the year 2100. 0 value was assigned to the hotels and golf courses with no risk of inundation.

Figure 4: SLR surfaces value for the analysis



4.Results

The analysis made shows that 72 of the studied hotels might be affected by flooding during high spring tides before the year 2100 (Figure 5). This data is less than a 10% of the hotels located near the coast. 34 of the 72 (47.2%) potentially affected hotels are identified as flooded by any average high tide in the year 2100. 27 of the studied hotels are identified as a maximum exposure (37.5% of potentially affected hotels), because they might be affected by certain tides (especially if they happen during a combination of high tides and storms). 76% of the affected hotels are located in the Atlantic coast, although only a 30% of the total amounts of the studied hotels are located in this coast.

Figure 5: Hotels potentially affected by SLR



There are around 90 golf courses in the coast of Andalusia. 28 of them are located near sea and just 12 reach the coastline. Only 4 golf courses would be clearly affected. These facilities are settled on sandy formations, transformed tidal marshes and floodplains.

5. Discussion and Conclusions

SLR might affect a significant number of hotels located near the coast during the XXI century in Andalusia. Despite there are no complete analysis of natural hazards in this area, SLR could become into a one of the main future hazard for a small percentage of the hotels located near the coast.

The obtained results are similar to the obtained by other studies in the Mediterranean Sea (El-Raey et al, 1999) and significantly lower to other studies made in coast with higher tidal

ranges and more affected by storm surges and other atmospheric adverse events (Jallow et al., 1996, Fish et al., 2005).

Most of the affected hotels are located in the Atlantic coast. This difference might be explained by the longer distance between hotels and coastline. This different location pattern are probably due to the identified source of danger: high spring tide in the Atlantic coast, that allow locate hotels closer to coastline, and extend of storm surges in Mediterranean coast, moving away hotels from the coast.

In the case of golf installations, the need for large areas along with the high price of land in the seafront motivates the implementation of these complexes not so much close of the sea. For this reason, the SLR may be considered a very specific risk and affects just a few installations, and the potentially affected gold courses might easily find measures to mitigate the impacts of SLR.

Acknowledgements

This article is made by data from the Official Research National Project "Spatialization and Web Broadcast of demographic, touristic and environmental variables, for the assessment of vulnerability associated with erosion of beaches on the coast of Andalusia (Spain)" (Espacialización y difusión Web de variables demográficas, turísticas y ambientales para la evaluación de la vulnerabilidad asociada a la erosión de playas en la costa andaluza) (Ref CSO 2010-15807), funded by the Ministry of Science and Innovation of Spain in the R+D+i National Plan 2011-2013.

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MEASURING THE SATISFACTION OF TOURISTS IN RURAL CYPRUS: IMPLICATIONS FOR MARKETING STRATEGY

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Rural tourism has gained popularity as a developmental strategy over the years, receiving considerable academic attention. However, the measurement of rural tourist demand, and in particular tourist satisfaction, remains an under-researched area. The aim of this research is to provide evidence of demand-side perceptions of the rural tourism product of Cyprus. A questionnaire was distributed to 241 tourists visiting rural areas in Cyprus in an attempt to measure their satisfaction level across a series of attributes. Findings reveal that tourists visiting rural areas are not necessarily motivated by the rural setting whereas satisfaction appears to be affected by site-specific attributes. The findings highlight the importance of segmentation in rural tourism and suggest the adoption of a more refined marketing strategy.

1. Introduction

The countryside has always attracted visitors, who used rural most areas for recreation and tourism activities (Hall, 2010). However, during the 1990s the importance of rural tourism as a means of economic rejuvenation of declining rural communities and sustainable development was highlighted. The popularity of rural tourism as a developmental strategy is particularly evident amongst coastal destinations, which have been experiencing pressures from spatial tourism

development. One such destination, that has been carrying intense marketing efforts to develop and promote its countryside, is the island of Cyprus.

Figure 1: Map of Cyprus



Source: PIO (2008).

Primarily perceived as a 'sea and sun' destination, Cyprus places rural tourism as a developmental priority with attention focusing on accommodation development in the countryside. However, accommodation provision does not constitute a rural tourism industry and is insufficient to guarantee success. Indeed, recorded tourist arrivals in rural accommodation units in Cyprus were low with occupancy rates accounting for only 21.8% in 2009. Given the many forms of rural tourism, it is imperative that rural tourist demand is measured. Measuring demand aspects, and in particular satisfaction, can provide insights in improving rural tourism development, growth prospects and contribution to the tourism industry (Sharpley and Sharpley, 1997). Thus, the purpose of this research is to measure the satisfaction level of tourists in rural Cyprus.

2. Tourist Satisfaction in Rural Tourism

It is widely accepted that customer satisfaction is seen as a sign of business success (Song et al, 2012). Satisfaction within the tourism industry is extensively used to measure the success of a destination's marketing strategy (Eusebio and Vieira, 2011) by exploring the tourist experience and measuring whether tourist expectations have been met (Ross and Iso-Ahola, 1991). Several studies have been performed on tourist satisfaction (Kozak and Rimmington, 2000; Kozak, 2002; Huiet al, 2007; Alegre and Garau, 2010) as it is said to influence destination selection, spending, repurchase intention and recommendation to family and friends (Baloglu, 2001; Yoon and Uysal, 2005; Tomas et al, 2002; Tsaur et al, 2007). Similarly, satisfaction has been considered by destinations as a precondition for building a competitive advantage (Fuchs and Weiermair, 2004). Whilst it is acknowledged that the measurement of satisfaction at the destination level is important in indicating good performance, image enhancement, successful promotion and service quality, the investigation of tourist satisfaction in rural settings is limited (Christou et al., 2009). The measurement of satisfaction in rural tourism is not easy due to the many interpretations and forms of rural tourism (Sharpley, 1996). Page and Getz (1997) argued that tourists, depending on the experience sought, will be attracted to rural areas for different reasons whereas Kastenholz (2000) and Farmaki (2012) agree that not all rural tourists seek rurality to the same extent. Thus, satisfaction measurement in rural tourism needs to consider different dimensions. Whilst it has been agreed that satisfaction is influenced by destination elements such as facilities, attractions, image and service level (LeBlanc, 1992), measurement of rural tourism satisfaction needs to incorporate rural tourism characteristics (Pena et al, 2012). According to Kastenholz et al. (2012) the rural tourism experience comprises of social, emotional and symbolic dimensions that affect satisfaction. Similarly, Blanco-Herranz (1996) argued that rural tourism incorporates natural, cultural, heritage and accommodation resources as well as services belonging to the rural environment. Hence, for the purposes of

this research, satisfaction measurement scales included specific characteristics of the rural tourism product of Cyprus. In addition, the measurement of tourist evaluations and perceptions included acknowledgement of influential factors, as justified by previous studies, such as demographic variables of tourists, motives to travel, advertising and other influences such as media and word-of-mouth (Gartner, 1993; Davesa et al, 2009; Song et al, 2012).

3. Methodological Approach

Data was collected through a questionnaire with the aim to measure tourist satisfaction across a series of attributes derived and adapted from existing literature on rural tourism. The attributes considered were not limited to the tangible aspects of the rural tourism product but also incorporated the activities and interests of tourists. Specifically, the questionnaire included a number of categorical questions on the demographic profile of respondents, the purpose of visit, type of travel, frequency of visit and activities performed, rating questions using a 5-point Likert scale, two 7-point numerical scale questions measuring respondents' overall satisfaction, likelihood of a repeat visit and recommendation to others and an open-ended question asking respondents to suggest improvements. Data collection was conducted from November 2011 to June 2012, whereby a self-completion questionnaire was mailed to licensed accommodation establishments and information centres in areas indicated as rural by the Cyprus Agrotourism Company. Following telephone contact with accommodation and information centre personnel, it was agreed that the questionnaire would be handed to tourists visiting the establishment and then returned to the researcher at the end of the survey period. Accommodation establishments placed a copy of the questionnaire in the rooms of guests, who then disposed the questionnaire in a designated box at the reception upon check-out, whereas in information centres the tourists were encouraged to complete a copy and then place the completed questionnaire in a designated box that was easily noticeable. If tourists refused to participate in the research, their

questionnaire was handed to the next person visiting while incomplete questionnaires were disregarded. To encourage participation prepaid, addressed envelopes were enclosed and the covering letter was addressed to a named contact.

Overall, a total of 400 questionnaires were mailed, out of which 241 usable questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of approximately 60%. The profile of respondents is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Respondents' Profile

Variable	%	Variable	%	Variable	%
<u>Age</u>		<u>Educational Level</u>		<u>Occupation</u>	
18-29	14.1	Secondary	12.4	Skilled	60.2
30-39	32.4	school	10.8	technical/academic	
40-49	23.2	Work training	34.4	Semi-skilled	9.1
50-59	13.3	Undergraduate	39.4	Self-employed	3.3
60-69	11.2	Postgraduate		Out of work	2.5
70+	2.1			Retired	12
				Other	5.8
<u>Gender</u>		<u>First-time Visitor</u>		<u>Country of Residence</u>	
Male	39.4	Yes	38.2	Cyprus	75.9
Female	60.6	No	61.4	Abroad	24.1
<u>Region of Stay</u>		<u>Length of Stay</u>		<u>Frequency of Rural Holiday</u>	
Troodos	49	1-3 days	62.7	Daily excursions only	12
Limassol	14.1	4-7 days	24.9	First time	13.7
Paralimni	5	8< days	7.5	Once a year	44.4
Pafos	23.2			Two or more in a year	29.9
Larnaka	8.3				
<u>Travel Companion</u>		<u>Type of Travel</u>		<u>Accommodation type</u>	
Partner/spouse	38.6	Individual	81.7	Own property	1
Family	34	In group	17.8	Traditional inn	34
Friends	22.4			Hotel	31
Other	5			Friend/family	4
				Other	30
<u>Motivation to travel</u>		<u>Activities Performed</u>		<u>Information on holiday</u>	
Relaxation	83	Trekking	24.5	Travel agent	7.5
Business	4	Skiing	4.6	Internet	23.2
Adventure/sports	16.2	Photography	33.2	Media	9.1
Nature	35.7	Bird watching	5.4	Friends/family	50.6
Gastronomy	8.7	Visit cultural sites	27.8	Other	7.5
Culture	19.1	Visit wineries	19.5		
Health	8.3	Visit religious sites	31.5		
Religion	4.6	Visit museums	16.2		
Visit friends	14.9	Buy local products	45.2		
Tranquility	21.2	Cycling	8.3		
Family bonding	18.3	Eat in restaurants	88.4		
Architecture	4.1	Events/festivals	17		
Other	7.1	Other	5.8		

Analysis of the data was performed using SPSS whereas the open-ended question was analysed using thematic analysis. An exploratory factor analysis was performed, whereby satisfaction evaluations were categorised across a series of interrelated attributes. Barlett's test of sphericity (with a value of 969.937, $p < 0.000$) and calculated Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin statistic of .810 indicated that data is suitable for factor analysis. Principal component and varimax rotation procedures were used to identify orthogonal factor dimensions. As a result, three factors with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0 were derived (Table 2). Examination of the scree plot supported the conclusion of a three-component solution. Variables with loadings equal or greater than .45 were included in a given factor to decrease the probability of misclassification. The three factors were derived from the 14 satisfaction items, which accounted for approximately 55.6% of the item variance (26%, 15.3% and 14.3% respectively). Three groups of variables related to satisfaction evaluations were created whereby the first represents the '*attractions and facilities*' of the rural area by summarising evaluations of the 'availability of activities', 'entertainment', 'cultural/religious attractions', 'shopping facilities', 'restaurants' and 'information centre'; the second variable represents '*destination attractiveness*' as it summarises evaluations of the rural areas' characteristics including 'environmental cleanness', 'hospitality', 'traditional character of area' and 'accommodation facilities' and the third variable represents '*infrastructure and value for money*' by summarising evaluations of 'infrastructure', 'accessibility', 'service quality' and 'prices'.

4. Findings

To explore the differences in satisfaction levels between groups, independent t-tests and ANOVA were performed (Table 3).

Table 2: Satisfaction Components

	Component		
	1	2	3
Activities available	.819		
Information centre	.772		
Entertainment	.771		
Shopping facilities	.757		
Cultural/Religious facilities	.613		
Restaurants	.566		
Traditionality/Character		.709	
Hospitality		.687	
Environmental cleanness		.668	
Accommodation		.531	
Accessibility			.789
Infrastructure			.713
Service quality			.533
Prices			.473
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.			
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.			
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.			

Table 3: Differences in satisfaction between groups

Variable	Factor 1			Factor 2			Factor 3		
	Mean	T /F	Sig.	Mean	T /F	Sig.	Mean	T /F	Sig.
<u>Gender</u>									
Males	0.09	0.08	0.94	0.24	2.13	0.04	0.16	0.63	0.53
Females	0.79			0.12			0.55		
<u>Residence</u>									
Cyprus	0.02	4.37	0.00	0.12	2.68	0.01	0.65	0.91	0.37
Abroad	0.56			0.47			0.23		
<u>Travel type</u>									
Individually	0.04	4.49	0.00	0.11	1.85	0.66	0.58	0.81	0.42
In group	0.68			0.31			0.21		
<u>First time visit</u>									
Yes	0.11	1.51	0.13	0.34	2.95	0.00	0.08	1.74	0.08
No	0.18			0.19			0.18		
<u>Age Groups</u>									
18-29	0.32	2.9	0.01	.12	0.2	0.95	0.28	0.3	0.89
30-39	0.19			0.01			0.05		
40-49	0.18			0.06			0.02		
50-59	0.20			0.03			0.03		
60-69	0.88			0.06			0.05		
70+	0.71			0.44			0.15		
<u>Education</u>									
Sec. School	0.14	8.1	0.00	0.09	2.7	0.05	0.13	0.8	0.50
Vocational	0.43			0.01			0.30		
Undergrad	0.48			0.22			0.12		
Postgrad	0.43			0.32			0.08		

<u>Occupation</u>									
Skilled	0.13	3.6	0.00	0.21	2.2	0.06	0.03	3.3	0.01
Semi-skilled	0.41			0.33			0.36		
Self-employed	0.37			0.68			1.97		
Unemployed	0.30			0.77			0.34		
Retires	0.73			0.42			0.23		
Other	0.68			0.24			0.08		
<u>Travel Comp.</u>									
Partner	0.04	3.8	0.01	0.08	1.8	0.14	0.00	2.5	0.05
Family	0.35			0.11			0.03		
Friends	0.29			0.18			0.47		
Other	0.88			0.83			0.11		
<u>Region</u>									
Troodos	0.21	3.2	0.02	0.06	0.9	0.47	0.20	4.1	0.00
Limassol	0.41			0.03			0.39		
Paralimni	0.81			0.40			0.38		
Pafos	0.34			0.28			0.37		
Larnaka	0.00			0.03			0.06		
<u>Accom. Type</u>									
Own property	1.13	5.2	0.00	0.22	0.9	0.44	0.37	2.9	0.03
Traditional inn	0.15			0.10			0.09		
Hotel	0.24			0.10			0.27		
Friend/family	0.94			0.58			0.16		
Other	0.50			0.70			0.85		
<u>Length of stay</u>									
1-3 days	0.07	4.2	0.02	0.04	0.6	0.53	0.14	0.6	0.53
4-7	0.03			0.18			0.01		
8+	0.90			0.09			0.12		
<u>Frequency</u>									
Daily trips	0.11	1.5	0.23	0.05	1.4	0.25	0.16	1.5	0.22
First time	0.22			0.32			0.11		
Once a year	0.02			0.05			0.23		
Twice/more	0.32			0.24			0.01		
<u>Info. Source</u>									
Travel agent	0.57	8.9	0.00	0.41	0.8	0.54	0.25	7.6	0.00
Internet	0.56			0.07			0.46		
Media	0.42			0.27			0.77		
Friend/family	0.29			0.00			0.08		
Other	1.47			0.27			0.51		

Significant differences in satisfaction were detected between males and females in terms of 'destination attractiveness' whilst in terms of 'attractions and facilities' and 'destination attractiveness' differences were found between local and foreign tourists, those travelling individually or in group and between repeat and first time visitors. Also, age appears to influence satisfaction in terms of 'attractions and facilities' whereas education influences perceptions of 'attractions and facilities' and 'destination attractiveness'. Occupation of respondents, travel companion, region of stay and accommodation type appear to influence

evaluations of 'attractions and facilities' and 'infrastructure and value for money' as does the information source which recommended the rural area to tourists. This implies that segmenting rural tourists according to demographic factors is essential as differences in satisfaction level and behaviour are evident.

The results from the exploration of relationships between motivations, activities performed and satisfaction, using Pearson correlation can also be seen in Table 4

Table 4: Relationship between satisfaction and tourist motivation and activities performed

Motivation to Travel	FAC1	FAC2	FAC3	Activities Performed	FAC1	FAC2	FAC3
<u>Relaxation</u>				<u>Trekking</u>			
R	-0.126	-0.075	0.118	R	0.039	-0.062	0.062
Sig (2-tailed)	0.151	0.404	0.178	Sig (2-tailed)	0.658	0.482	0.480
<u>Business**</u>				<u>Skiing</u>			
R	.	.	.	R	*-0.430	*-0.228	*0.225
Sig (2-tailed)	.	.	.	Sig (2-tailed)	0.000	0.009	0.009
<u>Adventure/Sports</u>				<u>Photograph</u>			
R	0.079	-0.114	-0.070	R	-0.066	-0.140	0.018
Sig (2-tailed)	0.367	0.195	0.424	Sig (2-tailed)	0.453	0.109	0.837
<u>Nature</u>				<u>Birdwatch</u>			
R	-0.094	*0.264	0.037	R	*-0.302	*0.220	*0.365
Sig (2-tailed)	0.284	0.002	0.675	Sig (2-tailed)	0.000	0.011	0.000
<u>Gastronom</u>				<u>Cultural sites</u>			
R	0.049	0.026	-0.144	R	0.073	-0.153	0.166
Sig (2-tailed)	0.577	0.769	0.100	Sig (2-tailed)	0.407	0.079	0.057
<u>Culture</u>				<u>Wineries</u>			
R	0.093	0.027	0.034	R	0.053	0.169	0.019
Sig (2-tailed)	0.291	0.759	0.697	Sig (2-tailed)	0.547	0.055	0.833
<u>Health</u>				<u>Religious site</u>			
R	0.003	-0.007	*	R	0.124	*-0.181	-0.127
Sig (2-tailed)	0.975	0.935	0.226	Sig (2-tailed)	0.156	0.038	0.146
			0.009				
<u>Religion</u>				<u>Museums</u>			
R	0.126	0.067	-0.006	R	-0.007	0.055	-0.034
Sig (2-tailed)	0.150	0.448	0.943	Sig (2-tailed)	0.933	0.528	0.700
<u>Visit friend/famil</u>				<u>Buy local products</u>			
R	-0.006	-0.062	-0.066	R	0.020	0.075	0.161
Sig (2-tailed)	0.943	0.482	0.451	Sig (2-tailed)	0.817	0.390	0.065

<u>Tranquility</u> R Sig (2- tailed)	-0.145 0.098	*0.275 0.001	-0.037 0.671	<u>Cycling</u> R Sig (2- tailed)	0.106 0.226	*-0.259 0.003	-0.047 0.590
<u>Family bonding</u> R Sig (2- tailed)	*0.189 0.030	0.008 0.929	0.024 0.783	<u>Eat in restaurants</u> R Sig (2- tailed)	*0.343 0.000	*0.249 0.004	-0.009 0.918
<u>Architecture</u> R Sig (2- tailed)	0.030 0.735	0.035 0.692	-0.129 0.140	<u>Event/festival</u> R Sig (2- tailed)	0.145 0.097	-0.117 0.182	-0.106 0.102
<u>Other</u> R Sig (2- tailed)	0.061 0.484	-0.028 0.747	0.034 0.696	<u>Other</u> R Sig (2- tailed)	0.006 0.942	-0.030 0.732	*- 0.302 0.000

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 (2-tailed)

** Cannot be computer as sample is too small

Findings reveal that different motives and activities performed influence satisfaction, confirming the need for segmentation based on motives. Specifically, those travelling for 'nature' and 'tranquility' are satisfied with 'destination attractiveness' whereas those travelling for 'health' are less satisfied with the existing infrastructure, prices and service quality. Similarly, it was found that tourists travelling for 'family bonding' are satisfied with the 'attractions and facilities' of the rural area visited. It was also found that those travelling for skiing are less satisfied with the 'attractions and facilities' and 'destination attractiveness' of the area but satisfied with infrastructural and price aspects. Similarly, bird-watching visitors are less satisfied with the 'attractions and facilities' of the area but satisfied with 'destination attractiveness' and 'infrastructure and value for money' whereas tourists visiting religious sites and/or cycling are less satisfied with 'destination attractiveness'. Also, tourists who have eaten in restaurants at the rural areas are satisfied with 'attractions and facilities' and 'destination attractiveness'.

Pearson correlation was also used to measure the relationship between overall satisfaction of tourists and their likelihood to revisit and recommend the destination to others. It was found that a strong, positive relationship is present [$r=0.587$, $n=240$, $p<0.000$] between overall satisfaction and likelihood of revisit and between overall satisfaction and recommendation [$r=0.516$, $n=240$, $p<0.000$].

In addition, an open-ended question asked respondents to suggest improvements regarding the rural tourism product of Cyprus. Approximately 47% of respondents suggested improvements on a variety of attributes. Only two respondents made a positive statement about the rural area suggesting “*not to spoil the rural area with too many improvements*” or “*not to modernise the area too much*”. Other statements included suggestions on improvement of: a) activities, b) facilities, c) service quality, d) infrastructure/environment and e) information provision. Specifically, respondents stated that more sports/adventurous activities are required as well as more places to visit; emphasis was placed on the need for kids’ activities, more environmental trails, traditional events and a better nightlife. More local activities such as bazaars and exhibitions were suggested as well as cleaner accommodation facilities, more restaurants and shops, convenient opening hours for shops and more organised excursions. Other suggestions included improved service quality, lower prices and special discounts for families as well as better quality of food in restaurants. Furthermore, 13% of respondents commented on the infrastructure of the rural areas suggesting more parking spaces, improved transportation and better maintenance of roads. Finally, 6% of respondents stated that information provision on Cyprus culture should be increased.

5. Conclusion

This study attempted to measure the satisfaction level of tourists visiting rural Cyprus. Overall, it was found that discrepancies exist in satisfaction in terms of demographic factors and motivations. With respect to demographic factors and motivations, this study confirms previous studies’ findings (Murdoch, 1993; Kastenholz et al, 1999; Frochot, 2005; Farmaki, 2012) which suggest that various segments of rural tourists exist including daily excursionists. Thus, the need for a more refined marketing strategy, considering variables like the length of stay, is emphasised. In addition, the study found that satisfaction varies amongst regions, confirming previous studies’ recommendations that the development of rural

tourism requires investment in infrastructure, public transport and cultural site surroundings as well as advisory support to small rural businesses (Albacete-Saez et al, 2007; Su, 2011). Overall, it is concluded that demand is related to regional characteristics that comprise the core rural tourism product. Infrastructural improvements can be made to rural areas that seek to develop further whereas rural regions aiming at preserving their secluded character may target a different type of clientele. Thus, the use of rural regions for tourism should address site-specific characteristics in addition to tourist needs. To conclude, segmenting rural regions in terms of scale of development rather than geography and in relation to tourist needs and motives may allow for a better match between supply and demand. This study was subject to several limitations. It is thus recommended that future studies consider seasonality impacts on satisfaction, pre-visit and post-visit perceptions of tourists and potential demand.

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PHASES OF DEVELOPMENT OF ROMANIAN SPA TOURISM DESTINATIONS

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Spa is one of the ancient forms of tourism in Romania that evolved continuously changing its products in time. It dates back since Antiquity, as an influence of Roman Empire on occupied territories, but its boom period was registered during the communist epoch when both old and new resorts were reinvented as social mass destinations. Nowadays spa industry faces two contradictory currents. Firstly we assist to a decline of Romanian mass spa tourist resorts after 1989 as they no longer met the post-communist needs for comfort and recreation and gradually lost governmental social subsidies. Secondly Romania integrated itself in the international frame of contemporary spa consumerism, developing hotel and urban spa products or niche types of health tourism. Consequently Romanian spa tourism destinations ask to be reinvented in the light of new consumerism trends.

1. Introduction

Spa tourism is 'one of the most ancient forms of tourism' (Smith and Kelly, 2006) and at the same time one of the oldest recreational products, developed in Romania since the Antiquity period. It continuously evolved from one epoch to

another under political and economic influences, reflecting as well tourists' interest for health tourism and characteristic patterns that changed and were profoundly reshaped in time (Erdeli et al., 2011). Wellness represented a constant product of consume in general and for Romanian tourist demand opting for domestic recreational products in particular. Consequently several stages of development might be stated for spa destinations in time within this territory. In fact autochthonous spa resorts gradually developed and reinvented themselves. Having different starting points and preserving elements of the past to different extents Romanian health tourism destinations suffered an important decline in the post-communist period and need to be reinvented nowadays in order to face the severe competition on the market and to successfully continue their activity. Traditional spa resorts are perceived as reminiscent inherited destinations of the past autochthonous tourism industry and struggle to keep their economic efficacy while still maintaining important quotas of social tourism. They represent however some of the most important tourism destinations in our country as many of them overlap resorts of national importance (75% of the resorts of national interest in Romania are spa resorts or complex resorts including and promoting the spa segment). Consequently their success or failure is of importance for the whole domestic recreational economy.

2. Aim of the Study

The aim of the present study is consequently to emphasize the main evolving phases in the development of spa tourism destinations in Romania with regard to their implications for the current situation of the spa product in our country. It results a clear need for this product to be reinvented as it should escape the inert characteristics and labels of 'social', 'mass oriented' or 'cheap' tourism and develop new competitive products, appealing both to traditional and to new techniques and resources in the attempt to respond the needs of post-communist contemporary tourism demand. Trapped between a decaying post-communist trend of mass and social tourism in our country and a general up-ward tendency for

spa consumerism, the unitary spa product of the socialism era is split nowadays into different marketing products and redefined in modern competitive terms. At the same time autochthonous spa destinations keep degrading and losing elements of their past spa infrastructure, now perceived as cultural heritage. They are still struggling yearly for shares of the national voucher system while lacking modernization investments and individual marketing strategies which should reinvent them for the external market. Consequently a local more integrative approach is needed and a study to define evolution stages for this less studied market in the contemporary scientific literature.

3. Types and Generations of Romanian Spa Resorts

Developed since the Roman Empire period, due to the important mineral and thermal spring resources discovered and valued since Antiquity, Romanian spa resorts developed to the dimensions of a real tourism industry during communism period and face nowadays the post-communism competition within an international profile market. Consequently one should state that spa products represented a constant of Romanian tourism market that evolved continuously under the influence of the leisure industry paradigm and the consumer's behavior patterns characterizing and describing different historical epochs.

In this respect one should mention as successive phases in the evolution of Romanian spa products and in the appearance of autochthonous health resorts the Roman Empire period, the Austrian vs local noblemen period depending on the provinces which were under different dominations and perceived as principalities during the 18th century and the beginning of the 19th century, the end of 19th century and the beginning of 20th century period known also as the independent Great Romania royal period, the communist epoch and the actual post communist period (all synthesized in Table 1 and illustrated in Figure 1).

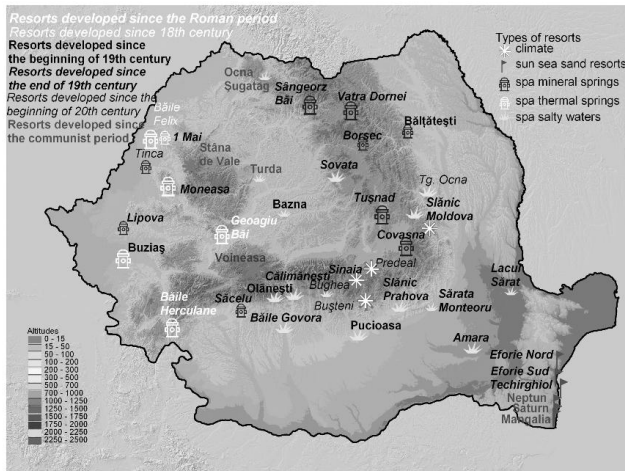
Table 1: Phases of evolution of Romanian spa tourism destinations

Period	Consume trends	Romanian politic /tourism system	Emergent destinations
Roman Empire (west of Romania)	Spa tourism	Classical – antique destinations	Herculane Bai, Geoagiu - Germisara
18 th century (Austrian/local noblemen period)	Spa tourism	Rediscovering of Roman resorts Prefiguration of new destinations	Herculane Bai, Geoagiu, Felix, 1 Mai,
Beg. of 19 th cent. (Austrian period/local noblemen)	Spa tourism, health littoral and mountaineering	Austrian resorts (Transylvania), noblemen (E & S)	Buziaş (Austrian Empire), Bălăţeşti (Moldavia)
End of 19 th cent.	Spa, littoral, mountain summer and winter sports tourism	Austrian resorts (Transylvania), noblemen (E & S)	Sovata, Vatra Dornei (Austrian), Slănic Moldova (Moldavia), Old spa littoral resorts
Beg. of 20 th cent.	Spa, littoral, mountain	Royalty period	Modernization, infrastructure development
Communist period	Spa, littoral, mountain	Central social system, mass tourism	Reinforcement and construction of mass structures in all old resorts. Upraisal of new resorts
Post-communist period (actual tendencies)	Tendencies towards greenwashing, rural, agri-tourism and cultural tourism, for niche spa products and for spa products segmentation	Decaying of social and mass structures Long and difficult privatization Punctual modernization	Genuine spa (even part of cultural heritage) e.g. Lipova, Baile Herculane, Borsec Spa - mountain tourism e.g. Sovata, Vatra Dornei Modern spa/ eco & medical resorts e.g. Sovata, Mangalia, Felix

The *Roman period* represents the dawn of health tourism in Romania and the founding moment of the oldest domestic tourism resorts (e.g. Herculane Băi - Herculane Bai Ad Aquas Herculi Sacras ad Mediam (Sacred waters of Herculae near Mehadia), Geoagiu Băi - Germisara (*germ* = warm and *sara* = water). Mineral waters are discovered by Romans since the war times within Dacia (101-102, 105-106 e.n.) and continued to represent an important resource for the founding of spa resorts until the present moment. The autochthonous resorts were valued and honored during those times by the presence of important

state people (e.g. the emperor Marcus Aurelius and his mother lulia, Simonius Iulianus - governor of the three Dacias etc.). In fact numerous heritage objects have remained since that period (statues, thermaes, etc.) reminding of Roman presence and planning of spa activities during those times.

Figure 1: Romanian types of spa resorts according to resources that determined their development, tourism motivation and their founding period



The 18th and the 19th century is the historical period when the trend of using thermal and mineral springs for therapeutic reasons reappears. Old spa resorts are rediscovered and reinforced on the one hand whereas new spa destinations are founded based on new scientific accredited discoveries of water resources on the other hand. Because of the historical context one should notice that this is the period of the so called Austrian resorts for the province of Transylvania (which was under Austrian occupation during that time) and the period when local noblemen with Western European education took the initiative to certify, plan and use similar mineral water resources in Moldavia and Valachia. One of the old reinforced destinations during Austrian period was Băile Herculane which was much developed

after 1718. If Romans began the construction of baths in the immediate proximity of springs Austrians modernized old baths, reconstructed them and added new access ways beginning with the year 1736. The majority of heritage buildings, dominating even nowadays the resorts landscape, bear the print of an impressive Austrian baroque. The resort was visited during those times by great personalities that enjoyed the therapeutic virtues of these baths such as the emperor Josef the second, the emperor Francisc the first and the emperatress Charlotte, the emperor Franz Joseph and the emperatress Elisabeth. Another resort that appeared to be in use long before the 19th century and was founded under the name that we know today since the 18th century was Felix Baths. It was firstly mentioned in 1221 on a Vatican Diplome and was rediscovered by Felix Heldres between 1700 and 1721. In fact he was the one who used for the first time Felix spring and generalizes Felix denomination for the entire resort. The first certification of Felix Băi resort dates back to 1763 when medical researches confirmed the existence of a basin for baths. Besides the reinforcement of old spa resorts one should also remark the founding of numerous and important new spa resorts within the epoch which maintained and developed in time as resorts of national interest (e.g. Sovata, Vatra Dornei). Austrian Empire also made a thorough inventory of mineral waters, of their chemical composition and medical properties for an impressive number of settlements in Transylvania. This province benefited a central planning system and more important investments compared to external Carpathians provinces. Moldavia and Valachia met fragmented initiatives within spa sector, belonging to noblemen and land owners interested in valuing the potential of mineral springs discovered sometimes by chance by peasants on different domains they owned. Relevant examples for such initiatives would be the direct implication of Cantacuzino Prince for planning the first spa medical units in Băltătești resort during the 19th century or of the political personality of I.C. Brătianu for valuing and planning Băile Govora resort located in southern part of Romania during the same period.

Figure 2: Old photographs since the beginning of 20th century in a - Sovata; b - Vatra Dornei; c - Bălățești resorts



Source: www.drumliber.ro; www.pinterest.com; www.okazii.ro

The second part of the royal period at the beginning of 20th century continued the consolidation of the existing tourist resorts and medical and spa centers. This happened especially after the First World War when great Romania was founded being reconstructed from all points of view after the severe losses it had suffered. A series of institutions were already reformatted since the beginning of royalty epoch (Ielenicz and Dincă, 2013) and thanks to their private investments the first spa resort on the Romanian littoral appeared (e.g. Eforie Nord due to the existing Eforia Spitalelor society). Many investments are meant during the epoch for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of the old spa resorts whereas those for building new resorts orient towards more modern tourism segments. They were directed both for spa littoral and especially for mountain resorts, the latter category being conceived as both a climacteric air therapy and a winter sport practicing environment. Ski fashion was brought during the first decade of the 20th century by young noblemen educated in the Western part of Europe. Sinaia, Bușteni and Predeal mountain resorts cluster, located on Prahova Valley and hosting summer royal and noblemen residences were the first resorts in Romania to be planned for winter specific sports and even to host important competitions during the epoch.

The communist period is considered the most important one from the point of view of tourism spa infrastructure that survived till the present moment in Romanian health resorts in general. After the 2nd World War tourism industry entered a mass tourism development phase and big hospitality and medical units were built offering at the time a whole range of modern services. It was also the phase of an exhaustive exploration during which a long list of settlements with curative balneal resources (especially mineral springs) was elaborated. Spa, seaside or mountain tourism became recognized branches of the tourism

servicesector; all framed within a central social communist system and envisaged as mass tourism industries. Consequently, beside the reinforcement and construction of mass tourism structures in all the already on place resorts, we assisted as well to the up-raisal of new resorts (e.g. small local resorts - Biziuşca Băi, Vulcana Băi, Stâna de Vale, etc.; the littoral resorts of the 80s, located near Mangalia - Neptune, Olimp, Venus, Jupiter, Saturn) (Figure 1). All structures belonged to diferent institutions (Ministry of Tourism, ONT- National Tourism Office, OJT- Departmental Tourism Offices) and ultimately to the Romanian state which wasthe unique owner during the period. Communism epoch is considered the “golden age” of social spa in Romania as profile resorts had continuous tourist demand around the year, belonging to all age categories. Families with children and couples of retired persons, accompanied or not by grandsons and granddaughters and receiving free or subsidized vouchers through factories’ trade unions and pensions offices, were typical clients of spa resorts, no matter their location (mountain, littoral or hilly regions), during those days. One should hence notice that similarly to other countries in Central and Eastern Europe Romanian spa tourism is an old phenomenon which expanded to the dimensions of a well defined tourism industry during the mass tourism period which overlapped in its case the communism epoch.

The post-communist period brings a new perception on the ‘70s image of traditional spa tourism, classically defined as ‘the provision of health facilities utilizing the natural resources of the country, in particular mineral water and climate’ (Koncul, 2012). Nowadays spa industry orients more the health care services around the terms of medical tourism and wellness. In fact the new concept of health tourism brings also into discussion the ‘psychological, spiritual or emotional well-being dimension in addition to the physical one’ traditionally addressed by ‘medicinal waters’ (Smith and Kelly, 2006), emerging from ‘the notion of well-being and the concept of fitness’ (Knocul, 2012). If some authorsemphasize two types of medical treatments pursued by medical tourists, namely: surgical treatments (referring to operations) or therapeutic treatments (meaning tourists’ participating in healing treatments) (Smith and Puczko, 2009 in Research Report..., 2011), others make the difference between

wellness and medical elements as complementary components of the contemporary health recreational product, integrating and reshaping old hydrotherapy or water-based treatments (Koncul, 2012). One should state however that 'a wide spectrum of health and wellness tourism has developed in recent years' (Koncul, 2012) ranging from tourism segments more oriented towards body, hence towards physical health and medical healing, to those oriented rather towards spirit and psychological dimensions (Smith and Puczko, 2009). If generally the nature of demand for spa tourism is changing as a result of the evolving essential social factors (Smith and Puczko, 2008 in Vasileiou and Tsartas, 2009), we assist nowadays to a more complex interest in spa products, regarded rather as holistic experience than through their healing effect. The contemporary 'multi-motivated' tourists (Vasileiou and Tsartas, 2009) try to satisfy multiple needs during their travel experience. Due to these aspects wellness has various and very different definitions being perceived from many points of view, ranging from 'a philosophical standpoint whereby one confronts the true nature of existence' to 'cosmetic surgery to beautify the body in order to enhance psychological well-being' (Smith and Kelly, 2006; Connell, 2013). Beside this generic approach on the complex needs manifested by the contemporary consumer, spa industry and recreational economy has been redefined through the wellness concept as nowadays in many destinations around the world 'all sorts of hotels and centers can claim that they offer wellness tourism services without following a specific framework of rules and prerequisites' (Vasileiou and Tsartas, 2009). Other important dominant issues in tourism industry and 'challenging' as well for the wellness domain, would be those of 'sustainable tourism development' focusing on the three dimensional environmental, social and economic performances (Vasileiou and Tsartas, 2009; Dincă, 2013). Some authors perceive wellness as being community oriented; the option for it having as ultimate result the full integration of individuals within human and natural communities through the achievement of an well being of the body, mind and spirit triangle (after Smith and Kelly, 2006). Under the influence of a gradually growing green consumerism and of the greenwashing of economies in

general and of tourism industries in particular, Romania also oriented its contemporary recreational activities towards rural tourism, agri-tourism, cultural and religious tourism or towards niche and personalized ecological products. Koncul (2012) was stating however the fact that 'in the Central and Southeast European countries an enhanced emphasis on sunshine, sea air, and thalassotherapy may still be remarked which continues to see physical fitness as an integral part of everyday wellness'. This is also a proof of the need of these countries to redesign in an integrative approach their old mass spa tourism industry. They are not able to give up structures and destinations already in place and to build up new ones, after the centralized boost of the industry under the communism regime that started after the 2nd World War and ended up in the late '80, leaving in place an important legacy in terms of both health tourism infrastructure and domestic tourism behavior. Spa tourism "communist heritage" entered a difficult and long transformation phase in the post communist period (Erdeli et al, 2011) still maintaining past social reminiscent elements. As a general aspect to be noticed for all Romanian spa resorts after the 1989 Revolution, one should mention the decaying phenomenon of mass structures that entered a long and difficult privatization process which ended up very recently. Also a punctual and fragmented modernization might be remarked, taking place on an individual basis. In this context some old spa cultural heritage resorts keep losing their structures (e.g. Baile Herculane, Borsec, etc.) or even ended up their existence (e.g. Soveja, Bughea de Sus), while mountain spa resorts with a climacteric component oriented more and more towards their winter sport and mountaineering products (e.g. Voineasa, Busteni, Sinaia, Vatra Dornei, etc.). Only some of the old spa destinations successfully attempted lately to reshape their offer towards medical tourism and modern spa products (e.g. Mangalia, Băile Felix, Sovata, etc.).

4. Contemporary Trends

Contemporary Romanian post-communist spa industry is characterized by contradictory trends under the influence of its

important communist legacy (mass state owned structures - Figure 3 - and a centralized medical insurance voucher system) on the one hand and of the international evolving background (new competitive medical and wellness tourism products) on the other hand. We assist at the same time to an emerging wellness market and a growing need to consume modern spa products and to the maintenance of the social voucher system in old shaped and decaying mass tourism destinations. As it was expected, after 1990 'communist' huge mass health care tourism structures entered an important decaying trend as they delayed to be privatized and lacked modernization. Loaned for temporary periods of several years, these structures represented a considerable source of profit for the owners interested only in maintaining their activity with minimum investment. They profited on a social voucher system in search for 'cheap' tourism products in old traditional spa destinations and left the business when structures were reaching advanced degrading phases needing too costly rehabilitation actions.

Figure 3: Mass tourism structures designed during communism period in Romanian spa resorts.



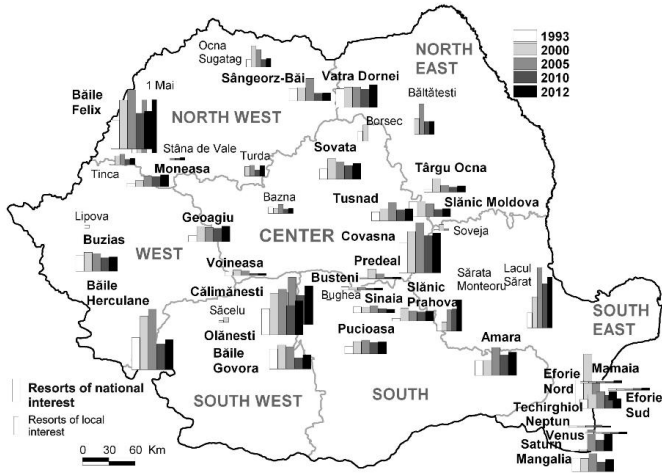
Source: www.cazari.ro; www.amarillistour.ro; www.allturism.ro

In this way heritage buildings and mass tourism structures in traditional spa resorts continue to disappear and to degrade themselves introducing a contemporary desolate landscape near new emerging smaller structures of boardinghouse and villa type now broadly preferred by tourists. 'In 1996, the total number of the accommodation units including medical treatment structures in the spa resorts reached 116, while in 2005 their number decreased to 83 units' (Erdeli et al., 2011). Moreover one should state the increase of units of 2 stars and 1 star comfort categories within Romanian spa resorts as a clear proof for the lack of investments and for the orientation of these destinations towards cheap social tourism forms (after Erdeli et al., 2011).

Another legacy of the communist system still dominating Romanian spa tourism market is the social voucher system, subsidized by Governmental funds for less favored social categories such as retired people. The vouchers granted by the state and negotiated with the industry beneficiaries according to the existing number of bed places, their price and their category of comfort are reaching social clients mainly through the National Pension Funds and CNPAS institution (The National House of Pensions and Other Social Insurance Rights) nowadays more than through trade unions as they used to during communist period. Actually present beneficiaries of spa vouchers that had 30 and 40 years old during communism epoch and are now retired people still opt for social spa domestic tourism not only because of social reasons but also because of living a sort of nostalgia for their lifetime holiday destinations. The option for state insurance granted vouchers within internal spa resorts represents so a behavioral pattern for the aged domestic tourism demand. Moreover in spite of the economic recession the social health tourism voucher system is a fashionable trend also at the European Union level in view of a future gradually aging population needing health cure and relaxing holidays. All these factors justify the revival of domestic social spa vouchers, emphasized by statistics referring to treatment vouchers accorded through state social insurance system in Romanian spa destinations. Figure 4 clearly shows an increase in the number of social vouchers granted by spa resort in Romania in 2012 compared to figures in 2010.

In the light of new tendencies of consumerism next to already existing old mass structures new units of boarding house type and new recreational services such as horse riding, adventure sports, etc. appeared lately in the Romanian traditional spa destinations. They are meant to attract other categories of tourism demand than social aged tourists on the one hand and to create experience based products which respond new tastes of consume on the other.

Figure 4: Number of tickets for medical treatment granted through the state insurance system for spa resorts in Romania



5. Conclusion

The paper underlines the evolution of Romanian spa tourism, as a continuous multiphase paradigm, influenced nowadays by modern patterns of tourism consume and trying to integrate in new products its past spa infrastructure legacy. Spa tourism in general and in Romania in particular is one of the ancient forms of tourism which continuously evolved in time through its offer that changed once with the leisure industry paradigm and the consumer's behavior patterns. Health tourism was reshaped and flourished in different epochs, being designed as a mass tourism industry during communism period. Current spa destinations still struggle to integrate and redefine this legacy in their present landscape taking into consideration the low comfort slowly privatized mass structures on the one hand and the inert still successful social voucher system on which these structures base their business on the other. On this context new products reflecting modern tendencies in wellness and medical tourism

punctually emerge on the market responding new needs for recreational health products.

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THE ECONOMIC ROLE OF TOURISM IN THE RURAL AREAS OF CYPRUS

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Rural areas in the European Union are currently undergoing significant economic and social changes, mostly induced by agricultural policy reform, international trade liberalization, and the strengthening of the role of rural development policy. There is an increasing awareness of the need to accompany changes in rural areas through the diversification of their economic base that seems to be the only answer to their socio-economic survival. Rural tourism has been considered a means of achieving such economic and social development. The objective of this paper is to investigate the economic role of tourism in the rural areas of Cyprus. The Generation of Regional Input-Output Tables (GRIT) technique is applied for the estimation of the socio-economic impact of tourism through the construction of an input-output table for rural Cyprus. This is followed by a tourism-centered multiplier analysis. The results suggest that tourism create significant backward linkages in the rural economy of Cyprus offering thus a great potential for improving economic activity.

1. Introduction

Rural areas are vital to European Union (EU) as they cover almost 91% of the territory and hold over 59% of the population. Though economic activity tends to concentrate in urban areas, rural regions generate 17% of the gross value added (GVA) and provide 22% of the employment (European Commission, 2011). Rural areas are currently undergoing significant economic and social changes, mostly induced by the international trade liberalisation, the development of information and communication technologies and the strengthening of rural development policy. They are confronted simultaneously with significant weaknesses and new challenges and opportunities. It is widely accepted that farming no longer forms the 'backbone' of rural economies and its contribution to GDP formation and employment in most rural

regions is in relative decline (OECD, 2009). Although rural depopulation remains important for most parts of the countryside, others are experiencing an inflow of people to retire or to develop new 'non-traditional' businesses (Copus and Noguera, 2010). Society formulates new expectations on the role of countryside while the rise of environmentalism has led to increasing interest over natural resource use and development. 'Traditional' rural societies are receiving more attention and rural space has transformed from a production only to a production and consumption space.

