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region. In particular, the current study aims to compile the profile of the wine industry, to examine the winemakers' level of involvement with tourism activities, as well as to explore their perceptions towards the factors that could expand the potential of wine tourism. A census approach was undertaken, with the use of a structured questionnaire which was sent to each winery directly. Results indicate that wineries in Northern Greece are predominantly small and privately-owned. The majority of them have engaged in wine tourism during the last five years, in an attempt to gain promotional benefits. Apart from descriptive statistics, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) showed that wine tourism can be further developed by variable combinations of five components, labeled as: 'Political-institutional', 'Regional infrastructure', 'Tourism facilities in the winery', 'Promotion' and 'Wine tourism events'.

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Turkey's natural and historical beauties are available for tourism facilitate the development of the industry in the country. However, uncontrolled construction and damaging nature unconsciously by building concrete walls on the sides of coastlines keep weakening the industry. In this respect, boutique hotels are emerging as small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) which are built either by protecting the natural plantation or by restoring old buildings. The main goal of this research is to introduce boutique hotels as a flourishing enterprises in the light of changing structure and trends of tourism industry, to determine the contributions of boutique hotels to Turkish tourism industry, to point out and call attention to the problems of these enterprises according to demands and expectations of guests, and to develop some solutions concerning existing problems, to specify what kind of marketing tools are used and to investigate targeting strategies of the enterprises defined.

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Promoting ethnic cultural tourism is an important aspect of an overall tourism strategy in Singapore. The Singapore Tourism Board (STB) actively leverages the country's limited natural resources and short history to ensure the viability and competitiveness of this industry. In this research note, we examine non-Asian tourists' perceptions of Singapore's

ethnic cultural tourism and make recommendations for future promotion. The results from a survey conducted in 2009 show that non-Asian tourists' participation in ethnic cultural tourism in Singapore is mostly accidental and is less for cultural aspects than for cheap shopping and low-priced food. The challenge for the Singapore tourism industry is to balance profit-generation with cultural retention and education.

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EDITORIAL

This is the eighteenth issue of TOURISMOS, finishing its ninth year of publication. In the previous fifteen issues, our multidisciplinary journal aimed at providing a platform that supports the transmission of new scholarly discoveries in the fields of tourism and hospitality, and we have been excited about offering a platform that supports scholars in building upon intellectual treasures and advancing our understanding about various fields of research in novel and meaningful ways. Capitalising on this effort, we now focus on furthering our scope and consolidating our position in both conceptual developments and practical applications in tourism, travel, leisure and hospitality.

All research papers, case studies and research notes presented in this issue, address a number of topics namely cultural tourism, tourism planning and development, tourists' motivations and perceptions about tourism destinations, tourism and economic growth, gastronomic tourism, tourists' motivations, medical tourism, sustainable tourism, tourism infrastructure, wine tourism, and tourism marketing.

Based on the previous analysis, we trust that you will enjoy reading the present issue, and we look forward to presenting you our next in spring-summer 2015!

Paris Tsartas
Editor-in-Chief

Evangelos Christou
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INTEGRATED CULTURAL TOURISM: NEW EXPERIENCES IN MOUNTAIN AREAS

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Tourism has for some time been viewed as providing a lifeline for mountain areas where agriculture is in decline and few alternative employment opportunities exist. One of the manifestations is cultural tourism, which, besides revaluing the heritage of a territory, can be made compatible with rural tourism. This paper analyzes integrated cultural tourism in mountain areas, including the scale, degree of embeddedness, endogeneity, sustainability and role of interactions between tourists and local people. This research is based on a survey with cultural tourists in the Pyrenees (Catalonia, Spain). They are presented in the context of the experience of tourists in mountainous areas, related to the practical operation of integrated cultural tourism. The results reveal that this cultural tourism has strong links to the natural environment in the study area but that there are existing threats to integration in the physical and social domains.

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Information and communication technologies are of great importance in understanding the development of today's tourism destinations. Their impact is considerable in the branding of tourism products in general and in the branding of destinations in particular (Buhalis and Law, 2008). The phenomenon of globalization seems to be the most important characteristic of the late 20th and the beginning of the 21st century. It is hard to find countries free of debate about globalization, and even harder to find countries free of the influence of global markets and global economic strategy, but only a few things are as vague as globalization (Albrow, 1996; Skolimowski, 1997). Globalization is characterized by multilevel function and influence attributes, by the erosion of local values,

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by sharing all goods and risks, by imbalance in terms of economic distribution; but also by general cultural changes (Giddens, 2000).

However, globalization is a new chance to learn how to survive, how to attract tourists, how to let us know that they exist (McLuhan, 1962). Destinations are more complex and diverse than are specific tourism products (Ooi and Stoeber, 2010). The creation of a destination brand has to address multiple groups of stakeholders with diverse socio-cultural identities and take into consideration the intangibility and multifaceted features of a destination (Munar, 2011). Tourism in rural areas may be one of the vectors of the local development as long as it is controlled by social actors who consider how the local communities can appropriate the benefits generated. Therefore, tourism in the rural milieu must be locally based and self-managed by the residents (Hardy et al., 2002).

From this new perspective, traditional tourism in rural areas, based on the importation of programs and resources, is not an appropriate strategy to promote local development (Wang, 2000). Cultural tourism has become one of the most developed tourist products, taking advantage of the wide cultural heritage existing in these territories, and has begun to consider the potential of the local community, as well as the geographical, cultural and environmental diversity of mountain areas, thus basing itself on the interaction and integration of many different actors (García, 2003).

The main areas that research could focus on include a) the tourists; b) the local human, physical, economic and cultural resources and the ways in which they are used to develop integrated tourism; c) the attitudes of the host communities towards integrated tourism; and d) the role of the institutions that impinge on integrated tourism development (Ander and Zemsky, 2006). The overall aim of the present paper is to analyze and develop the potential for better integration in cultural tourism in the less-developed mountain areas of Catalonia, in Spain, focusing only on the first research area, namely the experience of tourists who visit the region. These research findings are based on the analysis of data collected in 2012 through interviews and surveys conducted after purposeful selection of 182 cultural tourists visiting specific mountain areas of Catalonia.

INTEGRATED CULTURAL TOURISM IN MOUNTAIN AREAS

Tourism seems to be a good example of how to destroy certain intact landscape, as mentioned above, by global interest in a particular place. Rural landscape cannot defy a massive tourist influence because it is in a special situation (Holden, 2000). There is obviously no interest in protecting nature because there are no wildlife areas, no natural parks. On

the other hand, agricultural production itself does not represent a reason for protection, despite the fact that the view of rural landscape is becoming increasingly multifunctional in Europe. Rural landscape becomes the natural and cultural heritage (Howard, 2003).

There is an emerging idea of integrated tourism, which could be in real harmony with the future of local landscapes. Integrated tourism can be broadly defined as tourism which is explicitly linked to the economic, cultural, social, natural and human structures of the mountain regions in which it takes place, and which seeks to make optimal use of those structures (McKercher and Cros, 2002). In practical terms, it is tourism with clear links to local/regional resources, activities, other production and service industries, and a participatory local community (Suvantola, 2002).

Integrated tourism can truly integrate natural, social and cultural structure, and can be a positive agent affecting mountain landscape; it can reinforce the cohesive forces of certain landscapes (Page, 2003). However, without personal and community involvement at a certain place and time, the cohesive forces are disturbed (Cawley and Gilmor, 2008).

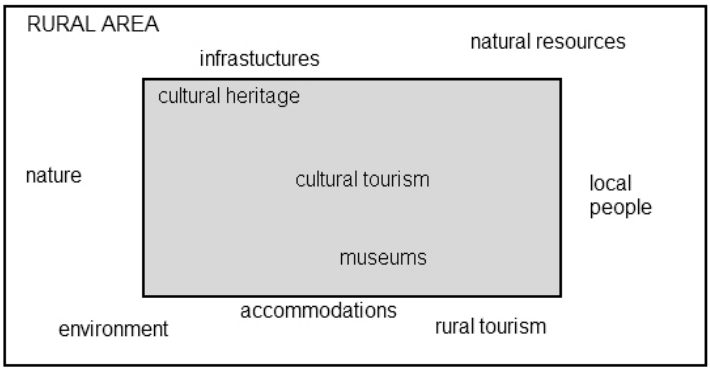
For this reason, the continued decline of rural economies is a matter of concern to both national and regional governments. Since the late 1980s in particular, tourism has been identified as providing a potential source of alternative income in mountain and rural areas. At the same time, several forms of tourism can be promoted and need to be controlled carefully so as to retain the characteristic features of the areas involved that form the basis of their attraction for visitors. One of these is cultural tourism, which is valued for taking advantage of the patrimonial resources of those territories (Wang, 2000; Kayat 2010; Cuccia and Rizzo, 2011).

Integrated cultural tourism is based on the premise that it is possible to promote cultural tourism that is closely aligned with the inherent attributes of mountain locations (Figure 1) and can contribute to develop the economy of such areas (Evangelista and Dioko, 2011). These attributes are many, but they usually include a high quality mountain environment which frequently possesses scenic qualities, traditional ways of life with a strong reliance on agriculture or fishing, distance from large urban centres, low population density and a predominance of low-density settlements with a disproportionate presence of residents in the older age groups, and the survival of older cultural and behavioural norms (Lane and Bramwell, 1994; Korstanje, 2012).

These attributes and cultural resources offer a lot of attractions that could increase the number of visitors seeking an antidote to their technology-dominated, pressurized daily lives in large cities. Clean air,

outdoor recreation, high quality food with low levels of additives, an unhurried pace of life, cultural visits, and contact with older, more traditional cultural experiences are being revalued by tourists (Butler et al., 1998; Kayat, 2010; Cuccia and Rizzo, 2011).

Figure 1. Cultural tourism in rural areas



Source: own production

Retaining control of tourism resources in local ownership, in so far as that is possible, is a means of reducing the economic drain and maintaining local influence over resource use. In these ways, endogenous forms of development are linked both to economic sustainability and to the empowerment of local individuals and communities (Page, 2003). A predominance of external ownership is recognized as resulting in major economic leakages and feelings of disempowerment. The involvement of local businesses in tourism development is therefore important and local ownership is often linked to embeddedness (Hinrichs, 2000). Embedded activities are defined as closely based on local resources, be they physical, economic, social or cultural.

Thus, the tourism experiences offered are place specific and have organic links to the local context, and these features confer distinctiveness, uniqueness, and increased competitive capacity (Alvarez, 2010). It is recognized, however, that economic success depends on a capacity to dis-embed through successful product promotion to external markets because local demand is rarely adequate to enable businesses to survive in peripheral locations (Timothy and Boyd, 2003).

The issue of scale assumes particular relevance in the context of any economic enterprise and conventional economic wisdom exerts pressure to increase scale in order to reduce unit costs. In remote rural locations,

resources are often present on an extensive scale in the form of large mountain ranges, expanses of inland waterways, and coastlines. Nevertheless, the types of developments and businesses that are most likely to contribute to the sustainability of the local economy, culture and environment are likely to be of a smaller scale (Sharpley, 1996).

Large-scale physical construction activity almost invariably interferes with the natural landscape and a large number of users can lead to deterioration in the quality of the resources and the pleasure of the experience afforded. However, to identify the most appropriate scale for development can be problematic and, in this context, considerations of sustainability arise (Suvantola, 2002).

The definition of sustainability that is perhaps most frequently used is that of the Bruntland Commission of 1987, which states that current use should ensure that the resource is passed on in an undamaged condition to the next generation (Aronsson, 2000; Fullana and Ayuso, 2002). Sustainability includes physical, economic and cultural dimensions and all three are closely related (Mc Cool and Moisey, 2001; Fullana and Ayuso, 2002). Thus, the sustainability of an area's economy may depend on protecting the physical resource base and preserving the local culture that serve as resources for tourism (Throsby, 2001).

Damage to either or both of these types of resource may decrease the number of tourists and therefore reduce revenue. Sustaining the physical and cultural resource base usually requires control of the types of development permitted and tourist activities promoted, and the number of tourists attracted. In this context, complementarity rather than conflict between tourism and other economic and social activities is also likely to result in economic gain and promote social and cultural benefits for local communities (Hall, 2000; RItchie and Crouch, 2003).

The successful pursuit of most forms of human endeavour involves networking between various interests for the achievement of common aims. Networking is of particular importance in the case of rural tourism at both local and external levels (Murdoch, 2000) and also contributes to environmental and cultural sustainability (Kneafsea, 2001). The small scale of many businesses often makes networking necessary for promotional purposes between businesses and between them and agencies of various kinds at local, regional, national and international levels.

Apart from the financial benefits of tourism development that may accrue to individual businesses and to the rural economy more generally, cultural tourism in mountain areas may contribute to local empowerment and thereby to development. In particular, opportunities may be provided for new businesses to be formed and for new actors to become involved in

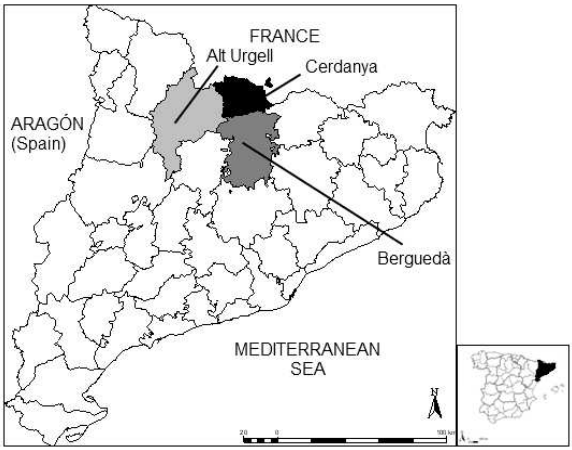
economic activities (Williams and Buswell, 2003). In addition, the demonstrated attractions of remote mountain areas for cultural tourists may contribute to feelings of self-confidence and place-consciousness hitherto absent or poorly developed (Chaudhuri, 2006).

METHODOLOGY

This study is based on a survey to some tourists in nine towns and rural villages located in the mountains in the north of Catalonia, in the regions of Cerdanya, Berguedà and Alt Urgell (Figure 2), as follows:

a) Cerdanya: Puigcerdà, Bellver, and Llívia
b) Berguedà: La Pobla de Lillet, Bagà, and Castellar de n'Hug
c) Alt Urgell: la Seu d'Urgell, Organyà, and Adrall

Figure 2. Map of Catalonia



(source: own production with Miramon software)

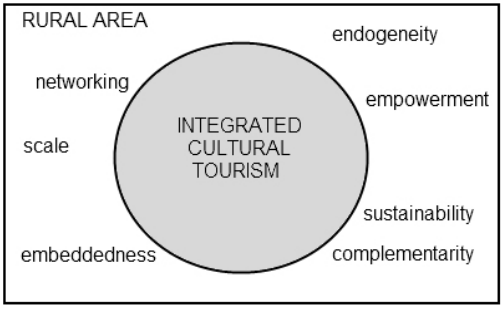
The three regions selected for this analysis are in the Pyrenees or Pre-Pyrenees in the north of Catalonia. It is a mountainous zone with small interior valleys and the sources of two of the principal rivers of Catalonia, the Llobregat and the Segre. The natural beauty and geographical situation, led to a great cultural heritage, especially Romanesque churches, and more recently to great activity in rural tourism. In the Berguedà there is also industrial tourism related to mining and the multitude of textile-factory colonies that were established in this region.

Survey was conducted at tourist offices, rural tourism houses, local museums and in one area where few tourists were present on the street, on hotel premises. Survey took place between March and September 2012 but was concentrated in the peak summer tourism season, July and August. Purposeful selection identified interview subjects based on age and group type (family, couples, etc.) that was representative of visitors to the region. Large tour groups were deliberately omitted because the focus of the study was to analyze the profile of cultural tourists in rural areas, as a form of tourism that is closely integrated with the regional and local resources base.

A majority of these tourists had spent at least two days in the area and the remainder were either day-trippers, return visitors or, in a small number of cases, on the first day of their visit with specific plans in mind. The survey was short (approximately 10 minutes) in order to maintain the flow of questions and answers and to capture the maximum amount of information possible within a reasonable length of time. The information was later transcribed and then analyzed as an Excel file using both quantitative and qualitative techniques.

Survey results were analyzed using the headings proposed by Cawley and Gillmor (2008) of scale, endogeneity, embeddedness, complementarity, sustainability, networking and empowerment (Figure 3), keeping in mind the competitiveness indicators of tourist destinations in Mazaro and Varzin (2008) and in Narváez and Fernandez (2009).

Figure 3. Integrated cultural tourism and factors



Source: own production from Cawley and Gillmor, 2008

RESEARCH FINDINGS

The profiles of surveyed people is showned in detail in the next table (Table 1).

Table 1. Surveyed profiles

		Total	%	Cerdanya	Berguedà	Alt Urgell
Participants		182	--	76	55	51
Gender	male	87	47.80%	37	25	25
	female	95	52.20%	39	30	26
Age group	< 20	15	8.24%	3	7	5
	20-40	56	30.77%	22	15	19
	40-60	79	43.41%	35	27	17
	> 60	32	17.58%	16	6	10
Educational level	high	63	34.62%	26	15	22
	medium	106	58.24%	46	35	25
	elementary	13	7.14%	4	5	4
Employment	civil servant	16	8.79%	8	3	5
	professional	13	7.14%	5	4	4
	administrative	28	15.38%	10	13	5
	commerce/retail	14	7.69%	7	4	3
	business, other	15	8.24%	10	2	3
	student	19	10.44%	6	9	4
	housewife	42	23.08%	14	12	16
	pensioner	27	14.84%	13	6	8
	unemployed	8	4.40%	3	2	3
Residence	same region	143	78.57%	55	45	43
	rest of Spain	31	17.03%	17	8	6
	rest of Europe	8	4.40%	4	2	2

Source: own production

More women than men were surveyed (52.20% and 47.80%, respectively), ranging in age from younger than 20 years (8.24%) to over 60 (17.58%), with the majority between 40 and 60 years old (43.41%). Educational levels were mostly medium (58.24%) and high (34.62%), and most (95.60%) were employed, more than half of them in professional or civil service occupations. In addition, some 95% were Spanish nationals (78.57% from Catalonia and 17.03% from the rest of Spain).

The most important survey results are shown in Table 2 and Figures 4 and 5. For the cultural tourists who visit these mountain areas, the most important factors on a five-point scale are the cultural resources (4.17), general tourist activities (4.05) and cultural activities (4.02). The principal

financial contribution of this tourism (Figure 5) is in shops (4.64 of 5) and bars and restaurants (4.45 of 5). The principal threats for these tourists (Figure 6) are the lack of sufficient car parks (4.48 of 5), poor signage (4.39 of 5), and the degradation of the environment (4.18 of 5) and natural resources (4.05 of 5).

Table 2. Main survey results

Length of stay		
1 day	15	8.24%
2-3 days	39	21.43%
4-7 days	59	32.42%
over 7 days	69	37.91%
Travelling group		
individual	5	2.75%
couple	36	19.78%
family	95	52.20%
friends	46	25.27%
Accommodation		
second home	28	15.38%
rural house	92	50.55%
hotel	6	3.30%
friends	34	18.68%
family	22	12.09%
Transport		
car	156	85.71%
motorcycle	12	6.59%
bus	6	3.30%
train	8	4.40%
Number of visits		
first time	20	10.99%
second time	48	26.37%
3 or more times	114	62.64%
Holidays in the region		
exclusively	47	25.82%
part-time	135	74.18%
Origin		
same region	42	23.08%

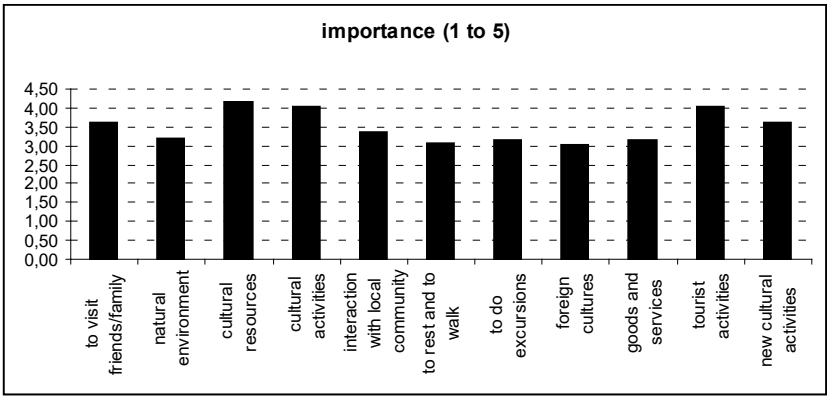
Importance (1 to 5)	
to visit friends/family	3.61
natural environment	3.18
cultural resources	4.17
cultural activities	4.02
interaction with local community	3.35
to rest and to walk	3.07
to do excursions	3.16
foreign cultures	3.04
goods and services	3.15
tourist activities	4.05
new cultural activities	3.62
Threats (1 to 5)	
unfriendliness	2.37
personal service	2.61
prices	3.25
traffic	3.63
parking	4.48
signposting of the accesses	4.39
planning tourism	3.17
train connection	3.57
access infrastructure	3.27
public services	2.18
secondary roads	2.06
cultural attractions	2.17
cultural activities	2.42
environment	4.18
natural resources	4.05
restaurants/hotels quality	3.35
Financial impact (1 to 5)	

rest of Catalonia	79	43.41%
rest of Spain	53	29.12%
rest of Europe	8	4.40%

accommodations	3.73
bar/restaurants	4.45
shops	4.64
local employment	4.18
Maintenance of local businesses	4.25

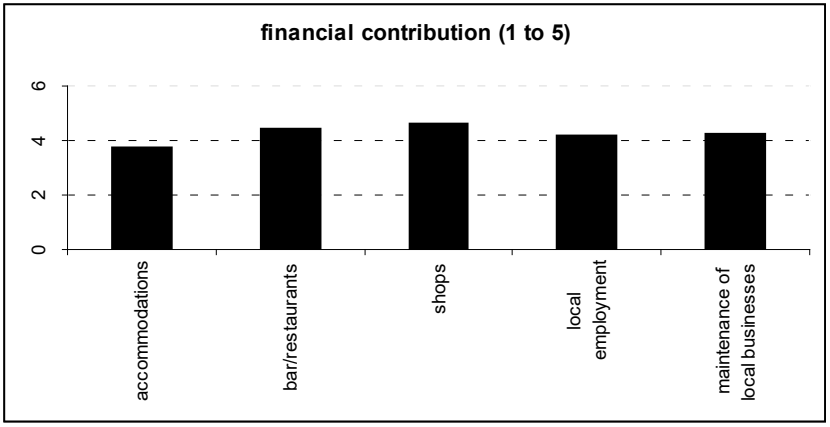
(source: own production)

Figure 4. Importance of the tourist factors



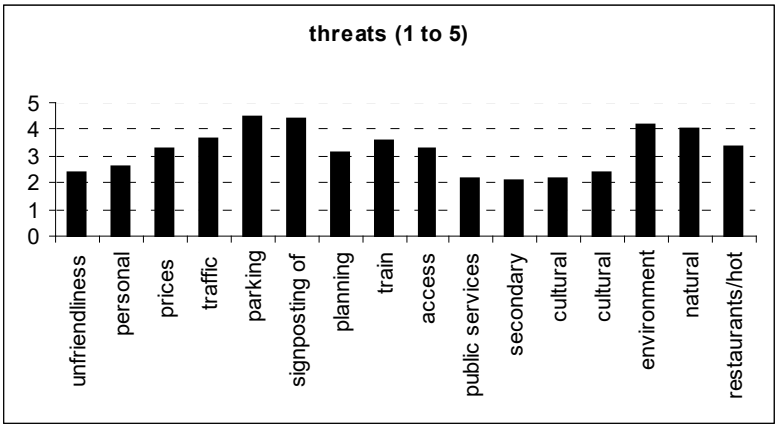
Source: own production

Figure 5. Importance of tourist financial contribution



Source: own production

Figure 6. Threats detected by the tourists



Source: own production

Scale

If cultural tourism is environmentally sustainable, it must be conducted at a scale that does not undermine the resources on which it is based. In this context, the current scale of cultural tourism in the area seems appropriate. Cultural tourism activity is small in scale, with the exception of localized concentrations (principally La Seu d'Urgell, a regional capital). Most of the tourists came as couples (19.78%) or small groups of family and friends (77.47%).

There was considerable variation in the lengths of stay reported, from very short (8.24% only one day) to longer holidays (37.91% more than a week), but with a bias towards week-long or shorter sojourns. In addition, the length of stay varied to some extent according to the season and the associated holiday leave available to travellers.

For example, the spring tourists interviewed during Holy Week were staying for three or four days, while those interviewed in mid-summer were on longer holidays. It appears that average tourist stays could be extended as a method of increasing revenue while controlling numbers. Some progress has been made in extending the cultural offer, local fairs, and holiday weekend activities.

Endogeneity

Several features of the tourists' experiences pointed to local ownership of tourism-related resources. It was known that many of the rural tourism houses were owned by local people, as were most of the hotels. More than half of the tourists interviewed (50.55%) were staying in rural houses, 31.77% were staying with family or friends, 15.38% in second homes and only 3.30% were in hotels.

The tourists mentioned interaction with local people as forming an important and distinctive feature of the holiday experience; the importance of this factor was 3.35 on a 5-point scale. In particular, the opportunity of staying with the family owner of the accommodation was a distinctive feature of the holiday experience they felt should be protected. Less interaction with local people as a result of increasing commercialization was viewed as a danger and a loss to the captivating effects of cultural tourism.

Embeddedness

The features that formed the attraction of these destinations for tourists were highly embedded in aspects of the physical, social, economic and cultural environment. The principal reasons cited by tourists for their visit were to see cultural resources (4.17 of 5) and cultural attractions (4.02 of 5), to visit family and friends (3.61 of 5), to view the scenery (on a 5-point scale, the importance of natural environment was 3.18, of walking and resting was 3.07, and of excursions was 3.16).

Almost two-thirds of the tourists (62.64%) were making at least their third visit to the area, although a majority of them were not familiar with all or even most of the cultural attractions. More than half of these tourists were Catalan (66.49%) and more than 23% were of local origin or had personal local connections. Less than one-third (29.12%) were from the rest of Spain. Only 10.99% were first-time visitors. Notably, more than a quarter of the tourists (25.82%) intended to spend their holiday exclusively in the region.

Sustainability

Sustainability involves economic, cultural, social and physical dimensions (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003). On a five-point scale, the tourists reported that they contributed to the sustainability of the local economy

through expenditure on tourist activities (4.05), goods and services (3.15) and through employment creation (3.18). Some tourists felt that an appreciation of foreign cultures was one of the benefits of tourism for local people (3.04 of 5 points) and none felt that there were any adverse effects. Several tourists referred to a capacity to increase the economic and cultural sustainability of tourism in the local area by extending the activities and developing additional products based on the cultural resource base (3.62).

A variety of threats to the sustainability of cultural tourism in mountain areas were identified and some tourists expressed fear about a decline in friendliness (2.37 of 5 points); worse level of personal service (2.61); declining quality in restaurants and bars (3.35); rising prices in accommodations, restaurants, shops and museums (3.25); insufficient parking lots for cars (4.48) and too much traffic (3.63) because the great majority (85.71%) of these tourists were arriving by car. There were also concerns about the deterioration of the cultural monuments (2.17), cultural attractions (2.42), environment (4.18), and natural resources (4.05).

Complementarity

Complementarity in the protection of the landscape and its resources and their use for tourism is central to the sustainability of tourism in mountain areas. Complaints relating to cultural activities and the traffic and parking in the towns point to the need for greater complementarity between tourism planning (3.17 of 5 points) and traffic control (3.63), including signposting of the access to museums and the town centre (4.30). In the case of the Cerdanya, complementarity between rail and bus schedules is also required (with 3.37 of 5) in order to facilitate the use of public transport by tourists who do not have access to private vehicles.

Given the seasonal nature of tourism and the relatively small number of tourists outside the larger population centres, complementarity in the use of tourist cultural and natural resources is desirable. The tourist information office provided good examples of the effective cross-use of local resources in these areas, in response to the need to reduce state support because of the current financial crisis. They are now serving as information points, booking offices and sales outlets for local products.

Networks

The concept of networking is central to notions of integrated cultural tourism development in mountain areas and operates in a variety of ways both horizontally and vertically (Larsen et al., 2007). The evidence in this regard from the tourists was positive. There was considerable evidence of the existence of strong links between the cultural tourists and local people. Such networks are a product of close family links, friendships, and other well-established relationships, and are instrumental in attracting repeat visitors to the region.

Many of the tourists were closely integrated into local communities through family relationships and friendships and repeat visits, which resulted in repeat bookings. A small number of tourists owned second homes in the region, including family homes. The form of network that was singled out for particular criticism was the access infrastructure (with 3.27 of 5 points) and the tourism planning in the area (3.17). The cultural tourists were also critical of the inadequacies of public services (2.18), the secondary road infrastructures in the region (2.06) and a poor signposting of the access to villages, tourism offices and cultural monuments of interest to visitors (4.39).

Empowerment

The financial benefits that accrued to local people from expenditure by cultural tourists in mountain areas were felt by tourists to contribute to the maintenance of local businesses (the importance was of 4.25 on a 5-point scale). The tourists also perceived that local communities gained self-confidence from having tourist visits. In addition, they identified local people, either directly or by inference, as holding considerable power in the tourism marketing chain because of their dominance among accommodations providers. The tourists also emerged as wielding considerable power in the relationships with local people, in terms of the price of local products (4.64 of 5 points), restaurants and bars (4.45), and accommodations (3.73).

CONCLUSIONS

Cultural tourism in mountain areas has many features that point to effective integration of local resources into wider networks. The ownership of cultural tourism resources is strongly localized and in many mountainous zones there is close integration of cultural tourist activities

into the natural and cultural resource base and into established social and institutional structures through networking.

Close networking between the cultural tourists and local community was evident because there is a marked element of return tourism, partly based on family links, that is a valuable source of business. Cultural tourist activities are generally taking place on an appropriate scale and contribute to economic and cultural sustainability. Local business people have become empowered through the commercial opportunities provided, although seasonality is a feature of some weakness.

Several weaknesses were identified in the context of the seven underlying criteria on which the analysis was based, which point to a need for remedial action to promote integration more effectively. The more peripheral areas are visually attractive but have fewer cultural attractions and bad roads, have a less developed cultural tourist infrastructure and are not well linked with the more developed areas.

Access infrastructure to the areas and within the region need to be upgraded and greater coordination of public transport services is required. Several threats to the quality of the cultural environment were identified by the tourists, including some deterioration in the quality of cultural products, many problems with parking in the main towns, and poor signposting of the access to places of interest. In Cerdanya, a very important holiday destination year-around, several tourists emphasized that local products, accommodations, and restaurants in this area are of high quality but relatively expensive.

Two forms of action appear to be required, in particular, to address the weaknesses identified by the cultural tourists: greater care for the cultural environment by individuals and stricter control by the authorities. It is also clear that retaining and improving quality must be accompanied by providing good value for the money spent. Further investment in both transport and leisure infrastructure is required in mountain and rural areas and will probably involve both private and public contributions.

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CREATING A SUPPLY TYPOLOGY. GREECE AS A CASE STUDY

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The objective of this paper is to illustrate both the necessity and the methodology for the creation of a supply typology which will be able to contribute to decision-making process. A supply typology can contribute in policy formulation and implementation that can lead to the overall goal of sustainability in a destination area. The methodology proposed by this paper is based in the use of Geographical Information Systems (GIS) as a tool of visualizing and communicating a big amount of information stored in data bases. Are data are stored in time series and they concern the minimum available spatial scale and policy formulation and implementation for tourism. The case study area of this paper will be the Greek coastal and insular area. In order for all available data to be recorded, analyzed, synthesized and, finally, spatially visualized, the use of advanced information technologies is essential. Furthermore, the use of technologies and methodologies that can categorize data and various multi-combinations of them are also essential. In this case, the use of Geographical Information Systems (GIS) combined with the Fuzzy c-Means algorithm was used.

Keywords: *Tourism planning, Supply Typologies; GIS; Fuzzy c-Means*

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism is without a doubt one of the most important forces shaping our world (Cohen & Kennedy, 2000). It is a complex phenomenon (Farrell & Twinning Ward, 2004;2005). Simmons and Leiper suggest that "Around each element and around whole tourism systems are many kinds of environmental features: social, cultural, economic, physical, legal, political, and technical. Interactions between tourism systems and their environments are pervasive..." (1998:90). Each destination has its own characteristics. Planning is crucial to sustainable tourism development

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and is a practice and a principle widely adopted (WTO, 1994). Planning at a national level should take into consideration the specific character of each destination.

Ideally, a plan should produce policies that are possible to be implemented, and implementation should follow the principal plan. The existing literature on tourism planning refers to the failure of plans (Burns & Sancho 2003; Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert & Wanhill, 1995; Tosun, 1996). In many cases, policies coming from tourism planning process are top-down and take account neither of the local population nor of the spatial characteristics of the area (Dredge, 1999; Pearce, 1995; Timothy, 1998; Wick & Walter, 2009).

In tourism planning, it is important to understand that the geographical dispersion of tourism exceeds the "narrow" administrative boundaries of destination areas (Jennings, 2004). Thus tourism planning and decision-making, as well as formulating and implementing policies for tourism at macro-level, cannot be based on the administrative boundaries (Farrell & Twinning-Ward, 2004) of destination areas but it should be oriented on the minimum possible administrative spatial unit (Hall & Page, 2006; Hall, 2008).

Planning as a process should incorporate all the actors of the system (Hasse & Milne, 2005). It also needs a proper framework of evaluation, not only specification of objectives but also a monitoring system that focuses on outputs rather than inputs (Northcote & Macbeth, 2006). Integrated planning on a national level should be adjusted in real time and should represent the structure and the dynamics of each destination (Stevenson, Airey & Miller, 2006; Northcote & Macbeth, 2006).

Planning needs political will and capacity (The author would like to thank the anonymous Reviewer for this insight). In planning process data availability is critical. Geographical Information Systems (GIS) are widely used to grapple with a multiplicity of planning problems (Hasse & Milne, 2005). They link spatial phenomena with associated strong data bases that contain the attributes. Thus GIS can substantially aid planning process (Elwood, 2002) in order to achieve the goal of sustainability.

Typologies have a rich tradition in social sciences disciplines (Selin, 1999) but most of the literature on typology construction is quite old (Bailey, 2005). Typologies are essentially an organizational model that systematically illustrates how a social phenomenon varies or is similar along a number of selected attributes (Waddock, 1989) Classification is a generic process for grouping entities by similarity but there is no ideal type or prototype as this cannot be found anywhere in reality (Rosch,

1975). This means that the boundaries of the types/clusters produced from a typological process are fuzzy.

This paper proposes a tool and a conceptual framework to examine the creation of supply typologies. This framework views supply typologies as essentially issue in planning and decision making processes. The supply typology proposed is a tool not a policy typology and will aid policy making by creating more targeted policies.

The basic objective of this paper is to illustrate a methodology of creating supply typologies in order to better direct policies. This typology will be able to contribute to a decision-making process as well as plan formulation and implementation. The methodology for the creation of this typology is highlighted. In order for this typology to be effective, it should be concerned with the smallest possible spatial unit of analysis. The case study area of this paper will be the entire Greek coastal and insular region. In order for all available data to be recorded, analyzed, synthesized and finally spatially visualized, the use of advanced information technologies, which can operate routines in real time, is essential.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The inadequacies of tourism planning and policies

Tourism planning has followed a significant evolution in development and planning paradigms that moved from myopic and rigid concerns to more comprehensive, flexible, responsive, systematic and participatory approaches (Inskeep, 1994; Tosun, 2006). Tourism can be considered from both short-term and strategic long-term perspectives. The merits of planning can only be possible, given that a plan can be implemented in the first place (Lai Kun, Xuegang, 2006).

According to Hall (2009), there is a gap between planning and implementation due to planners' needs to balance between what should be done ideally and what can be done in reality. The existing literature in tourism planning offers little in the field of inadequacies between planning, policy and implementation (Pearce, 2000). Some cases in the literature report the failure of tourism planning caused by the lack of analytical data (Shepherd, 1998), the lack of community involvement (Tosun & Jenkins, 1998) and the mismatch between central planning and local possibilities (Burns et al., 2003).

In many cases, policies are top-down and they take into account neither the local possibilities nor the opinion of the local community

about tourism development (Simpson, 2001). In cases where tourism policy is top-down and refers to regions of a country, this policy is probable to fail due to the fact that in the same region the dynamics of tourism development are not the same. For instance, the region of Cyclades in Greece consists of over 32 islands, where Myconos, Ios, Paros have a strong tourism development but Anafi, Donousa, Koufonisia have a basic level of tourism development. So, policies for this area should be more specific. Furthermore, in these small and isolated areas, where there is scarcity in resources, community involvement in tourism planning is of crucial importance.

In other cases, policies for tourism do not take into account the spatial particularities of an individual locality (Hunter & Shaw, 2007). Tourism is essentially place-based activity and involves the production of destination identity at different scales and time periods (Lu & Nepal, 2009). This leads to the logical conclusion that policies which do not take into account the spatial characteristics of destinations are (in most of the cases) condemned to fail in their implementation. In order for the planning as a process and for policies as its result to be reliable and realistic, they should fit in the spatial, environmental and socio-economic characteristics of each destination. Typologies in this case can be a very effective tool.

Demand & Supply Typologies

Tourism is a spatially specific phenomenon (Wiliams et al, 2001), which has impacts that manifest themselves in several different ways at various destinations. Specifically, the extent and intensity of development differ per destination area. The image of a place as a pleasure travel destination is derived, to a greater or lesser extent, from attributes towards the destination's perceived tourism attributes (Lacitingola et al, 2007). In turn, these tourists' socio-economic characteristics, travel motives, and behavior, while traveling, also vary and generate different image for each destination. Tourist's perception and consequent behavior depend mostly on the tourism typology (Becken & Gnoth, 2004).

This differentiation inevitably shows the necessity of finding different ways to manage tourism both at macro- and micro-level. For example, Rodos and Lesvos are two islands in Greece that each one has developed tourism in its own way. On the one hand, Rodos has a profile of mass tourism destination with big complexes and advanced services. On the other hand, Lesvos is a rising destination with an ecotourism profile. These two islands, as tourism destinations, should be treated in

different ways, and policies should also be differentiated in order to be effective.

The ascertainment of this necessity has led to the creation of typologies of tourists (demand side) and destination areas (supply side), aiming at the most effective tourism planning and management. The creation of a typology helps substantially in organizing the information provided every time, and consists one of the most basic operations of human brain and reception. Lakoff (1987, p.6) claims that "… without the ability to categorize we could not function at all".

Classification can help in terms of organizing and recognizing common advantages and disadvantages that, in turn, can lead to the creation of patterns of tourism development (henceforth TD) such as mature destinations, destinations of low or high development etc. Those patterns can help decision-makers (at macro-level) to have a more clear, reliable and comprehensible picture of the tourism system, and thus to establish more effective policies for tourism. In this case, the development of a typology is essential, since it is possible that policies and actions may be specialized according to the type of the destination area. Policies coming from the implementation of the basic principles of tourism planning are more rational, systematic and effective, since they are concerned with areas with common problems and growth characteristics.

Typologies of supply (destinations) or demand (tourists), respectively, encountered in the literature, were created in order to accomplish different aims and objectives. For example, according to Williams (2009) demand typologies have been created not only to deal with planning issues, show the effects created from tourism, recognize different types of tourism, tourists, and motives of traveling, but also to demonstrate the differences to the structural characteristics and dynamics of tourism (provided services, types of accommodation, means of transport etc).

The basic assumption and recognition that tourism can be developed in various ways and has a different character in coastal or mountainous areas, has led to the creation of supply typologies for coastal areas (Barbaza, 1970; Gormsen, 1981, 1997; Peck & Lepie, 1977; Wong, 1986), and mountainous areas (Pearce, 1978; Preau, 1968). Moreover, other typologies have also been created, such as the one by Miossec (1976, 1977), which describes a general model of TD in destination areas. Coccosis and Tsartas (2001) have presented the most important models of TD, including the one by Turner and Ash (1975), who studied the dispersion of tourism at worldwide level through a typology, and Lundgren's (1982) classification who studied the center-periphery

conflict and the degree of mutual attraction of tourists between those two poles.

The following Table 1 is a simplification that provides an illustration of this overview and a critical analysis of the supply typologies encountered in literature. It should be underlined that this distinction is a simplification and it is made primarily because of the analysis, thinking orientation and understanding of general criteria, which have been used so that a typology may be created.

Table1. *General simplified model of supply typologies for coastal areas*

Criteria	**Types**	**Life cycle stage (**after Butler's model of the Tourist Area Life Cycle (Butler,1980)	**Impacts intention**	**Participation of the local community in tourisms growth**
a) the power of the local society b) the rate of development	1)extensive development	Stagnation	High	Low
	2)local development with extensive trends	Development	Medium	Medium
	3)slow localized development	Exploration	Low	High

According to the simplification shown in Table 1, it seems that there are two basic criteria in order to create a supply typology; these criteria are the growth rate and the degree of participation of the local society in it (growth). When these criteria are used, three types of areas come out as a result.

First, there are the areas that indicate intensive growth as a result of external investors. In this case, the area's tourism product has already been saturated, and the effects of this growth for the natural, social and economic environment are maximized.

Second, there are the areas showing a rapid growth rate which occurs mainly due to local investors from the destination area itself. In this case, the product is in its development stage and the effects of this growth for the natural environment increase.

Third, there are the newly explored destinations, discovered by a small number of pioneer tourists. This destinations' natural environment

remains uninfluenced and whatever growth occurs happens mainly because of the local population. It should be underlined that this distinction is a simplification and is made primarily because of the analysis, thinking orientation and understanding of general criteria that have been used, so that a typology may be created.

From the study of the existing literature, there are two main points worth mentioning. First, there is no optimal way to create typologies. Instead, every effort is distinct and is called for to fulfill specific needs. At the same time, it is carried out having specific limitations, aims and objectives. Up to now, efforts have been primarily descriptive, they have used neither information technologies nor advanced statistical methods, while being spatially limited to spatially small destination areas (local level) (Constantoglou, 2006). Due to the limited area, the research was carried out with the use of questionnaires and descriptive statistical methods so that results to be drawn.

Descriptive statistics are unable to deal with the large volume of data needed (Hall & Page, 2009) for the creation of a typology at national or regional level. Typology in this case will assist in the tourism planning process and decision making by helping in the production of targeted policies that will take into account spatial contingencies. In this case, GIS can be a very effective tool for creating typologies which can act as a Decision Support System.

Apart from demand and supply typologies in the literature for tourism there are a lot of efforts for creating typologies. Many of them are made for land uses classification (Williams & Shaw, 2009). Hall (2011) in his influential work creates a typology of conceptual frameworks of governance. He finally notes:

«Typologies contribute to conceptualizing and describing empirical developments. They therefore serve as an appropriate analytical framework to structure analysis and comparison and can potentially be used for the development of quantitative as well as qualitative analysis... However, like all maps, a typology of governance applies a simplifying lens to a complex reality. As Stoker (1998, p. 26) commented, "The issue is not that it has simplified matters but whether that simplification has illuminated our understanding and enabled us to find an appropriate path or direction".»

The purpose of this paper is to introduce a methodology of creating supply typologies that can assist tourism planning by the production of more targeted policies. Those policies will be based from quantitative analysis. But policies need political will and planning should incorporate all the actors of the system in order to be effective. Tourism is part of a

complex system and should be integrated into the wider political system in order its results to be effective.

GIS

Effective tourism planning requires monitoring, evaluation mechanisms and feedback information about the effect of planning decisions and policies on tourism resources and destination areas. Much of this information is inherently spatial, indicating where and how extensive the tourism resources are or how intensively they are used; that is, GIS can be a useful tool for planners and decision makers (Hall & Page, 2009).

GIS is described as hardware, software and procedures that collectively support the collection, input, storage, retrieval, manipulation, transformation, analysis and presentation of geo-referenced object and field data (Malczewski, 1999). Since GIS technology couples common database operations, such as query and statistical analysis, with geographically represented data, it is considered a decision support system involving spatially-referenced data in a problem-solving environment (Beedasy & Whyatt, 1999; Malczewski, 1999). In practice, managers can test many scenarios with GIS as a tool to help to determine who or what might be affected by certain decisions (Landres, Spildie, & Queen, 2001). Finally, GIS are systems which deal with geographical information but, unless they have an actual application, they remain just another technology (Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999).

Counter to the lack of tourism system models, the application of GIS for tourism has been diverse (Table 2), including: the systematic inventory and audit of tourism resources and conditions (Bruehler & Sondergaard, 2004); identification of potential development locations (Boyd & Butler 1996; Gunn, 1994; Starr, Gratzer, & Lewis, 1999); simulating and modeling spatial outcomes of proposed developments through visibility analysis (Selman, Davidson, Watson, & Winterbotomm, 1991) and simulation modeling to facilitate monitoring and management of tourist flows (Itami, Raulings, Maclaren, Hirst, Gimblett, Zanon, & Chladek, 2002; Wing & Shelby, 1999;). As GIS technology advances, its application will expand (Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999).

The usefulness and usability of GIS in decision-making is critical and has been proven very crucial, since GIS can depict all relevant parameters (qualitative and quantitative, spatial and non-spatial). Thus, it strengthens the ability to clarify any spatial kinds of problems/questions

(Constantoglou, 2006). In addition, GIS can provide users capabilities like linkage, intersection, union, search (queries) for information in voluminous databases and can process the required information in real time. Thus, GIS is able to provide important support in tourism planning (Bahaire et al., 1999; Batty & Densham, 1996; Nedovic-Budic, Knaap & Scheidecker, 1999).

Table2. *General model of supply typologies*

Functional capabilities of a GIS	GIS Basic Questions		Tourism Applications
Data entry, storage and manipulation	Location	What is at?	Tourism Resource Inventories
Map production	Condition	Where is it?	Identify most suitable locations for development
Database integration and management	Trend	What has changed?	Measure tourism impacts
Data queries and searches	Routing	Which is the best route?	Visitor management / flows
Spatial analysis	Pattern	What is the pattern	Analyze relationships associated with resource use
Spatial modelling Decision Support Systems	Modelling	What if?	Assess potential impacts of TD *Crate a typology*

After Bahaire, & Elliot-White, 1999

Since the '90's GIS have been moved from the related field of environmental research where it was born and already had been well established by that time (Bahaire & Elliott-White, 1999) to tourism. Nowdays there are GIS applications for dynamic web-maps with query functions, for hotel search, best routing, (Dickmann, 2005; Joun & Ryu, 2004), tourist information systems (TIS) (Worboys & Duckham; 2004), or even application for 3D Web GIS, or even augmented reality (AR)

offering tourist information and guiding (O'Looney, 2004; Schilling, Coors, & Laakso, 2005; Dye & Shaw, 2007).

This ability is crucial for the creation of a typology. Nevertheless, GIS is only a tool, and its basic problem is that the user should decide upon the number of classes a priori. The tool that has been created to develop a typology for the Greek coastal area should have the ability to execute itself the optimum classification. It should be able to determine the number of classes and place each community into the appropriate class. Thus, what is needed is an analytical hierarchical process to classify the communities according to multiple criteria given by the user within a GIS environment.

Fuzzy c-Means

One of the most basic abilities of living creatures involves the grouping of similar objects to produce a classification. This is a primal process since classification is required for the development of language. Being a basic human activity, classification is also fundamental to most branches of science. For example, Aristotle built up an elaborate system for classifying species in the animal kingdom. In the broadest sense, a classification may represent a convenient method for organizing a large volume of data so that the retrieval of information can be more efficient. Describing patterns of similarity and difference among the objects under research by classifying them may provide a convenient summary of the data.

One of the fundamental problems of developed classification methods is that they require an a priori definition of the number of clusters that would be created (Dzung, 2001). This is due to the fact that most methods consider that a certain amount of minimum information is available in the real system, usually given by the expert. Nevertheless, whenever the real system is completely unknown ("black box"), the rate of success of these methods decreases quite substantially (Tsekouras & Sarimveis, 2004). In this case, it is the theory of Fuzzy Clustering that can deal successfully with these problems (Bezdek & Pal, 1992; Dunn, 1973).

The classification of a set of unlabeled data into classes of similar individuals has been stated as a major problem in pattern analysis. So far, fuzzy logic has proven to be a very effective tool to handle this problem (Burrough, MacMillan, & van Deursen, 1992; Tsekouras et al., 2004). There are two general approaches to fuzzy classification namely, supervized and unsupervized classification. On the one hand, supervized classification algorithms are based on a set of training data, and usually

assume ordinary fuzzy partitions (kbir, Benkirame, Maalmi, & Bensilame, 2000). The main characteristic of these methods is that their results strongly depend on the training data set, meaning that different training data sets may lead to different fuzzy partitions.

A very common unsupervized classification approach is the fuzzy clustering analysis. Fuzzy clustering algorithms do not require training data. However, different algorithms may lead to different fuzzy partitions or different parameters and/or different initial conditions may also give different results for a specific algorithm (Al Sultan & Selim, 1993; Windham, 1982). Therefore, there is a need to validate the fuzzy partition produced by the implementation of a fuzzy clustering algorithm. More specifically, cluster validity answers the question of whether the resulted fuzzy partition is able to describe the real data structure or not. The most representative fuzzy clustering technique is the fuzzy c-means algorithm (Bezdek, 1973). This algorithm has been applied to huge range of applications and has been proven to be a very good tool of classification, provided that the number of clusters is known a priori, which is the main disadvantage of this algorithm.

In order for this undesirable behavior of FcM to be eliminated, some control criteria of cluster validity of this algorithm have been developed. The control of cluster validity of FcM answers the question whether the clusters coming out of this procedure describe the real structure of the initial data or not. In order for this to be achieved, a function (indicator) is defined, whose minimum value corresponds to the optimal number of clusters. Initialization is an important factor of the system, since it should represent the data-system to give reliable results, too. Moreover, different initializations can lead to different classifications.

As far as the degree of fuzzification is concerned, it is of crucial importance since it determines substantially the system's "fuzzyness" (Hathaway, Bezdek, & Devenport, 1996; Kanade & Hall, 2003; Karmakar & Dooley, 2002). When the degree of fuzzification is defined as equal to one, then the classification is "hard". Wherever it is bigger than one, the classification is fuzzier, meaning that the boundaries of clusters are more "flexible" (Flores-Sintas, Cadenas, & Martin, 1999).

According to Bezdek (1980), the degree of fuzzification should be between one (1) and thirty (30) with a range from one and half (1.5) to three (3) giving good results, while the case of two is the most valid. On the contrary, it is considered that there is no theoretical basis for the choice of good value for the degree of fuzzification (Cannon, Dave, & Bezdek, 1986), and the proposed range of values from one up to five - being deducted from the literature review – seems to give better results. A

series of tests were conducted with different degrees of fuzzyfication, whereas the optimum result came out with four degrees. It is assessed that the optimum degree of fuzzyfication cannot be determined, since in every case it depends on the structure of the data-system that is going to be classified.

According to international literature, the main advantage of FcM is that it converges much more easily (Flores-Sintas et al., 1999; Hathaway et al., 1996; Kanade et al., 2003; Karmakar et al., 2002). Furthermore, it can give results in real time (Al Sultan et al., 1993; Barshan & Ayrulu 2004; Bezdek, 1993; Dae-Won, Kwang, & Doheon, 2003; 2004), while data normalization is not necessary (Dzung, 2001; Hanesch, 2001; Hoppner, 2002; Karmakar et al 2002). Data normalization/standardization that has a wide range of values in the scale zero to one would decrease the precision of system. For this reason, real data were used without being processed to the normal distribution. According to Edelbrock (1979), standardization process allows variables to contribute equally to the definition of clusters, but may also eliminate meaningful differences among clusters.

CASE STUDY AREA

The case study area encompasses the entire Greek coastline, including all insular areas. Greece is a country with the most extended coastline among all other Mediterranean countries. The Greek total area is about 131,957sq.km, and the total length of its coastline amounts to approximately 15,000km. This coastline is almost equally divided between the mainland and the islands. Indeed, 7,700km of coastal zone corresponds to the country's 3,053 islands, though it should be taken into account that only 227 islands are inhabited (NSS, 2001). The Greek coastal area is of crucial importance because it covers 26.2% of the total area of the country, 38% of the total population (NSS, 2001) and 90% of the entire tourism activity (Constantoglou, 2006).

The definition and orientation of the coastal area is a particularly complex process. According to the definition given by the group of experts, who studied the "National Program for Sustainable Development of Greek Island and Coastal Areas" (Ministry for the Environment, Physical Planning and Public Works, 1997), "The Coastal area is this geographic space that includes sea and land … the land should be defined to include the area that is between the coastal line and the administrative boundaries of coastal OTA/communities" [OTA in Greek stands for "Organization of Local Government"].

In the present research, a typology of tourism areas was determined based on the minimal possible administrative unit which henceforth will be called community. The main reason for defining the coastal zone in this way was the basic ability to collect and manage essential statistical data such as, number of beds in primary and secondary accommodations, number of overnight stays etc.

OBJECTIVES OF THE TYPOLOGY

The typology for the Greek coastal and insular area should contribute to the strategic management and planning for tourism, to the identification of strengths and weaknesses of the system, to policy making, and to the implementation of actions taken. It should also be useful for evaluation and audit purposes. Such a process would encourage a rational and integrated approach (Wiek & Walter, 2009) to tourism planning and management that could help the overall goal of sustainable TD to be achieved. This, in return, requires firstly the formulation, creation and implementation of an administrative/managerial system whose administrative center should be the coastline; and secondly the parallel creation of an administrative/managerial system, which would aim at implementing suitable administrative policies adjusted to the particular characteristics that different clusters of tourism destinations of the coastal area have.

In order for these aims to be achieved, the following three are required: first the differentiation of the policies for tourism planning and management, while the individual characteristics of each cluster or type of tourism coastal community are recognized; second, the use of GIS, because it provides complete solutions of databases (import, process and visualization of spatial quantitative and qualitative data), whereas the advantage of this technique rests in its ability to depict/visualize spatial and non-spatial information of a database. Moreover, GIS can be a very important tool for planning and decision-making (Dye & Shaw, 2005; Feick & Hall, 2000; McAdam, 1999); third, the use of advanced classification methods, since the complexity, range and differentiation of these characteristics go beyond and over the possibilities of simple classification methods.

