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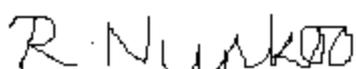
Following the success of the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference (AHTMMC), it is with great pleasure that I present to you the 4th AHTMMC jointly organized by Faculty of Law and Management, University of Mauritius and School of Hospitality Business Management, Washington State University. I am thankful to Professor Dogan Gursoy, Founder of the conference and Co-chair of the 4th AHTMMC for trusting me with the organisation of the conference. It is always a privilege to co-chair such a well-established conference of high academic repute.

The conference examines contemporary hospitality and tourism issues, stimulates dialogue, and provides new perspectives in the field of hospitality and tourism within the globalized environment. It is my hope that the conference meets the expectation of every delegate and that it provides an appropriate forum for the nurturing and exchange of scientific ideas that underlie future research in tourism and hospitality. The diversity of papers presented by delegates from various parts of the world reflects the academic importance and the international nature of the conference.

The conference features a round table discussion on “*Enablers and Barriers to Sustainable Tourism*” which provides an excellent opportunity for researchers and practitioners to interact and debate and is a step forward to bridging the gap between theory and practice. We are also privileged to have in our midst Professor Geoffrey Lipman, Advisor to the Secretary General of United Nations World Tourism Organisation as our keynote speaker. Our plenary session and panel discussion on “*How to Get your Articles Published*” provides an excellent opportunity for delegates, especially young researchers to listen to expectations of journal editors and reviewers.

It takes huge effort to organise conferences. The last twelve months have been very challenging for my organizing committee, but the enthusiasm and commitment we shared have hopefully lead us to a successful conference. I extend my deep appreciation to the members, without whom hosting and organizing the conference would have been impossible. I also owe my deepest gratitude to our sponsors who believed in the purpose and importance of this international conference.

I wish you a successful and fruitful conference and a pleasant stay in Mauritius! I look forward to welcoming you to the 4th AHTMMC!



Dr. Robin Nunkoo
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SECTION A ABSTRACTS

**Organizational infrastructure challenges in the tourism and MEEC industries that
impede urban renewal strategies: The case of Guayaquil, Ecuador**

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Municipality leaders of waning urban cities that have observed an economic decline or stagnation in the city's performance may opt to invest public funds towards the development of the city's tourism infrastructure and organizational infrastructure in order to assist in rejuvenating their city's image. One of tourism's most prominent sub-industry sectors that has seemingly reaped some of the benefits from such developmental efforts is the meetings, expositions, events, and conventions (MEEC) industry. This is because the MEEC industry is noted as one of the fastest growing segments within the tourism industry and generates significant economic returns for cities and countries on a worldwide scale. The purpose of this research is to investigate the organizational infrastructure challenges that may hamper the use of the tourism and MEEC industries as developmental tools for urban renewal growth strategies in a developing country's capital city. The research design is an exploratory qualitative case study that takes place in Guayaquil, Ecuador.

The study is framed within the collaborative theory paradigm where power relations (i.e. at the municipal level) may provide the most practical means to ensue stakeholders' willingness to collaborate in efforts that would develop the organizational infrastructure and marketing efforts for the tourism and MEEC industries. The research investigates three critical components pertaining to the potential contribution of the tourism market and the MEEC industry's ability to provide or conform to Guayaquil's current market structure. First, the research investigates if the tourism market and the MEEC industry could provide a secure and positive socioeconomic source for Guayaquil. Second, the research examines if investment in the organizational infrastructures of the tourism and MEEC industries could lead to sustainable and viable economic growth that could act as catalysts for further development in Guayaquil. Lastly, the research explores if the existing tourism stakeholders demonstrate the ability to organize central efforts in order for tourism and MEEC industries to serve as potent catalysts for economic development in Guayaquil.

Fourteen formal interviews with upper level executives from all of the major public and private tourism entities that comprise Guayaquil's tourism industry were conducted. The average interview was one hour in length and was conducted over a two-day data collection phase. Each interview included the following five research questions:

1. What are the primary objectives of Guayaquil's tourism strategy?
2. What are the environmental challenges the tourism and MEEC industries face in Guayaquil?
3. What have been the actions undertaken to confront those challenges facing these industries in Guayaquil?