Within this context, the major strategic priority of the European rural development policy is to promote employment and improve the conditions for growth in rural areas. Raising economic activity and employment rates in rural regions can be achieved through the diversification of their economic base creating thus a better territorial balance, both in economic and social terms. More specifically, Rural Development Programmes (RDPs) and Leader Initiatives aim to support the economic activity in rural areas via the improvement of public infrastructure and the development of a climate of entrepreneurship for generation of small and medium size business.

Rural tourism has long been considered a means of such diversification of the rural economy. Tourism is the major part of the shift in the economic base of rural societies (Brandth and Haugen, 2011) promoting thus rural vitality and sustainability (Hall et al., 2003). The synergies and interrelationships between tourism, agriculture and the other sectors of economic activity are increasingly important with many different players getting involved. Rural tourism has become a 'development tool' for many communities seeking to diversify their economies due to its capacity to generate local employment, stimulate external investment into the communities and supplement traditional industries (Yiannakis and Davies, 2012; MacDonald and Jolliffe, 2003). Sharpley and Vass (2006) have identified the long tradition of rural tourism in Europe and stressed its capacity to solve economic and social problems into rural areas.

Tourism's economic and employment potential for rural areas depends heavily on the 'linkages' it builds with the other sectors of the rural economy. The building of such interrelationships and synergies with local sectors such as agriculture, food processing, construction, transportation and other services minimizes the

'leakages' of tourism growth outside the regions and strengthens production at local level. Within this context, the purpose of this paper is to analyze the economic role of rural tourism in Cyprus. Input-output technique is used to estimate rural tourism linkages with the other local sectors of economic activity through the calculation of demand-driven multipliers.

2. But what is Rural Tourism?

Rural tourism is not a new phenomenon in Europe. However, in recent years the market has become more sophisticated and discriminating and there has been an increasing interest in tourism as a valuable vehicle for much needed diversification of the rural economy (European Commission, 2000). As far as the definition of rural tourism is concerned, it is difficult to find a clear and universal one due to its multifaceted nature (OECD, 1994b). Lane (1994) and Reichel et al. (2000) define rural tourism as the tourism that is located in rural areas while Gannon (1994) as 'a range of activities, services and amenities provided by farmers and rural people to attract tourists to their area in order to generate extra income for their businesses'. The term 'rural tourism' has been adopted by the European Commission for tourism as the means to describe and explain all the touristic activities in rural areas and villages (European Commission, 2000). But in almost every case of rural tourism package the central point is how 'rurality' is defined?

The need for a definition for rurality is an old issue faced by policy makers for many years. Although rural areas have been analysed in many countries for decades, there is neither a harmonised definition of what is rural nor an official regional typology (European Commission, 2007). According to OECD's view there is no simple definition of rural and an appropriate choice shall depend on the analytical purpose or on the policy problems that have to be solved (OECD, 1994a). The most appropriate definition of rural depends on the aspect of the social, economic and natural part of the environment the particular policy wishes to influence (Hill, 2005). Hoggart et al. (1995) argued that there is little chance of reaching consensus on what is 'meant' by rural for two reasons. First, agreement on the very notion of 'rural' is lacking and second, different cultural, demographic,

environmental, political and socioeconomic conditions in EU lead their residents to emphasize different attributes as key characteristics of their rurality. The difficulty in defining what is meant by 'rural' is shown in the fact that rural is commonly defined not on its own terms but in opposition to urban. Many national statistical systems, including Cyprus, first define what is urban and then simply define rural as non-urban.

By reviewing national definitions of rural, the most common criteria that dominate in the debate on rurality are: (1) population criteria (density and size); (2) land uses, and its dominance by agriculture and forestry; (3) "traditional" social structures and issues of community identity and heritage (OECD, 1994b). The only internationally recognised definition of rural areas is based on the OECD methodology (OECD 1994a; 2007). The OECD rural typology is based on population density and distinguishes three groups of regions: 'predominantly rural', 'intermediate rural' and 'predominantly urban'. The European Commission has consistently used the OECD methodology to define rural areas (European Commission, 2007). However, since 2010, the European Commission agreed on a new typology of 'predominantly rural', 'intermediate' and 'predominantly urban' regions, based on a variation of the previously used OECD methodology. The method builds on a simple approach to create clusters of urban grid cells with a minimum population density of 300 inhabitants per km² and a minimum population of 5000. All the cells outside these urban clusters are considered as rural. (Eurostat, 2011).

3. Definition of Rural Areas of Cyprus

The definition of 'rural' in Cyprus is based upon a dichotomous (rural-urban) concept. The Statistical Service of Cyprus defines rural areas as 'all areas outside urban agglomerations of the district towns covered by the Local Town Plans as defined by the Department of Town Planning' (ESPON, 2003). Although, the results of this methodology are considered as imperfectly reflecting the rural character of areas, Cyprus has been using this definition mainly for continuity and comparison reasons.

In this study, rural areas of Cyprus are defined based on the OECD regional typology (OECD 1994a; 2007). The OECD methodology is based on a two-step approach. The first criterion identifies rural communities according to population density. A local community is defined as rural if its population density is below 150 inhabitants per km². The second criterion classifies regions according to the percentage of population living in rural communities. Thus, a region is classified as:

- predominantly rural: if more than 50% of its population lives in rural communities
- intermediate: if between 15% and 50% of its population lives in rural communities
- predominantly urban: if less than 15% of its population lives in rural communities.

Rural areas of Cyprus according to OECD criteria are presented in the Table 1 and represent almost 86% of the territory and 22.4% of population. For example, in Paphos district rural areas cover almost 95.5% of the territory and hold over 36.6% of the population. All districts of Cyprus are characterized as 'intermediate rural' as 15%-50% of population lives in rural areas (population density < 150 persons/km²). From the analysis it seems that the methodology used by the Statistical Service of Cyprus overestimates rural population almost by 9% compared to OECD criteria.

Table 1: Classification of Cyprus districts according to OECD criteria

	Rural areas			Non rural areas		
	Population (%)	Area (%)	Population density (persons/km ²)	Population (%)	Area (%)	Population density (persons/km ²)
Nicosia	20.4	83.8	37	79.6	16.2	752
Limassol	14.1	88.0	23	85.9	12.0	1012
Larnaca	28.9	83.4	39	71.1	16.6	476
Paphos	36.6	95.5	19	63.4	4.5	697
Famagusta	36.0	56.1	80	64.0	43.9	182
Total	22.4	86.0	31	77.6	14.0	651

Although determining what belongs to tourism industry is a complex process open to different interpretations, within this study the rural tourism industry includes the hotels and

restaurants sectors that are located in the rural regions defined above.

4. Methodological Aspects of Input-Output Analysis

A full assessment of the economic impacts of rural tourism requires that the linkages between tourism and the other sectors of the rural economy are clearly identified. Having established these linkages, policy makers are then in a better position to consider specific interventions that can raise economic activity in rural regions. Input-output analysis is recognized as the most suitable quantitative technique for studying such interdependence of production sectors in an economy (Giannakis and Efstratoglou, 2011). By disaggregating the total economy into a number of interacting sectors, input-output analysis provides an impressive tool for sectoral investigations and impact analysis. Although the well-known limitations of the technique, i.e. do not take into account resource constraints, ignore price adjustments, inputs are used in fixed proportion without any substitution of inputs (Miller and Blair, 2009; Dwyer et al., 2004), input-output analysis has been used extensively for assessing tourism impacts either on national (Archer, 1995; Archer and Fletcher, 1996; Henry and Deane, 1997) or regional economies (Chhabra et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2003; Tohmo, 2005).

4.1 Input-output multipliers

A significant feature of multiplier analysis in an input-output context is its ability to disaggregate the effects of a stimulus in economic activity. In this context, the increase in final demand for the product of a sector by one unit, creates three major effects on output, income and employment. These are:

- a) the direct effect, which represents the immediate output, income and employment effects on sector j , caused by a unit increase in final demand for the output of sector j ;
- b) the indirect effect, which reflects the 'second and subsequent-round' output, income, and employment effects on the economy (i.e. on sector j and its input-providing sectors), caused by a unit increase in final demand for the output of sector j ;

- c) the induced effect, which represents the output, income, and employment effects on the economy, induced by household spending of income generated in the production process, as a result of a unit increase in final demand for the output of sector j .

Consequently, Type I and Type II multipliers can be calculated as (Richardson, 1972):

$$\text{Type I multiplier} = \frac{\text{Direct and Indirect Effects}}{\text{Direct Effects}}$$

$$\text{Type II multiplier} = \frac{\text{Direct, Indirect and Induced Effects}}{\text{Direct Effects}}$$

In general, Type II multipliers often overestimate economic impacts (Miller and Blair, 2009). The constructed input-output table for rural Cyprus is open with respect to households and Type I output and employment multipliers are estimated.

4.2 Regionalisation process

With respect to the construction of a regional input-output table the various approaches can be broadly categorized as 'survey', 'non-survey' and 'hybrid' (Richardson, 1972). The 'survey' approach relies on collecting primary data through various survey methods. The advantage of this approach is that it does not assume similarity between regional and national production functions. The 'non-survey' approach involves the representation of the regional economy through the modification of national technical coefficients. However, the 'non-survey' methods do not provide satisfactory substitutes for the 'survey' approach as the constructed regional tables are not free from significant error (Richardson, 1972). In response to this problem, a 'hybrid' approach involves the application of 'non-survey' techniques to estimate an initial regional transactions matrix. Then, entries in this matrix relating to key sectors are replaced by survey-based estimates. One of the most well-known hybrid techniques is GRIT (Generation of Regional Input-Output Tables).

4.2.1 The GRIT approach

The GRIT technique was developed and originally applied by Jensen et al. (1979) and has been widely used for rural economic analysis (Johns and Leat, 1987; Psaltopoulos and Thomson, 1993; Tzouvelekas and Mattas, 1999; Ciobanu et al. 2004; Giannakis and Efstratoglou, 2011). According to Jensen et al. (1979), GRIT system was developed ‘...to provide an operational method, free from significant error, for regional economic analysis’. A mechanical procedure is initially applied to adjust national tables by using an employment-based Cross Industry Location Quotient (CILQ) or Simple Location Quotient (SLQ) to the corresponding elements of the national direct requirement matrix, followed by the insertion of ‘superior’ data from survey or other sources. As a result, GRIT includes the advantages of both ‘survey’ and ‘non-survey’ techniques.

5. Analysis and Results

5.1 The construction of the rural Cyprus input-output table

The construction of the rural IO table was based on the Cypriot supply and use tables for the year 2007, which are the latest available (CYSTAT, 2013). The initial scheme of 59 sectors of economic activity was aggregated into 19 sectors in order to reconcile the discrepancy between employment data available at the rural and national level, respectively. GRIT regionalization technique described above was used for the construction of the rural input-output table. Mechanical estimates of rural input-output coefficients were superiorized through a survey of 65 local businesses specific to certain sectors of the rural economy and specifically to agriculture, food processing, trade and tourism. The selection of the sampled sectors was based on two criteria: (a) the significance of these sectors for the regional economy and (b) the existence of strong intersectoral linkages with the tourism sector (Czamanski and Malizia, 1969).

5.1.1 Input-output multipliers

Based on the constructed input-output table for rural Cyprus, Table 2 indicates output and employment multipliers and coefficients. The Type I output multipliers express the regional significance of the backward linkages of each industry. The

multiplier for the Tourism sector is amongst the highest (5th in rank), indicating strong linkages with the rest sectors of the rural economy. So, an increase of 1 million euro in final demand of the Tourism sector will increase the total (direct and indirect) output in the rural areas of Cyprus by 1.44 mil euro. The ranking of sectors shows that the highest direct and indirect increase of gross output generated by an increase of 1 million euro in final demand is observed in the Trade sector (3.13) followed by the sectors of Constructions (1.60), Electricity (1.59) and Food Processing (1.57).

Direct employment coefficients (DECs) show that an additional 1 million euro of output from the labour-intensive Tourism sector creates 23 jobs in the industry. Increased output has also a high direct job impacts on Trade (110 jobs), Education (23 jobs), and Other Services (23 jobs) which are labour-intensive industries. On the other hand, increased output in capital-intensive sectors such as Chemical and Plastic Products (1 job), Machinery and Equipment (2 jobs), Electricity (3 jobs), and Food Processing (5 jobs) seems to create a lower number of direct new jobs. Direct and indirect employment coefficients (DIECs) are high for industries such as Trade (121 jobs), Tourism (26 jobs), Other Services (26 jobs), and Education (24 jobs). Type I employment multiplier for Tourism industry is amongst the lowest (1.15) indicating weak backward effects. This is mainly due to the high direct employment linkages of the industry, rather than to the indirect employment effects which are rather low. On the other hand, linkages are significant in the case of Food Processing (1.92) and Transportation (1.76).

6. Conclusions

Rural areas in Cyprus have been traditionally faced with significant structural constraints but at the same time, certain features that have caused their isolation have contributed to their status as areas of natural beauty, unspoilt environment and rich cultural heritage. In these areas, rural tourism and related activities could be considered as the main axis of a rural development strategy that can protect the fragile socio-economic fabric in the short run, and create sustainable development in the long run. Rural tourism creates strong backward linkages with the

rest sectors of the rural economy in terms of output and employment consisting thus a very important means for diversifying economic activities in rural Cyprus.

Table 2: Output and employment multipliers and coefficients for rural Cyprus

Economic Sectors	Type I Output Multiplier	Rank	DEC	Rank	DIEC	Rank	Type I Employment Multiplier	Rank
1. Agriculture	1.36	11	10	8	12	9	1.29	9
2. Mining	1.21	15	5	13	7	15	1.27	10
3. Food Processing	1.57	4	5	15	9	12	1.92	1
4. Textile	1.09	19	3	16	3	17	1.13	18
5. Wood and Paper	1.42	9	7	11	10	11	1.41	7
6. Chemical and Plastic Products	1.09	18	1	19	2	19	1.24	13
7. Metal and non-Metal Products	1.43	6	5	14	8	14	1.56	4
8. Machinery and Equipment	1.10	17	2	18	2	18	1.25	12
9. Electricity, Gas and Water	1.59	3	3	17	4	16	1.70	3
10. Construction	1.60	2	12	6	16	6	1.34	8
11. Trade	3.13	1	11 0	1	13 1	1	1.20	14
12. Tourism	1.44	5	23	4	26	2	1.15	15
13. Transportation	1.42	7	7	10	13	8	1.76	2
14. Banking - Financing	1.27	14	5	12	8	13	1.47	6
15. Real Estate	1.42	8	8	9	11	10	1.49	5
16. Public Administration	1.32	12	12	7	15	7	1.24	11
17. Education	1.15	16	23	2	24	4	1.07	19
18. Health	1.40	10	17	5	19	5	1.14	16
19. Other Services	1.27	13	23	3	26	3	1.14	17

DEC: Direct Employment Coefficients

DIEC: Direct and Indirect Employment Coefficients

More specifically, its capacity to create strong interrelationships and synergies with food manufacture and agriculture promotes rural vitality and strengthens the production capacity at local level. The economic importance of rural tourism in Cyprus appearing through the input-output multiplier analysis provides strong empirical evidence for the above statement.

Considering also that, European policy initiatives aiming at strengthening the viability of rural areas have as central point the protection of natural resources, it is essential to extend the basic input-output technique in order to encompass the environmental dimensions of rural tourism.

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THE IMPACTS OF WORLD HERITAGE SITE DESIGNATION: SACRED SITES AND PILGRIMAGE ROUTES IN THE KII MOUNTAIN RANGE

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This research aims to investigate the impact of World Heritage Site (WHS) designation on the area designated as “Sacred Sites and Pilgrimage Routes in the Kii Mountain Range”, Japan. The research adopts qualitative approach to explore detailed issues related to the impacts of WHS designation on heritage management and conservation, local communities, and tourism. Primary data was collected through the visits to the WHS, observation of and ad hoc small interviews with people in the host side of tourism, and scheduled in-depth interviews with key stakeholders in the host side of tourism. The initial findings show that the WHS designation has positive impacts on tourism and local communities in the WHS. For instance, the level of conservation of the WHS, the level of pride of local people in their living place, and the number of overseas tourists have also increased since its WHS designation in 2004.

1. Introduction

This research aims to examine the impacts of World Heritage Site (WHS) designation on the area designated as “Sacred Sites and Pilgrimage Routes in the Kii Mountain Range”, Japan. The impacts of WHS listing on (a) heritage management and conservation, (b) local communities, and (c) tourism are explored in the research. At the time of writing (December 2012), the

research is still a work-in-progress, and this paper is presented as a working paper.

The number of WHSs in the world as of December 2012 is 962: 745 cultural, 188 natural and 29 mixed properties in 157 State Parties (SPs) (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2012a). There are 16 WHSs in Japan as of December 2012: 12 cultural and 4 natural WHSs (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2012a). The area explored in this research was inscribed as a cultural WHS in 2004. The WHS encompasses an extensive area and extends over several municipalities in three different prefectures, Wakayama, Nara and Mie. The impacts of WHS designation on the above-mentioned three fields is worth investigating and vital mainly with the following reasons.

First, there are only three WHSs which encompass pilgrimage routes in the world as of December 2012, and these routes have not been studied enough as cultural WHSs in previous tourism studies. Second, except the WHS looked at in this research, other two WHSs which include pilgrimage routes are "Route of Santiago de Compostela" in Spain (listed in 1993) and "Routes of Santiago de Compostela in France" (listed in 1998). In fact, however, both of the two WHSs mean the ways to Santiago de Compostela in Spain, one of the most significant pilgrimage sites for Christianity, and both WHSs are located in Europe (West). On the other hand, the sacred sites and pilgrimage routes studied in this research is located in Japan (East) (listed in 2004), and has close links with "Shintoism", "Buddhism" and/or "Shugendo". "Shugendo" means a syncretism of Japanese ancient mountain worship. The routes related to such non-Christian religions, especially "Shugendo", have not been explored well in previous tourism studies. Lastly, the significance of tourism for most WHSs, especially for cultural WHSs, in terms of the sustainability of WHSs has been more and more recognised by UNESCO, ICOMOS, academics, and practitioners in recent years. This could be evidenced by an increase in the number of opportunities to share and exchange various ideas, views and practice at conferences, symposiums, workshops and so on.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1 Sacred sites, pilgrimage routes and religious tourism

Tourism is not a new phenomenon. In the Western world, some types of activities which can be seen as tourism in a current context already existed in the Greek and Roman eras (Page and Connell, 2009). Early tourism had various purposes such as leisure, trade and military.

In the Western world, people began to travel to attend religious festivals and events, or for pilgrimages in the Middle Ages (the 5th - 15th centuries) (Page and Connell, 2009). During this period, the Western world saw the rise of Christianity, including the development of monastic orders and a feudal system. In this situation, most holidays were taken to attend religious festivals, though this did not always include movement to a different place. In the 16th century, in England, the most important holidays for people were still related to their religion (e.g. annual parish feast, wake or revel), and still did not always include movement. During the 18th century, the Grand Tour became very popular amongst young aristocrats in some Western countries (Page and Connell, 2009). Some of the activities taken in the Grand Tour can be seen as religious tourism. For example, Venice was popular around May and June for the Ascensiontide, whilst Rome was favoured at Christmas, both for the renowned festivities (Towner, 1996).

Generally speaking, Christianity and the Western world have been studied more than other major religions and the rest of the world in previous tourism studies. In fact, as far as the researcher is aware, there are not many tourism studies which deal with "Shintoism", "Buddhism" and/or "Shugendo and Japan. "Okage-mairi" in the Edo period (1603-1868) can be seen as the oldest type of religious tourism in Japan, and is also 'recognised as a forerunner of modern-day Japanese tourism' (Linhart and Fruhstuck, 1998 cited in Cooper et al., 2008: 111). Okage-mairi means the religious tourism to Ise Jingu (Shinto shrine) in Mie prefecture made by ordinary people. This travel was seen as an once-in-a-lifetime opportunity as ordinary people, especially farmers, could not travel freely and need a large amount of time and money. People travelled to Ise Grand Shrine from other

regions of Honshu Island and Shikoku and Kyushu Islands to receive good luck or protection from the gods. The pilgrimage routes to Ise Jingu were also developed with the growing popularity of okage-mairi.

It can be said religious tourism is still popular as type of current tourism in both the Western world and Japan. The WHS studied in this research can be regarded as sacred sites and pilgrimage routes because of its historical linkage with religions such as “Shintoism”, “Buddhism” and/or “Shugendo”. Shackley (2001) developed a classification of sacred sites (see Table 1). In light of the categorisation in Table 1, shrines and temples examined in this research would fall into Categories 4 and/or 10, and the mountains which have such sacred sites (Koya-san and Yoshino-yama) would fall into Category 8. In recent years, Kumano Sanzan has been seen as one of “power spots” (In Japan, this means the places which can give a spiritual power of the site to people). Hence, some Japanese people, especially young women, visit the sites such as Kumano Sanzan to receive the power. In this sense, Kumano Sanzan would fall into Category 11.

Table 1: Classification of Sacred Sites

Category	Type	Examples
1	Single nodal feature	Canterbury Cathedral, Emerald Buddha (Bangkok), Hagia Sophia (Istanbul)
2	Archaeological sites	Machu Picchu (Peru), Chichen Itza (Mexico)
3	Burial sites	Catacombs (Rome), Pyramids (Giza)
4	Detached temples/shrines	Borobudur, Angkor Wat, Amritsar
5	Whole towns	Rome, Jerusalem, Assisi, Varanasi, Bethlehem
6	Shrine/temple complexes	Lalibela (Ethiopia), Patala (Tibet), St Katherine's Monastery (Egypt)
7	Earth energy' sites	Nazca Lines (Peru), Glastonbury
8	Sacred mountains	Uluru, Everest, Tai Shan, Athos, Mt Fuji
9	Sacred islands	Rapa Nui, Lindisfarne, Iona, Mont-St-Michel
10	Pilgrimage foci	Mecca, Medina, Mt Kailash, Compostela
11	Secular pilgrimage	Robben Island (RSA), Goree (Senegal), Holocaust sites

Source: Shackley (2001).

2.2 Management and conservation of WHSs

To be inscribed as a WHS, first every candidate site needs to be listed on the Tentative List which is prepared within each States Party (SP) through consultation with local authorities, non-government organisations, members of the public, private owners (Leask, 2006). In fact; however, some stakeholders such as the

member of the public and private owners at a candidate site might not be involved enough in this process (Jimura, 2007) and these stakeholders are unlikely to understand the meaning of WHS fully even after its listing (Jimura, 2007; 2011).

The candidate site nominated by its SP must have a detailed management plan and a strong legal framework as part of the Nomination Documents for a WHS status (Jimura 2007; 2011, Shackley, 1998). This means that the management and conservation plan for the candidate site would need to be improved or enhanced accordingly through the nomination process (Smith, 2002). In other words, central government in SPs would need to develop the plan based on the advice from World Heritage Centre, advisory bodies from within the States Party, IUCN, ICOMOS, regional authorities, local government, local trusts and experts and consultation (Leask, 2006). The site needs to keep improving their management and conservation plan even after it was designated as a WHS (Bianchi, 2002; Smith, 2002). However, having an excellent management and conservation plan is not enough for the management and conservation of the WHSs. Jimura (2007) conducted the resident survey in Saltaire, the UK and Shirakawa-mura, Japan. In case of Saltaire, 32.0% of the questionnaire respondents think the level of conservation of the site has increased since WHS listing in 2001, and only 2.0% think it has decreased. In case of Shirakawa-mura, on the other hand, only 12.6% of the respondents think the level of conservation of the site has increased, and 44.6% think it has actually decreased. Hence, it can be said that an increase in the level of conservation of the site cannot be fully guaranteed even after WHS designation. In case of Shirakawa-mura, a decrease in the level of conservation was caused mainly by rapid and extensive tourism development after its WHS listing in 1994 (Jimura, 2007; 2011).

The involvement of local communities in the management and conservation of the WHS as well as its nomination process is essential. In fact to 'encourage participation of the local population in the preservation of their cultural and natural heritage' is part of the mission of WHSs (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2012b). In addition to the management and conservation plan, Jimura (2011) suggests that a comprehensive tourism management plan is also required for WHSs (e.g.

Shirakawa-mura, Japan) for the successful future of the site as a place to live, a WHS and a tourist destination.

This research will examine (a) how the WHS is managed and conserved, considering the issues pointed out above (Section 1) in “Sacred Sites and Pilgrimage Routes in the Kii Mountain Range”.

2.3 The impacts of WHS inscription

WHS listing can bring a wide range of changes to local communities and tourism in the area designated as a WHS (Jimura, 2007; 2011). In light of the nature and characteristics of the WHS examined in this research, the following points should be noted as prominent examples.

- (1) *Funding*: According to UNESCO World Heritage Centre (2012c), ‘The World Heritage Fund (WHF) provides about US\$4 million annually to support activities requested by SPs in need of international assistance. It includes compulsory and voluntary contributions from the SPs, as well as from private donations. The World Heritage Committee (WHC) allocates funds according to the urgency of requests, priority being given to the most threatened sites’. As pointed out by Jimura (2007) in his study on Saltire, a British WHS, the issue is that WHS designation cannot bring any funding automatically. This is true to all the WHSs in the world except some exceptional WHSs which could obtain some automatic funding from national, regional and/or local government (e.g. Shirakawa-mura, Japan).
- (2) *Site Image and Recognition*: More recognition of the site is caused by WHS designation (Jimura, 2007; Shackley, 1998; Smith, 2002). The image of the site is also enhanced by the designation (Bianchi, 2002; Jimura, 2007; Smith, 2002). Bianchi (2002) and Smith (2002) also state that a WHS status can be seen as a marker of authenticity and quality for overseas tourists.
- (3) *Tourists and Visitors*: In principle, UNESCO places equal emphasis on the conservation and the use of WHSs (Jimura, 2011: 291). However, it is clear that the physical environment of WHSs, especially those which are fragile and/or not well-managed, has been severely damaged by excessive visitation (Smith, 2002) and this could also mean overcrowding of the WHSs. Regarding the relationship

between a WHS status and the number of visitors/tourists, Hall and Pigginn (2003) state that a WHS status does not guarantee an increase in the visitor number. On the other hand, Asakura (2008) notes that the Japanese WHSs which were not famous amongst tourists before WHS inscription are more likely to see a huge increase in the number of tourists/visitors after the designation. Jimura (2007; 2011) concludes that in case of Shirakawa-mura, a Japanese WHS, the number of domestic tourists has seen a much larger increase than that of overseas tourists. Shepherd, Yub and Huiminc (2012) examined the tourists to Wutai Shan, China as a WHS and a tourist destination, and conclude that the majority of them are domestic tourists with religious (Buddhism) intentions. Hence, it could also be said that not all the WHSs see a clear increase in the number of overseas tourists.

- (4) *Local Culture*: In their study on Bukhara, Uzbekistan, Airey and Shackley (1998) argue that WHS listing could revitalise local products, such as silk carpets, textiles and silver. Shackley (1998) also confirms the same kind of impact in Ninstints, Canada. Whilst, Bianchi and Boniface (2002) point out that negative changes such as degradation and commercialisation of local culture might be caused as a result of enhanced publicity of the site by WHS inscription.
- (5) *Local Identity, Community Spirit and Local Pride*: Shackley (1998) asserts that WHSs can be a centre of nationalism through the enhancement of identity. Jimura (2003) and Smith (2002) argue that WHS listing can enhance the ties among different agencies within the area designated as a WHS. This can be supported by the result of the resident survey conducted by Jimura (2007) in Saltaire. 24.0% of the questionnaire respondents think the “feel” and spirit of the area has become stronger since WHS designation, whilst 12.0% think it has become weaker. However, the resident survey conducted by Jimura (2007) in Shirakawa-mura shows an opposite result. Only 5.4% of the questionnaire respondents think the “feel” and spirit of the area has become stronger since WHS inscription, whilst 47.3% think it has become weaker. For example, weakened neighbourly companionship and rise of materialism are the reason of this negative change (Jimura, 2007). WHS designation can also

increase local people's pride in their culture (Evans, 2002; Shackley, 1998) and their place to live (Jimura, 2007; 2011).

This research will investigate the various impacts of WHS listing on (b) local communities and (c) tourism, pondering the issues stated above (Section 1) in "Sacred Sites and Pilgrimage Routes in the Kii Mountain Range".

3. Methodology

As stated in Section 1, this research aims to look at the impacts of World Heritage Site (WHS) designation on the area designated as "Sacred Sites and Pilgrimage Routes in the Kii Mountain Range", and the impacts of WHS listing on (a) heritage management and conservation, (b) local communities and (c) tourism are explored in the research. Ideally, the primary data should be collected from both the host side (local people and experts in tourism and/or heritage management) and the guest side (tourists and visitors) should be collected in order to explore the topics specified in the above-mentioned research aim. The research; however, collect the primary data only from local experts in tourism and/or heritage management due to the constraints of labour and time, and tried to explore not only the facts but also their views towards the above-mentioned (a), (b) and (c). This weakness can be seen as a main limitation of the research. In light of the goal the research tries to achieve, the research should stem from interpretivism and adopts an inductive approach as the main research approach. This would mean that this research investigates mainly qualitative data rather than quantitative data.

The research deals with both primary and secondary data. The data collection methods for primary data are (i) visitation to the WHS as a visitor, (ii) observation of the WHS itself and tourists/visitors to there, (iii) scheduled in-depth interviews with the experts (regional and local councils, tourist associations and visitor attractions), and (iv) ad hoc brief interviews with the front-line staff of the visitor attractions which did not get back to the researcher when he had contacted them to make an appointment for an in-depth interviews. Of these, (iii) works as the main data collection method, and others work as supplementary data collection methods. On the other hand, the data collection

method for secondary data are (v) collection of the resources available for visitors and general public at the WHS and on the websites, and (vi) collection of the resources available from the interviewees.

The fieldwork was conducted in August and September 2012. As a result of the fieldwork, the researcher visited three key areas in the WHS: Kumano Sanzan, Koya-san and Yoshino-yama (i). Observation was conducted at the main visitor attractions and pilgrimage routes in these key areas (E.g. Kumano Hongu Taisha, Kongobu-ji, Kinpusen-ji, and Daimon-zaka) (ii). Six in-depth interviews (iii) and two brief interviews (iv) were conducted. Through the process of (i) and (iii), a wide variety of the secondary data was also collected [(v) and (vi)]. All the in-depth interviews were recorded and the researcher transcribed each recorded interview for data analysis. The researcher took a note on the contents of brief interviews. The transcripts and notes are analysed manually by discourse analysis.

4. Initial Findings

The data analysis has not been completed fully. Hence, only the initial findings from (iii) scheduled in-depth interviews with the experts are presented here.

(a) Heritage management and conservation

- Kumano Sanzan and Yoshino-yama: *'Our main concern is to lose a WHS status because of poor management and conservation of the WHS. We prohibit the new instalment of something artificial. For example, not the instalment of a new bridge but the restitution of footpaths should be done when footpaths in the WHS collapse'*.
- Kumano Sanzan: *'There is no automatic funding from public or private sector thanks to a WHS status'*. This is the same situation to WHS Saltaire, UK (Jimura, 2007), but different situation from WHS Ogimachi, Shirakawa-mura, Japan (Jimura, 2007).

(b) Local communities

- Kumano Sanzan: *'The area, our place to live, designated as the WHS is a rural area. Usually there is nothing interesting in such a rural area. However, now the area has a WHS status. This means that the area is not just a rural area.'*

Everybody knows WHSs and they are special. Hence, the WHS status is helpful when we introduce our place to live to people living outside the WHS. The level of our pride in our place to live has definitely increased. We feel that the WHS is a really strong brand. The positive impact of WHS designation on local people's pride in their place to live is confirmed from this statement. This result fits the studies of Jimura (2007; 2011).

(c) Tourism

Kumano Sanzan: *'The number of overseas tourists has increased since WHS designation in 2004. To meet their needs, we developed the brochures in English, Chinese and Korean'.* This result is different from the result of the studies of Jimura (2007; 2011) which look at WHS Ogimachi, although both of them are the cultural WHSs in Japan.

5. Conclusion at This Stage and Future Research Plan

This research aims to investigate the impacts of WHS designation on the area designated as "Sacred Sites and Pilgrimage Routes in the Kii Mountain Range", Japan in terms of (a) heritage management and conservation, (b) local communities and (c) tourism. The data analysis has not been completed. Hence, only the initial findings are presented in Section 4. The amount of the findings is limited; however, it could be said that overall the impacts of WHS designation on the area inscribed as the WHS are positive in terms of the above-stated (a), (b) and (c).

Four data collection methods for primary data and two data collection methods for secondary data are adopted in this research. Due to a wide variety of data collected through different data collection methods, on places/attractions, and with various interviewees; the data organisation and analysis stages have been taking a lot of time. Moreover, almost all the collected data are written in Japanese. First, therefore, the researcher needs to organise and analyse the data in Japanese in order to maintain subtle nuances of Japanese words, and need to translate the results of the data analysis from Japanese to English very carefully.

As of January 2013, the data organisation stage has been completed, and the data analysis has just started. Needless to say, all kinds of primary and secondary data have to be analysed carefully. Of the data collected through six different data collection methods, those collected through (iii) should be most important because of the nature of the data. Hence, the data analysis will be proceeded focusing on the data collected through (iii) and considering the data collected by other data collection methods.

Acknowledgements

I am really grateful to Hannan University, Osaka, Japan for their extensive support for this research. They kindly invited me as a visiting researcher for one month in 2012, and generously gave an extensive financial and administrative supports to make the fieldwork for the research possible. I am also thankful to York St John University where I work as an academic member of staff. They allowed me to be physically absent from the University for one month to conduct the fieldwork in Japan, and also gave financial supports for my expenses spent within the UK.

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AN INVESTIGATION OF STUDENT SATISFACTION FROM HOSPITALITY INTERNSHIP PROGRAMS IN GREECE

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The purpose of this paper was to investigate internships in the hospitality sector and identify factors that contribute to student satisfaction from this working and learning experience. Students that had completed their internships from both public and private higher education institutions in Greece participated in this study. The findings suggest that overall students demonstrated a favourable perception towards their internship experience. This research also suggests that working in a professional environment, the learning experience, social interaction with supervisors/staff and the working conditions are factors that contribute to motivation and student satisfaction from internships. Finally, student expectations towards the internship experience were focused in learning and working in a professional environment. Long working hours, low or poor pay and lack of coordination are the issues that were raised and contribute to low satisfaction.

1. Introduction

Hospitality internship programs have a long tradition in Greece. As early as in the mid-1950s, the first students from ASTER attended their practical training programs in luxury hotels in Rhodes, and soon these programs spread in popular tourism destinations all over Greece. After graduation those students progressed to senior managerial positions in the luxury hospitality sector. This was in effect until the early 1980s where dramatic changes occurred both in the tourism industry and hospitality curricula in the country. The era of mass tourism raised the

demand for more qualified staff in hospitality; as a result the government upgraded with European Community funds the existing vocational training centres to today's Technological Educational Institutes (T.E.I.), equivalent to British Polytechnics at that time. In the 1990s, the first graduates from private higher education hospitality program participated in internship programs. More recently, since the early 2000s, an influx of students from Eastern European countries and an increasing number of student grievances for exploitation on behalf the hoteliers has resulted to the introduction of a new legislation on internships in 2010.

Today, six decades after the first internship students appeared as trainees in luxury hotels in Greece, it is more important than ever to ensure that our graduates will not only decide to follow a career in this profession, but also will be able to compete in a turbulent and constantly changing global environment. Internships have the potential to provide multiple benefits for the participant students such as the development of practical skills that cannot be taught in class environment i.e. dealing with difficult customers and using specialized equipment (Zopiatis and Constanti, 2007). On the other hand, a practical training program is a first class opportunity for students to acquire and exercise managerial competencies by observation and practice (Tse, 2010). Practical training has been found by Marinakou *et al.* (2012) to increase student satisfaction and enhance the learning experience.

This study aims at investigating how hospitality students in Greece perceive their experiences during their practical training. More specifically it focuses on the following objectives: 1) to understand the internship experience from the student perspective; 2) to explore the factors that create student satisfaction and dissatisfaction; and 3) to explore students' expectations from their internships.

2.Literature Review

Hospitality internship research appears in literature in the late 1980s when the first students from hospitality and tourism university undergraduate programs in the U.S.A. and the U.K. respectively participated in internship programs; these are described with a variety of names such as placements,

supervised work experience (SWE), work-integration education and practicum. From the very beginning this experiential form of learning was viewed as a golden opportunity for students to integrate and consolidate thinking and action (Davies, 1990). Nevertheless, during the 1990s a considerable number of discrepancies are highlighted in many studies, at a time when the industry suffered from a rather poor image due to the unfavorable working conditions and low pay compared with other sectors (Jenkins, 2001; Patterson and George, 2001). Despite the considerable amount of discrepancies reported from the internship stakeholders (students, academic institutions and employers), there is a unanimous view of internships as a critical factor in the successful completion of hospitality curricula and the smooth transition of student to the real world of work (Lam and Ching, 2007; Richardson, 2009). Collins (2002:93) argues that internships are not supplemental components of hospitality curricula, "*but an essential collegiate experience component*". Zopiatis (2007) suggests that the success or failure of the various internship programs, determines the volume and quality of the hospitality graduates and the future leaders of this sector.

In the new millennia, a number of studies explored the challenges created from the introduction and implementation of internship programs in different cultural settings i.e. Australia (Richardson, 2008); Cyprus (Zopiatis, 2007); Greece (Christou, 1999); Hong Kong (Lam and Ching, 2007); Malaysia (Austin, 2002); Taiwan (Chen and Shen, 2012); South Korea (Kim and Park, 2013); The Netherlands (Akomaninget al., 2011); Turkey (Collins, 2002). A number of themes appear to be common in hospitality internship research. This practically means that hospitality students face common challenges during their practical training in the industry regardless their background. Thus, hospitality students are mostly concerned with the capitalization of their internship as the main gateway to their first job (Collins, 2002), the working conditions (Richardson, 2008), relationship with colleagues and supervisors (Kim and Park, 2013), taking responsibility (Waryszak, 1999) and preparing themselves for the real world of work (Zopiatis, 2007). Although it is normal due to cultural and contextual conditions to expect different views, it is very important to acknowledge that most of the problems created before, during and after the implementation of an internship program, appear to have common roots.

Most of the existing research indicates that students view internships as a unique opportunity to land on their first job, since this valuable qualification will help them enter the job market faster and easier (Charles, 1992; Collins, 2002). Choosing a career in hospitality though appears to be problematic, especially after the completion of an internship program. Some argue that students do not have realistic expectations regarding the work itself in hospitality (Downey and DeVeau, 1988); this fact quite often creates a gap between expectations and the actual perception of the internship experience (Lam and Ching, 2007; Tse, 2010; Waryszak, 1999). As a result, a considerable amount of graduates decide to seek employment in other sectors (Barron, 2008; Jenkins, 2001; Zopiatis, 2007). Student experiences from their internship participation may be positive or negative depending on a number of moderating factors and their expectations. On the one hand, interns value high the social climate, referring to the interactions with colleagues and supervisors (Kin and Park, 2013; Waryszak, 1999). Additionally they appreciate working in a professional environment that encourages experiential learning and practicing new skills (Lam and Ching, 2007). The successful completion of an internship program improves the students' self-confidence, encourages them to develop and participate in professional networks, and enhances their understanding of the industry itself (Zopiatis, 2007).

On the other hand, the most common factors that create dissatisfaction and decreased motivation of interns are found to be poor or no pay, poor employee-supervisor relations, poor communication, lack of co-ordination and disorganized work environment, limited or no delegation, long working hours and overall a hectic working environment (Collins, 2002; Lam and Ching, 2007). Students assign a great share of responsibility for the problems created during their internship program to the receiving company; more specifically there are grievances that small firms and/or family businesses are using students as cheap labour in order to cope with seasonal demands (Miner and Crane, 1995; Taylor, 2004). There are also complaints that full time staff and managers, are not properly trained and prepared in order to enhance and contribute to the overall student experience during the internship (AkisRoney and Öztin, 2007). Hospitality interns also propose that their schools/departments are not very

well prepared to design, monitor and manage these programs (Zopiatis, 2007). It is also argued that educational institutes fail to prepare students adequately in order to cope with the challenges and demands of work in this sector (Lam and Ching, 2007). It seems that the role of the internship coordinator is critical for the success or failure of an internship; the inadequate emphasis and planning in this position for a number of factors such as heavy workloads or lack of industry knowledge may cause negative impact to an entire internship program (McMahon and Quinn, 1995; Beggset al., 2008).

Based on the existing research and building on Lam and Ching's (2007) findings, it is argued that measuring and understanding students' perceptions against their expectations on their internship programs is of paramount importance. A good or bad experience can determine the student's decision to continue his/her career in the hospitality and tourism industry after graduation (Waryszak, 1999). The talent hemorrhage is no longer an option for the hospitality sector, since its continuous growth is not analogous to the new graduates entering this market (Giousmpasoglou, 2012). Given the paucity of research in this area despite the long history of hospitality and tourism education in this country, an exploratory research was conducted in this study in order to investigate the internship experience in the context of the Greek hospitality industry. Further, tourism plays a vital role in the country's economy, thus qualified and trained employees are required to provide a series of diversified quality services. Based on this necessity, internships may provide the basis for the development of professionals and future managers. Building on Parasuraman's et al. (1988) research on customer satisfaction, three constructs were measured: students' expectations, students' perceptions, and their overall satisfaction towards internship programs in the Greek hospitality sector.

3. Methodology

For the purpose of this study a self-administered questionnaire was designed based on extensive review of the literature on student satisfaction and expectations from internships. Although all participants were Greek nationals, the questionnaire was in English so little or no changes were

required and thus a final version was created. The structured self-administered questionnaire included five sections. Section one included questions on demographic information. In section two students were asked to rate certain aspects of their experience during the internship on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 'Always' to 'Never' (5). Section three examined the student's employability options and section four measured the overall internship experience with a single-item instrument developed by Van de Ven and Ferry (1980) on a 10-point scale ranging from 'Terrible' (1) to 'Excellent' (10). Section four measured student's likes, dislikes and expectations from their internship, in which students were required to choose their most preferred among a list of factors that emerged from the literature review. In order to identify any other factors that were not included in the previous sections, section five asked the students to comment on their internship experience. This qualitative data was cross tabulated with the findings of the quantitative data.

The questionnaires were distributed to hospitality and tourism students in private (two) and public (two) higher education institutions in Greece that had to undertake an internship as part of their curriculum and had already completed that. The questionnaire was distributed in the classroom by lecturers who agreed to participate in the study and they explained the students the purpose of the study and the procedures on its completion.

Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data and determine any statistically significant opinions and factors that contribute to student satisfaction from internships in hotels. The results are discussed in the following section.

4. Findings and Discussion

For testing the reliability of the findings Cronbach's alpha tests were conducted on all variables and they varied between 1 and 0 assuming that the data is reliable (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). All tests were above 0.7, .731 which is considered satisfactory (Sekaran, 2003) and confirmed the reliability and the validity of the instrument used for the study. For all statistical tests an alpha level of 0.05 was used. The sample included a balanced participation regarding gender with as male students were 52.6% and female 47.4%. Since the participants were all undergraduate

students between 18 and 24 years old, it was decided not to include age in demographics. Participation from private and public institutions was almost equal, with the latter providing slightly more participants (53.4%). Most students (69%) were on the first or second year of study (during their internship). It has to be noticed that only 2 out of 4 participant institutions provide a 4-year program, a fact that justifies the low senior (4th year) student participation. More than half of the student internships (51.7%) took place in Rhodes and Crete two of the most popular tourist destinations in Greece. Table 1 shows the demographic data of the participants in the study.

Table 1: Profile of the participants

Variable	Frequency (%)	Variable	Frequency (%)
Gender		Institution	
Male	61 (52.6)	University(private, 2)	54 (46.6)
Female	55 (47.4)	TEI (public)	21 (18.1)
		ASTER (public)	41 (35.3)
Hotel Location		Year of Study	
Athens	20 (17.2)	First	37 (31.9)
Thessaloniki	10(8.6)	Second	43 (37.1)
Rhodes - Kos	37 (31.9)	Third	15 (12.9)
Crete	23 (19.8)	Fourth	21 (18.1)
Cyclades	11(9.5)		
Other	15 (12.9)		

Further, comparisons of means were conducted to investigate the value students place at their internship experience. Table 2 shows details on students' evaluation of their work experience.

The overall mean value was 1.86 (1best response and 5 the worst), means that the overall perception of the respondents towards their experience from their internship was very favourable. More specifically the data showed that students found that they performed meaningful tasks as 47.4% agreed with this. They found their experience relevant to their studies (41.4%) and their interests (46.6%). Further they found the supervision provided (39.7%) and the availability of staff during their internship (63.8%) as always there, in agreement to Collins (2002) suggestion that most students value the professional relationship with other members of staff. Moreover, they stated they acquired new knowledge (53.4%), new skills (44.8%) and

they learned something new about themselves (41.4%). These findings affirm Chan et al. (2002) who also propose that hospitality students acquire mainly technical skills during their internships. The means showed that the majority of students believed they learned something new ($\bar{x}=2.0$) and they acquired new skills ($\bar{x}=1.97$).

Table 2: Work experience evaluation

Variable	Always	Usually	Someti mes	Rarely	Never	\bar{x}	SD
	Freq. (%)	Freq. (%)	Freq. (%)	Freq. (%)	Freq. (%)		
Meaningful tasks	55 (47.4)	35 (30.2)	20 (17.2)	6 (5.2)	0	1.80	.906
Relevance to my studies	48(41.4)	38(32.8)	20(17.2)	8(6.9)	2(1.7)	1.95	1.012
Relevance to my interests	54(46.6)	32(27.6)	22(19)	8(6.9)	0	1.86	.959
Supervision	46(39.7)	43(37.1)	14(12.1)	10(8.6)	2(1.7)	1.95	1.016
Availability of staff	74(63.8)	28(24.1)	6(3.2)	8(6.9)	0	1.55	.878
New knowledge	62(53.4)	26(22.4)	18(15.5)	6(5.2)	4(3.4)	1.83	1.090
New skills	52(44.8)	32(27.6)	20(17.2)	8(6.9)	4(3.4)	1.97	1.103
Self-knowledge	48(41.4)	34(29.3)	22(19.0)	10(8.6)	2(1.7)	2	1.055

Note: N=116

The authors conducted also multiple response frequencies to identify the students' motivation/demotivation factors and the qualities they value most of their internship. The results are shown in table 3. Students liked firstly the professional environment at the hotels their internship took place (50.4%). This study affirms others (Roney and Öztin, 2007) that students value their internship experience in forming perceptions for their future in the industry. The least liked was the flexible schedule (9.7%) mainly due to the fact that work in the hospitality industry requires long hours and there is lack of flexibility to work especially during the high season when these students did their internships. Dickerson (2009) and Girard (1999) similarly found that low pay and long working hours are less valued by interns. Roney and Öztin (2007:13) affirm this and state "irregular working hours is a well-known negative characteristic of tourism

employment". Additionally, students found the work interesting (40.7%) and they believe they learned a lot (47.8%), however they did not like very much that they were not paid well (28.1%). Although Riley et al. (2002) propose that there are occupations in tourism that are well paid, this study proposes that internships are not among these as students did not like their pay. This view is in agreement with Zopiatis and Constanti (2007) as students are not highly paid during their internships, and they do not approve the existing working conditions. Additionally, students did not like the volume of their work and sometimes they found there was lack of organisation. Moreover, others found the work boring or menial (13.5%), as students during their internships perform routinized tasks as they are not always given the opportunity to make decisions as according to Lam and Ching (2007:348) "managers are reluctant to empower decision-making authority to students as they are afraid of taking the risk of complaints from customers". One responded stated:

I was placed in a position that was not included to the guidelines of my internship. I did learn several things as a 'Doorman-Groom' but I didn't have the chance (and I asked for it) to go through different departments of the hotel such as the restaurant, the bar or perhaps the kitchen. I was interested on the F&B Dept. but didn't have that chance to serve tables, taking orders or serving wines and beverages. It was a bit disappointing the fact that I was given duties that didn't learn in the first year of my Tourism Academy".