In order for the above requirements to be fulfilled, the specifications, as described below, should be observed. The system that will be created should be able to:

- support decision-makers who do not always have the required know-how for the use of complex systems and/or do not have enough time to attain this objective.
- detect trends, which potentially may lead to problematic situations in the coastal area;
- support decision making process so that multidimensional problems would be dealt with;.
- represent and depict spatially complex structures and relations;
- process and analyze qualitative and quantitative information;
- process spatial and non-spatial information;
- create, use and process sustainability indicators;
- be linked dynamically and in real time with other types of databases;
- have open and extensionable architecture;
- portray different levels and scales of information at the same time; and finally
- distinguish, according to the observed situation, the spatial entity which, at a given time, has the necessity to be coped with.

METHODOLOGY OF IMPLEMENTATION

In order for a tourism typology of the Greek coastal areas to be deduced, an extensive spatial database was created for each coastal community, which is also the minimal spatial administrative unit of the study area, as mentioned above. The database was created with the aid of GIS. The developed GIS took advantage both of the commercial software (ArcGIS version 9.1) and the routines that have been developed in programming languages. They consist of a set of tools interacting with each other complementarily, so that not only the desired typology of tourism areas in the coastline of Greece would be deduced but also tourism planning and decision-making for tourism would be supported.

All effort follows the logic of extensionable, fluctuating, scalable and open architecture. In any case, the system is able to change not only the data volume of the database but also the factors/indicators which participate in the deduction of the desired supply typology.

For the typology of tourism areas in the Greek coastline to be created, the following were used: Spatial data at a 1:50,000 scale including the borders of the country and boundaries of prefectures, communities, areas of the Natura 2000 network, road network, railway network, great hotel units, lakes, port premises, fish-farming, contour lines of 100 meters, a

digital terrain model of the area, map of ground slops, map of exposure/orientation of polygons, CORINE landuse, areas of special regulations (institutionalized areas of industrial, tourism, real estate development etc.), industries, archaeological areas of national and international importance, the coastline, airports – helidecks, installed power plants. The scale used here is small for national level planning but it is only indicative in order to create a supply typology. The methodology proposed can work in any scale.

Furthermore, geographic databases were used, connected with the above created GIS. In the specific database, at the community level, firstly all census data available in time series from 1971 up to 2001 (NSS, 2001) were registered; as well as data for the number of beds and overnight stays in primary and secondary accommodations for the decade 1990-2000 (NSS, 2001).

The National Statistical Organization has census data for 1961, 1971, 1981, 1991, 2001. As far as the statistical data for hotels is concerned, the Greek National Tourism Organization has collected data each year, starting in 1990. Data for secondary accommodations are only available for the time period 1990-1997. Also there are no records for second homes. Because of these constraints, the time period for the study was determined to be 1990-2000. The main aim was to create a typology and a system which could be able to give a safe and realistic result, so the time period is only indicative.

Using the primary available data, a series of indicators was generated concerning tourism and demographic characteristics of every coastal community; these characteristics usually show the structure, the dynamics and the pressure these areas experience. Next, the spatial database was developed. The communities which showed no (null) tourism activity (estimated in number of beds or overnight stays) during the decade were removed from the study. This cluster of communities can be distinguished as a cluster of null tourism activity in the cartographic material. As far as the coastal communities are concerned, a series of cartographic material was created depicting the existing situation with regard to tourism in the area of interest. From the analysis of the cartographic material, answers were given to questions concerning: which communities were the most rapidly developing; which communities show signs of saturation; and which ones are those experiencing the greatest pressure from tourism?

The depiction of multiple levels of information in layers of the same thematic map is called the “overlay” technique and has been widely used in planning and decision-making for spatial kinds of problems (eg. suitability analysis). In the case of the creation of a typology for the Greek

tourism coastal communities, the overlay method for multiple information in the same thematic map, cannot give a distinct result due to the large volume of necessary data (both in spatial and descriptive form). For this reason, another more advanced method of data classification was utilized.

Firstly the simple rule "If… then". The rule was implemented with the aid of Microsoft Excel software. For the classification of communities two parameters were used: a) the rate of population change showing the growth dynamics that each coastal community has, and b) the rate of tourism change being estimated in the number of beds of primary and secondary accommodations; this rate shows the dynamics of tourism growth in each coastal community (Table 3). The result that came out was satisfactory and made a distinction between nine clusters/categories of communities. The main disadvantage of this method was the fact that the classification with the use of more than two parameters was exceptionally time-consuming, while the result was not very reliable.

Table 3. Typology based on the rule "If..Then".

population (p) ***tourism (t)***	***DEVELOPING***	***STABLE***	***DECREASE***
DEVELOPING	CATEGORY 1 ($t>81, p>12$)	CATEGORY 2 ($t>81, 12<p<0$)	CATEGORY 3 ($t>81, p<0$)
STABLE	CATEGORY 4 ($81<t<0, p>12$)	CATEGORY 5 ($81<t<0$, $12<p<0$)	CATEGORY 6 ($81<t<0$, $p<0$)
DECREASE/NON EXISTING	CATEGORY 7 ($t<0, p>12$)	CATEGORY 8 ($t<0$, $12<p<0$)	CATEGORY 9 ($t<0$, $p<0$)

In the second phase, classifications were made while simple statistical methods of hierarchical classification with the aid of statistical packages such as SPSS and SPlus were being used. Hierarchical and non-hierarchical clustering algorithms, which are very good described in Everitt (1993), were tested. In those cases, the following were observed:

Firstly, these methods require the establishment of stopping rules; meaning that there should be very good knowledge of the data system which would eventually allow an a priori definition of a number of clusters.

If the system itself seeks for the optimum number of clusters, the process would be particularly time-consuming and require robust calculations.

The system could not examine more than one variable at the same time and simultaneously perform the optimum number of clusters in real time.

Finally, in the third case, the operation of fuzzy logic and more precisely fuzzy clustering algorithms like Fuzzy c Means (FcM) was examined (Bezdek 1973).

Eleven different initializations were tested and gave the same maximum number of clusters. Finally, the classification that gave the maximum degree of compactness (minimum distances of cases/communities belonging to the same cluster) and separation (maximum distances between clusters) was selected.

In order for the FcM method to be examined, an algorithm was created in Fortran, which can process simultaneously more than two variables. The algorithm of FcM was initially created in Fortran and then "translated" into Visual Basic. From Visual Basic it was exported in an executable file format to be added as new tool in the ArcMap toolbox. In this way, the results of the classification made in FcM could be depicted visually in a GIS environment.

A series of tests was done during which different parameters were used; these parameters have to do with the number of indicators, the indicators themselves, the number of clusters. the fuzzyfication coefficient, and the initialization of the system. A series of tests was conducted with the use of FcM with different initializations and different degrees of fuzzification.

The application of the preceding methodology resulted in both the classification of the Greek tourism coastal communities and the proposed system for typology creation.

Four indicators were used:

First Indicator: *The growth rate of tourism, measured in number of beds of primary accommodations.* It is the indicator that shows the dynamics of tourism growth in every community. The average of the particular indicator for the coastal tourism communities is 58.80;

Second Indicator: *The density of beds of primary and secondary accommodations for the last year of the Report period*. It is the indicator that shows the spatial pressure that every community experiences from tourism growth. The average of the particular indicator for the coastal tourism communities is 81.17 beds per square kilometer;

Third Indicator: *The rate of beds of primary and secondary accommodations for the last year of the Report period*. It is the indicator that shows the structure of tourism product in the coastal

area. The average of the particular indicator for the coastal tourism communities is two point fifty four (2.54); and

Fourth Indicator: *The ratio of beds of primary and secondary accommodations and the size and extent of the local population for the last year of the Report period*. It is the indicator that shows the "predominance" of tourism in a destination area. The average of the particular indicator for the coastal tourism communities is zero point seventy two (0.72) beds per resident or one point thirty eight (1.38) residents per bed.

RESULTS

The process of those indicators gave the typology of Greek tourism coastal communities. The centers of clusters/types of areas of tourism growth, which resulted from the application of the algorithm, are presented in Table 4. However, it should be noted that the graphic/statistical representation of all four indicators was not precisely possible due to the fact that statistically it is not easy to create 4D diagrams, even with the use of advanced software like SPSS and SPLUS, given that there were 1,323 communities/observations in the "population/sample" being processed. The large number of those observations makes the statistical representation prohibitive, even for one indicator. The typology produced is:

Table 4. Centers of classes/types of TD.

CENTRES OF CLASSES					
Levels of TD in clusters of coastal communities	**Cluster Number**	**First Indicator**	**Second Indicator**	**Third Indicator**	**Fourth Indicator**
Very high	cl1	91.70	222.94	1.10	1.74
Low	cl2	8.51	23.46	1.86	0.34
Classical destinations	cl3	62.39	953.34	0.70	3.71
Low-medium	cl4	30.02	49.32	2.55	0.67
High	cl5	145.61	162.56	3.48	1.49
Medium	cl6	97.78	102.33	2.74	1.16
Very low	cl7	0.32	3.00	0.29	0.06
Highest	cl8	251.03	235.51	4.62	1.81

Very low TD (Cl7). This particular cluster includes communities which, according to their statistics, demonstrate a decrease of their tourism potential and/or their tourism potential is minimum (lower than hundred beds). For communities of this particular cluster, the average change of beds does not exceed zero, whereas the density of beds does not exceed three beds per square kilometer. Moreover, the indicator of the structure of tourism product shows that, on average, three beds of secondary accommodations correspond to one bed of primary accommodation. Finally, the ratio of tourism product and population is just 16 residents per bed.

Low TD. (Cl2). In this cluster, communities are included whose product is at the early stages of TD. The rate of the change of beds is eight point fifty one per cent (8.51%), that is, seven times smaller than the average of the coastal area. The density of beds is 23.46 beds per square kilometer; almost four times lower than the average. The ratio of beds of primary and secondary accommodations is one point eighty six (1.86) - almost two beds of primary accommodations correspond to every bed of secondary accommodation – a fact that implies that hotel accommodations prevail in this cluster. The ratio of beds and population show that three residents correspond to one bed, meaning that this indicator is double the average of coastal tourism communities.

In these communities the beginning of TD can be distinguished, where tourism is developed along with the main occupation of the local population as a means of complementing their income. The businesses are small-sized, family-owned and operated with a small income. Moreover, the stress that is placed on the resources is minimal.

Low to medium TD (Cl4). In this cluster there are classified communities that show a higher growth rate than the two previous categories. The rate of tourism growth in the particular cluster is precisely half the average of TD rate in coastal communities. The density of beds does not exceed fifty beds per square kilometer. The rate of beds of the primary and secondary accommodations is precisely as much as the average of coastal tourism communities, that is, two point fifty four (2.54) beds of primary accommodations correspond to one bed of a secondary accommodation. The ratio between the tourism product and the population is one and half (1.5) residents per bed. From the above, it is inferred that the communities that are classified in this cluster show stronger growth dynamics compared to the two previous categories, while the pressure that they experience remains low.

Medium TD (Cl6). In this cluster there are classified communities with characteristics of medium tourism growth, if compared to the averages of the total coastal tourism communities. More analytically, the rate of growth is 97.78%, whereas the density of beds was almost 102 beds per square kilometer, that is, in both cases volumes which are higher than the average of coastal tourism communities. The ratio of beds of primary and secondary accommodations is almost three beds of primary accommodations per bed of a secondary accommodation. Finally, the ratio of beds and population is one point fifteen (1.15), that is, more than one bed corresponds to each resident. In this cluster, it is obvious that tourism activity begins to have stronger intensity and a wider extent, and thus it places more stress to the destination.

High TD (Cl5). In this cluster there are classified communities with high rates of tourism growth. More analytically, the rate of tourism growth is 145.61%, whereas the density of beds is almost 163 beds per square kilometer. Furthermore, the average of each of these two indicators is over double the average of tourism coastal tourism communities, and the ratio of primary and secondary accommodations is three point forty eight (3.48), that is, almost three and half beds of primary accommodations correspond to each bed of a secondary lodging. At the same time, the ratio of beds and population shows a correspondence of one and a half (1.5) beds to each resident. In both cases, the indicators show double averages from the respective ones of coastal tourism communities. In this cluster, stronger and more constant dynamics of tourism growth is thus observed.

Very high TD (Cl1). In this cluster a lower growth rate is observed when compared to the previous ones, but the destinations that are classified to this cluster are more mature. Tourism growth rate is 91.70%; it remains higher than the average of coastal tourism communities but lower than that of the two previous clusters. The density of beds is 222.94 beds per square kilometer, higher both than the previous clusters and the coastal zone average. The ratio of beds of primary and secondary accommodations shows a correspondence of one bed of a primary accommodation to each bed of secondary accommodation. The ratio of beds and local population shows a correspondence of one point seventy five (1.75) beds to a resident.

The preceding statistics illustrate that, while this cluster shows lower tourism growth rates, it consists of communities that have already been developed. The communities of this cluster find themselves in a more stagnant developmental situation, and the first signs of saturation are more apparent.

Fastest TD (Cl8). In this category there are classified communities that have the highest tourism growth rates. Tourism growth rate is 251.03%, and is the highest rate of all eight clusters that resulted and almost the quadruple of the average of coastal tourism communities. The density of beds is almost 236 beds per square kilometer and is the seventh bigger density among the clusters. This density shows the intense pressure that the particular communities experience from tourism growth. The ratio of primary and secondary accommodations shows roughly five beds of primary accommodations per bed of secondary accommodation. The ratio of beds and local population shows a correspondence of two beds per resident. From the above, it becomes obvious that the fastest developing new destinations of country are to be found in this cluster.

Classic destinations (Cl3). This category includes the most classic and well established to the tourism market destinations of the country. Here, tourism growth rate is higher than the average of coastal tourism communities, reaching 62.39%, but it is lower than the growth rates of previous clusters, evidencing the saturation of the tourism products in those destinations. On the contrary, the density of beds is higher and numbers 953 beds per square kilometer. At this point, it is worth being noted that in 2001 the density of population of the Prefecture of wider Thessaloniki - the second henceforth over-populated Prefecture of the country – was 652 residents per square kilometer. Consequently, the density of tourism in this category is exceptionally high.

In this cluster of classic destinations, the ratio of beds of primary and secondary accommodations is zero point seven (0.7) beds of primary accommodations per bed of secondary accommodation. This ratio shows the structure of the tourism product in these areas and the predominance of secondary accommodations over the primary ones, thus, the reduction of the quality of product. The ratio of the tourism product and permanent population shows a correspondence of almost four beds per resident and consequently, tourism is shown to prevail against the local population. Indicatively it is mentioned that this cluster includes communities such as Rhodes, Benitsa in Corfu, Kallithea in Chalkidiki, Ialysos on the island of Rhodes, Limenas of Chersonisos close to Heraklion (Creta), beach of Katerini, Pythagoreion in Samos etc. In those communities the tourism product is particularly mature, and the pressure to the environmental and socio-economic resources is the highest among all clusters.

The typology created for the tourism in the Greek coastal communities has distinguished eight categories and is more analytical, since it defines more stages of tourism developemt. The detail in the typology of tourism communities might be important to the extent that it

can help to the specialization and specification of policies required for planning and managing TD in coastal areas in a sustainable way. The classification with the use of FcM gives a representative result.

In order to achieve the optimal operation of the FcM algorithm, without "noise" coming from the data system, the communities that do not present/have tourism activity (perceived in number of beds or overnight stays), were removed from the system. Those communities represent a distinct cluster. It is noted that these communities are almost the half of the total number of coastal communities under study. The clusters that came out from the FcM algorithm consist of a different number of communities.

At this point, it is worth being mentioned the literature review that was carried out by Palmer, Sese and Montano (2005) and concerns the examination of statistical methods that had been used in tourism studies. The writers consider that the statistical research methods used can become an indicator of the degree of the scientific progress that has been achieved in the tourism science discipline. In five years (1998-2002) 1790 articles in scientific journals were reviewed.

The research illustrated that in tourism studies, simple statistical methods are very widely used, such as simple (linear) regression, factor analysis, ANOVA, t-test etc, while cluster analysis was used only four point eighty eight per cent (4.88%) and fuzzy classification methods had not been used and/or they have a very limited use. These researchers concluded that statistical methods of multivariate analysis can study more effectively a complex system such as tourism. In this case, the use of FcM combined with GIS for the creation of a typology for Greek coastal tourism communities is an innovative practice.

DISCUSSION

Tourism planning in coastal areas aims at sustainable TD by formulating, evaluating and implementing policies. More specifically, planning for the Greek coastal area has the basic particularity and interest that it will take place in an area with great sensitivity and special administrative interest (because of the intensity and extent of human activities, the sensitive and rich ecosystem etc). In these areas there is the necessity for policy specification and support by experts for the decision-making process.

Within the framework for tourism policy formulation and implementation for the case of the Greek coastal communities, the typology created, has basic advantages. It can determine the optimal

number of managerial areas/types/clusters of with the use of specific criteria; it can determine those areas with spatial accuracy; the criteria can be changed when considered essential. Furthermore it is a tool that strengthens decision-making process by organizing large volume of quantitative and qualitative data available each time and it is able to contribute to the specialization of policy per produced administrative type/cluster, according to the criteria/indicators that are used in every case. Finally, it strengthens planning and sustainable TD in the area of interest.

Classification is essentially a process that contributes to the synthesis and analysis, as well as to the organization and comprehension of large volume of information. The hierarchy of destinations is particularly useful for the recognition of operations taking place in a destination and to the tourism flow to it (Pearce, 1995). Consequently, a typology, can lead to the creation of different zones of TD that have different strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats and they need to be approached in a different way. In this way, decision-makers will have at their disposal a "standardized" large volume of information and be able to examine alternative scenarios through the system and reach conclusions and formulate policies and actions representative for every type of TD.

For the development and the use of the system for the classification of the Greek coastal area, some basic conclusions, as discussed below, have been drawn. Firstly, the typology that came out from this process is reasonable, since, for example, the classic destinations of the country are few and known, while, on the contrary, in the wider part of the coastal area the tourism product decreased or showed very low growth when studied. The result that came out is representative, since no flubs were observed (from the examination of the system). For example, the city of Rhodes is found in the cluster consisting of the classic tourism destinations of the country.

The system can manage a big data volume in real time (short time of process), and gave positive results while two and more indicators were used. The architecture of the algorithm is open and flexible, so any other combination can be made. The system was applied to four indicators, (a four-dimensional space) and, consequently, the types of tourism areas resulted are differentiated with those four indicators as described above. The same system could be applied to any other combination of indicators and in this case it is possible to give different results. The same system can work in different scales, with different indicators and volume of data. The algorithm is altered very easily so to include larger number of indicators; larger number of observations than those used (1,323) in this

analysis; and different kind of indicators. The data were imported in the FcM algorithm without being normalized prior so that the picture of the system would not be denaturized.

Its use is simple and facilitates the focus on issues of analysis and not on issues of system operation. It is better than any other classification methods because of its efficiency and effectiveness, and facilitates the thinking organization in a spatial level. Critical assumptions for the system operation are not required. The use of the FcM algorithm through ArcMap simple due to the fact that has been appended in the form of a new "button" in the toolbox, but it is susceptible to more automatisms than the executable file that has been used.

GIS are proven an exceptional tool to record the existing situation in the Greek coastal area. They are able to process large databases in real time. They can visualize the information they contain in their spatial database and illustrate issues of pressure experienced from tourism activities in the coastal area. In this way, GIS can function as a Decision Support System and contribute to tourism planning. One of their most basic disadvantages is that they require specialized personnel for their use and they are not compatible with other cartographic software packages.

From the above findings, it comes out that in the period examined the wider part of the Greek coastal tourism communities was in the cluster of declining tourism growth. The very opposite to this is the cluster of classical tourism destinations, where there is a small number of communities. All other communities are in the intermediary types of produced typology. From the study of a relative figure (Figure 1), it can be extracted that there is a particularly heterogeneous picture on the Greek coastal area with regard to its tourism product. This heterogeneity leads to the conclusion that tourism planning is necessary for the coastal area of Greece at a national level.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The typology of coastal tourism areas is a dynamic tool not only for policy making and implementation but also it is a procedure of crucial importance for tourism planning. Typologies can illustrate the particularities that are apparent in every type/cluster of TD and, at the same time, can show and visualize the heterogeneity of the tourism product in the coastal area.

Planning and policy making cannot be related to the administrative boundaries of Prefectures or even Municipalities, due to the heterogeneity from which the form and the dynamics of tourism in the coastal area

suffer. Training, implementation and evaluation of policy will be concerned with every type of TD. In this way, policy will be efficient and representative for every type of TD. Simultaneously, other characteristics of coastal areas could be added to this typology so that this typology would become a model for an integrated management of coastal areas.

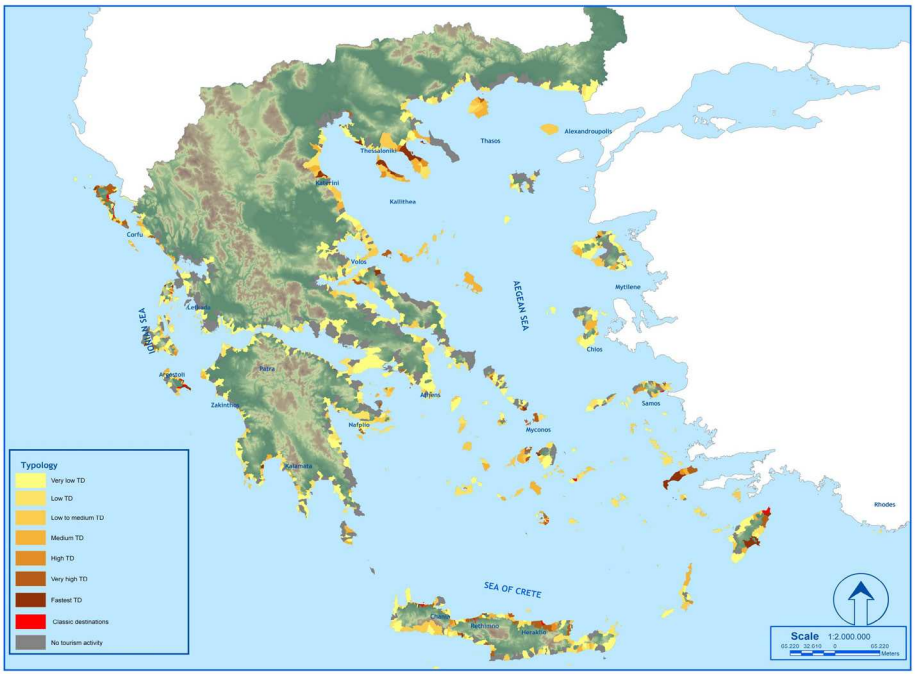
The typology that has been created is dynamic and enables its users to follow-up the system after the implementation of suitable policy per type of area (through feedback). Thus, it is possible to follow up the system and the development of the situation of tourism in the coastal area of Greece after the implementation of different policies and the behavior of communities in these coastal areas observed through the differentiation of tourism indicators.

The presence of explicitly and precisely determined information (statistical data) not only about tourism but also about the characteristics of the societies in coastal areas is basic and up to a point determines the success of the system, too. That is the reason why the existing problems with recording and the availability of relevant information about every case should be (re)solved.

In future, there may be a data collection depicting more precisely the existing situation of tourism in the coastal area and being related to second homes, occupancy rates, overnight stays of native and foreign tourists and, finally, being related to the precise recording of secondary accommodations. Currently the tool was used for coastal areas in a big scale but in future research can be tested in different scales and areas (eg. Mountainous, islands etc).

The primary objective of this research was to create a methodology and a tool for creating supply typologies. Typologies produced with the aid of this tool can better direct policy and can aid planning process by producing more targeted policies. It is a first step in in the use of GIS and Fuzzy Systems for creating typologies in a complex system like tourism. As a tool it is susceptible to further optimization and addition with different indicators, specifications, scales of application, etc. Tourism planning is only part of the wider system of the area under study. Plans and policies produced by this process should be incorporated in the strategic planning of the area in order to by effective. Planning as a process in the complex system of tourism can be aided by new and sophisticated tools like the one proposed but above all effective planning needs political will and capacity.

Figure1. Supply typology for the Greek coastal and insular area



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THE IMPACT OF THAI TOURISM ON THE ECONOMIC GROWTH OF TOURISM IN LAO PDR: A HIERARCHICAL APPROACH

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This study examines the relationship between the economic growth of tourism in Lao PDR, and the number of Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR, international trade and the exchange rate by employing a hierarchical model using quarterly data from Q1 2000 – Q1 2012. It was found that the number of Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR has both short and long run causality on the GDP of tourism. This result shows that Thai tourists are important and has a causal relationship with the economic growth of tourism in Lao PDR. This study suggests that Lao PDR should maintain Thai tourist groups and create new tourism products to encourage Thai tourists to visit Lao PDR, which would contribute to the economic development of Lao PDR.

Keywords: *Thai Tourists, Tourism, Economic Growth, Lao PDR Tourism, Hierarchical Approach*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

From the process of globalization, tourism has grown enormously. Tourism is part of a movement in the direction of increasing world economic integration through the reduction of natural and human barriers to exchange and increase international flows of capital and labour (Chang et al., 2009). Therefore, tourism has become a main sector for many countries in the world. According to the World Tourism Organization (2012) reported in the World Tourism Barometer publication in 2011, international tourist arrivals have gradually increased from 1995 to 2011 and international tourism receipts have increased to U$1.03 trillion in 2011 or about a 3.8% increase from 2010. In 2009, the world international tourist arrivals and international tourism receipts decreased because of the

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effect of financial and economic volatility (such as the financial crisis, the hamburger crisis, and money inflation from the supply side), global warming, influenza H5NI, and the unstable political situation. Based on these events, it seems that world tourism depends on the world economy and shocks

Considering international tourists data, tourism in Lao PDR has become an important sector. From table 1, tourism contributed 18.0 percent to the national Gross Domestic Product (GDP); furthermore, tourism exports and jobs shared more than 20 percent of the total exports and 15.7 percent of total employment respectively (see Table 1). Furthermore, the Committee for Planning and Investment (2006) reported that the tourism investment and promotion of Lao PDR had increased because the Lao Government had encouraged tourism as the main policy in the Lao Socio-Economic Development Plan 2006-2010. Consequently, Lao PDR has achieved sustainable economic growth and has reduced poverty based on the development plan that emphasized tourism.

Table 1. The Percentage of Tourism GDP, Tourism Exports and Total Employment in Lao PDR 2006 -2012

Year	Tourism GDP (% of National GDP)	Tourism Exports (% of total exports)	Tourism Jobs (% of total employment)
2006	12.4	12.4	10.8
2007	13.5	12.5	11.7
2008	14.5	16.0	12.6
2009	15.1	18.7	13.2
2010	18.1	19.8	15.7
2011	18.1	21.5	15.8
2012	18.0	20.4	15.7

Source: World Tourism Council (2013)

Thailand and Lao PDR share a very long border of 1,810 kilometres and they are linked geographically, economically and culturally (Nonthapot and Lean, 2013). Considering the tourism situation in Lao PDR, the Lao National Tourism Administration (2011) reported that 2.72 million tourists visited Lao PDR in 2011 and the revenue from international tourists was about 406.2 million USD. The number of Thai tourist visitors to Lao PDR increased from 0.2 million people in 1995 to 1.58 million people in 2011. This increase is highly related to tourist expansion in Lao PDR. This is an indicator that the number of Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR is strong and is an opportunity for Lao PDR's

tourism economic expansion. In terms of nations that visit Lao PDR, Thai tourism represents a major market share in Lao PDR's tourism industry and is a major revenue contributor to Lao. In 2012, World Tourism Council (2013) also stated that Thai tourists represent a major market share in Lao PDR's tourism industry with 58 percent of total tourist arrivals to Lao PDR (see Table2). Because of the development plan strategies, there may be variable effects on the confidence of Thai tourists to visit Lao PDR; moreover, there are many reasons why Thai tourists are the largest group in the tourism of Lao PDR, such as transportation modes between Thailand and Lao PDR, the similar culture of two countries (especially language), the good relationship between Thai and Laotian people, and the long relationship between the Thai and Lao governments.

Table 2. Top 5 source countries of international tourist arrivals in Lao PDR (2011)

Rank	Country	Number	Share (%)
1	Thailand	1,579,941	58
2	Vietnam	561,586	21
3	China	150.791	6
4	USA	50,092	2
5	France	44,399	2

Source: Lao National Administration (2012)

LIERATURE REVIEW

In many tourism development and economic growth studies, the main objective was to investigate the casual relationship between tourism and growth. The tourism development and economic growth studies have established the impact of tourism on long-run economic growth by using Engle and Granger causality tests based on Error Correction Models; and also, international tourism receipts and economic growth have been found to support both tourism and economic growth. For example, Oh (2005) studied the contribution of tourism development on economic growth in the Korean economy by using the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) technique for unit root, the Johanson and Juselius (JJ) technique for co-integration and the Granger causality test for causality relations between tourism earnings and economic growth. Lee and Chang (2008) re-investigated long run co-movements and the casual relationship between tourism development and the economic growth of OECD and non OECD countries including Asia, Latin America and Sub-Sahara Africa for the

1990 – 2002 period. The results determined that tourism development has a greater impact on GDP in non OECD countries. Moreover, the real effective exchange rate has significant effects on economic growth and in the long run, the study suggests a unidirectional causal relationship between tourism development and economic growth in OECD countries, bidirectional relationships in non – OECD countries but only week relationships in Asia.

Kadir and Jusoff (2010) employed co-integration and causality tests to test the relationship between tourism and trade in Malaysia. The result of the unit root tests indicated that all the variables are stationary in first – difference, but all models are not co-integrated in the long run. However, the causality test show a one-way casual effect running from imports to international tourist receipts at a 5% significance level, and total trade to international tourism receipts at a 10% significance level. Therefore, an increase in total trade, exports and imports will lead to growth in the tourism sector, which means that most tourist arrivals are related to the business sector. In contrast, Chancharat and Chancharat (2010) investigated the co-movements and casual relationships among real GDP, tourism development and the real exchange rate in a multivariate model. The results are no co-integration between tourism development and economic growth and shows that this issue still deserves further attention from researchers for comparative purposes for Thailand. In addition, Brida et al., (2010) presented causality testing between tourism growth, relative prices and economic expansion for the Trentino-Alto Adige (a region of northeast Italy bordering Switzerland and Austria). The results showed unidirectional causality running from international tourism expenditure to the Trentino-Alto Adige economy. It means that tourism expenditure has a fast positive effect on growth in Trentino-Alto Adige.

Most previous empirical studies focused on the relationships between tourism and economic development which depend on country selection or regional analysis based on a bi-variated co-integrated model. However, this study not only used a multi-variated co-integrated model, but also added a hierarchical model to show the relationship between tourism and economic development, which has never been studied in developing countries before. Consequently, the hierarchical model is used in this research paper.

METHODOLOGY

Data Sources

This paper focuses on quarterly data from Q1 2000 – Q1 2012. Details of data sources are shown in Table 3. Moreover, a dummy variable which is Asian Development assistant policy, is incorporated in the model.

Table 3. Data sources

Variable	Data sources
Tourism GDP	World Tourism Council
Thai tourist arrivals	Lao National Tourism Administration
Exchange rate	Bank of Thailand
International Trade	World Bank

The model

The impact of Thai tourists on tourism growth in Lao PDR is determined from tourism and growth economic models; the models were linked by hierarchical functions which are used to estimate tourism growth in this study. The hierarchical model, which generically consists of 2 equations, can be written in a mathematically arbitrary form showing the economic growth of tourism in Lao PDR as follows:

$$\ln Y_i = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \ln T_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

$$\ln Y_i = \beta_0 + \alpha_2 \ln T_i + \beta_1 \ln XM_i + \beta_2 \ln ER + \mu_i \quad (2)$$

Where Y is defined as Lao PDR's tourism Gross Domestic Product (tourism GDP), T_i is Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR. XM and ER are defined as economic volume of international trade and the exchange rate between Lao PDR and Thailand respectively. Moreover, ε_i and u_i are error term disturbances.

Estimation Methods

The estimation process was separated into three stages as follows: the unit root test in the first stage, a hierarchical regression, a cointegration test in the second stage, and finally a causality test After setting the equations by using a hierarchical model to explore the fundamental estimation problems, we tested the unit root with structural break unit root variables using Saikkonen and Lütkepohl (2002), and Lanne et al (2002). The variables in equations 1 and 2 are as follows:

$$y = \mu_0 + \mu_{1t} + f_t^{'}(\theta)\gamma + x_t \qquad (3)$$

Where $f_t^{'}(\theta)\gamma$ is defined as a shift function, θ and γ are unknown parameters or parameter vectors; the error x_t are generated by AR(p) process with possible unit root. We use a simple shift dummy variable with shift date

$$T_B \cdot f_t' = d_{1t} := \begin{cases} o, t < T_B \\ 1, \geq T_B \end{cases} \qquad (4)$$

The function does not involve any parameter θ. *I*n the shift term $f_t^{'}\gamma$, the parameter γ is scalar. Differencing this shift function leads to an impulse dummy. Moreover, the second shift function is presented which is based on the exponential distribution function. It allows for nonlinear gradual shift to a new level starting at time T_B.

$$f''(\theta) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < T_B \\ 1, -\exp\{-\theta(t - T_B + 1)\}, & t \geq T_B \end{cases} \qquad (5)$$

In the shift term $f_t^{''}(\theta)\gamma$, both parameter θ and γ are scalar, from equation five; the first one is confirmed to the positive real line $(\theta > 0)$ and the second one may assume any value. Furthermore, the dates of structural breaks have been determined by following Lanne et al. (2001) who recommended choosing a reasonably large Autoregressive (AR) order in the first step. Then, picking the break date that minimizes the GLS objective function is used to estimate the parameters of the deterministic part. Hence, after testing the unit root test of all variables, they have to be integrated in the same order.

In the second stage, the hierarchical model of tourism economic growth in Lao PDR that is expressed in equation 1 and 2 are estimated by employing the Stepwise regression analysis method. Thereafter, the estimate result has to be examined by using the cointegration test of Saikkonen and Lütkepohl (2000 a, b, c). Thus, equations 1 and 2 are tested by employing a co-integration test which is based on the general model as follows:

$$y_t = D_t + x_t \tag{6}$$

Where y_t is a K – dimensional vector of observation variables, D_t is a deterministic term, and x_t is a VAR (ρ) process with the Vector Error Correction Model (VECM) representation

$$\Delta x_t = \prod x_{t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \Gamma j \Delta x_{t-j} + u_t \tag{7}$$

Here u_t is a vector white noise process with $u_t \sim (0, \Sigma)$. The rank of $\prod$ is the cointegrating rank of x_t and hence of y_t. Moreover, Saikkonen and Lutkepoh (2000 a,b,c) method is applied to tests the pair of hypotheses as follows:

$$H_0(r_0): rk(\Pi) = r_0 \tag{8}$$

$$H_1(r_1): rk(\Pi) > r_0; r_o = o,..., K-1 \tag{9}$$

When the VAR order ρ has to be specific and the model selection criteria are offered to help in the decision on the VAR order both equations (Eq. 8-9) proceed by estimating the deterministic term D_t first, subtracting it from the observations and applying a Johansen type test to the adjusted series. In other words, the test is based on a reduced rank regression of the system

$$\Delta \tilde{x}_t = \prod \tilde{x}_{t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \Gamma j \Delta \tilde{x}_{t-j} + \tilde{u}_t \tag{10}$$

Where $\tilde{x}_t = y_t - \tilde{D}_t$ and $\tilde{D}_t$ is the estimate deterministic term, the procedure for the estimation the parameters deterministic term is proposed by Saikkonen and Lutkepoh (SL) The critical values depend on the kind of deterministic term included. Nevertheless, a constant, a linear and trend orthogonal to the counteraction relations and seasonal dummy variables are possible options because of the possible options of the SL

procedure as in Johansen. There is a constant, a linear trend term, or a linear trend orthogonal to the cointegration relations. In this methodology, the critical values depend on the kind of the above-mentioned deterministic trend that is included in the model. More interestingly, in SL, the critical values remain valid of a shift dummy variable included in the model, while in the Johansen test; the critical values are available only if there is no shift dummy variable in the model. In addition, the SL approach can be adopted with any number of (linearly independent) dummies in the model. It is also possible to exclude the trend term from the model. In the following section, we have applied SL tests for the co-integration rank of a system in the presence of structural breaks. However, the limitation of this co-integration test is that trend breaks are ignored.

In addition, when we get results from the cointegration test, the hierarchical model of tourism economic growth in Lao PDR is expressed in equation 1 and 2. Both equations are tested by employing the Granger causality test. This study follows the concept of Granger causality, '*X* causes *Y*' if and only if the past values of *X* help to predict the changes of *Y*. While, '*Y* causes *X*' if and only if the past values of *Y* help to predict the changes of *X*. Granger (1988) stated that a set of variables are co-integrated, meaning that they contained short-run and long-run Granger causality information. Thus, if tourism Gross Domestic Product of Lao PDR, Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR, international trade and the exchange rate between Lao PDR and Thailand are co-integrated, we implement the Granger causality test with the VECM framework as follows:

For equation 1 can express to Granger causality to equations 11 and 12

$$\Delta \ln Y_t = \alpha_1 + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \beta_i \Delta \ln Y_{t-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \lambda_i \Delta \ln TT_{t-k} + \theta_i EC_{t-1} + \mu_{1t} \quad (11)$$

$$\Delta \ln TT_t = \alpha_2 + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \lambda_i \Delta \ln TT_{t-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \beta_i \Delta \ln Y_{t-k} + \theta_i EC_{t-1} + \mu_{2t} \quad (12)$$

Moreover, equation 2 can express Granger causality for equations 13 to 15

$$\Delta \ln Y_t = \alpha_3 + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \beta_i \Delta \ln Y_{t-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \lambda_i \Delta \ln TT_{t-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \kappa_i \Delta \ln XM_{t-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \eta_i \Delta \ln ER_{t-k} + \theta_i EC_{t-1} + \mu_{3t} \quad (13)$$

$$\Delta \ln XM_t = \alpha_4 + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \beta_i \Delta \ln XM_{t-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \lambda_i \Delta \ln TT_{t-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \chi_i \Delta \ln Y_{t-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \lambda_i \Delta \ln ER_{t-k} + \theta_i EC_{t-1} + \mu_{4t} \quad (14)$$

$$\Delta \ln ER_t = \alpha 5 + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \beta_i \Delta \ln ER_{t-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \lambda_i \Delta \ln TT_{t-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \beta_i \Delta \ln XM_{t-k} + \sum_{k=1}^{q} \vartheta_i \Delta \ln Y_{t-k} + \theta_i EC_{t-1} + \mu_{5t} \quad (15)$$

When Δ is the first difference operator, ln is the natural logarithm, the residuals $\mu_{1t} \ldots \mu_{5t}$ are assumed to be normally distributed and white noise. EC_{t-1} is the one period lagged error correction term derived from the hierarchical model regression analysis. The EC_{t-1} variable will be excluded from that model if the variables are not co-integrated. The optimal lag length *p* is determined by the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) with a maximum lag of four because it has a superior performance in a small sample (Lütkepohl, 2005). The chi-square statistics are then applied to ascertain the direction of Granger causality between the variables of interest. In this study, we test the following hypotheses:

1. $H_{01} : \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \ldots = \lambda_q = 0$, implying that $\ln TT$ does not Granger-cause $\ln Y$
2. $H_{02} : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \ldots = \beta_q = 0$, implying that $\ln Y$ does not Granger-cause $\ln TT$
3. $H_{03} : \kappa_1 = \kappa_2 = \ldots = \kappa_q = 0$, implying that $\ln XM$ does not Granger-cause $\ln Y$

4. $H_{04}: \eta_1 = \eta_2 = ... = \eta_q = 0$, implying that $\ln ER$ does not Granger-cause $\ln Y$
5. $H_{05}: \chi_1 = \chi_2 = ... = \chi_q = 0$, implying that $\ln Y$ does not Granger-cause $\ln XM$
6. $H_{06}: \vartheta_1 = \vartheta_2 = ... = \vartheta_q = 0$, implying that $\ln Y$ does not Granger-cause $\ln ER$

RESULTS

The Table 4 shows evidence that all variables, using an impulse dummy model and a shift dummy model, are non-stationary at a 5 percentage level of significance in their level form. Furthermore, all series are transformed into first difference form and unit root analysis has been conducted for the transformed series. The results show that all variables are stationary. This implies that all variables are stationary at first difference or I(1); therefore, we can proceed for cointegration analysis.

Table4. SL Unit root test

Variables	Lag	Models			
		Impulse dummy		Shift dummy	
Brake date		2001 Q2	2011 Q3	2001 Q2	2011 Q3
$\ln Y$	2	0.2280	0.2119	0.1338	-0.0879
$\ln TT$	1	-0.9885	-0.9845	-1.0350	-0.7372
$\ln XM$	1	-0.1682	-0.1512	-0.3240	-0.2734
$\ln ER$	2	-1.9442	-1.9044	-1.9326	-1.9059

Note: 1. The critical values -3.55 and -3.03 are obtained from Lanne et al. (2002) at 1%, 5% respectively 2. The lag length is computed by Schwarts Information Criterion (SIC) with a maximum of four
Source: JMulti's calculation

In the secondary stage, before the cointegration test, a hierarchical model of the economic growth in tourism in Lao PDR (equation1 and 2) was estimated by employing a step wise regression analysis method. The result found that Thai tourist arrivals to Lao PDR are positively related to

the tourism GDP of Lao PDR at a 1% level (equation 1). In addition, Thai tourist arrivals to Lao PDR and the volume of international trade are positive related to the tourism GDP of Lao PDR at a 1% level (equation 2). Moreover, the result from the regression analysis shows that the exchange rate between Lao PDR and Thailand is eliminated from equation 2 (see Table 5).

Table5. Estimation Results of the Hierarchical model using Regression Analysis

Equation	Dependent: lnY / In dependent variables	Coefficients	t-statistics	$\overline{R}^2$
1	Constant	-0.418	-1.057	
	lnTT	0.577	17.760***	0.888
2	Constant	1.128	2.500***	
	lnTT	0.259	3.705***	0.911
	lnXM	0.354	4.921***	

Note: t- statistics is in the parentheses. The asterisk * denotes significance at 1 percent level

From the hierarchical model estimation, two equations are examined by employing a cointegration test, which is presented in Table 6. It was found that both equations are co-integrated with one cointegrating vector. It means that equation 1 and 2 can explain that the long run estimation result in each equation has 1 dependent variable. Therefore, the results of the hierarchical model estimation have to be tested with a cointegration test. The co-integration test results are presented in Table 6.

Table6. Saikkonen and Lütkepohl (2000a,b,c) Cointegration test results

Equation	Trace test	Constant		Constant and trend		Orthogonal trend	
		LR	P-value	LR	P-value	LR	P-value
1. (ln$Y$, lnTT)	0	8.70	0.1896	12.62	0.1539	13.13	0.0118
	1	0.31	0.6379	0.98	0.7974	-	-

2.	0	25.24	0.0359	26.42	0.0911	18.38	0.1087
(ln*Y*,	1	3.98	0.7130	6.55	0.7147	5.07	0.3282
ln*TT*,	2	0.20	0.7119	0.37	0.9492	-	-
ln*EX*)							

Source: JMulti's calculation

In the third stage of the causality test, both equations are directly tested by employing the Granger causality test for equations 11 – 14 which means testing 4 hypotheses from H_{o1} - H_{o3} *and* H_{o5} (equation 15, H_{o4} *and* H_{o6} have not been tested because the exchange rate between Lao PDR and Thailand factor has been eliminated from the regression process). In most studies, the existence of co-integrating variables suggests that there must be Granger causality in at least one direction. This research not only focuses on two directions in the short-run (see table 7 and table 8) but also considers the long-run Granger causality based the Vector Error-Correction Model.

The results in the short-run are tested by χ^2 -statistics and in the long-run are tested by t-test. From Table 7, we find that the number of Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR is related to Lao PDR's tourism GDP in the short run and the long run, and the tourism GDP of Lao PDR deviates from the equilibrium and returns to the long-run equilibrium by an approximate 6.21% level of significance. Moreover, from Table 8, Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR and international trade have long run causality on the tourism GDP of Lao PDR, and they deviate from the equilibrium and return to the long-run equilibrium at about a 5.82% level of significance; however, Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR is related to the tourism GDP of Lao PDR only in the short-run.

Table7. The results of Granger causality test (equation 1)

Dependent variable	Lag	Type of causality		
		Short run		Long -run
		χ^2 statistics (p-values)		t - statistics
		$\sum \Delta \ln Y_{t-1}$	$\sum \Delta \ln TT_{t-1}$	EC_{t-1}
$\sum \Delta \ln Y_{t-1}$	1	-	6.1208*** (0.0134)	-0.0621 (-2.3705)***

$\sum \Delta \ln TT_{t-1}$	1	3.2411 (0.0718)	-	0.4625[a] (2.5519)**

Note: a, cannot be accepted because the error correction factor is a positive value
The asterisk *** and ** denotes the significance at 1% and 5% level respectively.

Table8. The results of Granger causality test (equation 2)

Dependent variable	Lag	Type of causality			
		Short run			Long -run
		χ^2 statistics (p-values)			t - statistics
		$\sum \Delta \ln Y_{t-1}$	$\sum \Delta \ln TT_{t-1}$	$\sum \Delta \ln XM_{t-1}$	EC_{t-1}
$\sum \Delta \ln Y_{t-1}$	1	-	5.7038** (0.0161)	0.4784 (0.4891)	-0.0582*** (-1.7981)
$\sum \Delta \ln XM_{t-1}$	1	0.1294 (0.7191)	1.078 (0.2991)	-	

Note: The asterisk *** and ** denotes the significance at 1% and 5% level respectively.

CONCLUSIONS

The objective of the study is to examine the relationships between the economic growth of tourism in Lao PDR, number of Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR, international trade and the exchange rate by using a hierarchical model. Quarterly data were provided to test for unit roots; a stepwise method for the hierarchical model; a co-integration test and Granger causality. We conclude that there is new tourism economic growth in Lao PDR because the bivariate regression test shows the number of Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR affects the economic growth of tourism in Lao PDR in both the short run and the long run. Moreover, this study created a multivariate regression model, and the results show that Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR and international trade have long run causality with tourism GDP; corresponding with this, Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR also affects the tourism GDP of Lao PDR. The findings of this paper have provided new evidence in Lao PDR because the number of Thai tourists visiting Lao PDR is a strong factor and it is a cause of economic growth in tourism in Lao PDR. Therefore, Thai

tourists are important to encourage economic development in Lao PDR, which represents 10% of GDP. We suggest that Lao PDR should encourage Thai tourists and create new tourism products in Lao PDR to persuade Thai tourists to visit Lao PDR many times to contribute to the economic development of Lao PDR.

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AN INVESTIGATION ON CULTURAL CUISINE OF MAINLAND CHINA. MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS FOR RESTAURANT OPERATORS

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Historical records show that food has always played an important role in the cultural evolution of mankind. Eating culture, rituals, and food preferences based on environmental and social conditions emerged steadily over time. Italian food culture based on traditional Italian cooking has evolved into one of the worlds most prevalent. Since China opened the doors to international trade, Chinese consumers have been exposed to both Italian cuisine and Italian food and beverage products. In this scenario, the aim of this study is to investigate factors contributing to the popularity of Italian cuisine in mainland China and identify implications for restaurant operators. Specifically the study identifies those factors that may or may not contribute to the expansion and sustainability of Italian cuisine in mainland China. This study will help understand how the Chinese perceive foreign cuisines such as Italian and, in turn, attempts to identify the determinants that make this cuisine popular now with potential for growth in the future.

Keywords: *Cultural factors, eating culture, consumer behavior, restaurant operators, managerial implications.*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

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INTRODUCTION

Historical records show that food has always played an important role in the cultural evolution of mankind (Camillo et al., 2005). Eating culture, rituals, and food preferences based on environmental and social conditions emerged steadily over time (Camillo et al., 2005). Societies, in turn, adopted specific food preferences according to taste, environment, and local economy. Foods and drinks have become culturally symbolic and eating habits have evolved to reflect people's own tastes and preferences (Camillo et al., 2008).

Italian food culture based on traditional Italian cooking has evolved into one of the world's most prevalent. Italian cuisine, with its adaptability in preparation, has become the most popular cuisine in the world. Despite rapid changes in international trade and profound lifestyle changes, Italy remains unsurpassed in its culinary traditions and accomplishments.

Since China opened the doors to international trade, Chinese consumers have been exposed to both Italian cuisine and Italian food and beverage products. With the onset of mercantilism, restaurants have gained popularity across Asia. Although the concept of globalization was non-existent centuries ago, many indigenous foods and cooking styles, such as Italian were exported from one country to another by merchants (Gernet, 1962; Wang, 1982; West, 1997).

Clearly such historical trends have significantly affected people's eating habits. Since the late 1980s a large number of Italian restaurants have opened across mainland China. Italian food and beverage exports to China tripled in just a few years. From 2008 to 2009 alone exports in this sector increased by 18.26% (ISTAT, 2008). This is despite total exports declining by -5% due to the recent global economic downturn (ICE-Istituto del Commercio Estero, 2010).

This paper analyzes the popularity of Italian cuisine in mainland China and proposes useful recommendations for hospitality operators and future restaurateurs regarding ethnic cuisine trends and the evolution of Italian cuisine in mainland China.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The evolution of Italian cuisine

Italian cuisine, as it is known today, is the result of the culinary evolution born of centuries of cultural, social and political changes. Significant change occurred with the discovery of the New World which helped shape much of what is known as Italian cuisine today with the introduction of items such as potatoes, tomatoes, bell pepper and maize; all central parts of Italian cuisine which were not introduced in scale until the 18th century (Del Conte, 2004). From England and to South America, to Australia and anywhere where Italians emigrated, Italian cuisine eventually became an integral part of the host nations' diet.

In the late 1970s and early 1980s, Italian restaurants emerged throughout Europe, the United States, South America and Oceania. Large numbers of Italians had immigrated to these regions following the economic downturn World War II had left behind in Italy. As U.S. hotel chains expanded around the world, operators benchmarked their success on Italian restaurants and began to integrate Italian style restaurants into their own operations. Chefs from around the world also began to capitalize on the success of Italian cuisine by using local ingredients to promote dishes that did not even exist in Italy. One of the most revolutionary new dishes, "Pasta Primavera," designed for vegetarians, was created at the Italian restaurant Le Cirque in New York; it had no red sauce topping and no meat balls (Maccioni, 2002).

The very first Italian restaurant operated outside Italy was Fior D' Italia, which opened on May 1, 1886 in San Francisco and reopened on the same site after a fire in 2007. This was followed by Tortorici's in 1900 in New Orleans. The first U.S. pizzeria in 1905 New York, Barbetta's restaurant was opened in 1906 in New York City and Frank Grisanti restaurant in Memphis in 1908.

The last three decades has seen tremendous changes in food culture, and Italian cuisine has been at centre stage. This has prompted many entrepreneurs around the world to pursue a career in culinary arts and to venture into operating "Italian style" restaurants. Credit must be given to the Americans who have created large restaurant chains such as Pizza Hut and Olive Garden that have been the pioneers in propagating the popularity of Italian cuisine around the world.

At what point in time Italian cuisine was introduced to mainland China is not known. However until the late eighties western style

restaurants in general were featured mainly in expensive international hotels. Therefore, Italian cuisine in China may have debuted with the establishment of the first international hotels probably in the largest commercial cities. Barolo Ristorante at the Ritz-Carlton Hotel and Prego Ristorante at the Westin Hotel in Beijing are two such examples (The Ritz – Carlton, 2009; The Westin Beijing, 2009).

An exact date as to when the first Italian restaurant may have opened in China could also not be established however, an analysis of food-related literature revealed that some of the first free-standing Italian restaurants in mainland China were: Da Marco Ristorante and Pasta Fresca Ristorante both opened in Shanghai in 1990 and 1993 respectively (Da Marco, 2009; Pasta Fresca Da Salvatore, 2009). A number of Italian restaurants opened in locations where Italian ex - patriots would gather which in turn attracted Chinese patrons as well.

In the late 1990s when dining out became increasingly popular, many Chinese began to try novelty cuisines and Italian cuisine became increasingly popular among consumers. During the same period Italian-American restaurants like Pizza Hut also debuted in China. This fast evolution encouraged Asian entrepreneurs to benchmark American restaurant success strategies and to begin to open their own Italian-style restaurants across mainland China. One such originator was a Burger King distributor in Taiwan who opened Gino's Pasta-Cappuccino in Beijing specializing in Italian-style cuisine, premium coffee drinks, and desserts (Capatti and Montanari, 2003; Gino’s Pasta, 2009).

The popularity of Italian cuisine in china

Published literature suggests that Italian cuisine has a strong relationship with China’s food resources since many spices used in Italian cooking culture were imported to Italy by Marco Polo (Burgan, 2002; Otfinoski, 2003; Yule and Cordier, 1923). However, one cannot infer that this is a contributing factor to the popularity of Italian cuisine in mainland China. Italian cuisine is now becoming more popular in China through marketing sponsored by the Italian Government and organized exporters. E.g.: in an effort to structurally promote Italian cuisine and food products in China, the China-Italy Chamber of Commerce (CICC) was established. The “iFood” initiative is a project of the CICC that informs about current trends in Italian culinary arts in China through interviews, market research, and in-depth analysis. IFood is published quarterly in both the Chinese and Italian languages and is distributed electronically to

interested parties. In addition, it is available to all internets for free download (CICC, 2009).

Media promotional activities and articles in trade magazines reveal that over the past decade Italian food has become increasingly popular in China and Italian style restaurants operate in most hotels across China. Also, Italian food ingredients are now available in most major shopping centres in mainland China (Phau and Leng, 2008).

The 13th International Exhibition for the Food, Drink, Hospitality, Foodservice, Bakery and Retail Industries took place in Shanghai from 18-20 November 2009 at the Shanghai New International Expo Centre. Organizers scheduled special events that further support the increased popularity of Italian gastronomic representation (FHC China, 2009). Similarly special events were organized during the 20th Shanghai International Hospitality Equipment and Supply Expo which took place from March 29 to April 1st, 2011 (Hotelexpo, 2011). These annually re-occurring events include: The International Culinary Arts Competition, The China Pizza Championship, The Barista Competition, Olive Oil China, and The Great Italian Chefs of Shanghai Gala Lunches. On average, over ninety Italian food and beverage exporters participate in the events and conduct special seminars on pasta, olive oil, cheese, espresso coffee, wine and other beverages, and desserts.