4. What are the results or outcomes of those actions used to overcome the challenges facing Guayaquil's tourism and MEEC industries?
5. What are the explanations for the outcomes of the tourism and MEEC industries in Guayaquil?

A preliminary form of qualitative data saturation was reached when consistent themes emerged in the data through a cross verification process. Quantitative data was also collected in order to confirm the stakeholders' and officials' viewpoints.

The results from the study reveal that both public and private stakeholders have much to gain from the anticipated returns from tourism. According to the economic impact assessment, the poor social strata of Guayaquil seem to be a significant beneficiary of tourism development. The results reveal that there is paucity among stakeholders in knowing how to create the required organizational infrastructure. The core of the problem lies in the procurement of resources and in who benefits in the process. In general, Guayaquil seems marred with market failure due to the current marketing efforts for the city being carried by a private organization that promotes the destination but does not accrue all the benefits. Significant doubt, distrust, and resistance among stakeholders are prominent. Stakeholders expressed that intervention from the municipal government is required to correct for market failure.

The formal research presentation will include a solution based process that falls within the collaborative theory framework where the municipality takes leadership in creating the organizational infrastructure to market the destination. The presentation also includes viable revenue sources that could be used to fund the necessary marketing efforts that would support

continued urban renewal programs through the development of the tourism and MEEC industries.

KEYWORDS Tourism, MEEC industry, urban renewal, organizational infrastructure, collaborative theory, Ecuador

Paper type: Case Study

AHTMMC

**The Tragedy of the Commons and Coordination Problems within a Developing
Country's Tourism Industry**

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The purpose of this study is to explore potential reasons that detract from the use of backward economic linkages that might otherwise maximize the economic benefits of the tourism industry for locals in a developing country. The research inquires: why would locals, who would economically benefit the most by using a local network of backward economic linkages “cheat” the system by using external sources to purchase the products they need to assemble their tourism product? The study further questions whether the reason is simply that the locals do not understand that if they purchase within the network they all stand to benefit

more together or if it is simply that they do not care to benefit the entire system. The research design is a case study that explores the locals' reasons for not using local backward economic linkages in Puntarenas, Costa Rica. Twenty-five face-to-face interviews were conducted with various tourism business owners and managers for this exploratory qualitative case study research design.

The findings indicate that while the participants felt that tourism business' economies of scale could be improved if all locally owned businesses purchased within the tourism supply chain they themselves were purchasing outside of the supply chain. This behavior was characterized as a result of a non-cooperative market. The major implication from the study is a trend that emerged from the data that seems to detect a tragedy of the commons and coordination problem scenarios that are rooted within game theory. This scenario provides two managerial insights for the tourism industry.

The first insight detects a problem where tourism business owners and managers indicate their understanding of the economic value for using local network linkages but instead cheat the system. The second insight provides a preliminary explanation regarding why this cheating behavior may occur which seems to indicate that there is a lack of product differentiation which tends to increase the cost of cooperating among direct competitors within the tourism industry. The latter could be a typical Bertrand model.

A limitation of the current study is that case studies may only be generalized to theoretical propositions and not to similar contextual situations. Upon acceptance to the conference, the researchers will share the formal results and managerial recommendations to assist in overcoming the tragedy of commons scenario as well as coordination issues among major

stakeholders. Additionally, the researchers will share a future research design that incorporates a larger sample including four additional small island destinations that leads way to a larger study that adopts a similar theoretical foundation.