The students did not feel disconnected from co-workers as this was the least in their order of preferences. Students put as first choice the learning they get from their internships (58%), and then the professional working environment (53.6%). Students equally value being accepted in the teams and making valuable contacts that will help them find a job in the future. Similarly, Zopiatis (2007) suggested that students participate in professional networks. Finally, students put last in their preferences the money they can make and to gain credit for their studies.

Table 3: Students' motivation/demotivation factors and expectations frequencies

Motivators	(%)	Demotivators	(%)	Expectations	(%)
Professional environment	50.4	Not paid well	28.1	Learn a lot	58.0
Learned a lot	47.8	Too much work	22.9	Professional environment	53.6
Interesting work	40.7	Disorganised work environment	20.8	Feel like part of the team	36.6
Good supervisor	30.1	Not enough to do	14.6	Make valuable contacts	36.6
Made valuable contacts	27.4	Work was boring or menial	13.5	Interesting work	34.8
Felt like part of the team	26.5	Not enough supervision	12.5	Good supervisor	28.6
Made good money	23	Didn't learn anything	10.4	Like co workers	20.5
Liked co-workers	21.2	Work was not well defined	10.4	Receive a job offer	19.6
Flexible schedule	9.7	Disconnected from co-workers	8.3	Receive school credit	14.3
				Make good money	10.7

Finally, students evaluated their overall experience. In order to identify whether students' evaluation of their experience influences (independent variable) the overall satisfaction (dependent variable) simple linear regression was performed. There was no statistically significance between the variables. Further, overall satisfaction was grouped in four main categories, bad (1-3), fair (4-6), very good (7-8) and excellent (9-10). The majority of students evaluated their overall experience with 8 (very good, 32.8%) and 9 (excellent, 31%). None evaluated the experience as 1 and 2, and only 1 (bad, 0.9%). Evidently the overall experience was very good. The qualitative question also affirmed this finding as for example one of the students stated "That was such a brilliant work experience actually we had the opportunity to learn enough and the team spirit was so open mind and helped me improve my abilities". Another reply was "My experience of the hotel gave me the footsteps to achieve my expectations to fulfill my career!! The hotel environment is the root to accomplish my professional dreams".

5. Conclusion and Implications

This study investigated the factors that contribute to student satisfaction from their internships in hospitality. In addition, it explored the moderating factors (motivators/demotivators) as well as the factors students value in their internship experience. The study shows that students overall rate their internship experience as very good. The study proposes that students value considerably the learning experience and the knowledge and skills they acquire. Thus, educational institutions should promote experiential learning and focus their studies on the practical aspect of work in the hospitality industry. Moreover, educational institutions should monitor internships as the students were not satisfied with the organisation and planning of their internships. In many cases the working conditions were negatively viewed by students. Trained educators should participate in the learning process with evaluation and feedback of the overall learning experience as well as the working and learning environment provided at hotels for internships. As low pay, routinized tasks, the lack of decision-making, and long working hours were among the factors that influence student satisfaction, educators should prepare students on the expectations and the working culture in hospitality organisations. At the same time they should choose such establishments that offer the best possible working conditions for training students. In addition, students value their participation in professional networks, and the social interaction with colleagues at work. This interaction enhances their experiences and their interest regarding work and helps at minimizing the dissatisfaction created by the long working hours and the occasional poor organization of work. Hospitality institutions should inform students on the demands of work in the industry and other stakeholders involved in the internship should be informed on the importance of creating a learning environment for students that will enhance their perceptions of the industry and urge them to continue their career in the sector. Although, some dissatisfaction factors were identified internships play a vital role to students learning, experiences from the industry and their decision to pursue a career in the sector.

Limitations of the study include the sample size and its composition. Only four higher education hospitality institutions are

included in the study and only Greek students. A comparison may be conducted between Greek and non-Greek students satisfaction in order to identify any other potential factors. Further research could also be conducted to compare students' satisfaction between private and public educational institutions.

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COMPETITIVE IDENTITY AND DESTINATION BRANDING POLICIES IN A PERIOD OF CRISIS: THE CASE OF CYPRUS

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The research attempts to identify attractive prospects of development for Cyprus in times of economic crisis, able to form competitive and distinctive identity for the country. It intends, through Destination Branding Policies, to the regeneration of modern cities of Cyprus, by enhancing its dynamic elements. That would provide a comprehensible meaning of development for the citizens and the visitors of Cyprus. The study contributes to tourism professionals, academics, researchers, policy-makers, architects, urban designers, practitioners, government officials, by giving recommendations on place management. It also offers a holistic framework to help international destinations to move to a more effective place branding approach.

1. Introduction

Contemporary places in order to correspond to the highly competitive world and gain an advantage in the global market are adopting practices in order to attract visitors, investors and talents. Destinations worldwide seeking new attractive prospects, otherwise they are threatened by reduced visits and investments. Tourists' and investor's attention, turns to other competing places or regions, while they may lose their vitality. As part of this competition, places should be evolved and reconstituted as attractive cultural landscapes. In such an environment, promotion of nations becomes a critical factor.

Like brands, destinations have individual identities which are unique. We argue that a well-planned place strategy may manage those identities in order to compose a strong competitive identity capable to correspond to the problems faced by contemporary destinations in crisis.

The selection mechanism of a place as a tourist destination, investment area and a place of people relocation is influenced by its reputation in the global arena. Reputation is the mean of communication for the promotion of the particular identity of a place, establishing to the person's subconscious, images and aspects. The reputation has a direct impact on almost all aspects of cooperation with other countries, with an important role in their economic development.

The research attempts to identify attractive prospects of development for Cyprus in times of economic crisis, able to form its reputation and manage a competitive and distinctive identity for the country. Intends, through Destination Branding Policies, to the regeneration of modern cities of Cyprus, by enhancing its dynamic elements. That, would provide a comprehensible meaning of development for the citizens and the visitors of Cyprus.

Research Questions:

- How does the current economic crisis affect development proposals?
- What are the comparative advantages that would lead to operations for the promotion of Cyprus as a competitive destination?
- What are the areas that could be developed, based on the comparative advantages of Cyprus and given the current economic crisis country is going through?
- What is the dominant image of Cyprus?
- How the image that authorities and institutions of Cyprus want to establish, could be accomplished?
- What are the negative actions that have taken place that degrade Cyprus as a destination?
- How development could take place given economic crisis into account?

2. Literature Review

A very important selection factor of a place as destination is its reputation. In fact, it is the mean of communication with the desired target group that establishes images and aspects of a place. As reputation is the mean of communication of a place externally, its identity and special characteristics, design the place internally.

According to Simon Anholt (2007:25), most countries communicate with the rest of the world, and so deliberately or accidentally create their reputation through six natural channels: Their tourism promotion, their export brands, the policy decisions of the country's government, for business audiences, through cultural exchange and cultural activities and exports, the people of the country themselves:

Figure 1: The hexagon of Competitive Identity



Source: Anholt (2003).

The basic theory behind Competitive Identity is that when governments have a good, clear, believable and positive idea of what their country really is, what it stands for and where it's going, and manage to coordinate the actions, investments, policies and communications of all six points of the hexagon so that they prove and reinforce this idea, then they stand a good chance of building and maintaining a competitive national identity both internally and externally to the lasting benefit of exporters, importers, government, the culture sector, tourism, immigration, and pretty much every aspect of international relations (Anholt, 2007:26).

Countries that aren't strong need to be interesting they need to exercise some power of attraction if they cannot exercise compulsion, and the source of that attraction can only be their unique, individual identity, their culture, their history, their land, their traditions, their genius and their imagination. This is what competitive identity is all about (Anholt, 2007:37).

Kefaloyiannis (2012:1) argues that places that have the ambition to improve their wellbeing and reputation through increased visitation and economic development, need to expand their strategic framework in order to build a coherent and consistent identity for the place: a meaning that can be comprehensible by the citizen or visitor.

A place brand is a representation of identity, building a favorable internal (with those who deliver the experience) and external (with visitors) image (leading to brand satisfaction and loyalty; name awareness; perceived quality (Govers and Go, 2009:17).

While competitive identity is specified by Anholt, Govers and Go (2009) with the characteristics that have mentioned above, place identities according to Morgan and Pritchard (1998) are constructed through historical, political, religious and cultural discourses; through local knowledge, and influenced by power struggles. National, cultural, natural, social and religious assets become important identifiers. We shall often refer to the "true identity of place", by which we mean the full set of unique characteristics or set of meanings that exist in a place and its culture at a given point in time, nevertheless realizing that this identity is subject to change and might include various fragmented identities. In any case, it is argued that, if the right expectations are to be created in the minds of potential visitors, and to avoid unpleasant surprises, the "true identity of place" should be the foundation on which to build the place brand propositions. Some practical moorings are provided by Noordman (2004) in his listing of structural (location and history), semi-static (size physical appearance and inner mentality) and colouring (symbolism, communication and behavior) elements of place identity (Govers and Go, 2009:18).

3. Methodological Approach

Policy decisions in a period of crisis, is a topic that has attracted significant interest from many countries, cities and regions. For the case of Cyprus, the topic is approached through interviews with governmental authorities, organizations and academic institutions, attempting to identify the factors that have been affected, or changed by the promotion of Cyprus as a destination. For that reason, four thematic axes have been composed, with a content related on: i) Determination of special identities of Cyprus/ Areas of Development, ii) The image of Cyprus, iii) Strategy formulation of Competitive Identity of Cyprus, iv) Policy Management in a period of crisis.

Each axis group includes questions adapted, depending on the responsibility of each institution. Governmental authorities, Organizations and Academic Institutions that have participated to the research through their representatives are the following:

University of Cyprus (UCY), Cyprus University of Technology (CUT), Frederick University (FU), Research Promotion Foundation (RPF), Cyprus Investment Promotion Agency (CIPA), Cyprus Tourism Organisation (CTO), Cyprus Trade Industry Tourism and Consumer Protection.

4. Research Findings

4.1 Determination of special identities of Cyprus/ Areas of Development

Representatives of authorities and institutions, were asked to give answers about the comparative advantages of Cyprus (eg resources, values, skills, behaviours, local characteristics, history, culture, people), that could lead to specific proposals in order to promote Cyprus as a destination.

As basic competitive advantage for investors, visitors and talents, is mentioned the pleasant climate and natural beauty of the place. Is presented as very important also, that Cyprus is a country in European Union with European and safe environment that is being characterized by basic framework of infrastructure such as roads, telecommunications, transport, etc. In order to attract those groups of people, the geographical position as a hub of three continents, is promoted. An essential factor as well, is

that has a good relationship with the neighbouring countries, except Turkey.

The population of Cyprus could be described as open to foreigners, particularly hospitable, skilled, creative and inventive. Those characteristics are helpful for attracting investments, visitors and talents as well. In science, the relationship between foreign researchers with Cypriot scientists is often the reason for attracting foreign researchers to Cyprus (RPF, 2013).

In the investment sector, the low corporate tax rate, The Common Law system and the highly qualitative professional services by Cypriot professionals eg lawyers and accountants is a comparative advantage for Cyprus. So far was the banking and financial services, but not now (CIPA, 2013).

Representatives of authorities and institutions were asked to identify areas that could be developed, based on the advantages of Cyprus and given the current economic crisis country is going through. All representatives highlighted the need to focus on particular sectors because of the reduced funding.

Summer tourism of leisure, suggested that works well so far, but there is great potential in development areas that do not present seasonality and could be promoted in winter time, such as: Sport tourism, weddings, religious, gastronomic, trekking, conference, marine, golf, educational, medical, wellness (CUT and CTO, 2013). Additionally, Cyprus could attract groups of elderly and people with access needs if the appropriate infrastructure is developed (CUT, 2013).

In research sector is highlighted, that some areas need to be developed more than others. Cyprus cannot be developed at all levels of research because of its small size. It may produce science to the fields that have comparative advantages. For example, energy could be one of them with renewable resources, or natural gas. Additionally, Cyprus seems to have a good scientific basis, to Information and Communication Technologies, nanotechnologies and bio- technologies (RPF, 2013).

Rector of University of Cyprus stressed the need for investments in the green economy, to the Knowledge Society and research, medical education and medical services. He argues that development will be promoted through young people of Cyprus that is considered a diachronic wealth. Based on this, University of Cyprus attempts to attract fundings and research programmes.

Especially for green development the emphasises that is the main priority for Europe and will give to Cyprus many opportunities for significant funding. Those opportunities will help small businesses, agriculture, animal husbandry, rural communities, research centres and institutes, hospitals, and universities. The field of renewable energy sources is the easiest and most transparent sector, where foreign investors could be accessed without difficulty. He argues that the benefits of this effort will appear directly both in jobs and in improving our financial data. That will directly benefit the productive people of Cyprus and households. A new energy map is needed to be designed that will meet the current needs of Cyprus. In a period of economic crisis that is pressing and urgent. The promotion of green economy will lead to a political advantage while it will be gained sympathy of a very important sensitized population, especially in Northern Europe. The shift to green growth is now the main priority for Europe and will give Cyprus many opportunities for significant funding. He argues that the field of renewable energy sources is the easiest and most transparent sector, where foreign investors could be accessed without difficulty.

Rector of University of Cyprus strongly supports that the foundation of Medical School will lead to big savings of economy of Cyprus by significantly reducing patients to be sent abroad for treatment. The dominant element concerns that Medical University, attracts much profit from clinical trials and develop biomedical and pharmaceutical technology (UCY, 2013).

For CIPA, Medical Services, Education, Research and Development, Energy are priority fields for promotion, in addition with Information & Communication Technologies, Wellness Tourism, Shipping, Professional Services and Land Development.

Head of the Department of Architecture of Frederick University notes that the competitive identity of Cyprus should be designed through cultural and mental development. The role of universities in a period of economic crisis, he argues, is crucial for the promotion of these sectors. Cyprus should strengthen or create its identity and character through cultural and mental activities in order to become competitive as a destination. He emphasizes that all large regenerations and cultural explosions world while, were emerged after crisis.

4.2 The image of Cyprus

The image of Cyprus as a destination that authorities and institutions want to establish is a year-round destination, safe at both, living and services. For families, but not only for them, clean, modern, fun, attractive, with quality of life and high level of service and science. There is a willingness to promote the hospitality, creativity and professionalism of people in Cyprus.

The dominant image of Cyprus is a destination for sea and sun. Cities on the other hand are described as without any particular character or enhanced cultural references. The reduced frequency of air transport and their limited network mainly in winter time are dominant themes in the tourism industry. These factors shape the image of Cyprus, as expensive and not very easily accessible destination, especially for short breaks (Cyprus Trade Industry Tourism and Consumer Protection, 2013).

For investors, is a country with low corporate tax, good professional services but bureaucracy, and systems not particularly modern (CIPA, 2013). Cyprus is not considered a technology centre or small research destination (RPF, 2013). All visitor groups agree that the built environment of Cyprus does not seem to offer any particular or unique character.

4.3 Strategy formulation of competitive identity of Cyprus

For the promotion of Competitive Identity of Cyprus in order to create a dynamic progress, collaboration is required with research institutions, academics, authorities, stakeholders, residents. There is a need of implementation of National Policy with a common strategic vision for the country. Although there seems to be coordination between institutions with corresponding area of responsibility, there seems to be no coordination between all the institutions for a single strategy. It is emphasized that all representatives expressed their desire to implement such an approach.

It is worth noting that the Research Promotion Foundation attempts to shape a Smart Specialization Strategy designed to include universities, businesses, government, consumers/stakeholders. To the specific development approach, Planning Bureau of Cyprus has the coordination (RPF, 2013).

4.4 Policy management in a period of crisis

As a more important measure in response to the economic crisis, when for the promotion of the country are available enormously reduced funds, reported by all representatives of institutions and authorities, that should be focus on specific markets and groups. In a period of economic crisis, the need for radical change has grown and has become more pressing.

In tourism industry, the focus is on highly profitable groups such as Russians, Germans, British, Scandinavians (CUT, 2013). And to investment sector, Russians and Chinese (CIPA, 2013).

Cyprus as an investment destination has been affected in particular. Thus in marketing communications, the message that should be promoted is that «Haircut of Cypriot deposits was once and over. Cyprus is still the same tourist and investment destination. Guests will not face any problem, everything works smoothly» (Cyprus Trade Industry Tourism and Consumer Protection, 2013).

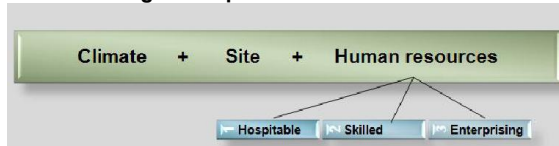
The negative publicity done by the media requires a good national brand strategy in order to reverse the perception. This need, along with the reduced funding that has the result of the closure of offices abroad and the limited advertising, make brand strategy difficult to be accomplished (CTO, 2013).

All representatives highlighted the need to raise financial resources for investment in growth areas, in order to restart the economy. They mention the possibility of this to be done through co-financed projects by the EU, and with increased funding and technical assistance.

5. Conclusions

The special characteristics of Cyprus, those that can synthesize distinctive identity and competitive character are identified as Figure 2.

Figure 2: Special Characteristics



It is noted, that while these features are particularly advantageous and object of differentiation in all development sectors, in the tourism industry, its presence is limited, and has been replaced by foreign workforce often unskilled.

Tourism is the main industry in Cyprus in a period of economic crisis that produces income. The challenge is to build on tourism through research, innovation, technology and investments on targeted development areas with applications on development fields beyond tourism. The need to focus on specific areas of development during the economic crisis, led to the identification of sectors that will promote and other developments.

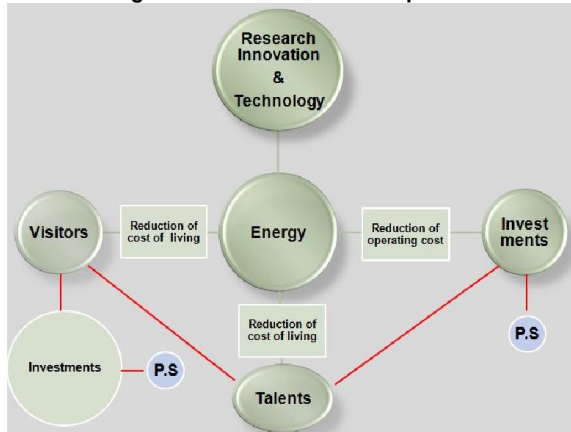
The energy sector can provide immediate benefits to all scenarios of development. With renewable energy, and particularly solar energy there is an advantage. Tomorrow could be both, renewable energy and natural gas and could be combined (RPF, 2013). The reduction in energy costs will enable to reduce operating costs for businesses and residences. The result will encourage the attraction of visitors, investors and special talents. New technologies can significantly contribute to the promotion of energy while professional services would be provided to all kind of investments.

The reduction in energy costs for the tourism industry will enable to attract groups of tourists throughout the year, with the opportunity to stay long period of time, such as the elderly (CUT, 2013). It could also be encouraged tourism sectors such as education, medical, marine, accessible by reducing operating costs in business and accommodation.

At the same time, the tourism industry should focus on research and innovation, especially in Information and Communication Technologies, nanotechnology and biotechnology that in Cyprus seems to have good scientific basis, in order to advance the sectors of tourism activity Cyprus is target

on. Additionally, the investment activity is enhanced through the infrastructures required and the professional services (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Scenarios of Development



Furthermore, for the attraction of educational tourism, existing infrastructure and qualified academic staff to public and private universities may satisfy the basic needs. However, in order to promote this kind of educational activity is required the expansion of courses in international languages.

The educational tourism may give prospects to attract foreign researchers and scientists also. This position is supported by the fact that while Cyprus has no established reputation as a technology center or small research destination, attracting foreign researchers is achieved by Cypriot scientists or by some kind of personal relationship of foreign researcher with Cyprus. That, could be the educational activity in the country. Nevertheless, the dominant criteria for the selection of a research destination, are the advanced level of science that is given to research centers and economic factors. In times of economic crisis that complicates this kind of approach.

At the same time, is very important in the period of economic crisis, the retention of immigration of young people of Cyprus. Research, conducted by the Cyprus Institute of Statisticians showed intention of immigrating of 28% of people

aged 18-28 years old. With that data, the role of universities to attract research programmes is determinant as crucial, in order to effectively restrain the intention of immigration of young scientists of Cyprus.

Medical tourism also has great potential. As a destination, Cyprus could have an advantage that it could be combined with leisure.

The field of medical services is an area that needs to take also into account. Dominant advantage is the social profit of Cyprus.

Nevertheless, the prospect of Cyprus as medical destination should be examined more thoroughly, as it will take years to build its reputation, as such. Particularly, when in period of economic crisis, there is immediate need for contributory investments.

On the other hand, Israel which is a strong destination for medical services has limited the introduction of patients, due to saturation of the system. This can enable the growth of Cyprus as a medical destination, and attraction of special talents from Israel i.e. medical personnel. Combined with the facts that Cyprus is a European country and leisure destination, it could give a positive result.

Yacht and nautical tourism have many opportunities also, but difficulties exist because of economic factors. First of all, infrastructure works in Limassol should be completed, and begin projects in Larnaca which proceedings have been interrupted.

It is noted that the reputation of Cyprus that authorities and institutions want to establish is a year-round destination, with quality of life and an attractive environment. To achieve that, should be considered, what is the unique experience that is being provided to visitors during the winter? Climate and natural beauty doesn't seem to be a strong advantage in all target groups. Modern cities in Cyprus need to promote a distinctive identity capable of creating an environment that would attract investments, visitors and special talents. The cultural orientation of the cities has underestimated and the public space lacks of life. The communicative approach in order to attract investors, visitors and talents should be revised.

At the core of the development should be placed the architectural and urban planning that would help on developing a realistic strategy for the promotion of the country as a destination and attractor of visitors, investors and talents.

At the same time, the management of the reputation of a country around the world and the evolution of mechanisms that make cultural, economic, spatial development, with main recipient the resident, are those that will have an effect in formation of competitive identity. As places are different and diverse, present multiple identities. Therefore, a research on locating the desired competing identities of place and their potential for transformation is crucial.

Summarizing, it appears that sectors of Energy, Cultural Orientation especially through Architecture and Urban design, Education and Research, should be a priority and have the ability to stimulate and other areas of development.

As a special issue is identified the formation of tourist experience of the country. A communication tool should be established that would design a strategy that promotes mechanisms through which a balance between global communication and local characteristics would be accomplished.

It is recommended that the contribution of arts and culture should be examined as special elements that would give a special character to the experience of living and visiting the country. Arts and culture may act effectively as a communication tool and means of diversification.

In conclusion it is emphasized that change should start within the country through development projects. Means of communication should follow the whole effort and act supportive to the attempt of regeneration.

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DEVELOPMENT OF TOURISM MODEL DESTINATION AND ITS IMPACT ON BUSINESS ENTERPRISES IN MILNE BAY PROVINCE PAPUA NEW GUINEA

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The ideology of creating a tourism destination is based on economic advantage that contributes immensely to the local and national development. In Papua New Guinea, the Ministry of Tourism executed a five-year (2006-2011) tourism development strategy that focuses on developing model tourism destination. This study reveals the findings of the research carried out in 2012 with the aim of evaluating the progress of tourism business operation from 2006 to 2011 in the model destination. The research is driven by the three research objectives: (1) the progress of tourism business during 2006 to 2011 (2) issues affecting the tourism businesses and (3) possible solutions for enhancing tourism in the province. Mixed methods techniques through quantitative and qualitative questionnaires were used to collect data from tourism businesses in Milne Bay Provinces. Findings revealed that despite several setbacks in development, there was a steady growth in tourist arrivals over the 5-year period.

1. Introduction

The development of tourism over the years has become a national concern for governments. Broadly speaking, tourism provides revenue generation into the economy, develops local communities, creates various unskilled employments and promotes harmony and empowers local communities

amongst other benefits of the industry. As such, the government tries to capture the opportunities that can maximize these benefits in ways that are constructive to both the hosts and the visitors. The concept of sustainable tourism has been given prominence in developing countries (Oppermann and Chon, 1997) and island nations. Graci and Dodds (2010) challenged the need for practical implementation of the sustainable tourism practices. Additionally, Lui (2003) emphasized on the need to study the ways of applying the concept of sustainable tourism development. One of the common way in which the concepts of sustainable development is applied is through the implementation and projects that focuses on the holistic approaches of developing tourism in a sustainable manner. One of such countries is Papua New Guinea in which the concept of sustainable tourism model province development gained recognition in 2006 (Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority, 2006). This study seeks to evaluate the implementation the tourism model province (TMP) and its impacts on tourism businesses from 2006 to 2011. The five-year period is in accordance with the implementation period of the TMP strategic plan. The study addresses a number of issues. It reviews the concept of the tourism development cycle as proposed by past researchers. This sheds light into examining the case of developing and managing tourism enterprises in Milne Bay Province with special focus on its business growth during the five-year period (2006-2011). The paper concludes by revealing the overall findings of the research and challenges facing the development of tourism business.

2. Literature Review

Developing tourism destination is the aim of most tourism planners and policy developers and has gained prominence across the globe. Concepts behind the development of tourism destination and its impact on the area were first mentioned by authors such as Butler (1980) and reiterated by Oppermann and Chon (1997) on the tourist area cycle of evolution. Miossec (1976) conceptualize the stages regarding the main players in tourism development. Furthermore, Weaver's (1988) plantation model of tourism and its expansion within the destination and

more specifically, Britton (1982) and Oppermann and Chon (1997) study into the development of tourism industry and its distribution of expenditures within the destination provides founding studies into the field of developing tourism destination. Additionally, Laws (2003) digested the cycle of tourism destination development by revealing nine progressive stages: (1) Increase of tourism arrivals; (2) Investment in facilities and hotels; (3) promotion to stimulate more arrivals; (4) additional investment in infrastructural facilities and hotels (5) new employment skills, modified architecture, environment and culture, new residents (6) interruption to tourists arrivals (7) empty rooms, lower rates of stock returns (8) refocus and plan for tourism or discounting. Particularly, Butler's (1980) model on tourist area cycle of evolution indicated that the peak stage in the cycle is measured by the increased number of tourists. This stage is critical in determining the future of the development, be it a decline in tourism or prosperity through rejuvenation. Garay and Canoves (2001) applied the model to Spains's 18th and 19th century tourism development. Their study argues that mass tourism and innovation in tourism witnessed during the two centuries have experienced different growth rate. This suggestion enables a gap to focus on the growth of various categories of tourism development independently during the policy implementation stage.

3. Methods

This study analyses the progress of tourism businesses in Milne Bay Province from 2005 to 2011 with a focus to evaluate the impacts of implementing the tourism model strategy in the province. The research reported was completed during the month of March and October 2012, amongst the tourism business establishments in Alotau. Oppermann and Chon, (1997) reiterated Weaver's 1988 plantation model of tourism development, stating that main towns are usually the primary focus of tourism development, especially in developing countries. Such is evident in Milne Bay Province, where 20 out of the 43 total accommodations establishments, the entire 6 listed car rental companies, and the only tour operator and dive center in the province are located in Alotau, the province's capital center.

The remaining 23 accommodations establishments were scattered across the province's four districts. The accommodation establishments in the province were categorized into a quality rating with four divisions (Table 1).

Table 1: Accommodation ranking

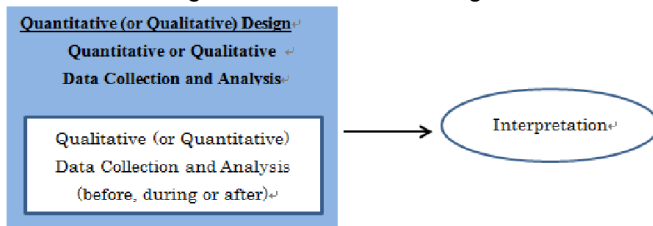
No.	Category	Number of Accommodation	Total number of rooms
1	Luxury	2	26
2	Upmarket	2	39
3	Midrange	7	133
4	Budget/backpacker	32	191
	Total	43	389

Research participants included the accommodation establishments across different categories (luxury, upmarket, midrange and budget/backpackers), car rental companies, the only dive and tour operator in the province. Each participant was given questionnaires to fill with regards to the impacts of tourism on their businesses after its implementation as a tourism model province in 2006. The questionnaire distributed to the tourism businesses composed of two parts. The first part related to the operation of the tourism businesses, which consists of three sections: personal information of the interviewee and enterprise information. With a focus on the two sections, firstly, it aims to obtain the reliability regarding the position of the informant. The second section provides the history of the establishments, employments and guest arrivals from 2006 to 2011. The third section segmented the establishment's questions into two categories (i) Accommodation establishments and (ii) Rental car company, dive centers and tour operator. This section focuses at obtaining information pertaining to description of facilities offered by the business, the ecological and social practices offered by the establishments, peak seasons experienced during the year and the types of guests received. The second part of the questionnaire composed of general questions that aim at obtaining views of the businesses' relating to their operation during the TMP implementation period. These sources of information from the tourism businesses that can be used as suggestions on how to further develop tourism in the province.

The flow in which the study is conducted is inline with the embedded design. With this study design, it assumes that a

single data set is not sufficient to provide answers to the different research questions. Hence, it proposed the implication of using the embedded design in which the researcher combines the collection and analysis of both the qualitative and quantitative design in either a quantitative research design or qualitative research design (Creswell and Clark, 2011). Figure 1 clearly illustrates the process in which the embedded study is conducted. The focus of this study is to evaluate the impacts of the TMP concept on the businesses growth and sustainable practices in the province during 2006 to 2011. Therefore, quantitative data collection was conducted to explore the guest arrivals by respective businesses during the period. The co-related qualitative findings aims to expose the impacts of the TMP on the businesses.

Figure 1: The Embedded Design



Source: Creswell and Clark (2011:70).

The responses to the questions were analyzed using MS Excel spreadsheet. This assists in tabulating the annual tourist arrival data of the respective businesses. Additionally, the qualitative data obtained from the interview is coded and grouped into respective themes/topics that are related to the research questions which eventually creates a conceptual schema (Foss and Waters, 2003).

4. Findings and Discussion

The study is divided into three sections. They are: (1) International and domestic guest arrivals during the TMP period (2) A discussion on the impacts of the model province on the

businesses enterprises and (3) Suggestions for future improvement.

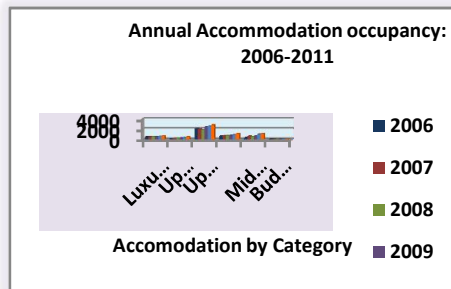
4.1 Guest arrivals during the tourism model destination implementation period.

The operation of tourism enterprises creates a range of social, economic and environmental impacts. The positive economic impact includes income for businesses and suppliers, employment, taxes to the local and national government and entrepreneurial opportunity for locals (Buckley, 2009).

4.1.1 Annual accommodation occupancy: 2006-2011

One of the focuses in this study was to explore the occupancy of the accommodation enterprises. The business participants represented the four accommodation categories in the province: luxury, upmarket, midrange and budget. According to the study (Figure 2), there was a steady growth in tourist arrival during 2006 to 2011. A drop in arrival was experienced in 2008 as revealed by upmarket 2 and midrange 2. The decrease in tourism arrival in 2008 was a result of the financial crisis, which affected tourism arrival in general across the country (Papua New Guinea Tourism Promotion Authority, 2011). According to the findings, Luxury and Upmarket 1 have more international guest compared to its domestic guest during the five-year period.

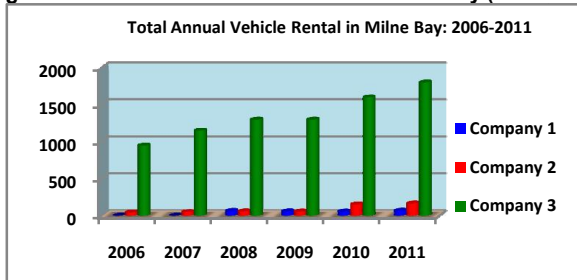
Figure 2: Annual accommodation occupancy: 2006-2011



4.1.2. Annual car rental demand: 2006-2011

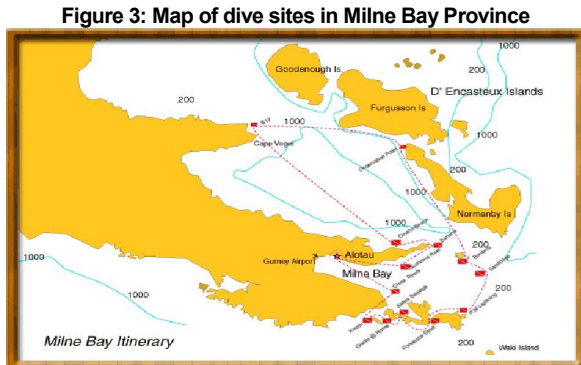
The province of Milne Bay is almost 35 kilometers long and 15 kilometers wide. Majority of the population lives within 5 kilometers along the national road (The National Research Institute, 2010) scattered within the province. Out of a total of six car rental companies in the province, only three participated in the research. The other remaining three companies were unable to participate due to management regulations. Information relating to the ownership of the three participating companies revealed that company 1 is locally owned, company 2 is nationally owned with other offices across the country. Company 3 is foreign owned and has branches both in Papua New Guinea and overseas. According to the research findings (Figure 3), there was a slight annual increase in car rentals clients during the five-year period. While company 1 commenced operation in 2008, company 2 and 3 were in business prior to the implementation period. The findings revealed that both company 1 and 2 received less than 100 and 200 domestic clients respectively with no international customer during the five-year period. Company 3 has fared well with 400 domestic clients in 2006 and 1200 clients in 2011, indicating a strong positive growth. Additionally, with the company's marketing promotions and brand exposure within the country and abroad has enable the company to capture the main share of the international market with a staggering figure of around 412 to 651 clients during the five year period.

Figure 3: Total annual vehicle rental in Milne Bay (2006-2011)



4.1.3. Dive center

Marine resources are the main natural tourism attraction in the province. According to the informant from the provincial tourism office, the majority of international tourists that entered Milne Bay are for diving purposes. Dive sites are stretched across the waters in Milne Bay Province as indicated in figure 3. The province has one authorized dive center, which is a subsidiary of an accommodation establishment in the province.



Source: Golden Dawn (2013).

This study into the demand of diving activities in the province revealed that there is a growing demand in diving by both the domestic and international market. The dive company in collaboration with its parent company attends international trade shows in the United States, Japan and Australia. According to the research informant, this promotion strategy has effectively contributed to the increase in international divers. By 2011, the total number of divers (590) almost doubled since 2006 (320). Additionally, domestic divers almost tripled during the five-year period from 212 in 2006 to 613 in 2011. The study noted that the increase in domestic dive demands was mostly conducted for research and marine based activities.

4.1.4 Tour operator

The study's findings discovered that there is only one main tour operator serving the tourist needs in the province. This company had been in operation since 2002 in the province's

main town, Alotau. Services offered by the tour operator include island hopping, cultural events, and visits to historical and cave sites, village tours, arrangements for transportation and accommodation. The company has provided employment for the local people in arranging tours and through their participation in tourist activities.

4.2 Concerns of tourism establishments in milne bay province

In an attempt to explore the constant issues affecting tourism businesses over the past five years, general questions were asked to all the participating tourism establishments. These questions were based on obtaining the impediments that affected the business operation. The participants were required to rank in order from 1 (most effected) to 5 (least effected) the five main problems they faced affecting their business. The responses were analyzed into similar thematic areas to connect the main idea. The concerns includes; (1) *Lack of Marketing and Promotional activities from responsible tourism Authorities*; (2) *Lack of involvement by locals on tourism planning and training*, (3) *Unsealed roads and poor infrastructures*; (4) *High airfares*; (5); *Competition*; (6) *Lack of tourists facilities and*; (7) *Safety issues*

4.3 Tourism businesses' perspective for tourism improvement

The tourism businesses are important beneficiaries of this tourism strategy as they offer services to the tourism market in the province. As a result, part of this study offered the business to provided worthwhile suggestions that need the attention of the tourism authorities. According to the tourism businesses participants, the majority address the social impact needs for the province. About 18% suggested that more effort must be invested in promoting and supporting local culture while another 18% of the respondents proposed for creation of tourism opportunities that involves local people. The response generally expresses the need to involve local people and residents on tourism planning, awareness and participation in tourism activities. Through such initiatives, the local people can be able to take ownership of tourism development in the province. Several of the respondents expressed the need to built craft centers for

the local craftsman and traders. They stated that there is no craft housing for traditional items and as a result, the local craftsman are seen frequenting the gates of hotels and rental car companies trying to sell their products to the hotel guests. By building a craft center will not only assist the craft sellers but also motivate others to venture into the businesses and sustain their livelihood. Another 17% of the respondents express the need for more international promotion regarding tourism products in the province. Such activities can have immense impact if enforced by the tourism authorities. Also, another 17% of the respondents suggest on encouraging more high spending tourists who can be able to consume the services and products offered by the businesses. The income earned supplements the local employments and increase in business developments. A further 16% of the response pertains to tourism training and empowering of local employees. The tourism businesses suggested tourism training to be offered to employees in respective businesses that corresponds to the development of the tourism model province.

Through such initiatives, it encourages and motivates the employees to take pride in their employment and instill pride in knowing they are contributing to the development of tourism in the province. The final 14% of the responses were relating to ecological sustenance. Milne Bay Province main tourist attracting is diving and as a result, the respondents suggests information on marine conservation must be disseminated to both the local communities and tourists to be more ecologically conscious.

5. Conclusion

Milne Bay Province became the center of tourism development in Papua New Guinea after been selected as 'model tourism province' in 2005. The aim of developing the model tourism province concept was to evaluate how tourism can be fully developed throughout the country. This research analyzed the progress of tourism businesses during the implementation period of the model province strategy (2006 to 2011). The findings revealed a steady growth in both domestic and international visitors who used the businesses' services and facilities annually. Management restriction and unavailability of managers particularly with budget accommodations and the

remaining three car rental companies have imposed limitations in collecting data from all the businesses in Alotau district. Never the less, a well represented participants from the four accommodation categories along with the car rental companies, dive center and tour operator in the province provided the much needed information and concerns for tourism. According to the research findings, the businesses voiced their concerns regarding external challenges that affect their operations such as lack assistance in marketing and promotion, industry training, poor infrastructure and high fares as well as competition amongst the businesses. Timely suggestions of town beautification, training and empowerment of local people and businesses are needed to enrich tourism growth in the future.

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THE ASSESSMENT OF SUSTAINABLE LAKE TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN HUNGARY

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Water is one of the most important resources of tourism all over the world. Since Hungary is landlocked, its four lakes (Lake Balaton, Lake Velence, Lake Tisza and Lake Fertő), popular destinations for both domestic and international visitors, are proof of this. The lakes have divergent natural, social, economic and tourism characteristics, and therefore have different influences on the three pillars of sustainability and also require tailor-made approaches to development. The current strategies of the four tourism regions form the basis of evaluating tourism in these destinations in terms of sustainability. Based on the results, case studies and best practices in international literature, a best practice collection has been elaborated. The initiatives therein need to be carefully evaluated to determine the best possible pathways toward sustainable tourism development in the regions, and to allocate different solutions to the specific areas they fit best.

1. Introduction

In the distant past, water was important for human survival as potable water or for producing food. Over time, its functions have changed and have been supplemented. One example is tourism in which case surface waters are one of the most important natural values and they can be the main tourism attraction of a destination anywhere in the world (Duda-Gromada, Bujdosó, and Dávid, 2010). Their utilization - both still and running waters - for

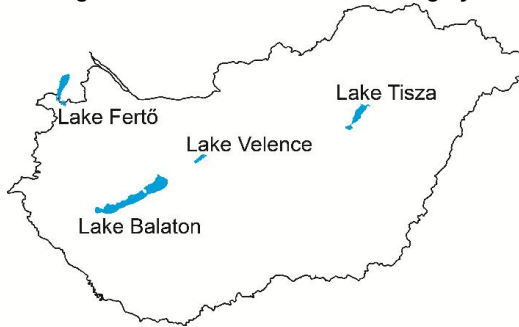
swimming, sports, fishing, etc. is of great importance to tourists and locals alike (Ronade, 2008). Because of this, a wide range of possibilities and some of the world's major tourism destinations are at the waterfront. Changing demand and supply trends brings new challenges to areas that desire to undertake high quality developments. In the last few years, improvement of attractions and facilities which are independent from the water have been given more emphasis, but during these developments the protection of the environment has been pushed into the background. Therefore, it is important to take the principles of sustainable development into consideration, and for the social, economic and environmental interests regarding the developments to prevail (Sulyok, 2012).

In this paper, the tourism of Hungary's four most important lake tourism destinations - at Lake Balaton, Lake Velence, Lake Fertő and Lake Tisza - are introduced and the sustainability of the developing tourism product and tourism types which are included in the tourism development programs in their respective regions are assessed. After that, best practices that can be used at one of these lakes to provide a pathway toward sustainable development are showcased.

2. The Examined Lakes

Four lakes are examined in this paper, which have divergent characteristics and they are popular due to their different tourism product. The destinations are different also in the point of view of the executive type of the tourism destination around the lakes. The tourism destinations around Lake Balaton and Lake Tisza are independent tourism regions, but they are not NUTS2 regions, while micro regions surround Lake Velence and Lake Fertő. In the case of Lake Balaton and Lake Velence, the classic 3S (sea, sand, sun) tourism is the characteristic feature, in contrast with Lake Fertő and Lake Tisza, where the lakes themselves and their natural environment are the main attraction.

Figure 1: The examined lakes in Hungary



Lake Balaton is the largest lake in Central Europe. The lake was once the main hub of Hungarian tourism in the 20th century, but after the end of Soviet occupation, the number of tourists began to decrease, a process that continues to this day (Buday-Sántha, 2007). Nonetheless, the tourism region around the lake is still visited by a large number of tourists each year, second only to the region of Central Hungary (Budapest) (Mester, Polgár and Kiss 2006). The most important characteristic features of lake tourism are gathered in the SWOT analysis in Table 1.

Table1:SWOT analysis of the tourism of Lake Balaton

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • beautiful landscape • diverse natural and cultural attractions • thermal baths open all year round • national park • grape and wine production • international airport in Sármellék 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • vulnerability of the lake's water • shortening of the season • lack of complex tourism products • transportation difficulties • average quality of tourism supply • uncertain situation of the region (not NUTS2)
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • development of the infrastructure • development of the tourism destination management (TDM) system • strengthening of the domestic tourism • new tourism forms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • recession • lack of investors and external funding • illegal economic activities • worsening public security • lack of cooperation

Source: own compilation based on LT Consort Ltd. (2005).

Lake Velence is the second biggest natural lake in Hungary and one of the warmest in Europe, it belongs to the Central Transdanubia tourism region. This destination is close to Budapest on motorway and it is popular among domestic tourists (Priszinger, 2011). The tourism destination around Lake Velence - like the other three - are seeded holiday resorts in Hungary (Aubert, 2011). Table 2 summarizes the main characteristics of the destination.

Table2: SWOT analysis of the tourism of Lake Velence

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • good accessibility • growing investment • the presence of thermal water • protected natural values • multi-level professional training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • low willingness to cooperate • no financial background for high value developments • short peak season • lack of coordinated information management system • low customer retention capacity
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • more active marketing work • increasing visitor turnover, greater economic contribution of tourism • supply in case of bad weather • season prolonging programs • development of infrastructure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lack of tourism demand • decreasing availability of external sources • ecological problems • appreciation of the differences in the area

Source: own compilation based on Inn Side Ltd. (2006).

Lake Fertő is in the tourism region of Western Transdanubia, and is Europe's second largest steppe lake (Draganits et al., 2006). Its water surface is 300 km² but most of it is covered by cane and only a quarter of it belongs to Hungary, while the remainder is in Austria. That is why it is often named Lake Neusiedl. The two sides of the lake are dissimilar, the Hungarian side is the centre of ecotourism, health tourism and cultural tourism, the Austrian one is popular due to water tourism. In this paper, only the Hungarian shore of the lake is examined. The SWOT analysis of this area are shown in Table 3.

Table3: SWOT analysis of the tourism of Lake Fertő

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • proximity of the border • Fertő Cultural Landscape is a world heritage site • presence of thermal water • continuous development of several tourism types • qualified workforce • beginning collaborations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • single-track rail link • lack of awareness about product development • neglected state of attractions • uncoordinated programs and events organization • funding problems • ineffective marketing
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • development of domestic tourism • growing demand for active recreation • increasing appreciation for the values of the natural environment • growing demand for culinary and wine tourism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • deteriorating public security • environmental damage • neglected road network

Source: own compilation based on Régiófokusz Ltd. (2006).

Lake Tisza is the largest artificial and fishing lake in Hungary, created in 1973 as a reservoir (Csete, Pálvölgyi and Szendrő, 2013; Remenyik, 2009; Michalkó, 2005). The destination around the lake is an independent tourism region and it is popular among domestic tourists (Michalkó, 2005). Its bird reserve is part of Hortobágy National Park. The main features of the lake are in Table 4.