As the popularity of Italian cuisine increases and new restaurant venture opportunities present themselves, China has now become home to many chefs who own or manage some of the best restaurants in the world. This trend, among others, has been a precursor to demand for experienced chefs, and contributed to the opening of hundreds of culinary schools worldwide. Many culinary schools now integrate Italian cuisine classes into their curriculum (Culinary Institute of America, 2009). These series of evolutionary events, with the support of mass media campaigns, television cooking shows, and social media networks has strengthened the popularity of Italian cuisine.

New trends, such as the "Slow Food" movement which aims mainly at preserving Italian food culture, further support the popularity of Italian cuisine in China (Petrini and Padovani, 2005; Petrini, 2011). Slow Food is a non-profit, eco-gastronomic member-supported organization that was founded in 1989 to counteract fast food and fast life, the disappearance of local food traditions and people's dwindling interest in the food they eat where it comes from, how it tastes and how food choices affect the rest of the world. Its scope is to bring together pleasure, environmental sustainability and responsibility and make them inseparable in the

public's mind. The Slow Food movement has over 100,000 members in 132 countries including Japan, South Korea and China (Slowfood, 2011).

Factors of the popularity of Italian cuisine in China

A large number of factors, both intrinsic and extrinsic, may determine the popularity of Italian cuisine in mainland China (Camillo et al., 2005; Camillo et al., 2008). There is scope for further growth in China, as there is still a Chinese market yet to experience Italian cuisine. There is replete literature published explaining customer behavior and attributes impacting cuisine and restaurant choice (Kolpan et al., 2001).

According to The Consumer Psychology in Behavioural Perspective, the most widely-accepted and influential models of consumer behavior derive in large part from cognitive psychology. As a result, consumer choice is usually understood as a problem-solving and decision-making sequence of activities, the outcome of which is determined principally by the buyer's intellectual functioning and processing of information (Foxall, 1990; Huliyeti et al., 2008). Consumer's choice becomes more critical in emerging markets which are usually inundated with novelty products such as ethnic cuisines. Studies on consumer attitude toward specific foods in emerging markets show that traditional consumption patterns can be altered by the availability of new choices (Veeck and Burns, 2005). In terms of selecting a restaurant by cuisine the consumer is faced with several decisions based on the knowledge acquired about the particular restaurant such as category, cuisines, service, price, and atmosphere.

Studies about Italian cuisine conducted outside China suggest that it is the taste of the ingredients put together and simplicity in which the dishes are prepared, while others argue that the overall cuisine is incomparable to any other.

Besides these extrinsic factors many intrinsic factors will affect the consumers' choice in selecting a restaurant. As economic prosperity gives rise to greater purchasing power for a great number of Chinese citizens, along with an increasing number of women working full-time, the propensity to eat meals outside homes becomes greater. If the extrinsic factors mediate the effect Italian cuisine has on the consumer in China, Italian cuisine will eventually mature. It will no longer be an exotic novelty, but simply another choice of cuisine.

PURPOSE OF STUDY

The aim of this study is to investigate factors contributing to the popularity of Italian cuisine in mainland China and identify implications for restaurant operators. Specifically the authors wanted to identify those factors that may or may not contribute to the expansion and sustainability of Italian cuisine in mainland China.

With the evolution of globalization original ingredients can easily be exported from Italy thus preserving the authenticity of Italian restaurants based in overseas markets. It is important to note that all authentic Italian dishes vary by region; however, there are many significant regional dishes that have become both national dishes as well. Different variations for once regionally specific dishes have proliferated across Italy. The traditional meal accompaniments of cheese and wine are also play different roles both regionally and nationally with their many variations and Denominazione di origine controllata (DOC) (regulated appellation) laws.

Table 1. Factors that will influence Italian cuisine in the future, ranked in order of importance

Factors
1. Taste
2. Simplicity
3. Variety of Italian cuisine, North South
4. Italian style quality ingredients are readily available
5. Italian cuisine is not viewed as exotic, it is no longer a novelty
6. Classic Italian cuisine
7. Expectation of young diners on price, service, quality, convenience
8. Fusion into other cuisines
9. Specialized local food cuisines (e.g. Neapolitan, Piedmontes, Sicilian)
10. Italian "regional" cuisine concept development, e.g. North, Central, Southern

Camillo et al., (2006)

Several researchers maintain that the knowledge of a product's country of origin has a direct influence on product perception (Chambers et al., 2007; Guerrero et al., 2009; Pieniak et al., 2009). Accordingly, many studies show that consumers' perception of the country of origin

influences their perception of quality, their attitude and their subsequent purchasing intention (Aiello et al., 2008; Teas and Agarwal, 2000).

Because of the perish ability of specific market fresh products such as fish, seafood and meats, local Chinese ingredients may substitute those used by local chefs in Italy. This exploratory study analyzes if the phenomenon which makes this cuisine appealing to almost anyone can be generalized to include Chinese consumers, regardless of demographic characteristics such as age, ethnicity, education, and gender.

Table 1 below shows the results of a previous study conducted in the U.S. which revealed that the top three factors contributing to Italian cuisine popularity are: taste, simplicity, and variety (Camillo at al., 2008).

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Research pertaining to the popularity of certain cuisines is becoming of wide-ranging academic interest. In eating, humans integrate natural products into culture through cooking practices and eating habits (Meigs, 1997).

The scope of this research is to understand how Italian cuisine is becoming popular in China and if it can sustain its popularity. Changes and shifts in eating habits are spearheaded by new modes of communication, improvements in infrastructure, and new technologies in food production and preparation and distribution channels. Because of globalization many ethnic foods are now available in almost any country and during any season. These evolutionary changes have enabled people to become more educated in developing food consumption preferences according to their cultural identities and social networks (Harris and Ross, 1987).

This study will help understand how the Chinese perceive foreign cuisines such as Italian and, in turn, attempts to identify the determinants that make this cuisine popular now with potential for growth in the future. This research is, therefore, intended to assist future entrepreneurs and current hospitality operators in their marketing and investing in mainland China.

METHODOLOGY

The basic research design for conducting the analysis was primarily an online survey distributed to Chinese consumers. Owing to the exploratory character of the study and certain resource constraints, a non-

probability, convenience sampling method to draw samples was adopted. The following section addresses the methodology used in the data analysis. This study applied qualitative and quantitative methods using an online survey with a self-administered, electronic questionnaire and face-to-face interviews conducted on location during the month of June, 2012.

SAMPLE

For the online survey a convenience sample included subjects selected on the basis of specific characteristics or qualities (Wimmer and Dominick, 2003). Specifically, the sample includes the people who live in mainland China who have internet access and are members of interest groups under the category of "news, entertainment, lifestyle, cuisine, and sport" in http://www.qq.cn - http://im.qq.com , www.Yahoo.cn and www.Google.cn search engines. This convenience sample is chosen with the understanding that it might represent a specific portion of the population. The sample size is 5,000 and it is made – up of individual group sizes of between 10 and 1,000 members with public access and free membership (see appendix A). The sample for the face-to-face interviews was chosen randomly on location in the cities of Beijing, Guangzhou, and Shenzhen.

INSTRUMENTS

The questionnaire used in the online survey was designed to collect information on demographic variables (e.g.: age, education) and consumers' preference of Italian foods and attitude toward Italian cuisine.

About 324 responses were received from the online survey. About 184, or 56.8%, of the respondents were male and 140, or 43.2%, were female. About 42.9% had a high school degree, 49.7% had an undergraduate degree, and 7.4% had a master's degree. Their age ranged from <25 to 65, (see table 2). The Postal Codes provided by respondents indicated that participants' responses came from about 30 different cities.

There were 22 questions in the questionnaire, including yes or no, scaled, multiple choices, closed-ended and open-ended questions. To distribute the web-based questionnaire an online survey website in Chinese languages was set up. The link to the survey was emailed to the recipients in the sample. To administer the online survey the researcher sent an electronic invitation letter to potential participants one week before the survey was launched. The survey was conducted over a 30 day

period during the month of June of 2012. The data was collected through a survey website based in the UK.

Table 2. Respondents' demographics

Age Range	Frequency	Percent
<25	72	22.2
26-35	126	38.9
36-45	90	27.8
46-55	24	7.4
56-65	12	3.7
Total	**324**	**100.0**
Gender		
Male	184	56.8
Female	140	43.2
Total	**324**	**100.0**
Education		
High school	139	42.9
BA or BS	161	49.7
Masters degree	24	7.4
Others	0	0
Total	**324**	**100.0**

The questionnaire for the face-to-face interviews included questions such as: do you like Italian cuisine and why? What is your opinion about Italian cuisine in respect to authenticity? What dishes do you like most, and what dishes do you dislike? Will you continue to eat Italian cuisine in the future?

SURVEY

The estimated target population for the online survey was 5.000. Due to the vast population and a high number of internet users, we expected a high response rate. However, possible constraint factors were considered. We chose not to provide incentives to encourage participation. We considered that if the response rate were to be high it would have been greatly beneficial to the study, however, if the response rate were to be too low we would follow Armstrong and Overton's (1997)

recommendation to test non-response bias by comparing the socio-demographic characteristics of the first 10% of early respondents and the last 10% of late respondents (Reynolds, 2007).

DATA ANALYSIS

Literature review was analyzed by applying content analysis techniques such as coding, frequencies, trends, and patterns analysis. Coding was used to identify meaning and significance in relationship to the study.

Quantitative data obtained from the online survey was statistically analyzed using SPSS 17.5 software to determine how the underlying demographic characteristics affect the consumption behaviours and attitudes toward Italian cuisine.

Qualitative data collected from face-to-face interviews was summarized and synthesized to identify and extrapolate the significant factors that have influence on the Chinese consumer.

RESULTS

A Cronbach's alpha reliability test was performed to assess if the survey results yielded the same measure results on repeated trials. Table 3 below shows that the items measured Cronbach's alphas of .731 which were above recommended .70 thresholds. Overall, the measures are internally consistent.

Table 4 below shows the ranking of the factors that influence the popularity of Italian cuisine presented in order of importance, measured on a scale of 1 to 5; 1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree. The results show that taste, health related benefits, and accessibility are the top contributing factors to the popularity of Italian cuisine. Factor number 10 is related to the price level of Italian dishes and ranks last as Italian cuisine in mainland China is expensive.

Table 5 presents the summarized results from the literature review and qualitative survey data, in order to understand key differences

Published literature does not provide an exact timeline about how, where, and when the Italian cuisine may have arrived in mainland China and how different factors promote the popularity Italian foods in China today. However, the Italian Government and organized exporters as well as the Chinese–Italian Chamber of Commerce play an important role in the propagation and dissemination of Italian culinary knowledge today.

Table 3. Cronbach's test of reliability

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Multi item scale			.731
Italian cuisine popularity factors			
1. "taste"	3.9259	.69099	.715
2. "simplicity"	2.9074	.70210	.738
3. "freshness of products used"	3.5926	.65417	.737
4. "portion size"	3.2778	.82717	.732
5. "speed of service"	3.6296	.91013	.706
6. "health related benefits"	3.3704	.75385	.713
7. "not expensive"	2.8519	1.00907	.732
8. "available in every city"	3.6667	.84017	.711
9. " served in non-Italian restaurants"	3.3704	.88949	.732
10. "advertising and television shows"	3.2963	.85398	.707

Cultural differences, eating habits and taste preferences are important factors that affect the choice to dine at ethnic restaurants. Due to the amount of food products recently introduced to China, it is difficult for Chinese consumers to distinguish between authentic foods and foods not produced in their country of origin i.e. pizza and pasta items imported from the U.S. Also, Italian exporters to China and restaurant owners in China fail to translate all Italian products and dish names, making purchasing and ordering difficult for the Chinese consumer.

A major distinction is found in the eating habits and eating behavior of Chinese consumers in restaurants. Italians like to consume food slowly with ample breaks between courses. Chinese customers, on the other hand, usually eat different dishes together family style and do not occupy a restaurant table for a long period of time. Chinese consumers, who have travelled abroad and have been to Italy, identify some Italian food sold in China as being of lower quality. Also, there is evidence of product substitution from other countries, and misrepresentation of food

preparation. Many dishes served are not authentic and the ingredients do not come from Italy.

Table 4. Factors that will influence the decision to appreciate Italian cuisine in the future, ranked in order of importance; N=324

Rank	Mean and ranking of popularity factors	
	Mean	**Factor**
1	3.9259	Taste
2	3.7037	Health Related Benefits
3	3.6667	Available In Every City
4	3.5925	Fresh Ingredients
5	3.3703	Non Italian Restaurants Serve Italian Food
6	3.3570	Varied-Everyone Likes It
7	3.2962	Media Exposure
8	3.2777	Portion Size
9	2.9074	Simplicity
10	2.5185	Not Expensive

Many owner operators of several Italian themed restaurants are Chinese entrepreneurs thus; the theory of "Country of Origin" and the perception of authenticity are significant to the Chinese consumer. Restaurants with a chef from Italy where considered authentic by Chinese patrons. Table 5 highlights some important factors which concern Chinese consumers. There is a perception that Italian food sold in Italian restaurants in China is very expensive and that it is not authentic.

Table 5. Summarized results from literature review and qualitative survey data

Summarized results from literature review and the qualitative survey data	
From the literature review	**From the face-to-face interviews**
Italian cuisine was first made popular to non-Italians by Italian immigrants settling abroad	Italian restaurants in China are not really Italian
Italian cuisines satisfies everyone's palate	Italian food is more American than Italian

International hotel chains may have been the first to introduce Italian cuisine in China	Many dishes are served with lot of tomato sauce, it is not authentic
Culinary schools now integrate Italian cooking classes into their curriculum	The food is very varied just like Chinese food
Movements, such as "Slow Food" aim at preserving Italian food culture around the world	Italian food in hotel restaurants is very expensive
Marketing efforts by Italian Government facilitate the dissemination of knowledge about Italian cuisine	Italian menu items, especially wines, are very expensive
New means of communication such as "iFood", help promote Italian cuisine in China	The most delicious dishes are the antipasti and desserts
Italian food ingredients are readily available in retail food outlets in China	Italian food is very simple, but tastes very good
Educational seminars and culinary competition in China spread the knowledge about Italian cuisine	Italian restaurants are authentic because the chefs are Italian
Young curious and adventurous Chinese consumers like to try Italian cuisine	Italian cuisine is very similar to Chinese cuisine

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Significant factors impact Chinese consumers when selecting an Italian restaurant and appreciating Italian cuisine. There are cultural eating differences and Chinese consumers, do have their own tastes and preferences. Although the Chinese share the same appreciation for fresh food ingredients, Italian dishes are prepared differently. Traditionally, Chinese households don't have the same cooking equipment, and lack baking and roasting ovens and grills. Therefore Italian-specific cooking methods are not easily understood by the Chinese consumer. Some Italian dishes are consequently perceived with scepticism especially when consumed for the first time.

A significant finding is that Chinese consumers are not familiar with all Italian raw products such as those for antipasti items and find it hard to

distinguish quality products and expensive products from lower quality. This is especially true for those wishing to buy wine to pair with Italian dishes. The authors' visits to several Italian restaurants revealed that many antipasto items are substituted with those from other countries e.g.: Mortadella is substituted with Balloni from the U.S. and prosciutto is substituted with smoked Bavarian ham from Germany. Even though it is not always customary, the Chinese tend to eat everything family style, with all dishes brought to the table at the same time. Italians typically eat food in individually served courses.

A concern expressed by consumers during face-to-face interviews was that existing Italian restaurants in China do not translate everything on the menu and this makes it harder for patrons to order. The theory of "Country of Origin" and the perception of authenticity play an important role for the Chinese restaurant consumer. Until the Italian cuisine in mainland China has matured and Chinese consumers are well-educated about Italian food, the scepticism among consumers will continue to persist.

There are specific differences in consumption habits between Italians and Chinese; Italians eat slowly and spend lot of time seated at a restaurant. For the traditional Italian restaurant there is no seat turnover contributing to ample time at the table and long conversations. At the traditional Chinese restaurant, customers like to eat quickly and don't like to wait long for food to be served. Compared to the cost of a Chinese meal, consumers in China perceive Italian food to be expensive. Therefore the neophobic Chinese consumers still prefer Chinese cuisine, but younger, adventurous Chinese can appreciate Italian styles and tastes. The most enjoyed Italian food products are wine, pasta, olive oil and chocolate. Cold meat such as salami and ham also seem to growing in popularity. This study attempts to identify the factors that influence Chinese consumers' decisions to sample new cuisines such as Italian. The preservation of traditional cuisines such as the Italian and its propagation in foreign countries is obviously dependent on positive consumer reviews (Perdrini and Padovani, 2005).

LIMITATION

There were several constraints in conducting this study. Constraints included the geographical distance, the lack of permanent physical presence of investigators in China, and the logistics involved in conducting such a study with the authors' limited stay in China. The

online survey had to be designed in English and then translated in Chinese. However the online survey proved to be, to a certain extent, time-saving, but also cost effective with easy data collection. In terms of quantity it is also more effective than face-to-face interviews which required the authors to be on location for an extended period of time. The face-to-face interviews provided to be a very fruitful source of insight, however. The authors were not proficient in any of Chinese languages such as Mandarin or Cantonese and they relied on an Interpreter.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study provide stakeholders such as Italian restaurant owners and operators, importers, exporters, and marketers, with useful insights as to why Chinese consumers may or may not appreciate Italian cuisine. Moreover, the results should benefit new restaurant entrepreneurs in their strategy formulation for the opening and operating of an Italian restaurant in mainland China. The results of this study will also support future research about the popularity of Italian cuisine in China and in other countries and should encourage the research of other popular ethnic cuisines around the world.

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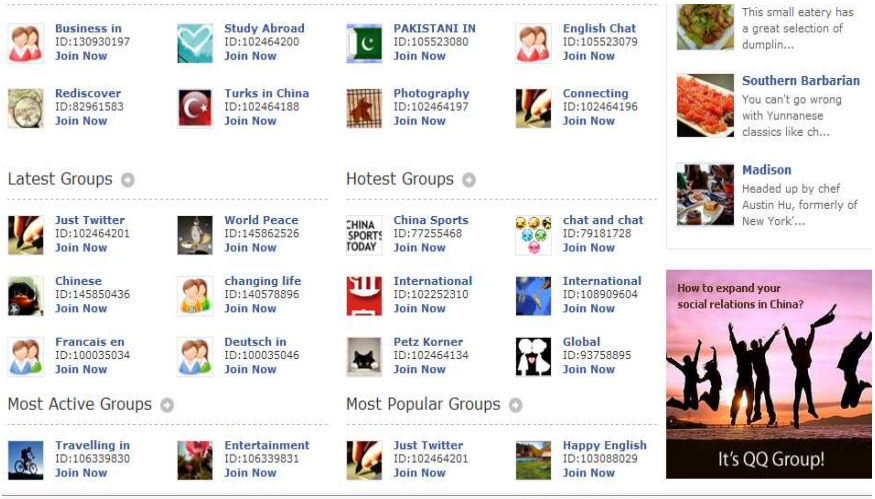
APPENDIX

1. Sample target group characteristics

2. Sample source for target groups: www.google.cn

3. Sample source for target groups: www.Yahoo.cn

4. Sample source for target groups on www.QQ.cn http://group.imqq.com/shanghai/


Business in
ID:130930197
Join Now
Study Abroad
ID:102464200
Join Now
PAKISTANI IN
ID:105523080
Join Now
English Chat
ID:105523079
Join Now
Rediscover
ID:82961583
Join Now
Turks in China
ID:102464188
Join Now
Photography
ID:102464197
Join Now
Connecting
ID:102464196
Join Now
Latest Groups
Hotest Groups
Just Twitter
ID:102464201
Join Now
World Peace
ID:145862526
Join Now
China Sports
ID:77255468
Join Now
chat and chat
ID:79181728
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changing life
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International
ID:102252310
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International
ID:108909604
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Francais en
ID:100035034
Join Now
Deutsch in
ID:100035046
Join Now
Petz Korner
ID:102464134
Join Now
Global
ID:93758895
Join Now
Most Active Groups
Most Popular Groups
Travelling in
ID:106339830
Join Now
Entertainment
ID:106339831
Join Now
Just Twitter
ID:102464201
Join Now
Happy English
ID:103088029
Join Now
This small eatery has a great selection of dumplin...
Southern Barbarian
You can't go wrong with Yunnanese classics like ch...
Madison
Headed up by chef Austin Hu, formerly of New York'...
How to expand your social relations in China?
It's QQ Group!

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ARE BACKPACKERS A HOMOGENEOUS SEGMENT? A STUDY OF BACKPACKERS' MOTIVATIONS IN THE CAPE COAST-ELMINA CONURBATION, GHANA

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The purpose of the study was to assess whether or not backpackers are homogeneous, using those who visited the Cape Coast-Elmina conurbation, Ghana. Questionnaire was used to collect data from 200 backpackers in Cape Coast and Elmina. The factor analysis, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), independent samples t-test, and descriptive statistical analysis were employed in the discussion of the data. The study revealed that backpackers who visited the Cape Coast-Elmina conurbation were mostly young international students. Six (6) main push-pull related factors, including historical/cultural attractions, service delivery, ecological attractions, heritage, escape, and adventure were found to have explained backpackers' motivation for visiting Ghana. There was sufficient evidence to conclude that backpackers are not the same, in relation to their background characteristics and motivations to travel. It is recommended that local travel intermediaries focus attention on packaging tailored tours that will sell the country's historical, cultural and ecological attractions to backpackers.

Keywords: *Motivations; Backpacker; Factor; Cape Coast; Elmina*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

The 'backpacker' or 'budget traveller' market is one of the important segments of the tourism trade. Over the past decade, backpackers have shifted out from the policy shadows and the confines of the travel and tourism trade into global interest (Richards & Wilson, 2005). Rogerson (2005) argues that the contemporary backpacker is viewed as an

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imperative and growing element of international tourism and in some countries, such as Australia and Canada they are a key component of domestic tourism. According to Ateljevic and Doorne (2004), backpackers are tourism's biggest spending visitors. Research has also shown that on an individual basis, backpackers spend up to four (4) times more than mainstream Japanese tourists in Australia (Ateljevic & Doorne, 2004). Cheaper flights and favourable exchange rates have encouraged the remarkable growth of this market with more than 400,000 backpackers expected to visit Australia in 2002 (Ateljevic & Doorne, 2004). According to the Ghana Museums and Monuments Board [GMMB] (2011), international student arrivals in only Cape Coast and Elmina, stood at 3,073 between the months of September and October, 2010, an indication that youth travellers are increasingly visiting the area.

For their part, Richards and Wilson (2005) noted that even though youth and students make up an important segment of the backpacker market, today's archetypal backpacker is likely to be in his/her late twenties, young and a career professional. Moreover, as the backpacker on the average stays considerably longer than the long-haul international tourist, the former's average expenditure matches and in many cases even exceeds the latter's (Richards & Wilson, 2004). Since the 1970s, long-haul backpacker tourism has grown progressively and has come to constitute a specific segment of the international tourism market (Wilson, 1997; Hampton, 1998). Research has addressed this phenomenon from its very beginnings (Cohen, 1982). For Brenner and Fricke (2007), the growing interest in backpacker tourism can be attributed to its rapid territorial growth and its significant socio-economic impact on various destinations. According to David and Wilson (2005), the growing popularity of backpacking, the emergent diverse profile of backpackers coupled with the fact that they prefer locally produced goods and services, and have a comparatively longer duration of stay indicate that this form of tourism has the potential for growth.

Cohen (2003) recommends that future researches should move away from assuming that backpacking is a "homogeneous phenomenon" and review its diverse manifestations in terms of differences in age, sex, origin, and particular subcultures. In addition, Uriely, Yonay, and Simchai (2002), Ateljevic and Doorne (2005), Hecht and Martin (2006) and Maoz (2007) assert that backpackers may not be a homogeneous a group as they have been believed to be. They argue that like all people, they may vary among other things in nationalities, age, sex, motivations,

organization of trips and life cycle status. It is against this background that the study seeks to assess the motivations of backpackers in the Cape Coast-Elmina conurbation. Specifically the study seeks to: Describe the background characteristics of backpackers; examine backpackers' motivations for travelling to Ghana and explore the differences in travel motivations among the background characteristics of backpackers. The study is expected to make some contributions to the existing literature, policy and practice.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Motivations are forces (intrinsic or extrinsic) that drive tourists to move from their places of residence to places out their homes in order to satisfy a need. Travel motivations have received great attention in tourism research because of the number of motivation theories that have been advanced so far to explain the forces that put the tourist on the 'move'. Maslow's (1943) theory of needs, Gray's (1970) sunlusters and wanderlusters typology, Dann (1977, 1981) and Crompton (1979) push-pull framework, Iso-Ahola's (1982) Optimal Arousal Theory and Godfrey (2011) have all been used in many scholarly materials to explain travel motivations. Many have, however, critiqued these motivational theories, arguing that some are a little simplistic in the explanation of tourists' motivations for travelling. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this research, the push-pull model by Dann (1981) was adapted to guide this study.

The push-pull framework or model by Dann (1977) provides a useful approach for examining tourists' motivations for travelling (Dann, 1977; Crompton, 1979). To Dann, tourists are pushed by internal forces (escape, prestige, relaxation) and pulled by external forces (such as the destination attributes). In short, push motives can be used to explain the desire to travel while pull motives help to explain the destination choice (Dann, 1977; Crompton, 1979; Goossens, 2000). Baloglu and Uysal (1996) found that backpackers may be pushed to leave home in order to get away from an unhappy relationship and be pulled because they wish to see the country's scenery or enjoy a climatic condition. In relation to push forces, Niggel and Benson (2007) reveal that backpackers are motivated by discoveries of novelty, gaining broad knowledge about the world, escape from everyday work, social interaction, as well as having good times with friends. They identified the pull factors to comprise native culture, adventure opportunities, climate, friendliness of the host,

beautiful beaches, available facilities and services, as well as the history of the host country. In examining the motivations that drive backpackers to visit the Cape Coast-Elmina conurbation, Ghana, the push-pull model by Dann (1981) was found appropriate as a theoretical guide for the study.

RESEARCH SETTING

Elmina, which is located in the Komenda Edina Eguafo Abrem (KEEA) district, is about 6 km west of Cape Coast. On the other hand, Cape Coast is located in the Cape Coast Metropolis. These two towns are both located along the coastline and are bordered by Twifo Heman Lower Denkyira, Mpohor Wasa East and Shama districts in the Central Region of Ghana (Figure 1). Geographically, they can be described as a 'conurbation', given that the two towns have gradually joint in terms of settlement and development.

The Cape Coast-Elmina conurbation was selected as the study area because of the following reasons: The Central Region of Ghana holds and receives the highest number of attractions and tourist arrivals respectively. The region is endowed with a diversity of attractions including historical, ecological and cultural attractions. Within the Central Region, the Cape Coast-Elmina conurbation attracts a greater number of tourists because of the three (3) main United Nations, Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) world heritage sites, namely; Cape Coast castle, Elmina castle and Fort St. Jago. Festivals and other events also account for tourist arrivals in the area. The conurbation is also home to many hotels, restaurants, nightlife and other entertainment grounds for tourists.

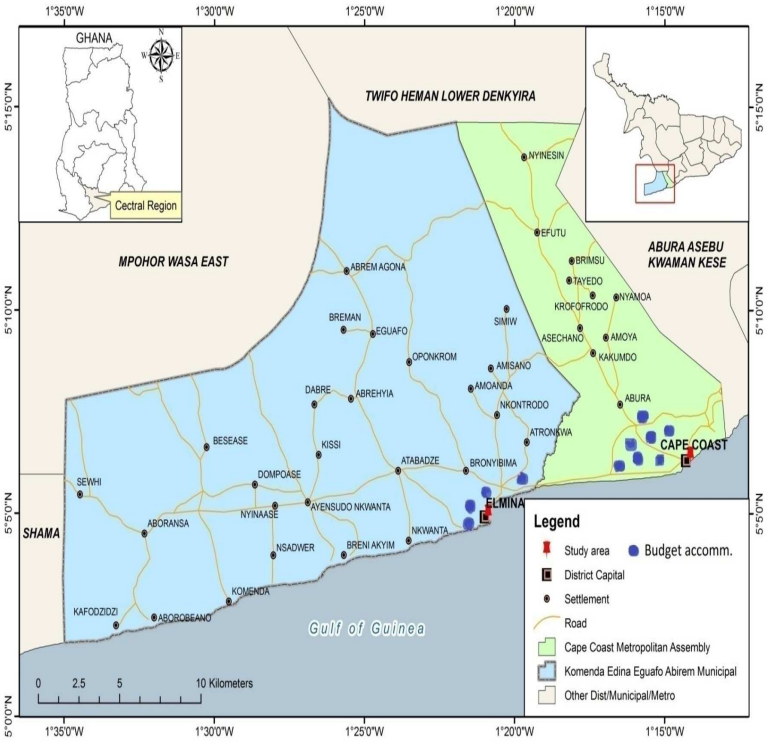

Figure 1: Map of Cape Coast-Elmina conurbation
Source: Remote Sensing and Cartographic Unit, University Cape Coast, 2012.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The data was collected from inbound backpackers in the Cape Coast-Elmina conurbation through the use of questionnaire. The questions in the instrument were developed based on a review of related literature (Dann, 1977, 1981; Crompton, 1979; Pearce, 1990; Ryan & Moshin, 1999; Scheyvens, 2002; Niggel & Benson, 2007). However, since tourism studies are unique in terms of cultural and geopolitical landscapes, needed modifications were made in order to make the instrument reflect the objectives of the study and also situate the research within the local circumstance, which is Ghana. The instrument consisted of three (3) main

modules. Module 1 examined some push items that motivated the respondents to travel to Ghana while Module 2 examined the pull variables the motivated the respondents to visit Ghana. A 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly agree" to "Strongly disagree" was used to measure their motivations for travelling to Ghana. Module 3 touched on the background characteristics of the respondents, such as sex, age, marital status, level of education, continent of origin, and profession.

A sampling frame of all 22 budget accommodation facilities was obtained from the office of the Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA) in Cape Coast. Using the lottery method of the simple random sampling technique, 11 budget accommodation facilities were selected from Cape Coast and Elmina. The data were collected between September and November, 2012 through self-administered questionnaire using three four assistants and the researcher. In all, 200 instruments were administered through systematic sampling technique. To achieve this, the respondents were selected at every fourth interval on their arrival at the reception in the selected budget hotels. Those who declined participating were replaced before the next count.

The data analysis was mainly carried out with the use of the SPSS version 16. Factor analysis employing the varimax rotation was used to determine the main orthogonal dimensions that motivated backpackers to travel to the Cape Coast-Elmina conurbation, Ghana. The ANOVA and t-test were used to explore the differences in motivations across the background characteristics of the respondents.

RESULTS

Background characteristics of respondents

The study found more females (72.3 %) than males (27.7%) in the study. The majority (75.0%) of backpackers who visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area were between the age cohort of 20-29 while 15.2 % were below 20 years. The average age was found to be 23 years among all backpackers. More unmarried (84.2%) than married (15.8%) respondents were established in the study. Those who had attained secondary/high school qualification (34.8%) were at par with degree holders (34.8%) representing the majority. It was noticed that a little more than half (57.6%) of the respondents were students followed by technicians

(22.8%). Backpackers who claimed they were in their 'gap year' represented 13.6%.

The study also identified the continents from which backpackers came to the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Most of the respondents (74.5%) originated from Europe, followed by Australians (12.5%), North Americans (10.3%) and Africans (1.6%).

Main factors that account for backpackers' motivations to visit Ghana

The exploratory factor analysis (FA), employing the varimax rotation, was used to examine the major underlying components that motivated backpackers to visit Ghana. The FA was performed on 38 variables and the output is presented in Table 1. As a prelude to employing FA in this study, the sampling adequacy and the factorability of the data were examined to ensure that all assumptions were met for the FA. For this study, the Bartlett's test of sphericity was found to be significant (p=0.00) while the KMO index of 0.781 confirmed the suitability of the data for FA. Table 1 also contains the eigenvalues and factor loadings. A recommendation is made for the inspection of a correlation matrix of 0.3 or more while factors with eigenvalues of 1.0+ are retained for further investigation (Pallant, 2005). Moreover, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to test the reliability of the scale used, and the extent to which the items actually contribute in explaining a factor. Pallant (2005) recommends a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of more than 0.7 for appropriateness.

The Principal Component Analysis (PCA), employing the varimax rotation, reduced the 38 variables to 6 main underlying dimensions which accounted for backpackers' motivations to visit Ghana. The six (6) uncorrelated factor solutions together explained 55.9% of the total variance. The factors, however, contributed differently to the explanation of the total variance, which are as follows:

A pull motivational factor, which was Factor 1, labelled as historical/cultural attractions, consisted of issues pertaining to old towns and forts, slave routes and history, art and craft, ethnic groups, music and dance, clothing, and museums. This factor explained 8.14 (22.6%) of the total variance.

Table 1. Factors that account for backpackers' motivation to travel

Factors	Factor Loading	Eigenvalue	% of variance Explained	Cronbach's alpha
I Historical/cultural attractions				
Old towns and villages	0.71			
Slave route and history	0.68			
Arts and craft	0.66			
Different ethnic groups	0.64	8.14	22.61	0.79
Good music and dance	0.61			
Clothing (kente, fugu)	0.59			
Museums	0.58			
II Heritage motivation				
Trace my route to Ghana	0.89			
Learn about my heritage	0.87	3.75	10.43	0.87
Find out my historical background	0.86			
III Service delivery				
Well trained restaurant & hotel staff	0.71			
Hygienic facilities	0.69			
Good service delivery	0.68	2.45	6.81	0.80
Prompt service delivery	0.67			
Clean environment	0.66			
IV Ecological heritage				

Greenery	0.79			
Wildlife and birds	0.76			
Mountainous areas	0.65	2.38	6.61	0.83
Beautiful parks and scenery	0.64			
V Escape				
Get away from home	0.76			
Get a break from everyday job	0.69			
Do something about my boredom	0.69	1.79	4.98	0.74
Relieve stress and tension	0.64			
VI Adventure				
Experience unfamiliar destination	0.76			
Discover something new	0.75			
Do something challenging	0.71	1.60	4.45	0.72
Get close to nature	0.52			
Total variance explained			55.89	

Bartlett's test of sphericity (Approx. Chi-square) = 3441.151, alpha value = 0.00, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sample Adequacy = 0.781

Factor 2 measured heritage motivation. Heritage motivations formed part of the push motivational factors that accounted for backpackers' visit to Ghana. It suggests that there was an internal desire to patronize the country's heritage resources, which were evident in tracing routes to Ghana, learning about individual heritage, and finding out historical backgrounds. Together, they explained 3.75 (10.4%) of the total variance. Factor 3 (pull factor) measured service delivery, which includes well-trained restaurant staff, hygienic facilities, good and prompt service delivery, and environmental cleanliness. Factor loadings ranged from a low of 0.66 to a high of 0.71. Factor 3 accounted for 2.45 (6.8%) of the

total variance explained. Factor 4 (pull factor) constituted ecological heritage which consisted of greenery, wildlife and birds, mountainous areas, beautiful parks and scenery, and conducive weather conditions. This dimension explained 2.38 (6.6%) of the total variance. Factor 5 more or less tapped into another push factor which is 'escape'. For this factor, getting away from home, break from routine job, doing something about boredom, and relieving stress and tension were the variables that loaded on it. This factor explained 1.79 (4.9%) of the total variance. Lastly, Factor 6 (push factor) explained 1.60 (4.5%) of the total variance. This factor also consists of experiencing unfamiliar destination, discovering something new, doing something challenging, and getting close to nature.

The effect of background characteristics on push motivational factors

Table 2 examines the extent to which push motivational factors (escape, adventure and heritage tourism) vary across the background characteristics of backpackers. The t-test and ANOVA were used to test for differences in push motivations among the background characteristics. The Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) method, one of the post-hoc procedures (Pallant, 2005) was carried out to identify where differences exist among the various groups. Moreover, the existence of significant difference was determined by comparing the p-values (0.05).

The t-test was conducted to compare the push-motivations' scores for males and females. With respect to the motivations for escapism ($p=0.82$; $t=0.23$) and heritage ($p=0.63$; $t=0.64$), there were no significant differences between male and female backpackers. Both males and females were indifferent about escapism and heritage reasons being a reason for coming to Ghana. In contrast, the independent-samples t-test indicates significant differences in the motivation for adventure among males ($M=1.50$, $SD=0.55$) and females [$M=1.26$, $SD=0.42$; $t(182)= 3.21$, $p=0.00$]. Unlike the female backpackers who conceded that the desire for adventure spurred them to come to Ghana, their male colleagues were uncertain.

Table 2. Push motivational factors by background characteristics

Background characteristics	N	Escape	Adventure	Heritage motivation
Sex				
Male	51	1.642	1.500	2.044
Female	133	1.626	1.258	1.991
		p=0.819	*p=0.002*	*p=0.625*
		t=0.230	t=3.207	t=0.637
Marital status				
Unmarried	155	1.634	1.568	2.041
Married	29	1.672	1.164	1.991
		p=0.660	*p=0.011*	*p=0.628*
		t=0.449	t=2.649	t=0.486
Age				
<20	28	1.598	1.491	2.125
20-29	139	1.637	1.293*	1.991
30-39	14	1.643	1.561*	1.893
40 +	3	1.583	2.000	2.083
		p=0.972	*p=0.007*	*p=0.495*
		F=0.078	F=4.210	F=0.800
Level of education				
Basic/primary	3	1.167	1.167	1.667
Secondary/high School	64	1.621*	1.387	2.047
Diploma	34	1.631*	1.441	2.015

Degree	64	1.111	1.261	1.977
Postgraduate	19	1.447*	1.145	2.000
		p=0.052	*p=0.112*	*p=0.745*
		F=2.401	F=1.901	F=0.487
Main profession				
Student	106	1.592	1.532	1.991
Sales/Marketing	6	1.667	1.692	2.417
Educator	5	1.750	1.750	2.050
Post-student gap year	25	1.760	1.500	2.180
Technicians	42	1.631	1.614	1.875
		p=0.569	*p=0.130*	*p=0.063*
		F=0.894	F=1.805	F=2.512
Continent of origin				
North America	19	1.829	1.211	1.961*
Europe	137	1.631	1.365	2.037
Asia	2	1.575	1.250	1.625
Africa	3	1.500	1.000	1.000*
Australia	23	1.500	1.229	2.022
		p=0.123	*p=0.337*	*p=0.008*
		F=1.838	F=1.145	F=3.599

*Scale: 1-1.49 = Agree, 1.50-2.49 = Neutral, 2.50-3 = Disagree, Sig. level at ≤0.05, Post-hoc test**

Marital status influenced respondents' desire for adventure tourism. The independent-samples t-test shows significant differences in the motivation for adventure tourism among unmarried backpackers

(M=1.57, SD=0.43) and married backpackers [M=1.16; t(167)= 2.65, p=0.01]. Whereas unmarried backpackers were uncertain about having interest in adventure, married ones conceded that the quest for adventure was a motivation for their visit. On the other hand, there were no differences between unmarried and married backpackers when it came to the desire for escape (p=0.66; t=0.45) and heritage (p=0.63; t=0.49) since both groups were unsure.

A one-way between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of age on the push motivational factors. Subjects were divided into four (4) groups according to their age (Group 1: less than 20; Group 2: 20-29; Group 3: 30-39; Group 4: 40 and above). There was a statistically significant difference at $p \leq 0.05$ level in the motivation for adventure for the four age groups [F(3,180)= 4.21, p=0.00]. The post-hoc comparison using Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) test indicates that the mean scores for Group 2 (M=1.29, SD=0.44) was significantly different from Group 3 (M=1.56, SD=0.36). Group 1 (M=1.49, SD=0.53) and Group 4 (M=2.00, SD=1.00) did not show any significant differences. It is explainable that younger backpackers below age 20 and between the ages of 20-29 would probably be more willing and interested in undertaking adventure related activities than older ones especially those who are 30 years or more. On the contrary, respondents across the various age groupings did not show significant differences in the motivation for escape (p=0.97; F=0.08) and heritage (p=0.49; F=0.80) since groups were unresolved.

The levels of education attained by backpackers had impact on their desire to escape to Ghana. Subjects were divided into five (5) groups according to their educational qualifications (Group 1: Basic/primary education; Group 2: Secondary/high school; Group 3: Diploma; Group 4: Degree; Group 5: Postgraduate). There was a statistically significant difference at $p \leq 0.05$ level in the motivation for escape among the five groups [F(4,179)= 2.40, p=0.05]. The post-hoc comparison using LSD test shows that the mean scores for Group 2 (M=1.62, SD=0.44), Group 3 (M=1.63, SD=0.34) and Group 5 (M=1.45, SD=0.37) were significantly different from one another. Group 1 (M=1.17, SD=0.29) and Group 4 (M=1.11, SD=0.38) did not differ significantly from each other since both groups agreed their reason for the visit was to escape from boredom or everyday life. Contrary to that, backpackers' quest for adventure (p=0.11; F=1.90) and heritage (p=0.75; F=0.49) in Ghana did not differ among the

levels of education since those for adventure wholly agreed and those for heritage tourism were in doubt.

The occupational careers of respondents had no impact on their motivation for escape, adventure and heritage. There were no significant disparities in the desire for escape (p=0.57; F=0.89), adventure (p=0.13; F=1.81) and heritage (p=0.06; F=2.51) across all the professions of backpackers. Thus, respondents across the professions captured were ambivalent about escape, adventure and quest for heritage being motivations for visiting Ghana.

More to the point, continent of origin (Group 1: North America, Group 2: Europe, Group 3: Asia, Group 4: Africa, Group 5: Australia) had an impact on respondents' motivation for heritage tourism. There was a statistically significant difference at $p \leq 0.05$ level in the motivation for heritage among the five groups [F(4,179)= 3.59, p=0.00]. Post-hoc comparison with the LSD test indicates that the mean scores for Group 1 (M=1.96, SD=0.65) was significantly different from that of Group 4 (M=1.00, SD=0.00). While subjects from Africa agreed that heritage tourism was a reason for visiting the country, their counterparts from North America were indifferent. Groups 2 (*M*=2.04, *SD*=0.48), 3 (*M*=1.63, *SD*=0.88) and 5 (*M*=2.02, *SD*=0.47) did not show any significant disparities with regard to the motivation for heritage tourism. These groups were all neutral about the quest for heritage in Ghana. There were, however, no established significant differences in the motivations for escape (*p*=0.12; *F*=1.84) and adventure (*p*=0.34; *F*=1.15) among the continents from which backpackers came. Whereas respondents from all continents admitted that adventure was a motivation for visiting, they were not sure about escaping from home.

The effect of background characteristics on pull motivational factors

Table 3 examines the extent to which pull motivational factors also differ by the same background characteristics of backpackers. The t-test and ANOVA were used again to test for differences among the background characteristics based on mean responses. The main pull variables include historical/cultural and ecological attractions as well as service delivery.

The motivation for historical/cultural (p=0.09; t=0.92) and ecological (p=0.87; t=0.18) attractions, as well as services (p=0.97; t=0.46) did not

differ among backpackers' sex. Both males and females were neutral about the fact that these pull factors attracted them to the country. Similarly, the motivation for historical/cultural (p=0.39; t=0.85) and ecological (p=0.32; t=0.99) attractions as well as services (p=0.22; t=1.24) did not vary significantly among backpackers' marital status. Both unmarried and married respondents were uncertain about the rationale for all pull factors.

A one-way between groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of age on pull motivational factors. There was a statistically significant difference at $p \leq 0.05$ level in the motivation for ecological heritage among the four (4) age groups [F(3, 180)= 3.48, p=0.02]. A post-hoc comparison shows significant differences in the mean scores of respondents between the ages 30-39 (M=1.33, SD=0.46) and 40 years plus (M=2.07, SD=1.00). While respondents between the ages of 30-39 agreed, those aged 40 years and above were unresolved about the country's ecological attractions being their motivation for visiting. Respondents who were less than 20 years (M=1.85, SD=0.55) and those between 20-29 years (M=1.59, SD=0.57) did not show any significant contrast since some levels of uncertainties were obvious as regards Ghana's ecological attractions. Conversely, there were no significant differences among the motivation for historical/cultural attractions (p=0.70; F=0.48) and service delivery (p=0.06; F=1.50) across the age categories.

Furthermore, a statistically significant difference in the motivation for ecological heritage among the levels of education [F(4,179)= 2.52, p=0.04]. The post-hoc LSD indicates significant differences in the mean scores of respondents with diploma (M=1.74, SD=0.59) and postgraduate qualifications (M=1.25, SD=0.36). While those with diploma qualifications were indifferent, their counterparts with postgraduate qualifications agreed that ecological attractions were part of their motivation for visiting Ghana. Backpackers who had attained basic (M=1.67, SD=1.15), secondary (M=1.60, SD=0.56) and degree qualifications (M=1.68, SD=0.58) did not differ significantly from those with diploma. As to the motivation for historical/cultural attractions (p=0.11; F=1.92) and service delivery (p=0.08; F=2.11) in the country, no significant differences were noticeable among the educational levels of respondents. Whereas all backpackers, irrespective of their educational qualifications, conceded that historical/cultural attractions were a reason

for visiting Ghana, they were undecided about service delivery in the country.

Table 3. Pull motivational factors by background characteristics

Background characteristics	N	Historical/ Cultural	Services Delivery	Ecological Attractions
Sex				
Male	51	1.585	1.828	1.631
Female	133	1.465	1.825	1.615
		p=0.093	*p=0.973*	*p=0.865*
		t=0.918	t=0.463	t=0.175
Marital status				
Unmarried	155	1.509	1.848	1.637
Married	29	1.543	1.707	1.524
		p=0.396	*p=0.215*	*p=0.322*
		t=0.851	t=1.244	t=0.993
Age				
<20	28	1.505	1.768	1.850
20-29	139	1.509	1.871	1.593
30-39	14	1.667	1.564	1.329*
40 +	3	1.571	1.583	2.067*
		p=0.700	*p=0.061*	*p=0.017*
		F=0.475	F=1.504	F=3.483
Level of education				
Basic/primary	3	1.143	1.883	1.667
Secondary/high school	64	1.467	1.750	1.603

Diploma	34	1.318	1.927	1.735*
Degree	64	1.329	1.902	1.681
Postgraduate	19	1.346	1.763	1.253*
		p=0.108	*p=0.081*	*p=0.043*
		F=1.924	F=2.113	F=2.524
Profession/occupation				
Student	106	1.442*	1.788	1.576
Sales/Marketing	6	1.691*	2.167	1.633
Educator	5	1.486	2.100	1.800
Post-student gap year	25	1.471	2.060	1.792
Technicians	42	1.478*	1.756	1.633
		p=0.012	*p=0.113*	*p=0.332*
		F=3.044	F=1.167	F=1.157
Continent of origin				
North America	19	1.594	2.031	1.381*
Europe	137	1.504	1.836	1.623
Asia	2	1.642	1.625	2.300*
Africa	3	1.586	1.867	1.000*
Australia	23	1.603	1.696	1.809
		p=0.569	*p=0.098*	*p=0.019*
		F=0.735	F=1.987	F=3.039

*Scale: 1-1.49 = Agree, 1.50-2.49 = Neutral, 2.50-3 = Disagree, Sig. level at ≤0.05, Post-hoc test**

The occupational careers of backpackers had some influence on their desire for the country's historical/cultural attractions. At $p \leq 0.05$ level, there was a statistically significant difference in the motivation for the country's historical/cultural attractions among the occupational careers of backpackers [$F(4,179)= 3.04$, $p=0.01$]. The post-hoc LSD indicated

significant disparities in the mean scores of students (M=1.44, SD=0.41), marketing personnel (M=1.69, SD=0.43) and technicians (M=1.48, SD=0.44). There were no significant differences in the mean scores of educators (M=1.49, SD=0.45) and post-student 'gap years' (M=1.47, SD=0.47) given that both groups agreed that historical/cultural attractions were reasons for coming to Ghana. Respondents' occupational careers did not have any impact on their motivations for service delivery (p=0.11; F=1.17) and ecological heritage (p=0.33; F=1.16).

The continents from which backpackers originated had an influence on their desire for ecological heritage [F(4, 179)= 3.04, p=0.02]. The Fisher's LSD suggests that backpackers from North America (M=1.38, SD=0.52), Asia (M=2.30, SD=0.14) and Africa (M=1.00, SD=0.00) differed significantly while Europeans (M=1.62, SD=0.57) and Australians (M=1.81, SD=0.59) did not show significant differences. The Europeans and Australians were unresolved about visiting for ecological reasons. Conversely, there were no significant differences recorded in the motivations for service delivery (p=0.09; F=1.99) and historical/cultural attractions (p=0.57; F=0.74) in the country across the continents of origin.

DISCUSSION

According to Leslie and Wilson (2005), backpackers are gradually shifting from being a homogeneous segment comprising youngsters to a segment with diverse profiles. This claim was evident in results of the background characteristics of backpackers in the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

The motivation to travel to any destination could be influenced by push or pull factors (Godfrey, 2011). This study, therefore, took into cognizance the push/pull motivational factors that inspired respondents to travel to a Ghana. In all, six (6) main factors accounted for backpackers' motivations to visit Ghana. They include historical/cultural attractions, heritage motivation, service delivery, ecological attractions, escapism and adventure tourism.

The factor on historical/cultural attractions, which is a pull factor, turnout to be the highest explained variance followed by heritage tourism (push factor). This result is very obvious because historical and cultural attractions capture a significant proportion of Ghana's attraction base. The study, therefore, reinforces Welk's (2006) position that the interests of backpackers lie in historic monuments and cultures of other people. The third factor that emerged from the analysis was the motivation for service

delivery in the area. Cape Coast and Elmina hold and provide a significant percentage of tourism facilities and services respectively in the country. For their part, Niggel and Benson (2007) consider services and facilities at the destination as pull motivational factors for various categories of visitors. Further, the fourth motivational factor constituted the interest in the ecological heritage of the country, which served as a pull force. Ghana is endowed with natural resources ranging from unique water bodies, national parks, ramsar sites, wetlands to mountains. Activities, such as camping, hiking, hunting, swimming, biking, kayaking, and safari watching could be undertaken in the country. Factor five, which tapped into escapism was one of the push factors that motivated backpackers to travel to Ghana. The issue of taking breaks from jobs back at home is quite common among the reasons why most backpackers and other tourists adduce for travelling. According to Jarvis and Peel (2010), one motivation for backpackers is the desire to escape from life at home. These breaks give them the opportunity to refresh their minds, and engage in non-routine forms of lifestyle. Last but not least factor comprised the travel for adventure. For Elsrud (2001), Cloke and Perkins (2002) and Cater (2002), thrill-seeking and risk taking certainly seem to have become a central part of backpacking as growing numbers of backpackers develop interest for destinations or take up more dangerous activities in established destinations.

The study tried to explore the differences in motivations across the various background characteristics of backpackers in Ghana. Beginning with the push factors (escape, adventure, heritage), the motivation for adventure in the country received varied opinions among males and females. It was found that while female backpackers conceded that they had the motivation to engage in adventure related activities in Ghana, their male counterparts were indifferent. In effect, female backpackers are becoming more adventurous than male counterparts. Additionally, the motivation for adventure and escapism differed by age and level of education respectively. However, the various background variables, except for continent of origin, were found not to have had any effect on the choice of heritage tourism in the country.

As regards pull factors, variations were noticed in the motivation for ecological heritage and cultural attractions among some background characteristics. The motivation for ecological attractions in the country differed among the age categories. While those in the 30-39 years agreed to visiting Ghana for ecological reasons, those below 29 years and those

40 years plus were unsure. Similarly, the levels of education attained by respondents and the continent from which they came influenced the motivation for ecological heritage in the country. Godfrey (2011) recognized that motivations may differ across continent of origin, regions and countries but for this study, this claim only manifested in the motivation for ecological heritage. In addition, unlike escape, adventure, heritage, historical/cultural, and ecological motivations, respondents across all background characteristics seemed to be uncertain about the quality of services rendered to them in the country.

Differences in responses among various background characteristics were related to specific push and pull motivational factors, and not across all factors. In short, there is sufficient evidence to assert that some motivational factors are influenced by backpackers' background variables.

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of the study was to assess whether or not backpackers are a homogeneous group. To this end, 200 backpackers were sampled through a survey. Dann's (1981) model was used as the theoretical underpinning for the research. The study found that backpackers were motivated by a mix of pull factors (Service delivery, ecological, and historical/cultural attractions) and push factors (heritage tourism, escapism, and adventure tourism).

Secondly, it was found that per their background characteristics and motivations for travel, backpackers who visit the Cape Coast-Elmina conurbation are not homogeneous, since the study indicated that the background characteristics of backpackers have an effect on their motivations for travelling. The examinations of motivations among backpackers in the existing literature (Richards & Wilson, 2004; Leslie & Wilson, 2005; Hannam & Ateljevic, 2008) have seldom provided empirical information as regards the differences in motivations in relation to background characteristics; hence, this finding is a contribution to literature.

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

The fact that backpackers who travel to the Cape Coast-Elmina area are young students suggests that they travel on limited budgets.

Therefore, the GTA should formally recognize and incorporate hostel facilities into the accommodation sub-sector in the country, and also regularize monitoring activities in these facilities in order to maintain quality standards.

Since the study showed that backpackers visit Ghana because of the historical and ecological attractions, it is recommended that government pays special attention to the development of these sites in order to increase backpackers' visitation to the country. Particularly, accessibility to these attractions, which is a problem, could be improved by government. It is also recommended that local travel intermediaries focus attention on packaging tailored tours that would sell the country's historical, cultural, and ecological attractions to backpackers.

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MEDICAL TOURISM AND THE ROLE OF E-MEDICAL TOURISM INTERMEDIARIES IN GREECE

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The aim of this paper is to investigate the tourist industry's satisfaction with medical tourism in Greece, the factors associated with its performance improvement and the ICT infrastructure underlying it. For this purpose, a nationwide survey was carried out in 2012. According to our findings, satisfaction of tourist company executives with their performance in handling the flow of medical tourists depends on the degree of company staff training on medical tourism. In addition, the important role of state agencies or local government in guaranteeing local infrastructure availability and quality is a fact that influences directly tourism entrepreneurship in the country. Obviously, medical tourism in Greece could constitute an important source of national income and consequently, an alternative for the country to exit the economic crisis, provided care is given to ICT infrastructure and legislation procedures.