KEYWORDS Tourism supply chain, economic linkages, non-cooperative market, game theory, tragedy of the commons, Costa Rica

Paper type Case Study

AHTMMC

What are tourists' hotel room preferences? A stated choice experiment

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ABSTRACT

On a day-to-day basis, hotel managers and revenue managers are facing these questions: should we offer a complimentary drink in the bar to attract more guests to the hotel? How much should we charge for a room on a higher floor or with a ocean view? Many times, hoteliers make these decisions based on past experience, intuition, and trial-and-error from tweaking the offering and the results of guests' purchases. Without a rigorous model, many

decisions are not generalizable, and their effects are in question. Picking a hotel room is intrinsically a complex and idiosyncratic task making it difficult to model hotel room decision process. However, certain attributes are almost universally desirable to all the guests: additional space in the room, free services offered, a quieter room, and etc. Knowing the customers' perceived utility of these attributes, hoteliers could up-sell rooms, cross-sell other products, or offer additional services to attract more guests. Past studies in the hospitality field mostly focus on the selection of hotels among a number of alternatives. No published studies have addressed the choice of a hotel room within a specific property.

In this study, we propose to use stated choice experiment and discrete choice modeling to investigate tourists' hotel room preferences. The attributes describing hypothetical hotel rooms are appropriately selected among the basic features of a hotel room (floor, view, etc.) along with specific services associated with the hotel stay. An essential attribute refers to the price of any hypothetical hotel room. This gives information on the respondents' price sensitivity and allows for the estimation of willingness to pay measures associated with the non-monetary attributes under investigation. The data is collected in a four-star hotel in Kowloon, Hong Kong through face-to-face interviews conducted in the lobby of the hotel with actual hotel customers. In particular, the data gathered from the stated choice experiment, part of the survey, is analyzed following the random utility model framework. The model is further integrated with additional information about respondent demographic variables, trip characteristics and travel history.

This study is the first of its kind in investigating tourists' hotel room preferences with discrete choice modeling technique. In this context, a clearer understanding of the hotel room choice behavior is achieved and the results are used to provide managerial and policy implications.

Hotel managers can use the final model to determine appropriate levels of prices and rates for their services and products. The model can also help them to predict the conversion rates for certain groups of customers.

AHTMMC

**Same, Same but Different: A Comparative Study of Mainland Chinese and Chinese-
American Consumers' Perceptions of and Behavior in a Service Failure Situation**

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ABSTRACT

Past research has assessed the impact of culture on service evaluations, with studies confirming that customers of different cultures evaluate service quality differently (Becker et

al., 1999), have different perceptions of service failure and recovery (Magnini & Ford, 2004) and complaint handling (Mattila & Patterson, 2004) while also exhibiting different complaint behaviors (Liu et al., 2001). Several studies have focused on Chinese consumers and their reactions in service failure/recovery situations, for example, Hoare, Butcher and O'Brien (2011); Hui and Au (2001); Lee, Khan and Ko (2008); Lee and Sparks (2007); Liu and colleagues (2001), Magnini and Ford (2004) and Mattila and Patterson (2004). However, of the few studies that focused on Chinese consumers in SFR situations, none has considered potential differences between Chinese who have grown up and only lived in Mainland China versus those who are living for extended periods in, and thus are exposed to and influenced, to varying extents, by a Western culture. That is, no study to date has investigated the effect of acculturation on Chinese customers in a service failure context.

This research draws on acculturation theory to identify potential differences in responses between Chinese consumers who have lived for extended periods in a Western culture and those who have not. In doing so, it explores the impact of culture beyond the prevalent Western/Asian consumer differentiation. An understanding of the effect of acculturation is critical for service providers, given the increased importance of Chinese travelers for many tourist destinations and service providers around the world (e.g., Xinhua, 2011), combined with the fact that service recovery measures that have proven successful for Chinese consumers who live in Mainland China may not be suitable for Chinese who have been exposed for to vastly different cultural influences and norms when residing in a Western country. Utilizing a between-subject experimental design, this study examined the effects of acculturation modes (integration, assimilation, separation) on Chinese-Americans' responses to a service failure situation, and contrasts them with those of Chinese in Mainland China. Data was collected from 600 ethnic Chinese residing in the United States for at least 5 years

and 600 Chinese residing in Mainland China. Both their perceptions of and responses to a service failure situation were ascertained, and compared. The service failure situation was characterized by two variables that are manipulated at two levels: 1) Hotel Brand (Asian versus Western) and 2) ethnicity of service staff (Chinese versus Western). The setting for the service failure was a hotel setting. The study employed a 3 (acculturation) x 2 (Hotel Brand) x 2 (ethnicity of service staff) between-subject experimental design, whereby acculturation mode was measured, and hotel brand and ethnicity of service staff were manipulated. The dependent variables were face, harmony, word-of-mouth, satisfaction and repeat visitation. Results indicated significant differences among Chinese-American respondents, depending on the extent of their acculturation, and between Chinese-Americans and Mainland Chinese. These differences need to be further explored and considered by service providers targeting a multi-cultural customer base. Theoretical and practical implications of study findings are discussed.