Table4: SWOT analysis of the tourism of Lake Tisza

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • unique natural resources at European level • traditional hospitality • background of diverse forms of tourism eg. aquatic-, cycling-, rural-, ecotourism • events, festivals • built values 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lack of capital and resources • short season • decreasing fish stocks • unbalanced regional and quality distribution of supply • no consensus among stakeholders • inefficient regulation of the use of water craft
OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • improving accessibility • health and business tourism • development of cycling road network • improving standard of education • dissemination of environmental thinking • operation of an information network 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the region split into two, coastal area and background area • deterioration of water quality • failed EU applications • tourism impact on the environment

Source: own compilation based on Aquaprofit PLC (2006).

It should be noted in the SWOT analysis that the lakes have some similar features and problems. All lakes are significant natural values in Hungary and thermal water and thermal baths can be found around them. In spite of that, the most serious problem in all destinations is the shortness of the season, and that all regions have financial problems regarding projects and the split of the region to shore and background areas also apply for all four lakes. The development of the infrastructure is an available opportunity to provide better services for tourists. The vulnerability of the lakes and their natural surroundings is a serious threat.

3. Methodological Approach

In this paper, an assessment system was used to evaluate the sustainability of the tourism products and tourism forms which are in the development programs of the destination around the four produced lakes. The key element of a process like this is to identify appropriate indicators, which can be done for example with the Delphi method (Puczkó et al., 2001) or with different specified criteria. Most of the authors interested in this project agree that the overwhelmingly important criterion is that the indicators must clearly show the mechanisms behind the factors responsible for changes (Hughes, 2002). To this assessment a further evaluate system, which was created to assess and compare the sustainability of the development programs of Lake Balaton Concept and Program of Tourism Development (Pomucz, 2012), have been redrafted so that they can be used for any lake. That system of criteria was developed using an indicators system for settlements created by Szilávik and Csete (2004), a list of indicators of sustainable tourism by Puczkó and his colleagues (2001) and the indicator list specifically for Lake Balaton region by Pintér and his colleagues (2008).

All the items of the tourism regions development strategies of lakes have been assessed but only those are shown in this paper which connects to tourism types and products because it is pointless to compare, for example, the development of thermal baths to providing equal opportunities. The key step is to decide what types of tourism are the most sustainable in a region and then provide their background in a sustainable way.

The criteria system is used to evaluate the effects of the programs within the development strategies based on these criteria, defined to be applicable for any lake. The method examines if the realization of the programs in the strategies and the functioning of the realized activity produce effect on the factor in the proper aspect. The aspects are in harmony with the three pillars of sustainable development (environment, economy and society).

When choosing the aspects, it is important for them to be easily explainable, to appreciate the programs' effect on them and to decide easily if the effects are favourable or not.

As for economic aspects, the main domains are the returns, details about the arriving tourists, the efficiency of the development related to tourism, and the details about employment.

The examined economic aspects:

- volume of the incomes and local taxes from tourism,
- proportion of domestic tourists,
- rate of returning guests
- number of guest-nights,
- efficiency of development (advantages/expenses),
- new jobs established through tourism development,
- satisfaction of tourists.

When choosing the social aspects, it is essential to consider the interests and characteristics of local inhabitants. The other group of social aspects is the institutions connecting to health and safety, which are equally important for inhabitants and tourists.

The examined social aspects:

- demographic conditions, population retention capacity,
- equal opportunities
- preservation of local culture and traditions,
- quality of life of the local inhabitants,
- collaboration, cooperation,
- crime rates, medical services,
- education, training.

The environmental aspects include the condition of the area's main natural values, the lakes themselves, the condition of the main environmental elements, the question of environmental

reserves and biodiversity. The concentration of tourists as an aspect is included in this group because larger denseness can cause larger effect than the direct relation.

The examined environmental aspects:

- water quality of the lake and other surface and groundwaters,
- landscape and view,
- air quality, noise load, GHG emissions,
- soil quality, land use
- ratio of nature reserves, biodiversity(natural capital index),
- raising environmental awareness
- concentration of tourists in time and space.

In an effect matrix the connections between the aspect and the program have been rated as follows: (+1) point if the program has favourable effect on the sustainability on the destination, (-1) point if it has unfavourable effect, and (NR=0) if there is no effect at all.

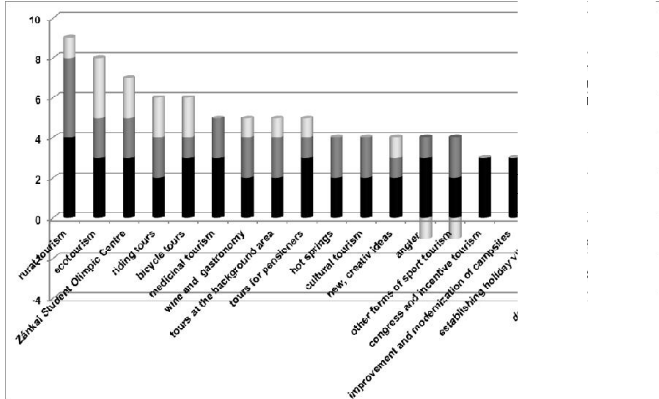
5. The Result of the Assessment

For every program, the points have been added up individually during the consideration of the fields of the aspects: economic, social, environmental and all three together. The results are shown on the bar charts in the following diagrams.

It clearly shows that most tourism products have positive impact on the test region in economic terms - that applies to all of the destinations - they cause positive impact on incomes from tourism and the tourists' satisfaction. Also, product specifically one or two positive impacts are recognised, but primarily, the social and environmental factors determine whether a given tourism type is sustainable. In the case of the tested tourism types, negative effects are limited from the economic and social point of view, while environmental aspects are more considerable.

In the case of Lake Balaton, twenty different tourism products or tourism types are in the development program of the region, the result of their assessment is on Figure 2.

Figure 2: Result of the Assessment for Lake Balaton

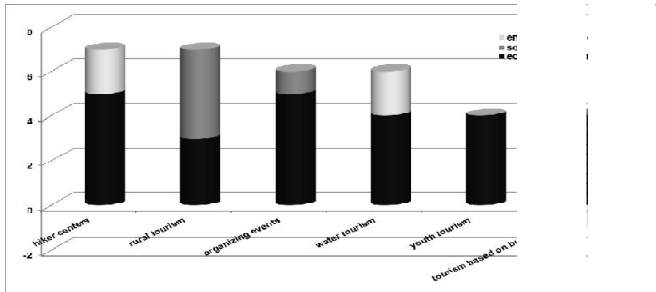


Rural tourism reached the highest point, and is followed by eco-tourism. The difference is that eco-tourism gets a higher score for environmental factors, but the social impacts of rural tourism are more favourable. They are followed by the Youth Olympic Centre Zánka, and the rider and cycling tourism, which are favourable because of their impact on demographics, local quality of life, and the development of the background areas. The limited adverse effects, raising environmental awareness and efforts to prolong the season are beneficial from an environmental point of view.

The least sustainable tourism products - holiday villages, ports, beach tourism and entertainment centres - get negative environmental points, due to large investment needs. In case of beaches, the natural environment is overloaded and this type of recreation strengthens the seasonality.

Six tourism products are mentioned in the development programs of the tourism region where Lake Velence belongs, relating to the lake and the destinations around it. Figure 3 represents them.

Figure 3: Result of the Assessment at Lake Velence

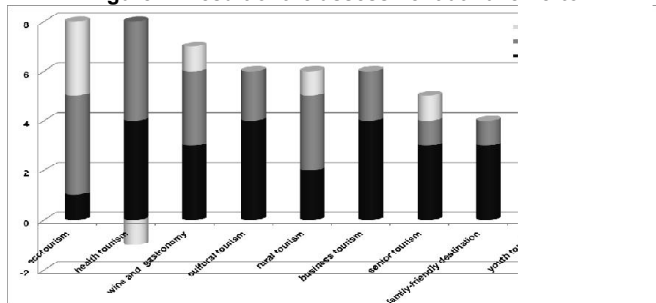


'Hiker centres' gets high points for advantageous effects on the economy and less for environmental aspects. Rural tourism - which has the same score as hiking - is favourable from economic and social considerations - like at Lake Balaton. The average point of the programmes in case of Lake Velence is higher than at Lake Balaton. Event tourism and water tourism get high points as well, with Lake Velence being the most sustainable in this respect.

Tourism based on built heritages is the least sustainable in the area while it does not influence the social processes in any significant way, and the renovation of the buildings can cause unfavourable effects, nonetheless it gets higher points than the others.

The ten priority tourism types present in the tourism region of Lake Fertő can be seen on Figure 4.

Figure 4: Result of the assessment at Lake Fertő

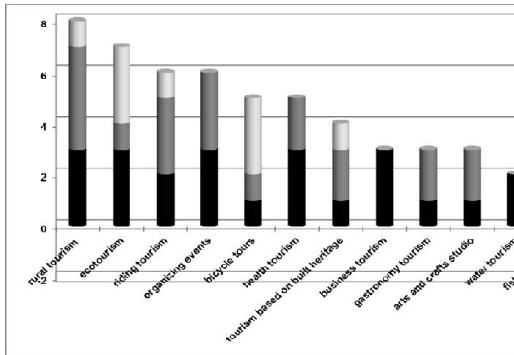


At Lake Fertő, ecotourism proves to be the most sustainable because it has favourable effects on the local society - quality of life and local cooperations - and the natural environment in the area. It is followed by health tourism and wine and gastro tourism, both of them favourable to economy and the life of local people. The big difference between them is that while health tourism is unfavourable due to the required projects' effect on the environment, wine and gastro tourism is favourable from a landscape point of view.

Active tourism, including cycling, water, riding, golf, hunting etc. appear to be the least sustainable in the region because some products from this group have harmful effects on the environment or are less favourable from social and economic aspects.

The tourism products on Figure 4 connect to the priority. The development of attractions and regional specific complex tourism products, which is one of the priorities of the development strategy of Lake Tisza tourism region.

Figure 5: Result of the assessment at Lake Tisza



At Lake Tisza, the tourism products are similar to the case of Lake Balaton: the most sustainable tourism product is rural tourism, followed by ecotourism - though at Lake Tisza these programs received a somewhat lower score -and they are followed by riding tourism. The distribution of the points are parallel with the first examined lake.

Fishing and water tourism achieve low points because of the disturbance of the natural environment, as well as the contribution of water tourism to seasonality. Water-related tourism has unfavourable social aspects while the deregulated usage of watercraft carries a high risk. Hunting tourism is not favorable for economic reasons, because of its exclusivity.

5. Best Practices in Lake Tourism in Europe

So far, we have discussed which tourism types or products are the most or least sustainable in case of the four Hungarian Lakes, but from other European lakes some other new ideas or best practices can be collected to make Hungarian lake tourism more sustainable.

Both at the Austrian and Hungarian side of Lake Fertő/Lake Neusiedl, several recreation facilities can be used for free with Neusiedler See Card, for example: transport, parking, free entry to seashores or museums, guided tours etc. (Neusiedler See Tourismus, 2013). At Lake Balaton, tourists with a Balatoncard can enjoy 10%, 20% or 30% reductions at the contracted restaurants, accommodations, museums, beaches, services etc. (Balatoncard, 2013). Lake Tisza and Lake Velence lack such systems which can make local services and products more attractive.

Six areas of intervention have been identified at Bodensee by the Bodensee Council through cross-border cooperation between Austrian, German and Swiss partners. The areas are: (1) living, (2) employment and economy, (3) environment, nature and recreation, (4) transport, telecommunication, (5) education, science and culture, (6) health and social services (Internationale Bodenseekonferenz, 1998). This kind of cooperation is a good example for the coordination of activities like tourism at the Hungarian and Austrian side of Lake Fertő.

Lake Bled in Slovenia is a favourite among rowers because it has very good conditions for that sport. It has hosted the World Rowing Championships four times - in 1966, 1979, 1989 and 2011 (International Federation of Rowing Associations 2013). An international sport event can be an efficient opportunity for promotion, reaching not only the sportsmen but their families as well, who take them to the competition and get to know the

destination in the process, possibly returning as tourists. Lake Balaton is a suitable venue for a sailing championship, in 2013. five European or World Championships took place at the lake, which could have been used as a promotion opportunity for sustainable tourism in the region.

Each Hungarian lake is also attractive for winter sports like skating or ice-sailing if the weather conditions are suitable. With better organization, these can be season lengthening attractions.

6. Conclusions

The analysis of tourism development programs of the four Hungarian lakes in this paper have made pinpointed the most sustainable tourism products or types at the destinations selected. The best practice collection has shown additional products which contribute to the sustainable development of Hungarian lake tourism.

Comparing the results of the assessments with each other based on the average points of the development strategies of the lakes, Lake Fertő achieves the highest ranking and Lake Balaton the lowest. The two most sustainable products are rural tourism and ecotourism in the Hungarian lake destination, without Lake Fertő - in that case, this type of development item is not in the strategy - the average point for rural tourism is 8, and without Lake Velence the average point for ecotourism 7.66. Hungary's settlement structure is provincial, thus rural tourism is especially suitable for it, with which eco-tourism can be efficiently combined, so the results include favourable opportunities for future developments. Additionally, at Lake Balaton and Lake Velence, riding tourism, which fits well in the previous two tourism types, also received a favourable evaluation.

There are fewer similarities among the least sustainable products, the beaches and water tourism, which are sometimes named differently, were evaluated negatively - with the exception of the Lake Velence. These products got low points due to their potentially unfavourable environmental impacts. Other products like holiday villages and ports achieved few points because of their environmental impacts, but hunting tourism is also less favourable in economic aspects.

The methodology used in this paper seems to be applicable to evaluate and compare the tourism development items of any destination. In addition, the lake-specific results are the most important in relation to development decisions, but the determination of the similarity can be useful at the examination of analogous areas.

Acknowledgment

The work reported in the paper has been developed in the framework of the project "Talent care and cultivation in the scientific workshops of BME" project. This project is supported by the grant TÁMOP-4.2.2.B-10/1–2010-0009.

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MARKET RESEARCH FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE RELIGIOUS AND PILGRIMAGE TOURISM IN CYPRUS

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This paper presents the results of a Market Research made recently for the Development of the Religious and Pilgrimage Tourism in Cyprus. It includes the presentation, the analysis, the purpose and the methodology applied for this research. Analysis is also made, for the experience of the various tourists, visitors and pilgrims who visited the holy places in Cyprus, for the data collected regarding the development of this activity, for the efficiency of the existing frame of the development of this kind of tourism and finally for the expected benefits and positive results which will be created with the development of the Religious and Pilgrimage Tourism in Cyprus. Within the framework and the strategy of this project, an action plan has also been created, which includes the results and the findings of this research as well as a series of measures and actions need to be taken by the Church of Cyprus, the Cyprus Tourist Organization and the other stakeholders of the tourist industry towards a sustainable tourism development of the island.

1.Introduction

Tourism as a concept includes all those people moving to amenity for vacation, recreation, entertainment and relaxation. People seek also to change their lifestyle in order to recover physically and to gather as many new experiences and

performances as possible. The organization of the phenomenon of mass tourism appeared mainly in the second half of the 20th century and became a real and great industry around the world. Tourism is also a key sector for the competitiveness and growth of Europe, employing 12% of the European labor force and generating more than 10% of Europe's GDP. It is a sector which can play a vital role as a vehicle for growth and job creation, building on Cyprus' historical, religious, cultural and natural heritage. According to the latest *UNWTO World Tourism Barometer*, international tourism receipts hit a new record in 2012, reaching an estimated US\$ 1075 billion (euro 837 billion) worldwide, up 4% in real terms, from US\$ 1042 billion (euro 749 billion) in 2011 (UNWTO,2013).

The development of the Religious and Pilgrimage travel as an alternative type of tourism is a global and universal effort which falls under the broader sustainable development and special interest tourism, best practices, new trends, environmental protection and respect of sacred sites (Yunis, 2006). According to the WTO, global tourism for the first time in 2012 surpassed the one billion tourists worldwide. For the years to come and until 2020 it is estimated that there would be an increase by 3.8% on average per year, while the number of tourists will reach the 1.3 billion by 2030. In the 21st century, global tourism faces great challenges, which are related to sustainability, balanced and sustainable development, and the proper allocation and management of existing natural resources (UNWTO, 2013).

The prospects for Cyprus will be very significant and optimistic, bearing in mind the recent data of the WTO, where the turnover of the Religious and Pilgrimage tourism is estimated at €15 billion. In addition, approximately 300 million people travel each year to various religious sites, while in the global market nearly three billion people appear to have religious and pilgrimage references. At the same time the Religious and Pilgrimage tourism is considered to be the only "robust" type of tourism, especially in difficult times of economic crisis, where the travel agencies are rushing to include more information in their advertising programs with religious and pilgrimage material (WRTA,2013).

Cyprus today is considered one of the best tourist Mediterranean destinations with tourism to be regarded possibly the best ingredient factor of economic development on the island.

The religious tradition of ancient Cyprus through the centuries and the movement of people for purely religious reasons with the foundation of Christian churches on the ruins of ancient temples and the arrival of the Apostles Barnabas, Paul and Marcus, contributing to the continuation and growth of the religious movement of tourists, visitors and pilgrims on the island (Economou, 1996).

Eventually, Cyprus was transformed into the “Island of the Holy Virgin Mary and Saints” and became a famous place of pilgrimage travel and tourism and due to its geographical position through the centuries became also the gateway to the «Holy Land». The variety of monuments of Christian worship and tradition in Cyprus is an integral part of the National Heritage and a valuable tourist attraction on the island. The Byzantine and post-Byzantine churches with their important iconography, mosaics, murals and rare icons, chapels and shrines of the countryside and especially the monasteries of the “Troodos” area, which are protected by UNESCO as the World Heritage (C.T.O., 2008), reveal the persistent adherence to the traditions and the close and long connection of art with religious worship. This globalization of cultural capital, the legitimate owner of which is humankind, finds itself in a constructive symbiosis with tourism as a way to explore this universal heritage (Stausberg, 2011).

In many areas of the island, visitors have also the opportunity to come across with buildings and places of worship of different faiths and religions, thus highlighting the rare historic and cultural wealth of the island. Among them, is the Hala Sultan Tekke, which is a very prominent Muslim shrine near Larnaca. Today, Hala Sultan Tekke is listed as an Ancient Monument and is visited by a lot of Moslems and tourists. In Nicosia, the church of St. Catherine is located very near to the cathedral of St. Sophia and is one of the most important Gothic monuments in Cyprus. With the conquest of the island by the Ottomans in 1570, the church, like many other Gothic churches converted into a mosque and shrine called “Haidari Pasha”. The Cyprus Medieval Museum is located inside the Castle of Limassol and its exhibits cover a period of 1,500 years. The Kolossi Castle is also situated in the village of Kolossi, 11 kilometers west of Limassol. In Paphos there are a lot of holy sites and ancient temples of Goddess Aphrodite, since more than 2000 years ago. The Saint Paul's Pillar is also one of the most popular stops for pilgrims who

come to visit the various religious sites of Christian faith. Cyprus, the “Island of Saints”, is perhaps one of the few countries worldwide, which can develop this form of tourism because the monasteries built from the 3rd century, are wonderful items of art and technique.

2. Research Methodology

The research beyond the historical review of the various visitors and pilgrims visited Cyprus from thousands years ago until today it also refers to the literature review of the project and its objectives which include:

1. Investigation on the establishment of the island's monasteries, churches and religious monuments in general.
2. Identifying the existence and development of art (iconography, architecture, music) through the centuries and its contribution to attract foreign pilgrims.
3. Identifying trends and factors that currently affect the development of the religious tourism in Cyprus and the sustainable tourism too.

This market research is mainly based on the results of a comprehensive questionnaire used as the basis of extracting information from the Cyprus Market. The questionnaire consists of three different parts with concise and relevant questions that can extract both qualitative and quantitative conclusions about the level of innovation for the religious tourism in Cyprus. The aims of this research, which is performed for the first time in Cyprus, is to investigate whether the inhabitants of the island are aware of the alternative forms of tourism, especially the Religious and Pilgrimage one. Moreover, it aims to illustrate the attitude of the participants and their views on the improvements needed for the proper development of religious and pilgrimage tourism in relation to the environment, monasteries, the pilgrimage sites and the tourist industry of Cyprus as a whole. The field survey was also intended to highlight the religious and spiritual dimension of this activity, in relation to the tourists, the pilgrims, the members of the community of the religious sites, the monasteries and the Church, and the potential access and the visit to the various holy shrines. Finally, it was anticipated to demonstrate the benefits, financial and spiritual, which arise through the development of

this type of alternative tourism in relation to the pilgrims, monasteries, tour operators, the Church and the tourist industry of Cyprus in general. These questionnaires were used to collect the necessary data from a number (400) of pilgrims and tourists, the Church of Cyprus, the various monasteries and the travel agents, according to the European and international statistics standards and practices.

3. Research Results

Each questionnaire was designed and divided into four parts: a) Part A contained general information of the person completing this questionnaire b) Part B referred to the potential development of religious and pilgrimage tourism in Cyprus c) Part C focused on the adequacy of the existing development framework of Religious and Pilgrimage tourism and d) Part D dealt with the effectiveness of the existing framework of the development of tourism in Cyprus. At the end, opportunity was also given to record any comments or suggestions about the development of the Religious Tourism in Cyprus. The results obtained through the questionnaires present the findings and conclusions of this research which could focus and demonstrate that:

1) The Religious and Pilgrimage tourism is considered as a friendly one, for both the monasteries and the environment, and it actually ranks as one of the best quality and alternative forms of sustainable tourism in Cyprus.

2) The need for greater cooperation and coordination among the tourism stakeholders, local authorities, the Church, the State and the CTO.

3) There is a need to create space for the reception of visitors to pilgrimage destinations, especially for disable people.

4) The development of the religious and pilgrimage tourism in Cyprus neither in fact creates any special problem to the holy sites nor disturbs the program of the holy community of the monasteries.

5) The factors which positively contribute to the movement of pilgrims to the various holy places and shrines have been set as follows:

- a) The history of the sacred site of monasteries,
- b) the access to the holy shrines and

c) the educational level of visitors and pilgrims.

6) The acceptance of pilgrims at the various pilgrimage sites depends largely on their behavior, their appearance and the general attitude shown by them.

7) The factors that contribute to the success of a pilgrimage can be ranked as follows:

a) As the first factor of a successful trip is regarded the appropriate choice of the organizers along with the level of their professionalism.

b) Second factor is considered the spiritual level of the visitors and pilgrims.

c) Third factor is regarded the quality or uniformity and the interaction of participants in this pilgrimage journey.

d) Fourth factor is considered the spiritual and physical preparation of the participants of the pilgrimage travel.

e) As a final factor can be considered the phenomenon of repetition of a pilgrimage travel along with the period of realization.

The following programs and specific actions could also contribute positively for the organization, planning and development of the religious tourism through:

a) Important contacts and exchanges with experts in religious interest of the Church of Greece, Russia, Lebanon, Israel and Egypt and other countries with common religious heritage.

b) Issuance of an integrated Guide of religious trips and a Special Church Tourist Map which will include an electronic form of GPS in five languages will easily guide the visitors and pilgrims and successfully navigate the traffic to the various religious and pilgrimage sites, and generally to the whole island.

c) Production of a software material of GIS (DVD) which will include a historical overview, with sound, image and text in Greek, English, German, French and Russian, will be used as a useful guide for the pilgrimage destinations, monasteries, ancient religious monuments, Byzantine icons, mosaics, and places of worship.

d) Information to the visitors and pilgrims can also be provided through the relevant web page which will be created within the framework of the development and promotion of this type of tourism. This website will provide all the relevant information, both to the general public and to the organizers of

the Religious tourism, about the churches, monasteries and generally the religious sites in Cyprus and any other features of the pilgrimage destination.

e) Arrival in Cyprus of new scientists, academics and high level of researchers for:

1) Further development of the rich religious and historical research in Cyprus.

2) Organization of international meetings, conferences and events and a series of lectures and workshops both in Cyprus and abroad in order to promote the religious wealth of the island.

3) Promotion of the cultural identity and the religious heritage of the island which lead to the visitors and pilgrims' awareness of the places of worship. Today, after 39 years, 580 churches and monasteries are still in the occupied area of the island without any protection and maintenance. The green line with the presence of the Turkish troops is also considered as an obstacle for the development of the religious tourism in the occupied area of the island.

Introduction of the course of the "Religious Tourism" in the Departments of Theology and Hospitality and Tourism Management, in order to enable the students to undertake either graduate or post-graduate studies for this subject area.

4. Conclusion

Cyprus lies at the crossroads of three continents and due to its geographical position, through the centuries has become the gateway to the "Holy Land". In many areas of the island, visitors have the opportunity to come across with buildings and places of worship of different faiths and religions, thus highlighting the rare historic, religious and cultural wealth of the island. However, the continuous growth of the tourist movements in Cyprus and the prospect of economic benefits that can be obtained from this activity have led local governments to promote the development of tourism, quite often forgetting to establish the necessary policies, legislation and regulations to make it happen in a sustainable way. The most common situation in Cyprus is the unlimited growth in the number of tourist's arrivals, between 2 - 2,5 millions every year, without considering capacity constraints, i.e. the carrying capacity, (Cooper. et al 1998) or without setting

up preventive measures to avoid problems or critical situations. For example, there are physical limits to the number of people who can have access to a given location at any one time-whether that is an ancient tomb, a sacred place, a natural beauty spot, a beach or a historic house of the island. Based on these lines Religious tourism should therefore:

1. Protect the physical integrity of the religious sites and respect its religious significance.

2. Ensure the host community wellbeing and preserve its priority right to use the religious places to ensure the visitors fulfillment and satisfaction.

On the other hand the development of the Religious and Pilgrimage tourism will especially address the problem of seasonality and greatly help the sustainable tourism development of Cyprus by preserving the cultural and religious heritage of the island, sacred sites, ancient monasteries and churches, as well as a large number of ancient Byzantine icons, mosaics and religious relics which exist on the island for thousands of years. Efforts should also focus on both, the principles that should guide this type of tourism and the technical conditions that should accompany it, in order to develop religious tourism and tourism in religious sites according to the sustainable patterns for the benefit of all involved, including both, the spiritual and the economic benefits.

As the European financial crisis deepens and the Union is also facing a series of expletive crises stemming from one another, in Cyprus it is expected that the prospects for its economy will be very significant and optimistic in the near future, taking into account the results of a survey conducted by Oxford Economics in 2011, where the aviation sector contributes €622 million (3.6%) to Cypriot GDP. In addition there are €2,035 million in “catalytic” benefits through tourism, which raises the overall contribution to €2,657 million, or 15.2% of GDP. It is also estimated that a 10% improvement in connectivity relative to GDP would see an €11 million per annum increase in long-run GDP for the Cypriot economy. (Oxford Economics, 2011). The results of this study indicated the potentiality for the development of organized Religious and Pilgrimage tourism, while the findings of the research showed considerable copresence of religious tourists interested in combining pilgrimage with visiting religious attractions and holy places being surveyed as monuments of

architectural or historical importance and pilgrims stimulated mainly by pilgrimage motives. Finally it is clear that the development of the Religious and Pilgrimage Tourism in Cyprus along with the implementation of effective and coordinated strategies at the national level will upgrade the tourism sector and enable it to innovate and develop sustainability for the benefit of the Cyprus tourism industry and the citizens of the island.

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RE-CONCEPTUALIZING A SICILIAN DESTINATION THROUGH THE ACTOR- NETWORK THEORY: THE ROLE OF A GASTRONOMIC FESTIVAL TO RUN THE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT OF A TERRITORY

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The paper describes San Vito Lo Capo – a tourist destination on the west coast of Sicily – by considering its human and not human (material and immaterial) elements. To depict this tourist destination, so to map and analyze the different involved elements and to understand the inner mechanisms of its functioning, the Actor-Network Theory (ANT) is exploited. A special focus is on the “Cous Cous Fest” and the role it’s played in the last seventeen years for the tourist (economic) development of the destination.

1. Towards a Successful Tourist Destination: Theoretical framework

There are a lot of references on the concept of tourist destination and several perspectives regarding: “how to define a tourist destination”. In the last decades, some authors (Pearce, 1997) tried to consider an “objective” perspective, this is to define a territory as destination by considering its attractions, services, products, etc. Others (Laws, 1995) considered a “subjective” perspective because their attention on those persons and organizations that produce, offer and/or manage such attractions,

services and so on (Kerr, Barron and Wood, 2001). During these years someone else developed an integrated perspective that considers a tourist destination through a mix of the previous points of views (Keller, 2000).

In any case, in most of the different definitions a destination should be considered -explicitly or implicitly—in terms of network of correlated actions from individuals, organizations and institutions. All of this means taking in consideration a “relational” perspective –here - starting from the “Relational-based view” (Dyer and Singh, 1998; Lavie, 2006).

Inside this framework we find space for an holistic perspective of “Relational Tourism” (RT) (Ruisi, 2012). Firstly, by considering the relationship among business firms (inter-firms or networking- Reuer, Ariño and Olk, 2011). Secondly, by considering “the combination of relationships in which on one hand suppliers develop a depth attitude of sincere and shared hospitality beyond a mere orientation to the sale, in order to retrieve the feeling to let customers rediscover the beauty and the peculiarity of historical, artistic, folkloristic, gastronomic and especially human patrimony in terms of goods and traditions; on the other hand, users invert the usual role of final consumers to become protagonists, value-generators actively involved into the life-cycle of the tourist offer” (Ruisi, 2010:1068). The implicit is including the whole local population (Andriotis and Vaughn, 2003; Hall, Page, 2006; Mowforth, Munt, 2009; Nicholas, Thapa and Yong, 2009, Ruisi, 2010), among the above-mentioned generators/packers, thus imagine two categories: one deeply involved in the economic interests of the community and the other less, but both strictly committed to build strong relationships.

Because our principal theoretical interest concerns the Relational-based view; because its origins come from the Resource-based view; because most of the literature on the competitive advantage of a tourist destination starts from the role played by resources, attractors and supporting factors (Ritichie, Crouch, 2003;2011), we find extremely useful a theoretical interaction with the “Actor-network theory” (ANT) (Latour, 2005).

Actor–network theory insists on the capacity of humans, but even of nonhumans (materials and/or not materials) to be actors or participants in networks and systems. «The actor’ inclusion in the network is not based on a certain ontological status (such as

being human), on strength, mobility or intentionality, but rather on the capacity of linking, associating and ordering within the network» (Ren, Johannesson and van der Duim, 2012:16). ANT could be considered a powerful tool by which to explain not *what* tourism is, but *how* tourism works, *how* it is assembled, enacted and ordered (Johannesson, van der Duim and Ren, 2012). In the following paragraphs we will try to map a tourist destination by using ANT to better understand the strategic role of a local event, with its actors (human elements) and “actant” (not human elements), for its economic development.

2. Case Study: Preliminary Methodological Consideration

From a general point of view, the paper considers the case study analysis. Yin(2003: 13), defines case study research as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident”; moreover he claims that several types of case study research can be considered: *descriptive*, *exploratory* and *explanatory* case studies.

Because, in the specific situation here analyzed, the contextual conditions have a relevant role to the phenomenon under study, the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clear, we decided to use the case study analysis; because our interest in understanding the relation between an event such as a gastronomic festival and the development of the connected territory, we decided to look at the *explanatory* approach enriched with a statistical analysis of correlation, by considering at the same time some *descriptive* items, more precisely by using the ANT “mapping approach”.

2.1 San Vito Lo Capo (Tp) and the “Cous Cous Fest”: presentation

The paper takes in consideration the economic development of San Vito Lo Capo during the last seventeen years, starting from and focusing on the “Cous Cous Fest”, here considered as the main determinant of the success of the mentioned tourist destination. Undisputed star of the “Fest” is cous cous, a dish

made with durum wheat; a dish that is rich in history and represents an element of synthesis between cultures, a symbol of openness and contamination (it can be prepared with different ingredients). Central moment of the “Fest” is the international culinary competition which brings together chefs from different countries (above all Mediterranean ones). The different elements (human and non-human) that so far have played a strategic role and the relationships between them regarding – first- the “Cous Cous Fest” are here considered.

2.2 The role of the “Cous Cous Fest” for the development of San Vito Lo Capo (Tp)

As Getz (2006) remembers, there is a rich literature on the event tourism and on the connected contribution to the development of a destination (Quinn, 2006). Between the different typologies of planned event (cultural celebrations, political and state, art and entertainment, business and trade, educational and scientific, sport competition, recreational, private events – Gets, 2008:404), considering their temporal, spatial and thematic dimensions (Jago, McArdle, 1999), we pay attention on festival, more precisely on a gastronomic celebration. An event, above all a cultural one, can be a big opportunity to develop a territory if it is planned according to a sustainable perspective (Carmichael, 2002; Mowforth, Munt, 2009; Miller, Twining-Ward, Simpson et al., 2013) this is by considering three dimensions: socio-cultural, ecologic, economic; compatibility with the inhabitants (habits, traditions, religion, etc.), the environment and the economic resources of the territory (professionals, money for investments, products, monuments, artistic and natural sites, local knowledge, etc.)

During the years 1998-2012 of the “Cous Cous Fest” visitors in the month of September alone passed from almost 11,000 to over 80,000 with a 10-fold annual increase in the number of foreign visitors and business worth €7million. According to Matteo Rizzo, mayor of San Vito Lo Capo “year after year, the Event comes up trumps as the best anti-economic crisis expedient available; the town is clearly going against trends found in other tourist spots in Italy. By using the positive advertising campaign which the Fest generates, the town is able to take advantage of the deseasonalization of visitor flows and of an exponential increase in visitor numbers, creating business throughout the

year (based on the average per capita expenditure of every visitor) of approx. €50million. [...].The number of hotel and non-hotel accommodation structures in the town has also grown from 24 in 1997 to 136 in 2011 and the number of beds from 2,862 to 6,245; an average of 1.5 beds per inhabitant" (Feedback, 2012). During the same period new shops, bars and restaurants opened all around giving to the territory a typical touristy image.

In the following paragraphs we try to consider tourism development in San Vito Lo Capo (past, present and future) by answering to three questions:

Q1: Have tourist arrivals to San Vito Lo Capo increased during the "Cous Cous Fest"? (§ 3.2.1.)

Q2: Which representative model can depict the principal determinants of the economic development of the destination? (§ 3.3.)

Q3: How can tourism be improved in the future? (§ 3.3.)

3.Empirical Research

San Vito Lo Capo is geographically surrounded by a group of mountains and accessible only through a single road. It means that it could be considered – to a first approximation - as a single point in the regional tourism system and recognized from all tourism segments as a seaside tourism destination.

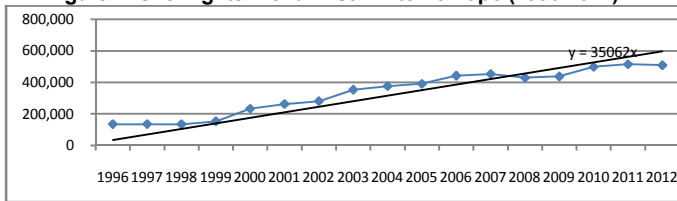
Tourism in this small size destination, emerged in a measurable way in 1990's, since then tourism has grown to the point that the number of overnight stays rose from 134,507 in 1996 to 508,659 in 2012. The growth in demand has been matched by a substantial increase in beds, also offered in private homes and accommodations for rent. Also the presence of a widespread accommodation capacity consisting of private accommodations, houses and villas owned by residents who are part of a type of hospitality called "non-traditional". The dimension of homes in San Vito Lo Capo on 2012 used to host tourists are – officially - 82 that are able to offer 952 beds.

The particularity of this destination case study consists in the presence of a special food event named "Cous Cous Fest" (CCF), described before. Started in 1998, this Event started up a new trend for tourism, attracting new demand, increasing year by year tourism flows, in a middle season. Indeed, the Event

temporally takes place during the last week of September but, since June (“Cous Cous Fest Preview”), it moves a lot of tourism visitors and generates a great impact in term of destination communication and promotion.

In this way, to demonstrate the hypothesis, that CCF generates a destination development, we think that it is reasonable to assume that this one week event contributed to reinforce the brand destination, through the increase of tourism overnights in the next periods.

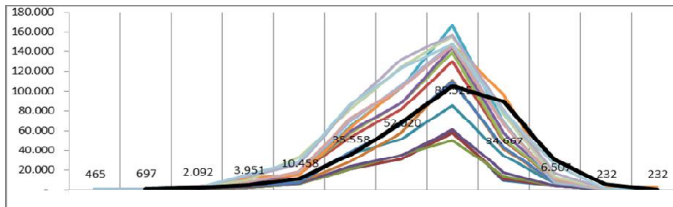
Figure 1: Overnights Trend in San Vito Lo Capo (1996-2012)



Source: Our elaboration – OTIE Database

Focusing on tourism demand considering distribution by month, we can observe from the Figure 2, the contribution of CCF in the shoulder months (May/July and September/October). It means that overnights increased in 5 months, and considering also the trend calculated by moving average (2003), the Figure shows a more concentration on tourism overnights on September, after the August month.

Figure 2: Overnights distribution per month in San Vito Lo Capo (1996-2012)

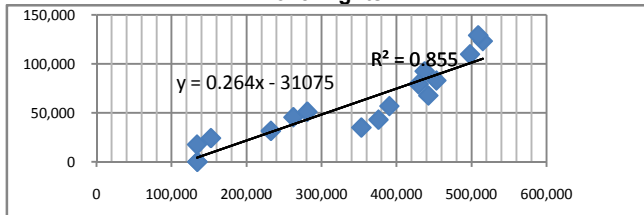


Source: Our elaboration – OTIE Database

Due to data set and the survey (interviews, questionnaires and observations), it was calculated the number of participants (tourists and daily visitors) in the festival. In this way a statistical correlation[†] was determined between two variables: overnight stays per year(X) and Cous Cous Fest Daily Visitors (Y). The data set consider a period of 17 years, from 1996 up to 2012. The R² index shows an high correlation between X,Y, demonstrating that there is a more than positive effects, with an index of 0,8556 . A second application was conducted considering as X and Y variable the Italian tourism and foreign tourism. The R² index in the case of Italian tourist a value of 0,7848 less than foreign tourist 0,8728. This differences in numbers shows that international tourism component to San Vito Lo Capo tourism development is more relevant.

In our opinion, the study of this tourism destination in terms of its development due to the CCF effect offers interesting insights for policies that could be offered to other small tourism destinations.

Figure 3: Correlation between CCF Visitors and Tourist overnights



Source: Our elaboration – OTIE Database

[†]Correlation was calculated considering the two variables: overnight stays per year(X) and Cous Cous Fest Daily Visitors (Y):

$$\text{Corr}(X, Y) = \frac{\sum (x-\bar{x})(y-\bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum (x-\bar{x})^2 \sum (y-\bar{y})^2}}$$

3.1A portrayal of the Sicilian Destination of San Vito Lo Capo by Using the Actor-Network Theory: Status Quo and Future Developments

From the results of our empirical analysis it's clear that the "Cous Cous Fest" had a fundamental role in developing San Vito Lo Capo as a successful tourist destination. To understand in a deeper way *how* and *why* it happened (typical motivations to realize a case study according to the mentioned contribution of Yin), we decided to describe the "Cous Cous Fest" as a system inside the wider system of its territory; this is, enlarging the "value constellation" concept of Normann, Ramirez (1993), to describe the constellation of actors and "actants" of the Cous Cous Fest, inside those one of the destination of San Vito Lo Capo. So far, most of the surveys focalized their attention on the role of specific actors in structuring a constellation, or in other words a network (of firms) and – sometimes - on the intensity of the linkages (supply perspective). The opportunity to start the mapping process by the main "actan"-this is the "cous cous" - gives us a quite complete representation of the "knots" of the network and of a possible further development of it. The "Cous Cous Fest" is a typical multidimensional event: it is a combination of various sub-events, it puts together different actors and "actants", it is strictly connected with the territory of San Vito Lo Capo and with the wider territory of the Province of Trapani. There are three main different sub-events: the culinary competition, the gastronomic laboratory, together with the tasting stands, and several complementary events (i.e. concerts, cultural conference, literary/poetry round table, street entertainment, fashion shows, documentaries, etc.) most of them directly or indirectly connected with cous cous and various Mediterranean culinary themes. In other words different actors and different material and immaterial elements ("actants") are directly involved in the event. At the same time, other actors and elements (most of the destination) are indirectly connected or related to the Fest. The focal point of the whole festival system is occupied by the cous cous. These are the fundamental elements of the representative model (Figure 4) we were looking for the second research question (Question2).

Two of the three mentioned sub-events are exclusively developed around cous cous: the international gastronomic competition concerns the realization of dishes of cous cous; every

national team prepares a special dish with cous cous for a jury of culinary experts. After a week of competition the jury selects the winner of the Fest. Since 1998 the winners have been: 1998 (Tunisia), 1999 (Israel), 2000 (Tunisia), 2001 (Palestine), 2002, (Italy), 2003 (Morocco), 2004 (Tunisia), 2005 (Algeria), 2006 (Ivory Coast), 2007 (Israel), 2008 (Ivory Coast), 2009 (Italy), 2010 (Tunisia), 2011 (France), 2012 (France).

Even the gastronomic laboratories together with the tasting stands are prevalently centered on preparing and offering cous cous dishes, that are usually of meat, fish or vegetables; apart from cooking these different ingredients the preparation of the base – strictly of the cous cous – requires a careful and handcraft treatment of the durum wheat (“incocciata”). During the laboratories it is possible to learn how to prepare the base and develop different recipes involving visitors in an unforgettable experience.

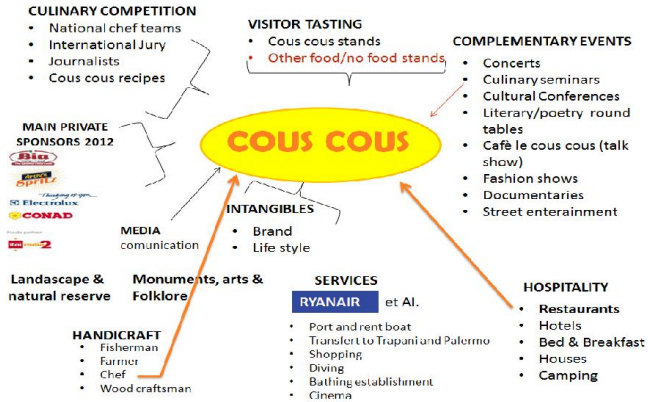
In any case, cous cous and its various recipes are the protagonists of most of the different complementary event (i.e. round table on the “Mediterranean diet”, and in particular on eating cous cous). Moreover, the main sponsor of the Fest is a leader brand of pre-cooked cous cous. Because the original preparation of (the base of) cous cous is not a very fast and easy procedure, in everyday life recipes are prepared with pre-cooked cous cous. In the last years, “Barilla” first and “Bia” later, were the main sponsors of the Fest. Moreover some gastronomic national and international magazines (or culinary section of newspapers) dedicated special issues or insert to the Fest and the recipes of the edition.

Such as in Cuba «[...] cigar appears as a ramified ‘thing’, a ‘gathering’, a complex assemblage drawing together the specific qualities of Cuba’s soil and climate and the work of a range of skillful professionals» (Simoni, 2012), the same can be considered in San Vito Lo Capo with cous cous. Along the streets, in all the restaurants, the “sanvitese cous cous” (a recipe with fish soup) is well publicized. Cous cous is an expression that is present in the name of some restaurants such as the famous “Casa del cous cous sanvitese” (*tr.* House of San Vito cous cous), founded by Enzo Battaglia that in 1982 launched the first original idea of a cous cous festival (“sagra del cous cous”), when he was the mayor of city. Another restaurant is “Profumi di cous cous” (*tr.* Perfumes of cous cous). In the collective imagination

San Vito means and remember cous cous. The tourist season finish at the end of September with the “Cous Cous Fest” (with the international culinary competition), and – in the last years - it starts in June, with the “Cous Cous Fest Preview” (a similar but smaller and national culinary competition). The Cous Cous Fest allowed an effective market stretching for the destination; the last week of September is overbooked like (or more than) the central weeks of August (typically considered in Italy “high season”, this is the most crowded period from a tourist point of view).

We said that during the “Cous Cous Fest” there are, at list, three main sub-events that are organized and managed by actors directly involved in the Fest; this is for the mayor and the city government, the communication and organization company *Feedback srl*, the “civil protection authority”, the local schools and above all those provincial with a curriculum study in tourism, food and beverage. Each of these actors is active, before and during the Fest because of it and for it, with special activities. To realize a successful “Cous Cous Fest”, and above all to allow a wider effectiveness of it (this is a further economic development for the whole population), the actors considered are not enough; it’s important to attract, or at least making involved, more realities and persons (i.e. services, hospitality structures, handicraftsmen, etc.) present in the territory. Moreover one should consider even the material/immaterial resources (“actants”) and actors out of the municipality and connected to the Province (the wider administrative territory of Trapani city). One of the most important “actants” of the Province of Trapani and one of the most important actors that plays a precious role for the tourist development of San Vito Lo Capo and the success of the “Cous Cous Fest” are the Airport of Birgi and Ryanair with its 36 destinations (13 domestic and 23 international).

Figure 4: A concise representation of the “Cous Cous Fest 2012” by using an ANT Approach

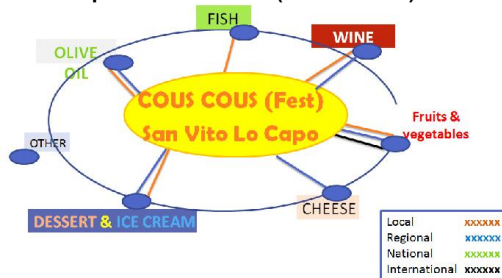


Starting from the mapping processes considered so far, in our opinion a further development of the destination (Question3) will pass through a more synergic and conscious organization and management of the, local and not, resources (“actants”); from a better interconnection among the various actors of the destination; from a reinforcement of the brand identity of the territory by using the “cous cous idea”, rather than through the multiplication of various, different, not correlated and small events. It will pass through the constitution of a (public-private) Destination Management Organization able to project and implement in a synergetic way events, entertainments and cultural activities, tours, transportation, tourist information on hospitality and other services; a DMO plays its role if it possesses expertise and an extensive local knowledge of the territory, of its resources, of its actual and potential actors. By keeping in contact (and facilitating their relationship) actors and “actants”, this is by fostering the *entrepreneurship ecosystem* (Isenberg, 2010) of the destination, the DMO could play in the future a propulsive economic role to sustain in a tutorial way the start-up process of new ventures. (According to Isenberg (2010) an *entrepreneurship ecosystem* is an environment in which,

typically, entrepreneurs are most successful; an environment in which they can find the human, financial and professional resources they need quite easily; an environment in which government policies encourage and safeguard entrepreneurs; this is an environment characterized by a network of various and interrelated stakeholders. Typical examples are those of silicon Valley, Route 128, and so on.)