Keywords: *Medical tourism, ICTs, e-medical tourism intermediaries, Greece.*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

As technology and medical know-how dissolved to emerging market countries, a new model of medical tourism – from rich to poor countries – evolved over the last two decades, and an increasing number of patients from developed countries have been travelling to medical centres of less developed countries in order to obtain certain medical services (Horowitz et al., 2007). It should be noted that numerous factors of medical tourist

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demand and supply have influenced this change of direction, such as the inability to obtain health service in their own countries, due to the high health care costs, the absence of public or private insurance schemes coverage, long waiting lists, the non existence of specific health technologies, contracting with well known western clinics and hospital universities and other ethical and religious issues (Connell, 2006; Horowitz et al., 2007).

Nowadays, the growth of the medical tourism industry usually follows the trends of general tourism as well as those of the national and/or international economy and medical tourism has a significant impact on countries' national economy as well as on the hospital budgets generating up to 10% of total revenue from international patients (Hungarian Central Statistical Office, 2010). According to international data, emerging markets in Asia, such as India, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand, in Europe and Latin America are some of the most attractive and low cost medical tourist destinations. Rich country tourists started to exploit the possibility of combining tourist aspects with medical ones. (Horowitz et al., 2007). At the same time, USA and European hospitals – especially in the UK as well as in Germany – are able to attract foreign patients for high quality and specialized care (Hungarian Central Statistical Office, 2010).

Greece is one of the countries that has always invested in tourism. According to macroeconomic data, the Greek tourist industry accounts for 15.8% of GDP in 2012. Greece is among the countries with the highest demand on Mediterranean destinations and it also offers natural advantages, tourist infrastructures and expertise at a high level. It is a fact though, that international competition and the current economic crisis, in combination with political and social volatility that quite often make the news worldwide, have indeed had a significant negative impact on Greek tourism. Medical tourism is an alternative form of tourism in which Greece can and has to invest given its climatic and geographical characteristics. However, medical tourism has been very recently prioritised in the political agenda, mainly due to the economic recession and the tuff austerity measures taken in the country. Furthermore, data on medical tourist flows are poor and consequently, its impact on the health sector and the overall economy is difficult to estimate; in addition, lack of standardised and integrated information systems in the public administration across the country prohibits collection and elaboration of relevant data (Kavoura, 2012).

The integration of information and communication technologies (ICTs) into the organizational fabric of medical tourism businesses is an

important key to success. ICTs use in medical tourism affects the whole structure of the medical tourism industry, not only supply and demand side, but also medical tourism intermediaries (Lunt et al, 2012). Rapidly improving health care systems in some key countries, where new technologies have been adopted, (as for example India, Thailand and Mexico), in order to become important global destination, have upgraded and imported technology, absorbed western medical protocols and emphasized low cost and prompt attention, but also advertised as important the links to their IT industry (Connell, 2006).

In this context, the aim of this study was to investigate tourist executives' opinions, aspects and beliefs in medical tourism and to examine factors affecting their potential investments in Greece.

TOURISM HEALTH RELATED TERMINOLOGY AND HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The concept of medical tourism is not new. The first record goes back thousands of years ago when the Greeks arrived in a small territory in the Saronic Gulf called Epidauria (today Epidaurus). This territory was the sanctuary of the healing god Asclepius and became the first travel destination for medical tourism. In the 18th century England, entire cities appeared with spas because of the existence of natural sources with mineral water that cured illnesses like bronchitis, while in other European countries sanatoria were built in mountainous areas for the treatment of tuberculosis (Horowitz et al., 2007). Since the end of the 19th century, richer citizens and the elite from underdeveloped countries travelled towards medical centers in more developed countries i.e Europe, for diagnosis and treatments which were not possible to obtain in their own countries. Also, rich patients from northern countries of Europe travelled towards tourist destinations such as the Swiss Alps and on the Mediterranean coast in order to be treated in sanatoriums for tuberculosis. In the last few decades, this emigrational flow has taken a new direction. More specifically, an increasing number of patients from developed countries have been travelling to medical centres of less developed countries in order to obtain certain medical services (Horowitz et al., 2007). Health insurance companies in the Developed World are also encouraging such packages, in order to enjoy cost cutting in their medical expenses. It should be noted that numerous factors of medical tourist demand and supply have influenced this change of direction, such as the inability to obtain health service in their own countries due to the high

health care costs, the absence of public or private insurance schemes coverage, long waiting lists, the non existence of specific health technologies, contracting with well known western clinics and hospital universities and other ethical and religious issues (Connell, 2006).

"Medical tourism" or alternatively called "health tourism" and "wellness tourism" is a term that has risen from the rapid growth of an industry where people from all around the world are travelling to other countries to obtain medical, dental and surgical care while at the same time touring, vacationing and fully experiencing the attractions of the countries that they are visiting. The factors that have led to the increasing popularity of medical travel include lower health care costs, limited time of bureaucratic procedures, convenience, affordability of a trip and 'exploitation' of the technology that has been developed in many countries (Ford and Fottler, 2000).This travel is "driven by the internet, progressively cheaper flights, improved physical connectivity between large numbers of nations, improving longevity and most importantly disenchantment with the delivery of healthcare in terms of quality and price in the countries people live in" (Garg and Bhardwaj, 2012: 115). This combination of medicine, i.e. providing complex medical services and tourism is a relatively new type of tourism showing a high rate of growth. It combines travelling with the provision of various, often serious medical services, such as operations, transplantations, plastic surgery, dental procedures, as well as other more simple medical interventions. This kind of health tourism most often involves cross border travelling, where the provision of medical services is the only or the primary motive for travelling (Connell, 2006).

There is definitely an overlap between health and medical tourism, which has been discussed by many scholars (Smith and Puczko, 2009; Harahshesh, 2002; Cornnell, 2006; Thelen and Travers, 2007; Helmy, 2011), the difference though between the use of terms "health and medical tourism" is based mainly on the type of intervention on the body (Cook, 2008). Health tourism aims to improve tourists' health status by relaxing in spa or providing alternative treatments, whereas medical tourism implies diagnosis, hospitalization and surgical operations to improve or restore health in the long term (Connell, 2006). Helmy, (2011: 294), defines health tourism as "travel for a wide range of health and wellbeing purposes such as healthcare, health assessment, surgery and operation, plastic surgeries, beauty, healing, cure, rehabilitation and convalescence, combined with leisure, recreational and cultural activities at the visited destination." Health Tourism in the broadest sense is defined

as the participation of tourists in private health care plans or programs related to health and hygiene at affordable prices and in collaboration with the tourism industry. Health Tourism refers to the prevention, retention, treatment, recovery and restoration of health with modern medical methods or natural methods, while combining rest, relaxation and entertainment. The basic idea is the physical, mental, spiritual and emotional rejuvenation of the individual away from the daily routine in a beautiful relaxing environment (Ford and Fottler, 2000).

The main aspects of health tourism can be distinguished in 'medical tourism' that appeals to tourists - patients that usually make use of specialized services of medical monitoring and treatment, and the 'wellness tourism', where the focus is balanced between medical treatment and tourism, and appeals to tourists who wish to enrich their holidays with services to improve or preserve their health (SPA, thalassotherapy, hydrotherapy) and all such activities are practiced under medical supervision. In the latter category falls the traditional 'spa tourism' (Ford and Fottler, 2000). Helmy, (2011: 296), introduces also the term wellness tourism, where the focus is on physical, body and spirit rejuvenation employing the "feel good" approach such as body pampering (for example herbal bath/mud bath), beauty and facial treatments, fitness programs such as massage, water exercise, sauna and thallassotherapy.

Medical or therapeutic tourism medical can be defined as travel to destinations to undergo medical treatments such as surgery or other specialist interventions (Smith and Puczko, 2009: 101) and refers to the primary and secondary sector of health services that are provided by established public or private organizations of the Ministry of Health and Social Solidarity to domestic or foreign citizens, where part of the services rely on the infrastructure or facilities that are provided by operators in the tourism industry (Leahy et al., 1995). There are three main groups of people who choose to travel abroad and stay in Health Tourism Centres (Leahy et al., 1995):

• People who choose to combine their travel on tourism and holiday with other reasons of preventive medicine and therapeutic treatment in the mental health sector that contribute to wellness and inner balance.

• People seeking specialized medicine and in general therapeutic recovery treatments of temporary or chronic disabilities alongside their holidays or other forms of tourism.

• People that because of chronic or special health problems such as: kidney failure, organ transplantation, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), chronic alcoholism - detoxification, rheumatism -

orthopaedic diseases, diabetes, neurological, haematological and cardiological syndromes, cancer patients after radiation and chemotherapy, in practice are unable to go on holidays or to exercise other forms of tourism are excluded from the conventional forms of the tourism businesses and choose therefore to be directed to a facility that provides all the health services they need, but in an environment that its atmosphere does not resemble to a hospital.

In Greece, in an era of economic crisis, severe efforts are planned for the reinforcement of medical tourism, despite the fact that medical tourism initiatives and effects have not yet been measured. The purpose of this research was to investigate the tourist industry's satisfaction with medical tourism, since there are no similar studies in the specific field. More specifically, the study aims at identifying the dynamic of the field, its potential in relation to the Greek tourism industry, as well as the factors associated with its performance improvement and its growth in the country.

Greece can and should establish the conditions to achieve the goals for the development of medical tourism, ensuring the high quality standards of the provided services and to create an 'identity' of international acceptance, according to which the country will be recognized and distinguished, taking into consideration its cultural, natural and geographical advantages.

THE ROLE OF E-MEDICAL TOURISM INTERMEDIARIES

Internet is of special interest to the tourism industry, since websites may be the first and only contact with the potential customers (Katsoni and Kavoura, 2013). The hotel industry has realized the importance of the internet as an innovative distribution channel for disseminating information on products and services, for online purchases and for opportunity to communicate directly with e-consumers (Katsoni and Venetsanopoulou, 2012). The adoption of new technologies in rapidly improving health care systems in some key countries is a key issue in order to become an important global destination. India for example, has upgraded and imported technology, absorbed western medical protocols and emphasized low cost and prompt attention, but also advertised as important the links to its highly successful IT industry (Connell, 2006:1095). Deliberate marketing of medical tourism has as a result a globalization of health services' (Levett, 2005: 27), and advertisements for medical tourism invariably stress technology, quality reliability, and overseas training.

The rise of the Internet and the access to price information has facilitated growth in medical tourism, but also helped in the emergence of a third party intermediary (rather than being directly referred or receiving informal recommendations from a domestic consultant) and this emergence of new companies, "that are not health specialists, but brokers between international patients and hospital networks" Connell, 2006: 1095), act as advisers and help the consumer/patient select, negotiate and access health care abroad (Crooks, et al. 2010; Cormany and Baloglu, 2010). The need for the creation of these intermediaries mainly stems from medical tourists' lack of the technical knowledge to assess the quality and appropriateness of care and may struggle with a foreign language or navigating a different health system (Legido-Quigley et al., 2008). Thus, several medical tourism companies have differentiated themselves from their competitors by consistently managing to attract news coverage and by developing social media strategies that take advantage of free marketing opportunities provided by social media such as YouTube, Facebook, and Twitter (Turner, 2012) and in many cases, the main source of information on quality is provided by a consumer friendly website created by intermediary organizations (Lunt et al., 2010), which provides reassurance about the quality of treatments and the qualifications and competences of foreign providers and individual clinicians. Services provided by these e-medical tourism intermediaries, range from information about health care regulation, qualifications and special competences and other forms of specialization of the individual and/or public host country's providers, to typical travel agents' tasks, such as booking of hotels and flights according to the client's special requirements. Sometimes, special tailor- made surgical packages are offered, according to the medical market of the country of destination. These e-medical tourism intermediaries can be specialized travel agencies, electronic medical tourism guides (e.g. treatmentabroad.net) and specialized e-journals (e.g. International Medical Travel Journal-imtjonline.com). Network creation between hotels offering special services for medical tourists is also developed, as for example StarHospitals network) and these services can be included in the above mentioned services of e-medical tourism intermediaries.

It is difficult for most medical tourism companies however, to keep pace with the evolution of new technologies, the emergence of innovative advertising strategies, the changes in the consumer market, limited financial and human resources and the growing competition due to increasing globalization, and all these aspects impact the way medical

tourism destinations are promoted and developed. An example of this keen competition is the case of medical tourism companies in Canada, which were operating with distinct business models, and exhibiting varying degrees of business savvy and marketing sophistication, but, nevertheless, they failed despite widespread claims about the rapid growth of medical travel and the emergence of a global marketplace for health services; approximately half of all medical tourism companies established in Canada since 2004 are no longer in business (Turner, 2012, 2011). Keen competition and unregulation in the information provided through the medical tourism intermediaries are maybe the most possible threats in the latter's existence and function.

MATERIAL & METHODS

The survey was conducted nationwide through the use of a questionnaire given to 337 five- star hotels in Greece as well as to 28 member companies of the Hellenic Association of Professional Congress Organizers (HAPCO). Our focus was on non-cosmetic surgery and medical treatment. In this case, tourists sought sophisticated, often technologically advanced services that were typically not available in their home countries. The questionnaire was based on international literature with adjustments to the Greek reality. At first, a pilot survey was conducted so that the initial questionnaire would be corrected and rendered perfectly understandable. The pilot survey took place at 3 hotels and 2 member companies of the Hellenic Association of Professional Congress Organizers (HAPCO). The questionnaire was emailed to responders and it was sent back the same way. The questionnaire was based on international literature with adjustments to the Greek reality and consisted of 3 parts. The first part included questions regarding the demographic data of the population, the second part contained general questions regarding the executives' opinion on matters like the possible economic influence of medical tourism in the local community, the standards of the infrastructure on various types of activities, the possible state funding and the third included specific questions concerning the satisfaction of the medical tourism performance, the information given to tourists linked with medical tourism issues and in which type of medical tourism the country should invest in the future.

Descriptive and econometric analyses have been performed. The performance satisfaction with medical tourism has been used as the dependent variable. Tourism companies' satisfaction with their performance in medical tourism has been used as the dependent variable,

while staff training and local community support were used as the independent variables. Variables are expressed on a Likert scale of ascending order categories (1: Little, 2: Moderately, 3: Very, 4: Highly) and ordinal logistic regression was employed for the econometric analysis due to the ordinal nature of the variable.

RESULTS

According to our findings, 177 hotel and 15 members of HAPCO executives responded and completed the questionnaire, corresponding to a 52.5% and 53.6% response rate respectively.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics

	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Female	40	20,8%
Male	152	79,2%
Age		
20-35	38	19,8%
36-45	72	37,5%
46-55	76	39,6%
56+	6	3,1%
Education		
High school -college	12	6,3%
University	105	54,7%
Master	75	39,1%
Family status		
Single	41	21,4%
Married	140	72,9%
Widow	2	1,0%
Divorced	9	4,7%
Position		
Owner	67	35,3%
tour-operator	4	2,1%

Executives	113	59,5%
Other	6	3,2%

Based on the descriptive analysis, the sample characteristics are presented in Table 1. According to table 1, the ratio of female and male respondents is 20.8% and 79.2% respectively. 39.6% has an age between 46 and 55 years old, 37.5% is between the age of 36 and 45 years old, 19.8% is between the age of 20 -35 years old and the rest 3.1% is above the age of 56 years old. Regarding the issue of education 54.7% of the respondents have a University degree, 39.1% have a master degree and the rest 6.3% is a graduate of either a high-school or a college. On the issue of family status, 72.9% of the respondents is married, 21.4% is single, 4.7% is divorced and the rest 1% is widow. Finally, 59.5% of the respondents are executives, 35.3% are the owners of the hotel, 2.1% are tour operators and the rest 3.2% gave a different answer.

In table 2 the level of tourist information on issues of medical tourism is presented. The table shows that almost half of the responders (43.3%=10%+27.2%+6.1%) considered at least moderate the information given to tourists on issues of medical tourism while 45% considered that the amount of information is not enough. Also 11.7% of the respondents refused to answer or they did not have an opinion on the specific issue. It is obvious that the employees are divided on this issue which could be interpreted as a sign that the level of tourist information on issues of medical tourism should and can be improved not only by increasing the quantity of the information given but improving also the quality of the information.

Table 2. Level of tourist information on issues of medical tourism

	Frequency	Percent
Little	81	45.0
Moderate	18	10.0
A Lot	49	27.2
Very much	11	6.1
I don't know/refuse to answer	21	11.7
Total	180	100.0

The level of personnel training on issues of medical tourism is presented in table 3. Almost half of the responders (46%) evaluated at low level the personnel training on issues of medical tourism while 45.4% evaluated the training as at least sufficient. Also 8.6% of the respondents refused to answer or they did not have an opinion on the specific issue. It is obvious that the executives are divided on this issue which could be interpreted as a sign that the level of personnel training on issues of medical tourism should and can be improved by increasing not only the time of training but also improving the quality of the training.

Table 3. Personnel training on issues of medical tourism

	Frequency	Percent
Little	86	46.0
Moderate	20	10.7
A Lot	52	27.8
Very much	13	7.0
I don't know/refuse to answer	16	8.6
Total	187	100.0

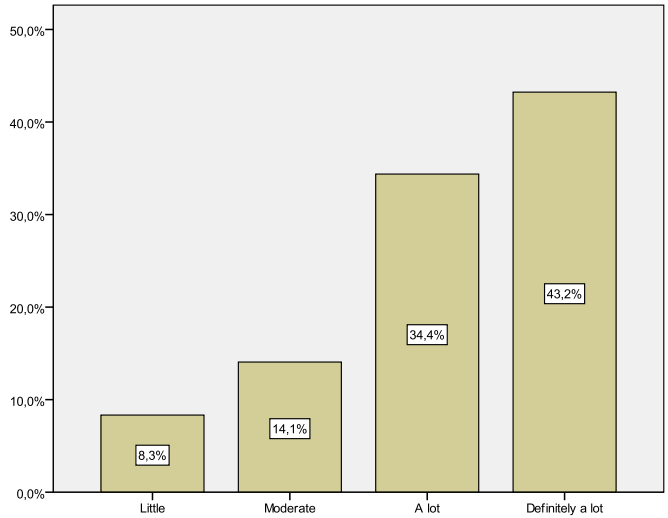

Figure 1. Ability of local community to support medical tourism

According to figure 1, it seems that the majority of the executives (91.7%) evaluated highly this ability and only 8.3% evaluated at a low level. They also stated that the local community is ready to support medical tourism if it has the chance to do so.

In table 4 the performance satisfaction with medical tourism is also presented. The majority of the executives (58.7%) has a low level of satisfaction while 29.3% are at a medium level satisfied. Also 12% of them refused to answer or they did not have an opinion on the specific issue. It can be noticed from above that the degree of satisfaction is low regarding the performance of medical tourism in Greece.

Table 4. The performance satisfaction with medical tourism

	Frequency	Percent
Little	108	58.7
Moderate	32	17.4
A Lot	20	10.9
Very much	2	1.1
I don't know/refuse to answer	22	12.0
Total	184	100.0

In table 5 the results of the econometric analysis are presented. The econometric analysis indicates that the likelihood of being satisfied with medical tourism in the company is positively associated with personnel training on medical tourism (OR=1.84). Additionally, the higher the ability of the local community to support medical tourism, the lower the likelihood of tourism companies to be satisfied with medical tourism (OR=0. 29). Both McFaddenR2 (0.2273) and Likelihood Ratio Tests ($p<0.001$), are satisfactory.

It is revealed that the ability of local community to support medical tourism affects in a statistical significant level the degree of satisfaction ($p=0.000$). The same applies for the personnel training on medical tourism ($p=0.014$). Moreover the direction of influence for the personnel training is positive while for the ability of local community to support medical tourism is negative.

Regarding the index McFadden R2 = 0.2273 (satisfactory values above 0.20), and the pLikelihood Ratio Test<0.001, the model can be considered at least sufficient. Moreover on the basis of Link Test, the

model does not have any specifications error since phat<0.05, phat2>0.05.

Table 5. Multiple logistic Regression
(The performance satisfaction with medical tourism)

	OR	**Std. Err.**	**z**	**P>z**	**95% Confidence Interval**	
Personnel training on medical tourism	1.844512	.4597647	2.46	0.014	1.131645	3.006442
Ability of local community to support medical tourism	.295038	.0745383	-4.83	0.000	.179817	.4840891

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the performance satisfaction with medical tourism in Greece. Therefore a nationwide survey was carried out which aimed to the population consisted of all the 5-star hotels across the country and the companies-members of the Hellenic Association of Professional Congress Organizers (HAPCO). Despite the fact that the majority of the executives evaluated highly the ability of local community to support medical tourism, the level of satisfaction was stated low regarding the performance of medical tourism in Greece. An explanation behind this low rated satisfaction might be due to the executives' belief that medical tourism has not been satisfactorily exploited in a professional way in the country. Initial indications regarding the lack of professionalism seem to be the low rate evaluations of personnel training on issues of medical tourism.

Furthermore, the personnel training on issues of medical tourism along with the tourist information given on issues of medical tourism was evaluated below average. This result indicates that the environment for investing in medical tourism is fruitful if the right choices will be done. The support of the local community which is the most important factor has a strong presence, suitable therefore environment for investments.

Meanwhile, the level of tourist information on issues of medical tourism has some problems that must and can be improved in the future, not only by increasing the quantity of the information given but also improving the quality of the information. Even though executives believe that the local community is in favour and supportive of medical tourism, it seems that executives are dissatisfied from the government and tourism decision makers' performance. It should be also noted that our finding regarding the low level of the executives' satisfaction was almost expected, since decision making in medical tourism always refers in the political agenda without the proposed measures and legislation being finally enacted and realised.

The authors argue that the medical industry also needs active promotional programmes and government support in terms of ICTs implementation and that a cohesive effort by the various sectors like travel, tourism and healthcare will further give an impetus to the upcoming industry.

CONCLUSIONS

The outcome from the whole analysis was that tourism companies' satisfaction is low regarding the performance of medical tourism in Greece. Training is a key factor in boosting staff skills and increasing the share of medical tourism in the company's turnover. Moreover, the high level of staff training is expected to increase satisfaction and improve the quality of the medical tourism services provided. High class hotels have the ability and the relevant infrastructure to develop it, provided that the whole ICT infrastructure integrates successfully in the organizational fabric of medical tourism businesses. Network creation and cooperation among all relevant medical tourism stakeholders, public and private, is necessary, in order to coordinate efforts for the successful development of this particular tourism destination.

Obviously, medical tourism in Greece should constitute an important source of national income and consequently, an alternative for the country to exit the economic crisis. Since, medical tourism has been very recently prioritized in the political agenda and given that there is a positive willingness to invest in this field, further research is needed on their potential impact on the national economy.

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ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM ON LOCALS' PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

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Since engagement of locals plays a key role in the success of any tourism development, understanding how residents perceive sustainable tourism and the ways it is influenced by their perception about environmental impacts of tourism provides researchers, administrators and service providers in tourism sector with invaluable insights. Thus, the current research vies to contribute to the knowledge concerning how local residents in Perhentian and Redang Islands in Malaysia perceive environmental impacts of tourism and the importance of sustainable tourism. Study results reveals that the highest concern about the environmental impacts of tourism was perceived for landscape, air quality, and water quality, respectively. Moreover, by investigating the causal link between perception towards six major environmental impacts of tourism and the perceived importance of sustainable tourism, it was found that only environmental impacts of tourism on air quality and landscape significantly influenced local residents' perceptions about the importance of sustainable tourism.

Keywords: *Environmental impacts, sustainable tourism, locals' perceptions, tourism development, Malaysia*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Despite the numerous economic advantages of tourism, it is also a controversial part of the global sustainable development and climate

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change issue, due to the increasing environmental problems caused by the tourism and its development. Further development of tourism industry is claimed to cause changes to the natural resources (Clarke, 2005). Since the concept of sustainability has its roots in environmentalism (Liu, 2003), the perceived negative environmental impacts of tourism is likely to cause local residents to oppose the conventional tourism development and encourage them to support sustainable tourism development. While earlier studies have investigated the environmental impacts of tourism (e.g., Becken, 2004; Becken, 2007; Park, and Boo, 2010), the role of the perceived environmental impacts of tourism on how local residents think about the importance of sustainable tourism has not been examined. Since many of the recent development processes engage local community, involvement of locals has been recognized as a key component of effective tourism planning (Chambers, 2002; Wates, 2000). The way local residents perceive the importance of sustainable tourism can influence future changes and plans in the local tourism sector. Hence, this paper has the following objectives:

1) To identify local residents' perceptions in regard to environmental impacts of tourism on two local islands in Malaysia
2) To examine the link between perceived environmental impacts of tourism and the perceived importance of sustainable tourism

The current study is important as it provided some contributions to the tourism research by presenting data about the environmental impacts of tourism and the importance of sustainable tourism from the perception of local residents in a developing country, which tends to be underrepresented in the literature (Tosun, 2001), as majority of studies on community support for tourism have been conducted in the developed and industrialized countries (Nunkoo, and Gursoy, 2012). Moreover, sustainable development has become a buzzword in development studies in general and in tourism research in particular. Hence, examining the link between the perceived environmental impacts of the tourism and the importance of sustainable tourism can contribute to formulating future theoretical underpinning to explain the local engagement in tourism development. Additionally, this study examined the environmental impacts of tourism by addressing six major categories affected by tourism development, namely "vegetation", "soil, sand and rock", "water quality", "air quality", "landscape", and "wildlife". Thus, a better picture of the perceived environmental impacts of tourism by the local residents was presented.

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ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM

The increasing growth of tourism industry, which is expected to reach a volume of 1.6 billion tourists worldwide by 2020, causes some negative impacts on local communities. Other than the prevailing problems of congestion, overcrowding, and noise (Adams, 2009; Bithas, and Christofakis, 2006; McDonald, 2007), tourism development also adversely influences environment which affects the quality of life for local residents. Thus, locals might have a negative impression towards tourism development. The study by Bonimy (2011) investigated the residents' perceptions of environmental impacts of tourism in city centre of Pigeon Forge, Tennessee, and revealed that despite the positive perceptions towards the impacts of tourism on public facilities and the area's appearance, tourism was perceived to have negative environmental impacts through causing poor air quality and destroying the natural environment in the region. In contrast, AndereckandValentineandKnopf and Vogt (2005) assessed the residents' perceptions of tourism's impacts on communities and found that while individuals were aware of the certain negative impacts of tourism, especially on the community environment, most of them regarded tourism as positively affecting their local community in some other aspects.

Similarly, Perez and Nadal (2005) indicated that local residents in the Balearic Islands of Spain were cognizant of both the positive and negative effects of tourism and showed ambivalent reaction towards different development strategies in the region. Moreover, some of the other studies have also examined the effects of tourism on environment from the perspective of local residents (e.g., Chen, 2000; Chen, 2001; McGehee, and Andereck, 2004). In an attempt to explain the environmental sustainability of four tourism enterprises in South Africa, Spenceley (2005) conducted field-based evaluations and interviews with representatives of the local community. She evolved a toolkit for evaluating the sustainable tourism in the context of southern Africa. The toolkit was then used to evaluate the enterprise performance. Additionally, Amuquandoh (2010) examined the residents' perceptions of the environmental impacts of tourism in Lake Bosomtwe Basin in Ghana and found that although both positive and negative impacts of tourism development were indicated by locals, they perceived the positive impacts to be more prevalent.

In two studies in the Chinese context, ShiandWu and He (2002) constructed a model of air quality impacts of tourism and SongandWei and Liang (2003) investigated the CO2 content and temperature changes

caused by visitors in a cave-tourism destination. HuangandWall and Bao (2007) conducted a comparative review of the research on environmental impacts of tourism through investigating the English and Chinese Literatures which offers a helpful review of earlier studies conducted in those contexts.

METHODOLOGY

Research questions

This study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1) What is the perception of local residents about the environmental impacts of tourism?
2) Does perception towards environmental impacts of tourism influence the local residents' perceived importance of sustainable tourism?

Survey instrument

The required data for this study was collected through a structured questionnaire. Environmental impacts of tourism was measured in 6 key areas, including the impacts of tourism on "vegetation", "soil, sand and rock", "water quality", "air quality", "landscape", and "wildlife", comprising of 17 items in total. Additionally, in the current study, sustainable tourism was considered as "tourism developed and maintained in an area in such a manner and at such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment in any way that might prohibit the successful development and wellbeing of other activities and processes" (UN ESCAP, 2001: 49). Thus, the perceived importance of sustainable tourism (PIST) was assessed using the following item: "Development of accommodation premises and other structures of tourism should be controlled and monitored by the relevant authorities for sustainable development." A 5-point Likert scale was applied for measuring respondents' agreement to each of the reflective items. Items of the survey were all extracted from Mathieson and Wall (1982). The nature of the items measuring environmental impacts of tourism was negative. Thus, a higher score on those items indicated a higher negative environmental impact.

Sample, data collection, and analysis

The study survey was distributed among residents in two common tourist islands in Malaysia, namely Perhentian Island and Redang Island. The Perhentian Island (known as Pulau Perhentian in the local language) is located off the northeastern coast of West Malaysia, and is a common tourist destination in Malaysia. Besides, Redang Island (known as Pulau Redang in the local language) is one of the largest islands off the east coast of Malaysia and offers numerous snorkelling and diving opportunities to tourists.

Overall, 183 local residents in Perhentian Island and 188 local residents is Redang Island took part in the study. Hence, a total of 371 responses were collected and used in analysis. There were only very few missing values, which were imputed using Expectation Maximization (EM) in SPSS, as it provides better results than other imputation techniques such as listwise, pairwise data deletion, and mean substitution (Allison, 2002; Rubin, 1978). To analyze the collected data, Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) was utilized as this technique is better suited for exploration and prediction, and is not confined with assumptions of the multivariate normality of data, skewness, multicollinearity, and specification error (CasselandHackl, and Westlund, 1999; Diamantopoulos, and Siguaw, 2000; RingleandGötzandWetzels, and Wilson, 2009). The predictive relevance of the study model was measured using the Stone-Geisser criterion (Q2) through the blindfolding procedure (HenselerandRingle, and Sinkovics, 2009) in SmartPLS 2.0 M3 software (RingleandWende, and Will, 2005). The computed cross-validated redundancy values for all constructs were above the threshold value of zero, which indicated the good predictive relevance of the structural model.

The measurement and structural models were validated using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) performed in SmartPLS 2.0 M3 (Ringle et al., 2005). This resulted in discarding one item which did not have a high loading under its respective construct. All the remaining items strongly loaded (>= 0.65) on their corresponding factors indicating convergent validity. Moreover, there were no issues of high cross-loading (the cross-loadings of most of the items were below 0.6), demonstrating discriminant validity (Gefen, and Straub, 2005). Moreover, the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) for each of the reflective constructs was larger than its correlation with all the other constructs, confirming the discriminant validity. Additionally, reliability of

constructs were evaluated and confirmed through measuring both Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability.

RESULTS

Demographic distribution

Majority of respondents were male, married, and aged between 25 and 59 years. Table 1 summarizes the demographic profile of the respondents.

Table 1. Demographic Summary of Respondents (N = 371)

	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	304	81.94
Female	67	18.06
Age		
15-24 years	42	11.32
25-59 years	302	81.40
60-74 years	27	7.28
Level of Education		
Not Enrolled	21	5.66
Primary School	110	29.65
High School	219	59.03
Diploma / Degree	21	5.66
Marital Status		
Single	45	12.13
Married	314	84.64
Widow / Widower	12	3.24
Race		
Malay	366	98.65
Chinese	2	0.54
German	1	0.27
Iban	1	0.27
Filipino	1	0.27

Perceived environmental impacts of tourism

Investigating the perception of local residents regarding the environmental impacts of tourism indicated that on average local residents were mostly concerned with the negative impacts of tourism on landscape, air quality, and water quality, respectively. Moreover, the least level of concern about the environmental impacts of tourism was observed for the soil, sand and rock. Table 2 provides the results of the descriptive statistics for the perceived environmental impacts of tourism by the local residents in the two investigated islands.

Table 2. Perceptions of Local Residents about the Environmental Impacts of Tourism

Construct	Mean	Standard Deviation
Impacts of Tourism on Vegetation (VEG)	3.59	0.96
Perceived Impacts of Tourism on Soil, Sand and Rock (SSR)	3.50	1.09
Perceived Impacts of Tourism on Water Quality (WQ)	3.76	0.97
Perceived Impacts of Tourism on Air Quality (AQ)	3.78	1.07
Perceived Impacts of Tourism on Landscape (LND)	3.79	0.85
Perceived Impacts of Tourism on Wildlife (WL)	3.76	1.00

Influence of perceived environmental impacts of tourism on perceived importance of sustainable tourism

This study found that among the six categories of the perceived environmental impacts of tourism, only perceived impacts of tourism on air quality and landscape significantly influenced the locals' perceptions regarding the importance of sustainable tourism. The perception towards the negative impacts of tourism on both air quality and landscape resulted in an increase in the awareness of local residents about the importance of sustainable tourism and controlling tourism development as a way to ensure the sustainable development of the community (Table 3).

Table 3. Results of PLS SEM Analysis

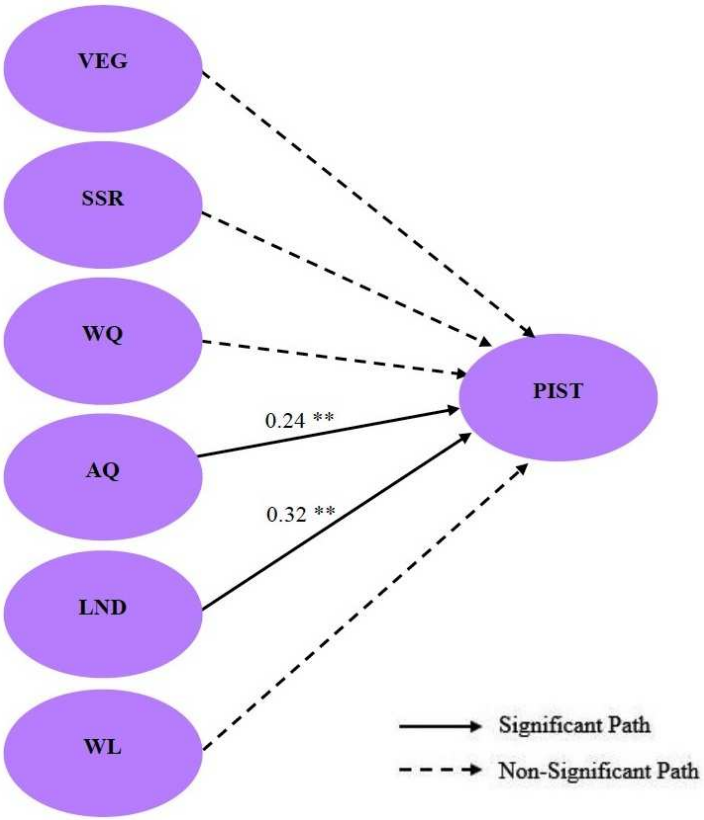
Relationship	Sample Mean	Path Coefficient	T Statistics
AQ → PIST	0.235	0.238	3.711 **
LND → PIST	0.319	0.318	4.087 **
SSR → PIST	-0.071	-0.072	1.119
VEG → PIST	0.051	0.051	0.692
WL → PIST	0.037	0.034	0.422
WQ → PIST	-0.025	-0.031	0.522

Note 1: Two-Tailed Level of Confidence: * (95%): t => 1.96; ** (99%): t => 2.58
Note 2: PIST: Perceived Importance of Sustainable Tourism

Overall, the perceived environmental impacts of tourism could explain 17.7% of the variation in the perceived importance of sustainable tourism. Additionally, among the two significant exogenous latent variables contributing to the perceived importance of sustainable tourism, perceived impacts of tourism on landscape played a more important role than perceived impacts of tourism on air quality. It was found that one unit increase in the "perceived impacts of tourism on landscape" resulted in 0.32 points increase for the endogenous latent variable "perceived importance of sustainable tourism" in a (static) ceteris-paribus assessment of results. Moreover, one unit increase in "perceived impacts of tourism on air quality" led to 0.24 points increase in endogenous latent variable "perceived importance of sustainable tourism" in a (static) ceteris-paribus assessment of results. Figure 1 shows the results of the path modelling.

Overall, it was found that the perception of local residents towards the environmental impacts of tourism could partially influence their perceived importance of sustainable tourism.

Figure 1. PLS Path Modelling Results



DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Findings of this study enhanced the understanding about the perceptions of local residents about the environmental impacts of tourism. Involving the opinions of the host community is an inevitable part of any effort towards the development of sustainable tourism (Abdollahzadeh, and Sharifzadeh, 2012). Besides, environment is one of the main domains in which residents should assess the potential effects of tourism before deciding to embrace or reject it (Amuquandoh, 2010). Thus, this study can help to predict future reactions and behaviours of local residents in

the two investigated islands towards the tourism development in the region.

The findings of this study could provide insights for authorities and NGO representatives involved in protecting environment and supporting the sustainable development through shedding light on how the local residents' perception of tourism environmental impacts influences their perceived importance of sustainable tourism. Although this study showed that local residents are mostly aware of the negative environmental impacts of tourism, only the adverse impacts of tourism on the quality of the air they breathe and the natural landscape of their habitat were found to significantly influence their concern for sustainable tourism. Thus, there is a need for enhancing the local residents' awareness regarding the importance of sustainable tourism to proactively demand sustainability in tourism development projects to minimize its negative harms on the environment.

As residents are one of the major stakeholders in the tourism development process, engagement of local residents is crucial in the success of any development plan. Thus, raising awareness among local residents can enhance their advocacy level and encourage them to voice out their concerns for the negative environmental impacts of tourism which can ultimately ensure a sustainable conduct of tourism development plans and constructions.

This study was besieged by only examining the negative environmental impacts of tourism development. While other aspects of tourism impacts could also influence the perception of local residents towards the importance of sustainable tourism, the current research merely investigated the environmental impacts. Although this limits the study scope, Kuvan and Akan (2005) indicated that residents tend to develop more sensitivity to, and concern for problems originating from the negative environmental impacts of tourism than its other impacts.

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INFRASTRUCTURE INFLUENCE ON TOURIST MOVEMENTS IN MELAKA

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This study presents the type and infrastructure elements that contribute to the movement of tourists in the Heritage City of Melaka, Malaysia. The Tourist Movement Infrastructure framework has been proposed to study the infrastructure elements that influence the tourist movements. Questionnaires were used as a medium to obtain feedback from tourists. Data was analyzed from the 197 feedback obtained from domestic and international tourists. Factor analysis and regression analysis are used to achieve the study objectives. This study introduces infrastructure elements that could affect the tourist movements in historical areas and may be applied in historical areas that have similar geographical characteristics. Particularly, the main infrastructure that affects tourist movement is accessibility. Overall, These results of this study can help the decision makers of Melaka historic areas to improve the provision of infrastructure accessibility in the study area.

Keywords: *Tourism infrastructure, Tourist Movement, Heritage Site.*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

A number of authors, including Gunn (1988) and Inskeep (1991), have cited that the infrastructure base of a country is a potential determinant of the attractiveness of a tourism destination. Infrastructure forms an integral part of the tourism package and is at times viewed as the prime mover for the many other economic sectors. Smith (1994) was among the first to acknowledge the role of service infrastructure in creating a product experience. Meanwhile, cities that exist as a result of history and great civilization have always conserved their buildings and

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city's culture as a historical attraction. Athens, Barcelona and Kazan Kremlin are the heritage destinations of choice around the world that display great architectural uniqueness, heritage attractions and culture that are preserved to this day. These buildings and cultural relics of the past is a place that provides visitors with a story about the society, its traditions, and its past (World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2012). However, the existence of these attractions is incomplete without the convenience of facilities and services to enhance the comfort and accessibility of tourists during their vacation (Gunn, 1972 as cited by Lee, 2009). Hence the question is, what type of facilities are required by tourists while visiting a heritage destination? This question involves the tourist motivation to visit a historical area. According to Lee (2009), exploring heritage attractions is one of the main reasons for tourists to visit historical sites. It involves tourist movements at heritage sites. Most previous researches such as Lew and McKercher (2006), Rahman, Ismail and Wai (2011) and Liu, Tzu-How Chu, and Chang (2013) studied on the spatial tourist movement and focused on the shape of movement produced, besides the factors that affect tourist movements. However, less attention was given to the tourist needs in order for them to move from one attraction to another. Xia (2007) stated that these researches involving tourist movements could help tourist organizations to improve infrastructure and facilities management. Hence this study aims to expand the research scope involving tourist movements and studying the infrastructure provision required by tourists when they explore the historic areas.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism Infrastructure Affecting Tourist Movements

There is a variety of infrastructure provided for the convenience of tourists. However, three types of infrastructure have been identified to affect the movement of tourists to reach a destination. The first is the public facilities which are a facility that benefits the public, and is to be used whether with payment or otherwise (Center for Inclusive Design and Environmental Access (IDEA), 2013). These facilities consist of public toilets, public phones, recreation, ATM machine, money changer and drinking fountains (Singh & Singh, 2007 ; IDEA, 2013). It is a type of infrastructure that is shared amongst the local residence and tourists (Nor, 2013). Research by Gunn (1972) also shows that facilities and services are elements that need to be provided by the authorities for the ease of tourists visiting a destination. The provision of public facilities is vital to

increase the comfort of tourists when they visit a tourist attraction such as the museums, monuments, heritage buildings and traditional markets. The second would be the accessibility element. This element plays an important role because it involves the movement of tourists from one destination to another. Rahman et. al (2011) stated that urban transportation is vital because it increases tourist accessibility. Hence, there is a direct relationship between accessibility and transportation at a tourist destination. Research conducted by Lew et. al (2006) discovered that transportation modes could be divided into automobiles (rented vehicles), tour company transportation (organized tours), public transport (buses, taxis, trams, trains and ferries), and walking. These transportation infrastructure utilities can increase tourist accessibility in terms of travel time and travel costs. The third factor is services and product of tourism. The tourism industry integrates with many other sectors in order to keep growing. This includes package tours, the information center and availability of guides (Singh et.al, 2007). According to Smith (1994), tourism services and products could influence tourist experiences. As coded by Pookaiyaudom (2012), these products and services are used during the trip or after; resulting to higher tourist satisfaction. On the whole, this research applies three infrastructure elements which are public facilities, accessibility and tourism products and services that affects tourist movements.

Tourist Movement

Tourist movement is an important element that needs to be considered by planners and decision makers alike. The movements of tourist are difficult to predict due to the movement being 'performed art' (Haldrup, 2004) with individualistic forms (Mckercher & Lau, 2008). This issue resulted in very few studies focusing on this subject, particularly a local level destination (Douglas, 1987; Prideaux, 2000). Studies on tourist movement within a destination will provide a better understanding on tourist behaviour and indirectly will help in the development of a tourist destination (McKercher et. al, 2008). The concept of tourist movement constructed by Lew et. al (2006) states that it is affected by two main factors which are destination and tourists. This concept is proven when a study by Rahman et. al (2011) found that tourist movement at Melaka Heritage City is affected destination factors in terms of the location of tourist attraction, shopping centres and food. However, identifying the factors alone is incomplete without further studying the

needs of tourists to move to their destinations of choice. This study intends to fill in the gap through this research.

CASE STUDY: THE MELAKA WORLD HERITAGE SITE, MALAYSIA

The heritage city status affects the destination of choice process for tourists (Crompton and Ankomah, 1993; Gartner, 1989; Goodall, 1988). Indirectly, the heritage elements provides a positive image and helps to promote a particular destination (Secondi, Meseguer-Santamaría, Mondéjar-Jiménez, & Vargas-Vargas, 2011). This research is conducted at Melaka Heritage City, Malaysia. Heritage tourism in Melaka has become known to many since Melaka was declared as a World Heritage Site in July 2008. This declaration has increased the number of tourist arrivals from year 2008 until today (Melaka Municipal City, 2011). This edition shows that Melaka offers a unique heritage product and fits the needs of tourists, other than the campaigns organized by Tourism Malaysia and the initiative by state administration. According to Lew et. al (2006), the movement of tourists is based on the attractions in an area. Melaka Heritage Site consists of three main areas that are highly visited by tourists. This includes the core zone, buffer zone, and heritage villages. However, according to the Melaka Local Planning Authority (2007) and research by Jusoh, Marzuki, & A. Hamid (2013), the focus of tourist attractions is the core zone due to the various heritage attributes such as museums, monuments, traditional crafts and heritage buildings centered in this area. Therefore, this research is focused on the infrastructure elements that contributed to the tourist movements in the core zone of the Melaka Heritage City.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study applies the quantitative method which is the questionnaires as mediums to obtain feedback from tourists regarding infrastructure and service facilities at the study area. There are three processes involved which are the construction of questions in questionnaires, data collection, and data analysis. The construction of questions for questionnaire purposes has taken into consideration the three main inputs which are the reference and thoughts of experts, previous researches, and inventories at the study area. Feedback from tourists is measured using the 5 likert-scale which are (1)Very Poor (2)Fair (3)Good (4)Very Good (5)Excellent. Previous researches show

the direct connectivity between infrastructure and tourist movement at a destination. Figure 1 shows the research framework for this study.

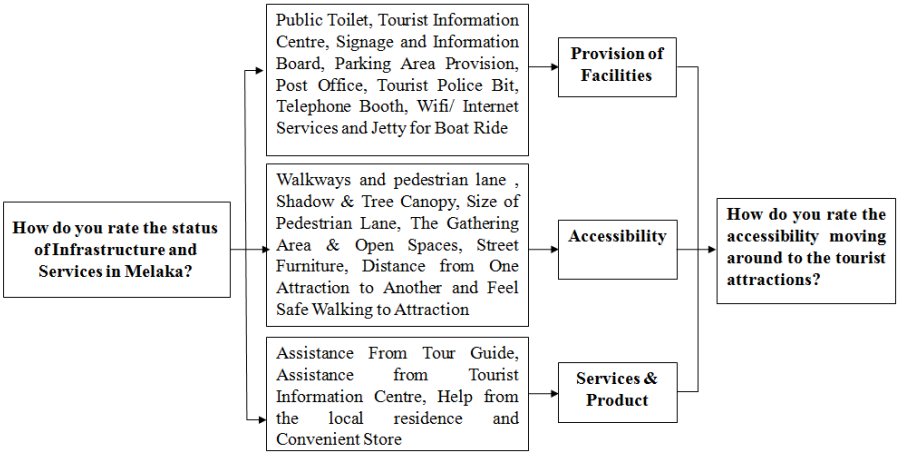

Figure 1. Research Framework

Data Collection

A total of 200 questionnaires were distributed to both domestic and international tourists. Questionnaire forms were distributed through simple random sampling (A.Lone, Rather, & Jain, 2013) at main areas that are identified to be tourist hotspots. According to the Authority (2007) and research by Jusoh et. al (2013), the main attraction for tourists in study area were at areas such as Dutch Square, The Porte De Santiago and Jonker Street. In order to obtain feedbacks that were more accurate, questionnaire forms were only given to the tourists that have visited Melaka for more than a day.

Data Analysis

There are only 197 survey forms that could be used for analysis. Three survey forms could not be analysed due to the insufficient and incomplete feedback obtained. Feedbacks from tourists were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20. Descriptive analysis was used to obtain the tourists' demographic profile. For the purpose of data reduction, factor analysis was conducted (Pallant,

2010). This was followed by reliability analysis to identify the internal consistency of the scale. And finally, the regression analysis was conducted to identify the elements that affect the movement of tourists.

RESULTS

Tourist's Demographic Profile

A total of 197 respondents were able to complete the questionnaire forms. The results show that 66.2% respondents are domestic tourists while the remaining were international respondents. The results of the descriptive analysis show that 59.6% of the respondents are female and the other 40.4% respondents are male. The dominant age group of the respondents is between 21-30 years old. This result indicates that the younger generation is interested in the history of the place. In terms of their patterns of travelling, the results point out that 46.2% of respondents are travelling with a group of friends. The majority of the respondents are return tourists. Table 1 provides a summary of the respondent's profile.

Table 1. The respondent's Demographic Profile.

PROFILE	Frequency (N = 197)	Percentage (%)
NATIONALITY		
Domestic	129	66.2
International	68	33.8
GENDER		
Male	79	40.4
Female	118	59.6
AGE		
Below 20 years old	23	11.9
21-30	112	56.7
31-40	31	15.5
41-50	14	7.2
51 years and above	17	8.8
TRAVELLING PARTNER		
Individual	12	6.1
Partner	34	17.3
Family	52	26.4
Group of Friends	91	46.2
Tourism Package	8	4.1

TYPE OF TOURIST		
Return Tourist	120	60.9
First Timers	77	39.1

Factor Analysis

The tourism infrastructure in the study area was evaluated based on 21 selected items. Factor analysis is used to determine the type of infrastructure that falls in each aspect. By using factor analysis, the construct validity of questionnaires could be tested. According to Pallant (2010), in order to identify whether the data set is suitable for factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequancy (KMO) value is .6 or above and that the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity values should be .005 or smaller. The analysis for case study shows that the KMO value is .836 and Bartlett's is significant (p= .000). The results are significant and the factor analysis may be continued. A total of 21 items have been selected for factor analysis and only 17 items are accepted as the Eigenvalues above 1. 4 items that are removed includes the tourist information centre, 24-hours convenient shop, jetty and signage and information board. Table 2 indicates the items that measure the public facilities, accessibility, product and services.

Table 2. The Factor Analysis: Components of Satisfaction Variables

Scale Item	Factor Loadings	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cum %	Cronbach Alpha Value
Factor 1: Public Facilities	.794				
Post Office	.719				
Tourist Police Bit	.648	3.707	17.650	17.650	.773
Public Phone	.597				
Wi-Fi	.586				
Parking Spaces	.481				
Public Toilet					

Factor 2: Accessibility					
Pedestrian Walkways	.638				
Width	.629				
Feel Safe	.609	3.199	15.232	32.88	.759
Street Furniture	.592			2	
Open Spaces	.525				
Pedestrian Walkways	.514				
Distance Of Attractions	.508				
Tree Shades					
Factor 3: Product & Services	.768				
Help From The Local	.744				
Residence		2.801	13.336	46.21	.791
Assistance From A Tour	.678			9	
Guide					
Assistance From Tourist	.624				
Information Center					
Attitude & Culture Of					
Local Residence					

Factors affecting tourist movements in the study area

Further analysis is conducted in order to identify the infrastructure that affects the movement of tourists that visit the historical sites in Melaka. Table 3 shows the results of regression analysis. The findings from this analysis shows that the amount of variance explained by these variables was 13.6% (R2 = 0.136, df = 3, F = 7.301, p < 0.000). This was an acceptable predictive strength and it was significant. From this model, the specific variables revealed to make a significant unique contribution to tourist movement is accessibility.

Table 3. Regression model

Type of Infrastructure	Beta	*p*
Public Facilities	-.001	.990
Accessibility	**.338**	**.001**
Tourism Services	.058	.556

$R = 0.369$, $R^2 = 0.136$, df = 3, $F = 7.301$, $p < 0.000$

DISCUSSIONS

This paper studies the infrastructure that affects the tourist movements in Melaka Heritage City. Three types of infrastructure that has been identified to affect the movements include the public facilities, accessibility and tourism services (IDEA, 2013; Gunn, 1972; Rahman et. al, 2011; Lew et. al, 2006). However, feedback from tourists at the study area shows that the most important element required for their movement is accessibility. Israeli et. al (2010) states that transportation accessibility is vital for tourist movements at a heritage city. For this study, transportation elements that were taken into account is the mode of tourist movements. This mode of tourist movements will determine the level of tourist accessibility to an area. In Melaka, the main transportation mode in the core zone of the heritage area is by walking (Jusoh et. al, 2013). This is influenced by tourist attraction factors that are positioned at walking distances. Other than the distance factor, the congestion issue (Authority, 2007) becomes a main constraint that discourages tourists to use other transportation elements available. Therefore, the results from this study presses upon the pedestrian walkway aspects in terms of provision level and size, together with the location distance of tourist attractions that affects tourist movements (Refer Table 2).

Besides that, the results from this study shows safety items to be among the elements of accessibility. Maslow's theory of psychology could be related to safety items as it could affect a tourist decision. Therefore, the relation between safety and tourist movements could be translated in the form of criminal activity level at a destination. In Melaka, tourist safety is guaranteed by the police patrol conducted from time to time and the use of closed-circuit television (CCTV). Through inventories, there are 7 CCTVs identified in the study area and is located at main tourist attractions such as Jalan Hang Jebat, Jalan Kota, Dutch Square, Porta De Santiago, Jalan Merdeka, Jalan Laksamana and Melaka River Cruise Jetty (Authority, 2007). Based on Authority (2007), focus on the provision of infrastructure is located in urban spaces for the use of tourists and the public. A complete urban spaces provision includes pedestrian walkways, signage, tree shades, lamp posts, rubbish bins and paved sidewalks. Analysis shows that these suggested items are part of the accessibility items needed by tourists such as open spaces, street furniture and tree shades.

CONCLUSIONS

In general, this research adds the tourist movement scope through the role of infrastructures. Previous research focuses on spatial tourist movements and movement concepts. However, this research focuses on the type of infrastructure that affects tourist movements. So that, this study is used as a base to expand this study on the influence of infrastructure on tourist movements. According to the literature, the three elements that affect the movement of tourists are public facilities, accessibility and tourism services. However, this research conducted at Melaka World Heritage Site shows that only the accessibility infrastructure is required by tourists to explore the heritage elements in the study area. These accessibility infrastructures consists of 7 items which pedestrian walkway width, feeling safe, street furniture, open spaces, pedestrian walkways, distance of attractions and tree shades. These provisions of accessibility items are very much needed to increase the accessibility of tourists from one place to another. Hence planners and decision makers could make these items as reference to increase tourist accessibility when visiting a historical area. This would allow for improvements on the existing facilities to enhance its quality and therefore affect the tourist satisfaction visiting the historical areas, especially so at Melaka Heritage City. In order to obtain study results that are more specific, it is suggested that the next research to be conducted according to segmentations of tourist's demographic profiles. Therefore, the need for accessibility infrastructure is more accurate in satisfying the needs of tourists.

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SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PRACTICES OF ACCOMMODATION ESTABLISHMENTS IN BULGARIA

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The goal of current paper is to identify the role of property's category, product and size on degree of application of various sustainable practices by Bulgarian accommodation establishments. Results from the Kruskal-Wallis tests show that all three factors (category, location and size) cause statistically significant differences among the accommodation establishments in Bulgaria regarding the degree of application of the sustainable tourism practices. The paper concludes that Bulgarian accommodation establishments are still in the beginning of adopting sustainable practices. Managerial implications, limitations and directions for future research are also discussed.