For a further development of San Vito Lo Capo we think it's important to link the Cous Cous Fest with other similar regional and/or provincial events. In this direction the DMO of San Vito Lo Capo should use and expand the experience of local operators from the last seventeen years to help other close territories with proper typical food products to develop a similar gastronomic event. The "Cous Cous Fest" could be considered as the principal and central event of a network of provincial and/or regional events and play a leader role in the economic (agricultural/gastronomic/tourist) development of the Province of Trapani and more of the regional territory of Sicily. To reach a wider visibility from a marketing point of view the considered model of local (provincial) and/or regional development could be expanded towards a national or international scale (an hypothetical example can be represented by a linkage with the Oktoberfest in Munich).

Figure 5: Linkages/alliances with other food products and possible festivals (destinations)



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THE ECONOMIC IMPACT OF CRUISE:A EUROPEAN APPROACH

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The cruise industry is one of the most dynamic markets with significant investments made primarily in port facilities worldwide and in building luxury cruise ships as well. Cruising combines a great part of the “tourism chain”, such as transportation, catering, tourism, recreation and travel. It includes elements of the product market, educational activities and has evolved as a peculiar destination. The aim of the article is to examine the economic and statistical data of cruise through a European approach, based on secondary data and research. The evolution of the direct economic impacts will be captured and there will be a talk of the total economic impacts of the European Cruise Sector. Useful conclusions will be drawn which will help us make an overview of the European cruise.

1. Introduction

“Cruise tourism” is a choice of a suitable shaped ship which can be used both as a residence and entertainment and as a means of transportation. The cruise ship offers the opportunity to a large numbers of tourists to visit major ports and discover different cultures.

The main objective of the activity of the maritime tourism is to provide the cruise tourism product. As Wild and Dearing (2000) say, the main sectors of the cruise as a tourism chain are the transport, the tourism, the entertainment and the trip.

Over the past two decades, the cruise line industry has become one of the fastest growing segments in the travel industry. The cruise industry has already developed into a mass market using large vessels in accordance with the cruise industry of the 1960's (Rodrigue and Notteboom, 2012). According with Chin (2008), Weaver (2005) and Wood (2000) the cruise industry has become a symbol of globalization of the tourism industry in terms of its market coverage, its practices and the mobility of its assets. As Hobson (1993) and Peisley (1992) say cruise industry is one of the major growth areas of the international tourism.

Today, the major cruise markets are the Caribbean, the Mediterranean, Europe, Alaska, Trans-Canal, West USA, Hawaii and South America. Europe is an important destination for cruisers growing its market share on the world map. In 2010 5.5 millions of Europeans made a cruise, an increase of 10% compared to the previous year. During 2010 there were 45 cruise lines domiciled in Europe, operating 132 cruise ships and 41 cruise lines in 2011. The 2010 revenue from cruise passengers amounted to 14.5 billion in direct costs and in total to 35.2 billion for the full financial circuit associated with the cruise industry.

The cruise industry has created a total of more than 300,000 jobs in Europe and has around € 4.4 billion payroll for those directly employed in it, and € 9.3 billion in wages to those affected by the business sector. The cruise industry generated significant economic impacts throughout Europe. In 2011, cruise industry direct expenditures increased by 3.3 % from 2010 to € 15 billion.

Each passenger is estimated that spends about 100 euros during his visit at each port and the total visits to European ports reach 25 million passengers each year, representing an expenditure of nearly € 2.5 billion. The 99% of the cruise ships build in European shipyards, which in turn supply the 99% of the cruise equipment from European suppliers.

The European cruise industry in general is quite developed, with a total operating income of about €32,2 billion and approximately €14,2 billion in direct costs, resulting from passengers and cruise companies. Specifically the Mediterranean, which along with the Caribbean comprises the two main cruise destinations with over the 60% of cruise passengers worldwide. In this respect Greece is placed in a developed market, facing direct competition from countries in the Eastern Mediterranean and the Black Sea.

According to the European Cruise Council (2011), during 2010 there 45 cruise lines domiciled in Europe, operating 132 cruise ships with a capacity of around 137,100 lower berths. Another 66 vessels with a capacity of nearly 81,000 lower berths were deployed in Europe by non-European lines. Over 5.5 million European residents booked cruises, a 10% increase over 2009, representing nearly 30% of all cruise passengers worldwide.

More than 5.2 million passengers embarked on their cruises from a European port, a 7.6% increase over 2009. Of these over 4 million were European nationals and about 1.2 million came from outside Europe. The vast majority of these cruises visited ports in the Mediterranean, the Baltic and other European regions, generating 25.2 million passenger visits at a total of around 250 European port cities, a 6.0% increase over 2009. In addition, an estimated 13.2 million crew also arrived at European ports.

There were 41 cruise lines domiciled in Europe, operating 120 cruise ships with a capacity of around 143,200 lower berths. Another 76 vessels with a capacity of nearly 97,000 lower berths were deployed in Europe by 25 non-European lines. Nearly 6.2 million European residents booked cruises, a 9.0% increase over 2010, representing around 30% of all cruise passengers worldwide. An estimated 5.6 million passengers embarked on their cruises from a European port, a 7.1% increase over 2010. Of these around 4.8 million were European nationals and about 0.8 million came from outside Europe.

The vast majority of these cruises visited ports in the Mediterranean, the Baltic and other European regions, generating 28.1 million passenger visits at a total of around 250 European port cities, a 9.7% increase over 2010. In addition, an estimated 14.3 million crew also arrived at European ports.

2. Economic Impact of the European Cruise Sector

The European cruise industry is defined as those cruise-related activities that take place within Europe including cruise itineraries that visit European ports and destinations and also directly impact businesses and individuals located in Europe. It is broadly defined to include cruise lines and their employees; the direct suppliers to the cruise lines, such as wholesale distributors,

stevedoring firms, and financial and business service providers, such as insurers and consultants; shipyards; and cruise passengers.

Impressive results for 2011 meant that the cruise sector's contribution to European economies had almost doubled, and the number of jobs generated increased by more than two-thirds, in just six years. The total economic impact of €36.7 billion was up 4.4% on 2010, and once again outstripped the contribution made by the North American cruise sector on the US economy, which increased nearly 7% to \$40.4 billion - about €32 billion - in 2011. In terms of direct expenditure, the amount spent by cruise lines on goods and services from European businesses increased from €6 billion in 2010 to €6.4 billion in 2011 (ECC, 2012).

Total passenger and crew spending on flights, pre- and post-cruise hotel stays, shore excursions, F&B and other purchases ashore rose nearly 11% to €3.4 billion in 2011. Embarking passengers spent on average nearly €74 (€70 in 2010) at the embarkation port and €216 (€215) on airfares. There was a marginal rise - from €60 to €61 - in passenger spending at each transit port, which meant that the average spend across every port on a cruise was just short of €100.

Table 1 shows the economic impact of European cruise sector from 2005 till 2011 in € billion.

Table 1: Economic Impact of European Cruise Sector

	2005	2008	2010	2011	Change 2011 vs 2005
	€ billion	€ billion	€ billion	€ billion	
Direct Expenditures	8.3	14.2	14.5	15.0	+81.3%
Direct Compensation	2.8	4.6	4.4	4.6	+64.5%
Total Compensation	6.0	10.0	9.3	9.8	+63.7%
Total Economic benefit	19.1	32.2	35.2	36.7	+92.6%
No. of direct jobs	90,104	150,369	150,401	153,012	+69.8%
Total jobs	187,252	311,512	307,506	315,500	+68.5%

Source: ECC (2012).

In 2011 there were 41 cruise lines domiciled in Europe, operating 120 cruise ships with a capacity of around 143,200 lower berths. Another 76 vessels with a capacity of nearly 97,000 lower berths were deployed in Europe by 25 non-European lines. An estimated 5.6 million passengers embarked on their cruises from a European port, a 7.1% increase over 2010. Of these around 4.8 million were European nationals and about 0.8 million came from outside Europe (ECC Report, 2011).

In 2011, the cruise industry generated direct expenditures of €15 billion. During 2011 there were some 26 cruise ships on the order books of the European shipyards. €3.8 billion in spending for the construction of new cruise ships and the maintenance and refurbishment of existing ships with European shipyards, a 7.9% decline from 2010. €6.4 billion in spending by cruise lines with European businesses for goods and services in support of their cruise operations, an increase of 6.7% over 2010.

The three countries of Italy, the UK and Germany accounted for 66% of the direct expenditures of the cruise industry. These three countries experienced a combined increase of 4.2% indirect expenditures from 2010. The top five countries experienced a combined 6.5% growth in direct cruise industry expenditures during 2011.

Table 2 shows the economic benefits from cruise sector by country.

Table 2: Total Economic Impacts of the Cruise Sector by Country (2011)

Country	Direct Expenditures €Million	Growth from 2010	Total Jobs	Total Compensation €Million
Italy	€ 4,450	-1.9%	100,089	€ 3,043
UK	€ 2,830	10.2%	63,834	€ 2,332
Germany	€ 2,524	9.5%	39,238	€ 1,433
Spain	€ 1,298	9.4%	27,497	€ 834
France	€ 1,224	25.9%	16,009	€ 726
Top Five	€ 12,326	6.5%	246,667	€ 8,368
Rest of the EU+3	€ 2,631	-9.4%	68,833	€ 1,434
Total	€ 14,957	3.3%	315,500	€ 9,802

Source: ECC (2011).

The cruise industry in Europe is a dynamic source of economic activity providing economic benefits to virtually all

industries and countries throughout Europe. Over 6 million European residents booked cruises in 2011, a 9.0% increase over 2010. In 2011, Europeans represented nearly 30% of all cruise passengers worldwide, compared with 22% ten years earlier.

The vast majority visited ports in the Mediterranean, the Baltic and other European regions and generated 27.8 million passenger visits during 2011, a 9.7% increase over 2010 (ECC Report, 2011).

Over the five-year period from 2012 to 2016, 24 cruise vessels have been scheduled for delivery for worldwide trading with capacity for 67,325 passengers. Out of the total, 13 ships with 30,375 berths (45.1%) are primarily for the European source market, representing investment of €9.5 billion; two of these ships with capacity for 6,500 passengers are to be built in Japan. Many of the others will visit European destinations.

In Table 3 there are the cruise ship orders 2012-2016.

Table 3: Cruise Ship Orders

Year Completed	Ships	Berths	Investment (Millions)
2012	7	19,168	€ 3,822
2013	6	14,050	€ 2,497
2014	6	18,898	€ 3,272
2015	4	11,959	€ 2,150
2016	1	3,250	€ 500
Total	24	67,325	€ 12,241

Source: ECC (2011).

3. The Mediterranean Cruise Market

As for the Mediterranean in 2011 a total of 171 cruise ships were active in its waters with a capacity of 221,419 lower berths with an average of 1,295 berths per ship. These ships carried a potential 4.08 million passengers on 2,958 cruises, offering a total capacity of 33.79 million pax-nights, giving an average cruise length of 8.3 nights. A further 465,000 potential passengers cruised the Atlantic Isles (CLIA's Cruise Market Overview, 2011).

The Mediterranean market was expected to contract in 2012 to around 30.7 million pax-nights, caused by the withdrawal of some North American capacity, together with the aftermath of the Costa Concordia disaster.

In 2011, North American operators deployed 57 ships with 83,513 lower berths in the Mediterranean, including some ships targeted at European markets. In comparison, European domiciled lines operated 114 vessels, which offered 137,906 lower berths.

The Mediterranean is the world's second most popular cruising arena, behind the Caribbean. In 2010 it accounted for 18% of the global cruise market representing 18,538 bed days according to CLIA's Cruise Market Overview shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Bed Days

BED DAYS, 2000-2010						
Area	2000	Share 2000	2010	Share 2010	VAR BED	VAR SHARE
Caribbean	21.510	39,93%	36.272	34,8%	14.762	-5,09%
Med	6.277	11,65%	18.538	17,8%	12.261	6,15%
Europe	3.745	6,95%	9.029	8,67%	5.284	1,72%
Alaska	4.197	7,79%	5.959	5,72%	1.762	-2,07%
Pacific Mexico	2.681	4,98%	4.947	4,75%	2.266	-0,23%
Bahamas	3.200	5,94%	6.795	6,53%	3.595	0,59%
Other	12.253	22,75%	22.569	21,7%	10.316	-1,05%
Total	53.863		104.109		50.246	

Source: CLIA Cruise Market Overview (2011).

4. The Northern European Cruise Market

In Northern Europe In 2011 a total of 102 cruise ships were active in Northern European waters with a capacity of 111,188 lower berths with an average of 1,090 berths per ship. These carried a potential of 1.26 million passengers on 1,051 cruises, offering a total capacity of 11.18 million pax-nights, giving an average cruise length of 8.9 nights.

According to the European Cruise Council (2011) the Northern European market grew by around 15% in 2011 and is expected to expand further in 2012 to around 13.2 million pax-nights and to continue to grow in 2013. In 2011, North American operators deployed 29 ships, with 38,153 lower berths in Northern Europe. European domiciled cruise lines operated 59 vessels with 71,216 lower berths. The balance was largely made up of niche market ships visiting the polar-regions.

The Baltic is the largest segment in the Northern Europe market, generating about 3.6 million passenger port visits in 2011 and around 4 million in 2012. Many of the leading European ports are regarded as “must see” or “marquee” destinations that destination planners will wish to include in their itineraries. Other ports, some of which are also marquee ports in their own right, have advantages of strategic position, access to major hub airports and suitable bed-stock, enabling them to feature prominently as Home Ports.

5. Conclusion

The purpose of this paper is to identify the economic impact of cruise in a European approach. It is examined the cruise sector of Europe in terms of economic expenditures, passengers' preferences and also the cruise ship orders.

The European cruise sector continued to buck economic trends in 2010 with another strong performance, increasing its contribution to Europe's economies by 3%. In many respects, cruise tourists will have an impact on a national economy similar to that of other foreign visitors (Dwyer and Forsyth, 1998).

The foreign exchange earnings and the economic impact on the host economy will depend on the visitors' direct and indirect expenditure, and on the extent to which the associated expenditure relates to goods and services sourced from within the region or sourced from elsewhere (ECC, 2011).

The number of direct and indirect jobs generated by the cruise sector was over 315,000 compared with some 180,000 five years ago. The overwhelming majority of the world's cruise ships are built by European shipyards (up to 2016 they are scheduled to deliver 24 new vessels with a combined capacity of 67,000 passengers). The number of people who chose a cruise holiday in Europe has more than doubled in the past decade (ECC, 2011).

Generally, cruise is making inroads in the tourism sector although just 2% of the total tourist market took a cruise in 2011. There seems a hopeful future for cruise in Europe, as there are more jobs offered and more and more tourists prefer to experience the cruise comparatively to the previous years.

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CRUISE SHIP TOURISM: DEVELOPMENT AND PROSPECTS FOR THE TOWN OF AGHIOS NIKOLAOS (CRETE, GREECE)

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Aghios Nikolaos is a shoreline town located on the North East coast of Crete. It is a cosmopolitan resort welcoming thousands of visitors every year, yet it suffers lately from the disadvantages of mass tourism. As a react, local authorities shifted their attention to promoting alternative modes of tourism in the region. In this paper, we examine the development of cruise tourism in Aghios Nikolaos. We investigate the port's capacity and the existing infrastructure, and study the competitive advantages of the port and the town as a cruise tourism destination. We propose measures and synergies that should be undertaken by policy makers in order to further improve the sector, and boost its competitiveness. Finally, an examination of the impacts of cruise tourism in the region is attempted in order to address issues relevant to the sustainability of this development.

1. Introduction

Modern lifestyles in urban environments see a humanized approach to holidaymaking as an imperative, reflected in tourism preferences and a need to escape from everyday routine. The interest in vacations in peaceful and natural surroundings is bringing changes to tourist trends. As a result, new forms of tourism are emerging, targeted to meet the needs of modern

people that demand a rich and diverse tourism product. Vacationing is no longer about spending passive and idle holidays in a tourist destination, but about how to spend leisure time as actively as possible. This type of holiday making is made possible through cruise tourism, which brings together sports, recreational activities and relaxation.

The cruise industry is a dynamic sub-sector of maritime tourism and has been exhibiting a significant increase of demand at an international level during the last 30 years (Diakomihalis, 2007). Namely, the sector has evolved into a complete and complex vacation business, including all the different sectors of the travel industry and has grown steadily, at an estimated annual growth rate of 7,5%, since 1980. As a matter of fact, it is the fastest growing sector of the travel industry today exhibiting twice the rate of growth of tourism overall (Brida and Zapata-Aguirre 2009; Peisley, 2005). The cruise is a multi-complex concept and combines a large part of the so called tourist chain: transport, catering/provisioning, tourism, entertainment and travel (Wild and Dearing, 2000). Cruises are destinations in themselves and, viewed in this way the cruise sector is among the top ten destinations both in number of arrivals and receipts (Brida and Zapata-Aguirre 2009). Cruising constitutes a considerable foreign currency inflow activity, and consequently, substantial investments have been made worldwide, mainly in port facilities as well in the shipbuilding of luxurious cruisers.

The purpose of this paper is the study of the development and the prospects of the cruise tourism sector in the town of Aghios Nikolaos, Crete. In Sections 2 and 3, we present a brief overview of the evolution of the cruise tourism industry worldwide, and Greece, respectively. In Section 4, we present the characteristics of the port of Aghios Nikolaos, in Section 5, we examine the pros and cons of the town as a cruise ship destination, and Section 6 provides a short history of the evolution of the sector in the region. Section 7, provides a rough examination of the impacts of cruise tourism in the region, while the last section presents our conclusions and suggestions for future research.

2. Growth of Cruise Tourism Industry

The inspiration of cruising originated in 1835 by the Peninsular & Oriental Steam Navigator Company (P&O), a British shipping and logistics company with the Mediterranean being the first destination in 1844. Cruise tourism, as is known today can be traced back to the beginning of the 1960s, while its modern version dates from the 1970s with the development of the North American industry. It then experienced an increasing process of popularization, and today cruising is considered a major part of the tourism sector, with an enormous significance world-wide as an economic factor. In the late 1990s, cruise travel was revitalised and today cruise ships have become destinations or floating resorts rather than primarily means of transport due to a multimillion investment into new, more innovative and ever-bigger vessels capable of carrying more than 3000 passengers. The dynamic sector is continuously expanding its offer of products and services and developing new markets (Dowling, 2006). Moreover, cruise lines today offer lower fares and shorter cruises to benefit from economy of scale and onboard activities such as multi-story shopping centers, restaurants, cafes and pubs, nightclubs, discos, casinos, art galleries and museums, theatres and cinemas, libraries, personal care areas and spas, gyms, swimming pools, tennis courts, ice skating rings, and a long wide variety of amenities to meet the changing vacation patterns of today's market and exceed the expectations of its customers with practically a cruise option for everyone (Wind Rose Network, 2013). The growth of the sector, as reflected in the number of passengers worldwide, was from half a million passengers in 1970 to 1,4 million in 1980, 3,8 million in 1990, 7,2 million in 2000, 14,8 million in 2010, and 17,2 million passengers in 2012 (CLIA, 2013). Furthermore, this rise is expected to continue through the 21st century.

Traditionally, the North American industry is dominant, representing more than 80% of all worldwide markets, but this percentage exhibits a decreasing tendency (CLIA, 2013), and according to some experts, European and Asian markets promise great possibilities of growing.

The three largest cruise operators are Carnival Corporation (the undisputed leader in the sector and the most profitable leisure company in the world), Royal Caribbean International, and Star Cruises/Norwegian Cruise Lines. Among the companies of more modest size are Crystal Cruises (subsidiary of the Japanese NYK), Silversea and Raddisson Seas. It's worth noting that, in most cases the corporate offices of these companies are located in the United States and Europe, and therefore, their clientele comes mostly from these same areas. Nonetheless, most of their fleet is registered in Panama, Liberia, Bermuda and Bahamas, in order to obtain a series of benefits and advantages that allow for a better economic balance and competitiveness derived from more favorable standards concerning taxation, labor laws and safety and environmental regulations (Wind Rose Network, 2013).

Today, a fleet composed of several hundred of Boutique, Small, Med-size, Large and Mega ships, carrying millions of passengers, plies routes in all geographical areas in an expanding range of more than 500 destinations worldwide, serving a heterogeneous clientele with well-differentiated expectations and preferences. The Caribbean cruises are the favorite ones, accounting for 41.02% of all itineraries, followed by Mediterranean, Alaska and the Pacific regions (Dowling, 2006).

The Mediterranean Sea and its main ports located in Barcelona, Athens, Rome, Malta, Tunisia, Egypt, and others generates high expectations for economic benefit from commerce, tourist services and operators. Undeniably, the richness and diversity of history, geography and culture of the Eastern Mediterranean and the exceptionally beautiful coastlines of the region with the relatively calm seas and the mild climate, could form the ideal basis for the region to become the centre of world cruising. However, political turmoil, wars and terrorism, as well as delayed appreciation by the governments of the region of the benefits from cruising, as well as the lack of investment in infrastructure and promotion, have kept the big international cruise companies away for long periods. Eastern Mediterranean ports as Piraeus, Mykonos, Santorini, Rhodes and Kusadasi have made significant gains in terms of passenger throughputs compared to other leading South European ports. However, when compared to the corresponding numbers of two decades ago, it is clearly evident that significant ground has been lost to

competing regions, and more specifically to the Western Mediterranean (UNWTO, 2006).

3. The Cruise Tourism in Greece

The development of Cruise Tourism in Greece started in 1930. Since then Greece has been regarded as one of the most popular destinations in the Mediterranean (Diakomihakis, 2007). According to the European Cruise Council (ECC, 2011) Greece retains 17% of the total European cruise market with 4,78 millions of visitors in year 2011, holding third place, after Italy and Spain. Santorini, Piraeus and Mykonos emerged as the three most popular destinations from a total of 17 call ports in Greece. The paradox is that when we consider cruise revenue, Greece drops to the sixth place in Europe which is not so satisfactory and this is mainly due to the fact that only a slight percentage of cruise companies select Greek ports for home porting, that is select to start and end their trip at a Greek port (Stefanidaki and Lekakou, 2012). Despite the potential of the country for further growth in the cruise sector, there are various obstacles that hinder the development of cruise tourism in Greece, i.e. the legislative environment and the associated bureaucratic relevant procedures, the lack of appropriate relevant infrastructure, the poor berth allocation system, the lack of the institutional framework as a host state and the high fees charged compared to the relatively poor provision of services to cruise companies and their vessels (Dimou and Simantiraki, 2010). It is worth noting that until the 1990s Greek companies were pioneers and very active in the international market. However, today, there is only one Cypriot company, Luis Cruises, which operates two Greek-flagged vessels that cruise the Aegean.

4. Port of Call: Aghios Nikolaos, Crete

Aghios Nikolaos is the capital of the Lassithi Prefecture, one of the four prefectures of the island of Crete, and it is a small coastal town of 12000 residents built around an exquisite lake and situated on the shores of the picturesque bay of Mirabello. Moreover, Aghios Nikolaos is a historic city settled in the late Bronze Age by the Dorian occupants of the ancient city of Lato

pros Kamara. Today, it is a well established international and cosmopolitan summer resort that welcomes thousands of visitors every year. It has a lively cosmopolitan atmosphere, a postcard-perfect marina and busy nightlife. The sea in Aghios Nikolaos is superb and the surrounding area of the town is noted for its sandy beaches and beautiful bays. Nonetheless, the town is not immune to the drawbacks of mass tourism. In particular, the main disadvantages of the area's tourism are: a) the seasonality in arrivals, b) the shrinkage of the tourism season, c) the strong dependency on international tour operators, d) the all-inclusive system, and e) the competition from emerging tourism destinations. The municipality, tourism managers and policy makers have realized the critical situation and they shifted their attention to reposition the destination to appeal to more tourism segments. Repositioning a destination means focusing on the best overall strategy to improve the destination's image and satisfy the tourism segment (s) that provide the best sustainable growth opportunities (Kozak and Martin, 2012). The geomorphology and the climate of the area, with the rich natural, cultural and social resources, strengthen the efforts for the development of special and alternatives forms of tourism. Such a form, to which is given special attention by the municipality, is the cruise tourism.

The passenger port of Agios Nikolaos is located in the heart of the town and is a safe and well protected port in all weather conditions. Two modern docks of 136 and 209 meters length each, constructed in 2005, are capable of accommodating two medium size ships (250 meters length max) if they berth alongside the pier. The port basin of 10m depth provides sufficient space and depth for cruise ship maneuvering. Among the facilities provided to cruise ship passengers is an information kiosk and WC facility. Unfortunately, a cruise passenger terminal is still missing from the port, but the need for its constructions has been well realized by the local authority, and the relevant pre feasibility plan (draft plan) has already been prepared.

5. Strengths and Weakness of the Town's Port

Aghios Nikolaos is a town of natural beauty offering many attractions to the tourist. Besides, it serves as a hub to the twenty

or so small villages and farms that make up that part of Lassithi part of Lassithi (Wikipedia Foundation, 2013a) and it provides easy access to several places of cultural heritage value, as is the historic island of Spinalonga. Moreover, the Palace of Knossos, which is indisputably the most important archaeological site in Crete, is only 40 minutes' drive away from the port. Additionally, the nearest airport, Heraklion's International airport, which is served by many international and domestic airlines connecting the island of Crete to all Europe destinations with several flights per day, is within a distance of only 64km.

When considering the competitive advantages of the town as a cruise ship destination, one has to refer to the fact that it offers visitors a secure environment with zero crime and civil unrest and a hospitable atmosphere. Furthermore, an info kiosk at the port welcomes the visitors and contributes to the creation of a friendly environment, whilst several welcoming events are organized by the local authorities, on a regular basis, during the tourist season. In fact, the port is located just a few minutes' walk from the town's center, and thus, access to shops, cafés and fine dining restaurants is convenient and tempting even for the "laziest" passengers. Last but not least, among the strengths of the port one has to point out the fact that the port does not have any other regular commercial or passenger activity.

All the above, along with the relatively low costs charged by the port authority make the port appealing to cruise operators when they schedule itineraries and select their ports of call.

On the other hand, when considering the weaknesses of the destination one needs to quote the relatively low capacity of the port as it cannot accommodate the very big cruise ships of 3000 to 3500 passengers, which, as result, prefer the other ports in Crete, neither can it accommodate more than two ships simultaneously. Thus, investing in the building or improvement of port facilities and infrastructures is definitely something the authorities have to consider seriously, if they want the town to retain or increase its portion of the market. Additionally, our research revealed (interview with a member of the staff of the port authority in 2013) that a well prepared promotion plan of the town of Aghios Nikolaos as a cruise destination or even as a tourist destination on the whole is still missing. Moreover, the construction of a modern terminal, offering high quality services to passengers as well as a permanent exhibition of local

products, should no longer be delayed. Additionally, local authorities should focus on attracting the cruise lines by participating in the relevant international exhibitions on a regular basis. In order to address all the above mentioned weaknesses, the municipality has recently hired a 'cruise expert' to work on strengthening and promoting cruise tourism in the town.

6. The Evolution of Cruise Tourism in Aghios Nikolaos

Regular cruise ships visits to the port of Aghios Nikolaos originated in the year 1987, when three small Russian cruise ships used to arrive every Saturday evening at 5:00pm and were scheduled to depart at 12.00 o'clock the following day. They carried around 400 passengers from Israel who were entertained in the local shops and enjoyed themselves at Cretan nights organized by tourist agencies. Then, there was a break that lasted for about ten years and in 2000 again several medium size cruise ships at the beginning, and larger vessels recently, started to arrive again on a regular basis to the port (interview with a member of the staff of the Port Authority in 2013). Visitors from all over the world arrive at the town on these cruise ships, the majority of which started their trip in France, Italy and Spain. Among all the nationalities, Israelis have traditionally shown a strong and enduring preference to the town of Aghios Nikolaos over the years.

Figures 1 and 2 present the cruise ship arrivals and the average number of passengers per cruise ship for the years 2002-2012. It can be seen that the number of cruise ship visits increased by an impressive 343% from 2002 to 2011, reaching a peak of 102 cruise ships that year. Regarding the number of passengers, there was a 170% increase from 2002 to 2010, from 317 passengers per cruise ship on the average, in 2002 to the peak of 855 passengers in 2010, yielding an average 21.25% increase annually. The figures prove that there is a continuously increasing demand for the port of Aghios Nikolaos, and that higher capacity cruise ships have recently included the port in their itineraries. Actually, this year, RIVIERA, a large ship of 240 m length carrying up to 1800 passengers has included Aghios Nikolaos to its itinerary and is scheduled to make seven visits in

2013. The 38% drop observed in 2012, from 102 cruise ship arrivals in 2011 to only 63 in 2012, is mostly due to the loss of Crystal Serenity, a ship that changed ownership and abandoned the port, but is also a result of the total shrinkage of the cruise market in Europe during the last two years, that has forced many cruise operators to shift their interest to new markets in Asia.

Figure 1: Cruise Ship Arrivals to Aghios Nikolaos (2002-2012)

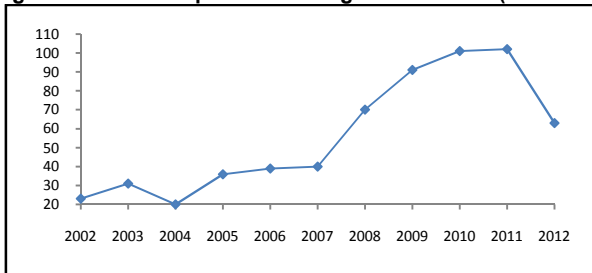
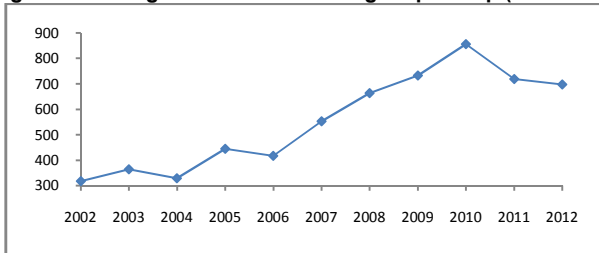


Figure 2: Average Number of Passengers per ship (2002-2012)



According to year's 2012 data obtained from the Association of Greek Port Authorities, the port of Aghios Nikolaos ranked in the tenth place, among the Greek ports, with regard to cruise ship arrivals, with 71 arrivals, and in the eleventh place (outperformed by the port of Hania) with regard to total number of cruise visitors with 48204 visitors. Ports ahead in the list, in descending order of passenger throughputs were: Piraeus, Santorini, Katakolo, Mykonos, Corfu, Rhodes, Heraklion, Kefalonia, Patmos, and Hania.

Moreover, according to the data obtained in early January from the port authority, 66 cruise ships in total are expected to

visit the port this year. The first to come, “Silver Wind” is scheduled to arrive on the 26th of March, 2013. Figure 3 presents the cruise ship arrivals on a monthly basis for the year 2013.

A closer examination of the data reveals that October is the season’s peak with eleven arrivals, while three cruise arrivals are expected in November, 2013. Actually, cruise ship visits to Crete are common even in December. This is consistent with the belief that cruise tourism could contribute to the efforts to mitigate tourism’s seasonality in region.

There are three major cruise travel agents operating in the town, i.e. Mega Travel Services, Candia Trust Ltd and Kapa Shipping Agency. Table 1 presents the cruise ships scheduled to visit Aghios Nikolaos in year 2013, according to the data obtained in January 2013 from the Port Authority SA.

Figure 3: Cruise Ship visits on a monthly basis (year 2013)

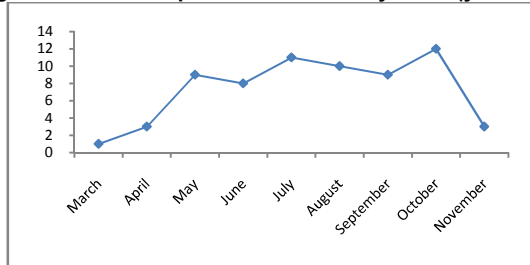


Table 1: Cruise Ships scheduled to visit Aghios Nikolaos in 2013

Mega Travel Services	Silver Wind, Golden Iris, Royal Iris Riviera, Seven Seas Mariner, Silver Cloud, Nautica, Albatros, Artania
Kapa Shipping Agency	Thomson Majesty CORAL Louis Cristal
Candia Trust Ltd	Costa Allegra, Thomson Celebration-Europa

7. Impacts of Cruise Tourism

Although, a thorough study of the impacts of cruise tourism to the town of Aghios Nikolaos at the different levels is beyond the scope of this paper, a rough examination will be attempted.

It is a common belief that having cruise ships arriving to a destination produces a major economic impact on the local economy. Indeed, although the biggest fraction of the income generated from the cruise sector remains to the cruise lines, the industry has the potential to provide economic benefits to the destination port. The expectations for economic benefits from commerce, tourist services and operators are high, and include benefits from selling goods and services to cruise vessels (e.g. port costs, marine expenses, fuel, water, maintenance) as well as to cruise passengers and the crew (shore excursions, retail goods and souvenirs from the local shops, food and beverages, restaurants, transport, etc.). Nevertheless, most ports obtain small contributions from the use of the port as a cruise destination and cruise tourism provide few real jobs and business opportunities for local residents. According to Kester (2002), the average revenue per cruise trip is almost as high as the average receipts per international tourist arrivals. But the distribution of income from cruise industry is not equitable. Economic contribution of the cruise industry depends on the size of the destination as well as on whether the port is a home port or a just port of call. From a home port, ships begin and end their trip, and therefore their passengers are likely to spend more money and in many cases they even spend a night or more in the area before or after embarkation. On the other hand, in a port of call, passengers spend only a few hours. Actually, according to a recent sector study conducted by the National Bank of Greece, the average spending per passenger at home ports is as high as 600,00 euros while at port of calls it drops to only 80,00 euros (TO BHMA, 2012). For Aghios Nikolaos to become a 'home port', authorities have to address certain key and demanding elements, such as: a) expand the existing infrastructure, b) enhance all support services, c) improve the cost effectiveness and quality of services provided, and subsequently, provide incentives to cruise operators to establish operations. All the above require significant capital investment-probably unmanageable for the time being.

Hence, the authorities might explore the prospects and the benefit of providing initiatives to cruise companies to help economically in the building or improvement of port facilities and infrastructures in return for a future revenue-sharing formula, which would include, in some cases, priority berthing and a percentage of port charges.

Our research revealed that most cruisers arrive to the port early in the morning and don't depart before late afternoon, thus visitors have several hours to spend in the town and on shore based activities. Moreover, about 30% of the passengers buy organized land excursions with the most popular destinations being the Palace of Knossos, the Plateau of Lassithi, and the island of Spinalonga (interview with travel agent in 2013).

It is difficult to find data to analyze the economics of cruise tourism in a region. Most relevant works in the literature have been based on observational data. In fact, the study of the receipts of cruise tourism in the town of Aghios Nikolaos is an interesting subject for future research.

On the other hand, when studying the possible social and cultural effects of cruise tourism, as Gibson and Bentley (2006) cited, these effects are broad and refer to the ways which tourism contributes to changes in value systems, individual behavior, safety levels, moral conduct, collective lifestyles, etc. Nonetheless, one has to take into account that Aghios Nikolaos has been a popular international tourist destination for the last 50 years and all this influence brought to the local community by tourists goes way back. Moreover, the number of cruise visitors is small compared to the number of residents or the number of hotel tourists in the town due to the fact that a) the size of the cruise ships that visit the port is relatively small (the average number of passengers per ship is less than 700) and b) the port has only one cruise ship visit per day (with the exception of two days with two cruise ship visits for the coming season). Thus the negative reactions from the local residents towards cruise ship visitors cited by Klein (2005b) for destinations where the ratio cruise tourists per resident is large, is considered negligible in the case of Aghios Nikolaos.

As regards to possible environmental impacts, the modifications to the natural environment caused by the construction of the two modern docks were minimal and within the limits of the old port. Likewise, other environmental impacts

related to the use of energy and water, as well as to possible damages to the marine ecosystems need to be further studied but they are expected to be minimal due to the low use of the destination until today. On the other hand, the large cruise ships produce a large volume of wastes. The waste streams generated by cruise ships are governed by a number of international protocols, regulations, and standards, such as MARPOL (Wikipedia Foundation, 2013b). Up to date, such environmental threats for the port of Aghios Nikolaos from the development of the cruise industry have not been reported. Nonetheless, the port authority should perform inspections and demand from the cruise lines to comply with the international standards.

It became evident from our interviews that local decision makers pressure to promote cruise tourism. However, accordingly, as the number of cruise ship arrivals grow, so will the significant impacts and threats at all different levels. Hence, it's essential that local authorities should take proactive measures to ensure a sustainable future for the cruise tourism in the town.

8. Conclusions

It is well known that, as with most industries, the hospitality and tourism sector is experiencing numerous challenges as a result of the global economic crisis. Cruise tourism provides a vacation alternative available for an increasing, more affluent customer base. In fact, cruising has proven crisis-resistant, as the financial crisis of 2008-2009 has not impacted the demand for cruises. Nonetheless, despite the optimism that seems to be on the horizon, the competition for the town of Aghios Nikolaos is tough especially from the other ports in Crete that have the capacity to accommodate the larger cruise ships (the port of Heraklion has already been chosen by two cruise lines for home porting). On the other hand, as Loper (2005) suggests, local governments must coordinate management techniques in order to increase economic benefits. Specifically, the Port Authority of Aghios Nikolaos could collaborate with other port authorities in the region in areas such as sharing certain costs, managing waste, etc.

Undisputedly, Aghios Nikolaos would benefit by improving its infrastructure in order to be able to accommodate large cruise ships and even become a home port. However, this task requires a strategic plan of actions and above all a large capital investment probably impossible under the current economic situation. Moreover, as cruise ships continue to grow larger, further investment maybe demanded. Under this prospect, we believe it is questionable whether further investing in constructing larger terminals could pass a cost- benefit analysis.

On the other hand, the richness and the diversity of the history and the culture, the exceptionally beautiful coastlines of the region, the mild climate, and the relatively calm seas, combined with the friendly, cosmopolitan and secure environment of the town of Aghios Nikolaos form the perfect destination for a cruise ship. And it is probably these characteristics that the town has to invest in, in order to further develop diversification and motivation policies in the destination for the cruise line operators. Actually, as McKee, D. (1988) cited smaller host territories may benefit from concentrating upon luxurious vessels. Consequently, one could suggest that the town should differentiate from the competing ports in Crete, by focusing on attracting a specific cruise market segment, such as the Boutique cruise vessels, and theme cruises such as: wedding cruises, or cruises with a focus on the Cretan food, music, health and wellbeing, etc. Moreover, actions should be taken to increase the level of satisfaction of the town's visitors by offering a pleasurable, high quality experience as a whole.

In addition, one should not disregard the fact that the town has invested a lot in land based tourism. However, cruise sector growth and traditional tourism sector are not incompatible, and although tourists staying aboard the cruise ship throughout their vacation, opposes the operation of the land-based vacation complexes, cruise passengers are likely to spend a few days in the port area before or after their cruise, or might repeat their visit in the future, staying in the local accommodation facilities (Dimou and Simantiraki, 2010). As a matter of fact, a recent research conducted by the American Association of Port Authorities (2012), among cruise ship visitors to the Caribbean, revealed that 50% of them would return to the Caribbean for a land based vacation. Additionally, according to both the travel agents interviewed almost 50% of the cruise ship visitors to the town are

repeaters. Actually, it is in the authors' intentions to design and carry out a related research among cruise ship visitors to the town of Aghios Nikolaos during the coming season.

Conclusively, the revitalization of Aghios Nikolaos' port of call is imperative in order to address the challenges that lay ahead and this requires immediate and decisive actions on behalf of all the major players in the cruise industry, i.e. governmental authorities, port and city officials, population, shore and cruise operators, etc. Undoubtedly, if allregional stakeholders and the governmental authorities work closely and efficiently together, Aghios Nikolaos will succeed in attracting more cruise lines and achieve a major economic impact on the local economy.

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RISK ANALYSIS STRATEGIES ON TOURISM FACILITIES THE NEED OF SAFETY AND SECURITY

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Cassee and Olsen (1996) identified five global forces that will drive the tourism industry beyond next decade. "Safety and Security" is one of those forces. Nowadays, choosing a tourist destination, it's important to get known its safety and security goals, in order not to get caught by natural, technological or environmental failures, or even, being victim of robbery, assault, rape or larceny. Tourists are concerned about their safety, as the level of violence increases, especially in destinations where are departing. Tourists who stay in a tourist facility have to check risk analysis strategies in order to be away from those efforts. Talking about other criminal scenes, hotel and destinations have to get well fixed daily measures, a good coordination with local firefighters, first responders and police forces, in order to minimize results of those acts, maintain civil order and minimize any disorder.

1. Introduction

In a democratic society, public security ensures the protection of individual rights and full exercise of citizenship. Security should not oppose freedom, and its a condition for its exercise.

Police and Security forces seek to improve their services in order to reach normal society levels of expectations, as a whole, mantaining citizen's respect and protection of fundamental rights. Alongside the guarantees conferred upon the state, the concept

of public security is not limited on solving crime scenes and are not restricted to law enforcement activity.

Risk is something that is present in human life and in everyday life. In tourist activities, existing a number of areas and technologies associated with implementation of many actions, it may be before rates higher risk. The implementation of a disaster as a result of a high level of risk, environmental or technological, but without active prevention, occurred in certain tourist facility, in addition to the losses of associates and their implications for social and environmental concerns surrounding area throughout life, may result in the end of that activity.

Public safety, while activity enroled of the State, is responsible for taking action against repression, offering different incentives to active citizens helping them to live, work, produce, and have fun, and protecting themselves against risks they are exposed.

Currently the functions of crime prevention, police patrolling and offenders re-socialization are divided between the State, society and the private sector. Among the causes of disability are the rising of crime, the feeling of insecurity, and the sense of impunity.

Tourists who stay in a tourist facility have to check risk analysis strategies in order to be away from those efforts. Its normal for tourists to add information about security levels related to the destination, hotel facilities, and the rapid access of police and other forces in case of any unpleasant acts. If we talk about natural disasters, those have to be aware and minimized or even canceled.

Talking about other criminal scenes, hotel and destinations have to get well fixed daily measures, a good coordination with local firefighters, first responders and police forces, in order to minimize results of those acts, maintain civil order and minimize any disorder. The human element is often indicated as the most important item in security purposes. Hotels have to maintain a low-profile, but well organized, security plan inside their facilities, in order to act against any criminal act, even before police appearance. Private companies also have to assume responsibility for the physical and mental training of internal hotel security teams. Many tourists, before traveling, check levels of vulnerability to unusual acts, and double check local police and hotel security capacity to swiftly solve similar situations. Hotels

are responsible for creating conditions for visitors to spend their holidays under the highest security level and away from any threat or negative measurement.

Several events have shown us that it is impossible to think of a stability scenario, with respect to public safety, that completely protects citizen from the effects of crime in a broad sense.

2. Risks

The risk can be taken as a category of analysis in the first analysis associated with the notions of uncertainty, exposure to danger, loss and material, economic and human losses due to processes of "natural" order (such as endogenous and exogenous processes of the Earth and / or processes of "technological", ie, aspects related to mechanical and intervention of machines, work-related and human relations order.

The risk is linked to an event that could occur, not knowing their future repetition. However, the existence of risk is constituted only in case there is some recovery of fine material or immaterial, since there is no risk to lose any sense of something. Thus, we can not think of risk without considering someone who is at risk, ie, society. Therefore risk (*sensus lato*) refers to the probability of occurrence of processes in time and space, non-constant and non-specific, and how these processes will affect, directly or indirectly, human life.

Adams (1995) was one of the first scholars to investigate theoretical aspects and formal differences between "risk" and "uncertainty", assuming the role of technical terms in the literature since 1921, when through the classical work entitled "Risk, uncertainty and profit" of Frank Knight, who announced the following: "if you do not know for sure what will happen, but you know the odds, that's risk, and if you do not even know the odds, that's uncertainty" (Adams, 1995).

The researchers (Godard et al, 2002) attribute the introduction of the distinction between risk and uncertainty not only to Frank Knight, but also to John Maynard Keynes, who advanced different definitions of risk, in the same year 1921. The oldest perspective is rooted in the "Chicago School" of Geography, and the other was developed by White (Löfstedt and

Frewer, 1998) in his doctoral thesis, and later by Burton et al. (Löfstedt and Frewer, 1998).

Godard et al. (2002) explain the definition and conduct of the "risk society" and the principles of precaution and safety crisis. According to their opinion, risk is conceptualized as concisely uncertainty objectively defined by a probabilistic character, which should not be mistaken as any numerology, or statistics, establishing a distinction between confirmed risk, capable of scientific predictions, and potential risk, not can be defined so (as) objective (Godard et al., 2002).

Risk can be defined as the "possibility of an event" (Cerri and Amaral, 1998) or by an accident already defined as a "fact already occurred, where social and economic consequences (damages) were recorded"(Cerri and Amaral, 1998). The definition of risk is associated, in this scientific field, a "situation of danger or harm.

In the approach developed by Susan Cutter, "hazard" is the broader term, being considered as a threat to people and objects valued by them.

The threat arises from the interaction between the social, natural and technological systems, and is often described in terms of their origin (natural hazards or "bad luck ": earthquakes, hurricanes, landslides, technological accidents caused by vehicles, boats, aircraft, accidents chemical pollution, explosions), while recognizing Susan Cutter, this classification loses strength within the scientific community, since many of these threats have a complex origin (Cutter, 2001). About risk, this represents the probability of occurrence of an event or threat, stating that risk analyzes emphasize the estimation and quantification of the probability of occurrence to determine appropriate levels safety or acceptability. Finally adds "risk is a component of hazard".

Similarly, Kovach (1995) develops a similar perspective, taking the risk as a component of danger (hazard), and its estimate involved in three aspects: the risk of being harm to humans, the risk of damage thuman property and the level of risk acceptance (Kovach, 1995). Meanwhile, Hewitt (1997) argues that a set of elements influence the conditions of risk (risk) and security (safety).

Risk assessment by Egler (1996) is based on the relationship between trust and criticality of these complex systems, from

dynamic variables and indicators. The environmental risk assessment at different scales of analysis helps define the levels of management and required by the various actors involved in mitigating these risks interventions.

According to Giddens (1991) trust can be interpreted as the ability of the analyzed systems operating without faults, can be understood as the degree of vulnerability and exposure of society to harmful events. Generally, no perception / risk identification or even accepting a level of risk calculated shall be credited to the trust, gift idea, especially in sociological or related to the production process and technology perspective

3. Risk and Crisis Management

Risk management, crises and emergencies in tourism is not always exemplary. According WITH AN University of Barcelona investigator, the five most common mistakes in managing a crisis in a public or private organization are the following: 1) Gaps in training of people involved, in many cases, employees of an organization received theoretical training without having any practical support, with the aggravating circumstance that do not know the emergency protocols at the time of the outbreak of the crisis, 2) Teams poorly coordinated and provided with some experienced professionals who in many cases never worked together, much less in ambient pressure or emergencies, can not get a positive result, 3) Although we are in the XXI century and the technological advances available, it is still common in crisis situations happen lack of systems information and communication.