Keywords: *sustainable tourism; sustainable tourism practices; hotels; Bulgaria; certification*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Shaped by the Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development *'Our Common Future'* (Brundtland Report) from 1987 and *Agenda 21*, the concept of sustainability has permeated every human activity since its introduction quarter of a century ago. In field of tourism, sustainability has been embraced as a guiding principle in the management of destinations (Panakera *et al.*, 2011; Dodds & Butler, 2010), tourist enterprises in general (Swarbrooke, 1999; Weaver, 2006)

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and accommodation establishments (hotels, motels, guest houses, etc), in particular (Bohdanowicz *et al.*, 2004; Bonilla-Priego *et al.*, 2011; Carmona-Moreno *et al.*, 2004; Chan, 2012; Chan *et al.*, 2008; Cvelbar & Dwyer, 2012; Galvão *et al.*, 2011; Graci & Doods, 2008; Mihalič, 2012; Radwan *et al.*, 2010, 2012). The accommodation industry is responsible for waste pollution, increased water and energy consumption in destination areas, creating many (low paid) jobs for local residents, consumption of products and materials produced by the local community (Ivanov, 2005). Therefore, the sustainable practices in this sector are of crucial importance for the reduction of the negative impacts on the nature, and their better integration into the economic and socio-cultural environment of local communities. The importance of sustainable tourism development has even provoked some to compare it (humorously) with rocket science (Tyrrell & Johnston, 2012).

Sustainability is a sound theoretical concept, but if not practically embraced by companies, consumers, public authorities, society as a whole, it will remain just that – an attractive but theoretical concept. Accommodation establishment can adopt various sustainable practices – e.g. waste separation, effective and efficient use of water, electricity and other resources, using local products and labour, corporate social responsibility, to name just a few. However, the *degree* of application of these practices will vary greatly depending on accommodation's type, size, category, main product, location, served market segments, etc. Larger and higher category properties, for instance, generate higher revenues compared to smaller and lower category ones and, therefore, could allocate more financial resources for donations, although they do not necessarily (have to) do it. For these properties, waste treatment might be economically efficient due to the large amount of generated waste. In light of the above discussion, this paper contributes to the growing body of literature on sustainability by focusing on the *practical application* of the sustainability concept by accommodation establishments in Bulgaria. Its goal is to identify the impact of location of accommodation establishments, their size and category on the degree of application of various sustainable practices by them and pinpoint the differences that exist between the accommodation establishments in the degree of adoption of sustainable tourism practices.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sustainability and sustainable development have three dimensions – environmental, social and economic (Swarbrooke, 1999) – which are

interrelated in the triple bottom line concept (Cavagnaro & Bosker, 2007) for analysing the impacts of any economic activity, including the provision of accommodation services. Although some authors propose a 6-dimension format for the evaluation of destination sustainability by adding political, cultural and technological dimensions (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006), in current paper we consider only the environmental, social and economic dimensions as they are entirely within the control by the accommodation establishments.

Sustainability of accommodation establishments: Environmental dimension

The environmental dimension of sustainability has received an overwhelming attention in hospitality research (see for example Ayuso, 2006; Bader, 2006; Bohdanowicz, 2006; Bohdanowicz et al., 2011; Candrea & Bratucu, 2012; Chan & Lam, 2003; Karatzoglou & Spilanis, 2010; Kasim, 2009; Lee et al., 2010; Mensah, 2007; Rossello-Batle et al., 2010; Robinot & Giannelloni, 2010; Smerecnik & Andersen, 2011; Zografakis et al., 2011 to mention just a few publications in the field). Renewable energies incorporation in hotels' daily operations, the smarter water use, recycling and waste management are the main initiatives that policymakers and stakeholders put emphasis on, in order to secure the sustainability of destinations. Renewable energies are progressively installed and used in tourist destinations regardless of the geography – Baleares (Bakhat & Rosello, 2011), Crete (Tsagarakis et al., 2011; Zografakis et al., 2011), Japan (Uemura et al., 2003), Mediterranean islands (Michalena & Tripanagnostopoulos, 2010), Australia (Dalton et al., 2009), Bulgaria (Iankova, 2011). This tendency is instigated mainly by economic and climate change reasons and the improvements in efficiency of materials and technology, and will be consolidated by the rise of oil and electricity prices. The heaviest use of renewable energies is observed in the insular territories or those in mainland with an intense solar radiation, but other sources like bio-energy (Galvão et al., 2011) can be effectively and efficiently utilised in mountain areas as well.

Results from a recent study about the use of alternative energies in Bulgaria (Iankova, 2011) show that the primary reason for installation of solar systems is the high profitability hoteliers achieve during the high tourist season (the average savings from electricity bills are reported to be 30-40 %). The installation of the solar systems in the studied destination (the town of Sozopol) is somehow chaotic: the solar panels market and the producers, the specifications of the products are not well researched in

advance. The decision making process is rather spontaneous subordinated some times to irrational factors – it is accompanied by false beliefs, and some degree of ignorance about the functioning and the efficiency of the system, as well as, in some cases, wrong installation. However, the "solar fever" is continuing to spread around Bulgarian Black Sea coastal resorts based on the belief of the hoteliers that this is moneywise, worthy investment; it is "fashionable" and creates a positive image of the hotels.

Water use, its consumption patterns in tourism destination and solid waste disposal are another area closely connected to the sustainable practices in tourist accommodation (Tortella & Tirado, 2011; Kuniyal, 2005). The results related to hoteliers' behaviour towards the solid waste and water management are non-univocal (Gösling et al., 2012) and in many cases hoteliers show a neglecting attitude towards these matters. Hoteliers in rural Wales, for example, adopt evasive practices to covertly use the free of charge domestic waste stream for disposal of their solid waste (Radwan et al., 2010, 2012). Charara et al. (2011), evaluating the water consumption in Barbados, and the efforts to reduce it, found out that water conservation practices in the accommodation industry are driven mainly by potential financial benefits and guests' satisfaction. Possible measures for water use reduction would be increasing awareness, outsourcing some of the water-consuming activities, essentially laundry services, and increase the financial attractiveness of water conservation measures.

On a technical level, Jackson (2010) suggest that the construction of new generation buildings or the upgrading of the existing ones should integrate the newest environmental materials and technologies using solar or water energy, which will reduce the environmental footprint of the accommodations. According to the author studying the green lodges in US, effective green lodging should be inclusive of all functional areas within a lodging facility as well as the services offered. It is essential to help the property save energy, by choosing energy efficient facility designs, select and install energy-efficient fixtures and equipment. In order to mitigate indoor air quality, the use of eco-friendly chemicals and equipment as well as installing and maintaining appropriate filtration systems, composting and recycling are compulsory for the green lodges. Ars & Bohanec (2010) recommend similar measures for the high mountain huts in Slovenia – installation of photocell of all huts providing electricity and hot water with no emission to the environment. The solid waste, which is transported with helicopters, must be composted, and the non-organic packed for recycling, and the air transport should be

restricted, in order to reduce the carbon footprint and minimise the disturbance of the wildlife (Ars & Bohanec, 2010).

Sustainability of accommodation establishments: Social dimension

The social dimension of sustainability (Bengisu & Balta, 2011; Bohdanowicz & Zientara, 2008, 2009; Henderson, 2007) is usually related to the corporate social responsibility and it is less researched aspect of sustainability in hospitality sector compared to the environmental issues. The social dimension can be summarised by the 4 Es (Swarbrooke, 1999: 69) – equity (fair treatment of all tourism stakeholders), equal opportunities for all involved in tourism, ethics and equal partners (tourists treat tourism employees as equals not as inferiors). In this regard, in practice the social dimension of sustainability of accommodation establishments includes the fair treatment of employees by employers, provision of services and proper attitude towards people with various disabilities, regardless whether they are part of the hotel's employees or its guests. Bengisu & Balta (2011) reveal that most employers in Turkey support the view that employing people with disabilities would improve service quality and efficiency, because employees with disabilities are perceived as most determined, patient and eager to push themselves forward compared with an average employee. However, while willing to hire disabled people in theory, it is not proven that this will be the case in reality, because of the still stigmatised perception about people with disabilities in the general society. Ethical code of conduct and directives for non-discrimination of people with disabilities should be adopted in order to assure an equal opportunity for these employees.

Focusing on the social dimension of sustainable development Fortanier & Wijk (2010) analyse how foreign firms in hotel industry of Sub-Saharan Africa influence the quantity of local employment (number of jobs) and its quality (skills). The research results show rather than contributing to local human capital via training, foreign firms instead prefer to hire well-trained employees from local hotels. On more positive note are other examples such as CSR programme Omtanke implemented in Scandic hotel chain. This programme creates a favourable work climate and provides to managers, employees and guest high level of satisfaction, which ultimately reflect positively on the financial status of these hotels (Bohdanowicz & Zientara, 2008). Finally, it should be emphasised that recent research expands the concept of corporate social responsibility to

encompass environmental and economic activities as well (see for example Tamajon & Font, 2013) which blurs the difference between the corporate social responsibility and sustainability as theoretical concepts.

Sustainability of accommodation establishments: Economic dimension

The economic dimension of accommodation establishments' sustainability is related to their local economic impacts – their integration into the local economy, the use of local labour, food and materials, own production of food products by accommodation establishment. When hotels use local labour and buy food and materials from local producers their expenditures generate sales, jobs, incomes and other economic impacts for the local community (for a very detailed discussion of local economic impacts of tourism see Ivanov, 2005; Vanhove, 2011: 223-279). While tourism and hospitality industry is praised by public authorities for its employment generation, in many cases tourism development is of a core-periphery/enclave type (Mbaiwa, 2005; Nepal, 2002; Nepal & Jamal, 2011) which hinders the integration of tourism enterprises in general and hotels in particular into the local economy. The use of imported products, expatriate labour and foreign ownership of local accommodation establishments increase the leakages from local economy and decrease tourism's economic impact in the destination (Ivanov, 2005). Furthermore, tourism development may cause conflicts with other industries (agriculture, forestry) when it competes with them for resources like land, water, forests (Ahtikoski et al., 2011; Mayer & Job, 2010) but as Tao & Wall (2009) emphasise it is important that tourism complements rather than displaces existing economic activities. Therefore, the evaluation of the economic dimension of accommodation establishments' sustainability should reflect how well they integrate into local economy.

Empirical context

According to the official data by National Statistical Institute (2012b) in 2011 Bulgarian tourism industry boasted 3776 accommodation establishments with 283251 beds. The industry is dominated by small and medium sized properties – the average capacity is 75 beds, although it varies greatly by region (from 232 beds in the coastal region of Dobrich, to 15 in the inland region of Yambol). The industry is highly geographically concentrated – 49.07% of the accommodation establishments and 70.01% of the beds capacity is located in just 4 of the

28 administrative regions: the 3 regions with access to the Black Sea coast (Dobrich, Varna and Bourgas) and the capital region of Sofia. The category structure is unbalanced – in 2011 2615 (69.25%) of the establishments are categorized with 1-2 stars, 868 (22.99%) with 3 stars, and 273 (7.76%) have 4-5 stars. The average price of one overnight is 38.88 BGN (19.88 EUR) which combined with an average stay of 3.7 overnights leads to 145.29 BGN (74.29 EUR) average revenues of accommodation establishments from one tourist. However, the average price of one overnight varies a lot – from 21.04 BGN (10.76 EUR) in the region of Dobrich to 80.26 BGN (41.04 EUR) in the capital region of Sofia.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

Data were collected during August and September 2012. A questionnaire was sent by email to 1931 accommodation establishments in Bulgaria (hotels and guest houses), which represent 51.14% from the total number of accommodation establishments (3776) in the country as of the beginning of 2012, according to the data by National Statistics Institute (2012a). After the initial invitation to participate in the research, potential respondents were sent 2 reminders (2 weeks and 4 weeks after the initial invitation). The final sample included 84 accommodation establishments that have completed the questionnaire, resulting in 4.35% response rate, which is in line with Illum, Ivanov & Liang (2010)'s results. The low response rate could be attributable to Bulgarian respondents' suspicion to surveys and fears of breach of anonymity and is typical for the country. Similarly, systematically low response rates (5-7%) from Bulgarian respondents have been reported in other studies as well (Ivanova & Ivanov, 2013, Stoilova, 2013).

It should be noted that currently there is no consolidated database with all accommodation establishments in Bulgaria. The Ministry of Economy, Energy and Tourism maintains a database of the establishments categorised by the minister (hotels, motels, holiday villages, with 2, 3, 4 and 5 stars) while the information on the accommodation establishments categorised by the local mayors (family hotels, hostels, guest houses with 1, 2 and 3 stars, 1-star hotels) is scattered among over 260 municipalities. The National Register of Accommodation Establishments did not provide current emails of included properties. Therefore, the authors of this study generated their

own database based on the data from the Ministry of Economy, Energy and Tourism and publicly available data of the accommodation establishments from their own websites and various internet directories. The authors successfully identified the contact details of most of the 3, 4 and 5 star properties, while it was difficult to do it for 1-2 star ones due to the lack of websites or lack of current contact details on them.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire included several blocks of questions. The first block examined the degree of application on a 3-point scale (none, partial or full) of different activities, predominantly related with the environmental component of sustainability. The list of sustainable practices was derived from the review of literature and enriched by the authors with practices they had observed in hotels. The second block included open questions that referred to the value of various statistics mostly related to the social and the economic components of sustainability. Data on sustainability's social component was gathered furthermore with the dichotomous questions (applied/not applied) from the third block about different stimuli accommodation establishments provided to their employees and the forth one which was dedicated to the social activities accommodation establishments were involved in. The fifth block of dichotomous questions (certified/not certified) gathered data on the sustainability-related certificates which the respondents had. It should be noted that respondents self-reported the certificates they had – copies of the certificates were not requested. The final block of questions collected demographic data on the establishment.

Data analysis

Due to their nature, data on the application of various sustainable activities were collected on 2- or 3-point scales (applied/not applied, or fully applied/partially applied/not applied). In this regard, the impact of category, location and size on the level of adoption of various sustainable tourism practices by accommodation establishments in Bulgaria is measured by the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test (Baggio & Klobas, 2011). It should be noted that the authors performed parametric test as well (ANOVA) and the differences between the respondent groups were the same as in the non-parametric test (with one exception only discussed below); moreover, the respective F-statistics were statistically significant in the same levels. However, only the results of the non-parametric test

are reported in the paper. The responses of the 4-star properties (9 responses) and the 5-star ones (2 responses) were grouped into one group for the analysis due to the small number of the 5-star hotels in the sample.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Profile of respondents

Table 1 presents the profile of respondents. Seventy-two of them (85.71%) are hotels and 12 (14.29%) are guest houses. By category 41 of accommodation establishments are 1-2-star (48.81%), 33 (39.29%) are 3-star and 11 (11.90%) are 4-5-star properties. In terms of size, 64 (76.19%) of the hotels and guest houses have up to 50 rooms, while only 7 (8.33%) have more than 100 rooms. Six hotels (7.14%) have reported affiliation to a hotel chain. Urban establishments (n=31) represent 36.90% of the sample, mountain properties (n=26) are 30.95% of the sample, seaside ones (n=22) are 26.19% of responses, while only 5 rural establishments participated in the research.

INSERT TABLE 1 HERE

Environmental dimension of sustainability

The general picture

The review of sustainability literature has shown the prevalence of the environmental focus on the issue. However, results presented in Table 2 indicate that many of the sustainable environmental practices that are considered as normal business and operational practices in accommodation establishments in developed economies are yet to find their way into Bulgarian properties. For example, 48 (57.14%) out of 84 establishments in the sample do not separate waste. In a personal conversation with the first author, one of the general managers of the mountain hotels participating in the research said that a couple of years ago the hotel was applying actively waste separation but later this practice was ceased because the separated garbage was not collected by the waste removal companies with appropriate trucks but all waste containers were input into one truck where the waste mixed again. The hotel manager pointed out that this practice was demotivating for the hotel's employees because they saw their efforts being futile (similar findings have been reported by Iankova (2011) for Sozopol). Another area where Bulgarian

accommodation establishments are lagging is the presence of a contract with a company to buy separated waste (total mean response m=0.25) and in waste composting (m=0.18) with only a handful of hotels reporting to have such contracts or performing waste composting. Accommodation establishments do not perform well in terms of using solar panels for electricity (m=0.35), movement detectors for controlling light in rooms (m=0.51), water cleaning before (m=0.58) and after being used by guests (m=0.39), water tap aerators (m=0.54) and photocells for water consumption control (m=0.12) (see Appendices 1a, 1b and 1c). It is important to note that accommodation establishments have stricter policies for energy and water saving by the employees (m=1.35 and m=1.21, respectively) than by tourists (m=0.95 and m=0.64, respectively). The result is logical – hotel managers have direct control over employees' behaviour while imposing restrictions or a soft policy for reducing water and electricity consumption by guests might hurt guests' experience and their overall satisfaction with the stay.

INSERT TABLE 2 HERE

On the positive side, properties actively use energy-saving electric bulbs (m=1.52) and appliances (m=1.24), have thermo- (m=1.63) and hydro-insulation of the building (m=1.45) which improves its energy efficiency, provide clean towels upon request by guests (m=1.73) – only 3 (3.57%) of the properties have declared they do not use energy saving electric bulbs. Surprisingly, accommodation establishments in Bulgaria do not seem quite interested in measuring the financial impact of their sustainable environmental activities. Only 34 (40.48%) of them responded they have calculated the approximate amount of saved expenses due to activities for decreased consumption of water and electricity – the average amount saved per annum is reported to be 4284.09 BGN (2190.42 EUR) (see Table 3 further in the text).

The role of category, location and size

Category seems to have a statistically significant impact on the environmental practices applied by the accommodation establishments. For example, higher category properties are more likely to have a contract with a company to buy separated waste ($p<0.05$), to have policies for energy saving by the employees ($p<0.01$) and tourists ($p<0.01$), to clean the water before being used by the tourists ($p<0.01$), to have thermo- ($p<0.05$) and hydro-insulation of the building ($p<0.10$). These results are

logical, since some of the above activities require large investments (e.g. systems for cleaning the water before use) and, therefore, are more feasible in higher category properties. Property's *location* influences the level of adoption of waste composting. Mountain properties are much more likely to apply this practice than non-mountain ones ($p<0.01$). This observation is also logical when we take into consideration the fact that composting biodegradable waste requires land space – something urban and seaside properties are not rich with. Similarly, mountain establishments outperform the non-mountain ones in the use of bio/eco food products ($p<0.05$). Due to their predominantly mass tourism targeting, seaside and mountain properties consume a lot of water. In this regard, they have adopted stricter policies for water saving by tourists than their urban and rural counterparts ($p<0.10$).

Looking at the results in Table 2 we may conclude that as long as the environmental dimension of the sustainable tourism practices is concerned *size* does matter. Larger properties (over 100 rooms) are more likely to separate waste ($p<0.10$), to have a contract with a company to buy separated waste ($p<0.01$), to have policy for energy ($p<0.05$) and water saving by tourists ($p<0.10$). Of course, these findings are natural, since the economies from the provision of these activities are highest for the large properties and, therefore, they have the highest stimuli to save energy or water. Size also does not influence the amount of money saved by accommodation establishments due to the application of environmental practices ($p>0.10$) (row 3.4 in Table 3), but the F-test from the ANOVA is significant at $p<0.01$. However, this last result must be treated with caution due to the small number of received responses for this particular question (25 for small properties (up to 50 rooms), 3 for midsized (51-100 rooms), and 4 for large ones (over 100 rooms)) and the high variation of responses. The rest 52 out of 84 respondents reported that they do not measure the economic benefits form the sustainable environmental practices.

Economic dimension of sustainability

The general picture

The economic component of sustainability was measured through a set of several questions – own production of food products (milk, yoghurts, other dairy products, meat, etc.), percentage of employees from local community, percentage of expenses for food products and materials from local and Bulgarian producers (see Table 3). About 75% of the

employees of the Bulgarian accommodation establishments live in the local municipality. More than 70% of expenses for food products and materials go to Bulgarian producers, and 41.38% go to producers from the local municipality. Involvement in own production of food products is negligible. The research did not include sensitive questions regarding the average salaries of employees in the accommodation establishments because of the suspicion Bulgarians have towards questions related to salaries, incomes, profits and taxes. Therefore, this research cannot reveal any tendencies regarding salaries of employees.

INSERT TABLE 3 AROUND HERE

The role of category, location and size

Category does not have any statistically significant impact on the percentage of employees from local municipality – between 72.73% (1-star properties) and 78.19% (2-star properties) of the employees live in the same municipality. Similar lack of significant differences is observed in the percentage of food products and materials from local or Bulgarian producers. On the opposite side, category has an impact on the production of own food products to be used by tourists ($p<0.05$) (row 3.5 in Table 3). This is logical, since hotels and guest houses with agricultural activities in Bulgaria tend to be up to 3 stars, and 4-5 star establishments prefer to buy rather than grow their own agricultural produce.

Comparison on the basis of the *location* reveals an interesting picture. Mountain properties seem more involved in the own production of food products than the non-mountain ones, especially the seaside properties ($p<0.05$). This particular result is not surprising considering the location of the mountain properties and the greater possibilities they have to integrate agricultural activities compared to seaside and urban properties, for which own production of dairy and meat products seems unfeasible. As a result, mountain establishments offer more bio/eco products that non-mountain ones as well ($p<0.05$) (Table 2).

Mountain establishments also seem more economically integrated with local communities. The average percentage of employees from local municipality in mountain properties is reported to be 87.21% (13 of these respondents have even hired employees only from the municipality they are located in), while for seaside ones the percentage is only 51.48% ($p<0.01$). Furthermore, 51.96% of expenses of mountain properties for food products and materials go to local producers, which is much higher than for non-mountain ones but differences are not statistically

significant. The higher percentage of employees coming from the local municipality and the expenses for food products and materials going to local producers in mountain establishments compared to non-mountain ones means that these establishments generate less leakages from the local economy than non-mountain properties. These results might be attributable to the smaller average size of the mountain properties in the country, compared to seaside and urban ones, and their orientation mostly to domestic tourists and foreign eco- and rural visitors which might decrease mountain properties' propensity to use non-local products and employees. In addition, the location of the properties far away from big cities hinders their inbound logistics and creates stimuli to use locally produced food and local labour in order to save on transportation costs. Bulgarian and foreign tourists' willingness to buy traditional and local products and might also be considered as a stimulating factor for mountain hotels to provide such. However, future research should determine the factors influencing the propensity of accommodation establishments to use local labour, food and other products, because they go beyond the scope of current paper. Finally, all analysed groups have declared nearly similar percentages of expenses for food products and materials from Bulgarian producers – between 74.75% (mountain) and 66.12% (urban) – and there is no statistically significant difference between them ($p>0.10$).

The *size* of the accommodation establishments does not have statistically significant impacts on the percentage of employee coming from the local community, the percentage of expenses for food and materials going to local and Bulgarian producers. It influences only the own production of food products ($p<0.05$), because only small establishments under 50 rooms have declared involvement in such activities.

Social dimension of sustainability

The general picture

Accommodation establishments seem quite actively involved in social activities (Tables 4 and 5). About 44% have declared sponsoring local social activities like sport events and cultural festivals, 37% - donations for social homes, 36% - participating in donation campaigns and 45% - provision of preferential prices for disadvantaged people. Properties are less likely to stimulate donations by tourists – only 11% have declared they have adopted this practice. We can only speculate

what the reasons for this low result are but we suppose that it is a consequence of hotel managers' perceptions that their corporate social responsibility includes activities *undertaken* by the hotel (i.e. with direct contribution of the hotel to donations), not activities *stimulated* by it (indirect contribution of the hotel to donations). However, future research should confirm whether this proposition is correct.

INSERT TABLE 4 HERE
INSERT TABLE 5 HERE

Social sustainability is related to sustainable HRM practices as well (Table 4). Our research shows that accommodation establishments focus mostly on providing financial stimuli to the employees depending on their performance (76%) and free food during shifts (77%). Incentive trips or language courses are not considered as important HRM activity. Half of the respondents provide free transportation to/from the hotel, free accommodation for the employees and trainings within the firm. Companies are more likely to offer internal training than external, obviously due to financial reasons. The predominance of the financial stimuli and the provision of free food during shifts and accommodation for the employees is completely understandable, considering the nature of the hotel industry and the location of the establishments – mountain and seaside properties are located far away from the permanent residence of workers and hotels must provide transportation for commuting. In addition, the high seasonality requires a lot of seasonal workers, many of whom come from parts of the country located far away from hotel's destination and need to be provided with accommodation by the employer. However, it is surprising that all analysed groups of establishments do not put must emphasis on language training of the employees, having in mind that foreign tourists generated 71.14% of the revenues of accommodations establishments in 2011 (NSI, 2012b and authors' calculations).

One of the main ingredient of the social component of sustainability is company's role for providing employment for disadvantaged people – young employees (18-30 years old) who usually lack experience, mature employees (over 50 years old) who are close to retirement and for the firms it is financially demotivating to invest in their training and development, and employees from ethnic minorities who might not be treated equally to employees from the dominant ethnic group. That's why respondents were also asked about the approximate percentages of these 3 groups of employees working in their accommodation establishments

(Table 5). Not surprisingly, employees aged 18-30 account on average for about 40.76% of employees in the accommodation establishments, employees over 50 years are 23.09%, while employees from ethnic minority groups represent less than 5% of employees.

The social element of sustainability includes furthermore activities to cater for the needs of customers with special needs (rows 5.6-5.9 in Table 5). Results indicate that more than 90% of accommodation establishments do not provide Braille signs in lifts and corridors (for customers with visual disability) or do not have employees knowledgeable in the sign language (for customers with aural disability). Accommodations' performance is better in terms of wheelchair access but this might be a consequence of the legal regulations in Bulgaria which stipulate that wheelchair access must be provided in accommodation establishments with at least 20 rooms rented to tourists. In addition, more than two thirds of the accommodation establishments provide menus for people with special nutrition requirements (due to diabetes, religious reasons, allergies, vegetarians) which could be explained with the ease of menu item provision and the competitive advantage the special menus give to the hotel restaurants.

The role of category, location and size

Category does not seem to be a major determinant of properties' social activities. No statistically significant differences were found on the basis of property's category in the level of donation, involvement in social activities in the local municipality, provision of lower prices for disadvantaged customers (Table 5). Similarly, category does not influence the sustainable HRM practices (Table 4) with two notable exceptions – upscale properties are more likely to offer internal training to their employees than budget properties ($p<0.10$) while the latter are more likely to hire employees above 50 years of age ($p<0.01$). Results are not surprising. Lower category establishments are more likely to be family owned hotels and guest houses, with low salaries for non-family member employees, hence less and older employees who do not need periodic training due to the simplified operations they have to perform. Category, however, influences the higher level of adoption of wheelchair ramps by upscale hotels ($p<0.01$) and the provision of menus for people with special nutrition requirements ($p<0.01$). Obviously, special menus are expensive to provide and, thus, are financially more feasible for higher category properties.

The location of the establishment influences significantly the level of involvement of the property with various social activities (Table 5). Mountain and rural properties, for example, have reported to be more involved in donation campaigns that seaside and urban ones ($p<0.05$). Additionally, mountain establishments are more likely to sponsor social activities in the local municipality than non-mountain ones ($p<0.10$). The higher social involvement of mountain establishments might be due to the fact that mountain communities, where these properties are located, are much smaller than the urban or seaside ones, or probably they are run by local owners, which creates a higher sense of identification with the local community and desire to contribute for its development by the mountain accommodation establishments. It should be noted that none of the 4 groups looks particularly interested in stimulating donations by tourists as mentioned earlier. Another peculiar insight is the average donations as percentage of the annual expenditures of the accommodation establishments (row 5.10 in Table 5). Although the difference among the 4 groups are not statistically significant, mountain properties have a higher average value of donations as percentage of their annual expenditures (3.11%) than non-mountain ones, which is another clue about the higher level of involvement in social activities by mountain properties.

Looking at Table 4 we can see some interesting results. Urban establishments are much less likely to offer free transportation ($p<0.01$) and accommodation to employees ($p<0.01$) than non-urban ones. This is due to the fact that seaside, mountain and rural establishments are predominantly located in a distance from the place of the permanent residence of the employees, and, thus have to provide transport and/or accommodation, while the urban hotels do not face such needs. Furthermore, urban properties are less likely to offer financial stimuli ($p<0.05$) and incentive trips ($p<0.01$) to employees. This might be due to the higher pool of potential employees in urban areas which shifts the bargaining power in favour of the hotels who now do not feel the pressure to provide good financial stimuli in order to keep their employees – if an employee leaves he will be replaced easier in urban hotels than in non-urban ones. Similarly, urban hotels are much less inclined to hire employees above 50 than non-urban ones ($p<0.05$). The average share of employees above 50 is highest in mountain properties (30.33%) which might be attributable to the higher average age of population in mountain communities in Bulgaria, compared to urban and seaside regions (NSI, 2012c and authors' calculations).

As in the environmental dimension of sustainability, the size of the accommodation establishment influences positively its involvement in social activities. Larger hotels stimulate more the donations by tourists ($p<0.01$) and are more engaged with donations to social homes ($p<0.10$) than smaller ones. Obviously, this is a matter of available resources that could be diverted from production and donated for a social cause – larger properties can *afford* to donate and stimulate donations by tourists.

Regarding the HRM practices (Table 4) we observe quite a peculiar situation – the responses of the small and large properties are quite similar and mostly divergent from mid-sized ones. For instance, mid-sized hotels are less likely to offer accommodation ($p<0.05$) to employees, but more likely to offer free food during shifts ($p<0.10$), language courses ($p<0.05$), trainings within ($p<0.10$) and outside the firm ($p<0.01$) and incentive trips ($p<0.10$), compared to small and large-sized properties. We attribute the results to the following facts. On one hand, small sized properties do not have the financial resources to provide all the stimuli to their employees or do not need to do it, if it is a family owned hotel or guest house. On the other hand, large hotels hire a lot of employees and the leaving of one employee can be relatively easily compensated by hiring a new one or the redistribution of his work among the remaining employees, which decreases the stimuli to large hotels to keep their employees. However, in midsized properties each employee performs a sizable portion of the work and his leave would hurt significantly the working process, which generates stimuli for the managers and owners to keep them. Additional future research could delve deeper into this matter and provide further insight into the role of size on the HRM practices applied by accommodation establishments.

Similar to the role of category, we find statistically significant differences between small, midsized and large hotels in the provision of wheelchair ramps ($p<0.01$) and menus for people with special diets ($p<0.01$). Large properties perform much better than small ones, which is a consequence of the economies of scale needed for the provision of the special menus and the legally compulsory provision of wheelchair ramps for large hotels in Bulgaria (something that is not required for guesthouses and small family hotels which fall into the small sized properties group in our analysis).

Sustainability certification

The general picture

Bulgarian accommodation establishments put much greater emphasis on HACCP (Hazard Analysis of Critical Control Points) certification than on other types of certificates (ISO, eco-/bio products, energy efficiency) – half of the establishments reported to have HACCP system in place (Table 6). This is completely logical considering the fact that HACCP is compulsory for all F&B outlets in Bulgaria, including those located in accommodation establishments. Therefore, all hotels that offer at least one F&B outlet (e.g. lobby bar, breakfast room, restaurant, etc.) must be HACCP certified. This is not the case with ISO, energy efficiency and other types of certificates – they are not compulsory and certification relies on the good will and the sustainability vision of hotel managers and owners. Results from our research on the sustainability certification are not encouraging – too few of the properties have been certified in the different aspects of sustainability and those that certified have done it due to legal requirements (compulsory HACCP). However, previous research (Segarra-Oña et al., 2012) reveals that environmental certification (ISO 14000) might have positive contribution to company's financial performance, which can be used as an argument for more proactive behaviour by hotel owners and managers towards sustainability certification of properties they possess/manage.

INSERT TABLE 6 HERE

The role of category, location and size

The *category* of the establishment has a positive and statistically significant impact on its certification in HACCP ($p<0.05$) and ISO 22000 (Food safety management systems) ($p<0.10$) due to the fact that lower category properties do not always have F&B outlets and, thus, do not need HACCP/ISO 22000 certification in difference to 4/5-star ones, which offer several F&B outlets. Location does not have statistically significant impact on certification. Size influences positively the HACCP ($p<0.05$), energy efficiency ($p<0.05$) and bio/eco food production certification ($p<0.10$) – it might be explained with the financial resources necessary for the certification process which larger properties could easier afford than smaller ones.

CONCLUSION

Sustainable tourism practices comprise environmental, social and economic aspects. In achieving its aim to identify the degree of application of various sustainable practices, this paper investigated the sustainable tourism practices adopted by Bulgarian accommodation establishments and analysed the role of category, product and size on the level of adoption of the various practices. Results show that in general Bulgarian accommodation establishments need to go a long way before becoming completely sustainable. Our findings also reveal that the category of the property, its size and location have a statistically significant impact on the level of application of the sustainable tourism practices.

Truly, accommodation establishments might consider adopting some sustainable practices as expensive because they require huge investments and lead to increased costs in the short run which the establishments might not be able to bear due to competitive pressure, while other practices might be perceived as having only marginal impact on their customers. However, the requirements of tourism demand can serve of a stimulus for accommodation establishments to adopt sustainable practices. New generation of tourists appear showing a behaviour drifting away from the pure consumerism, but developing mentality of environmental consciousness, that characterises them as tourists who would prefer to stay in environmentally friendly accommodations using renewable energy sources. They are willing to pay more for "green" products and higher prices for staying in environmental friendly hotels (Dalton et al., 2009; Kang et al., 2012), although some authors do not find support for this hypothesis (e.g. Smerecnik & Andersen, 2011). Tourists in Bulgaria appreciate these initiatives and show interest, especially in the small and medium size hotels, youth hostels, B&Bs and guest houses, where the communication between hosts and guests is more informal (Iankova, 2011). Therefore, by adopting sustainable practices, Bulgarian accommodation establishments could appeal to the more sustainability conscious tourists that could ultimately lead to higher revenues and profits for the establishments.

As a limitation we can mention the sample size – only 84 properties agreed to participate in the survey (despite the invitation reminders), although 1931 properties have been contacted and the authors guaranteed the anonymity of respondents. Further research could be directed to other practices, applied by Bulgarian establishments, with a special focus on activities specific for the area – like production of Bulgarian dairy

products, using locally produced products in hotels' spa and wellness centers, or integrating craft works in the design of the hotels/hotel facilities, etc. Additionally, future research could reveal hotel managers' perceptions of sustainable tourism practices and identify the factors that influence the adoption of specific practices.

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APPENDIX

Table 1. Sample characteristics

Characteristic	Frequency	Share
Type of accommodation		
Hotels	72	85.71%
Guest houses	12	14.29%
Category		
1 star	13	15.48%
2 stars	28	33.33%
3 stars	32	38.09%
4/5 stars	11	13.10%
Location		
Sea	22	26.19%
Mountain	26	30.95%
Urban	31	36.90%
Rural	5	5.95%
Number of rooms		
Up to 50	64	76.19%
51-100	13	15.48%
Over 100	7	8.33%
Total	84	100%

Table 2. Degree of application of sustainable environmental activities by accommodation establishments

No	Activity	Total mean	Standard deviation	Kruskal-Wallis $\chi 2$ test		
				Category	Location	Size
2.1.	Waste separation	0.50	0.63	3.771	0.245	4.933*
2.2.	Contract with a company to buy separated waste	0.25	0.58	10.568**	7.506*	15.143***
2.3.	Waste composting	0.18	0.49	1.434	14.946***	0.179
2.4.	Solar panels for electricity	0.35	0.67	1.145	3.532	2.482
2.5.	Policy for energy saving by the employees	1.35	0.63	14.271***	5.674	4.491
2.6.	Policy for energy saving by the tourists	0.95	0.73	14.471***	0.331	7.414**
2.7.	Energy-saving electric bulbs	1.52	0.57	3.744	4.635	0.340
2.8.	Movement detectors for controlling lights in common areas	1.15	0.81	5.012	5.674	0.145
2.9.	Movement detectors for controlling lights in rooms	0.51	0.77	1.489	1.667	1.480
2.10.	Use of energy-saving appliances (class A or higher)	1.24	0.59	4.104	4.354	0.054
2.11.	Water cleaning (before being used by the tourists)	0.58	0.84	16.820***	1.448	5.675*
2.12.	Water cleaning (after being used by the tourists)	0.39	0.76	5.593	1.471	1.200
2.13.	Solar panels for warm water	0.74	0.91	4.031	2.436	3.674
2.14.	Policy for water saving by the employees	1.21	0.64	2.517	0.586	1.209
2.15.	Policy for water saving by the tourists	0.64	0.72	3.558	7.265*	5.614*
2.16.	Water tap aerators	0.54	0.80	0.504	4.469	2.588
2.17.	Water tap photocells for water consumption control	0.12	0.39	4.782	1.016	3.388
2.18.	Thermo-insulation of the building	1.63	0.69	8.355**	0.261	1.150
2.19.	Hydro-insulation of the building	1.45	0.75	7.009*	1.396	0.734
2.20.	Clean towels upon request only	1.73	0.50	1.803	4.290	0.460
2.21.	Use of bio/eco food products	0.68	0.66	0.741	8.961**	0.034

2.22. Use of recycled paper for administrative purposes	0.86	0.66	0.955	4.287	2.065
2.23. Natural bath cosmetics	0.29	0.50	3.556	4.898	0.194
2.24. Cleaning with bio-degradable substances	0.69	0.71	2.214	1.561	3.195

Note: N=84. Results on a 3-point scale: 0-not applied, 1-partially applied, 2-fully applied. Grouping of respondents: *Category* (1, 2, 3 and 4/5 stars), *Location* (urban, rural, mountain, seaside), *Size* (up to 50, 51-100, over 100 rooms).
*** Significant at 1% level; ** Significant at 5% level; * Significant at 10% level

Table 3. Economic dimension of sustainability

No	Activity	Total mean	Standard deviation	Kruskal-Wallis $\chi 2$ test		
				Category	Location	Size
3.1.	Percentage of employees from local municipality	75.12	34.39	3.128	15.082** *	0.988
3.2.	Percentage of expenses for food products and materials from local producers (from the local municipality)	41.38	32.23	1.250	4.807	0.097
3.3.	Percentage of expenses for food products and materials from Bulgarian producers	70.70	28.64	1.291	2.803	3.345
3.4.	Amount of saved expenses per year due to activities for saving water and electricity (BGN)	4284.09	9343.63	0.663	4.135	3.671 †
3.5.	Own production of food products (milk, yoghurt, meat ...) #	0.23	0.47	8.135**	8.991**	6.546**

Note: N=84. 1Euro=1.95583 BGN. Grouping of respondents: *Category* (1, 2, 3 and 4/5 stars), *Location* (urban, rural, mountain, seaside), *Size* (up to 50, 51-100, over 100 rooms). #Results on a 3-point scale: 0-not applied, 1-partially applied, 2-fully applied. † F-statistic (9.836) statistically significant at p=0.001 level
*** Significant at 1% level; ** Significant at 5% level; * Significant at 10% level

Table 4. Social dimension of sustainability: stimuli to employees provided by accommodation establishments

No	Activity	Total mean	Standard deviation	Kruskal-Wallis $\chi 2$ test		
				Category	Location	Size
4.1.	Free transport to/from the hotel	0.50	0.50	2.137	16.090***	3.852
4.2.	Accommodation for employees	0.51	0.50	4.356	32.951***	7.620**
4.3.	Free food during shifts	0.77	0.42	5.570	5.974	4.752*
4.4.	Language courses	0.23	0.42	4.347	2.606	7.451**
4.5.	Trainings within the firm	0.48	0.50	7.242*	0.194	4.972*
4.6.	Trainings outside the firm	0.30	0.46	5.705	3.430	9.277***
4.7.	Incentive trips	0.15	0.36	6.008	12.936***	5.527*
4.8.	Financial stimuli, depending on employee performance	0.76	0.43	2.123	9.984**	1.996

Note: N=84. Results on a 2-point scale: 0-not applied, 1-applied. Grouping of respondents: *Category* (1, 2, 3 and 4/5 stars), *Location* (urban, rural, mountain, seaside), *Size* (up to 50, 51-100, over 100 rooms).
*** Significant at 1% level; ** Significant at 5% level; * Significant at 10% level

Table 5. Social dimension of sustainability: non-HRM activities

No	Activity	Total mean	Standard deviation	Kruskal-Wallis $\chi 2$ test		
				Category	Location	Size
5.1.	Donations for social homes #	0.37	0.49	2.529	1.490	4.881*
5.2.	Participation in donation campaigns #	0.36	0.48	1.994	7.924**	1.570
5.3.	Stimulating donations by tourists #	0.11	0.31	3.341	0.840	10.107***
5.4.	Sponsoring social activities in the local municipality (sport events, cultural festivals, etc.) #	0.44	0.50	3.012	7.578*	0.736
5.5.	Preferential (off-season) prices for disadvantaged people #	0.45	0.50	1.391	0.454	0.457
5.6.	Braille signs in lifts and corridors (for customers with visual disability) #	0.12	0.45	3.961	1.870	2.413
5.7.	Wheelchair ramps #	0.73	0.88	23.048***	3.005	17.599***
5.8.	Staff with knowledge of sign language (for customers with aural disability) #	0.02	0.15	0.822	0.982	0.633
5.9.	Menu for people with special nutrition requirements (due to diabetes, religious reasons, allergies, vegetarians) #	0.89	0.76	14.862***	1.280	16.443***
5.10.	Donations as percentage of annual expenditures of the accommodation establishment (in %)	1.87	3.43	2.295	4.875	2.388
5.11.	Percentage of employees aged 18-30 years (in %)	40.76	28.95	2.921	5.330	1.672
5.12.	Percentage of employees above 50 years (in %)	23.09	28.15	12.905***	7.851**	0.649
5.13.	Percentage of employees from ethnic minorities (in %)	4.83	10.41	0.626	5.644	6.738**

Note: N=84. #Results on a 2-point scale: 0-not applied, 1-applied. Grouping of respondents: *Category* (1, 2, 3 and 4/5 stars), *Location* (urban, rural, mountain, seaside), *Size* (up to 50, 51-100, over 100 rooms).
*** Significant at 1% level; ** Significant at 5% level; * Significant at 10% level

Table 6. Certification of sustainable activities of accommodation establishments

No	Activity	Total mean	Standard deviation	Kruskal-Wallis $\chi 2$ test		
				Category	Location	Size
6.1.	ISO 9000 (Quality management system)	0.13	0.34	5.186	6.098	3.349
6.2.	ISO 14000 (Environment management system)	0.04	0.19	6.148	0.259	0.961
6.3.	ISO 22000 (Food safety management systems)	0.13	0.34	7.525*	2.464	3.349
6.4.	HACCP	0.52	0.50	8.522**	0.221	6.680**
6.5.	Certificates for energy efficiency	0.20	0.40	4.055	1.975	6.388**
6.6.	Certificates for bio/eco food productions	0.02	0.15	0.822	1.543	4.713*
6.7.	Other certificate	0.02	0.15	3.359	1.543	4.713*

Note: N=84. Results on a 2-point scale: 0-not applied, 1-applied. Grouping of respondents: *Category* (1, 2, 3 and 4/5 stars), *Location* (urban, rural, mountain, seaside), *Size* (up to 50, 51-100, over 100 rooms).
*** Significant at 1% level; ** Significant at 5% level; * Significant at 10% level

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GASTRONOMIC TOURISM: MEASURING MOTIVATIONS, CONSUMER'S SATISFACTION AND PROPOSING EFFECTIVE MARKETING STRATEGIES

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The culinary tourism is one of the alternative forms of tourism which although, it may contribute to further development of Greek product, is not utilized. The objective of this research is its development through gastronomic festivals. Our survey is studied participants motives in such events and their perceived level of satisfaction in order to proposed effective marketing strategies which contribute to adoption and growth. In this specific case, 'Tomato Festival', was the gastronomic festival which had been chosen in order our survey took place. A questionnaire was developed in order socio-demographics and trip characteristics, motives and perceived level of satisfaction of participants, in such kind of festivals, to be examined. The target - group, for our survey, was both women and men over 18 years old and the questionnaires were answered from festival's attendees, when they left, at the entrance.

Keywords: *Gastronomic Tourism, Festivals, Motives*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Tourism industry is one of the most important sectors of Greek economy. In recent years, more and more people chose for their vacation alternative tourist destinations. Although, recently, more and more forms of alternative tourism taking place in Greece, gastronomic tourism is not one of them. In this article, it is presented the different types of activities which gastronomic tourism encloses and it focuses on gastronomic festivals as the dominant form of it. In this research, it is examined the motives of attendees in such events and their satisfaction level in order effective marketing strategies to be proposed, for its development.

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GASTRONOMIC TOURISM AND FESTIVALS

Gastronomic tourism (Long, 2004; Everett and Atchison, 2008), is a form of alternative tourism, in which tourist who participate in, have as their prior motive their desire for consumption of local products (Dodd, T. and Bigotte, V.1997; Ignatov & Smith, 2006; Tikkanen, 2007). This particular form of alternative tourism in the literature is presented with 4 different names. It labeled as gastronomic tourism (Hjalanger and Richards, 2002), as culinary tourism (Wolf, 2002), as tasting tourism (Boniface, 2003), and as food-oriented tourism (Hall et al., 2003; Hall & Mitchell, 2001). Several times gastronomic tourism encloses another form of alternative tourism, wine tourism, however in the existed literature have been studied separately (Getz 1998; Hall and Johnson 1998; Macionis 1998; Johnson, G. 1998; Carlsen and Dowling 1999; Hall et al., 2000; Telfer, 2001; Williams & Kelly, 2001; Williams & Dossa, 2003).Last years interest for gastronomic tourism has been increased (Nexus & Urban, 2003).

It is a form of tourism which mostly takes place in rural areas and contributes to the enhancement of local economy (Hugo 1994; Hall 1995; McIntosh, Goeldner, and Ritchie 1995; Jenkins, et al. 1997; Hall, et al., 2000; Killion 2001; Prosser 2001; Fox 2007). Authors like (Hjalager and Richards, 2002), support that consumption of local products is an integral part of their overall travel experience (Symons, 1999; Van Westering, 1999; Neild et al., 2000; Remmington and Yuksel, 1998; Joanne Mackellar 2006), in each destination (Brown et al., 2006; Hall et al., 2000),and introducing tourists in new flavors and traditions (Fields, 2002; Ryu & Jang, 2006; Sparks, 2007; Kivela & Crotts, 2006).

Subsequently, some examples are presented, which proves that, consumption of local food or beverage may be a dominant reason for travelers to visit a particular destination (Kivela and Crotts, 2006; Telfer and Wall, 2000), and in accordance with (Bessiere, 1998; Tellstrom et al., 2005), can be the key point of enhancing tourist's destinations economy. That happened, as tourists destination societies recognized that travellers' expenditures (Brown et al., 2002; Hjalager & Richards, 2002), for consumption of local food are very important.

For instance, according to Northern Ireland Passenger Survey in 2008, of the £540 million spent by overseas and domestic tourists, £178.2 million of this was spent on food and beverages. The importance of food and eating out on vacations is supported by Telfer and Wall (2000) who suggested that spending on eating out during a holiday constitutes approximately (Meler and Cerovic, 2003), one-third of all tourist

expenditures. For example, Enteleca Research and Consultancy (2000), reported that 72% of people who visit United Kingdom, were interested in local food and beverages during their holiday, and finally, they were satisfied with their experiences of tasting local food.

According to Fields (2002) motivators for consumption of food and beverages in a tourist destination can be theoretically conceptualized within four categories provided by McIntosh et al. (1995) : 'physical motivators', 'cultural motivators', 'interpersonal motivators', and 'status and prestige motivators'.

Physical motivators according to (Kim, et all., 2009), refer to the refreshment of a person's body and mind. They also stated that, tasting a local product can be a unique experience and as Fields (2002), proposed it can be closely connected with the opportunity to taste new flavors. Secondly, as (McIntosh et al. 1995), suggested that cultural motivators are related to people's need to not only, gain knowledge about each destination but also experience different cultures during their vacations.

Fields (2002), indicated that consumption of local food can be included amongst cultural motivators, as when experiencing new local cuisines, tourists come into contact with a new culture (Hegarty and O'Mahoney, 2001; Williams, 1997).Thirdly, interpersonal motivators relate to people's desire to escape from daily routine, through meet new people, and spend time with family and friends, (McIntosh et al.,1995).Finally, status and prestige motivators, according to McIntosh et al. (1995), were associated with self- esteem, recognition and the desire to attract attention from others.

According to, (Boniface 2003; J. Henderson 2009), there are 3 different types of activities, for people who chose culinary tourism.

- Cooking schools which mostly run by or associated with well-known chefs.
- Dining at renowned for their local food or well-known chef's restaurants.
- Organising trips, in local agricultural areas, for example organize a trip in a local winery, where participants can attend the whole production process from grapes to wine (Beverland, M., et al., 2001; Bruwer, J. 2002; Salter 1998), and visiting festivals and special events about local products, like, wine festival.

Local product festivals are a specific form of gastronomic tourism and as Getz (1991), proposed are among the fastest-growing forms of it. Many tourists are attracted by such festivals, and are an excellent opportunity to enhance awareness about local products and to build customer loyalty (Salter 1998; Getz 2000; Hoffman, et all., 2001; Bruwer

2002, 2003). It is therefore essential to examine the incentives of participants in them.

TOURIST MOTIVATIONS AND FESTIVAL ATTENDANCE

According to, (Iso-Ahola 1980:230), a motive is an internal factor that arouses, directs, and integrates a person's behaviour. Last thirty years a plethora of researches have been done in order to recognize which are traveller's motives (Dann, G.1977; Crompton, J.1979; Dann, G. 1981; Iso-Ahola,.1982; Pearce,. and Caltabiano,. 1983; Yuan, S. and McDonald,C. 1990; Shoemaker, S.1994; Turnbull, D. R. and Uysal, M.1995). Authors like (Crompton 1979; Mansfeld 1992; Pearce 1982; Uysal, et all., 1993), referred that tourists' motives are likely to be multiple.

Dann (1977), proposed two motivational stages in a travel decision, namely push and pull factors in order to examine tourists' motives. Push factors are internal to the individual and create people's desire to travel, where as pull factors are external to the individual and influence the actual destination choice.

Two years later, (Crompton, J.1979), supported that, travellers push motives were escape, relaxation, prestige, self – exploration, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships and facilitation of social interaction, while pull motives were novelty and education.

Further, it was widely accepted, that festivals and special events were among the fastest-growing fields of tourist industry (Crompton and Mckay 1997), due to the fact that, it is really important to examine which motives affect travellers to visit such events during their vacations. According to researches' results tourists who visit such events do not be affected from the same motives but it is differentiate according with the kind of event (Yuan. et all,. 2005). Table: I shows the results from a number of researches about the relation between motives and the kind of festival.

Table 1. Motivational research on visits to festivals

Authors	**Motivation dimension**	**Study site**
Ralston and Crompton (1988)	Family togetherness, meeting new people, nostalgia, learning, social contact	A festival in Galveston, Texas
Uysal et al. (1991)	Excitement, external, family, socialising, relaxation	1985 National Travel Survey
Uysal et al. (1993)	Escape, excitement/thrills, event novelty, socialisation, family togetherness	(Corn Festival) in South Carolina
Mohr et al. (1993)	Socialization; escape family togetherness; excitement/uniqueness; event novelty	(Balloon Festival) – (South Carolina, USA
Backman et al. (1995)	Excitement; external; family; socializing; relaxation	(Pleasure Travel Market Survey), 1985
Scott (1996)	Nature appreciation; event excitement; sociability; family togetherness; curiosity; escape	(Bug Fest, etc.) Ohio, USA
Formica and Uysal (1996)	Excitement/thrills; socialization; entertainment; event novelty; family togetherness	(Umbria Jazz Festival) Italy
Schneider and Backman (1996)	Family togetherness & socialization; social/leisure; festival attributes; escape; event excitement	(Jerash Festival) Jordan
Crompton and McKay (1997)	Cultural exploration; novelty/ regression; gregariousness; recover equilibrium; known-group socialization; external interaction/ socialization	(Fiesta in San Antonio) Texas, USA
Formica and Uysal (1998)	Socialization/entertainment; event attraction/excitement; group togetherness; site novelty cultural/ historical; family togetherness	(Spoleto Festival) Italy

Raybould (1998)	Social stimulation, learning, extrinsic reward, event novelty, escape, family togetherness	A remote fishing event in Australia
Kerstetter and Mowrer (1998)	Family fun, entertainment, community, alcohol-free	(First Night in State College), Pennsylvania
Lee (2000)	Cultural exploration; escape; novelty; event attractions; family togetherness; external group socialization; knowngroup socialization	('98 Kyongju World Cultural Expo.) South Korea
Kim et al. (2001)	Social/leisure, event novelty, family togetherness, escape, Curiosity	(Festival/event organisers) In Virginia

Source: Lee et al., 2004; J.Yuan et al., 2004

METHODOLOGY

Survey instrument and sampling

In our case, a questionnaire was developed in order to examine socio-demographics and trip characteristics, motives and perceived level of satisfaction of participants in a gastronomic festival.

A set of 19 questions were extracted from the literature (Yuan et all, 2005), on people's motivations to visit festivals. Our respondents were asked to indicate the importance of the motivators to attend this specific festival on a seven-point Likert scale where 1 meant 'not at all important' and 7 meant 'extremely important'. Further, there were questions about our attendees' demographics and trip characteristics. Finally, there was another seven-point Likert scale, with the same characteristics with the above one, in order to indicate the perceived level of attendees' satisfaction. Therefore, in our case, two pilots – tests have been done it, in order to examine not only, the structure of our questionnaire, but also the survey's instruments.

The gastronomic festival which selected for this study was a one-day event called 'Tomato Festival'. It is located in a small village called 'Kastritsa', at Ioannina. Participants in this event can be informed about different things, related with the production of tomatoes and taste local

foods with that specific ingredient. During the whole event attendees entertain with traditional music and dancing groups.

Table 2. Demographic profile of 'Tomato Festival' attendees.

Variable		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Gender	**0**= MALE	31	44,9	44,9
	1= FEMALE	38	55,1	55,1
Age	**1**=18-29	30	43,5	43,5
	2= 30-39	17	24,6	24,6
	3= 40-49	8	11,6	11,6
	4= 50+	14	20,3	20,3
Marital Status	**1**= Married	29	42,0	42,0
	2=Not Married	40	58,0	58,0
Income	**1**=0-14000	27	39,1	39,1
	2=14001-30000	25	36,2	36,2
	3=30001-50000	11	15,9	15,9
	4=50001-80000	6	8,7	8,7

Participants answered our questionnaires, when they left from the festival, at the entrance. The target- group, for our survey, was both women and men over 18 years old. The sample size is determined empirically, due to the lack of the accurate number of visitors at the event in previous years, so it could not be determined the exact size of it.