This is a very serious case, since the lack of emergency communication systems means the lack of global vision of reality by those who must make decisions, 4) very simple exercises can be performed. Experts have found that, in general, despite the implementation of regular crisis tests are easy, there tend to plan only one or two types of exercises: fire or terrorist attacks; 5) "Zero Knowledge"; after completion of training or a real crisis, the conclusions drawn in this type of document is often filed without being shared with whom are operationally on the ground.

The management of a crisis goes through three phases: pre-crisis, crisis and post-crisis. The initial step in preventing crises,

establish lines of action in the different scenarios. These lines are set out in a manual that defines step-by-step actions to be taken during the crisis.

During the crisis, the management of information is a key factor. It is advisable to follow as far as possible, the information provided in the manual and replicate the measures and actions taken during workouts. A crisis can happen anytime, anywhere.

Finally, the post-crisis is characterized by the risk of recovery, by proceeding to the rescue and the search for the missing, and getting help and solidarity and conducting a qualitative and quantitative assessment of damage. Finally, after the crisis, it is recommended as a “feedback”, an analysis of the actions taken during the crisis and the provisions of the crisis management manual.

4. Risks Governance

Governance risk is a concept that broadly encompasses the identification, assessment, management and communication of risks.

The governance calls for the participation of all citizens, businesses, organizations, NGOs, governments and international intergovernmental organizations seeking to integrate the decisions cultural and social contexts, the opinions and concerns of individuals and all relevant specialized contributions.

Governance Risk shall be governed by several principles, such as the legality of the Community framework in international law, the legitimacy of rules and procedures generally accepted and respected, social and ethical acceptability, compliance with social and ethical standards, accountability - being provided all records and documents related to accounting and taxes; efficiency - the cost provisions taken must be taken effective manner; effectiveness - measures should achieve the purpose for which they were proposed; sustainability - the measures should keep the suitability over time, participation - all stakeholders should be consulted; receptivity - the different viewpoints of the parties must be taken into due account; impartiality - risks and possible benefits should be equitably distributed.

5. Trying to undo the Threat: A Conceptual Overview of Counter-Measures

Besides taking into account regular protection against natural disasters, all hotel facilities should have, by definition, regular aspects, added by the established security procedures, in order to take into account the response of civil protection services in case of natural catastrophe, just like earthquake or cyclone, a tornado or typhoon. But the risks and threats that may be behind an idyllic vacation resort are not only of natural order or having relationship with atmospheric features. There are also other types of hazards which, despite of being partially known, can not be known the exact time of its beginning.

Tourists and other people who does not belong to a certain geographical area, can be "caught" by a eventual society change, caused by several types of disorders. Police systems may not be effective in order to neutralize certain threats. Effort results is related with who runs the threat, how it happens, what are the results, and, on the other hand, to know the police forces capability to respond on time to maintain civil public order.

The hotel facilities must also be alert to those threats. Hotels do face risks everyday, more or less intense. However, guests must always be protected. By the police, or, in case of failure, through specific actions of hotel private security teams. An effective Safety and Security plan in Tourism industry must not only provide protection to guests and guests, but also to the employees and all involved in the project.

A typical hotel or other tourism resort security department usually consists on an Safety Director, security officers, guards and porters. The structure, size and institutions who report occurrences vary from institution to institution. There are certain safety procedures that lead to the functioning of all operations of tourist facilities.

Even with the best equipment installed and fulfilling the most comprehensive procedures, may not be enough if the security personnel teams are not properly trained. All employees must be trained by specialized companies, in order to know the safety procedures in case of an accident or premeditated attack, and how to minimize the effects of the use of weapons (from a "simple" to NBQ - Nuclear, Biological or Chemical weapons).

This "expertise" does not prevent police intervention, but can help in reducing effects in any acts of vandalism or terrorism, helping in the regulation of insecurity until the arrival of the police.

The equipment used by the security department is merely tools. These can not replace security personnel. Usual security tools commonly used in hotels include, locks, keys to the building and the guest rooms, CCTV circuit television, alarm systems, safes, and communications systems.

Another level of safety management should be kept to a higher level. The National Hotel Association and Police forces should work together to facilitate and promote cooperation in providing security, which may include the conduct of these forces together with civil defense (civil protection) for public safety actions related to fire and other hazards.

The hotel companies should train both personal security and different employees group in how to protect guests. Annual prizes should be awarded to hotels that achieved excellent performance in different aspects related to security.

Private security training companies, advised by independent elements with a broad view on the matter, should establish regular listings in order to ensure high levels of security and recommend tourism facilities to make changes deemed necessary.

At national wide, Police forces should provide law enforcement against crime and protect tourists. Globally, other disasters (risks) can be analyzed at natural, technological, social or environmental, may include typhoons, cyclones, earthquakes, floods, electricity failures, chemical spills, explosions and even abductions.

Protect the lives of customers and employees, property and business assets of criminal checks securitarian. These include the construction of access, lighting of public areas and outside of buildings, parking areas, and ensure security of doors bedroom, locks and windows.

Although the World Tourism Organization defends, as basic principle, that a hotel guest safety rests first of all, on himself, the hotel is responsible for the creation of conditions for the tourist to go forward with this determination.

Tourist destinations may be defined as systems that consist on accommodation, attraction, and access on transportation segments. The hotel industry, supplying accommodation in a

tourist destination, is one of the segments iessential for the success of a tourist destination.

Systems theory tells us that the activity of any organization's segment affects, in different degrees, the activity of all other segments (Bertalanffy, Hempel, Bass and Jonas, 1951; Boulding, 1956).

7. Conclusion

At tourism risks management and governance, speaking about technological risks, which concerned decisions arising directly from man, we can conclude that it is essential to have a thorough understanding of how different stakeholders perceive and frame the risk for a successful governance, that the choice of the risk management strategy and the involvement of many partners depends crucially on the categorization of risk in simple, complex, uncertain or ambiguous, and also get an evaluation that includes an analysis of concerns to be able to acceptability risk to either respond to scientific criteria or the perception of people.

Risk perception or governance is something very important, specially in tourism. Hotels and other tourists facilities have to make sure that natural or technological risks are close to zero, or with lower chance of produce humam victims or other problems in society.

A Tourism facilities guest being victim of natural or technological disasters, or any act of crime, will incur an negative image for the institution where the same situation occurred.

Security plays a vital role in ensuring the future viability of the hotel facilities. The security system of a hotel consists of three components: safety, equipment, procedures and personnel. All these items do have similar importance, and these different security items will only be effective if they work together.

The Security Office's Director is directly responsible for maintaining internal order and normal procedures within the premises, as well, to maintain basic aspects of response in crisis management, which must follow procedures through a manual and well trained internal security teams. The level and frequency of training differs from the size of the hotel and the availability of their workers.

The security department is responsible for improving the security system of a hotel, which involves audit and analyze the existence of safety equipment and following policies.

The human element is often cited as the most important factor in security. Hotels have to maintain an low-profile, but well organized, security squem inside their facilities, in order to act against any criminal, before police appearance. Private companies have to be responsible for the psysical and mental training of these hotel security teams.

Security managers of hotels should maintain a close relationship with local law enforcement and firefighter departments, promoting regular meetings to exchange intelligence about new threats and situations that could affect the facilities.

Private security companies, some using US know-how, can help in crime prevention, promoting several initiatives to help hotels in the training of secutiypersonnel and teach what to do in moments before police appearance (the most important time).

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TRANSPORTATION MODE CHOICE BEHAVIOR IN KHAO YAI NATIONAL PARK

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Khao Yai is one of Thailand's largest and most visited national parks. Its remote location and high automobile dependency of Thai tourists have brought a large fleet of vehicles to the national park area. This research studied transportation choice behavior of Khao Yai National Park visitors. A logit model was assumed to explain the visitors' mode choice preference based on cost, service frequency and convenience. Shuttle routes were planned to accommodate park visitors. Automobile entrance fee was introduced which proved effective for demand shift to public transportation. It was concluded that if 500-baht fee was imposed 50-80% of visitors would shift to public transportation, providing the shuttle service frequency every 15 minutes. The entrance fee would transfer to a reasonable portion for the shuttle operation and maintenance budget. Reduction in vehicle-kilometers could be converted to pollution reduction and accident saving especially in the sensitive area of the national park.

1. Introduction

Khao Yai National Park (KYNP) is Thailand's first established national park and one of the most famous tourist destinations in the northeastern region. This UNESCO world heritage site welcomes a large and increasing number of Thai and foreign tourists every year. Lodgings and tent areas, waterfalls, hiking trails, rafting and kayaking, wildlife spotting sites, and many other

attractions spread out across its vast 2,168 square kilometers. KYNP surrounding areas have also experienced rapid growth during recent years. New lodging and commercial projects were developed everywhere around the national park. Local and chained restaurants, shopping centers, discount stores and accommodations were built to respond to the needs of travelers from big cities that were reluctant to leave convenience completely back home.

The sprawling nature of attractions and lack of public transportation encourage visitors to take their private cars or use privately hired transportation. Thanks to extensive road network in KYNP, private transportation mode can reach most of the destination. Attempting to promote park tourism, National Park Authority only collect 40 baht (approx. €1.00) for one person and 50 baht (approx. €1.30) for one passenger car. Despite more expensive vehicle entrance fees than other national parks, the rate fails to divert automobiles away from entering Khao Yai. The statistics shows higher traffic volume every year on the main access highway and within the park itself.

Vehicular traffic generates three main negative impacts. Highway congestion frustrates travelers who do not expect such long travel time on their short holidays. Vehicle emission inevitably becomes local pollution affecting human and wildlife. Lastly and probably most importantly, higher vehicle-kilometers traveled are translated to more accidents per year. While highway widening is believed to relieve congestion and allow higher speed through some part of the area, it raises accident risks for both residence and land creatures whose paths intersect vehicular traffic from time to time.

Various factors affect travelers' mode choice and thus contribute to the success of park management. This ongoing research aims to study travelers' behaviors on transportation mode preferences. The results will be analyzed to formulate measures in an attempt to alleviated national park transportation capacity concerns and subsequent problems. This paper is an interim summary report presenting concepts and methodology, first stage findings and preliminary analysis of transportation mode attributes.

2. Travel Demand Management

Tourism promotion policy in the past attempted to increase roadway carrying capacity and accessibility to accommodate vehicle movement. Unfortunately, the economics law of supply and demand also applied to people travel behavior (Mackie 1996). Soon after travelers learned that the roadway has been improved and that they could drive to the park at a lower cost, i.e. with a shorter travel time, they tend to drive more. Car travel demand would increase until the congestion was back into the original level, but with additional vehicle-kilometers and more negative externalities.

Travel demand management (TDM) or mobility management is a more sustainable approach to mitigate these adverse impacts. The new paradigm of policy focuses on moving people, not vehicles. TDM has replaced traditional transportation supply-oriented strategies throughout the world. A wide range of TDM have been practiced and its benefits have been realized. Urban transportation has adopted such strategies as work time shifting, car-sharing and transit promotion, parking cash-out and bicycle facilitation.

Specific to tourism industry, limiting vehicle usage is one of the most widely-accepted. The lost freedom of cars was replaced by enhancing public transport accessibility and mobility. The strategies was based on four components including vehicle type selection, transport connectivity, clear and useful information, and quality of facilities.

TDM strategies being applied in many national parks throughout the world (Daigle, 2008). A large number of studies on TDM were conducted specifically to national parks. A study in Yosemite National Park was carried out to understand visitors' travel-related attitudes and decision-making behavior so effective transportation management policies could be developed (White et al 2011). Survey research was conducted in Yosemite and Rocky Mountain National Park to examine visitor perspectives toward the alternative transportation system experience with focus on three attributes including ease, freedom and stress (Taft et al 2013). Another similar study were undertaken to learn reaction of visitors of three national parks in Costa Rica to different levels of entrance fees (Chase et al, 1998). A study in

North York Moors National Park, England found that the visitors realized their impact and were willing to be managed, but public transport inflexibility presented a major obstacle (Coleman 1997).

KYNP can be accessed by public transport or paratransit. Those without car can also use public vehicle or hired bus from Pak Chong Bus Terminal or Railway Station to KYNP. However, travelling from one point to another within the park area still relies on appointment with these hired vehicles. Unsurprisingly 2010 statistics shows that KYNP is among national parks with the highest vehicle percentage. TDM measures are proposed for KYNP not to limit or reduce the number of visitors, but to move a large number of them in a more efficient and more environmental-friendly way.

3. Methodology

The study adopted the rational choice theory which stated that an individual consumer, i.e. traveler, would select a choice or a set of choices that maximized one's benefit. Off all available alternatives, a traveler would choose one that generated the least cost to him/her. (Kritsadaniramit et al, 2010, Sanrit, 2008 and Kwankiri, 2003). In this particular KYNP case, it is a direct competition between private car and newly planned public shuttle service. Not only did the cost of travel include out-of-pocket expense, but travel time and other qualitative measures such as comfort, convenience and safety were also considered. They were converted into a common unit using a concept of utility function which could be represented in the following equation:

$$U = \sum_n \beta_n x_n + \delta(1)$$

where $\beta_n \in \beta$ represented a set of weight parameters implying the importance of each cost component, $x_n \in \mathbf{x}$ represented a set of cost components that were studied, and \square referred to other types of unmeasured or non-measurable costs associated with mode i . The last cost component may be viewed as a mode-specific constant representing the users' "preference" or "bias" towards a particular mode. This "residual" term is assumed independent and identically distributed (IID).

Individual mode choice was explained by a logit model (Snedecor 1967 and Simon, 2011). It is one of the most simplest

form of mode choice model, developed from a Gumbel Type I distribution and takes a form of

$$P(A) = \frac{e^{-U_A}}{\sum_{m \in M} e^{-U_m}} \quad (2)$$

where

$P(A)$ = probability of a person selecting mode A from all available modes M

U_A = utility of mode A

M = a set of available modes

Specifically to this study, available modes for road users are limited to only two choices, car (C) or Public Transport (T). In such case, providing random utilities are constants and hence the difference $\delta_T - \delta_C$ is a constant δ , Equation (2) is reduced to a form (Ortuzar, 2011):

$$P_C = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(U_T - U_C)}} \quad (3.1)$$

$$P_T = 1 - P_C = \frac{e^{-(U_T - U_C)}}{1 + e^{-(U_T - U_C)}} \quad (3.2)$$

Due to limitation of survey procedure, the public transport routes was predetermined, leaving only service frequency being tested against vehicle tax for private cars. Service network was broken down into short routes to minimize fleet size and operating costs. Five routes were assigned to accommodate demand pattern, assuming all were synchronized to achieve acceptable transfer time. Major stops on these route were as follows:

- Route 1: Pak Chong Toll Gate - Visitor Center (14 km),
- Route 2: Visitor Center - Pha Kluai Mai Tent Area - Heio Suwat Waterfall: (13 km),
- Route 3: Visitor Center - Lam Takhong Tent Area - Pha Deao Dai Scenic Point (14 km),
- Route 4: Visitor Center - Lam Takhong Tent Area - Heio Narok Waterfall (23 km), and
- Route 5: Noen Hom Toll Gate - Heio Narok Waterfall (12km).

Route 1 was expected to handle heaviest traffic. Routes 2, 3 and 4 would gain similar amount of passengers. Finally, Route 5 would handle least passengers. Nonetheless all routes would operate at the same frequency for benefits of connectivity. Route 1 might dispatch a few more vehicles together while Route 5 might be running only single vehicle at a time.

The study team conducted an interview survey with Thai and foreign tourists. The questionnaire consisted of four parts. The first involved general socioeconomic information to identify who the tourists were and how much they were willing to spend on their trip. The second included travel information such as mode, travel cost and time. The third contained questions for general opinion towards factors on public transport services. The last and probably the most important involved tourist mode choice was preference based on various factors. It applied a quasi-experiment state preference (SP) technique (Hensher 2011). Hypothesis situations were offered as travel alternatives with a package of attributes. The respondents would have to choose whether to use private car and pay the "environmental fee" or to use public transport under a given set of service characteristics. The questionnaire was designed to screen out a portion of tourists who would decide to deviate from KYNP to other attractions or not to travel at all under different rates of environmental fee ranging from 250 to 1,500 baht.

In light of policy making, three major attributes were tested: frequency, type of public vehicles and environmental fee. The first two belonged to a set of public bus characteristics and the last was an additional cost imposed to private vehicles. Public transport service was assumed free of charge. The environmental fee was expected to generate enough revenue to cover the public transport operating expenses. Frequency and type of vehicles might be affected by the amount of revenue generated, but initially the test range of these variables were assumed possible. Two of the most popular types of public vehicles were selected namely van and "song thaew" (literally translated "two row" for its seat alignment). Both fitted 10-12 seated passengers and capable of KYNP hilly terrains. Figure 1 shows example of the vehicles.

Figure 1: KYNP Public Vehicle Alternatives**(a) Public Van (b) Song Thaew**

Different levels of attributes were tested. The "environmental charges" or the entrance fees for car were 500, 1,000 and 1,500 Baht. Public transport frequency were every 15 minutes, 30 minutes, 1 hour, and 2 hours. Other attributes were discrete by each individual including income, car ownership, travel expenses, and number of people traveling together.

Considering the three policy-making variables, namely entrance fee, public transport service frequency and type of vehicle, it would have taken $3 \times 4 \times 2 = 24$ situations to complete the full factorial combination. This number would be too many to cover in the survey. A set of 12 "packages" of attributes were selected by randomizing treatment combination and divided into two divided into two sets of questionnaire. Correlation among these variables were tested and sets with no or low correlation were selected. A respondent would compare six pairs of options and select six alternatives upon their preference. The results was then analyzed to obtain parameters indicating importance of factors affecting travelers' mode choice.

Key characteristics that would likely affect mode choice include vehicle ownership, travel expenses to KYNP, and number of persons traveling with the respondents. Variables in the utility function include:

TYPE: Public vehicle type (0 for van and 1 for song thaew)

FREQ: Public transport service frequency, minutes

FEE: Environmental fee for car (baht)

CO: Car Ownership (0 for none, 1 for one or more cars)

EXP: Travel expenses to KYNP (Baht)

COM: Number of people traveling with respondents

4.Results

4.1 Socioeconomic and trip characteristics

In general, KYNP welcomed more males than females. Majority of the visitors were between 21 to 40 years of age. Most were students and general employees. Their monthly incomes were in a low to medium income level.

A majority of tourist came to KYNP through Pak Chong Toll Gate. Most respondents owned a car and came by a private car, followed by rented car or van and motorcycle. Only 3% used public transport. Individual's travel expenses to KYNP were between 500 and 1,000 baht. Visitor who used motorcycles and public transport spent considerably less. An extreme case included visitors who came in rented van and spent up to 20,000 baht. Finally most visitors came in small groups, but considerable 29% were also found in a large group of 5 or more. It should be noted that five was the number of interest as it would be the cutting point whether the group would need more than one passenger car.

The socioeconomic and trip characteristic distributions are shown in Table 1.

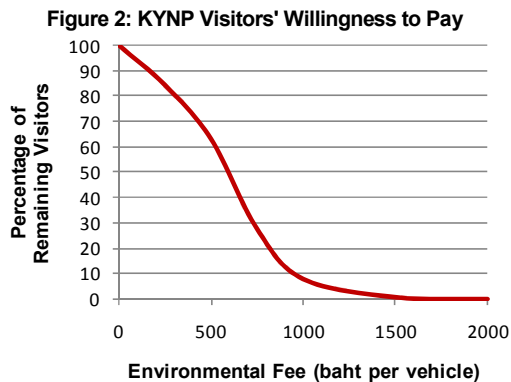
Table 1: Socioeconomic and Trip Characteristics For KYNP Visitors

Category	Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Sex	Male	207	49.3
	Female	213	50.7
Age	under20	74	17.6
	21-30	169	40.2
	31-40	97	23.1
	41-50	59	14.0
	51-60	17	4.0
	Over 60	4	1.0
Occupation	Government officer	37	8.8
	State enterprise	67	16.0
	employee	144	34.3
	General employee	38	9.0
	Business owner	132	31.4
	Students	2	0.5
	Others		
Monthly Income	Under 5,000 baht	89	21.2
	5,000-10,000 baht	68	16.2
	10,000-20,000 baht	153	36.4
	20,000-30,000 baht	55	13.1

	30,000-40,000 baht	35	8.3
	40,000-50,000 baht	11	2.6
	Over50,000 baht	9	2.1
Mode Choice	Private Car	344	81.9
	Motorcycle	25	6.0
	Rented Van/Car	38	9.0
	Public Transportation	13	3.1
Travel Expenses	< 500 Baht	36	8.5
	500 - 1,000 Baht	235	56.3
	1,000 - 1,500 Baht	46	10.9
	1,500 - 2,000 Baht	68	16.1
	2,000 - 2,500 Baht	11	2.6
	2,500 - 3,000 Baht	20	4.7
	> 3,000 Baht	4	0.9
Occupation	Under 5	285	67.9
	5-10	112	29.0
	More than 10	13	3.1

4.3 Travel mode preference

Due to newly introduced environmental fee, a portion of visitors would choose not to travel or to travel to other alternative attractions. Figure 2 shows the willingness to pay for environmental charge. A fee up to 500 baht was still acceptable while 750 baht would prove too much for more than 70% of the visitors who would divert to other destinations. Beyond 1,500 baht there would be virtually no visitors. This reflected the value of KYNP in relative to other attractions.



Remaining visitors were further analyzed for their mode choice. They were divided into four groups based on their monthly income as follows (The numbers in the parentheses indicate the numbers of respondents in respective groups):

- Under 5,000 baht (89)
- 5,000 - 10,000 baht (68)
- 10,001 - 20,000 baht (153)
- Over 20,000 baht (110)

The results from the last part of the questionnaire were analyzed and all $\beta_n \in \beta$ in equation (1) were estimated through a maximum likelihood technique. These parameters reflected the magnitude with which each attribute affected the travelers' mode choice. Table 2 shows calibration result from each analysis group.

Table 2: model calibration for each visitor group

Income < 5,000 baht

Variable	Coefficient	t-ratio
ASC_PB	0.9265	(3.184)
H	-0.0140	(-5.872)
FEE	-0.0009	(-3.684)
CO	-0.9433	(-4.488)
EXP	-0.0001	(-2.560)
Number of observations	89	
ρc^2	0.143	
Log likelihood at convergence	-317.377	

Income 5,000-10,000 baht

Variable	Coefficient	t-ratio
ASC_PB	1.0133	(2.857)
H	-0.0161	(-5.804)
FEE	-0.0009	(-3.106)
CO	-1.0424	(-4.323)
Number of observations	68	
ρc^2	0.121	
Log likelihood at convergence	-237.7313	

Income 10,000-20,000 baht

Variable	Coefficient	t-ratio
ASC PB	0.6982	(2.888)
H	-0.0221	(-10.792)
FEE	-0.0011	(-5.839)
CO	-0.7398	(-4.696)
EXP	-0.0001	(-3.282)
Number of observations	153	
ρ^2	0.152	
Log likelihood at convergence	-521.8004	

Income > 20,000 baht

Variable	Coefficient	t-ratio
ASC PB	-0.1311	(-0.41)
H	-0.0219	(-8.36)
FEE	-0.0006	(-2.989)
EXP	-0.0002	(-3.524)
COM	0.1409	(2.172)
Number of observations	110	
ρ^2	0.156	
Log likelihood at convergence	-386.2472	

The model for each income group showed different significant variables. Although dummy variables were introduced in an attempt to construct a universal model, the t-statistics did not show consistent values. Instead of concluding a single utility function, a set of models was applied to best represent characteristics of each group which can be concluded as follows:

- For monthly incomes lower than 5,000 baht

$$U_{PB} = 0.9265 - 0.014H - 0.9433CO - 0.0001EXP \quad (4.1)$$

$$U_{CAR} = -0.0009FEE \quad (4.2)$$

- For monthly incomes 5,000-10,000 baht

$$U_{PB} = 0.1033 - 0.0161H - 1.0424CO \quad (5.1)$$

$$U_{CAR} = -0.0009FEE \quad (5.2)$$

- For monthly incomes 10,000-20,000 baht

$$U_{PB} = 0.6982 - 0.0221H - 0.7398CO - 0.0001EXP \quad (6.1)$$

$$U_{CAR} = -0.0011FEE \quad (6.2)$$

- For monthly incomes over 20,000 baht

$$U_{PB} = 0.9265 - 0.0219H - 0.0002EXP + 0.1409COM \quad (7.1)$$

$$U_{CAR} = -0.0006FEE \quad (7.2)$$

where H is headway, CO is car ownership which takes a value of 1 if the respondent own a car and 0 otherwise, EXP is the expenses that the visitor spent on this trip upon reaching the national park, COM is the number of persons accompanying with the respondent, and FEE is the entrance fee for private vehicles.

It was obvious that headway is the most influential factors. Comparison of coefficients revealed that visitors from lower income groups were much more tolerant to long wait time. Car ownership also played important role as it appeared in the models for lower income groups. It did not show up in the highest income model probably because most visitors from that group owned a car and the analysis could not show variation between the "haves" and "haves-not". Visitors who already spent a great deal upon arriving seemed not willing to choose public bus but rather pay an extra for entrance fee. Lower income groups were more sensitive to entrance fee than the higher ones. Type of public vehicles did not affect visitors' decision.

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

The utility equations above were used to create travel mode choice model for KYNP visitors. The results showed that the higher the public bus headway the lower the ridership and the higher the number of private vehicles. On the other hand, if the car entrance fee was set high enough, more travellers would shift to public transport. However, the elasticity of headway is much higher than that of entrance fee, i.e. the visitor were highly sensitive to wait time, but moderately sensitive to entrance fee.

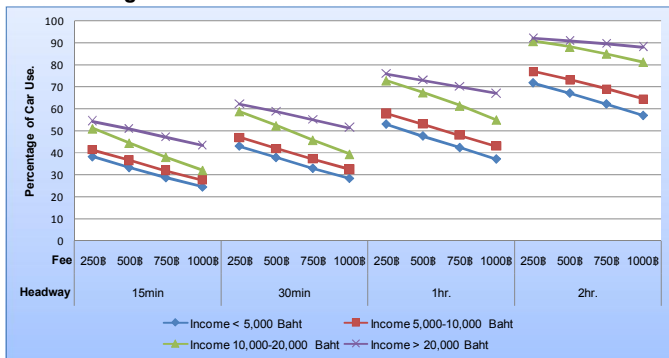
The separated models among income groups also revealed interesting trend for visitors with different financial statuses. High income groups would be less sensitive with the vehicle entrance fee as they had high spending power. The opposite could be concluded with the lower income groups. Figure 3 shows forecasted mode share among different income groups.

The study only sampled slightly more than four hundred respondents. At present KYNP welcomed visitors with wide variety of socioeconomic characteristics, including family status and nationality, duration of stay, and trip purpose. The precision of the model could be improved by addressing socioeconomics

difference and decision criteria among these group.This wouldprovide a better ground to estimate the impact of policy of introducing a new public transport with extra charge imposed to private vehicles.

It should be noted that after implement private vehicle charge that KYNP would likely lose a significant portion of travellers to nearby and similar tourist attractions.

Figure 3 Forecasted KYNP Visitor Mode Share



6. Way Forward

The progress of the project to date was achieved as presented in the sections above.For this concept to have any chance of real implementation, a feasibility analysis must be carried out.The research team would look further into financial and economic viability of the program.Investment and operating costs of the program should be calculated and various type of benefits would be estimated.The entrance fee would transfer to shuttle operation and maintenance budget.The optimum condition would be recommended along with benefit cost analysis in term of various indicators.Reduction of vehicle-kilometers should benefit the park and the society as a whole.The return should be contemplated in form of energy saving, time saving and most importantly pollution and accident saving especially in the sensitive area of the national park.

Success of public transportation relied heavily on accessibility. Should the public transport concept be considered, pedestrian facilities and accommodation for other non-motorized transportation may as well be cooperated in the detail design stage. This would require a whole range of survey and analysis and would present a great challenge in introducing a complete package of tourism concept.

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**STAKEHOLDER'S PERCEPTION: A KEY
ELEMENT FOR TOURISM VS. CLIMATE
CHANGE POLICY: EFORIE NORD - CASE
STUDY ON ROMANIAN LITTORAL TOURISM**

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Climate change impact on tourism sector and the design of adequate strategies to minimize its effects on recreational climate dependent activities are a dominant of the nowadays tourism development policies, especially for vulnerable winter sports or littoral destinations. Besides emphasizing future tendencies of the main climate parameters a key tool for tourism vs. climate change policies design would be stakeholder's perception over the issue. Studies on the domain showed tourism as a very dynamic market on which adaptation asks for a continuous reorienting of tourism destinations profile. Consequently both investors and authorities feel the need to be accurately informed in due time in order to optimally increase tourism industry's adaptive capacity and to be offered practical solutions to this phenomenon they are confronting. The paper below presents the main results of a

stakeholder survey on the topic that was applied on the old traditional Romanian spa littoral resort of Eforie Nord.

1. Introduction

Climate change effects made felt their presence in the last years on a large scale, representing one of the major challenges of the 21st century (Surugiu et al., 2012). With an important impact on environment, society and economy climate variability is a key issue to be coped with in the future at different territorial scales by socio-economic systems that have to respond evolving physical parameters and adapt in an active way to a changing environment. 'Climate change has the potential to affect national and regional economies, influencing different types of economic sectors also in Romania' (Micu et al., 2011 in Dincă et al., 2013). Among them tourism is generally 'highly dependent on climate conditions as primary resources for outdoor activities' being though envisaged as one of the most severely affected domains (Dincă et al., 2013). Tourism is currently one of the economic sectors that felt to a great extent effects of climate variability, especially in regions where recreational activities are highly dependent on the climate resource such as winter sports mountain areas, islands, or littoral sun and tan regions. Littoral tourism, that concerns the territory of our study, is so one of the tourism segments which display an important exposure to climate changing parameters as determinants of bioclimatic indexes responsible for tourist regional attractiveness. In fact coastal zones already represent an area on which scientists focus in order to study climate change effects on tourism economies and climate / tourism relationship (Jennings, 2004; Phillips and Jones, 2006; Buzinde et al., 2010; Jones and Phillips, 2011) Eastern European economies not making an exception anymore (Clavier, 2009; Surugiu et al., 2011; 2012).

1. Aim and Location of the Study

As stated above, littoral is one of the main focus areas to study climate change impact on tourism sector and Romanian southern Black Sea coastal region shouldn't be an exception as it comprises a cluster of resorts highly dependent on climate

resources. However besides an external vulnerability to the climate factor, Romanian seaside tourism faced many socio-economic problems derived from political and ownership changes that occurred after 1990. Romania suffered a long and slow privatization process especially for its previously state owned mass accommodation structures and balneal units (Erdeli et al., 2011) to be encountered also in our study case resort. Eforie Nord represents the oldest littoral tourism planned resort in our country which appeared at the end of the 18th century during the royal period as a consequence of the European spa tourism development trend, orientation and initiatives towards health care relaxation holiday destinations that were animating during the epoch the European elite (Smith and Kelly, 2006). The spa seaside resort with permanent function Eforie Nord is the second largest one on Romanian riviera after Mamaia, counting almost 200 establishments that concentrate over 15000 bedplaces (14% of all the capacity on Romanian littoral resorts). Besides the internal sensitivity displayed in part by the local tourism industry because of the above mentioned larger political and socio-economic factors (rehabilitation and modernization projects took place however at the central spa treatment unit and at important hotels in the post-communist period) the resort shows signals of external physical exposure to beach erosion and to possible bio climate discomfort during summer season. They may be extended to the case of all the other Romanian littoral resorts located very closely one from another on the Romanian southern Black Sea coast. CLAVIER Summer TOURROM Final Report (2009) showed increasing tendencies for all four mean seasonal temperature indices calculated for the 1961 - 2049 period and based on the measured and estimated values for Contanta meteorological station that is found nearby our study case resort, describing its local climate conditions. Moreover bio climatic indexes also show increasing trends (e.g. Thom - for July and August during the 1961 - 2010 period according to CLAVIER, 2009 or thermal comfort index TEE also for July and August in the 1961 - 2010 period according to Surugiu et al., 2012). These studies evidenced the probability for bioclimatic indexes to migrate towards a discomfort interval in the peak summer season months of July and August and a possible increase at the same time of the thermal comfort and tourism potential in the ending summer season months (June, September). In this context

stakeholder opinion was considered both a validating instrument for the above mentioned statistic evidences and a voice reflecting present industry's experience regarding climate change effects. Moreover stakeholders' opinions are to be considered by theme scientific literature a key element for adaptation (Becken, 2013; Trawogger, 2014), finding appropriate solutions and the design of adequate local strategies to minimize climate change effects on the recreational climate dependent activities.

2. Methodological Approach

The present study points out the main results obtained through an extended survey on the climate change topic applied at the level of local tourism industry representatives in the 15th May - 15th August 2012 period. A sample of 33 answers given by representatives of local tourism units (mainly hotel structures) was obtained. They are concentrating more than 60% of the existing accommodation capacity in terms of bedplaces at the resort level. In fact accommodation structures comprising also health care complexes are the oldest and the most stable structures in Eforie Nord resort being considered maybe the most important group of active stakeholders on the local tourism environment. However taking into consideration the tourism market perspective as an interaction place for a diversity of stakeholders (Sheehan et al., 2007 cited in Tkaczynski et al., 2009) all sorts of unit types were comprised in our sampling unit through their representatives. We have to state the fact that the study was part of an extended team project envisaging to catch climate change / tourism sector relationship also for other types of Romanian resorts.

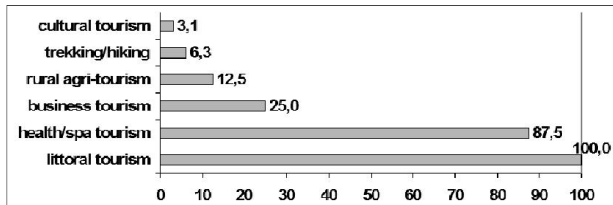
3. Main Results

The survey was meant to catch not only the real dimensions of climate change impact upon local tourism industry but also its dynamic trends independent to physical resources. Tourism is generally a very dynamic market sensitive to tourism demand trends. Through its adaptation to new tendencies of consume climate exposure intensity may be changed through industry's reorientation and evolving degree of dependency on climate

resources. Consequently the questions in the survey were grouped on several essential chapters namely: tourist attractiveness of actual resources and tourism structures and the degree of innovation of local tourism offer; the awareness on already experienced climate change effects on the current business; the reality of climate change impact through its multiple elements and its relevance for tourism industry at the resort level; the necessity of taking measures against climate change effects; the present availability and need of information on the topic.

The first chapter of the survey clearly emphasized the spa seaside profile of the resort as 100% of respondents and 87.5% of them respectively answered that at present Eforie Nord offers littoral tourism respectively health and spa tourism as products of its recreational offer (Figure 1). Business traveling appears as a third form of tourism offered by Eforie Nord resort and it was chosen by a quarter of respondents, being a proof of the recreational market dynamics, of its response to tourism demand and socio-economic changes and of its orientation towards economic efficacy independent of natural resources as external stressors. A second question about the forms of tourism generating the highest revenues at the resort level gathered even higher percentages of answers for littoral tourism. In spite of the obvious much higher seasonality of this form of tourism compared to the balneal services which might be offered theoretically all year long in the permanent opened clinics within the resort, tourists prefer summer season also in their option for treatment packages. This is due to the fact that they are often combined with sun and tan services or they include air therapy cures that need optimal weather and temperature conditions. Low revenues obtained by spa sector may be also explained through the fact that health tourism remains generally in Romania and especially in this resort a social form of tourism receiving governmental subsidies and being destined to the aged people who dispose of a much lower traveling budget compared to other categories of visitors.

Figure 1: The forms of tourism offered at present by Eforie Nord resort

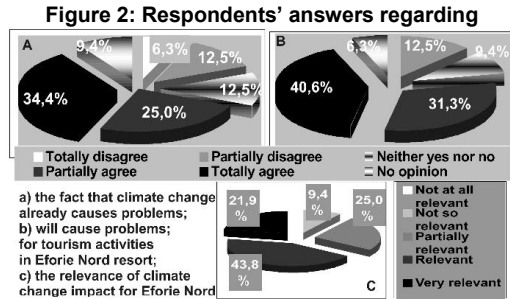


Further questions on this chapter treated separately the attractiveness of each type of resource. Results showed however that in spite of the fact that it is the most important tourism segment offered by the resort, littoral resources, through their elements (e.g. sea water, beach), are very attractive only for 30% of respondents. 66.7% of them declare littoral resources only pretty attractive as a sign that they would need improvements and planning investments. In fact the majority of respondents consider tourism offer in Eforie Nord resort as being not so innovative (28.1%) or only in part innovative (28.1%). They motivated their answers by mentioning the lack of modernization and the conservative profile of the resort in terms of offer and image. Eforie Nord matches actually the profile and evolution of other spa resorts either of national or of local interest in Romania that slowly privatized their structures and were rehabilitated in part through great punctual and fragmented efforts. In fact asked to enumerate several innovative products in their resort most of respondents had no answer. Those that gave examples of innovative tourism elements for Eforie Nord product mentioned either new medical procedures or some special offers and price policies for extra season periods or intended to attract other categories of tourism demand than the aged people (e.g. offers for young couples).

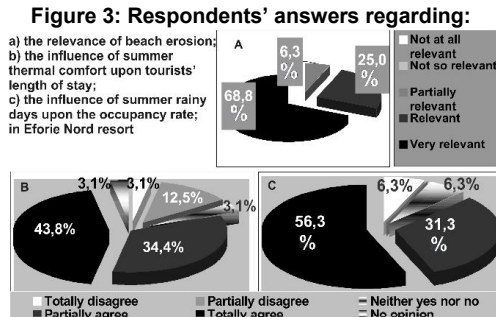
The chapter regarding climate change/tourism industry relation tried to catch stakeholders' perception on the relation in general and with regard to their business and local industry in particular both for the present moment and estimated for future. If the general relation climate change / economy and climate change / tourism sector is concerned 47% of respondents totally agreed and 38% partially agreed that climate change already

generate effects on different socio-economic sectors (population, health, life quality, human settlements) whereas 62.5% of respondents totally agreed and 31.3% partially agreed that climate change will generate effects on different socio-economic sectors in the future. With regard to tourism still important percentages of 43.8% of respondents totally agreed and 21.9% partially agreed that tourism activities are in general threatened by climate change. This shows that climate change effects attract stakeholders' attention and are already felt and perceived by them on a general manner. Regarding climate change/tourism industry relation with respect to Eforie Nord resort and their current business respondents totally agreed respectively partially agreed in lower percentages for statements declaring that climate change already causes problems for tourism activities in their resort (34.4% totally agreed respectively 25% partially agreed) or that climate change will cause problems for tourism activities in the future at the resort level (40.6% totally agreed respectively 31.1% partially agreed) (Figure 2). Stakeholders' perception of climate change effects on their business is less certain compared to the one referring to tourism industry and other economic sectors in general (reversed statistics being remarked for the mountain resorts where the survey was applied). The percentages of respondents totally or partially agreeing the above mentioned statements and declaring present and future threat of climate change effects on local tourism business may however be considered high for our study case resort representing a typical destination of the Romanian littoral area. In fact asked in a further question about the relevance of climate change impact for Eforie Nord resort 43.8% of respondents considered the topic relevant and 21.9% of them very relevant (Figure 2).

Among the envisaged effects they expect to occur in the 2050 horizon in Eforie Nord resort the highest percentages of respondents (over 60%) mentioned the growth of thermal discomfort felt by tourists and the growth of extreme phenomena (e.g. storms, heavy rains, flash floods, heat waves, tornadoes, etc.). Over half of them also stated as possible future changes they believe may occur in the light of climate change effects the growth of yearly and summer seasonal average temperature as well as the diminishing of the precipitations quantity during the warm season.



In spite of the overall pessimistic image upon the relation climate change / tourism when separate questions were asked regarding the influence of each of the mentioned most important climate change effects on tourism sector, percentages of those admitting a high influence of these changes on tourism activities in Eforie Nord resort lowered (Figure 3).



For instance 43.8% of respondents totally agreed and 34.4% partially agreed with the influence exerted by thermal comfort on littoral area upon tourists' length of stay in Eforie Nord resort whereas 56.3% of respondents totally agreed and 31.3% partially agreed on the influence of summer rainy days upon tourist occupancy rate in their resort. If the increase in temperature as a clear climate change generally agreed effect doesn't lead to an accurate connection with tourism demand as in the case of rainy days for instance, other factors such as beach erosion, indirectly

linked to climate warming phenomenon, are more obviously threatening tourism activities in the case of Romanian littoral resorts (Figure 3). Moreover temperature increase may have also positive effects on tourism activities in the case of littoral tourism as it would be an important factor, considered essential by 40.6% of respondents for the extension of summer tourism season.

Nevertheless the menaces that climate change effects induce for tourism sector both in general and at the local level in particular determine almost all respondents (over 90%) to declare that preventive measures would be necessary in order to counterpart and reduce them. As adapting solutions to this matter respondents mentioned the appearance and development of new tourism attractions in summer season (e.g. cultural, active forms of tourism, etc.) (90.6% of respondents), of health and spa programs (87.5% of respondents) and of water sports (68.8% of respondents). This shows the need of industry to be rehabilitated, modernized and developed in order to increase its economic sustainability as a factor to reduce its internal vulnerability. A less vulnerable tourism economy is to feel in a less extent external stressors and to have alternative offers for the climate less attractive resources.

Over half of respondents also declared that research projects on the topic should be encouraged and that government and authorities should make efforts to disseminate their results to the broad public. In fact 46.9% of respondents partially agreed with the statement that at the moment there is enough information regarding climate change impact on their territory. They declared as main sources of information for their present level of knowledge on the topic the television (84.4% of respondents), the internet (78.1% of respondents), the newspapers (43.8% of respondents) or the radio (37.5% of respondents). All these represent general media sources presenting rather fragmented news on extreme meteorological events and not necessarily scientifically long term validated opinions on the issue. In fact local tourism industry representatives accuse the lack of information, concerning this global issue with obvious local implications, with respect to future envisaged scenarios, measures of adaptation and real tangible programs to counterpart negative climate change effects on recreational activities. Moreover approximately 84% of respondents consider that climate change is a much debated actual topic and that

media sources influence tourists' behavior. Independent or not to media influence 28.1% of respondents declared that they observed both negative and positive changes in balanced proportions in tourists behavior because of climate changes and only 9.4% of them noticed mainly negative changes. Important percentages of 37.5% and of 21.9% of respondents didn't observe changes or didn't have an opinion on the matter.

In this context almost a third of respondents declared as low, the present resort capacity to adapt climate change issue. A percentage of 34% of them totally agreed and 39% partially agreed that authorities should involve in the evaluation of possible effects of climate change phenomenon on tourism activity in the area and take the initiative, control and coordination of specific programs and strategies on the matter. The attitude is determined also by a generally recognized low and average cooperation level among tourism stakeholders in Eforie Nord resort.

4. Conclusions

Climate change made their effects felt on a global scale inducing important local implications for economic vulnerable sectors and regions such as for recreational activities located in mountain or littoral areas and consequently highly dependent on climate resources. The present study attempted to catch through a survey the relationship climate change / tourism sector from the perspective of local stakeholders in Eforie Nord, a traditional typical littoral resort in Romania as statistical parameters left alone are unsatisfactory for reflecting it. Moreover industry's dynamics is more complex depending on various socio-economic aspects that may change exposure to natural factors independent to their evolution. Among the most important results of the survey one should mention the fact that natural resources still represent the main attraction for tourism activities in Eforie Nord resort, the destination not being very innovative through its offers. Consequently stakeholders expect for climate change to generate effects for different economic sectors in the area in general and for tourism domain at the level of their resort in particular. They blamed the lack of cooperation within the industry and also the absence of initiatives, implications and

dissemination of information on the topic from the part of central and local authorities. Stakeholders appreciated a low capacity for Eforie Nord resort to adapt climate change effects for the moment and stated that an appropriate, scientifically validated and stakeholder consulted strategy should be designed in order to cope this problem in the future.

Acknowledgements

This paper was supported by CNCSIS-UEFISCU, project number NP II-HR 94/2010, Contract no. 30/28.07.2010 and the Sectoral Operational Programme Human Resources Development (SOP HRD), financed from the European Social Fund and by the Romanian Government under the contract number SOP HRD/89.

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PLEASURE TRANSIT FLIGHTS AS A FORM OF QUASI-DESTINATION

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Due to the development of the aviation industry, a new phenomenon has appeared in tourism systems. This involves travellers who do not simply consider taking flights as a transportation method to reach the destination but expect to experience more leisure through the transit flight experience. Such 'pleasure transit flights', it is argued here, can be therefore situated as a form of 'quasi-destination'. A quasi-destination is a transit location or facility, such as a flight path, aircraft or a hub airport, which also possesses some characteristics of a destination, either intentionally or unintentionally. With this new phenomenon, more development and cooperation opportunities can be explored thereby providing economic benefits to both industries. Therefore, the overall purpose of this research paper is to theoretically define the new phenomenon of pleasure transit flights from a 'quasi-destination' perspective.

1. Introduction

Currently, the majority of tourism system studies focus on the tourist-generating and destination regions, where most marketing and tourism activities occur. Little attention has been paid to the tourist transit region or its constituent

elements, such as flights and airports. Normally, recreational routes aside, tourists consider the time spent in transit as wasted, or a 'necessary evil', due to the fact that the experience is often uncomfortable, time-consuming and boring. However, due to the development of the aviation industry, a new phenomenon has appeared in tourism systems. There are travellers who do not simply consider taking flights as a transportation method to reach the destination but expect to experience more leisure through the transit flight experience. For example, a traveller would like to fly from Sydney to Argentina via Antarctica. The main purpose of the traveller, however, is not reaching Argentina but enjoying the flight experience over Antarctica. Another example involves people who fly from Hong Kong to Singapore to experience the last commercial flight of the Singapore Airlines Boeing 747. Such 'pleasure transit flights', it is argued here, can be therefore situated as a form of 'quasi-destination'. A quasi-destination is a transit location or facility, such as a flight path, aircraft or a hub airport, which also possesses some characteristics of a destination. As the travel motivation of such travellers focuses more on exploring new aircraft, experiencing in-flight service, joining the special airline event and accruing flying miles, the flight itself, which is a 'quasi-destination', is usually considered as the core tourism product linking with special interest tourism, while the actual destination is relatively neglected. The very first flight of most people can also be considered as a 'quasi-destination', as this will always be a very attractive and exciting opportunity. Such experiences are beyond the scope of this paper, but it does indicate the potentially impressive magnitude of the quasi-destination pleasure transit flight phenomenon.

It is acknowledged that the tourism industry and the airline industry are inextricably bound. With this new phenomenon, more development and cooperation opportunities can be explored thereby providing economic benefits to both industries. Therefore, the overall purpose of this research paper is to define the new phenomenon of pleasure transit flights from a 'quasi-destination' perspective to better facilitate the understanding and management of tourism systems. The future research opportunities in this area will be identified in

order to obtain more understanding of this phenomenon and to enhance its development.

2.Literature Review and Research Gap Identification

The tourism industry and the passenger transport industry influence and depend on each other. According to Freyer (1993, cited in Grob and Schroder, 2007), the tourism product consists of service in the origin region, service in the transit region and service in the destination region. The passenger transport industry is intrinsically involved in offering service to tourists in all three regions but especially the transit zone, and is a key factor deciding the accessibility of the destination, a critical factor in tourism development (Page, 2005). Graham, Papatheodorou and Forsyth (2008) claim that there is a two way relationship between the tourism and passenger transport industries. On the one hand, good accessibility is essential for tourism destination development. Concurrently, the passenger transport industry can substantially benefit from the additional tourism demand. With the continuing improvement in aviation technology, aircraft are designed to travel longer and faster, which helps tourists to reach more distant destinations in less time (Duval, 2007). Meanwhile, due to the increasing fuel efficiencies realised in engine manufacturing and operation, the operating cost of airlines is largely reduced, allowing the reduction of ticket prices. Technological developments in aviation have significantly improved accessibility and stimulated tourists to travel to more international destinations (Duval, 2007). Most attendant studies focus only on the very basic connections or analyse the influence of improved mutual accessibility, supply and demand relationships, or industry characteristics. There is no literature that specifically discusses the future synergy cooperation opportunity and the linkage between the tourism industry and the air transport industry.

Early tourism models such as Campbell (1967, cited in Getz, 1986) and Miossec (1976, cited in Getz, 1986) explored the evolving relationship between tourism and transport. Mariot (1969, cited in Prideaux, 2000) developed a theoretical tourist flow model emphasizing the linkage and access routes between the tourist's place of permanent residence and the

tourist centre (see Figure 1). Leiper (2004) amalgamated these different routes linking the origin region and the destination region into a distinct transit route region in the 'whole tourism system' model (see Figure 2). This movement of tourists constitutes the primary flow of energy within the tourism (Weaver and Lawton, 2010). As stated above, air transport has become an essential element in the transit component. Few studies, however, have emphasised its importance within tourism systems in part because of the aforementioned reason that the transit region is often regarded as a taken-for-granted and non-discretionary space which the tourist must cross to reach their final destination (Weaver and Lawton, 2010).

Figure 1: Mariot's model of tourist flows between two locations

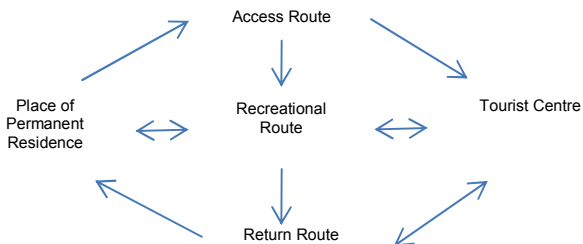
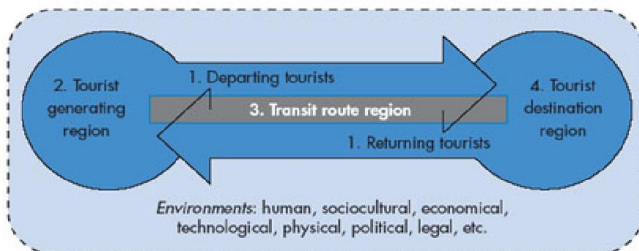


Figure 2: A basic whole tourism system and its environments model



However, some facilities/services in the transit region nowadays are now being marketed as tourism attractions in

their own right, thus blurring the distinction between the transit and destination components. Such transit places or experiences can be considered as examples of a 'quasi-destination' which is essentially a transit location or facility, such as a flight path, aircraft or a hub airport, which also possesses some characteristics of a destination. For example, when passengers transfer through Singapore Changi International Airport to reach their final destination, they can participate in different kinds of relaxation and entertainment activities such as visiting the various gardens and nature sites at the terminals and shopping for souvenirs. Therefore, the Changi airport is not only considered as a transit point in its own right but as a 'quasi-destination' with featured attractions and service that may also be intended to stimulate future stayover traffic. A scenic road or flight route over Antarctica is another type of quasi-destination, though one that lacks this destination marketing element.

This form of quasi-destination has apparent historical antecedents in the early days of aviation, when the flight experience itself was novel and entailed a relatively high degree of risk, thereby attracting passengers who wanted to experience this new phenomenon. Such motivations continued with the introduction of new aircraft (e.g. the Boeing 787) and the retirement of existing transport (e.g. Concorde). Increasing sophistication and comfort in new aircraft has further increased the scope for consumer interest in the transit experience *per se*. Accordingly, many people who are normally the fans of aviation do not simply consider taking flights as a transportation method to reach the destination but expect to experience more leisure and thrill through the transit flight experience. The motivation of such travellers focuses more on exploring new aircraft (i.e. Airbus 380 and Boeing 787), experiencing in-flight service, joining the special airline event (i.e. last Boeing 747 flight of Singapore Airlines) and accruing flying miles for free flight opportunities or membership upgrading. Therefore, these travellers usually choose their 'so-called' destination based on their preferred flight, which can satisfy their special needs (i.e. experiencing new aircraft or accruing miles), and normally, they like to transfer in different airports for medium or long haul journeys rather than take a direct flight. Based on the trip

characteristics, the flight itself, which is the 'quasi-destination' is usually considered as the core tourism product linking with special interest tourism, while the destination region as such is normally neglected in such cases.

Special interest tourism is considered to be tourism undertaken for a distinct and specific reason, as the participant chooses to engage with the tourism product for the purpose of satisfying his or her own interests and needs (Douglas, Douglas and Derrett, 2001). It is a complex phenomenon with the characteristics of flexible delivery, focused market segmentation and advanced technology affecting management and distribution. Although the business nature and market of special interest tourism are usually small-scaled, it is still recognised as a high-yielding tourism product. This is because special interest tourism is specially designed to satisfy the interests and needs of the participants for the purpose of generating more revenue from the concerned group of consumers who can achieve personal fulfillment through the involvement with the special interest tourism activities (Douglas, Douglas and Derrett, 2001).

Special interest tourists, on the whole, are generally well-educated, better informed, more independent, flexible, spontaneous, and unpredictable (Douglas, Douglas and Derrett, 2001). Morgan, Ogilvy and Mather (cited in Dickman, 1997) argued that people who are interested in special interest tourism are usually from middle to upper middle class in society. Normally, these people have strong consumption ability due to the higher income and social status. They would like to obtain personal recognition for their success and are interested in presenting their achievement. Since the tourists in this post-industrial era more and more would like to enjoy better personal service and high quality trip experience, mass tourism is no longer as popular or dominant as before. People strongly desire accessibility, authenticity, ritual and spectacle, and are more interested in participating rather than passive entertainment (Douglas, Douglas and Derrett, 2001). Therefore, the industry of special interest tourism is rapidly growing and diversifying.

Based on the discussion above, there are many development opportunities existing in the interface between 'quasi-destination' and 'special interest tourism'. The new

phenomenon, pleasure transit flights, however, innovatively links these two concepts as well as the tourism industry and air transport industry. Therefore, research should be conducted to explore the benefits that this new phenomenon brings to the relevant stakeholders as well as to identify its influences on the tourism and air transport industries.

3. Research Methodology

Based on a comprehensive literature review and a critical analysis of the relevant research gaps, the overall purpose of this research is to theoretically define the new phenomenon of pleasure transit flights from a 'quasi-destination' perspective. Additionally, the research is expected to explore the potential benefits that the pleasure transit flights will bring to the relevant stakeholders and its influences on the tourism and air transport industries. More specifically, the research will identify:

- The magnitude, growth and characteristics of the pleasure transit flight phenomenon
- the motivation for people to take pleasure transit flights
- the market segment for pleasure transit flights
- the development opportunity for the pleasure transit flight as a form of special interest tourism

To address the above research objectives most effectively, methodological triangulation involving both qualitative and quantitative approaches is pursued. Qualitative research often relies on interpretive or critical social science, while quantitative research depends on a positivist approach to social science (Neuman, 2006). Although qualitative and quantitative researches differ in many ways, they are complementary. Quantitative research can elicit relatively limited information from a large number of informants and subsequently identify basic patterns in the target population through various statistical techniques. Qualitative research, subsequently, can reveal in-depth information about those patterns, based on interviews and focus groups involving a small and carefully selected sample of those informants. Since there is only partial overlap, a study using both methods is more comprehensive and the result is

more reliable (Neuman, 2006). Additionally, outcomes from qualitative research can provide support for the quantitative research making the data gained through quantitative research more effective and realistic, if the quantitative research is conducted following the qualitative research (Clark and Creswell, 2008).

Initially, the triangulated research involved the collection of secondary resources and desk research including academic research publications, industry journals and official reports. Based on the comprehensive literature review and critical analysis of the existing theories, the conceptual map and the framework of the research were developed. Concurrently, the first research object can be achieved. Also, these secondary resources provided theoretical and empirical support for the formulation of the research objectives. A linear research path has been designed to ensure that the research proceeds in a clear, logical, sequential and well-structured manner. Three-stages of survey-based primary research will be conducted. These will involve semi-structured interviews (as the main qualitative component) and a questionnaire-based survey (as the main quantitative component).

The first empirical research stage will focus on questionnaires directed to people who take the pleasure transit flight. Through the survey, it is expected that the basic motivations for people to take pleasure transit flights can be identified. Also, clear market segments for the pleasure transit flight can be identified based on the demographic information collected through the survey. Thus, the second and third research objectives can be fulfilled through this research stage.

The questions in the survey are designed mainly based on the theory of reasoned action (TRA) model. The theory of reasoned action (TRA) helps to understand consumer behaviour and purchase decision making. It is used to predict the behaviour intention of consumers and span predictions of attitude and behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Therefore, it is effective for predicting the motivation of people to take the pleasure transit flight and understand their decisions when planning the flight trips. According to the TRA, a consumer's behavioral intentions are based on his/her attitude and subjective norm. Since it is difficult to examine the social environment of interviewees in a

short time, the survey thus focuses on identifying their attitude towards pleasure transit flight using Likert-scaled questions.

To achieve a high probability of representing the target population, a convenience sampling method will be used to select potential survey respondents among people who have already participated in at least one pleasure transit flight. An online survey instrument will be used to disseminate the questionnaire, which will be promoted among the major frequent flyer blogs and social networking service (i.e. Facebook and Twitter) and travel websites. There are many frequent flyer blogs and travel websites that contain a discussion section or a forum specially designed for people who are interested to take the pleasure transit flight. For example, flyer tea and flyer talk. Due to personal interest, the first author has a strong connection with people who are interested in taking the pleasure transit flight on social networking service. To ensure the effectiveness and reliability of the research, only people who are at least 18 years old and have taken the pleasure transit flight during the previous 24 months prior to the survey completion date will be surveyed.

The most recent version of the quantitative statistics software SPSS will be used to analyse the questionnaire data. This initially involves aggregate descriptions of the sample. Hierarchical cluster analysis will then be used to identify relatively uniform sub-samples differentiated by their response patterns to the Likert-scaled questions of pleasure transit flight experience and attitude. Subsequently, comparison-of-means and chi-squared tests will be used to see how the clusters differ (For example, it may be revealed that younger males from western regions of origin are more likely to take the pleasure transit flight in order to experience the new aircraft type). The hierarchical cluster analysis method is effective in determining the market segments of the pleasure transit flight and identifying the different motivation patterns.

The second research stage involves in-depth interview with people who are interested in the pleasure transit flight. The questionnaire will request those potentially interested in participating in such an interview to supply a contact email or Skype address. Willing representatives of each of the sub-samples identified in the cluster analysis will then be randomly contacted for interviewing purposes. Through the interview, the deep motivation for people to take the pleasure transit flight will

be identified. Additionally, the interview can attain the data enrichment for the quantitative research. Qualitative analysis software will be used to interpret the context of the interviewee's feedback and enhance the reliability and validity of the result. Through the second research stage, the fulfillment of the second and third research objectives will be consolidated.

After the completion of the first and second research stages, the last research stage will be pursued. Semi-structured interview with industry professionals from the airlines and the tourism organizations will be conducted. This initial stage will focus on addressing the first and last research objectives, and includes the identification of perceived attendant opportunities from the pleasure transit flight. Before the interview, the researcher will introduce the new phenomenon, pleasure transit flight, to the interviewee and present the preliminary research outcome from the first and second stages. It is expected the interviewees can clearly express their perception on the pleasure transit flight and their perspectives on the preliminary research results. Additionally, the interviewees will be invited to give out their opinions on the development opportunities for pleasure transit flight as a form of special interest tourism and its influence on the tourism and air transport industries.

4. Significance of the Research

As has been discussed in the literature review, there is very little literature that directly links the tourism industry and the air transport industry, and very few studies focus on the transit region of the tourism system. This research uses the 'pleasure transit flight' to catch the attention of scholars into these research areas. In addition, the pleasure transit flight will be theoretically defined as a new form of special interest tourism from the 'quasi-destination' perspective. This innovative linkage between the special interest tourism and the quasi-destination will have substantial benefit for both tourism and air transport industries, and will highly influence their development. Further research will also be stimulated to conduct in the relevant areas to deeply investigate the phenomenon of pleasure transit flight and identify people's interest in participating in pleasure transit flights.

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ALPINE PEARLS: TOURIST DESTINATIONS' RESPONSE TO A NEED FOR MORE SUSTAINABLE TOURISM MOBILITIES

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Sustainable tourism development involves many different stakeholders and many different sustainability strategies. In this paper we focus on the sustainability strategy of the Alpine Pearls association, a network of 28 municipalities and tourism boards who offer environmental-friendly holidays to their guests, with special attention for sustainable mobility. It is a practice-specific sustainability strategy, focused on greening the active holiday in summer season and the winter sports holiday in winter season. By participant observations and interviews, the main research question is answered: To what extent can this practice-specific sustainability strategy provided by municipalities and tourism boards be effective in a sustainable development of tourism mobilities?

1. Introduction

The Alpine region is one of the most important tourism destinations in Europe. As the consequences of climate change have already affected tourism activity and economic benefits in the Alpine region (Becken and Hay, 2007), there is a growing interest in sustainability strategies. Böhler et al. (2006) argue that sustainability strategies must include, among other things, a shift towards environmental-friendly transport modes. Reducing car dependency and substituting car travel with train and/or bus travel is considered desirable in the Alpine region, since up to

80% of all tourist journeys to the Alps are by car (EEA, 2003). These tourists use their cars frequently during their holiday as well. In several Alpine villages car travel has increased with 45% in the last ten years (Alpenkonvention, 2007).

Striving for a sustainable development of tourism mobilities involves many stakeholders, ranging from local, national and supranational governments, to tourism and transport providers, NGOs, tourists and citizens of tourism destinations. These stakeholders have developed and make use of a wide range of strategies for sustainable tourism mobilities (STM). To mention three of those stakeholders and their STM-strategies, first, airlines for instance experiment with biofuels (e.g. Virgin Atlantic), or offer climate compensation in the booking process (e.g. Easy Jet). Second, tourists can decide to stay closer to home, to go on holiday less often, to travel with environmental-friendly transport modes or to compensate their carbon impact. Third, tour operators can for instance decide to create attractive package deals including environmental-friendly transport.

In this paper, the focus will be on the accomplishments of a network of municipalities and local tourism boards in the Alpine region: the Alpine Pearls association (in short: Alpine Pearls). In their attempt for a sustainable development of tourism mobilities they stimulate tourists to travel to, between and in the Alpine tourism destinations in an environmental-friendly way. Measures are taken such as providing environmental-friendly transport connections, shuttle services, alternative vehicles in the communities and electronic travel information systems that cover all modes and (inter)regional transport services (see also Holding, 2001; Alpenkonvention, 2007; Dubois, 2006; Pils, 2006; Schmied and Götz, 2006; Lund-Durlacher et al., 2013).

2. Theoretical Overview

The last decades sustainable tourism has become a very popular research topic. Several scholars argue that tourism mobility however, has not received its fair share of interest (e.g. Page, 2005; Verbeek and Mommaas, 2008). Without claiming to give a complete overview of sustainable tourism mobility research, Verbeek (2009) identifies several streams.

One stream of research focuses on a sustainable development of transport modes, transport infrastructures and transport systems. These analyses are for instance concentrated on technological innovations, on improving the eco-efficiency of transport modes, on alternative fuels for cars and airplanes, or on the eco-efficiency of tourism and the ecological footprint of holidays (e.g. Åkerman and Höjer, 2006; Gössling et al., 2002; Gössling et al., 2005; Hunter and Shaw, 2007; Patterson et al., 2007; Peeters and Schouten, 2006). These analyses are based on the belief that technological innovations can uncouple tourism growth from growth of its environmental impacts.

Another line of research is consumer-oriented, focusing for instance on tourists' view on voluntary climate compensation (e.g. Becken, 2004; Brouwer et al., 2007), and on their willingness to pay for sustainable tourism services. Other contributions within this line differentiate between diverging traveller types or leisure mobility styles (e.g. Böhler et al., 2006; Lanzendorf, 2002) based on tourists' attitudes and behaviours. These contributions mainly follow the social-psychological research tradition in which social-demographic variables, attitudes, values and motivations are viewed as determinants of behaviour. When aiming for a sustainable development of tourism mobility, scholars in this line of research opt for raising environmental awareness, increasing environmental knowledge, and promoting environmental-friendly attitudes.

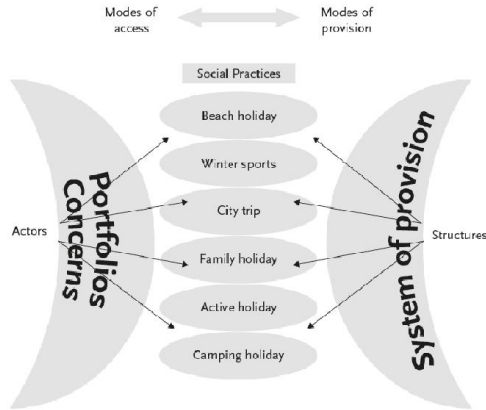
The final stream of STM research deals with modal shift. It tries to predict, explain or change the modal split, (i.e. the use of different transport modes in travelling behavior). In the stream of modal shift research, some contributions focus on transport modes and (infra)structural improvements (e.g. Peeters et al. 2004, 2007; Åkerman and Höjer, 2006), while others adopt a consumer-orientation, focusing on attitudes towards environmental-friendly travelling (e.g. Anable, 2005; Gronau and Kagermeier, 2007). Some of these modal shift research contributions go beyond taking either a consumer-oriented or a technology-oriented approach, and focus on altering travelling behaviours in specific contexts, such as the Alpine region (e.g. Holding, 2001; Alpenkonvention, 2007; Dubois, 2006; Pils, 2006; Schmied and Götz, 2006).

2.1 A Practise approach

When studying a sustainable development of tourism mobility, there is much to be gained by a theoretical framework which creates linkages between actor- or structure-centred bodies of knowledge (see more in Verbeek, 2009). Furthermore, the specific context of actor and structure characteristics are important to take into account when analysing and designing sustainable developments (e.g. Sharpley, 2000; Verbeek, 2009). This paper therefore adopts a practice approach in which actor and structure elements are considered interactively and framed in a contextualised way. The Social Practices Approach (SPA) developed by Spaargaren (1997) has its origins in Giddens' structuration theory, but has been developed with a special focus on consumption practices, such as tourism.

Social practices are routine-driven configurations of activities, situated in time and space, and shared by groups of people as part of their everyday life (Spaargaren, 1997; Spaargaren, 2003; Spaargaren and Van Vliet, 2000). Examples of social practices are cooking, doing the groceries, commuting, or, in the tourism domain, city trips, winter sports, active holidays, or beach holidays. Tourists and travellers together with the producers and providers of tourism services have the opportunity to develop those tourism practices into more sustainable practices (Verbeek and Mommaas, 2008; Verbeek, 2009). This is visualised in Figure 1 by the modes of access and modes of provision within social practices. The modes of provision here refer to the availability of (more) sustainable options offered by providers. A differentiation is made between market-based, state-based and community-based forms of sustainable supply (Spaargaren and Van Koppen, 2009). Within these forms of supply one can differentiate between the provision of products, services, information, images and narratives (ibid.). Furthermore, providers communicate their (more) sustainable offers in different ways: with consumer-silent strategies (go behind the back of the consumer), or make the sustainable offer visible (give consumers a choice). Finally, providers' storylines for sustainable alternatives differ to a great extent; storylines range from 'it is your responsibility to nature' to 'it is good for you' and everything in between.

Figure 1: Theoretical framework; based on the SPA model (Spaargaren, 1997)



Source: Verbeek (2009: 84).

The modes of access (see Figure 1) are of equal importance as the modes of provision. Not only need more sustainable alternatives be provided, actors also need to have access to these and need to have the attitudes (concerns) and the practical knowledge and capabilities (portfolios) to be willing and able to use these. Both concerns and portfolios have proven to be practice-specific (Verbeek, 2009). For instance, people do not have one environmental-friendly attitude. Instead, people's concerns for the environment and their felt need to act upon it show big differences between consumption domains and practices. The level of concern for the environment is much higher related to food consumption compared to tourism. Consumers perceive themselves as co-responsible in a sustainable development of food consumption, whereas regarding the holiday the general idea is: 'The environment? Not during my holiday!' (see more in Verbeek, 2009).

3. Methodology and Case Description

3.1 Methodological approach

In applying the practice approach in the empirical analysis of Alpine Pearls and the 'Alpine Pearls holiday practice', data have been gathered by participant observations and interviews in 2007.

Participant observations fit the theoretical framework well since this method automatically considers the context; data have been gathered at the times and places where modes of access and modes of provision meet within the Alpine Pearls holiday practice. It enabled to analyze how convenient and comfortable it is to travel environmental-friendly to and in the Alpine region given the provision of transport options and information, and to analyze what skills, experiences and attitudes people travelling to/in Alpine Pearls (need to) possess in order to enjoy a holiday in the Alpine region without a car.

Furthermore, 14 interviews have been conducted with the mayors, tourism boards, transport and accommodation providers of/in the Alpine Pearl villages. This gained insight in the 'behind the scene' processes which have their influence on the Alpine Pearls holiday.

Additionally, an interview has been conducted in May 2013 with the manager of the Alpine Pearls association to update the research results from 2007, which have been published in Verbeek (2009) and Verbeek et al. (2011). Among other things, this interview gained insight in the modes of provision of the Alpine Pearls holiday practice; how Alpine Pearls cooperates with tourism providers (tour operators, hotels) and transport providers (railway companies) to strive for sustainable tourism mobilities in the Alpine region.

3.2 Description of Alpine Pearls

As mentioned above, Alpine Pearls is an example of local governments working together with tourism boards and transport and accommodation providers to achieve sustainable tourism development. The Alpine Pearls network currently consists of 28 tourist destinations in France, Italy, Switzerland, Austria, Germany and Slovenia (Figure 2).

Before the founding of the Alpine Pearls association in January 2006, one governmental project (Austria - 'Sanfte Mobilität - Urlaub vom Auto) and two European Union projects (Alps Mobility and Alps Mobility II) were focused on a sustainable development of tourism mobilities in the Alpine region. These EU projects resulted in the creation of the Alpine Pearls association

in 2006 which consisted of 17 villages that were also involved with the previous, governmentally supported, projects. Since then, four villages left the network and fifteen new members have entered, "all of which support soft tourism, climate protection, and sustainable holidays" (www.alpine-pearls.com; accessed May 7th 2013).

Figure 2: Alpine Pearls network (2012)



Alpine Pearls is chosen as the subject of analysis for three reasons. First of all, contrary to many sustainability strategies in the tourism domain which are predominantly focused on sustainable developments at the tourism destination (e.g. fair tourism, ecotourism, volunteer tourism), Alpine Pearls is aimed at a sustainable development of tourism *mobilities*: both destination-related transport, and origin-destination transport (OD). In fact, the Alpine Pearls association considers tourism mobility as an integrated aspect of the holiday. In this sense, Alpine Pearls is an exception also to modal shift strategies that focus on transport without taking the entire holiday into consideration. Second, Alpine Pearls is a practice-specific sustainability strategy, as opposed to a generic one. It is attuned to active holidays (summer season) and winter sports (winter season). A third reason to analyze Alpine Pearls is that it integrates people, planet and profit aspects in a positive storyline. Alpine Pearls aims for soft mobility to, in and in-between the Alpine villages, by offering their guests attractive, convenient, comfortable mobility options, thereby distinguishing themselves from other tourism destinations and increasing the overnight stays

The fact that Alpine Pearls is a practice-specific strategy for sustainable tourism mobility using a positive storyline makes it a promising initiative. The question is however how a sustainability strategy from this type of provider, an association of municipalities and tourism boards, can be effective. What are the accomplishments? What barriers does the AP association run into? Can Alpine Pearls be an example for municipalities and tourism boards in other regions? The research question in this paper therefore is: To what extent can this practice-specific sustainability strategy provided by municipalities and tourism boards be effective in a sustainable development of tourism mobilities?

4. Results

In organizing environmental-friendly travelling opportunities to and within the Alpine region, the Alpine Pearls association has appeared to be dependent on other actors, such as: the municipalities, tourist offices, accommodation providers in the 28 Alpine Pearls villages, tour operators that (could) offer Alpine Pearls holiday packages, the railway companies within or on the route to the Alpine region, and the bus companies in the Alpine region. The analysis revealed that the Alpine Pearls association is not always in the position to enforce these stakeholders to improve the system of provision of the Alpine Pearls holiday practice (see also Lund-Durlacher et al., 2013).

To begin with, since hotels are private companies, the Alpine Pearls association can not oblige hotels in the Alpine Pearls villages to offer their guests Alpine Pearls holiday package deals, to provide their guests information on Alpine Pearls, or even to provide their guests information on how to reach the hotel with environmental-friendly transport means. “Some hotels have the logo on their homepage, but other hotels don’t even realise, or don’t care much. The task of the AP association goes as far as to say to municipalities and tourism boards please inform and educate your hotels” (provider interview 2007). Mayors and tourism boards involve hotels with Alpine Pearls in different ways. In Hinterstoder, the mayor compelled all hotels to pay the marketing and

membership fee together. As a consequence, the hotels are committed to Alpine Pearls and supply their guests with information about and free access to environmental-friendly mobility services in the region (provider interview 2007). In Werfenweng, only guests of samo-hotels (sanfte mobilität) have access to the environmental-friendly travelling services. As a consequence, a large majority of the hotels in Werfenweng is a samo-hotel (provider interview 2007). When hotels are involved, this makes going on a holiday in the Alpine region without a car easier and more attractive. Tourists have more information and more environmental-friendly transport modes at their disposal. When there is no cooperation with hotels in the Alpine Pearls villages, this creates a gap in the system of provision of the Alpine Pearls holiday.

Next to hotels being committed to Alpine Pearls through regulations of the municipality, hotels can cooperate with tour operators which offer Alpine Pearls package holidays (e.g. Hotels in Berchtesgaden, Bad Reichenhall and Interlaken). According to the tourism manager of the Rosengarten-Latemar region, this cooperation is however complicated, given the small-scaled, family-owned hotels in this region. These hotels prefer not to cooperate with tour operators, reserve rooms for them and pay them commission. Neither tourist offices nor municipalities (and hence neither the AP association) can force hotels to cooperate with tour operators and to offer Alpine Pearls package holidays. Therefore, throughout the years, the Alpine Pearls association changed their view on the cooperation with tour operators: "Cooperation with tour operators would be nice, but we have kind of given up on the cooperation with tour operators. We focus now on cooperating with other sectors" (provider interview 2013).

Furthermore, although the goal of the Alpine Pearls association is to enable people to travel to and in the Alpine region by using public transportation and other environmental-friendly transport means only, the Alpine Pearls holiday often concerns a combination of transport modes; many people travel to the Alpine region by car, and then use environmental-friendly transport means during the holiday.

A difficulty lies in the fact that the focus of public transport companies is on transporting people from origin to destination, not on viewing that journey as part of the holiday, or as part of the holiday practice. Another difficulty in organizing Alpine Pearls holidays is the nationally structured transport sector. The Alpine region is spread over six countries, each with its own transport infrastructures and transport companies. As a consequence of this country-specific system of provision, the OD-transport facilities for Alpine Pearls holidays lack behind the availability of environmental-friendly travelling services *within* the region.

The AP association does not have the power or authority to force railway companies to develop products and services for the Alpine Pearls holidays. In 2013, the cooperation with the German and Austrian railway companies is only based on joint advertisement. There is no cooperation on the product side. "The main challenge for Alpine Pearls is to convince railway companies to provide services for holiday makers. It would be a boost for soft mobility, and also for the Alpine Pearls villages if they would think about train travellers as holiday makers, [...] if they would provide information on the target destinations, if they would provide the services that airlines or cruise companies provide their customers. Railway carriers should provide services to tourists, instead of transporting people. That would be the key to success." (provider interview 2013).

Even though Alpine Pearls does not have the power to stimulate environmental-friendly OD-transport, they have succeeded in offering environmental-friendly transport in the Alpine Pearls and their surroundings, such as buses, e-Bikes, Segways, and e-Cars. By this, people get used to spend a holiday without using the car at the destination. The idea is that this encourages people to leave the car home next time, since they know how to travel without a car in the Alpine region. In Werfenweng this strategy has worked: the percentage of people that travel to this Pearl by environmental-friendly transport modes has increased from 6% to 55% in between 2000 and 2007. Offering environmental-friendly transport modes may stimulate a process of de-routinisation of car travelling and re-routinisation of environmental-friendly travelling to and in the Alpine region.

5. Conclusion and Discussion

To what extent can this practice-specific sustainability strategy provided by municipalities and tourism boards be effective in a sustainable development of tourism mobilities?

The Alpine Pearls holiday can be considered a holiday practice with a different system of provision than those of the current transport and tourism industries. Two factors restrict the creation of environmental-friendly Alpine Pearls holidays. First, the nationally organized system of provision of the transport industry which lacks a view on OD-transport as part of the holiday, and is not focused on providing service to holiday makers travelling by train. Second, the hotels' resistance to cooperate with tour operators, and as a result, the lack of Alpine Pearls holiday packages.

In order to be more effective, the Alpine Pearls association should be in charge of reorganizing these systems of provision on the level of the Alpine Pearls holiday practice. However, the Alpine Pearls association, a non-profit association financed by its members, has limited power and authority to reframe the narrow-defined and country-based system of provision of the tourism and transport industry in order for these to link up with the contextually organized system of provision of the Alpine Pearls holiday practice. This hampers the organization of a complete package environmental-friendly holiday in the Alpine region, including OD-transport.

Despite these barriers, Alpine Pearls serves as an example of how local governments can together with other stakeholders strive for sustainable development of tourism mobility, as an integrated aspect of the holiday. Especially within the Alpine region, the opportunities for sustainable mobility have increased, tourists are positive about the Alpine Pearls holiday concept, and the 28 villages report increased numbers of overnight stays.

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HOW TO DEVELOP A CARBON MANAGEMENT TOOL FOR TOUR OPERATORS AND HOW TO INFORM TOURISTS ABOUT CARBON IMPACTS?

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Information is considered to be of significant influence on the choices made regarding travelling behavior, so it is expected that providing environmental information is one of the instruments in a sustainable development of tourism. Therefore, this paper analyzes environmental information regarding holidays; Is there environmental information regarding holidays? How is this information positioned in the vacation choice practice? And does it fit with the character of holiday practices? Results show that information is provided but does not have a central position in the vacation choice practice, because its storyline only fits with one holiday practice - active holidays - and not with other holiday practices. Recently however, Dutch tour operators have shown interest in calculating and communicating the carbon impacts of their holiday packages. This has resulted in the research project Carmatop, which will be described in the final section of this paper.

1. Introduction

Tourism is faced with sustainability challenges. A sustainable development of tourism is perceived desirable by many actors involved in the tourism industry. One of the instruments considered to be important in a transition to more sustainable tourism practices, is the provision of environmental information

regarding holidays. There are two lines of reasoning behind this. First, the importance of environmental information is stressed by several scholars, stating that information is both an effective and a necessary precondition for greening consumption behaviours (see Van den Burg, 2006; Chafe, 2004; Hobson, 2003; Van der Horst, 2006; Rubik and Frankl, 2005; Vittersø, 2003). Although it is argued that environmental information alone is not enough to change consumption behaviour (see Thøgersen, 2006; Hobson, 2002; Hobson, 2003; Vittersø, 2003), it can be a starting point for rethinking behaviour from a sustainability perspective (Van den Burg, 2006). So, also in tourism, providing environmental information is the first act to empower tourists to make informed decisions about their holiday (Chafe, 2004; Wehrli et al., 2013). Second, information is considered to be of significant influence on the choices made regarding travelling behaviour (Crotts, 1999; Fodness and Murray, 1997, 1999; Gursoy and McCleary, 2004; Pan and Fesenmaier, 2006). Bargeman and Van der Poel (2006) differentiate four stages in the vacation decision-making process; making vacation plans, searching for internal and external information, evaluating alternatives and making the final decision, and finally, preparing the vacation.

As information is regarded as being of important influence on decisions regarding the holiday, and in greening consumption behaviours, it can be expected that information strategies on environmental-friendly holidays are an important tool in a sustainable development of tourism. Therefore, this paper analyzes the positioning of environmental information in the vacation choice practice.

2. Towards a Typology of Formats for Environmental Information Regarding Holidays

Before analyzing the positioning of environmental information in the vacation choice practice and its alignment with holiday practices, desk research has been done to investigate whether environmental information is available at all in the tourism domain, and if so, in which formats this information is given. In total, ten different formats have been found (see more in Verbeek, 2009).

First, eco-labelling is a well-known and widely used format to provide environmental information in the vacation choice practice. There are hundreds of eco-labels for the accommodation sector, such as Green Key, Green Globe, EU Eco-label, and the Green Tourism Business Scheme.

Second, there are green tour operators, recognizable by an eco-label for tour operators, such as Great Green Deal, Eco Certified Tourism, Green Globe, Certification for Sustainable Tourism, or Eco Certified Sustainable Travel. By discerning green tour operators from 'normal' tour operators, tourists are given the information and tools to choose a more sustainable holiday package.

Third, analogue to for instance the clothing domain where 'normal' shops like HandM have a bio-cotton clothing line, tourists can book a green holiday from a 'normal' tour operator, for instance by choosing an intra-continental train holiday package instead of an intercontinental holiday by air.

Fourth, climate compensation programs are a way to provide information on the carbon impact of the transport that is involved with going on a holiday. Besides giving information, travellers are provided the opportunity to offset their emissions.

Fifth, the 'Vakantievoetafdruk' (Holiday Footprint), developed by NHTV (Breda University of applied sciences) and the Dutch NGO 'de Kleine Aarde', can serve as a tool for travellers to compare the impact of different holidays, and it can serve as a tool for tour operators to adjust their packages in such a way that the footprint is smaller, and to communicate the holiday footprint to tourists. The holiday footprint is measured in m^2 ; $1600m^2$ per person is considered to be a fair share. To give an example, a trip to Rome by airplane has a footprint of $1855m^2$.

Sixth, impact calculators of transport modes can be used by travelers to calculate the greenhouse gas emissions of different transport modes. Ecopassenger, Routerank, Carbonfund, Travelmatters, MyClimate and Atmosfair are among the examples (see more in Eijgelaar et al. 2013).

Seventh, branch organisations, NGOs and tour operators give hints on how to go on a more sustainable holiday or on how to behave for sustainable during the holiday. These hints vary from 'compensate your flight', 'stay in eco-labelled accommodations', to 'respect the local culture'.

Eighth, there is an energy label for air tickets. On cheaptickets.nl, a popular website to book flights, all flights are given an eco-value ranging from a green A-label to a red E-label. Eco-value is measured on the level of destinations. So flying Amsterdam-Rome without stopover gets the green A-label, and with a stopover it gets the red E-label.

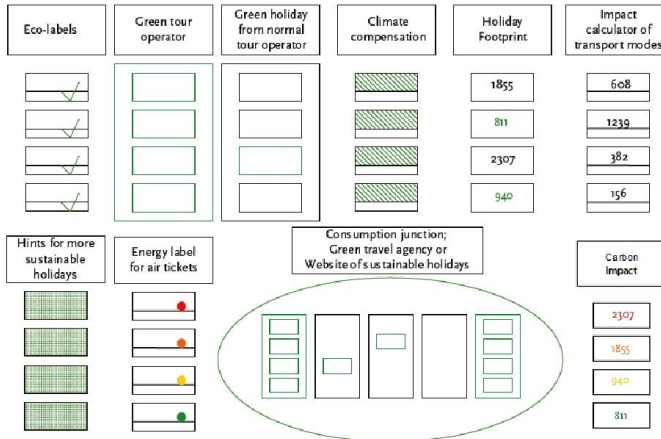
Ninth, green travel agencies or websites, on which sustainable holidays from different tour operators are gathered (f.i. Responsible Travel), are a format to provide environmental information. This is referred to as a sustainable consumption junction, because here consumers who look for sustainable holidays and different providers offering sustainable holidays come together.

Tenth, in cooperation with NHTV, Dutch tour operator Sawadee has developed a prototype label to inform tourists about the carbon impact of their holiday packages. Like the fifth format, it states a number that shows the impact of the whole holiday, but here it refers to carbon emissions in kilogram, instead of footprint in m^2 . Furthermore, like the energy label for air tickets, they use five categories, from green via orange to red. The final section of this paper will elaborate more on this format.

Figure 1 shows the typology of the ten formats. Tour operators are displayed as big squares and the holidays are displayed as smaller squares. The square which represents the holiday is broken up in two parts. Since mobility is responsible for about 70% of the total emissions caused by tourism (e.g. Peeters and Schouten, 2006), the bigger part of the square refers to the mobility component of the holiday, and the smaller part refers to the accommodation and the activities of the holiday. Therefore, the Eco-label format is represented with an ok-sign for the smaller part of the holiday, referring to the fact that accommodations fulfill certain criteria with regard to environmental-friendliness. In the format of climate compensation, the green stripes represent the fact that the transport impacts are compensated. The red, orange, yellow and green dots in the mobility aspect of the holiday represent the format of the Energy-label. The fact that some numbers of the Holiday Footprint are green, whereas all numbers of the Calculator of transport modes are black, represents the fact that the transport mode calculator does not state a certain number up to which travelling is deemed environmental-friendly, whereas the

Holiday Footprint is based on the premise that numbers below 1.600 can be considered environmental-friendly. In the carbon impact format, the colors of the numbers range from red to green.

Figure 1: A typology of environmental information formats in the vacation choice practice



Source: Adjusted from Verbeek (2009: 111).

3. Practice Theory: Modes of Access and Modes of Provision for Environmental Information

The above investigation of the positioning of environmental information in the vacation choice practice provides an answer to the first research question of this paper: *Is environmental information currently available in the vacation choice practice, and, if so, in which formats is this information provided?* Desk research resulted in the typology of environmental information formats available in the tourism domain (Figure 1).

However, despite the fact that environmental information is being introduced in the vacation choice practice, tourists seldom run into it and are hence unfamiliar with the various environmental information formats. Existing initiatives miss customers' attention (Verbeek, 2009; see also Budeanu, 2007). The minimal use of and unfamiliarity with

environmental information in the vacation choice practice cannot be explained by an absence of environmental information. This implies that there are other factors behind this paradox between the availability of environmental information on the one hand, and the unfamiliarity with it on the other. Apparently, the modes of provisioning environmental information do not fit well with the modes of access. This suggests that it is interesting to analyse the active process of embedding environmental information in the vacation choice practice both from provider- and user-perspective. In light of the Social Practices Approach, which focuses on social practices in which actors and structures are analysed within their proper context (see more in Verbeek and Mommaas, 2008; Verbeek, 2009), the remainder of this paper will focus on the positioning of environmental information in the vacation choice practice. The second research question of this paper therefore is: *How do actors from access-side and provision-side regard the positioning of environmental information in the vacation choice practice?*

To answer this question, the meaning of and the dynamics behind the positioning of environmental information in the vacation choice practice will be examined, both from a provider- and tourist- perspective. Factors will be identified which influence whether or not, and how, providers provide environmental information and whether or not, and how, tourists want to receive environmental information in the vacation choice practice. To this end, insights have been gained in why providers choose (not) to provide environmental information, and if information is provided, then insights have been gained in how and why information is provided. Furthermore, insights have been gained in how tourists would like to be informed on environmental issues, in case they want to be informed. If they do not want to be informed, it is interesting to know why not.

On a different level of abstraction, the Social Practices Approach points to the importance of connecting environmental information with holiday practices in the tourism domain, in order to contribute to a sustainable development of tourism mobilities. Hence, besides the provision-access dynamics regarding positioning of environmental information, a third research question has been

formulated to analyse whether the positioning of environmental information in the vacation choice practice connects with the character of holiday practices: *How does the positioning of environmental information in the vacation choice practice fit with the character of holiday practices?*

In line with the Social Practices Approach it is hypothesised that holiday practices have a structuring effect on the dynamics between consumers and providers, which implies that environmental information should fit with practice-specific mechanisms between access and provision. In other words, environmental information should fit with the character of holiday practices.

4. Methodology

The focus in this paper is on providers' environmental information strategies and tourists' preferences on how to be informed on environmental issues. Both the positioning of environmental information in the vacation choice practice and its alignment with different holiday practices are considered important in a transition towards more sustainable tourism.

In answering the research questions, the focus is not on how individuals appropriate environmental information formats and use these in their consumption behaviour, and not on how formats of environmental information have been developed, but, the focus is on the modes of access and modes of provision regarding environmental information in the vacation choice practice. Although it is inevitable that individual consumers and providers are consulted, the theoretical focus on practices is reflected in the methodology.

Desk research was supplemented with focus groups. After one pilot focus group with consumers in May 2006, two focus groups have been conducted with consumers in December 2006 and February 2007. Each consumer focus group had 6 participants. In December 2006 one focus group took place with 8 providers in the tourism domain. Furthermore, in February and March 2007, 12 semi-structured in-depth interviews have been conducted with providers in the tourism industry.

5.Results

How do actors from access-side and provision-side regard the positioning of environmental information in the vacation choice practice?

From the focus group and interviews with providers in the tourism industry it appeared that they are quite hesitant to provide information on environmental issues in a prominent way. They state that other organizations, such as consumer organizations and NGOs, should inform consumers about this. They have five reasons for this. First, people won't trust information from a commercial party. Second, they do not want to be accused of green wash. Third, they want to prevent to get a green image, because they want to be attractive for all customers, not only the environmentally concerned ones. Fourth, environmental-friendliness is not a selling point or marketing tool like it is in other consumption domains, such as food and clothing. Fifth, some providers state that their customers do not want to be informed, and other providers state their customers do not need to be informed because they are already familiar with these issues. If tourism providers do provide information it is mostly done on a separate page on their website, or on the last page of their brochure, so not right next to the product. Environmental information is positioned in a remote corner of the vacation choice practice. Furthermore, the information on environmental issues is usually given as non-committal hints on how to behave greener during the holiday (i.e. the seventh format in Figure 1). They give this information because membership of the branch organization requires that (see more in Verbeek, 2009).

The reluctance towards information on environmental issues regarding holidays is also widespread among consumers. The most common response when talking with consumers about this topic is: "The environment? Not during my holiday!". They say they are concerned for the environment in their everyday life, but during their holiday they want to be free of those concerns and responsibilities. Nevertheless, they do say they want to be informed on environmental issues, as long as they are free to decide what to do with it. Some consumers prefer information from the government because it is trustworthy, while others want

to be informed by tour operators, right then and there where they are looking for and booking their holiday: right next to the pictures, the description, the length of stay, transport mode and price. Since consumers are not actively searching for it, environmental information should be positioned centrally in the vacation choice practice. Consumers prefer the formats that enable them to assess and compare the impact of different holidays (f.i. the fifth, sixth, eighth and tenth format in Figure 1). Although this may sound promising, green information will influence their decision-making only in so far as it leaves the character of their holiday practices unchanged. Climate compensation is therefore considered attractive by consumers.

All in all, both providers and consumers are reluctant towards environmental information regarding holidays; providers don't want to give this information, at least not in a prominent way, whereas tourists want to be informed so they can compare environmental impacts, as long as they are free to decide not to do anything with it (see more in Verbeek, 2009).

How does the positioning of environmental information in the vacation choice practice fit with the character of holiday practices?

This shared reluctance can partly be explained by the results that answer this third research question. During the focus groups and interviews it appeared that environmental information is not neutral, nor positive. Whereas regarding food, environmental-friendly, biological, ecological and fair goes hand in hand with a positive storyline of healthy food, animal-friendliness, happy farmers and high quality products, in tourism, environmental-friendly, eco and sustainable is associated with downsizing and demodernization, with goat woollen sock types and tree huggers. People think of active camping holidays; small-scale alternative tourism without luxury. Environmental information thus creates a negative atmosphere which does not fit with the fun, enjoyable and relaxing holiday practices. If at all, it fits only with one type of holiday practice: active holidays. Generically applying this storyline of environmental information to other holiday practices is not desirable and therefore the information is rather not given. Environmental information needs to be detached from this single 'treehugger' storyline and should be framed in alternative

storylines that connect to other holiday practices, like winter sports, city trips, and beach holidays (see more in Verbeek, 2009).

6. Conclusions and Carmatop

This study examined three things; whether and in which formats environmental information is provided regarding holidays, how it is positioned in the vacation choice practice and why, and whether and how environmental information fits with different holiday practices. The conclusion is that environmental information regarding holidays is available in ten different formats, but this information does not have a central position in the vacation choice practice. Most providers in the tourism industry are reluctant to provide environmental information because they don't want to have a green image, they don't want to be accused of greenwash or they don't think their customers want to be informed about environmental issues. Even though tourists say they want to receive the information right then and there where they search other information regarding holidays, it is doubted whether it would influence their decisions. Tourists' main response is: "The environment? Not when I'm on a holiday!" (see more in Verbeek, 2009).