Therefore, it was decided that the sample size for our survey would be the 1/5 of all visitors. Finally, 69 valid questionnaires were collected

on the day of festival, and there were 20 more, which were partially completed and excluded from data entry.

Analyze the total of our valid questionnaires, emerged, that most of our participants were women (n=38, 55,1%), between 18 to 39 years old (n=37), 'not married' (n=40, 58,0%), and with annual income no more than 30000 € (n=52), (Table 2).

Data analysis methods

The respondents' socio - demographic and trip characteristics were profiled in frequencies and percentages. Motivational elements were examined by computing the means. The motivational elements and perceived level of satisfaction were then examined about theirs relation with demographic and trip characteristic, with the appropriate analysis tools (t-test and anova analysis) depending on the variables.

Most of participants referred that, this kind of events play an important role, in order to learn more things about each product and that; it was not the first time for them visiting such an event. The majority of them 86,9% supported that, informed about the festival through posters (n=31) and from friends (n=29). Additionally, the 43,5 percent of the respondents came as a result of last-minute decisions, with the decision time of less than 24 hours, whereas only 11,6 percent of the respondents were beyond a week. Furthermore, most of them (n=56), visited the festival predominantly with their families, relatives or friends, and stayed there, from 1 to 3 hours (63,8%). Finally, it was noted that, they had travelled less than 30 kilometres to the festival (n= 50), and the 85,5 percent of them, spent at the festival from 1€ to 60€, (Table 3).

Table 3. Trip characteristics of 'Tomato Festival' attendees (n=69).

Variable	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Product: Tomato Yes	63	91,3	91,3	91,3
No	6	8,7	8,7	100,0
Other festival Yes	53	76,8	76,8	76,8
No	16	23,2	23,2	100,0
Information Friend(s)	29	42,0	42,0	42,0
Internet	1	1,4	1,4	43,5

Posters	31	44,9	44,9	88,4
Travel guide	3	4,3	4,3	92,8
Other	5	7,2	7,2	100,0
Travel decision				
As I was passing by	11	15,9	15,9	15,9
During the last 24 hours	19	27,5	27,5	43,5
Through the week	16	23,2	23,2	66,7
The previous week	10	14,5	14,5	81,2
More than one week	8	11,6	11,6	92,8
Other	5	7,2	7,2	100,0
Travel party type				
Alone	4	5,8	5,8	5,8
With spouse only	7	10,1	10,1	15,9
With friend(s)	33	47,8	47,8	63,8
With family members	16	23,2	23,2	87,0
As a member of a club	7	10,1	10,1	97,1
Other	2	2,9	2,9	100,0
Time of staying				
Less than an hour	6	8,7	8,7	8,7
1-3 hours	44	63,8	63,8	72,5
4-8 hours	13	18,8	18,8	91,3
Other	6	8,7	8,7	100,0
Distance travelled to the festival				
0-15km	20	29,0	29,0	29,0
16 - 30 km	21	30,4	30,4	59,4
31-100km	18	26,1	26,1	85,5
100+ km	10	14,5	14,5	100,0
Money spend				
I did not spend money	4	5,8	5,8	5,8
€1-€10	15	21,7	21,7	27,5
€11-€30	21	30,4	30,4	58,0
€31-€60	19	27,5	27,5	85,5

€61-€100	9	13,0	13,0	98,6
More than €100	1	1,4	1,4	100,0

Table 4. Analysis of 'Tomato Festival' motivations (n=69)

Subscales	Mean	Std. Deviation	Reliability Coefficient
Festival and escape			0,864
Because I enjoy special events	4,35	1,773	
Festival's atmosphere	4,41	1,584	
So I could enjoy a festival crowd	3,88	1,549	
So that I could enjoy a day out	3,58	1,802	
To escape from daily routine	4,19	1,565	
To entertain	4,22	1,533	
The festival is unique	4,55	1,898	
To get away on the weekend	3,45	1,851	
To try something new	4,83	1,790	
Tomatoes			0,747
Experience where tomatoes produced	5,07	1,354	
Tasting tomatoes	3,75	1,769	
To get familiar with Tomatoes	3,75	1,439	
Increase knowledge about tomatoes	4,23	1,628	
To buy tomatoes	2,57	1,529	

Socialization			0,794
So I could meet people with similar interests	3,38	1,707	
So I could exchange ideas with producers	3,67	1,606	
To visit a place I can talk about when I get home	3,93	1,639	
Family togetherness			0,831
To bring family closer	3,38	1,824	
To spend time with family	4,17	2,086	

The main research objectives were to determine if there were significant differences across attendees' socio-demographic and trip characteristics in motivations and perceived satisfaction level. Through the t-test analysis emerged that the variable of gender presented statistically significant difference with the 'Socialization' ($t=2,474$, $df=67$, $p<0.05$), and 'Family togetherness' ($t=2,887$, $df=67$, $p<0.05$) subscales.

In accordance with the variable of age, this examined with an anova analysis, emerged that it was significantly different on 'Festival and escape'($F=4,639$, $df=3$, $p<0,05$), 'Socialization'($F=4,818$, $df=3$, $p<0,05$), 'Family togetherness' ($F=2,947$, $df=3$, $p<0,05$) and 'Satisfaction'($F=3,440$, $df=3$, $p>0,05$).

Trip characteristics effects examined with anova analysis. Main sources of information had a significant effect on the attitude toward 'Festival and escape' $F=3,255$, $df=4$, $p<0,05$), 'Socialization'($F=7.870$, $df=4$, $p<0.05$) and 'Family togetherness'($F=2,952$, $df=4$, $p<0,05$) factors as most of respondents had informed about the event from friends and posters. The time of decision were statistically significant different with the above factors as most of them informed about it at the last minute and the visitation of them, was a spontaneous decision.

The variable 'Travel party type' had a significant influence on respondents' ratings of 'Socialization'($F=4,927$, $df=5$, $p<0,05$) 'Family togetherness'($F=7,307$, $df=5$, $p<0,05$), and 'Satisfaction' ($F=2,719$, $df=5$, $p<0,05$) factors. 'Socialization' ($F=4,044$, $df=3$, $p<0,05$) and 'Family togetherness'($F=5,124$, $df=3$, $p<0,05$) factors were these which had a

significant effect on the time of respondents stay at the festival. Distance travelled to the festival affect more respondents only as away to escape from their daily routine.

Lastly, the amount of money which respondents spent during the festival were statistically significant different with all motivational factors and the perceived level of satisfaction.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this research was to examine both motives and perceived level of satisfaction of participants in a gastronomic festival (Tomato Festival). Analysing the research results, observed that most of attendees were women, between 18 to 39 years old, not married and with annual income of less than 30000 €. Our findings verified what (Backman et al. 1995), stated, that average US festival-goers were less than 50 years old and had annual incomes of less than $40,000. It is also found that women participants were these who affect more both motives categories 'Socialization' and 'Family togetherness'. 'Festival and escape' was the motive's category which affect mostly attendees to join this particular festival. With anova analysis observed that there is a statistically significant differences between the above category and the variable of age, this conclusion supported the assertion made by (Yuan, et all, 2005; Carmichael, 2001), that younger participants affected more from 'Festival and escape' motive's category. Statistically significant differences between 'Socialization' and the variable of age proposed by (Yuan, et all, 2005), also received support from this study's findings, as younger people consider that participation in such events is a good chance to meet new people.

On contrary, with findings of previous surveys (Yuan, et all, 2005), in this specific case, attendees were mostly informed about the festival through posters and from friends something which is absolutely related with the exact timing, in which made their decision, to join the festival.

Nowadays, with so many tourists' destinations, local food and beverages can be the unique selling advantage of each destination against to their competitors. For this reason, in this part of article, our recommendations were made; in order gastronomic tourism contribute to further development of Greek tourist product.

Analyzing results of our survey, we found that only a small number of attendees informed about this festival either from internet (N=1) or travel agents (N=3), so cultural associations which organize such events, should promote this festival via the internet and travel agents.

Through the internet such events can be projected, with different ways. Firstly, festival's website can be created, from which visitors would be informed about the event, book hotel rooms or tickets for the festival and participate at competitions, such as designing festival's poster. Another way can be social networks as most of festival's participants are people from 18 to 29 years old. The presentation of such events through travel agents and guides might be extremely important, as most people who visit a tourist destination from another country chose them in order to be informed.

Additionally, festivals like that should be presented from Hellenic Ministry of Culture and Tourism, at international exhibitions for Greek tourism. Local community and cultural associations, which are responsible for organizing such events, should cooperate with foreign associations, in order the visitation rate of such events be increased.

Moreover, the visitation rate of such events can be increased, if better services offered and festival's duration become longer. This would happen, if festivals enriched with more activities, like, seminars, about different ways of cooking or general information about each product.

Another important finding of our survey was that motives which affect more attendees to participate that specific festival were "To experience local agriculture areas' and 'To try something new', as a result, activities like, to visit agriculture areas where tomatoes produced, attend presentations about it's production way or treatment process which may be required in order to distributed it in the market, should be included. It would be also, interesting attendees to participate at the whole process of production or harvesting.

More children activities should be included at festivals as theater performances, drawing competitions and interactive games about each product (tomato in our case) in order the number of visiting families be increased.

What is more, from survey's findings it is noted that, although, most of our participants (N=52), were with annual income of less than 30000 €, they spent during the festival between €11 to €60, (N= 55) as consequence, ticket price should be reduced.

Additionally, people who had visited the festival before could have a discount, while people for whom is the first time, to participate in competitions in order the following year to visit festival with no charge. Families also, could have special discounts at dinning services, and children younger than 12 years old not to pay for a ticket.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH.

The findings of this study were based on one festival. The sample of our survey is limited only to those who visit this particular event (Tomato Festival). Survey's sample is also limited due to the fact that, most of participants were not used to join researches, so some of them, reject the request. For these reasons, the finding of our research can not be generalized.

On the other hand, gastronomic tourism, it is a really important issue, which should be studied in extent in the future. For instance it should be studied which is the relation of consumption between food and beverages during a festival and if different cultures affect people's motives in order to join such kind of events.

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CURRENT STATE AND POTENTIAL OF WINE TOURISM IN NORTHERN GREECE: WEIGHING WINEMAKERS' PERCEPTIONS

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Over the last two decades, the mutual cooperation between the wine and the tourism industry led to the development of a rapidly growing sector, namely wine tourism. The profitability and success of this venture are affected by a wide range of factors. Thus, wine tourism has been viewed as a form of consumer behavior, as a developmental strategy that destinations adopt in order to utilize their distinct 'wine tourism terroir' and as a direct selling and educational opportunity for wineries. A stream of research focuses on both the 'winery' and the 'wine region' perspectives, employing case-study approaches. However, the need for data collection from multiple destinations has been stressed, as systematic comparison could shed light on the broader picture of the phenomenon. Within this framework, this paper adds to the existing empirical literature by providing aspects of wine tourism development in Northern Greece region. In particular, the current study aims to compile the profile of the wine industry, to examine the winemakers' level of involvement with tourism activities, as well as to explore their perceptions towards the factors that could expand the potential of wine tourism. A census approach was undertaken, with the use of a structured questionnaire which was sent to each winery directly. Results indicate that wineries in Northern Greece are predominantly small and privately-owned. The majority of them have engaged in wine tourism during the last five years, in an attempt to gain promotional benefits. Apart from descriptive statistics, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) showed that wine tourism can be further developed by variable combinations of five components, labeled as: 'Political-institutional', 'Regional infrastructure', 'Tourism facilities in the winery', 'Promotion' and 'Wine tourism events'.

Keywords: *wine, tourism, development, factors, winemakers, perceptions*

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INTRODUCTION

Since 1990, there has been a rapid growth of wine tourism, in terms of both industry/destination development and academic interest. Getz (2000) states that this emerging form of tourism can be simultaneously viewed: a. as a form of consumer behavior, b. as a developmental strategy that destinations adopt in order to utilize their distinct 'wine tourism terroir' and c. as a direct selling and educational opportunity for wineries. This multi-angle approach gave rise to a great variety of studies on different aspects, namely: wine tourism culture and heritage; wine tourism business; wine tourism marketing; wine tourists' behavior (Carlsen & Charters, 2006); food safety and wine tourism (Mitchell & Hall, 2006).

Table 1. Critical success factors for wine tourism development – Literature review

Authors	Research area	Critical success factors for wine tourism development
Getz et al. (1999)	Western Australia &Washington	Quality of wines, wine country appeal, winery appeal, strong tourism marketing
Getz & Brown (2006)	Canada	An increase in independent visitors to winery, wine festivals and events in area, regional tourism promotion
Tomljenović & Razović (2009)	Croatia	Winery and regional promotion, improvement of legislative environment, financial incentives, education on winery's operation as a tourism attraction, festivals and events
Jurinčič & Bojnec (2009)	Slovenia	Promotion of wines and the region as a tourist destination, financial support
López - Guzmán et al. (2009)	Spain	Coordination at government level, long-term planning, interest of public authorities

Another stream of research focuses on wine tourism regions, destination attractiveness, life cycle and tourism marketing based on the

appeal of wine (e.g.: Alonso & O'Neill, 2009; Alonso & Liu, 2010; Bruwer, 2003; Carlsen & Charters, 2006; Charters & Menival, 2011; Correia et al., 2004; Kunc, 2009; López-Guzmán et al., 2009;2011; Stavrinoudis et al., 2011; Stewart et al., 2008). Williams (2001) argues that competitive positioning of wine tourism regions is an important strategic issue, while Presenza et al. (2010) point out that "the success of a tourism destination depends on the stock of 'raw material' and resources at its disposal and on the ability to exploit them". More specifically, according to Getz (2000), the process of wine tourism destination development includes attractions, services, hospitality, training, infrastructure, organizational development and a marketing plan. Table 1 summarizes the literature review of previous research efforts in this particular field, with emphasis on the factors that affect wine tourism development.

Getz & Brown (2006) stress that the main issue which rises in this kind of analyses is related to difficulties that emerge while making comparisons between several regions. In an attempt to deal with the different methodological approaches used worldwide, the authors propose a set of measures and indicators that allow the application of a unilateral methodology and encourage benchmarking of wine tourism destinations. A number of authors followed suit (López-Guzmán et al., 2009; 2011; Tomljenović & Getz, 2009; Jurinčič & Bojnec, 2009), adopting the same perspective.

The present study adds to the previous evidence, focusing both on the 'winery' and the 'region' dimensions of wine tourism. In particular, this paper aims to provide an analysis of the supply of wine tourism in Northern Greece, by examining: a. the wineries' level of involvement with tourism activities and b. certain characteristics of the tourism product offered. Additionally, this study seeks to weigh the winery owners' and managers' perceptions towards the actions that should be undertaken in order to expand the potential of wine tourism.

METHODOLOGY

The current research has also been based on Getz & Brown (2006) questionnaire; however, the novelty of this paper lies in the use of a census approach. In particular, on September 2010, after having been pilot tested by key stakeholders, the data collection instrument was attached to an e-mail message that explained the research purpose and was sent to each of the 144 winery representatives in the Northern Greek

region2, inviting them to participate. The questionnaire included both close and open ended questions and consisted of the following parts: a) Characteristics of the winery and level of involvement with wine tourism, b) Reasons for not involving in tourism, c) Goals of wine tourism, d) Tourism facilities and wine tourism product, e) Winemakers' perceptions regarding the factors that contribute to wine tourism development and f) Socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents.

Finally, on December 2010, after reminder letters, calls and in some cases personal visits, 110 out of 144 winery owners or managers3 responded, yielding a response rate of 76.39%. Apart from descriptive statistics, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Kim & Mueller 1978, Johnson & Witchern 1992) was applied to address the critical success factors for wine tourism development. PASW v.19.0 software was used for the statistical analyses.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Profile of responding wineries

In terms of their spatial distribution, the large majority of Northern Greek wineries (55.5% or 61/110) are concentrated in Central Macedonia. Of the remaining 44.5%, 24.6% (27) are located in Eastern Macedonia and Thrace, 13.6% (15) in Western Macedonia, 3.6% (4) in Thessaly and 2.7% (3) in Epirus. As illustrated in Table 2, the wineries were mainly young (Mean=13.5years). Sixty percent of them (66) have been established during the last decade, whereas enterprises more than 51 years old account for only 4.5 percent. Most of them are considered to be small (75.46 percent under 100,000 lt production, Mean=130,000 lt) and personally owned (59.1%). Only 2.7% (three wineries) have an annual production that exceeds 1,500,000 lt.

In most of the cases (69.7%), the wineries have less than five employees (Min=1, Max=65, Std=9.7, Mean=6.8). In general, the findings are in line with other recent reviews of the Greek wine sector (ICAP, 2009).

[2] The geographical area of Northern Greece extends from the mountain range of Pindus in the west to Thrace eastwards, with mount Olympus being the natural boundary to the south. The northern Greek vineyards cover approximately 10,000 hectares.

[3] There are cases where an entrepreneur owns more than one winery and that results to a larger number of wineries in total (150).

Table 2. Profile of Responding Wineries

Winery Profile	Frequency	%
Year established		
2006-2010	38	34.54%
2000-2005	28	25.46%
1990-1999	24	21.82%
1980-1989	10	9.09%
Pre-1989	10	9.09%
Total	110	100%
Ownership type		
Sole proprietor	65	59.09%
General Partnership	18	16.36%
Public limited company (Plc)	18	16.36%
Other	9	8.19%
Total	110	100%
Annual production in liters		
Up to 100,000	83	75.46%
100,000< – ≥500,000	15	13.65%
More than 500,000	8	7.26%
Missing values	4	3.63%
Total	110	100%

Level of involvement with tourism activities

Forty percent of the respondents (44) declared that their companies are not involved in wine tourism. Almost twenty two percent of them (24) purport to invest in tourism facilities in the near future. Moreover, wineries that are not involved in wine tourism are mainly family owned, young (Mean=7.39 years), micro enterprises (56.8% of them produce less than 20,000 lt). On the contrary, visitable wineries were found to be older, of greater size (both in production and in employees) and owned by individuals with higher educational level, who have a better training experience in agricultural, tourism and management issues.

Reasons for not involving with wine tourism

Respondents who represented the wineries that do not have facilities for visitors were asked to use a five-point scale to rate a series of factors (where 1 meant ‘not at all important’ and 5 meant ‘extremely important’),

in terms of influencing their decision not to involve with tourism. Results indicate that most of the respondents cited lack of infrastructure in the winery (Mean=3.8) or limited funds (Mean=3.7) as the most common barriers for developing wine tourism. Interestingly, winery representatives declared to be aware of the benefits that could be obtained by investing in this venture.

Goals for wine tourism

Sixty percent of respondents (66) reported being involved in wine tourism, while 59.1 percent of them (39) have developed tourism facilities during 2006 to 2010, a fact which reflects the recent pattern of wine tourism development in the region. Moreover, owners or managers of this kind of enterprises were asked to indicate their level of agreement with a set of reasons for getting involved in tourism activities. Results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Goals of wine tourism

Our winery is involved in wine tourism in order to…	Mean	Median	St. deviation
Get in contact with the consumer	4.4	5.0	0.8
Improve the brand recognition of our wines	4.4	5.0	0.9
Raise the profile of the winery in this region	4.3	5.0	0.9
Become a pole of tourism attraction	4.2	4.0	0.9
Improve brand awareness of local wines	4.1	4.0	1.0
Raise the profile of Greek wineries	4.1	4.0	1.1
Raise the profile of the winery in Greece	4.1	4.0	1.1
Contribute to local tourism development	4.0	4.0	1.1
Raise the profile of the winery outside Greece	3.8	4.0	1.2
Achieve cellar door sales	3.7	4.0	1.3
Increase profit margins	3.5	4.0	1.3
Gain supplementary income	3.4	3.5	1.2
Extend the visitors' length of stay	3.3	3.0	1.3
Develop a mailing list for wine sales	3.2	3.0	1.2

It is worthwhile to be mentioned that winemakers in Northern Greece are more sensitive to building customer relationships than to purely economic incentives. In addition, they are not exclusively focused on the progress of their own business; they turn their attention to regional

development as well as to raising the profile of the wineries at a national level.

Tourism orientation of the wineries

Having recognized the potential benefits of wine tourism, 62.1 per cent of wineries are open all year, minimum during the opening hours while any other times are available by prior arrangement. However, it should come as no surprise that winery visitation peaks in winter, particularly during the Christmas period. During the summer, tourism demand in Greece is heavily concentrated in coastal areas and most of wineries in the research area are located in mountainous regions. It is noteworthy that 81.8 per cent of the enterprises did not employ staff to deal with tourists; individuals who are responsible for hosting visitors have been drawn from the existing personnel. In 93.9 per cent of the cases, wine tourism activities demand less than three employees.

Table 4. Products and services offered at wineries

	Frequency	%
Products and services offered		
Cellar door sales	65	98.5%
Wine tasting	65	98.5%
Guided tour in the winery	62	93.9%
Information brochures	57	86.4%
Guided tour in the vineyards	48	72.7%
Special events	46	69.7%
Other services (cooking classes, etc)	25	37.9%
Hosting social events	17	25.8%
Sales of other products	17	25.8%
Audio visual presentation equipment	16	24.2%
Total	66	100%

Regarding the existing infrastructure and service provision (Table 4), results show that wine tasting (98.5%) and cellar door sales (98.5%) are available in almost all the wineries, while a slightly lower percentage of them have a tasting (86.4%) and a cellar door sales room (86.4%). 84.8% have developed outdoor facilities (gardens surrounding the winery etc), while more than half (59.1%) offer outdoor dining facilities. However, in

only 48.5% of the enterprises there is a dining room in the winery. Another finding that reflects the structure of wine tourism development in Northern Greece is the fact that only 21.1% of the wineries offer accommodation.

The majority of the respondents (71.2%) expressed the intention to expand their efforts and to undertake the development of new wine tourism activities in the near future, including the hosting of educational and social events and the provision of accommodation and dining facilities.

Cellar door sales and visitation numbers

Despite the fact that data collection is essential for comparison purposes and benchmarking (Getz & Brown, 2006), 63.6% (42) of the winery representatives reported not keeping information about their visitors. Over the last three years, the average number of winery visitors increased by 23.5% from 2,740.25 in 2008 to 3,384.40 in 2010. With respect to cellar door sales, only 21.2% (14 wineries) reported that they constituted more than 10% of total wine sales; however a slight increase has been recorded since 2008.

Promotional methods

Results show that wineries use multiple methods to attract visitors, with participation to wine events (84.8% or 56/66), brochure printing (83.3%, 55) and road signs outside the winery (81.8%, 54) being the most common ones. Almost eighty percent of the responding wineries (53) reported having their own website, while only 39.4% of them (26) cooperate with tourism agencies.

Critical success factors

The wine tourism supply stakeholders' perceptions towards the development of the sector are of crucial importance, as they give prominence to priority issues of concern. Analysis of the descriptive statistics revealed that the highest-scoring items were: 'Legislation', 'Financial incentives', 'Stakeholder cooperation and government support' and 'More promotion of winery as tourist attraction'. All four items ranked number 1(Mean=4.4, Median=5.0).

Table 5. Principal Component Analysis on factors that affect wine tourism development

Variables	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	Communality
H1.17 (Promotion of the region)	0,815					0,735
H1.16 (Promotion of the wineries)	0,787					0,688
H1.20 (Financial incentives)	0,783					0,681
H1.19	0,765					0,704
H1.10		0,778				0,803
H1.11 (Convention		0,773				0,607
H1.7 (Improvement of		0,722				0,609
H1.5 (Critical		0,637				0,725
H1.6 (Improvement of		0,618				0,656
H1.1 (Catering			0,737			0,634
H1.3 (Hospitality facilities-			0,709			0,553
H1.14 (Promotion of wineries)				0,861		0,798
H1.15 (Promotion of wines)				0,746		0,747
H1.2 (Wine					0,720	0,752
Variance explained	18,426	17,230	12,092	10,867	7,592	
Total variance explained (%)	66,207					
Cronbach's Alpha *Reliability* Coefficient	0,86	0,82	0,61	0,82		
Discrimination	0,70	0,61	0,44	0,69		
Cronbach's Alpha *Reliability*	0,86					

Discrimination measure (Total	0,49					
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure	0,742					
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	χ^2=651,825	d.f.=190	p=0,000			

Moreover, the VARIMAX rotation technique was used to extract interpretable principal components and compressed the variables of the initial scale into five best orthogonal composite descriptors. The latter sufficed to explain 66.2 % of the total variance in the original descriptor set. Both the eigenvalue greater than one and the scree test criterions were used (Sharma 1996, Hair et al. 1995) for determining the significant components. Component loadings greater than 0.50 (in absolute value), the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy, the results of the Bartlett's test of sphericity as well as reliability indices are shown in Table 5.

The five factors extracted were labeled as: 'Political-institutional' (Factor 1; 18.426% of the variance), 'Regional infrastructure' (Factor 2; 17.230%), 'Tourism facilities in the winery' (Factor 3; 12.092%), 'Promotion' (Factor 4; 10.867%) and 'Wine tourism events (Factor 5; 7.592%).

CONCLUSIONS

The current paper contributes to the growing empirical supply-side literature on wine tourism, by adding evidence from Northern Greece. According to the study's results, the region's wine sector consists predominantly of small and privately-owned firms, which have engaged in wine tourism during the last five years, in an attempt to gain promotional benefits. Linking these findings to life-cycle theory (Tomljenović & Getz, 2009), Northern Greece can be identified as a wine tourism destination in its developing stage. Apparently, the maturity phase will require winemakers to get more involved in tourism activities on one hand and a greater dependence on cellar door sales on the other.

Moreover, Principal Component Analysis was an effective tool for reducing the number of variables taken into account, when assessing the winemakers' perceptions towards wine tourism, to a limited group of variables which summarize most of the information. Results clearly demonstrate that, apart from the need for private investment in

infrastructure facilities that arises, factors which reflect policy issues along with regional level actions are considered 'most critical'. Indeed, as Gunn (2002:35) argues, tourism is "a system of major components linked together in an intimate and interdependent relationship". Given the large number of different quality wines produced as well as the wide range of attractions that the region possesses, it can be concluded that wine tourism in the research area has a considerable growth potential. To this end, there is a clear need for greater synergy and collaboration among the key stakeholders, including various tourism entities, policy makers, as well as the host community. Accordingly, future research should expand to take into account the perceptions and interactions of all those who have a stake in the successful development of wine tourism.

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ANALYSING THE POTENTIAL OF WINE TOURISM OF THE ISLAND OF FOGO (CAPE VERDE)

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The relationship between agriculture and tourism is allowing for improved economic development in rural areas and is improving tourists' experiences. The literature highlights that both sectors can be complementary and can develop in conjunction with each other, generating wealth and creating jobs. This paper presents an analysis into the potential of wine tourism on the island of Fogo. To this end, the results of fieldwork carried out on the island are presented, consisting of an analysis of tourists' evaluation of aspects related to wine and cuisine. The main results show that the wine sector is developing on the island, as well as areas associated with wine such as cuisine and craftwork, highlighting the importance of hospitality and the creation of tourism routes. It can therefore be concluded that the promotion of wine tourism could create links between agriculture, culture and tourism which could lead to greater socioeconomic development.

Keywords: *Wine tourism, rural areas, economic development, islands, Cape Verde, Africa*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is constantly subject to changes and it currently aims to respond to increasingly demanding tourists who are seeking a more active experience. As a result of these changes, thematic tourism – which highlights elements related to the recovery of cultural, social and

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environmental heritage in various areas – has improved. Consequently, over the last few years, a commitment has been made to all elements linked to culinary tradition and wine (in short, with historical and cultural elements) as a reflection of an area's individual identity. In this sense, wine and tourism (linked to local cuisine) appear to create a perfect symbiosis, allowing tourists to appreciate a distinct product and discover a new destination, consequently bringing about economic development in certain rural areas while following the concept of sustainable development. According to Steward *et al.* (2008) this kind of tourism promotes and suggests the idea that cuisine, wine and, more specifically, culture can be – and often are – the main attractions for visiting a certain region and not necessarily a second (or complementary) attraction for the trip. In this sense, it is important to remember that wine is a reflection of a town's cultural, social and patrimonial heritage. In other words, it reflects the particular idiosyncrasy of a town's inhabitants, leading this kind of tourism product to be defined in the largest sense as "the wine landscape" (Brunori and Rossi, 2000).

At the same time, wine tourism can act as a means of reviving certain rural areas and therefore allow the inhabitants of these areas to obtain complementary (but never alternative) economic resources to traditional primary sector activities.

The aim of this paper is to analyse how wine production in rural areas could contribute to the development of tourism on the island of Fogo which would, in turn, lead to greater wealth generation and an increase in the number of jobs. Furthermore, this paper will also attempt to reinforce existing studies which have been carried out on wine tourism in Africa.

BACKGROUND

Following on from Getz and Brown (2006), wine tourism can be defined simultaneously as a form of consumer behaviour, a development strategy for the area and its wine market and a promotional opportunity for wineries to sell their products directly to the consumer. Hall et al. (2000) consider wine tourism to be the experience of visiting vineyards, learning about wineries and attending festivals and wine demonstrations for which tourists' main motivation is wine tasting and/or the experience of its qualities. The origin of the studies dedicated to wine tourism date back to the mid nineteen-nineties when they were mainly based in Australia and New Zealand. These first studies concentrated mainly on two aspects: firstly, the analysis of the socioeconomic impact of wine tourism in rural areas and, secondly, the study of the behaviour of tourists

in wineries (Hall, 1996; Getz, 2000). Two studies marked the beginning of research into this field, namely "Wine tourism around the world" (Hall et al., 2000) and "Explore wine tourism" (Getz, 2000).

The literature documents wine routes in Australia (O'Neill and Charters, 2000, 2010), Canada (Hashimoto and Telfer, 2003), Chile (Kunc, 2009), France (Charters and Menival, 2011), Greece (Alebaki and Lakovidou, 2010), Hungary (Szivas, 1999), Portugal (Bras et al., 2010) and Spain (López-Guzmán et al., 2011). A wine route is designed to do more than offer the opportunity for a mere tasting of good wine (accompanied by the favours of the local cuisine) these routes do in fact allow the tourist to experience socio-cultural and environmental factors being that wine, and it's composition, reflects the cultural heritage of an entire geographical area and reinforces it's natural conditions. Although similar in terms of their content, these socio-cultural and environmental factors allow each route to be structured differently, having been witness to the typical values of the land where it is located (Bruwer, 2003). Similarly, the wine route also makes it possible to respond to the search for the area's differential and traditional values which leads to tourist satisfaction.

There are currently several areas of research open in the field of wine tourism. Therefore, with the aim of ascertaining the current state of the issue through various studies, Mitchell and Hall (2006) propose that lines of research into wine tourism should be grouped into seven categories. These categories are: wine tourism product, wine tourism and regional development, quantifying demand, wine tourist segmentation, behaviour of visitors, type of visit to the winery and food safety.

Wine routes allow for the development of the geographical areas in which they are created. In this sense, Telfer (2001) considers it necessary to establish strategic alliances for the economic development of the area which will lead to both private and social benefits (for example, improving the roads in the area). Thus, some studies (Telfer, 2001; Correia et al., 2004; Tomljenovic and Getz, 2009) conclude that collaboration must be developed between private and public companies in order for this to work. They suggest that collaboration should be in the form of certain alliances - in some cases formal alliances - which coordinate the creation (and development) of this tourism product in a determined destination. Therefore, the development of tourism services and complementary services together with the necessary marketing of the tourism product is fundamental (Jurincic and Bojnec, 2009).

The creation of a wine route involves defining one or various itineraries in the selected area. They should be signposted perfectly,

indicating the location of the various wineries and other locations related to wine, as well as providing information about historic sites or other places of interest (Hall et al., 2000). Moreover, the routes must help to develop the area economically, socially, environmentally and culturally. Generally they should be located in a rural setting, with the aim being that the tourist has experiences based on knowledge, appreciation and sampling of wine. Ultimately, they should act as means of attaching value to rural tourism in the area and, in short, developing the area socioeconomically. The creation of a wine route is also an opportunity to create synergies between different areas of tourism, such as rural tourism (supporting accommodation above all), culinary tourism (through the sampling of typical local dishes) and cultural tourism (through the consideration of different man-made buildings and/or natural landscapes), while at the same time having the objective of strengthening the area's agricultural sector (Tassiopoulus et al., 2004). As a result, this type of tourism can increase tourists' motivation to visit a specific place, reinforcing the typical activities found in that area (Marzo-Navarro and Pedraja-Iglesias, 2012). The various components related to the wine tourism experience are represented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Components of the wine tourist´s experience

Visit to wineries
Sampling of culinary specialities
Purchases
Visit to a wine information centre
Silence, Countryside, Heritage

Source: Adapted from Brunori and Rossi (2000)

Figure 1 demonstrates how a tourist route is based on a variety of elements. The main among these is the visit to wineries along with, logically, the consumption of culinary specialities typical to the area. In this sense, these elements serve to reinforce the relationship between wine and the region where it is produced (Hojean and Hunter-Jones, 2012). Following these two previous elements is the possibility to buy products related to wine, visits to ecological information centers, and finally everything related with the region, such as the landscape or it ispatrimony

(Brunori and Rossi, 2000).

Furthermore, according to Bruwer (2003), an interesting point to consider is that wine tourism develops in rural areas, which leads to greater promotion of these areas. At the same time, it favours small wineries without adequate channels of product promotion which could improve sales in the winery itself, while also improving the image of the destination thus increasing the number of tourists and improving local infrastructure (Tomljenovic and Getz, 2009).

In Africa, the analysis of wine tourism has mainly concentrated on South Africa, with contributions made by Preston-Whyte (2000), Nowers et al. (2002), Bruwer (2003), Demhardt (2003), Tassiopoulos et al. (2004) and Bruwer and Alant (2009). These studies have made it possible to confirm that wine tourism is one of the few national industries in the country to be located in rural areas and that it plays a fundamental role in regional development and job creation (Tassiopoulos et al., 2004). Moreover, this sector creates linkages and opportunities with the agricultural sector and with agrotourism and leads to a significant increase in the demand for agricultural products and services.

With regards to wine tourism on the island of Fogo, it is necessary to refer to wine tourism on other islands in the other two archipelagos in Macaronesia (where Cape Verde is found). These archipelagos are Madeira (Portugal) and the Canary Islands (Spain). The studies carried out into wine tourism in the Canaries include those by Alonso et al. (2008), Scherrer et al. (2009), Sheridan et al. (2009) and Alonso and Liu (2011). In the case of Madeira, studies have been carried out by Pestana Barros and Pinto Machado (2010). Both Madeira and the Canary Islands are two classic examples of traditional beach and sun destinations, where wine tourism is acting simultaneously as a complementary way to strengthen the destination's image and as a means of promotion through the marriage between the islands' wines and their cuisine (Alonso and Liu, 2011). Obviously, the tourism development on Cape Verde in general, and on the island of Fogo in particular, cannot be compared with the other archipelagos of Macaronesia, but can serve as a point of reference from which to analyze the relationship between beach and sun tourism and wine tourism. Similarly, the relationship between tourism and wine has been studied on other islands. In fact, wine production was in place before any tourism sector developed in these geographical areas (Freese, 2005), although in reality the development of tourism on these islands is markedly better. Due to this wine tourism could be an important link between both sectors and could prove a diversifying force economically in the aforementioned area. One example can be found on

the island of Santorini (Greece), where the introduction of wine tourism has made possible the creation of new tourism products, such as the reinforcing the lines of commercialization of this product (Freese, 2005).

DESCRIPTION OF THE GEOGRAPHICAL AREA

Cape Verde is an archipelago situated in the Atlantic Ocean. It is made up of ten islands (nine inhabited and one deserted), which together comprise an area of 4,033 km2. The total population is around 500,000, although there is also a significant Diaspora which is estimated to be around a million people (African Development Bank, 2009). The Republic of Cape Verde was part of Portugal until it gained independence in 1975. Cape Verde is a current example of an African country where socioeconomic progress and democracy are a reality. The absence of natural problems (such as hurricanes and epidemics) and social problems (such as religious or ethnic conflicts) makes Cape Verde an attractive and safe tourist destination, although it is necessary to stress policies which fight against the existing level of poverty in certain areas of the country. Moreover, democratic stability, as demonstrated by the alternating of power between the two major political parties, awards the country with a high level of legal certainty.

At the end of the 20th century the economy of Cape Verde was based on remittances sent from emigrants, official development aid from other countries and income from air traffic. However, Cape Verde has undergone a vast economic transformation in the last decade. As a result, in 2007 the World Bank included the country on its list of Middle-Income countries. Also in 2007 the country signed a Preferential Agreement with the European Union and entered into the World Trade Organisation. As already mentioned, this economic transformation is - in part - due to tourism. Table 1 shows the number of foreign tourists arriving in the country, the income derived from tourism and the percentage contribution of the tourism sector to GDP for the period 2000-2010. This table clearly demonstrates the significant increase in tourism-related income and how tourism's contribution to the country's GDP has increased from a modest 9.1% to nearly 28% in only a decade. Furthermore, it highlights another positive element, namely the practically inexistent seasonality of tourism, which allows the country to maintain a uniform level of activity throughout the year as is the case with the islands of the Caribbean (Vanegas and Croes, 2003).

Table 1. Number of foreign tourists, income from tourism and impact of tourism on GDP (2000-2010)

Year	Foreign tourists	Income from tourism (millions of dollars)	Contribution to GDP (%)
2000	115,015	49	9.1
2001	134,169	54	9.5
2002	125,852	65	10.3
2003	150,048	135	15.9
2004	157,052	153	16.1
2005	197,844	177	16.6
2006	241,742	286	22.4
2007	267,188	426	28.1
2008	285,141	542	27.8
2009	287,047	n/a	n/a
2010	381,831	n/a	n/a

Source: Created for this study using information from the National Institute of Statistics of Cape Verde (NIS) (2012) and Central Bank of Cape Verde (2010).
Note: n/a – figures not available.

It is estimated that 24,000 people work in the tourism sector. This represents approximately 21% of total employment in Cape Verde which is estimated to be 115,000 (Twining-Ward, 2010). These figures are similar to those of Caribbean countries which have an employment rate of 25% and an employee to hotel room ratio of 1.33 (Bryan, 2001). Nevertheless, this ratio in Cape Verde is quite low, at 0.64 employees per hotel room (Mitchell, 2008). Moreover, it is estimated that for every 45 new tourists coming to the island, one direct and 0.9 indirect jobs are created (Vanegas and Croes, 2003). In accordance with this estimation, and taking into account the predictions that 600,000 tourists will visit

Cape Verde in 2013 (Direcçao Geral do Turismo, 2010), 7,000 new job posts – directly and indirectly linked to tourism - should be created in Cape Verde. In other words, according to these estimations and predictions, 30% of the population should be employed in the tourism sector.

Tourism in Cape Verde is developing along two completely different routes. Firstly, through the creation of large resorts, generally financed by foreign capital and developed mainly on two islands (Sal and Boa Vista). Secondly, through the creation of small tourism enterprises, managed by the local community and financed in a major part by capital sent from the Diaspora population.

The economy of the island of Fogo is based fundamentally on agriculture and fishing. Due to the volcano which lends its name to the island, the land is very fertile and various agricultural products are cultivated, with wine and coffee being the most important. In addition to this, a large proportion of the island's residents receive remittances sent by emigrants living in the United States and other countries. Fogo's tourism sector is one of growing importance, with its volcano being the main focus of attraction for foreigners visiting the island. In fact, this volcano is still active and last erupted in 1995. As a result, the number of visitors has gone from 6,549 in 2007 to 11,528 in 2011. That is to say, of course, that there has been a 76% increase in visitors in just five years, while overnight stays have gone from 12,501 in 2007 to 21,009 in 2010, an increase of 68% (National Statistic Institute of Cape Verde, 2012). Together with the volcano and the 'lunar landscape' which surrounds it, other tourism resources include the incipient wine tourism, a result of the increasing importance of wine production in the area. In this sense, wine culture has always been present in the area, demonstrated by the large number of families who produce their own wine. All these agricultural initiatives rely on the support of international cooperation agencies, above all on the Italian Cooperation Agency, although it is also funded through microlending and the financial support of the European Union.

The origin of wine in Fogo is documented in 1917 when exports to Brazil and Guinea-Bissau began but it was from 1984, with the support of the German International Cooperation Agency, that production intensified. However, the majority of vineyards were destroyed in the volcanic eruption of 1995. Nevertheless, in 1998 vine growing and wine production began once again with the help of the Italian International Cooperation Agency, which allowed for the introduction of the current equipment used in the wineries. This led to an improvement in the quality of wines and increased its marketing at both national and international

level. The island's vineyards are found at an average altitude of more than 1,700, in volcanic soil and in a well-defined microclimate. An analysis of the geo-ecological characteristics of the island of Fogo can be found in Olehowski et al. (2008).

The production of wine on Fogo is mainly concentrated around three large cooperatives but there is also a significant amount produced under the denomination 'Manecon', a wine with home-made characteristics. In 2011, production was in excess of 225,000 litres, an annual increase of 20%. These figures reflect the significant revival of wine and, ultimately, of the economy in this area following the last volcanic eruption in 1995.

For all these reasons, the winery visit and the sampling of wine is becoming one of the most important tourism resources on the island. It is also making it possible to increase the number of small business which offers tourists who visit the wineries the opportunity to sample the local cuisine of the area and buy typical products mainly created using lava from the last volcanic eruption.

METHODOLOGY

The methodology used for this study consisted of a combination of surveys, interviews and field observation which relied upon the collaboration of many actors related to tourism and the agricultural sector on Fogo. The design of the survey into the demand was carried out with the objective of defining, analysing and evaluating the situation regarding tourism on the island of Fogo and, more specifically, in confirming the potential for wine tourism in this geographical area. The survey was carried out on foreign tourists in different areas of the island (specifically six survey points), selected via a simple random sample and carried out by researchers who had been specially trained for the task. Prior to this, a 15 survey pre-test was carried out in order to detect any deviations or errors and to check the tourists' comprehension. The total number of valid surveys was 219, considering that there were 9,942 tourists who visited the island in 2010. The fieldwork was carried out between April and September 2011. The measurement instrument applied to the survey into the demand was an 18 item questionnaire which dealt with the socio-demographic profile of the tourist surveyed, the motivation for their trip to the island of Fogo, the information which they previously had available to them about the island of Fogo, the use of services offered by different kinds of businesses and the evaluation of tourism resources on the island of Fogo, paying particular attention to elements related to wine tourism. The survey designed was based on existing literature (Charters and Ali-

Knight, 2002; Carmichael, 2005; Getz and Brown, 2006).

Together with the surveys, structured interviews were carried out with professionals from the tourism and agricultural sectors – both from the public and private sector – and with social and economic leaders from the island and political leaders. The information obtained has been tabled and analysed through the design of a corresponding database using the SPSS 15.0 programme. As far as statistical tools implemented during the study are concerned, a univariant analysis and Spearman's coefficient were used.

RESULTS

The socio-demographic characteristics of those surveyed are gathered in Table 2.

Table 2. Socio-demographic characteristics of the tourists surveyed.

SEX	(N = 215)	EDUCATION	(N = 214)
Male	49.8%	Primary	4.2%
Female	50.2%	Secondary	19.6%
		University degree	72.0%
AGE	(N = 219)	COUNTRY OF ORIGIN	(N = 216)
Under 30	16.9%	Portugal	26.9%
30-39	30.1%	France	17.6%
40-49	24.7%	Germany	11.1%
50-59	20.1%	Spain	8.8%
60 or over	8.2%	United States	8.8%
		Italy	5.6%
		Other	21.2%

The main motivation for the trip was tourism (54.8%), with both business and visiting family and friends being significant motivations too. In this sense, independently of their primary motive for visiting the island, according to the methodology used by the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), all people visiting the island should be considered tourists. The duration of the trip is high, given that 33.3% stayed between three

and seven days and 54.85% stayed for more than a week. These figures confirm that wine could increase the length of time tourists stay in an area, just as Pestana Barros and Pinto Machado's (2010) study has shown being that this activity increases the number of tourism resources which exist in a geographical area. Moreover, for 71.4% of those surveyed it was their first visit to the island. Furthermore, recommendations received from other people who have visited the island are very important given that the majority of those surveyed (56.6%) stated that they wanted to see the island following recommendations from friends and family.

Table 3 shows the evaluation of some elements related to wine tourism using a five-point Likert scale (1 – very poor quality, 5 – very high quality). The table highlights hospitality, wine, wine routes, cuisine, information and signposting and complementary offer as areas for study. The evaluation of wine corresponds to the overall opinion of the tourists surveyed with regards to different aspects such as winery visits, wine tastings attended and the contemplation of vineyards. With regards to cuisine, the marriage between the island's culinary specialities and wine is rated highly.

With regards to wine routes, those surveyed awarded them an average rating of 3.81. However, they believed that information and sign-posting is an area in need of improvement since it obtained a relatively low rating (3.03). The conclusion that information and sign-posting along wine routes requires improvement coincides with the research carried out by Tassiopoulus *et al.* (2003). Looking at wine, cuisine and hospitality as tourism resources, they received ratings of 3.93, 3.58 and 4.17 respectively. These ratings are similar to those obtained by Correia *et al.* (2008) for visitors who knew Cape Verde, where cuisine scored 3.40 and hospitality 3.80 also on a five-point Likert scale. This study also confirms the high rating tourists usually give to hospitality in areas further away from large tourist flows (Al-Oun and Al-Hamoud, 2008).

The tourists surveyed positively stress the management carried out by the various wine cooperatives (3.93), highlighting the marriage between the area's culinary specialities (3.58). Hence, the structuring and development of grape-growing and wine production could not only lead to the development of the island itself but may also represent an additional contribution to tourism derived income for this area. In fact, following on from Tomljenovic and Getz (2009), tourism acts as a way for small wineries to sell their products directly to tourists and for large wineries to improve their brand image. For this reason, the promotion of wine tourism on the island of Fogo could result in significant additional income for wine producers in the area through direct selling of wine to

tourists. In addition, this could mean a development of the commercialization of wine in other areas of the country.

Table 3. Evaluation of certain aspects

Aspects	Rating
Hospitality	4.17
Wine	3.93
Tourists routes	3.81
Cuisine	3.58
Information and sign-posting	3.03
Complementary offer	2.97

In terms of the elements in need of improvement in relation to wine tourism on the island, the need to improve the complementary offer in the area is highlighted (2.97). For this, it would be necessary to strengthen potential complementary activities to tourism (such as, for example, an increase in cultural activities). Such activities could potentially generate short-term wealth in the area.

Similarly, the potential for the development of craftwork related to the area and the opening of places where tourists can buy local products is also highlighted. In fact, according to the fieldwork carried out, the number of tourists who bought craftwork was very low (15%) and when they were asked why they had not bought traditionally crafted products from the island the majority responded that they did not know of any place where this kind of traditional product was sold. Consequently, and with the objective of granting greater visibility to these types of activities and taking into account the socio-demographic profile of the visitors to the island, we consider that the internet should be better utilized as a tool for these economic activities since, according to Harris (2009), the improvement of information and communication technology (ICT) tools could facilitate the promotion of local tourism initiatives, keeping in mind the low transaction costs involved.

Another aspect analysed in this research was the relationship between tourist satisfaction and different elements of wine tourism on Fogo island, analysed through the use of Spearman correlations. The results obtained

are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Satisfaction with different elements of tourism on Fogo island (Spearman Correlations)

Variable	Correlation	Variable	Correlation
Wine	0.384*	Hospitality	0.300*
Gastronomy	0.357*	Complementary supply	0.295*
Tourists routes	0.326*	Information and sign posting	0.285*

* correlation significant to 1%

In accordance with table 4, all of the aspects analysed show a significant and positive correlation. Therefore, the aspects which have the greatest influence on tourist satisfaction on the island of Fogo are wine, gastronomy and tourist routes. A link has been noted between countries and wine (coefficient $\chi 2 = 101.726$; $p = 0.02$) and the motivation for the trip and wine (coefficient $\chi 2 = 39.435$; $p = 0.011$). These results could prove useful for different branches of local government on the island and for private businesses as a means of strengthening the aspects considered to be in need of improvement, taking into account, nevertheless, that generally speaking tourists were highly satisfied (4.19, measured on a five point Likert scale). This figure highlights the high level of satisfaction of tourists visiting this area, with the majority being satisfied or very satisfied (86.1%) with their visit. In this sense, there has also been a link noted between age and tourist satisfaction (coefficient $\chi 2 = 27.734$; $p = 0.06$), education and tourist satisfaction (coefficient $\chi 2 = 63.610$; $p = 0.00$), and the country of origin of the tourist and level of satisfaction (coefficient $\chi 2 = 91.781$; $p = 0.00$).

CONCLUSIONS

During the first few years of the 21st century, important changes have been taking place in the tourism sector due, among other things, to the increasing demands of tourists. Tourists are demanding new kinds of products and destinations which are often related to the desire to experience the native elements of the places they visit. Consequently, new destinations and products are cropping up with the aim of responding to the search for this new kind of experience.

This paper has presented a study into the development of wine tourism on the island of Fogo (Cape Verde) and how this kind of tourism can serve to promote socioeconomic development in the region and strengthen the agricultural sector, all based on the line of research which analyses how wine tourism can contribute to the growth of rural areas (Mitchell and Hall, 2006). In this paper we have presented the main results of field work which has permitted us to define a socio-demographic profile of the tourists who visit the island and the perception of different variable s related to wine tourism. In this sense the hospitality and the characteristics of the wine have been very positively received.

In accordance with the research carried out, as a tourism resource on the island of Fogo wine tourism is becoming a reality which could significantly increase the number of tourists visiting the island, reinforcing a type of tourism more closely related with nature itself. A complementary tourism product to wine which could significantly increase the motivation to travel to the island is also being sought. Moreover, wine tourism can also act as an image to strengthen the marketing of wine both in the rest of Cape Verde and abroad.

Finally, the main limitation of this research is found in the time of year in which the study was carried out. Therefore, future lines of research proposed include the analysis of the profile of wine tourists who visit the island of Fogo and the behaviour of consumers in the winery. This would lead to data being obtained which would provide more information about who the tourists following the route are, their country of origin, their motivations and their preferences in order to coordinate a product which would best respond the needs of these tourists.

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A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF LIBERALIZATION OF AIR TRANSPORT ON TOURISM: IRAN, TURKEY AND UAE

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This paper examine the impact of the liberalization of international air transport on the development of international tourism by comparing Iran with Turkey and the UAE in a 10 year period 2000-2010 , using comparative-longitudinal method. It is assumed that the liberalization of international air transport leads to the development of international tourism through the growth of traffic, mainly via the Growth of the tourist's quantity and quality. Our investigation concludes that First, the liberalization of air transport made air traffic passengers to be increased considerably in the UAE and Turkey, as compared to Iran. This, in turn, resulted to development of tourism in both countries through a considerable increase of their number of tourists and visitor exports. Second, as compared to the UAE, Iran and Turkey have more potential to develop tourism, however, the UAE, owing to the adoption of more flexible air transport liberal policies, could surpass Iran and Turkey in gaining the higher amount of visitor exports.

Keywords: *Tourism development, air transport, liberalization, passenger traffic, visitor exports*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Transport has traditionally been considered as a main facilitator of economic development and critical in the process of nation-state building. It is said that "the Roman Empire relied on upon a comprehensive road and seaport infrastructure to conduct commerce and to keep its domain intact" (Button, 2004: 8). Transport, likewise, has been a major component of tourism, providing the vital link between the tourist

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generating areas and destinations. Air transport is, amongst other modes, an increasingly important mode of transport for tourism markets (Graham, Papatheodorou and Forsyth, 2008: 1). It has rapidly expanded in the last few decades, playing a crucial role in the process of international integration as well as the development of other sectors of an economy (e.g. Rauch and Trindade, 2002; Herander and Saavedra, 2005). Passenger traffic grew annually at an average of about nine percent between 1960 and 2000 and five percent between 2000 and 2005 (WTO, 2007). Likewise, cargo shipped by air experienced an annual growth rate of 10 percent in the period 1997-2004 (Piermartini and Rousova, 2008: 1).

By reducing the time required to reach a distant location, air transport is a primary factor in determining the choice of the mode of transport to remote areas. For this reason, it is essential to the development of the international tourism sector, particularly in distant locations. By the same token, air transport and tourism are natural complements – hence, air transport has become the preferred means of travel for many trips, and even for some trips, especially at the international level, it is the only means (Dwyer and Forsyth, 2006: 224). As the UNWTO Tourism Highlights reported about inbound tourism mode of transport in 2011 , over half of travelers (51%) arrived at their destination by air transport, while the remainder (49%) travelled over the surface – whether by road 41%, rail 2%, or over water 6% (UNWTO Tourism Highlights, 2012). Over time, the trend has been for air transport to grow at a faster pace than surface transport, so the share of air transport is gradually increasing. As reports reveal, the percentage of people using air transport increased from 43.7% in 1998 to %51 in 2011 (UNWTO Tourism Highlights, 2012 and 2000).

The development of tourism over the last half century is closely intertwined with the liberalization of international air transport which has traditionally been a highly regulated market. As many writers have stated, the liberalization of international air transport has played a crucial role in the growth of traffic at the international level, making a great opportunity of development for the tourism industry (e.g. Dwyer and Forsyth, 2006; Piermartini and Rousova, 2008; Grosso, 2008; Lohmann and Else 2009; and Martin 2009). This is due to the fact that, as Lohmann and Else (2009) state, the growth of air transport networks and liberalization have allowed small, low-populated, places like Singapore and Dubai to become major international tourism destinations. So, countries having the potential to become an international or regional hub make an attempt to

take advantage of this situation by liberalizing their international air transport.

International air transport network in the Middle East region requires one or more international hubs to make a link between the West and the East. It is worth mentioning that for an international hub, formation of some basic infrastructures such as an internationally advanced trade and financial transaction and institutions is essential. The economic liberalization in general and air transport liberalization in particular play a main facilitating role in this process. In other words, those countries adopting air transport liberalization policies have more chance to become an international hub, consequently to experience the growth of air passenger traffic and tourism development. For example, available data show that the most visited cities in the world in 2010 and 2011 mostly are international hubs in their own regions (Table 1). This is particularly applicable for such cities of Singapore, Kuala Lumpur, Bangkok and Dubai whose international hub status has provided them a foremost and prominent opportunity to attract tourists (ibid).

Table 1. The most visited cities number of international visitors in 2010 and 2011 (International visitors millions)

City	International visitors
Paris	15.6
London	15.2
Antalya	10.5
New York	10.3
Singapore	9.2
Kuala Lumpur	9
Dubai	9
Hong Kong	8.7
Istanbul	8.1
Bangkok	7.2

Source: 1. asp.zone-secure website; 2. vlstatic website; 3. ministry culture and tourism website; 4. Nycgo website; 5. Malaysia official tourism website; 6. UNWTO Tourism Highlight 2012; 7. Department of tourism and commerce marketing website; 8. discoverhongkong website; 9. Thailand department of tourism website.

From the geo-economical point of view, three countries including Iran, Turkey and the United Arab Emirates (UAE) have the greatest potential to become international hubs in this region1. Nevertheless, the

three foregoing countries are not identical in adopting or implementing the liberalization of air transport. While Turkey and the UAE, during the past decade, have practically granted more air freedoms to other countries in the framework of air services agreements (ASAs), while Iran has resisted giving any air freedoms and as a consequence, its ASAs with other countries has remained limited. Regarding a positive relationship between air transport liberalization, air passenger traffic and, accordingly, international tourism development, this paper aims to examine the fact that to what extent the liberalization of international air transport has affected the development of international tourism in the three countries .

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Tourism is a component of a system-based product. It does not have a unique base as an industry as its related commodities are viewed as heterogeneous in terms of consumption and production processes. Nonetheless, transport and hospitality services are functionally linked, indicating demand and cost complementarities and supporting the holistic production of tourism experience (Eadigton and Redman, 1991). In this context, the relationship between air transport and tourism is one of a substantial overlap. As several authors emphasized, air transport is important in supporting the growth of the tourism industry; in turn, leisure travel is stimulated by tourism development (Harrison, 1995; William and Shaw, 1998; William and Balaz, 2000). At the same time, air transport and tourism industry are parts of the general economic system of a country. Development of these industries in different countries in the last few decades, especially at the international level, has depended on their politico-economic perspectives towards the prevailing global processes and relations, and particularly their standpoints towards such issues as incorporating into the world economy, and adopting its required and complementary policies like the liberalization of social and economic activities and businesses, including air transport. However, many difficulties in these liberalizations are concerned with countries' different expectations on the effects of alternative policy. As a consequence, uncertainty has prevented many governments from adopting significant regulatory changes (Oum, Zhang and Fu, 2010: 385).

Historically speaking, the liberalization of international air transport has had a root in the liberalization of international trade, going back to Reagan and Thatcher's neo-liberal policies, respectively, in the United States and the United Kingdom that led in Bermuda II agreement. Neo-liberalism as a theory of political economy strongly emphasized on the

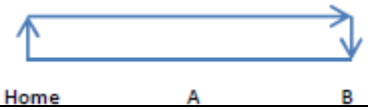
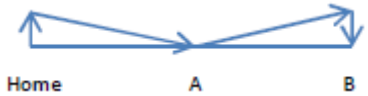
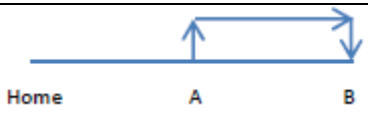
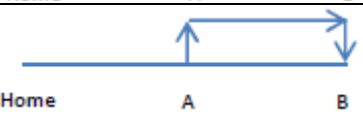
free market economy and the least government interference as a main solution to cope with the inefficiency problem of countries as a general and that of socio-economic businesses in different fields in particular. This thought followed by economic liberalization primarily, in few developed market economy-based countries helped to facilitate the development of various branches of industries and businesses with an effective function.

For this purpose, after the collapse of the Soviet Union and the end of the Cold War, the World Trade Organization (WTO) was formed as a powerful global organization to facilitate international trade relations and processes. Since its formation, different countries have found that to function globally and effectively mean to incorporate their economy into the global one. This has been only possible through liberalization in different socio-economic sectors including air transport. Many argued that the liberalization of international air transport, to a large extent, has been an important area that mirrors development of trade liberalization and that of tourism (e.g. Oum and Yu, 1998: p. 1; Hubner and Sauve, 2001; Hummels, 2007; Martin, 2009). In fact the liberalization of international trade and development of tourism could not be effectively occurred unless an easy and fast mode of access to various locations and destinations over the world to be feasible via such means as air transport. This means that the liberalization of international trade and that of air transport as well as development of truism are currently bound in a cycle.

The logic behind the positive impacts of liberalization policies on trade in general and air transport in particular can be outlined as follows. First, liberalization leads to substantial economic and traffic growth, mainly because of increased completion and efficiency gains in the airline industry, as well as externalities to the overall economy; second, liberalization gives rise to airlines to optimize their networks within and across continental markets, consequently leading to the increase of traffic flow patterns. As Robyn et al. state, "in a liberalized market, more efficient airlines would replace efficient ones, or less efficient airlines would adopt the practices of more efficient ones, leading to significant cost savings and an increase in industry efficiency" (p. 58). Third, increased competition and successful restructuring of the air transport industry lead to three different types of cost savings:" economies of scale – owing to higher passenger base; economies of scope – derived from the development of hub airports; density economies – better co-ordination of flights in airline's network leading to higher load factors" (Martin, 2009: 12). Fourth, liberal environment works as accelerator of the emergence of

low-cost carriers (LCCs), which in turn leads to stimulated traffic and the competitiveness of a national air transport industry (Forsyth et al., 2006: 147).

Table 2. Nine Freedoms of the air

1st Freedom: fly over a foreign country	
2nd Freedom: make technical stop in a foreign country	
3rd Freedom: carry traffic from home to foreign country	
4th Freedom: carry traffic from foreign country to home	
5th Freedom: pick up traffic in foreign country and carry to other country	
6th Freedom: carry from foreign country to other country via home	
7th Freedom: pure foreign flight; foreign country to another foreign country	
8th Freedom (Cabotage): city A in foreign country to another city in that country; flight must originate in home country	
9th Freedom (pure Cabotage): city A in foreign country to city B in same country; flight need not originate in home country	

Source: Zhang, 2004: 42-43

Generally speaking, liberalization refers to a relaxation of previous government restrictions, usually in areas of social or economic policy. In

some contexts this process or concept is often, but not always, referred to as deregulation (liberalization) (Sullivan and Sheffrin, 2002). Liberalization here is when government reduces its role and allows industry greater freedom in how it operates. The liberalization of international air transport, in particular, refers to freer contracting or signing ASAs between each pair-country. According to WTO secretariat (WTO, 2006), ASAs include seven features: grant of rights; capacity clause; Tariff approval; withholding; designation; statistics; and cooperative arrangements. However, Grant of rights included air freedoms is regarded the most important prerequisite for a country wishing to become an international hub (De Leon, 1992; Weber and Giemulla, 2011).

The table 2 indicates Nine Freedoms of the air. In the context of air transport, granting the fifth freedom is the least condition that a country should do to liberalize its air transport. This could mean that granting the fifth freedom and then, in the form of more liberalized contracts such as Open-Skies, makes a country accessible and attractive for international airlines. This, in turn, leads to the increase of passenger traffic and, consequently, to development of tourism internationally. This study attempts to indicate this fact .

METHODOLOGY

This section provides a brief explanation of the research method and concepts. As mentioned above, this study aims to investigate the impact of the liberalization of air transport on tourism development at the international level. As indicated in Figure 1, it is assumed that the liberalization of international air transport brings about the development of international tourism through the growth of traffic. In other words, the higher the extent of liberalization, the more the increase of international air traffic and, as a consequence, the higher the development of international tourism, mainly via the growth of the tourist's quantity and quality2. Comparative-longitudinal method has been used to examine these relations focusing on the three countries, including Iran, Turkey and the UAE in a 10- year period, 2000-2010. The reason for choosing this decade is that Turkey and the UAE started to sign Open-Skies agreement with USA from 2000 and since then they indicated more flexibility in practice in their ASAs, whereas Iran did not.

The study is based on a longitudinal comparative method. In this method, basically, an attempt is made to examine variation of a process, a

variable, between/among, two/more groups (countries, societies etc) over a period of time, usually one decade and more. The method is based on the chronic presence and absence of a phenomenon in two or more groups to see the impact of an occurrence in a particular period. For this purpose, a specific choice is made to represent a comparison of the selected phenomenon under observation in relation to other social phenomenon (May, 1997: 183). That is, two or more groups under study are distinguished with respect of occurrence of a cause, then variation(s) is (are) detected over a defined time period (Ragin, 1989). In our study, the liberalization of international air transport has been present in the UAE and Turkey but absent in Iran over the period under study, so it is expected that changes in Tourism in these countries could be resulted from liberalization polices3. To see the impact of the liberalization of air transport on tourism development at the international level, we used descriptive method by comparing the available data and statistics, mainly official countries' year books/reports, over a decade ,2000-20104.

In this study, the liberalization of international air transport refers to granting the fifth freedom and thereafter in ASAs with other countries. The growth of the international passengers refers to the number of arrival and departure passengers at the international Traffic airports. And, the development of international tourism refers to the growth of the tourist's quantity and quality. Quantity and quality respectively refer to the number of international tourists and the amount of revenue from international tourism .

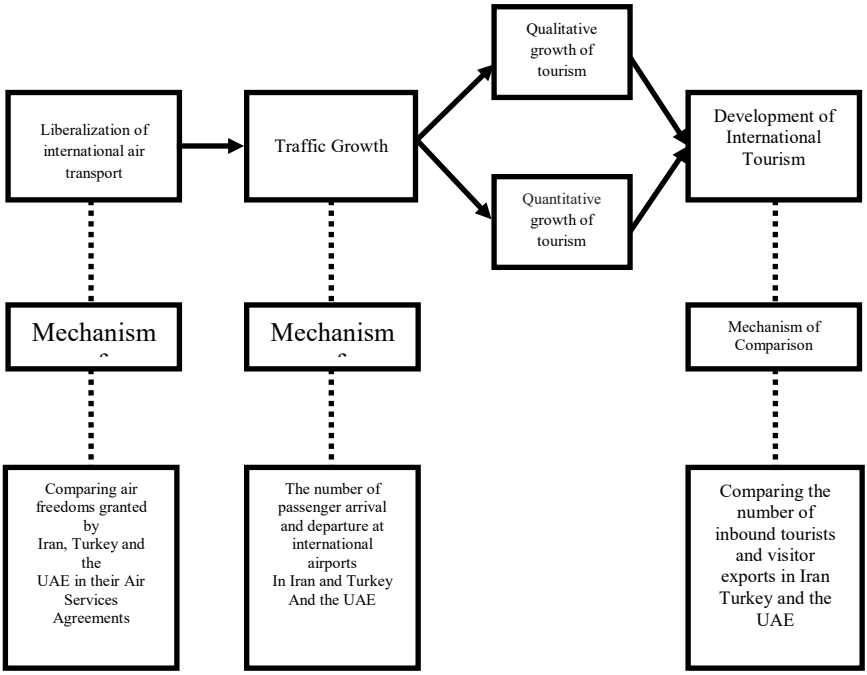


Figure 1. The research process

COMPARING AIR FREEDOMS GRANTED BY IRAN, TURKEY AND THE UAE

The review of the ASAs in different countries shows that the UAE and Turkey in numerous bilateral agreements have granted the fifth freedom, an average of 60%. As summarized in table 2, the UAE has taken more practical steps to develop Dubai as an international hub in the Middle East region, mainly through signing Open-Skies agreement with over 20 different countries; while so far Turkey has only signed it with the United States. On the other hand, Iran has not yet granted the fifth air

freedom in any case and not signed the Open-Skies agreement, consequently, taking no real effective action to become an international hub yet (For Turkey's and the UAE's ASAs see InterVISTAS-EU, 2009 and for Iran's ASAs see Institute of Transportation, 2008).

Table 3. Air Freedoms Granted By Iran, Turkey and the UAE

Freedoms of the air	5th Freedom	6th Freedom	8th Freedom	9th Freedom	Open-Skies with other countries	Open-Skies with USA
Iran	-	-	-	-	-	-
Turkey	+	+	+	+	-	+
UAE	+	+	+	+	+	+

Granted: +, No Granted: -.
Source: Authors' compilations are based on InterVISTAS-EU, 2009 and Institute of Transportation, 2008.

THE GROWTH OF TRAFFIC

As seen in Table 4 and figure 2, the UAE has increased the number of traffic passengers from 16 million in 2000 to 58.2 million in 2010, an increase of 42.2 million. Over this period, Turkey did manage to increase its traffic passengers from 21.6 to 52.2 million, an increase of 30.6 million. But during the same period, Iran could only raise its traffic passengers from 2.8 to 8.09 million, only an increase of 5.2 million. While the air traffic gap of Iran with the UAE and Turkey has been 14 and 19 million passengers respectively in 2000, it has been augmented to 50 and 44 million passengers respectively in 2010. This could mean that the latter countries could promote their status to an international hub in the Middle East region. Although, the difference of the figures, at the first glance, does not appear much critical at the beginning of the decade, it became larger and significant at the end of the period. This is particularly more evident from 2006 onwards when the passenger figure rose to 24 million for the UAE and 20 million for Turkey, indicating the cumulative impact of liberalization policies.

From the foregoing data, we may conclude that while, the UAE and Turkey could highly improve their air transport status at the international level and consequently become international hub, through adopting further air transport liberalization policies, namely via granting the fifth freedom, Iran due to not adopting more liberal policies, not only has not

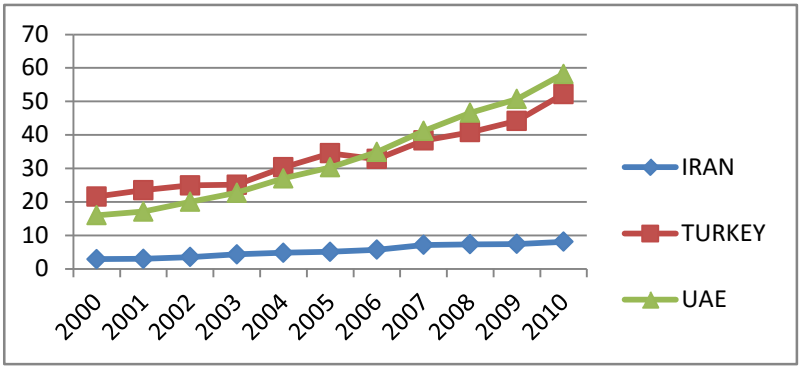
added to its number of international passengers but also has remained far behind its regional rivals. The impact of flexible liberal policies on the growth of traffic could be seen by comparing the UAE with Turkey, so that the former could remedy its gap of 5.6 million air passengers in 2000 and, even, surpassed Turkey in 2010 by raising 6 million more passengers. As seen in figure 2, the pace of growth in the UAE is more regular than Turkey

Table 4. The number of passenger arrival and departure at international airport in Iran, Turkey and the UAE during 2000 to 2010 (million passengers)

Year	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Iran	2.87	2.99	3.5	4.34	4.81	5.10	5.68	7.12	7.30	7.41	8.09
Turkey	21.6	23.5	24.9	25.1	30.3	32.8	32.1	38.3	40	44.2	52.2
UAE	16	17.1	20	22.7	27	30.3	34.9	41.2	46.6	50.7	58.2

Source: Statistical Yearbook of Air Transport Civil Aviation Organization of Iran, Statistical indicators the Institute of Statistics of Turkey and Turkey's Statistical Yearbook, 2011, Dubai and Abu Dhabi International Airport website.

Figure 2. The number of passenger arrival and departure at international airport in Iran, Turkey and the UAE during 2000 to 2010 (million passengers)



THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM

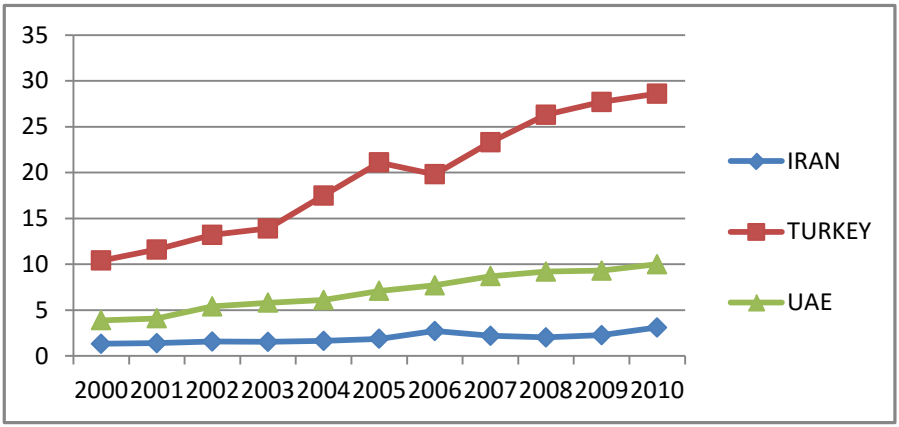
As already noted, the development of international tourism is examined by two indicators: the number of inbound tourists and the amount of income from international tourism or visitor exports (the expenditure carried out by international tourists for both business and leisure trips, inside the country including transport costs). The examination of the data indicates that the number of inbound tourists in the UAE and Turkey increased from 3.9 and 10.4 million tourists in 2000 to 10 and 28.6 million tourists in 2010 respectively, showing an increase of 6.1 and 12.2 million tourists respectively. While, in Iran, the number of inbound tourists raised from 1.3 million in 2000 to 3.1 million in 2010, indicating only the growth of 1.8 million tourists (table 5 and figure 3). It is worth mentioning that the UAE has much lesser potential than that of Iran in the light of Iran having such resources as geographical size, historical background, variety of climate and the like to develop its international tourism; however the number of its inbound tourists has been about three or four times further than that of Iran over a decade. This could be attributed to the implementation of the UAE's air transport liberalization policies. Similarly, but in a different way, Iran and Turkey, regarding owning tourism sources, have to some extent similar conditions. However, as the data indicate, the number Turkey's inbound tourists have been 9 times more than that of Iran (table 5). As seen in figures 2 and 3, the number of tourists is well-matched with international air traffic, showing the effectiveness of the liberalization of international air transport.

Table 5. The number of inbound tourists in Iran, Turkey and the UAE (Million inbound tourists)

Year	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Iran	1.34	1.4	1.58	1.54	1.65	1.88	2.73	2.21	2.03	2.27	3.1
Turkey	10.4	11.6	13.2	13.9	17.5	21.1	19.8	23.3	26.3	27.07	28.6
UAE	3.9	4.1	5.4	5.8	6.1	7.1	7.7	8.7	9.2	9.3	10

Source: Economic Reports of Presidential Deputy Strategic Planning and Control of Iran, Statistical Indicators and Turkey's Statistical Yearbook 2011 of Turkish Statistical Institute and Dubai and Abu Dhabi Tourism Authority Website.

Figure 3. The number of inbound tourists in Iran, Turkey and the UAE (Million inbound tourists)



According to the data provided by the Travel and Tourism Council's Economic Data Search Tool (WTTC), shown in table 6 and figure 4, while the UAE and Turkey's visitor exports have been reached from $6.5, 8.4 billion in 2000 to $25.4 and 24.5 billion in 2010 respectively -- showing an increase of $18.9 and 16.1 billion dollar respectively --, Iran's visitor export could only reach from $1 to 2.4 billion during this period -- indicating merely an increase of $1.4 billion.

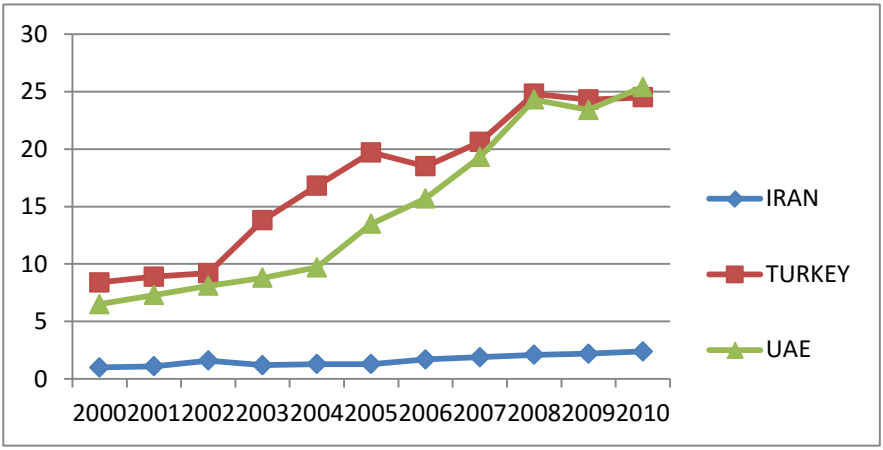
An interesting point is that despite the fact that the UAE has had 18 million inbound tourists lesser than that of Turkey, its visitor exports tends to be higher, particularly at the end of the decade. This is mainly associated with the nature of transport means used by tourists. That is, the quality of tourists using air transport is higher than those using other modes of transport. Higher tendency of the UAE's visitor exports becomes conceivable by examining the fact that about 70 percent of Turkey's inbound tourists via air transport. While about the whole UAE's inbound tourists arrives through air transport. This is more observable by comparing Iran with Turkey and the UAE. The visitor exports of both Turkey and the UAE are about 12 times more than that of Iran.

Table 6. Visitor Export of Iran, Turkey and the UAE (US$ Billion Dollar)

year	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Iran	1	1.1	1.6	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.4
Turkey	8.4	8.9	9.2	13.8	16.8	19.7	18.5	20.6	24.8	24.3	24.5
UAE	6.5	7.3	8.1	8.8	9.7	13.5	15.7	19.3	24.3	23.4	25.4

Source: Economic Data Search Tool, World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC).

Figure 4. Visitor Export of Iran, Turkey and the UAE (US$ Billion Dollar)



CONCLUSION

This paper probed the impact of the liberalization of international air transport on the development of international tourism by comparing Iran with Turkey and the UAE in the 10- year period, 2000-2010. The idea was that, the implementation of air transport liberalization policies provides a great opportunity for those countries willing to become an international hub, consequently affecting largely their air passenger traffic and tourism development. From the geo-economical point of view, three countries including Iran, Turkey and United Arab Emirates are potentially suited for becoming an international hub in the Middle East region to facilitate the link of the West and the East. Nevertheless, both Turkey and the UAE succeeded to become international hubs, while Iran could not.

This paper attempted to indicate the liberalization of international air transport as the main reason responsible for these successes and failures.

The liberalization of international air transport is defined as freer contracting or signing ASAs between each pair-country. In this study, it mainly refers to granting the fifth freedom as the least condition that a country should do to liberalize its air transport. We believed that granting the fifth freedom and then, in the form of more liberalized contracts such as Open- Skies, make a country accessible and attractive for international airlines. This, in turn, could lead to the increase of passenger traffic, which in turn helps to enhance the quantity (numbers) and quality of tourists (visitor exports) as indicators of development of international tourism.

The study of the liberalization of international air transport in the three countries from 2000to 2010 made clear that Turkey and the UAE have practically granted more air freedoms to other countries in the framework of ASAs; while Iran has resisted giving any air freedoms. The examination of the data over a decade under study revealed that, the number of traffic passengers was increased in the UAE up to 42.2 million; in Turkey up to 30.6 million, and in Iran only 5.2 million. The positive impact of flexible liberal policies on the growth of traffic became further clear by comparing the UAE with Turkey, that the former could remedy its gap of 6 million air passengers in 2000 and, even, surpassed the latter in 2010 by raising 6 million extra passengers.

Likewise, while the UAE and Turkey could add 6.1 and 12.2 million tourists during a decade respectively, Iran could only add 1.8 million in the same period. The examination of visitor exports, also, revealed a similar result. That is, while the UAE and Turkey could raise their revenue from international tourism up to $18.9 and 16.1 billion respectively, Iran merely increased its visitor exports up to $1.4 million. We concluded that the variation of the foregoing variables -- namely, air traffic passengers, the number of inbound tourists and visitor exports -- among the three countries is mainly due to the adoption of the liberalization of international air transport for the following reasons. First, the liberalization of international air transport made air traffic passengers to increase considerably in the UAE and Turkey compared to Iran. This, in turn, resulted in development of tourism in both Turkey and the UAE through a considerable increase of their number of inbound tourists and visitor exports. Second, compared to Iran, the UAE has much less potential to develop tourism, mainly because of geographical size, historical background, variety of climate etc. However, from the point of

view of the indices examined in this study, the difference between the UAE and Iran is notable. The similar conclusion could be attained by comparing the UAE with Turkey is that, while the UAE has much less potential than Turkey, the former's visitor export is higher than the latter's which is well developed in tourism industry.

However, it should be emphasized that other factors, not merely the liberalization of international air transport, but perhaps socio-political and cultural ones as well as marketing, hospitality, management etc. may well have played a more important role and are worthy of additional research.

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1. On the base of socio-economic indices, researchers concluded that compared with Turkey and the UAE, Iran has the most chance to become a regional hub (as a consequence an international hub) in the Middle Eastern region (For more information see, Adler and Hashay 2009).

2. The contribution of tourist quality on the development of international tourism is based on the assumption that tourists using air transport are from high income class, and consequently, have higher potential for spending in destination.
3.It is worth noting that the development of tourism may be affected by various other factors than the liberalization policies such as cultural, social and economic factors, infra-structures, individual attractions and so on. In this study we focused only on liberalization factor. The comparative longitudinal method is logically a more helpful to conduct such studies (for more information see, Rokkan et al., 1969; May 1997; Przworski and Teune 1970).
4.For the UAE statistics, we use the statistics of Dubai and Abu Dhabi.

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SPECIFICATION OF TARGET MARKET IN SMALL AND MEDIUM SCALE ACCOMADATION BUSINESSES: A STUDY ON BOUTIQUE HOTELS OPERATING IN CITY OF MUGLA

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Turkey's natural and historical beauties are available for tourism facilitate the development of the industry in the country. However, uncontrolled construction and damaging nature unconsciously by building concrete walls on the sides of coastlines keep weakening the industry. In this respect, boutique hotels are emerging as small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) which are built either by protecting the natural plantation or by restoring old buildings. The main goal of this research is to introduce boutique hotels as a flourishing enterprises in the light of changing structure and trends of tourism industry, to determine the contributions of boutique hotels to Turkish tourism industry, to point out and call attention to the problems of these enterprises according to demands and expectations of guests, and to develop some solutions concerning existing problems, to specify what kind of marketing tools are used and to investigate targeting strategies of the enterprises defined.

Keyword: *Service Marketing, Tourism Marketing, Hospitality Enterprises, Target Market*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Hospitality enterprises lead the whole tourism industry in which an integrated product offered that is composed of complementary and consecutive services, even if every sub-industry signifies. The reason for

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its significance is that countries and regions can host tourists in proportion to the capacity of hospitality industry. In hospitality industry, there are many enterprises with varied types and attributes but small and medium sized hospitality enterprises (SMHEs) constitute the biggest share and make a major contribution to their owners, employees, countries and the other stakeholders. Hospitality enterprises are the organizations that attract the guests who have high discretionary spending power. Expenditures of tourists contribute directly and indirectly to the national economy. Especially in developing countries, foreign currency created through tourism has a part in leveling the balance of payments. Therefore, to run these enterprises with minimizing the problems encountered and achieving the goals matter for existing condition and future of the industry. Exerting more efficient marketing efforts is the only way to do that. Among the succeeding marketing efforts of hospitality enterprises are to conduct continuous market researches, to chase the trends in consumers' needs and wants as well as to develop the goods and services in line with those needs and wants, to find new target markets and to create new needs and wants for the goods and services offered by the enterprise.

In the light of marketing efforts stated above, in order to define the appropriate market for their services, hospitality enterprises segment the entire tourism market by using the right measures, after that, they carry out the marketing efforts on most profitable segments in which they satisfy the customers most. For hospitality enterprises, it is vital to define potential segments from the complex tourism market embodies different likes, expectations and discretionary spending power.

SMALL AND MEDIUM SIZED HOSPITALITY ENTERPRISES (SMHEs)

The reason for existence of SMHEs is rising the number of traveler depending on the development of road haulage and meet the emergent demand. SMHEs have developed over time due to their adaptation ability to the changing demands. Formerly tourists had been staying for just spending the night whereas now they have long standing holidays in these businesses because SMHEs can offer every kind of facility to their guests exactly what large sized hospitality enterprises offer, besides guests can communicate face-to-face with employees intimately. The guests feel comforted in these boutiques due to fact that modern-day customers look for warm interest. This strengthens the guests' loyalty to the brand.

The enterprises which do business in tourism industry in Turkey were

assumed as a SME with 8. five-year development plan. By this way investments on accommodation facilities were taken into the scope of SMEs in official statement regarding state supports published in 18.01.2001 dated official gazette (Akalın, 2006). It is stated that small and medium sized enterprises in tourism industry would be given priority and would be regarded as SMEs depending on the trends in demand structure (Aykin, 2001).

BOUTIQUE HOTELS as a SME in HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

Turkey's tourism potential, even if it is full of nature and history, are not put to good use and got stock in the triangle of sea-sun-sand. However boutique hotels, which run business in different places of the country, give support in diversification of tourism. The guests are hosted in a comfort that don't make them look for it at home; meanwhile they have opportunity to communicate directly with managers and employees. If the guests are satisfied, both they spend their time in the same hotel and make positive word-of-mouth. Moreover the guests don't seclude as in all-inclusive hotels, they make tradesman earn money by their purchases.

In recent years, small hospitality enterprises, defined as a boutique hotel, diversify the tourism in Turkey (Boone and Kurts, 1995). The diffusion of tourism- by diversifying it- to the whole of year is all and end all in the development of boutique hotels. Thus tourism industry begins to contribute more to national economy and it smoothes to level the balance of international payments disequilibrium.

Definition of Boutique Hotel

As attracting both domestic and international tourists attention, boutique hotels are sympathetic, private, comfortable facilities serving in total quality mentality, supporting a concept, having a context, narrating to lodging customers, serving in home comfort, recognizing guests needs and fulfilling them.

Boutique hotel is defined as per article 43 in Regulation on the Required of Ministry of Culture and Tourism as "an authentic hotel in terms of architecture, furnishing and decoration that offers high quality of customizable service, with at least ten rooms and with experienced and educated employees, also has the qualifications below" (Caglar and Kilic, 2005):

a) Modern, replica and quaint furnishing and decoration,
b) Comfortable rooms qualified as same as for a five-star hotel,
c) Capacity for lobby, breakfast-dining hall and lounge,

d) Control room,
e) A la carte,
f) Air conditioning system,
g) Round the clock room service,
h) Laundry service,
j) Parking facilities,
k) Daily newspaper service for rooms selected by the guest.

On the other hand, with its fascinating ambiance and customer-oriented philosophy, a boutique hotel places emphasis on luxury, quality and hospitality, moreover it offers an exhilarating holiday for the guests. From the view of boutique hotels, authenticity of business is more significant rather than the size. The boutique system privileges the guests either with its cuisine, architecture, and indoor elegance or hotel area and business entirely.

In other words, boutique hotels- defined as also HIP (highly individual places) bring a breath of fresh air to small and medium sized hospitality enterprises. Spending the night in a boutique hotel carries the guests away for an adventure in real terms (Daniel et al, 1998).

SEGMENTATION of SMALL and MEDIUM SIZED HOSPITALITY ENTERPRISES

Due to intangibility of the product in tourism industry, to carry out marketing efforts are harder in hospitality enterprises in comparison to others. Perceived values and satisfaction are intangible. Moreover perception and satisfaction are influenced by past experiences and environment of a potential consumer. So marketing managers must analyze and define the needs of consumers properly, and then must plan how to perform the services (Denizer, 1994). Some of the segments targeted are not profitable enough to create satisfying return on investment because of their being short-term. The main aim of segmentation strategy is to find the most profitable and long-term one/ones. In this respect, while marketing managers perform the segmentation strategies defined, they must aim at developing long-term relations with customers (Erdem, 2000).

Market segmentation offers four benefits: Firstly, it provides a base for targeting; secondly it enables to develop more efficient marketing mix, in this way, to satisfy the needs of target market would be easier; next to diversify the goods/services would be easier; lastly it serves for determining the opportunities and threats in the market (Güney, 1996).

Marketing managers benefit from varied criteria for market

segmentation. In other words, the total market is divided to homogeneous segments with similar needs, wants, properties and behaviors. Segmentation means a strategy to define the dissimilarities among the segments and to devote marketing assets to these different segments (Hart and Troy, 1986).

The main purpose of market segmentation is to analyze the demand. Because the hospitality industry includes varying demand structure, complicated marketing decision-making is needed to satisfy the customers. For that reason, segmentation is the only way to get rid of complexity and to clarify customer needs. The potential customers are grouped of similarities of needs. The criteria for segmentation depend on the type and properties of business services. For instance a city hotel market segmentation is related to business trips and a resort hotels market segmentation is related to vacation trips. (Hooley et al, 2004). In short, the main goal of segmentation process is to develop a marketing mix that fits to needs of targeted segments (Icoz, 2001).

Segmentation Criteria

There four main criteria for segmentation; some of them base on consumer qualifications (preferences or demographics) and the others base on consumer behavior towards product (Karaser, 2005).

Geographic Segmentation

Geographic segmentation is the best starting point for demand analysis in marketing (Kotler et al, 1999). In this type, hospitality enterprises segment the whole market by focusing on where the target market lives. By analyzing every geographic segment, the enterprise devotes its marketing efforts to the segment that includes more potential consumers. This kind of segmentation calls for dividing the market into geographical units such as countries, regions, states, and cities (Kozak et al, 1998).

Demographic Segmentation

Demographic segmentation divides the market into groups based on socio-economic variables such as age, gender, family size, family life cycle, marital status, income, occupation, education, religion, race, generation and nationality (Meydan, 1998). These are called socio-economic variables as well (Morrison, 1996). Demographic segmentation

comes up in different ways. For example, there is a highly positive correlation between income and vacation. When income level of tourists increases, they go for a holiday more frequently, spend longer duration on holidays and they prefer higher quality in hospitality enterprises (Mucuk, 1990).

Psychographic Segmentation

Psychographic segmentation aims at dividing consumers into different groups based on lifestyle, personality characteristics, and interests regarding their leisure time and accommodation preferences. The purpose is to pair up the consumers with similar psychographic makeup (Muderris, 2005). Psychographic variables are expressive and explanatory in comparison to demographic variables due to the fact that they emphasize on the reasons of consumers behavior. Thus psychographic segmentation is discussed in two points: Lifestyle and psychocentric/allocentric personality (Powers, 2005).

Behavioral Segmentation

Behavioral segmentation is a type that divides consumers into groups based on occasions, benefits sought from hospitality enterprise and loyalty status to the enterprise by analyzing past, current and predicting future preferences. Thus psychographic segmentation is discussed in three points; frequency of travelling, frequency of preferring that enterprise and loyalty status.

MARKET TARGETING in SMALL and MEDIUM SIZED HOSPITALITY ENTERPRISES

Which markets do we, as a hospitality enterprise, target to service? After segmentation process, hospitality enterprises need to find the segment that is the most appropriate in terms of profit and customer satisfaction. The segment or segments targeted are called target market.

In other words, target markets in hospitality industry are segments that the enterprise performs its efforts best, reaches the highest profit and hence the most advantageous market for the business. Deciding which and how many segments the enterprise will target is one of the most influential and significant decision on marketing mix (Pride and Ferrell, 2000).

Targeting Strategies of Small and Medium Sized Hospitality Enterprises

After evaluating different segments, the enterprise must now decide on which and how many segments to target in pursuance of its own service quality and in this direction it must develop its marketing mix. Market targeting enables to analyze the market successfully and to define the possible difficulties in performing marketing efforts. The ability to adopt the changing customer needs with existing capability constitutes the most important factor in succeeding in targeting (Reid, 1989).

Targeting strategies are based on varied factors such as the structure of competition in the market, competitive power of the enterprise, opportunities in the market, and capabilities of the enterprise and so on (Ronald, 1997). Market targeting can be carried out at three different levels: Undifferentiated marketing, differentiated marketing, and concentrated marketing strategies.

Undifferentiated Marketing Strategy

In this strategy, an enterprise decides to ignore market segment differences and target the whole market. The enterprise designs an offer and a marketing program that will appeal to the largest number of consumers. The strategy, also called as mass-marketing, ignores the differences between segments and deals with the total market. The undifferentiated strategy focuses on what is common in the needs of consumers rather than on what is different. Therefore the enterprise cannot benefit from the advantages of segmentation. A marketing program is planned in order to appeal to the largest number of consumers is planned. Mass advertising efforts are applied for positioning (Tek, 1999). The undifferentiated strategy is approached if there is a segment, must be large enough, that perceives the service in a same way (Tsiotsou, 2006).

Differentiated Marketing Strategy

In differentiated marketing strategy, the enterprise decides to target several market segments and designs separate offers for each. On the other hand, the enterprise must pay attention to the necessity for product/service differentiation in comparison to the competitors' offers. The differentiation strategies can be applied are product differentiation, service differentiation, and image differentiation.

Concentrated Marketing Strategy

The hospitality enterprise devotes its all efforts to develop a service to a segment. Instead of going after a small share of a large market, the enterprise goes after a large share of one or a few smaller segments. This strategy is especially appealing when the enterprise resources are limited. Through concentrated marketing strategy, the enterprise achieves a strong market position because of greater knowledge, experience and specialization. If the enterprise concentrates on the right segment, by the help of specialization it can market more efficiently in terms of production, distribution and promotion programs to compete profitably (26).

Beyond deciding which segments of the markets the enterprise will target, it makes an effort for positioning to serve for targeted segments. Positioning is the way to place existing or new products/services in the market (in consumers' minds). The purpose of positioning is to attract attention of customers to products/services of the business, by this way to create a differentiated value relative to competing products. There are four generally accepted positioning strategies in the literature: Positioning on competition, positioning on product line or product attributes, positioning on price and quality, positioning on target market.

After choosing a positioning strategy, the business must differentiate itself by using physical differentiation, service differentiation, employee differentiation, and location differentiation to gain competitive advantage.

A STUDY to INVESTIGATE the TARGETING STRATEGIES of BOUTIQUE HOTELS in MUGLA PROVINCE

Research Methodology

In this study, changing structure of and new trends in tourism industry is investigated. In this respect, the targeting strategies performed by boutique hotels are evaluated within the context of service marketing.

Subject of the study is small and medium sized hospitality enterprises (SMHEs) so scope of the research is chosen as boutique hotels in Mugla Province due to the peak density of these enterprises.

Research Objective and Importance

The study aims at defining the contributions of boutique hotels, which have risen as SMEs, to Turkish tourism industry, calling attention

to their problems and to analyze marketing and targeting strategies of them. Moreover;

- Wants, expectations and problems,
- Targeted tourism type,
- Properties of products/services offered,
- Target market and its properties,
- Decision about which countries to enter, if international market is targeted,
- Marketing channels and strategies,
- Tools used in marketing and sales promotion,
- Positioning strategies,
- Analyzing the problems encountered in marketing and general issues of boutique hotels are investigated.

Research Method

Data was collected through field study and a survey. Survey is a descriptive method for a past or for a current situation as it has been (29). The aim is especially to investigate the targeting strategies of boutique hotels. In the questionnaire, respondents were asked 36 items appropriately to the research objective.

With the data obtained, frequency distribution and then test of normality were applied on variables. Non-parametric statistics were approved for analysis. In this direction, Spearman's rank correlation, Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests were applied. Through the statistical tests mentioned above, in the study, target markets, service properties, marketing strategies and marketing tools of boutique hotels were investigated and in this respect, the contributions of boutique hotels to Turkish tourism were introduced.

Data Collection

The data was collected in April 2008 from the boutique hotels which run business in Mugla province. Questionnaires were answered by owners and managers of the enterprises through face-to-face interview. A total of 74 of questionnaires were provided to the respondents but 50 respondents handed back because 6 of them were under construction and 18 of them are seasonal enterprises so they were not operating during the study.

Data Analysis

Findings are presented below as a result of frequency distribution.

Ownership Status

50% of the hospitality enterprises are single proprietorship, 20% are limited, and 5% are corporation. It is observed from frequency distribution of respondents that boutique hotels are mostly single proprietorship enterprises. Having few rooms and being physically small are relating to this kind of ownership and bring along family business which can be easily managed by the family members.

Operation Period of the Enterprises

30% of the respondents have been running business more than 10 years, 18% of them are between 8-10 years, and great amount of the enterprises (52%), approximately 26 of 50 enterprises, have been operating from 2002. Thus, it can be concluded that boutique hotels have emerged in Turkish tourism industry in 2002 and after.

Period of Service (seasonality)of the Enterprises

It is found that 62% of the enterprises are seasonal and this finding projects the seasonality of Turkish tourism. Touristic services diversity problem, dependence on just sea-and-sun tourism, infrastructural deficiency, international and domestic marketing inadequacy for some periods are the main factors for this situation.

Number of Rooms in the Enterprises

In terms of room capacity, 18 from 50 respondent enterprises (36%) are 16-20 roomed, 12 of them (24%) 11-15 roomed, 11 of respondents (22%) are 21-25 roomed, 6 of them (12%) 5-10 roomed, and 3 of them (6%) are 26 and more roomed. It can be reached that boutique hotels keep the number of rooms few in order to make the guests feel at home, to maintain the interactive and intimate relation between guests and employees and so to service above and beyond the expectations of guests.

Tourism Type of the Enterprises

54% of the boutique hotels run business for holiday tourism, 46% of respondents are for business tourism. The reason for going towards to holiday tourism is being small-sized, being seasonal and not having enough capacity for business meetings.

Existence of Marketing Department

As it is seen at the table below, 18% of the boutique hotels have marketing department whereas the great amount of them (82%) don't have. Being small-sized may be the reason.

Table 1. Existence of Marketing Department in Boutique Hotels

Marketing Department	Number	Frequency
Exists	9	18,0
Do not exist	41	82,0
TOTAL	**50**	**100,0**

Decision-makers of Marketing Strategies

With a percentage of 68, marketing strategies of boutique hotels are decided by owners. This is because boutique hotels are mostly single proprietorship and small enterprises with limited capacity. It is observed that marketing decisions are made by professionals, who are educated and experienced in marketing field, in only 6% of the boutique hotels. In addition, with a percentage of 8, general managers decide upon marketing strategies and in 18% of boutique hotels, marketing strategies are decided in common by the parties mentioned above. From this point of view, it can be reached that the existence of employee who are lack of marketing knowledge, ability and experience, lies at the heart of the problems which SMEs face. The situation is accepted by owners but they don't strive enough for changing because of their structural characteristics.

Target Markets

90% of the respondents do business for both domestic and foreign

markets. Moreover 6% of boutique hotels target just foreign market whereas 4% of them target just domestic market. It is seen that most of the boutique hotels don't make a distinction between domestic and foreign markets because they aim to attract high income guests. Rareness of boutique hotels which target only domestic market testifies it.

Level of Customer Loyalty

The respondents are asked the number of loyal customers and they are requested to choose a group that is composed of 10 people. A considerable amount of respondents (36%) stated that they have loyal customers range from 41 to 50. Moreover, 7 boutique hotels expressed that the number of loyal customers they have are more than 51. These boutique hotels constitute 14% of total. When the aim of boutique hotels- to create customer loyalty, to develop long-term relationship with customers and to make them visit again and again, to service better at every visit- is taken into account, it can be reached that 50% of the respondents succeeded in this way.

The Reasons for Loyal Customers' Preferences

In order to explore the reasons of loyal customers in preferring that boutique hotel, the respondents are offered 9 items and they are asked for prioritization these items. According to the prioritization results, "customization in service" takes the first place (48%), "satisfaction in previous visits" ranks number two (46%). Sequentially "high quality of service" (44%), "special attention to guests" (38%) participate on the list.

The Criteria for Segmentation

Due to the fact that services need high level of contact with customers, to satisfy every customer in tourism market all but impossible. So enterprises need to segment the whole market by varied criteria and to group the customers with similar needs, and then to target the segment or segments comparatively to the capacity they have. Because of intangibility of the product and the great effect of individual factors on customer perceptions, while boutique hotels are going segmentation- the process of homogenization of heterogeneous market, "behavioral segmentation" is the most applied criteria (42%) which bases on occasions of the visit and benefits sought from it, in order to understand the root causes of needs and wants, by this way to develop an effective

marketing mix. In terms of segmentation criteria applied by respondents, psychographic segmentation takes the second rank (34%) whereas both "geographic segmentation" and "demographic segmentation" constitute 12%.

The Distribution of Segmentation Criteria and Loyal Customers

At the table below, it is seen that the boutique hotels, which prefer behavioral criteria for segmentation, have high number of loyal customers. In this respect, it can be concluded that boutique hotels choose the right criteria for segmentation, so with behavioral segmentation, it is possible to create customer loyalty and make them satisfy because the needs and wants can be defined clearly.

Table 2. The Distribution of Segmentation Criteria and Loyal Customers

		Number of Loyal Customers						TOTAL
		5-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51 and above	5-10
Segmentation Criteria	Geographic Segmentation	0	0	2	0	3	1	6
	Demographic Segmentation	2	0	1	2	1	0	6
	Psychographic Segmentation	2	1	1	5	5	3	17
	Behavioral Segmentation	2	3	1	3	9	3	21
TOTAL		6	4	5	10	18	7	50

Targeting Strategies

Boutique hotels as respondents target by using concentrated marketing strategy with 52 percent. This strategy, in which all efforts are devoted to only one market, offers strength to the enterprise in the market through knowledge, experience and specialization. The second targeting strategy that boutique hotels prefer with 42 percent is differentiated marketing strategy. With differentiated marketing strategy, boutique hotels try to capture different markets with different products. Only 6% of the respondents use undifferentiated marketing strategy which the enterprise

target the whole market with one marketing mix.

Distribution of Targeting Strategies According to Segmentation Criteria

The table below shows that the respondents, segmenting the market through behavioral segmentation, use differentiated marketing strategy and concentrated marketing strategy with approximate percentage. Another prominent finding is that the boutique hotels which use psychographic segmentation prefer concentrated marketing strategy.

Table 3. Distribution of Targeting Strategies According to Segmentation Criteria

		Targeting Strategies			
		Undifferentiated Marketing Strategy	Differentiated Marketing Strategy	Concentrated Marketing Strategy	**TOTAL**
Segmentation Criteria	Geographic Segmentation	0	3	3	6
	Demographic Segmentation	0	2	4	6
	Psychographic Segmentation	1	6	10	17
	Behavioral Segmentation	2	10	9	21
TOTAL		3	21	26	50

Positioning Strategies of Boutique Hotels

72 % of the respondents choose “positioning on product line or product attributes” as a positioning strategy which depends on differentiation in the market and allows consumers perceive the way the enterprise differs from others. Respectively, 26% of boutique hotels choose “positioning on price and quality”, only 2% of the respondents position themselves on “target market”.

Choosing a Differentiation (in Positioning) Strategy

68% of the respondents differentiate themselves with "customization in service" in regard to know the consumption patterns of their guests and try to meet them, to offer comforted and warmhearted ambiance, to be total quality focused and customer-oriented in terms of service quality also to exhilarate the guests rather than to offer just a vacation. "Physical characteristics" that consist of architecture, furnishing, and decoration with impressive and stirring design is the second most common way of differentiation with 50%. Moreover, 28% of the respondents choose to differentiate themselves by "employee" and 18% of them by "location".

Special-Market Segments Targeted

With 52%, the respondents target the guests who are "chasing for home atmosphere in vacation". "High-income guests who are persistent in comfort" come next as a target market with 42%. "Business travelers" hold just 6% of the respondents' target market whereas "physically handicapped" guests are targeted by none of the respondents. As a conclusion, boutique hotels target high-income guests who have high spending power and look for high quality of service.

Distribution of Target Markets According to Segmentation Strategies

According to the table below, the boutique hotels, which use "behavioral segmentation", choose the consumers who are "chasing for home atmosphere in vacation" as a target market; whereas the respondents, which apply "psychographic segmentation", target the market consists of "high-income guests who are persistent in comfort".

As it is seen above, significance level (0.697) is more than 0.05. That's way, H_0 is accepted.

The table below shows that the **test of normality** applied on the level of loyal customers.

H_0: Data are proper to the normal distribution.

H_1: Data are not proper to the normal distribution.

Table 4. Distribution of Target Markets According to Segmentation Strategies

		Segmentation Criteria				
		Geographic Segmentation	Demographic Segmentation	Psychographic Segmentation	Behavioral Segmentation	TOTAL
Target Market	Business Travelers	0	0	1	0	**1**
	Chasing for home atmosphere in vacation	5	4	5	13	**27**
	High-income guests who are persistent in comfort	1	2	11	8	**22**
TOTAL		**6**	**6**	**17**	**21**	**50**

As it is seen at Table 4, test of normality is applied to operation periods of boutique hotels as respondents.

H_0: Data are proper to the normal distribution.

H_1: Data are not proper to the normal distribution.

Table 5. The Relation between Operation Periods and Service Change

	Operation Periods
Mann-Whitney U	169.500
Wilcoxon W	1030.500
Z	-.390
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.697
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.710(a)

Table 6. Test of Normality Regarding the Level of Loyal Customers (Regular Customers)

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Level of Loyal Customers	.234	50	.000	.869	50	.000

Above it is seen that the significance level is less than 0.05. For that reason, H_0 is rejected. In this direction, non-parametric statistics are needed to be applied regarding the level of loyal customers (regular customers).

Table 7. indicates that if there is a difference in the operation periods of respondents and the level of loyal customers (regular customers). Spearman's rank correlation was applied due to the fact that data are not proper to the normal distribution.

H_0: There is no difference in the operation periods and loyal customer (regular customer) levels of enterprises.

H_1: There is a difference in the operation periods and loyal customer (regular customer) levels of enterprises.

Table 7. The Relation between In-Service Training and Level of Loyal Customers

	Level of Loyal Customers
Mann-Whitney U	208.500
Wilcoxon W	533.500
Z	-2.082
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	**.037**

H_0: There is no difference in the level of loyal customers (regular customers) of those enterprises that supply in-service training in marketing field for employees who contact directly with the customers and those that do not.

H_1: There is a difference in the level of loyal customers (regular customers) of those enterprises that supply in-service training in marketing field for employees who contact directly with the customers and those that do not.

H_1 is accepted due to the fact that significance level (0.037) is less than 0.05. The table below shows the reason of difference.

H0 is accepted for the reason that the significance level (0,991) is more than 0.05. It can be reached that decision-makers of marketing strategies do not any effect on the level of loyal customers.

Table 8. The Relation between the Decision-makers of Marketing Strategies and Loyal Customer Level

	Level of Loyal Customers
Mann-Whitney U	271.500
Wilcoxon W	407.500
Z	-.011
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.991

CONCLUSION

In recent years in Turkey, boutique hotels, which run business for many years in the world, have been emerging to meet the needs of tourists. They are more likely to have higher level of loyal customers for the reason that the guests tend to visit the same enterprise for holiday if they are satisfy with high quality service provided.

While boutique hotels are going segmentation, because of intangibility of the product and the great effect of individual factors on customer perceptions, "behavioral segmentation" is the most applied criteria which bases on occasions of the visit and benefits sought from it, in order to understand the root causes of needs and wants, by this way to develop an effective marketing mix. In targeting, boutique hotels tend to prefer concentrated marketing strategy in which the enterprise devotes its all efforts to only one market. Moreover undifferentiated or whole market strategy is not implemented in boutique hotels.

Continuous market researches are conducted in boutique hotels, which target high income guests, to chase the trends in consumers' needs and wants and to develop the goods and services correspondingly needed. Constructed through customer preferences and investigating customer demands and expectation, matches with the service featured operations of boutique hotels.

The boutique hotels, which use behavioral segmentation, choose the consumers who are chasing for home atmosphere in vacation as a target market; whereas the respondents, which apply psychographic segmentation, target the market consists of high-income guests who are persistent in comfort.

The quality level of service provided is the most underlying factor in price policies because they strive to differentiate themselves with

customization in service and the effort for differentiation increases the demand for boutique hotels. In this direction, they can keep their strong position in the market due to the fact that they offer service which exceeds the expectations of guests

Besides the hospitality enterprises that do business for mass tourism, boutique hotels appeal to the tourists who are willing to pay more because of the special service they are offered. In this way, the boutique hotels contribute more to both to the region they run business and the country in terms of economic, social, environmental, and cultural standards.

To meet high expectations of the guests, boutique hotels need to compete at a level of the world standards. In tourism industry, the approach, knowledge and ability of the service provider are quite important. The respondents have harped on about the problems as to find qualified employee. Therefore, Ministry of Tourism and the universities need to take action and the management of boutique hotels need to be developed, in addition to this, guidance and counseling services must be carried out as a solution.

As a conclusion, boutique hotels can contribute more to Turkish tourism industry if standardization is formed. This kind of investments need to be encouraged by state, the relevant ministries, and local administrations. The tourists, who get bored of conventional tourism approach consists of sea-sand-sun triangle, look for privileged service and customization, and this make boutique hotels come to the fore. In this respect, boutique hotels refresh Turkish tourism industry which suffers from all inclusive system, poor quality, and low price policies of tour operators and image of the country for cheap holiday for tourists.

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NON-ASIAN TOURISTS' VIEWS ON SINGAPORE CULTURAL TOURISM

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Promoting ethnic cultural tourism is an important aspect of an overall tourism strategy in Singapore. The Singapore Tourism Board (STB) actively leverages the country's limited natural resources and short history to ensure the viability and competitiveness of this industry. In this research note, we examine non-Asian tourists' perceptions of Singapore's ethnic cultural tourism and make recommendations for future promotion. The results from a survey conducted in 2009 show that non-Asian tourists' participation in ethnic cultural tourism in Singapore is mostly accidental and is less for cultural aspects than for cheap shopping and low-priced food. The challenge for the Singapore tourism industry is to balance profit-generation with cultural retention and education.

Keywords: c*ultural tourism, Singapore, perception*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Singapore's tourist industry plays a considerable role in the country's economy (Ooi, 2005; Ramchandani, 2012). The Singapore Tourism Board (STB) has advertised Singapore as a tourist destination using a variety of brands since the 1960s. One focus of these brands is the perception of Singapore as a nation that is home to multiple ethnic cultures. While Singapore has cultural sites for each of her main ethnicities, tourists' awareness and perception of these sites may not be in line with the STB's advertising goals. This research note seeks to examine tourists' familiarity with and thoughts about Singapore's ethnic cultural sites and make projections about how ethnic cultural tourism may

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change based on the results.