The fact that both tourists and providers are reluctant, and environmental information can only be found in a remote corner of the vacation choice practice, is not so surprising when you take the main storyline of environmental-friendly or sustainable holidays into account. The storyline is one of tree huggers with woolen socks going on active camping holidays. If this storyline fits any of the holiday practices, it is the active holiday practice. It certainly does not fit to other holiday practices such as city trips, beach holidays or winter sports. Alternative storylines for environmental-friendly or sustainable tourism should be developed that fit those holiday practices (see more in Verbeek, 2009).

Things are changing rapidly in the tourism domain. Whereas providers and tourists were both reluctant in 2006-2007, in 2013 there seems to be more interest in environmental-friendliness and sustainability. According to tour operators, consumers show more interest in green(er) holidays, and therefore some tour

operators want to measure the carbon impact of their products, so they can give this information to their customers.

Within the Carmatop research project, 2 Applied Universities (NHTV and HZ) and 11 Dutch tour operators are developing such a tool to calculate the carbon impact of holiday packages. Tour operators can use this tool not only for external purposes - communicate the carbon impact of the different holiday packages to tourists, they can also use it for internal purposes - reduce the carbon impacts of the holidays they sell. This tool will be a unique innovation in the tourism domain. It will involve all elements of the holiday (transport to the destination, transport during the holiday, accommodation, and activities), instead of measuring only the transport impact (e.g. sixth and eighth format in Figure 1) or greening only the accommodation part of the holiday (first format in Figure 1). Furthermore, this tool will objectively measure and compare different holidays on tour operator level, so every tour operator can calculate the impact of their products and provide this information.

Some of the remaining research questions to be answered within the Carmatop research project are whether tourists nowadays want to be informed on the carbon impact of their holiday, and if so, what (if anything at all) needs to be done in order for them to trust this information from tour operators. Furthermore, insights need to be gained in how this information should be given, because even within the tenth format of carbon impacts (see Figure 1) there are many different options. Do tourists want to know the number for the holiday as a whole, or per day, or split up in transport, accommodation and activities? Do they want the number and the colour, or only the colour? And what are the preferences of the 11 cooperating tour operators? How would they prefer to inform their customers about the carbon impact of holidays? All in all, the main question to be answered in interviews with providers and focus groups with consumers, is: *How to effectively communicate to tourists about the carbon impact of holiday packages?*

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SPATIALIZATION OF TOURISM DATA AT DETAILED SCALES (ANDALUSIA, SPAIN)

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In Spain, due to technical and legal reasons, the municipality is the maximum level of disaggregation of socioeconomic data. This is an important constraint for tourism and geographic research, especially for those which deals with detailed scales. The aim of the work is to develop a method to spatialize tourism parameters: regulated places and residential capacity. This has been implemented on the Coast of Andalusia (Spain). For regulated offer a semi-automatic process has been developed, locating every facility and their main characteristics (n° of places). In the other hand dasymetric-mapping tools have been implemented to estimate the residential capacity of every building. As immediate results a high detailed spatialization of tourist places (hotels, campings, etc.) and residential capacity is presented. As conclusion, once these data bases are spatialized applied studies can be developed: beach attendance and carrying capacity research, assessment on sea level rise impacts, etc.

1. Introduction

Studies of vulnerability, developed by International, National and Regional institutions (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, National Plan for Adaptation to Climatic Change, etc.) frequently are not performed to detailed scale. It carries limitations to assess the impacts linked to climate change. By

other hand, in absence of detailed data, carrying capacity studies often rely on indirect indicators to calculate the occupation of certain tourism resources.

The Spanish Law of protection of data does not allow disaggregating socioeconomic data, limiting the studies to the scale level of administrative entities. In the case of tourism -a very important sector in Andalusia (S of Spain) where a remarkable development of tourism have been experienced in the last decades- the municipality is the maximum disaggregation entity for regulated tourist places. Moreover, unregulated spaces (holiday homes) have not even been calculated nor estimated. This legal limitation involves an important disadvantage in most of the tourism analysis, and especially in those works dealing with high detailed scales.

The aim of this work is to develop a methodology to spatialize regulated and unregulated offer at detailed level in the Andalusian Coast. The analysis is performed by the use of geocoding software and dasymetric mapping. The obtained result might improve various studies including: the input of data for vulnerability to climate change and sea level rise, or the estimations of beach attendance and tourism carrying capacity works.

2. Study Area: The Coast of Andalusia

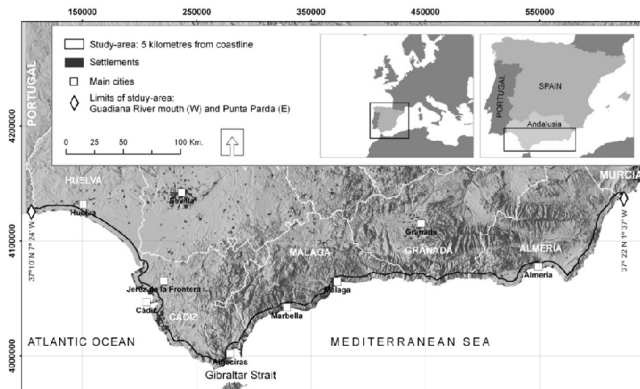
The Study-area is the Coast of Andalusia (Spain). This area is limited by Guadiana river mouth at West ($37^{\circ}10'N$ $7^{\circ}24'W$) as the natural boundary with Portugal, and Cala Cerrada at East ($37^{\circ}22'N$ $1^{\circ}37'W$) as an administrative division with the region of Murcia (Figure 1). It extends along 917 km, a 17,5% of the total Spanish coastline. Beaches, essential element of coastal tourism and central object of this work, represent a large percentage of its littoral (67,4%) (Díaz *et al*, 2012).

This area is clearly divided in 2 parts: Atlantic Coast (open, flat and mesotidal) and Mediterranean Coast (narrow, steep and microtidal). The Atlantic coast corresponds to post-orogenic formations filling of the great depression of the Guadalquivir River, which results in a very flat and extensive coastline with sandy beaches and a powerful natural drift (that generates other coastal physiographies as barrier islands, sand

spits and marshes behind them. The Mediterranean coasts conditioned by the presence of large entity reliefs very close to the coastline. The immediacy of the coastal mountains causes enormous erosive and irregular, spasmodic contribution of large volumes of sediment to the coastal system, with consequent physiographies as gullies, deltas or coarse grained beaches (Ojeda, 2003).

In terms of administration and governance, this space is compartmentalized into 5 provinces (Huelva, Cadiz, Malaga, Granada and Almeria), which in turn are fractionated in 78 coastal municipalities, of which 21 are located on the Atlantic coast and 57 in the Mediterranean. This is an area of high concentration of population: the population of the coastal strip amounts to 3,019,042 inhabitants (2011), which means about 37% regional, while its extension represents only 20% of the area of Andalusia (Own from INE, 2013).

Figure 1: The Coast of Andalusia



Finally, with respect to the human occupation of the territory, the study areas are noted for its significant role in the biggest wave of urbanization in Spain, called as the "Spanish urban tsunami" (García Bellido, 2005). As in the whole Mediterranean coast, urbanized land increased just been based on the demographic dynamism, but, among others, in the generation

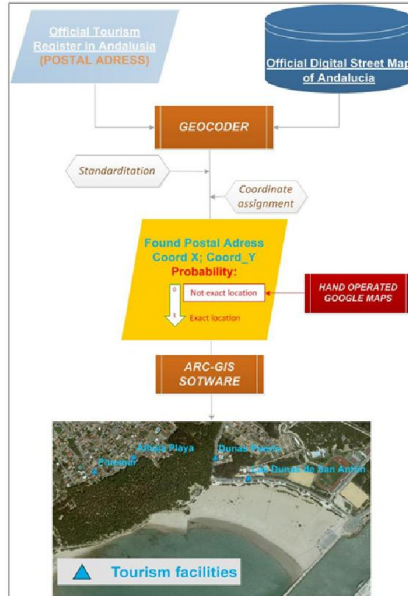
of large production of residential and tourist spaces, where the increasing value of coastal land and real estate speculation have dominated the phenomenon (Fernández Durán, 2006; Vera and Rodríguez, 2010; Naredo and Montiel, 2011).

3. Methods

Spatialized regulated tourism data in the coast of Andalusia at detailed scale were obtained using the Software “Geocoder” performed by Junta de Andalucía (Zabala *et al*, 2010).

The Official Registry of Tourism of Andalusia provide with the address of every regulated accommodation facility: Hotels, Tourist Apartments, Campings, Rural Houses, among others. Geocoder application works mainly in 2 steps (Figure 2): 1. Standardization of postal addresses of each tourism facility and 2. Assignment of their coordinates through a comparison of their addresses in the Official Digital Streets Map in Andalusia (Moreno, 2011).

Figure 2: Spatialization method for regulated places



In order to accurate the results, this tool returns a probability value -which ranks between 0 and 1- for each record it, where “1” means exact location and value “0” means not found. Intermediate values represent any coincidence between address searched and address found. In these cases locations were manually assigned (Google Maps, Google Street View, Field Work).

Once all the locations were obtained, each record were filled with thematic data (Name, type of accommodation, category, number of places, etc.) Particularly Total Tourist Places was assigned to every facility.

Regulated places and its spatialization is an essential parameter to calculate vulnerability indicators of the Coast at detailed scales. However the major part of Tourism in the Andalusian Coast corresponds with unregulated places. Thus, spatialization of this data is basic to fully understand the tourism activity and its impact on our coastal environments.

As the first source it was provided, by the Regional Government, the buildings footprints of the study area in 2007. No data apart from geometric characteristics as shape and surface were included. It should be complemented by a second source: An urban land use geodatabase (GDB), owned and developed by the Research Group since 2002. Nowadays this GDB contains geometric and thematic data about the evolution of urban land uses along 9 years of reference, since 1956 to the present. This geodatabase also contains a deep classification of urban typology, from general land uses (residential, industrial, infrastructures, vacant and construction sites, leisure areas) to concrete types of occupation.

The process has been developed into 2 steps (Figure 3): At first, it has been selected only the residential areas in 2007, in order to intersect them with the building footprints, just available for that date. At this moment every building of the study area contains not just geometric information, but also the residential type.

Secondly, based on dasymetric demographic mapping formulas, the residential capacity was estimated following diverse references (Lwin and Murayama, 2009, 2010; Qiu, Sridharan and

Chun, 2010; Ural, Hussain and Shan, 2011). According to literature there are 2 methods: areametric, where the only parameter is the area of the building footprint; and volumetric, which takes into account variables such as the height or the number of plants. This research has used the areametric method for single-family types using the weighting value of 0.4, ie 4 people per 100 square meters. In absence of sources of high accuracy such LiDAR, volumetric method has been implemented in multi-family types using an average coefficient linked to the number of floors (Table 2).

Figure 3: Spatialization method for residential capacity

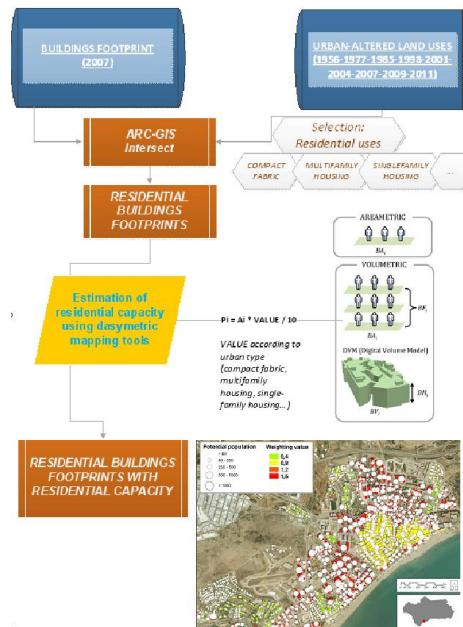


Table 2: Residential types, method and implemented formulas

BUILDING USE TYPE	METHOD	FORMULA
Compact urban fabric - Towns	Areametric	$P_1 = A_1 * 0.4/10$
Compact urban fabric - Cities	Volumetric	$P_1 = A_1 * 0.8/10$
Compact urban fabric - Capitals	Volumetric	$P_1 = A_1 * 1.2/10$

Detached single-family house	Areametric	$P_i = A_i * 0.4/10$
Attached single-family house	Areametric	$P_i = A_i * 0.4/10$
Single family houses in rural areas	Areametric	$P_i = A_i * 0.4/10$
Blocks multi-family	Volumetric	$P_i = A_i * 1.6/10$

4. Results

The immediate result of this research is the spatialization of both parameters at detailed scale: the regulated places (Figure 4) and residential capacity or potential population. Despite the broad area of study, these parameters have a high degree of detail. This allows the display to represent any scale of work, local to regional. In addition, incorporating historical values in the database (both regulated and residential tourism) allows diachronic studies.

Figure 4: Spatialization of regulated places (Torremolinos, Costa del Sol)



A total of 1,666 accommodation facilities and 286,529 regulated places have been spatialized along the coastal area (which means a 63% from a total of 457,534 beds in Andalusia). Hotels, *campings*, apartments and hotel-apartments are, in this order, the main types of accommodation. The resulted average capacity is 53 rooms and 178 beds per facility (excluding campings).

The georeferencing of this variable, performed in this paper, makes possible to obtain more specific locational references, as the average distance between hotels and the distance of these and the sea (the average distance to the sea is 159 m).

By the other hand a total of 6,774,716 would be the potential population of the Coast of Andalusia according to its residential capacity. To validate the method, and the weights used, the calculated total potential population for 2007 was compared with the official population according to the list for this year (INE, 2013). This comparison results in an over-estimation for the potential population of 133% as an average (residential capacity exceeds 133% of the census population). This figure is significant support in other studies where, using various methods, the residential capacity often doubles people officially registered in coastal tourist areas (Navarro, 2005; Geoconyca, 2008).

Years	a.Estimated Potencial Population	b.Census Population	c.Estimated Floating Population (a-b)
1977	3.703.935	1.705.743	1.998.192
1985	4.242.606	2.184.855	2.057.751
2001	6.057.328	2.516.880	3.540.448
2007	6.774.716	2.905.484	3.869.232

Table 3: Estimated potential

population and census population

The role of the Andalusian Coast as a tourist destination and holiday explains the gap between official and estimated. Firstly should be considered the significant weight of the floating population, with semi-abandoned villages in winter but collapsed during the summer. Secondly, it has to be regarded the pace in building new homes until 2007 -well above the local and holiday demand- has resulted in thousands of vacant homes (Vinueza, 2008). Third and last it should be mentioned the permanent residents who are not registered, specifically the "climate immigrants" (Requejo, 2007).

5. Research Perspectives

The work can improve those research framed within the geography of tourism. This discipline sets the geographical environment as a condition of this activity, establishes territorial factors of tourism development and destinations spatial models. In an area of high concentration of tourism, as the Coast of Andalusia, municipal disaggregation data are remarkably limited such studies. From now on, more precise analysis can be applied to understand the territorial patterns of tourism.

Secondly, this work provides a new dimension to studies of tourism carrying capacity. So far these investigations accepted municipal unbundling, did costly direct accountings of beach-attendance (Hanemann, 1996; Jurado et al, 2009; Wallmo, 2003), or used indirect variables (Tejada et al, 2009) to assess the human pressure on the coastal area. The detailed scale spatialization allows a deeper analysis of the relationship between the resource and the use, eg, by modeling the population flow to the beaches.

A third alternative would focus on the assessment of the vulnerability of the Andalusian coast to climate change and the potential sea level rise. Together with the spatialization of other environmental variables the future impact of this phenomenon can be measured, not just for the tourism facilities but also for the whole residential areas.

Acknowledgements

This article is made by data from the Official Research National Project "Spatialization and Web Broadcast of demographic, touristic and environmental variables, for the assessment of vulnerability associated with erosion of beaches on the coast of Andalusia (Spain)" (Espacialización y difusión Web de variables demográficas, turísticas y ambientales para la evaluación de la vulnerabilidad asociada a la erosión de playas en la costa andaluza) (Ref CSO 2010-15807), funded by the Ministry of Science and Innovation of Spain in the R+D+i National Plan 2011-2013. This work must also be thanked to the Research Project P10-RNM-6207 from the Regional Government of Andalusia (Junta de Andalucía).

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**CHARACTERIZING POLICIES AND
PROGRAMS OF NATIONAL TOURISM
ORGANIZATIONS: LIBERAL, MERCANTILIST,
COMMUNIST, AND SOCIAL DEMOCRATIC
APPROACHES TO TOURISM DEVELOPMENT
AND MANAGEMENT**

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The authors explore the different approaches to political economy and the role that national tourism organizations (NTOs) may play in different national systems of political economy. The authors explain the different relationships between state, society, and economy in the four major archetypes of political economy. Then, the authors explain how the three dimensions (market-orientation, openness of the economy, and the value put on equitable social and economic outcomes) are linked with each of the four archetypes of political economy. The authors then link these three dimensions to the NTOs of states and explain how an understanding of these three dimensions can give insight

into understanding the ideological underpinnings of NTOs and can be linked with the underlying philosophy of political economy upon which states are based.

1.Introduction

Many countries have national tourism organizations (hereafter “NTOs”). NTOs are one of the state’s possible organizational responses to the challenges faced by tourism. While tourism is an economic activity and many states have a coordinated political institution (NTO) designed to address the challenges faced by tourism, NTOs from one country to another may work upon a very different nature and logic and therefore may have very different responsibilities assigned to them. In this piece, the authors attempt to link theories of political economy to the nature and logic of different NTOs, including the absence of an NTO in some countries. The intention is to illustrate that NTOs may be considered highly political and ideological in nature, rather than merely a pragmatic and necessary institution that is set up by the state to deal with the issues raised by tourism.

The paper attempts to elaborate a methodology to lead to a better understanding of the nature and logic of NTOs, as they pertain to their home country’s prevailing ideology of political economy. The analysis of the dimensions of NTOs should be of interest to those interested in tourism, as it will illustrate to what extent NTOs reflect the predominant value systems of the state in regards to the importance of the state and market in the development of policies in regards to tourism.

In this piece, we first map out the four major ideologies of national economy and link them to three major political dimensions which include major value-based decisions regarding the functioning of the national economy. Then, we plot these three dimensions upon a three-dimensional design to illustrate in which ways the prevailing archetypes of political economy would tend to be associated with different types of political and organizational responses to the challenges faced by tourism. We then explain how this three-dimensional understanding of the relationship of political economy and the state’s organizational response to tourism can be used to gain insight into the relationship between ideology and political organization. We conclude with an illustration of which types of questions can be used to identify and codify the dimensions of political economy from the perspective of the NTO and illustrate what future

research can do to learn more about the relationship between ideologies of political economy and state responses to tourism.

2.Theoretical Overview on Political Economy and NTOs

Modern political thought and practice identifies four major political economy ideologies - liberalism, social democracy, mercantilism and communism, which are differentiated on the basis on number of criteria. The current international order is based upon a liberal conceptualization of the interaction of state, as set up following World War Two at Bretton Woods. Despite the international order being set up largely upon liberal conceptualizations of trade and markets, different national systems of political economy have persisted within the international system. Although the communist, mercantilist, and (to a lesser extent) social democratic system of political economy are much less prolific than they had been immediately following World War Two, they will be investigated to illustrate how they are linked with tourism policy possibilities. While communism, mercantilism, and social democracy may actually be less “popular” as archetypes to choose from for states nowadays, they remain viable ideological and (possibly) pragmatic organizational responses of states as foundations upon which to build a national economy, and thus deserve mention and investigation. Especially in these chaotic financial and economic times, the revival of non-liberal approaches may be looming and thus the investigation of likely non-liberal approaches should be explored.

There are a large number of works researching tourism from the standpoint of political economy (see for example, Britton 1982, 1991; Cornelissen 2005; Desforges 2000; Hall 2004; Jeffries 2001; King 2002; Ooi 2005; Page 2007; Pearce 1996; Palmer and Bejou 1995; Tang and Xi 2005; Vail and Heldt 2000; Williams 2004). However, this approach is generally underdeveloped in the literature. As most contend, there are four major paradigms of political economy, the liberal, social democratic, mercantilist, and communist. While the prevailing paradigm of political economy practiced at the state level is indicative of the relationship between the state, market, and

society, NTOs do not automatically have to be run on principles that are consistent with the prevailing paradigm in the country.

Table 1 below illustrates the four major political economy archetypes and the nature and logic NTOs should run upon, if they follow the nature and logic of the paradigm upon which the state is set up. Recent, research has shown that there is some dissonance between the general principles of political economy that countries run upon and the nature and logic of NTOs (Webster *et al.*, 2011, Webster and Ivanov, 2012). While countries usually adhere to a particular archetype of political economy and the NTOs generally seem to follow suit, there seems to be a general trend among those social democratic states investigated illustrating a shift towards liberal approaches of tourism management (Webster *et al.*, 2011). The movement towards liberal approaches may be part of the general movement towards liberal approaches towards government in social democratic states. It is uncertain whether these shifts are permanent or are truly reflective of a drastic paradigm shift in social democratic states that is permanent.

At its essence, the understanding of the relationship between the political and the economic in the paradigms can be understood as a continuum and preferences for how NTOs should function should be derived from this understanding. Table 1 illustrates the relationship between NTOs and different visions of the centrality of the market. While the mercantilist and social democratic approaches are centrist, allowing for significant political interventions into the tourism economy via the NTO, the logic of intervention is somewhat different, based upon the intention of the intervention.

In this investigation we propose to visualise the various political economy ideologies on the basis of 3 dimensions, each based on a 5-point scale:

- Openness of the economy - from complete autarky (1) to completely open economy (5)
- Role of market - from complete domination of market (5) to complete control by the government (1)
- Social and economic equality among citizens as a goal of the particular ideology - from equality among citizens as a primary and extremely important goal (5) to equality among citizens not sought at all (1)

**Table 1: Political Economy Systems and Tourism
Regulation/Management**

	Liberalism	Social Democracy	Communism	Mercantilism
State and Market Relation	Market dominates. State corrects market failures and alleviates undesirable externalities	Market highly regulated by state forces, in order to ensure equity in socio-economic outcomes	Market largely marginalized /driven underground by state	Market highly regulated by state forces, in order to ensure strong national capabilities
Scope of NTO	Limited powers granted, or non-existent	Limited to moderate powers granted to coordinate, market, and regulate tourism	Powerful state organs to coordinate, market, and regulate tourism	Powerful state organs to coordinate, market, and regulate tourism
Role of NTOs	Data gathering, data analysis, possibly marketing	Data gathering, coordination between private and public sectors, marketing, redistribution of wealth	Command and control of entire tourism industry	Regulation and coordination of private and public sectors in order to encourage efficiency, quality, and competitiveness

Note: Based upon the regimes presented by O'Neil (2007).

Appendix 1 illustrates the 4 political economy ideologies in a visual depiction in a 3-dimensional space. For the sake of clarity of the presentation the ideologies are not visualised on the same coordinate system. Each of these dimensions is perceived of as being on a continuum and we expect a great deal of variation, since the most radical measures on these scales would be hard to come by or achieve. For example, national autarky or completely open economies would be few and far between in history, although there would be a great deal of variations found currently and historically. Each of the depictions illustrate that the value systems championed by each of the four major competing systems of political economy are different when plotted on this three-dimensional space, illustrating the different stress that each of them places on preferences on each dimension.

Appendix 1 illustrates the differences and the expectations in terms of how NTOs working under differing paradigms of political economy should function. What is noteworthy is that the liberal and communist approaches are in many ways reflections of each other, with the liberal approach putting emphasis upon market forces, openness, but little or no emphasis on socio-economic equality as an outcome of the tourism process. The differentiation of the social democratic and mercantilist approaches has to do with the issue of the intent of policy. While mercantilists and social democrats are suspicious of market forces, they both share an appreciation of market mechanisms, although they both feel that markets should be regulated. Mercantilist thinking, though, argues for market regulation for the purpose of strengthening the capabilities of the state, while social democrats regulate markets in order to ensure equity in social and economic outcomes for the population.

One of the difficulties in terms of conceptualizing the issue of autarky and tourism is that large-scale tourism industries seem to be largely dependent upon flows of foreigners. In fact, it was the well-know German hotel owner, Fritz Gabler, who famously stated in Germany in 1934 that “tourism and autarky are conceptually incompatible” (cited *in* Semmens, 2011). While he may have believed this to be true, the authorities of Nazi Germany soon thereafter tightened restrictions on visas and foreign currency conversions, illustrating that the Nazi regime moved towards greater autarky in terms of its management of tourism. Indeed, foreign flows of tourism are not necessary for tourism industries to exist in places and authorities may take a different policy turn based upon politically-desirable policies, as opposed to policies that more global market-oriented thinking may react to. Indeed, it could be that protectionist policies (by placing what most modern people would consider “illegal”, “immoral”, or “unthinkable” impediments upon populations) such as capital controls or restrictions on the outflows of populations to foreign countries for tourism purposes would result in booms for some countries and their tourism sectors.

3. Proposed Methodology

The authors intend to explore the relationship between the nature and logic of NTOs and seek to see if there is a consistency along with the prevailing ideology of political economy upon which the state is based. We developed an index based upon interviews with those knowledgeable about the NTOs or their analogues in countries. A questionnaire will enable the researchers to delve into the various ideological issues linked with tourism management, enabling the researchers to measure NTOs on a scale of liberalism versus the other, more statist approaches toward tourism management. Table 2 below illustrates many of the three dimensions that we intend to measure regarding NTOs and the questions we intend to use in order to learn about how the NTO can be measured upon the particular dimension.

Table 2: Dimensions and Questions

Dimension to Assess	Questions to be Asked
Role of market	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ To what extent is the organization funded by the state? ✓ To what extent would you describe the organization as a public/private partnership? ✓ To what extent does the private sector have input into the organization via the board of directors, advisory board, or another such setup? ✓ To what extent does the organization change policies in response to changes/developments of consumers?
Social and economic equality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ To what extent does the organization seek to encourage tourism development in parts of the country that are economically less-developed? ✓ To what extent does the organization seek to create economic opportunities for the less-advantaged in the society? ✓ To what extent would you say that one of the organization's goals is to create economic opportunities for the less-advantaged in the society?
Openness of economy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ To what extent does the organization seek to encourage tourists from abroad? ✓ To what extent does the organization focus upon domestic tourists?

The questionnaires address those elements that are attached to liberal perceptions of the role of the state, as well as other

issues, such as the intention of the programs and institutions that deal with tourism. The intention is to learn whether the nature and logic that the NTO functions under is driven by the market, whether it is focussed upon the domestic or international market, and whether it is designed to assist in attaining social and economic equality in the society. Once these elements have been addressed and measured for each NTO, we can then map out with some precision whether the NTO may be classified as mercantilist, liberal, social democratic, or communist.

The methodology entails interviews with high-level managers in NTOs in order to inform us about the NTOs vision of policy and measure the paradigms NTOs function under based upon how they respond to the questions. We score each NTO based upon the three dimensions and plot them. The expectation is that mercantilist approaches towards tourism management will largely coincide with those states with mercantilist political economies. We also expect that the general trend towards liberalism will be reflected in social democratic states, with data showing that in many social democratic states, the state may not focus on social and economic equality and, indeed, may be focussed more on external markets than a purer form of social democratic organization would be expected to.

4. Conclusion

This research brings to the fore the issue of the relationship between ideologies of political economy and NTO management. As such, it serves as a precursor to a future study that will look at NTOs from the view of those working inside the NTOs, to determine if the internal understanding of the nature, logic, and functioning of the NTO is dissonant or consonant with particular ideologies of political economy. We expect that liberal ideology will prevail in liberal states, although we suspect that the creeping success of liberal ideology in the past 30 years or so will lead to some NTOs in social democratic states or mercantilist states to exhibit some of the hallmarks of liberal approaches to tourism management.

We expect that the relationship between ways of perceiving of politics and economics will enlighten scholars and practitioners about how tourism is regulated, by incorporating political and

economic ideologies into the understanding and creating indices of NTO management, measuring NTOs on a continuum of market-orientation of policy. This will illustrate that organizational responses of states may or may not be influenced by the prevailing ideologies of countries. It is hopeful that future research will also look into the ways that political parties and the prevailing political ideologies of governments of states play a role in the formation of tourism management, illustrating whether political parties or governments within states leave an imprint upon the state's organizational response to the challenges faced by tourism.

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**TOURIST PERCEPTIONS OF THE LIMASSOL
CARNIVAL EXPERIENCE AND IMPLICATIONS
FOR RESPONSIBLE DESTINATION
MANAGEMENT**

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This study investigates the perceptions of tourists visiting the carnival of Limassol, as these were shaped by their experience in attending the event, and on this basis, the study then analyzes their implications for the responsible destination management of Cyprus. This research employed a qualitative approach by conducting semi-structured interviews with visitors of the carnival and explored their insights regarding the carnival as an autonomous tourist experience and as an event that instantiates the vital characteristics of Cyprus. Based on these insights, the study discusses in a more general context those strategies that should be adopted by the tourism policy-makers in order for the carnival to fully meet the visitors' perceptions, thereby enhancing its experiential dimensions and improving the associated managerial components. On a broader level, the implications of such an event for the responsible management and sustainable development of destinations are explored.

1. Introduction

While tourism is one of the main drivers for the economic development of Cyprus, its growth is largely based on the patterns and consequences of mass tourism. As a result, the Cypriot tourism product-service mix is characterized by seasonality, monothematic offerings, questionable quality, and ultimately, lack of competitiveness (Archontides, 2007; Boukas, Boustras, and Sinka, 2012; Ioannides, 1992; Sharpley, 2002, 2003). Moreover, the current economic crisis that has hindered the island complicates further the already problematic situation (Boukas and Ziakas, 2012). To respond effectively, the island needs to concentrate on diversified forms of tourism development that would, on the one hand, mitigate the negative impacts of mass tourism, and on the other hand, enable its responsible tourism management. The carnival of Limassol, probably one of the most significant events in Cyprus, constitutes a versatile asset that could be leveraged for this purpose. The carnival takes place during the off-peak tourist period and attracts thousands of visitors from all over Cyprus and abroad. An understanding of the importance of Limassol carnival and its potential for Cypriot tourism requires that emphasis be given on appreciating the views of visitors. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the perceptions of tourists who visit the carnival, as these are being shaped by their experience in attending the event, and to analyze their implications for the responsible destination management of Cyprus.

2. Tourism in Cyprus and the Need for Responsible Destination Management

Cyprus utilized its unique characteristics, such as climatologic conditions, large coastlines, Mediterranean cuisine, and heritage, for the development of its tourism industry. The first traces of tourism development on the island can be found back in 1960s, where the new-born independent island tried to stand on its own feet. Back then, tourism was considered as an important medium for the revitalization and diversification of Cyprus' economy (Ioannides, 1992). This resulted in the mindset that tourism was a panacea for resolving many developmental problems of the

island. The dominant form of tourism development has been mass tourism targeted mostly at Northern European markets, mainly English and Scandinavians (Ioannides, 1992), and offering sun-based elements (3Ss tourism).

However, the rapid development of mass tourism has also brought about a series of negative impacts, such as seasonality, an unbalanced development on only some coastal areas (Sharpley, 2002), and questionable service quality (Archontides, 2007). As a result, the Cypriot tourism reached its peak in 2001 and after that year, the arrivals of international visitors in Cyprus started steadily to decrease until the advent of the global economic crisis in 2009, which exacerbated the inherent problems of the Cypriot mass tourism product, hence deteriorating the existing crisis of the Cyprus tourism industry (Boukas and Ziakas, 2012). The constant fall of arrivals and tourist revenues during the last decade (Cyprus Tourism Organization-CTO, 2010) that resulted in the decrease of the island's competitiveness as a destination (Boukas and Ziakas, 2012), made the Cypriot tourism policy-makers to seriously consider alternative forms of special interest tourism (e.g., domestic short-breaks, golf, or religious tourism) as a means to counterbalance the negative effects of mass tourism that created the diachronic problems of the island's tourism industry, namely seasonality, monothematic offerings, and low service quality (Archontides, 2007).

Despite the efforts to redress the existing problems and reconfigure the Cypriot tourism product, there has been limited attention on policies for the sustainability of tourism and on promoting management practices that can foster sustainable tourism development. In this respect, the discourse on responsible tourism is an important one that needs to be introduced and explored how it can be applied on the context of the Cypriot tourism industry. In general, 'responsible tourism' is considered as any form of tourism *'that creates better places for people to live in, and better places to visit'* (Goodwin, 2011). The 2002 Cape Town Declaration on Responsible Tourism in Destinations defines responsible tourism as follows:

"Responsible Tourism is tourism which:

- a. minimizes negative economic, environmental and social impacts;

- b. generates greater economic benefits for local people and enhances the well being of host communities;
- c. improves working conditions and access to the industry;
- d. involves local people in decisions that affect their lives and life chances;
- e. makes positive contributions to the conservation of natural and cultural heritage embracing diversity;
- f. provides more enjoyable experiences for tourists through more meaningful connections with local people, and a greater understanding of local cultural, social and environmental issues;
- g. provides access for physically challenged people;
- h. is culturally sensitive, encourages respect between tourists and hosts, and builds local pride and confidence; and,
- i. is integrated in the local ecosystem".

The economic crisis that hinders Cyprus highlights the importance of tourism for the island. There is an urgent need for adopting a responsible tourism approach if it is to redress the problems of mass tourism and effectively capitalize on the tourism industry, which for years constituted the major source of revenues for the island. The remarkable growth of the event industry around the world (Getz, 2008), and its consequent emergence in Cyprus provides an avenue for enriching, diversifying and sustaining its tourism product. Events have the capacity to reach different segments of tourists, satisfying their needs and intensifying their overall experience in a destination as well as conveying messages that can alter local and tourist attitudes towards adopting responsible behaviors relating to both management and consumption practices respectively. The carnival of Limassol is one of the major cultural celebrations in Cyprus, which has the potential to be used as a tourist attraction and based on its appeal to local population to foster responsible destination management practices.

In line with the recent worldwide development of responsible tourism, Getz (2009) called for the need to institutionalize a policy for creating sustainable and responsible festivals and events. This approach concurs with the community development role of events and their social value for host destinations (Ziakas and Costa, 2010), which is the cornerstone for attracting visitors and

amplifying their value as tourism attractions. Cyprus, therefore, could leverage the Limassol carnival in synergy with other destination assets, incorporating them under a responsible and sustainable tourism policy framework. It should be noted, however, that responsible tourism and sustainable tourism are not identical. While both have as their underlying goal the sustainable development and safeguard the same pillars of environmental integrity, social equity and economic efficiency, the major difference between the two is that, in responsible tourism, stakeholders are asked to take responsibility for their actions and the impacts of their actions (Goodwin, 2011). The emphasis on responsibility in responsible tourism means that everyone involved in tourism (i.e., government, product owners and operators, transport operators, community services, NGO's and CBO's, tourists, local communities, industry associations) are responsible for achieving the goals of responsible tourism (Goodwin, 2011).

The shift to responsible tourism addresses the growing concern over the utopian, insufficient or inherently contradictory aspects of sustainable tourism, which perhaps could be overcome by placing emphasis on stakeholders' responsibility. Events can mirror stakeholders' actual attitudes and promote this endeavor. As events are embedded into the host destination's social fabric, the involvement of many stakeholders can reveal attitudes and promote a consensus over responsible destination management. To do so, however, it is essential to examine and understand the views and perceptions of stakeholders. For this reason, this study begins this endeavor by examining the perceptions of tourists visiting the Limassol carnival and their implications for institutionalizing a tourism policy for responsible event and destination management.

3. Methodological Approach

This study employed a qualitative research approach in order to understand the perceptions of event tourists that derive from their lived experience in attending the carnival of Limassol. The Limassol carnival was selected as a case study because Limassol is a major destination of Cyprus and its carnival is one of the most important cultural events for the whole island.

The respondents were located through purposive sampling seeking for those who have had experiences relating to the phenomenon under study. The sampling was based on convenience by approaching one of the travel agencies in Limassol. This sampling approach fit the purpose of the study as it helped to locate appropriate respondents who were willing and able to describe their experience in the carnival. In total, eleven respondents of different nationalities and ages (from 20 to 40 years old) were selected with the purpose to conduct in-depth interviews.

The informants were interviewed in their hotel and/or a cafeteria. Each interview lasted about one hour until the issues brought into light were exhausted. The interview questions were unstructured and open-ended in order to allow the respondents to describe and reflect on their experiences. As such, the authors applied a cordially conversational style aimed to stimulate the respondents' reflections and interpretations, thereby capturing the meaning of their experiences. Thus, respondents were encouraged to describe their lived experiences in the carnival by asking them, for instance, to account the chronological order of their activities in the event and explain particular incidents that affected positively or negatively their experiences. The narratives of respondents provided critical accounts whereby their feelings and thoughts were elicited, while probes and follow-up questions for clarification and elaboration were used to facilitate the flow of respondents' descriptions and interpretations.

All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. The resultant transcripts were analyzed through scrutinizing each interview in order to extract emerging themes. The authors identified common themes, which were reported in a composite summary elaborating the thematic structure and the context from which the themes emerged. The common themes revealed patterns that epitomized the emergence of interrelated thematic units as an organic whole encompassing the tourists' interpretation of their carnival experience.

4. Results and Discussion

There are certain aspects that the respondents identified to constrain their overall experience in the carnival. These include the organizational aspects and the inherent limitations of the local socio-cultural fabric. Traffic along with overcrowdedness appeared to have an impact on the respondents' experience. In line with these constraints, the over-consumption of alcohol during the parade was also considered as a negative aspect of the carnival. Also, due to the plethora of people attending the carnival in conjunction with the loose safety line/distance measures undertaken, respondents mentioned safety issues that affected negatively their overall experience. Another element that weakened the respondents' experience was the lack of innovation; as mentioned, the carnival is repeated for many years in the same format and thus has become monotonous. Finally, the lack of promoting the carnival as one of the main attractions of Limassol was pointed out, hence explaining the little information obtained from tourists about the carnival and the subsequent lack of interest from international tourists to visit Limassol and attend the event.

In terms of local limitations, most of the respondents expressed their disappointment about why Cyprus does not support and promote its culture through the carnival. According to a respondent, Limassol is almost a foreign and not a Cypriot city. While tourists are happy to see many foreign business people in Limassol, they get disappointed by looking everywhere signs in foreign languages or buildings in foreign architecture. This situation tends to shadow the local elements that could be perceived as authentic by tourists. As another respondent pointed out, Cypriots do not project their culture and they express through the carnival merely their concerns about the economic situation and the government. Similarly, most respondents said while they expected to see people wearing national clothes and singing national songs, they did not see anything like that.

In the same vein, most respondents agreed that they did not learn anything about the culture of Cyprus except the dancing and the music, which however was predominantly international. Also, other respondents pointed out that they would like to see more cultural elements in the carnival, such as traditional dresses and Cypriot music in order to experience local elements of Cyprus and its culture. Consequently, the perceptions of respondents were negative about the lack of cultural elements and subsequent character of the carnival. As one respondent underlined, the carnival does not project the real Cyprus because it does not show the Cypriot traditions and spirit.

Indeed, cultural elements are essential for representing the identity and social fabric of a destination. For this reason, responsible marketing management needs to integrate the Cypriot culture into the themes that the carnival projects and communicates. Through this way, the carnival would obtain a more special character providing the appropriate environment for people to experience a local sense of the community, an appreciation of its history as well as a more holistic understanding of the place tied to the consistent promotion of appropriate responsible tourist behaviors and destination management practices.

It should be emphasized that most tourist visitation in the carnival is incidental. Those who happen to visit Limassol during the carnival incidentally attend the event. This brings forth the issue of how the carnival in addition to its community role can become a core tourist attraction, thereby enriching the Cypriot tourism product and instilling responsible tourism. Appreciating the perceptions of tourists is the beginning for developing a tourism policy and formulating strategies aimed at engaging local stakeholders in responsible event and destination management practices. This endeavor can be grounded upon the local appeal and social value of the carnival, which could be leveraged to enable social change towards adopting responsible tourism management and building the necessary local capacity.

In particular, the carnival of Limassol is a unique occasion for the city and the island at large, to project its image through tourism. For tourists, Limassol is a mix of a resort and a city; it combines both natural heritage characteristics such as the

coast and the sea, as well as cultural elements that make it an attractive urban destination. The Limassol carnival is more than an entertaining event that takes place every year in Cyprus. It constitutes one of the trademarks of the city, a gathering of people not only from all over the island but also tourists, an exchange of cultural philosophies and ideas, a meeting point of people, a celebration and an expression of attitudes and ideas. These meanings are conveyed to the tourists during these few days that this event occurs. Hence, this provides a unique opportunity for Limassol's event and destination managers to employ responsible strategic planning and experiential marketing tools in the carnival aimed at enhancing its appeal and meaning to tourists and thus promoting Limassol as a responsible tourism destination.

In general, the scope of responsible experiential marketing has to be more broadly positioned in event tourism since often the enhancement of tourist experiences stems from the social value an event derives for the hosts, which eventually is experienced by tourists. To do so, there is a need for a common responsible approach between event and destination managers for designing and delivering an event so that it enhances the overall event experience and is cross-leveraged to optimize sustainable tourism and social outcomes. In this context, the responsible social leverage of events needs to be synergized with and/or incorporated into destination marketing and management plans. In other words, responsible social leverage should coincide with economic/tourism leverage aimed to maximize the sustainable event benefits.

The synergistic social value and tourism potential of events is determined by their elements and characteristics. Carnivals have the capacity to function as places of contestation wherein different forces/perspectives are met, expressed, contested or synthesized. The findings of this study show that little has been done to harness the responsible tourism potential of the Limassol carnival. Instead, the carnival is predominantly characterized by an ethic of celebration and entertainment that enables the expression of political commentaries. This narrow orientation of the carnival does not accommodate effectively the interests to exploit its tourism potential. As a result, the carnival is not

incorporated into the host destination's tourism product, and subsequently, neither it is promoted as a tourist attraction nor it is used to promote Limassol's and the island's destination characteristics to event visitors. Clearly, a responsible strategic approach is urgently needed in order for making the carnival a core tourist attraction. In doing so, a starting point is the understanding of the perspectives, experiences and meanings of tourists as the findings of this study demonstrate. Such an understanding can facilitate event and destination managers to find the best means for designing and leveraging responsible experiences and meanings that enhance the impact of the event on tourists and promote responsible destination management practices to local stakeholders.

The promotion of responsible tourism should emphasize that it makes business sense, as a considerable, and increasing, number of tourists are looking for better experiences and better quality products. These tourists are looking for experiences, which enable them to get closer to the 'authentic' living culture of countries and to experience their diverse natural and cultural heritage. The staging of events and festivals can encompass an eclectic and representative mix of 'authentic' local elements, amplified by the celebratory atmosphere and uninhibited social interaction taking place within events, thereby providing tourists with the opportunity to substantially as well as intensely experience the local culture and environment. For this reason, responsible elements of local life, culture and hospitality business (e.g., a written code to guarantee good working conditions, protect the environment and support charities in the tourist destination) should be incorporated into events in order to promote the adoption of responsible tourism behaviors and practices.

Responsible tourism is a global trend in the established tourist markets as consumer expectations of their holidays are altered and people prefer to take shorter trips, while expecting to get more valued and satisfying experiences from them. Therefore, Cyprus cannot ignore this market trend, if it wants to regain its lost competitiveness and improve the quality of its tourism product. Hence, by fostering responsible tourism, Cyprus may respond to the needs of tourists for experiencing better products and services in a destination. Such an

improvement in the quality of the tourism product highlights that those destinations that promote responsible tourism will have a sustainable competitive advantage over other destinations.

To foster the development of responsible tourism, there is a number of policy implications that Cyprus (and other destinations) have to follow in order to safeguard their economic, environmental and social-cultural integrity through the delivery of tourism services. The economic aspects of responsible tourism development include employment creation and increasing foreign currency earnings, which should lead to direct employment (i.e., in hotels, airports, airlines, tour operators, travel agents, and tourist offices) and indirect employment (i.e., in industries that serve the travel and tourism industry). Tourism policy should cater for the fair, safe and ethical working conditions for all employees as well as safeguard the equal distribution of economic benefits among all local stakeholders. In terms of the environmental dimension of tourism development, there should be policies for providing environmental education (i.e., through visitor centers informing the tourist about the reasons for conservation and encouraging them to respect the environment), and improving natural as well as built conservation environments, such as preserving wildlife habitats, and refurbishing buildings or regenerating heritage sites. Finally, the socio-cultural aspects of tourism development concern primarily the promotion of cultural understanding, the enhancement of destination image and national identity, as well as the building of multi-stakeholder partnerships capable of diffusing responsible tourism management practices. A comprehensive tourism policy that aims to foster responsible tourism may incorporate event tourism in its scope in order to more effectively achieve the dissemination and adoption of responsible tourist behaviors and destination management practices.

5. Conclusion

The findings of this study underline that by understanding the experiences of event tourists, event and destination managers can redesign events and improve the tourist offerings. The case of Limassol carnival constitutes a focal celebratory event that has the capacity to attract thousands of people every year. Yet, as the study indicates, several organizational matters affect the overall experience of the attendees. Thus, aspects such as better control of traffic flows (both cars and people), safety issues and alcohol consumption need to be improved. Moreover, the themes, the music, and the parade of the carnival appear to be repetitive every year and therefore, need to be updated and redesigned.

Most importantly, due to the lack of strategic planning and marketing, the carnival has neither been designed nor promoted as a core attraction that can derive both social and economic/tourism benefits. A serious consequence of the lack of strategic planning is that the carnival does not project the Cypriot culture, since its multinational character impedes the local element to be projected. In this regard, the visitors of Limassol perceive a rather confusing message that the carnival is something between a local celebration of Cypriots and a multinational feast. Event and destination managers need to decide what scope and content want to give to the carnival and design appropriately the event. To this end, the responsible management and experiential marketing of the carnival have to be applied in concert under a comprehensive event tourism policy.

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Conference Aims and Scope

Most destinations worldwide have been, and continue to be, subject to tremendous visitor pressures with both positive and negative consequences. As a result much debate has been raised on whether tourism is beneficial for tourism destinations or whether tourism creates the seeds of a destination's destruction. However, there is still discussion on philosophical stances on which are the appropriate policies and management techniques to ameliorate tourism problems and achieve sustainable tourism development, as well as on the significant role played by the local government in the development of tourism. Bearing all these 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):

- Theoretical Perspectives on Sustainable Tourism
- Tourism Development, Policy and Planning
- Public Administration of Tourism Development
- Local Government Role and Responses to Sustainable Tourism Development
- Community Responses to Tourists and Tourism
- Economic/Social/Environmental/Cultural Impacts of Tourism
- European Union Policies for Sustainable Tourism
- Tourism Education and its Role in Managing Sustainable Tourism Development
- Alternative and Special Forms of Tourism
- Case Studies and Applied Research on Various Types and Forms of Sustainable 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

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