BRANDING AND TOURISM

Promoting ethnic cultural tourism is an important aspect of an overall tourism strategy in Singapore. Over the past 50 years, Singapore has reinvented her brand at least five times. In the 1960s and 70s, Singapore promoted herself as "Instant Asia," where a person "could find an array of Asian cultures, peoples, festivals, and cuisines conveniently manifested in a single destination" (Ooi, 2002, pp. 141-142). In her next incarnation in the 80s, "Surprising Singapore" emphasized the co-existence and contrasts between modernity and Asian exoticism and between the East and the West. With "New Asia – Singapore," developed in 1996, the brand reiterated the idea of a multicultural nation that harmoniously encompasses tradition and modernity. This brand presented Singapore as the exemplar of energy and growth in South-East Asia. Another manifestation, "Uniquely Singapore," again captured the integration of various cultures while embracing modernity and retaining tradition. In this version, the brand specifically emphasized Singapore's ability to offer a unique and memorable experience, marking her as different from other Asian countries. In its latest manifestation, "Your Singapore," cultural aspects are less prominently featured on its website, but a simple search yields a list of links to different areas of interest including festivals, precincts, and heritage sites.

The three main ethnic cultural sites in Singapore are Chinatown, Little India and Malay Village (e.g., Phua, Berkowitz & Gagermeier, 2012). These different Asian cultures are perceived and received differently by tourists depending on whether the tourists are Asians or non-Asians. Asian ethnic cultures are generally perceived as more exotic by non-Asians than Asians. This is not to suggest that ethnic groups within Asia have similar exposure to other Asian cultures. While ethnic groups in Asia are diverse, their historical, political, geographical and socio-economic relationships with one another often render them less exotic. As such, a basic distinction can be made between Asian and non-Asian tourists in terms of interest in and perception of Asian ethnic cultural tourism. In this research note, we focused on a non-Asian sample.

RESEARCH METHODS

Surveys were conducted in the summer of 2009. We employed a purposive sampling approach where we focused on interviewing non-Asian tourists. In order to find participants for our survey we frequented several tourist destinations. Our sample included 104 tourists (49% men, 51% women). Age ranged from 18 to 70 years old. Forty-six percent of participants were first-time tourists to Singapore. The three countries most represented in our sample were England (27%), Australia (21%), and USA (18%). These three countries are the only non-Asian countries in Singapore's top ten tourist-sending countries from 2003-2007 (Singapore Tourist Board, 2008). Other countries represented in the sample include Germany, Norway, Argentina, Hungary, Russia, Slovakia, and Trinidad and Tobago. When quotes are used, we report the country of origin and the age of the participants.

TOURISTS' REACTIONS

When we asked tourists to list the top three sites in Singapore that they wanted to visit, the most popular answers included Sentosa (a beach resort island), the Night Safari, shopping malls (specifically Orchard Road), the Singapore Flyer, and the Botanic Gardens. Chinatown and Little India were also mentioned, with Chinatown being the more popular choice. When asked about their reasons for wanting or not wanting to visit these cultural areas, most tourists preferred Chinatown not necessarily for its cultural value, but more for its shopping opportunities. Few tourists mentioned their interest in wanting to "know more about the culture" (Germany, 39). A Norwegian tourist (51) actually intended to skip Chinatown entirely because "it is almost demolished" in his opinion. Other comments included:

"It's lovely, but you can't see the buildings." (Switzerland, 32)

"Great food; a touch of old Asia." (Australia, 62)

"Vendors are not as pushy as in other countries." (Switzerland, 31)

One interesting reason for their poor impression or lack of desire to visit Chinatown is that some tourists find Chinatowns in different cities too similar:

"I'm not interested…it's in Sydney." (Australia, 31)

"I expect it to be the same as other Chinatowns." (Hungary, 38)

"It is the same as other Chinatowns." (England, 26)

The two most common comments about Little India are about its good food and that hostels are located there. An English tourist (59) mentioned that he likes Little India because it is "quite like India." A female tourist from England (22) mentioned her discomfort: "I felt vulnerable there…there weren't really other tourists." Even when prompted, no tourist mentioned the Malay Village or Kampong Glam (site of the Malay Heritage Centre). When described to them, some tourists became interested mainly because they wanted to see everything Singapore had to offer.

ETHNIC CULTURAL TOURISM AND AUTHENTICITY

An important aspect of ethnic cultural tourism is its representation of the culture. This is not simply a question of authenticity as the concept of authenticity is not static and falls into the grey area of whether any staging is involved (e.g., MacCannell, 1973). Appropriate representation of ethnic cultures has to do with respect and education as well, though these are heavily intertwined with the contested idea of authenticity. One issue is whether tourists are experiencing authentic Singaporean ethnic cultures. Singapore's Chinatown and Little India are known for inexpensive shopping. The Chinatown Heritage Centre, a museum that exhibits the history of life in early Chinatown, is hard to find as it is hidden among and overshadowed by the rows of colorful gift shops. In some ways, Little India offers a more authentic experience as the shopping is not as deliberately catered to vacation tourists, but to immigrant workers and Singaporeans. That being said, Chinatown also attracts Singaporeans as the food courts, otherwise known as hawker centers, have a long history of providing some famous local food. As such, visiting these sites involves some staged experiences (e.g., some would argue that the landscape is staged through renovation, even if the attempt was to re-create specific architectural style), as well as some presumably more authentic interactions with or alongside Singaporeans (e.g., these places are also great shopping areas for native Singaporeans, and their presence is not deliberately catered to the tourist gaze). However, without some deliberate effort to inform non-Asian tourists of their ethnic cultural values and distinct diasporas, these sites may lose their uniqueness, giving the impression, for example, that all Chinatowns look alike.

A few tourists argued that these areas, while important in showcasing different ethnic cultures, also represent segregation – "Little India and Chinatown seem more of 'segregative' areas" (Australia, 64). A US

tourist (40) noted that that "Singapore has a campaign about accepting others," thus it is not surprising that different ethnic groups appear to have a "blend of all the various cultures." This suggests a critical and potentially contentious role the government has played in this area (e.g., Teo & Yeoh, 1997). It is worth noting that the concept of authenticity is not only a construct, but is multi-dimensional and contested (e.g., Littrell, Anderson, & Brown, 1993).

Farmaki (2012) noted that it is important for tourist destinations to promote their strengths and upgrade facilities in order to increase the perception of quality. While the STB has promoted cultural tourism as a strength in the past, the current brand, "Your Singapore," does not have a strong cultural focus. Singapore's ethnic neighborhoods, specifically Chinatown, have undergone construction in the past in an attempt to improve their appeal to tourists, but at the expense of its perceived authenticity. The STB has identified cultural fusion and harmony as a Unique Selling Proposition (Naidoo, Ramseook-Munhurrun & Durbarry, 2012), but it is possible there has not been enough attention drawn to cultural neighborhoods as areas for ethnic cultural tourism. Though their renovation has been catered to tourists, if tourists are unaware of these neighborhoods, the upgrades will have little to no effect on their perceptions. Thus, it may be beneficial for the STB to continue to promote Singapore as a multicultural nation and increase awareness of ethnic cultural tourism opportunities by advertising the various cultural neighborhoods.

CONCLUSION

With more tourist attractions being launched in recent years (e.g., Night Safari, Singapore Flyer, casinos) ethnic cultural tourism in Singapore is becoming more and more accidental. This is most evident in the latest brand, "Your Singapore," which is heavily tourist-focused (consumer-focused). In part, this approach is inevitable in a highly competitive industry where tourists' preferences are ever-changing. However, such an approach may threaten the survival of some culturally important, but less popular sites. This strategy may lead to the transformation of these sites into something that no longer retains their original characteristics. Scholars have argued that what is good for conservation of culture is not always good for tourism and vice versa. Due to this conflict, travel destinations are often faced with an outcome of either less money from tourism or a less authentic culture. Jamal and Kim (2005) posit that

heritage tourism has the potential to foster "joint understandings, peace, tolerance and equity." Particularly with non-Asian tourists, ethnic cultural tourism is a form of education and exposure. The challenge for the Singapore tourism industry is to balance profit-generation, cultural retention and education.

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RESIDENTS' ATTITUDES AND SUPPORT FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

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Based on current literature, this study developed a theoretical model of residents' support for tourism, and a series of hypotheses was proposed. The model and the hypotheses of the study were tested by structural equation modeling approach from responses collected from residents of Bistoon in Iran. The findings revealed that residents ' support for tourism, is affected directly and/or indirectly by: Ecocentric Attitudes, Place Attachment, Utilization of Tourism Resource by Resident, Community Concern, Participation in Tourism Development , Social Identity, Economic Benefits, Economic costs, Social benefits, Social Costs, Environmental Benefits and Environmental Costs. An additional finding revealed that in a community which is experiencing economic problems, residents are likely to view tourism as a means of improving their economic position while underestimating the tourism development costs.

Keywords: *Residents, Tourism impacts, Social Identity, Support for Tourism Development, Iran*

JEL Classification: *L83, M1, O1*

INTRODUCTION

Residents of tourism destinations have a major role in sustainable tourism development in their areas. Tourism has to be managed with the help and interest of all stakeholders in a given territory with a focus on local inhabitants. In this way, many studies have been carried out by the researchers about local community perceptions toward tourism. Many of these studies have been descriptive, a small number of researchers attempted to examine local community attitudes in a systematic manner by developing and testing theoretical models based on social exchange

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theory (Jurowski et al. (1997), Gursoy and Rutherford (2004), and Perdue, Long et al. (1990)). The main premise of social exchange theory is that individuals evaluate an exchange based on the costs and benefits associated with that exchange. Hence, people will engage in an exchange if the exchange is likely to produce valued rewards, and the perceived costs do not exceed perceived rewards (Skidmore, 1975). Essentially, if residents perceive an exchange to be beneficial to their well-being, they will evaluate that exchange positively. However, if they perceive costs from an exchange, rather than benefits, they will evaluate that exchange negatively. In terms of tourism, residents who perceive benefits from tourism are likely to have more positive attitudes toward tourism development than those who do not perceive themselves as benefiting from tourism. The purpose of this study is to expand the existing models by testing a new one that was developed based on a combination of previous studies. The research objectives are to develop a theoretical model to test the direct and/or indirect causal effects of various factors on the host community's support for tourism; to examine and modify the proposed theoretical model by structural equation modeling approach; and to evaluate the effects of perceptions on the host community's support for tourism development.

MODELING RESIDENTS'ATTITUDES TOWARDS TOURISM

The theoretical model for this study is presented in figure 1. The model proposes that local community support for tourism is influenced by their perceptions of its benefits and costs including Economic Benefits, Economic Costs, Social Benefits, Social Costs, Environmental Benefits and Environmental Costs. Moreover it is suggested that these perceptions are influenced by residents' Ecocentric Attitudes, Place Attachment, Community Concern, Utilization of Tourism Resource by Resident, Social Identity and their Participation in Tourism Management.

A number of researchers who have investigated residents' attitudes toward tourism have developed models by employing social exchange theory as a theoretical framework. Perdue et al. (1990) developed a model that examined the relationships among residents' perceptions of tourism impacts, support for additional tourism development, restrictions on tourism development, and support for special tourism taxes. The study found that resident characteristics were not significantly related to positive perceptions of tourism impacts. Furthermore, the research found that perceived positive impacts of tourism positively influenced support

for tourism development and perceived negative impacts of tourism negatively influenced support for tourism development.

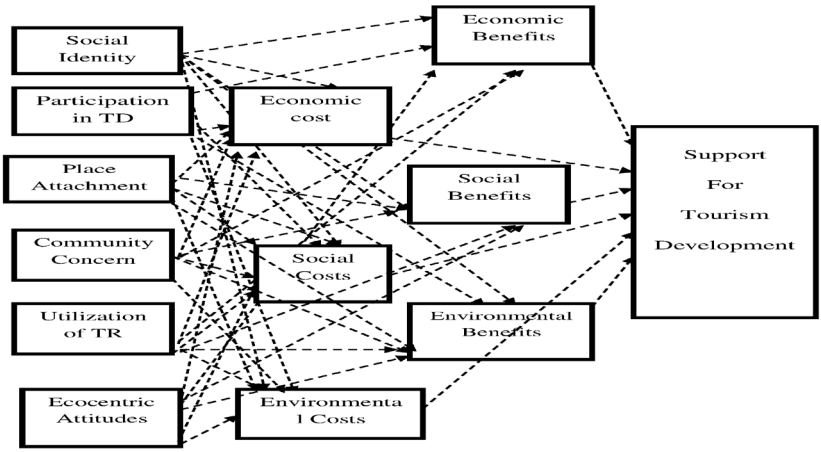

Figure 1. Initial theoritical Model of the Study

In another study, Jurowski et al. (1997) identified factors that affect the perception of impacts of tourism (economic gain, resource use, community attachment, ecocentric attitudes). By using path analysis, their research demonstrated that the perception of tourism's impact is a result of benefits and costs and that this evaluation is influenced by the elements that residents value. The model by Jurowski et al.'s(1997) model was

criticized by Gursoy et al. (2002) for its aggregation of cost and benefit impacts of tourism. Gursoy et al. (2002) modified the model by aggregating economic, social and environmental impacts, then clustering impacts as either positive or negative, regardless of the type. In addition, their model removed the exogenous variable of economic gain, added the exogenous variable of community concern, and added the variable of state of the local economy.

Gursoy and Rutherford (2004), in their study of five counties surrounding a Virginia recreation area, expanded Gursoy et al.'s (2001) model by disaggregating positively perceived benefits into economic benefits, social benefits, and cultural benefits, and perceived costs into social costs and cultural costs. As implied in social exchange theory, the variety of costs and benefits is expressed in the model by Gursoy and Rutherford (2004). However, the model does not include economic costs that can be incurred by tourism development. As some research studies have demonstrated, residents not only benefit economically from tourism, they also can be disadvantaged by costs incurred from tourism, examples of which have been identified by numerous studies. Residents may suffer from price increases for land and commodities, increased personal taxes, and stress on infrastructure (Pizam, 1978).

The model for this study is developed from a combination of the previous studies (Jurowski et al. (1997), Gursoy et al. (2002), Gursoy and Rutherford [2004], and Perdue, Long et al. (1990) with some changes. The first focus is to assess the relationships between Ecocentric Attitudes, Place Attachment, Community Concern, Utilization of Tourism Resource by Resident, Social Identity, participation in management (exogenous variables) and Perceived economic, social and environmental benefits and costs (endogenous variables). At second, relationship between endogenous variables with ultimate endogenous construct, which is support for tourism development, is examined.

Previous studies showed that the level of ecocentric attitudes significantly affects resident's reaction and their perceptions of tourism impacts (Jurowski et al 1997). Jurowski et al (1997) in their study resulted that there is a negative relationship between ecocentric attitudes of locals and three impact variables including perceived economic impact, perceived social impact, and perceived environmental impact. Generally, previous studies showed that residents who hold ecocentric beliefs and attitudes more strongly believe that there are costs resulting from tourism than those who do not hold strong ecocentric attitudes (Gursoy et al., 2002). For this study, the following hypotheses were formulated based on the preceding discussion:H1a. There is a positive relationship between

ecocentric attitudes of residents and perceptions of economic benefits.H1b: There is a negative relationship between ecocentric attitudes of residents and perceptions of economic costs.H1c. There is a positive relationship between ecocentric attitudes of residents and perceptions of social benefits.H1d. There is a negative relationship between ecocentric attitudes of residents and perceptions of social costs.H1e. There is a positive relationship between ecocentric attitudes of residents and perceptions of environmental benefits.H1f. There is a negative relationship between ecocentric attitudes of residents and perceptions of environmental costs.

"Place attachment" is an affectionate bond between people and their tourist destinations and it is always based on emotional feeling of travelers (Hummon, 1992; Hidalgo and Hernandez, 2001). Prior researches indicated that residents' feeling toward their place of living has an effect on their support of cooperation with tourism development (McCool and Martin, 1994; Um and Crompton, 1987).Jurowski et al found out that attached residents are likely to form positive perceptions of the economic and social impacts. Lankford and Howard (1994) and Gursoy et al (2002) could not find a clear connection between attachment and perceptions of the impacts. However, in another study they indicated that community attachment was positively related to economic benefits and social benefits of tourism Gursoy et al (2004). McCool and Martin (1994) reported that a greater sense of belonging to a community is highly correlated with higher ratings of positive and negative impacts. Based on these previous studies, the following hypotheses were formulated:H2a. There is a positive relationship between place attachment of residents and perceptions of economic benefits.H2b. There is a negative relationship between place attachment of residents and perceptions of economic costs.H2c. There is a positive relationship between place attachment of residents and perceptions of social benefits.H2d. There is a negative relationship between place attachment of residents and perceptions of social costs.H2e. There is a positive relationship between place attachment of residents and perceptions of environmental benefits.H2f. There is a negative relationship between place attachment of residents and perceptions of environmental costs.

Previous research indicated that residents might have positive or negative attitudes on tourism based on the fact that how they perceive utilization of recreation resources. It is about the importance residents place on the use of the tourism resource" (Jurowski et al., 1997, p5). Kendall and Var (1984) and Allen et al (1993) resulted in their study that

people who utilize the resource base view impacts positively because it improves leisure facilities and opportunities for the host community. Others researchers reported that residents who utilize the resource base view impacts negatively due to the belief that tourism may result in crowding the local population out of traditional leisure pursuits (O'Leary 1976). Jurowski et al (1997) indicated a positive influence on the perceived economic, social, and environmental impacts. In general, Studies on utilization of tourism resources showed that it improves entertainment and recreational opportunities for the residents (Jurowski et al 1997). Therefore, the utilization of resource by residents is likely to have a positive relationship with tourism perceived benefits in terms of economic, social and environmental and a negative relationship with perceived aspects of tourism costs. Based on these previous studies, the following hypotheses were formulated: H3a. There is a positive relationship between utilization of tourism resource of residents and perceptions of economic benefits.H3b. There is a negative relationship between utilization of tourism resource of residents and perceptions of economic costs.H3c. There is a positive relationship between utilization of tourism resource of residents and perceptions of social benefits.H3d. There is a negative relationship between utilization of tourism resource of residents and perceptions of social costs.H3e. There is a positive relationship between utilization of tourism resource of residents and perceptions of environmental benefits.H3f. There is a negative relationship between utilization of tourism resource of residents and perceptions of environmental costs.

Previous studies indicated that community concern is likely to influence the perception of the costs and benefits of tourism development (Perdue and Kieselbach 1988; Perdue, Long and Allen 1990). The researchers suggested that people with higher levels of concern about their community are likely to also be more concerned with the impacts of tourism; in other word, it is likely to influence residents' perception of tourism impacts. Based on these propositions, the following hypotheses were developed: H4a. There is a positive relationship between community concern of residents and perceptions of economic benefits.H4b. There is a negative relationship between community concern of residents and perceptions of economic costs. H4c. There is a positive relationship between community concern of residents and perceptions of social benefits.H4d. There is a negative relationship between community concern of residents and perceptions of social costs. H4e. There is a positive relationship between community concern of residents and perceptions of environmental benefits.H4f. There is a negative

relationship between community concern of residents and perceptions of environmental costs.

Two variables, participation in tourism development and social identity are mentioned particularly in the framework of this study. Peoples' participation has been recognized as a resulting component of the social exchange theory in tourism (Madrigal, 1993, p. 338). Participation or involvement within a community is determined by access to resources (e.g., economic), position held in a community (e.g., officer), and skills. Balance of power exists when people's ability to personally influence decisions is perceived as equitable (Emerson, 1962). So far, results suggesting relationship between participation and residents' perceptions of tourism impacts have been mixed. While participation was found to be the strongest predictor of residents' perceptions in the study conducted by Madrigal (1993), Kayat (2002) found it to have an indirect influence on residents' perceptions of tourism impacts. For the purpose of this study, participation is operationalized as level of personal influence on decisions related to tourism development and secondly, level of involvement in tourism development. Participation in tourism development by residents is likely to have a positive relationship with tourism perceived benefits in terms of economic, social and environmental and a negative relationship with perceived aspects of tourism costs. Therefore, on the bases of these propositions, the following hypotheses were formulated:H5a. There is a positive relationship between participation in tourism development by residents and perceptions of economic benefits.H5b. There is a negative relationship between participation in tourism development by residents and perceptions of economic costs.H5c. There is a positive relationship between participation in tourism development by residents and perceptions of social benefits.H5d. There is a negative relationship between participation in tourism development by residents and perceptions of social costs.H5e. There is a positive relationship between participation in tourism development by residents and perceptions of environmental benefits.H5f. There is a negative relationship between participation in tourism development by residents and perceptions of environmental costs.

Social identity is the individuals' knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of the group membership (Tajfel, 1972). The essential meaning here is that people gravitate towards groups that can provide an outlet for deeply held beliefs or interests. In order to understand the theory of social identity it is first instructive to understand the fundamental principles of

personal identity. Deaux (2000) explains that each person has his or her own set of values that constitute a personal identity. For example, a person could have high national values and, in turn, visit heritage destinations in his country to fulfill that identification. Similarly, a person could have his religious values and attend mosque to fulfill his religious identification. Researches indicate that social identity may have broad impacts on person's actions. Terry (1999), remark that social identity and subsequent social categorization provoke all social perception, motivation, and behavior. Later He followed up to specify that social identities can be either demographic or self ascribed. For instance, a person could choose to join a group that admits only members of a particular race or that same person could join a group that strikes a particular chord with an interest or hobby. Social identity can be appropriated as a resource by the tourism sector, tourism needs to be understood in terms of cultures, created by the collision of local community realities and general situation of the society, which could lead to improve and develop community involvement in tourism development (Burns and Noveli, 2006).

Social identity has been referred to as a development over a long period of time that formed through individual perception of the world. This pheromone represented itself through conceptions, collection of memories and ideas. The national values and heritages are recognized by people as a significant integral component of self identify. Therefore, people's emotional relationship with their national values and cultural heritages are represented by social identity. Based on their value of social, national and even religious identification, people have various behaviors and attitudes about their cultural heritage and therefore toward tourism development (Burns and Noveli, 2006).

This reflects the fact that having successful tourism development completely depends on community support and interests. Hence, an important source of determining tourism development and its sustainability is to possess the information about their social identifications and it is important to study its effects on residents' perceptions and support for tourism. It could be predicted that if residents have a high level of perception about social identity they are likely to evaluate the benefits more positively and minimize the negative impacts. Therefore, the level of social identity perceived by residents is likely to have a positive relationship with tourism perceived benefits in terms of economic, social and environmental and a negative relationship with perceived aspects of tourism costs. In this way, on the bases of these propositions, the following hypotheses were formulated:H6a. There is a

positive relationship between social identity of residents and perceptions of economic benefits.H6b. There is a negative relationship between social identity of residents and perceptions of economic costs.H6c. There is a positive relationship between social identity of residents and perceptions of social benefits.H6d. There is a negative relationship between social identity of residents and perceptions of social costs.H6e. There is a positive relationship between social identity of residents and perceptions of environmental benefits.H6f. There is a negative relationship between social identity of residents and perceptions of environmental costs.

With regard to negative aspects of tourism impacts, In Gursoy and Rutherford's (2004) model, the costs of tourism development include social and cultural. Economic costs are not considered, while in previous research, price increases for land and commodities, increased personal taxes, and stress on infrastructure are depicted as economic costs that tourism can incur (Pizam, 1978). The economic costs variable is used as one of the components (latent variable) of negative impacts of tourism that was examined in a study by Sanchez et al. (2009). They examined the relationship between attitudes toward additional tourism development, positive perceptions of tourism impacts, and negative perceptions of tourism impacts. In the Jurowski et al. (1997) study, which tested the relationship between determinants of residents' attitudes toward tourism (economic gain, resource use, community attachment, ecocentirc attitude) and perceived economic impact, they recognized that their questionnaires for economic impact items included both economic benefits and economic costs. In this study, by categorizing the tourism impacts into six variables including Economic Benefits, Economic costs, Social benefits, Social Costs, Environmental Benefits and Environmental Costs, all aspects of tourism negative impacts such as economic, social, cultural and environmental aspects are considered in measurement scales.

Second set of hypotheses, examined the relationship between the endogenous variables including Economic Benefits, Economic costs, Social benefits, Social Costs, Environmental Benefits and Environmental Costs and the ultimate endogenous construct of support for tourism development. Based on social exchange theory it could be expected that residents with positive perceptions toward tourism benefits are likely to show more support for tourism development and conversely, perceived costs of tourism would lead to lower support. Therefore, the following hypotheses were formulated: H7a. There is a positive relationship between residents' perceptions of economic benefits and support for tourism development.H7b. There is a negative relationship between

residents' perceptions of economic costs and support for tourism development.H7c. There is a positive relationship between residents 'perceptions of social benefits and support for tourism development.H7d. There is a negative relationship between residents 'perceptions of social costs and support for tourism development.H7e. There is a positive relationship between residents 'perceptions of environmental benefits and support for tourism development.H7f. There is a negative relationship between residents 'perceptions of environmental costs and support for tourism development.

STUDY AREA

The city of Bisotun is located in Western Iran, in Kermanshah province. 4000 people inhabit the city during fall and winter (Kermanshah province report, 2010); however, the number escalates in spring and summer because of desirable weather and more job opportunities especially in the tourism sector. Now, they are more than 950 families living in the city. The economy of families is depended to farms, tourism and some industrial factories around the city. Considering the unique heritage attraction, which the city possesses, government is planning to help the economy of the region by developing tourism sector. Besides the attracting sights, rivers and springs, Bisotun is full of archaeological objects and monuments from different periods of Iranian history. Its primary monument is the Bisotun Inscription, made in 521 BC by Darius the Great when he conquered the Persian throne. The inscription is written in three languages: Elamite, Babylonian and Old Persian (UNESCO, 2006). It represents the victory of Darius the Great over Gaumata and the nine rebellious kings. Bisotun is protected under the list of the National Cultural and Natural Heritage Organization of Iran and besides that, it was registered in UNESCO List of World Heritage Sites in a decision made by UNESCO World Heritage Committee and announced 13th of July 2006 (Safaei, 2007).

METHODOLOGY

The proposed model and hypothesized paths were tested on the survey data collected from the residents of Bistoon during the spring of 2012. The measurement and structural models were tested using the LISREL 8.72 structural equation analysis package (Joreskog and Sorbom, 2004).Minimum sample requirement for effective use of structural equation modeling is 200 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). As a result, the

model and fit indices are relatively and consistently stable at a sample size of 200 or greater. However, for having a more appropriate estimation in proposed structural model proposed in this study, a sample size of 500 was aimed. The self-administrated questionnaire was hand delivered by the researcher to the randomly selected households in Bistoon. Households were selected using systematic sampling with a random starting point. The number of 545 filled surveys was collected after the survey distribution (the response rate was 72 percent).The fit of the measurement and structural models was determined by examining chi-square statistics, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI; Joreskog and Sorbom 1989), the non-normed-fit index (NNFI; Hu and Bentler 1995), the comparative fit index (CFI; Bentler 1990), the incremental Fit Index (IFI; Mulaik James, Alstine, Bennett, Lind and Stilwell 1989). Values of GFI, IFI, CFI and NNFI range from 0 to 1.00 with a value close to 1.00 indicating good fit (Mulaik et al 1989).To measure the parsimony of the model: parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI) and parsimony normed fit index (PNFI) were used. Values of PGFI and PNFI range from 0 to 1.00 with a value above .70 indicating a good fit (a parsimonious model) (GFI; Joreskog and Sorbom 1989).

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the measurement model specifying the posited relations of the observed variables to the underlying constructs. Composite reliability refers to a measure of the internal consistency of indicators to the construct, depicting the degree to which they indicate the corresponding latent construct (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). A commonly used threshold value for an acceptable level of composite reliability is .70. If the composite reliability is above .70, the indicators for the latent construct are reliable and are measuring the same construct. As a complementary measure of the composite reliability, the variance extracted can be calculated to explain the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the corresponding latent construct. A commonly used acceptable cut-off point is .50. If the variance extracted values are high, the indicators are truly representative of the latent construct. Based on the result of squared multiple correlations (Indicator Reliability), some of indicators were deleted because of low indicator reliability and relatively less important variables as indicators of the particular constructs. By this modification, as indicated in Table 1and 2, the composite reliability scores for all the constructs exceeded the recommended level of 0.70. Moreover, the variance extracted estimate for each construct meets the desirable level of 50% or higher (Joreskog and

Sorbom, 1989); measurement scales properties are included in the same tables.

In an overall measurement model, the adequacy of the individual items and the composites are assessed by measures of reliability and validity. A value of higher than 0.70 is acceptable for a composite reliability. As shown in Table 1and 2, the composite reliability scores of all constructs were above 0.70. For validity of the measures, face and convergent validity were examined and approved. The review of the goodness-of-fit indices for the overall measurement model revealed that the model was well fitted to the data . As presented in Table3, the overall fit of this final measurement model was $\chi 2$ =726.64, df Difference=672, GFI =92; NNFI =.97; CFI =95, IFI =.97 and PGFI=.69; PNFI=.80. Further, the indicators of RMR (root mean square residual), and RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation) were .04, .03.

In testing the proposed hypotheses for this study, an initial theoretical structural model was examined with six exogenous constructs including Social Identity, participation in management, Place Attachment, Community Concern, Utilization of Tourism Resource by Resident, Ecocentric Attitudes and six endogenous variables including Economic Benefits, Economic costs, Social benefits, Social Costs, Environmental Benefits and Environmental Costs and one ultimate endogenous construct which is support for tourism development. As explained in the measurement modeling, some of initial indicators for the constructs were deleted by the modification process to reach the overall measurement fit. Therefore, finally 20 indicators for exogenous constructs, 14 indicators for endogenous constructs and 5 indicators for ultimate endogenous construct were used to test the model of the study. In order to find out what is the best model in this study, a series of five nested structural models were examined by using a two-step approach.

A nested model is nested within another model where the first set of freely estimated parameters is a subset of those estimated in another model. The first model as showed in the next table is the null structural sub model (Mn) in which all parameters relating the constructs to one another are fixed at zero. The second model is the theoretical model (Mt) as proposed initially. From a theoretical perspective, the constrained model (Mc) is the next most likely model. It is similar to the theoretical model (Mt) except that one or more parameters estimated in Mt are fixed at zero. In the constrained model, 22 of the 42 proposed paths (parameters) were fixed at zero. The result of the model development process suggested that adding new paths would improve the model fit.

Based on the recommendations of modification indices, additional paths were added to the model.

Table1. Measurement Scale Properties

Constructs and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings	Indicator Reliability	Error Variance
Place Attachment		.86	
I am very attached to my place of living.	.76	.54	.41
This town makes me feel like no other place can	.81	.48	.33
If it was possible, I would rather spend more time in my town.	.94	.43	.27
Social Identity		.56	
I am glad to belong to this society.	.79	.42	.37
There are national roots which unite people in my society.	.78	.63	.45
I know about the history of my area of living.	.82	.76	.27
I feel proud of the history of my area of living.	.72	.82	.36
I believe national heritage of my country should be preserved and advertised to the world	.92	.86	.48
Ecocentric Attitudes		.76	
The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset.	.56	.40	.43
Humans are severely abusing the environment.	.79	.42	.49
Utilization of tourism resource		.87	
I usually visit the heritage in my free time	.85	.54	.23
I usually visit the attractive scenic, rivers and springs of Bistoon in my free time	.92	.63	.34

Community concern		.86	
I am concerned about the local community problems	.87	.64	.21
Economy is an important concern of my community	.83	.72	.36
Roads and streets are not in a good condition in Bistoon	.92	.61	.12
Lack of appropriate communication facilities like telephone lines is a problem in Bistoon	.93	.49	.26
Participation in tourism		.79	
What level of involvement have you had in tourism development in Bistoon?	.74	.64	.45
What level of interest do you currently have about tourism development in Bistoon?	.79	.62	.38
In the future, how willing are you to be involved in tourism development in Bistoon?	.82	.49	.39
Economic Benefits		.88	
Tourism provides job opportunities for local residents.	.82	.79	.35
Increasing the number of tourists visiting the area improves local economy.	.79	.84	.29
Tourism contributes to higher income for residents.	.82	.80	.43
Economic Costs		.81	
Profits generated by tourism activity end up with companies and persons from outside Bistoon.	.90	.68	.41
Tourism increases the prices of products and services in the area.	77	.58	.42
Environmental Costs		.79	
Tourism has resulted in traffic congestion, noise or pollution.	.82	.59	.37

Tourism destroys the natural environment.	.93	.53	.29

Table 2. Measurement Scale Properties

Constructs and indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings	Indicator Reliability	Error Variance
Environmental Benefits		.79	
Tourism provides incentive for protection and conservation of heritage in the area.	.86	.63	.34
Roads and public places are kept in a better way by tourism development	.81	.58	.29
Social Costs		.76	
Tourism has negatively affected our culture.	.70	.53	.38
Tourists negatively affect residents' way of living.	.76	.55	.45
Social Benefits		.80	
Recreational opportunities for local residents could be increased by tourism development.	.81	.67	.43
Tourism increases interactions between tourists and residents	.78	.65	.38
Tourism development provides cultural activities for residents in Bistoon	.79	.59	.29
Support for Tourism Development		.74	
I support new tourism development in my community	.82	.74	.34
Tourism authorities should try to attract more tourists.	.92	.70	.29
There should be a focus on providing more tourism related job opportunities for	.93	.68	.38

locals.			
Tourism authorities should consult residents in tourism development projects.	.89	.76	.45
Local government and agencies should work as facilitators for tourism development in Bistoon.	.84	.59	.43

Table 3. Goodness-of-fit Indices for the Overall Measurement Model

Measures	Goodness-of-Fit Statistics
Chi-square	726.64 with 672 degrees of freedom ($p < .05$)
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	.92
Root mean square residual (RMR)	.04
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	.03
Adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI)	.96
Non-normed fit index (NNFI)	.97
Normed fit index (NFI)	.96
Parsimony goodness-of-fit index(PGFI)	.69
Parsimony normed fit index (PNFI)	.80
Comparative fit index (CFI)	.95
Incremental fit index (IFI)	.97
Relative fit index (RFI)	.91

These two paths included one additional path from social identity to support for tourism development and one from ecocentric attitudes to support for tourism development for estimation. The next most likely model, from a theoretical perspective, is the unconstrained alternative model (Mu) in which one or more parameters constrained in Mt are estimated. In the unconstrained model, all paths proposed in the theoretical model were estimated. The saturated model (Ms) estimates all parameters relating the constructs to one another. This model is formally equivalent to the confirmatory measurement model.

Table 4. Fit Indices of all Five Nested Models

Models Tested	χ2	d.f.	GFI	RMR	RMSE	CFI	NFI	NNFI	PNFI
Null Model	845.81	739							
Theoretical Model	744.62	679	.91	.04	.04	.95	.96	.97	.81
Unconstrained Model	732.76	677	.92	.04	.03	.95	.96	.97	.81
Constrained Model	742.63	683	.91	.04	.03	.95	.96	.97	.82
Saturated Model	726.64	672	.92	.04	.03	.95	.96	.97	.80

After assessing five nested structural models, sequential chi-square difference tests were conducted to provide successive fit information (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). As presented in table 4, the sequential chi-square difference test results indicated that there was a significant difference in chi-square value between the theoretical model (Mt) and the saturated model (Ms), which has the smallest value of any structural model at the .05 probability level (Mt_Ms $\chi 2$ difference =17.98; df Difference = 7).It means that that the theoretical model (Mt) was "ill-fitted" in comparison with the saturated model (Ms). On the other hand, both the constrained (Mc) (Mc_Ms $\chi 2$ difference=15.99; df Difference = 11, P=0.16) and the unconstrained (Mu) models' chi-square values (Mu_Ms $\chi 2$ difference =6.12; df Difference = 5, P=0.29) were not significantly different from the saturated model's chi-square value (Ms).In addition, there was no significant difference in the chi-square test result between constrained (Mc) and unconstrained (Mu) models at the .05 probability level) (Mc_Mu $\chi 2$ difference=9.87, df Difference=6 ; P=0.12). In a case of no difference in the Chi-square test, the more parsimonious model should be selected (Hull, Lehn, & Tedlie, 1995). The parsimonious normed fit index for the constrained model is .82, which, for the unconstrained model it is .81. Therefore, Even though the unconstrained model had a slightly lower (but not significantly lower) chi-square value, the constrained one was selected as the best model for this study because the constrained model is more parsimonious than the unconstrained model. The final model is presented in Figure 2.

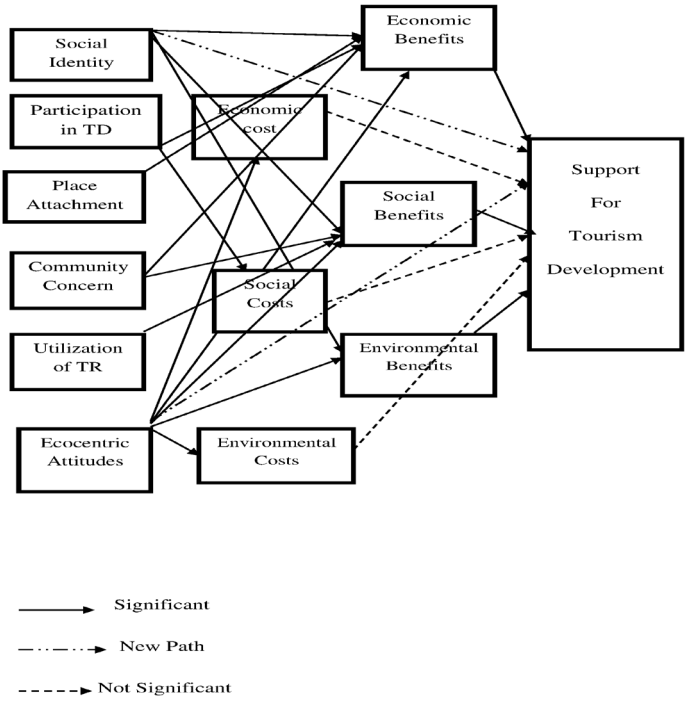

Figure 2. Modified Model of the Study

RESULTS

In this study, a total of 42 hypotheses were proposed and tested by using structural equation modeling. First set of hypothesis were about relationship between Ecocentric Attitudes, Place Attachment, Community Concern, Utilization of Tourism Resource by Resident Social Identity, participation in management (exogenous variables) and Economic Benefits, Economic costs, Social benefits, Social Costs, Environmental Benefits and Environmental Costs (endogenous variables).

Five of six hypothesis related to ecocentric Attitudes were supported and only one was not supported (H1d). Therefore, Ecocentric Attitudes is positively related to economic, social and environmental benefits and negatively related to economic and environmental costs. No relationship was found between ecocentric attitudes of residents and perceptions of social costs. The results are mostly consistent with previous studies which showed that residents with strong ecocentric attitudes have low levels of perceptions of benefits (Gursoy et al, 2004; Kaltenborn et al., 2008). Regarding place attachment, only one hypothesis (H2a) was supported that there is a positive relationship between place attachment of residents and perceptions of economic benefits. The result is consistent with previous study by Gursoy et al. (2004) who resulted that residents' attachment to their area of living is significantly related to perceived economic benefits of tourism.

Only one hypothesis related to utilization of tourism resource was supported (H3a); that there is a positive relationship between utilization of tourism resource of residents and perceptions of economic benefits. A Possible explanation for a not significant relationship between utilization and tourism costs is that residents may have developed and adopted coping mechanism to avoid competition with tourists for recreational resources (Bryant and Napier 1981). With regard to community concern, only 2 hypothesis were supported (H4a, H4c); positive relationship with economic benefit and social benefit. 2 hypotheses were supported related to participation in tourism (H5a, H5d); a positive relationship with economic benefit and negative relationship with social costs were supported. These results could demonstrate the importance of economic benefits which local community takes into the consideration toward tourism. Three hypothesis related to social identity were supported (H6a, H6c, H6e). Therefore, positive relationship with economic, social and environmental benefits was supported while no significant relationship was found with cost items. In addition, two new paths from ecocentric

attitudes and social identity to support for tourism were found to be significant in this study. These new paths indicated that the ecocentric attitudes and social identity affect residents' support for tourism by influencing their perception of cost and/or benefits of development. Besides, they directly affect their support for tourism development. These new paths were added based on the examination of modification indices.

Second set of hypotheses, examined the relationship between the endogenous variables (tourism impacts) including Economic Benefits, Economic costs, Social benefits, Social Costs, Environmental Benefits and Environmental Costs and the ultimate endogenous construct of Support for Tourism Development.Three hypothesis related to tourism impacts were supported (H7a, H7c, H7e). Therefore, support for tourism is positively related to Economic Benefits, Social benefits and Environmental Benefits, while no significant relationship was found with cost items. The finding of this study that there is no negative relationship between tourism costs and support supports is consistent with Gursoy et al's findings (2002). Insignificant relations between tourism costs and support for tourism development may be explained by the economic conditions of the community where the study was conducted. Communities of this study have been experiencing economic downturns due to current economic situation in the country and very high inflation rate in recent year, for example, the central bank of Iran revealed an inflation rate of 21.5 percent in the Iranian year that ended March 19. Sanctions, which are imposed to deter the country from developing its nuclear program, lead the people to worry about the price of basic foodstuffs. Many problems happened about the exporting the oil which is the major source of income for the government. Ordinary Iranian people are already feeling the pain of western sanctions against Iran. Inflation is soaring against a background of increasing unemployment. The Rial has plummeted in value and price of imported products has been increased severely. Evidence suggests that in communities experiencing economic problems, residents are likely to view tourism as a means of improving their economic position (Allen et al 1993; Keogh 1990) while underestimating the tourism development costs (Akis et al 1996). In such a situation, Local people are likely to place more importance on important gains than any other impacts (Akis et al 1996; Husband 1989). Because of the significant emphasis placed on economic gains, residents may underestimate the tourism costs in their community.

CONCLUSION

Local community support for tourism is a complex issue for the tourism planners who are seeking to develop or increase tourism in destinations. Results of this study suggest that tourism managers should study perceptions and ideas of local communities before they develop tourism projects to gain results that are more successful. In this way, findings of this study could be useful for tourism planners, government authorities or tourism business managers to understand the important factors affecting residents' support for tourism development and implement successful plans accordingly.It was found out in this study that six factors are likely to influence residents' perceptions of tourism impacts and their support for tourism development: Ecocentric Attitudes, Place Attachment, Utilization of Tourism Resource by Resident, Community Concern, Participation in Tourism Development and Social Identity. It is suggested that before trying to develop tourism in destinations, tourism managers and planners should collect information about level of residents' attachment to their area of living, those concerned about community issues, those with strong environmental attitudes, those currently using the resource to be developed, those participating in tourism development in their area and finally social identity of the community. When these groups are identified, tourism managers and planners can develop appropriate strategies to address the issues asked by each category.

This study found that if residents have economic concerns and believe that the economic situation needs to be improved, they are more likely to support tourism. The results showed that local community hopes to gain economic benefits toward tourism development and therefore they are interested in more tourism. They like to be involved in the exchange process because of the desired economic potential they see in tourism, however the big interest on the positive impacts of tourism lead to interesting result in this study and that is the negative aspects of tourism do not decrease the residents' support for tourism development among residents.In this way, if residents have a strong perception of economic benefits, this is likely to influence their attitudes on the effects of negative impacts of tourism. Local residents are likely to place more importance on economic gain and the significant emphasis placed on such benefits could lead to underestimate the tourism costs in their community. In other words, sometimes the dominant perceived impact is likely to influence the perception of other impacts and residents show a strong support for tourism development despite the existence of negative impacts.

Understanding the economic needs and priorities of the local communities could help tourism developers to provide more appropriate plans for tourism and it may contribute to creating and integrating value added tourism resources to achieve greater economic benefits. By identifying the group of local people who desire economic development of the society or interested in economic aspects of tourism, tourism planner could try to convince other parts of the society about the importance of tourism development by advertising the positive impacts of tourism in the society.

Results showed that those residents who expressed a high level of attachment to their social identity are more likely to see tourism as being beneficial from different aspects. These local people are interested in national values and could likely be marketed and directed as supporters of the correct kind of tourism development in their area of living. Interest in national identity by residents in this study, had lead to more support for tourism. One possible reason is that the cultural heritage is a unique symbol of national integrity, which could gather Iranians from different parts of the country in Bistoon and provide a prideful vision among international tourists. This could be important for the development of sites and with regard to the local community perceptions toward interaction with tourists, could lead to a welcoming atmosphere that promotes success of the tourism development on a sustainable basis.

This study also found out that both positive and negative impacts of tourism should be studied to have a better insight about residents' perceptions toward tourism development. The majority of residents are interested and looking for economic benefits of tourism, meanwhile others were concerned about other aspects of positive or negative impacts. For example, residents who are concerned about community issues were concerned about economic and social benefits; while those with high ecocentric attitudes were also worried about both environmental and economic costs. Tourism managers and planners can apply these findings in order to design strategies that are related to special needs of each group of residents. It can lead to achieve a higher level of local community support for tourism and provide more successful and sustainable tourism development in the community.

Residents in Bistoon strongly support tourism development in the area, however, local community perceived that their involvement and views are not taken into consideration by the tourism authorities in the decision making process of developing and managing tourism. Evidence of this can be seen in responses to the survey's open-ended questions. One resident expressed concern about the fact, saying, "Residents are not asked about their agreement or disagreement toward tourism, every time a

story about a problem heats up in public; however residents feel like no participation in decisions". This distrust could be improved by having more open dialog between tourism authorities and local residents. Local people also believe that marketing and promotion of the area have not been carefully handled. For example, the promotion and advertisement for attracting tourists during low season like winter is inadequate.

The participation of local community is expected since local community will be directly affected by a project or a decision, which warrants them to have an active role and influence in the process of decision making and planning. Moreover, their involvement would not only ensure that they would benefit economically but also create a commitment to the preservation and conservation of Bistoon as a world heritage site. Community participation would also be capable of providing input in the formulation of tourism policies, which would ensure the extent of development or rate of change, which is consistent with local desires and in maintaining visitors' interest towards the unique heritage attributes of Bistoon. Resident's involvement also empowers the community to determine the direction of their social development encourages individual, family and community growth and is considered as a powerful tool for economic development of the community.

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Editors. The manuscripts submitted should provide original and/or innovative ideas or approaches or findings that eventually push the frontiers of knowledge. Purely descriptive accounts are not considered suitable for this section. Each paper should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an overall presentation of the issue to be examined and the aims and objectives of the paper), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the development of hypotheses and/or models, research methodology, presentation of findings, and analysis and discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices.

Case Studies

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

Research Notes

Research Notes should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000; these papers may be either empirical or conceptual, and will be subject to blind peer review (by at least two anonymous referees). The decision for the final acceptance of the paper will be taken unanimously by the Editor and by the Associate Editors. The manuscripts submitted may present research-in-progress or my focus on the conceptual

development of models and approaches that have not been proven yet through primary research. In all cases, the papers should provide original ideas, approaches or preliminary findings that are open to discussion. Purely descriptive accounts may be considered suitable for this section, provided that are well-justified and of interest to the readers of *TOURISMOS*. Each paper should have the following structure: a) abstract, b) introduction (including an overall presentation of the issue to be examined and the aims and objectives of the paper), c) main body (including, where appropriate, the review of literature, the development of hypotheses and/or models, research methodology, presentation of findings, and analysis and discussion), d) conclusions (including also, where appropriate, recommendations, practical implications, limitations, and suggestions for further research), e) bibliography, f) acknowledgements, and g) appendices.

Book Reviews

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

Conference Reports

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

TOURISMOS is also open to unsolicited suggestions for reports from interested parties.

Industry Viewpoints

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

Forthcoming Events

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

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NOTES FOR CONTRIBUTORS

Manuscript Submission Procedure

Manuscripts should be written as understandably and concisely as possible with clarity and meaningfulness. Submission of a manuscript to *TOURISMOS* represents a certification on the part of the author(s) that it is an original work and has not been copyrighted elsewhere; manuscripts that are eventually published may not be reproduced in any other publication (print or electronic), as their copyright has been transferred to *TOURISMOS*. Submissions are accepted only in electronic form; authors are requested to submit one copy of each manuscript by email attachment. All manuscripts should be emailed to the Editor-in-Chief (Prof. Paris Tsartas, at ptsar@aegean.gr) and to the Editor (Prof. Evangelos Christou, at e.christou@aegean,gr), and depending on the nature of the manuscript submissions should also be emailed as follows:

- Conference reports should be emailed directly to the Conference Reports Editor (Dr. Vasiliki Galani-Moutafi), at v.moutafi@sa.aegean.gr.
- Book reviews should be emailed directly to the Book Reviews Editor (Dr. Marianna Sigala), at m.sigala@aegean.gr.
- Full papers and all other types of manuscripts should be emailed directly to the Editor (Prof. Evangelos Christou), at e.christou@aegean.gr.

Feedback regarding the submission of a manuscript (including the reviewers' comments) will be provided to the author(s) within six weeks of the receipt of the manuscript. Submission of a manuscript will be held to imply that it contains original unpublished work not being considered for publication elsewhere at the same time. Each author of a manuscript accepted for publication will receive three complimentary copies of the issue, and will also have to sign a "transfer of copyright" form. If appropriate, author(s) can correct first proofs. Manuscripts submitted to *TOURISMOS,* accepted for publication or not, cannot be returned to the author(s).

Manuscript Length

Research Papers should be not longer than 6000 words and not shorter than 4000. Research Notes should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000. Case Studies should be not longer than 3500 words and not shorter than 2500. Book Reviews should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 1000. Conference Reports should be not longer than 2000 words and not shorter than 1000. Industry Viewpoints should be not longer than 1500 words and not shorter than 500. Forthcoming Events should be not longer than 500 words. Manuscripts that do not fully conform to the above word limits (according to the type of the article) will be automatically rejected and should not be entered into the reviewing process.

Manuscript Style & Preparation

- All submissions (research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events) must have a title of no more than 12 words.
- Manuscripts should be double-line spaced, and have at least 2,5 cm (one-inch) margin on all four sides. Pages should be numbered consecutively.
- The use of footnotes within the text is discouraged – use endnotes instead. Endnotes should be kept to a minimum, be used to provide additional comments and discussion, and should be numbered consecutively in the text and typed on a separate page at the end of the article.
- Quotations must be taken accurately from the original source. Alterations to the quotations must be noted. Quotation marks (“ ”) are to be used to denote direct quotes. Inverted commas (‘ ’) should denote a quote within a quotation. If the quotation is less than 3 lines, then it should be included in the main text enclosed in quotation marks. If the quotation is more than 3 lines, then it should be separated from the main text and indented.
- The name(s) of any sponsor(s) of the research contained in the manuscript, or any other acknowledgements, should appear at the very end of the manuscript.
- Tables, figures and illustrations are to be included in the text and to be numbered consecutively (in Arabic numbers). Each table, figure or illustration must have a title.

- The text should be organized under appropriate section headings, which, ideally, should not be more than 500-700 words apart.
- The main body of the text should be written in Times New Roman letters, font size 12.
- Section headings should be written in Arial letters, font size 12, and should be marked as follows: primary headings should be centred and typed in bold capitals and underlined; secondary headings should be typed with italic bold capital letters; other headings should be typed in capital letters. Authors are urged to write as concisely as possible, but not at the expense of clarity.
- The preferred software for submission is Microsoft Word.
- Authors submitting papers for publication should specify which section of the journal they wish their paper to be considered for: research papers, research notes, case studies, book reviews, conference reports, industry viewpoints, and forthcoming events.
- Author(s) are responsible for preparing manuscripts which are clearly written in acceptable, scholarly English, and which contain no errors of spelling, grammar, or punctuation. Neither the Editorial Board nor the Publisher is responsible for correcting errors of spelling or grammar.
- Where acronyms are used, their full expression should be given initially.
- Authors are asked to ensure that there are no libellous implications in their work.

Manuscript Presentation

For submission, manuscripts of research papers, research notes and case studies should be arranged in the following order of presentation:

- *First page*: title, subtitle (if required), author's name and surname, affiliation, full postal address, telephone and fax numbers, and e-mail address. Respective names, affiliations and addresses of co-author(s) should be clearly indicated. Also, include an abstract of not more than 150 words and up to 6 keywords that identify article content. Also include a short biography of the author (about 50 words); in the case of co-author(s), the same details should also be included. All correspondence will be sent to the first named author, unless otherwise indicated.

- *Second page*: title, an abstract of not more than 150 words and up to 6 keywords that identify article content. Do ***not*** include the author(s) details, affiliation(s), and biographies in this page.
- *Subsequent pages*: the paper should begin on the third page and should not subsequently reveal the title or authors. In these pages should be included the main body of text (including tables, figures and illustrations); list of references; appendixes; and endnotes (numbered consecutively).
- The author(s) should ensure that their names cannot be identified anywhere in the text.

Referencing Style

In the text, references should be cited with parentheses using the "author, date" style - for example for single citations (Ford, 2004), or for multiple citations (Isaac, 1998; Jackson, 2003). Page numbers for specific points or direct quotations must be given (i.e., Ford, 2004: 312-313). The Reference list, placed at the end of the manuscript, must be typed in alphabetical order of authors. The specific format is:

- *For journal papers:* Tribe, J. (2002). The philosophic practitioner. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.29, No.2, pp.338-357.
- *For books and monographs:* Teare, R. & Ingram, H. (1993). *Strategic Management: A Resource-Based Approach for the Hospitality and Tourism Industries*. London, Cassell.
- *For chapters in edited books:* Sigala, M. and Christou, E. (2002). Use of Internet for enhancing tourism and hospitality education: lessons from Europe. In K.W. Wober, A.J. Frew and M. Hitz (Eds.) *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism*, Wien: Springer-Verlag.
- *For papers presented in conferences:* Ford, B. (2004). Adoption of innovations on hospitality. *Paper presented at the 22nd EuroCHRIE Conference.* Bilkent University, Ankara, Turkey: 3-7 November 2004.
- *For unpublished works:* Gregoriades, M. (2004). The impact of trust in brand loyalty, *Unpublished PhD Tourismos.* Chios, Greece: University of the Aegean.
- *For Internet sources (if you know the author)*: Johns, D. (2003) The power of branding in tourism. Http://www.tourismabstracts.org/marketing/papers-authors/id3456.

Accessed the 12th of January 2005, at 14:55. (note: always state clearly the full URL of your source).

- *For Internet sources (if you do not know the author)*: Tourism supply and demand. Http://www.tourismabstracts.org/marketing/papers-authors/id3456. Accessed the 30th of January 2004, at 12:35. (note: always state clearly the full URL of your source).
- *For reports:* Edelstein, L. G. & Benini, C. (1994). *Meetings and Conventions*. Meetings market report (August), 60-82.