Standard Recipes of Traditional Turkish and Latvian Meals:

Similarities and Differences

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ABSTRACT

One of the elements of attraction in the tourism sector is food and beverage. International food habits consist of national food habits in tourism. Preparing standard recipes of traditional food is required in point of the sustainability of cultural food habits. Also it is important in point of the tourism sector. Similar aspects of food from different cultures and differences can be an attraction factor.

This paper explains the development of Turkish and Latvian cuisine through the history. In this research Turkish and Latvian traditional foods have been researched and standard recipes have been organized. As an example Turkish and Latvian traditional foods have been compared with each other.

This paper offers guidelines for developing the traditional food recipes as a gastronomic tourism product, which can be adapted throughout the region and can be an important

element in sustainable tourism projects. In conclusion, some similarities and differences have been observed between them and have been evaluated in terms of the tourism product.

KEYWORDS Tourism, gastronomy, traditional cuisine, Turkish Meals/ Cuisine, Latvian Meals/Cuisine, standard recipes.

AHTMMC

A Smoke-Free Island in the Sun!

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Introduction

Promoting Mauritius as a smoke-free destination is a viable concept to be exploited by the tourism industry to attract more tourists to the country. With all the tropical islands in the world, Mauritius in the context of global competitiveness cannot afford to continue to rely on the *Sea, Sun and Sand* concept used in its embryological stage of tourism development. In order to secure its position as one of the main pillars of the Mauritian economy, the tourism industry needs to advance and look for innovative strategies of marketing which will at the same time contribute to combat the global tobacco epidemic. According to the World Health Organization, smoking stands as the single most preventable cause of mortality and morbidity in the vast majority of countries throughout the world.

Aim and objectives

The aim of this paper is to present the concept of smoke-free hotels for the protection of clients and staff from exposure to cigarette smoke or second-hand smoke. The objectives of this concept paper are (1) to provide information on the harmful effects of second-hand

smoke on health, (2) to emphasize on the benefits of smoking cessation (3) to highlight evidence from the literature with respect to the impact of the law on smokers and non-smokers.

Methodology

The International Tobacco Control (ITC) Policy Evaluation Project is a longitudinal prospective cohort survey to examine the impact of tobacco control legislations. A literature search for ITC publications on impact of smoke-free law was performed by means of Google scholar search. As the ITC Project started in 2006, all ITC research articles from 2006 to 2014 were included for presentation of findings.

Presentation

The preliminary element is to take cognizance that most tourists coming to Mauritius have experienced the implementation of smoke-free laws in their respective countries. Research studies in these countries have provided the evidence that comprehensive implementation of the law has beneficial impact. Thus, the concept of the smoke-free hotel will be discussed with the recognition that staff and clients need counselling, medication and support to successfully quit smoking. The harmful effects of second-hand smoke as well as the benefits of smoking cessation will be put forward based on the evidence from the literature with respect to the impact of the law on smokers and non-smokers. The ITC findings by various investigators in various countries, including Mauritius, will be discussed.

Conclusion

There is more than enough evidence to advocate for smoke-free environment in tourism and hospitality venues. With the vision of a smoke-free island, the concept of smoke-free island

in the sun needs to be marketed with the engagement of all stakeholders in the tourism sector, for the implementation of the concept and at the same time implementation of the law. A successful implementation of the smoke-free hotels will make Mauritius become an attractive holiday destination for couples, families with young children, ex-smokers and smokers who want to quit smoking. “Un client heureux et en bonne santé est un client qui revient !”

AHTMMC

Perceived effects of wildlife-based tourism development:

A case of the Chobe National Park River Front in northern Botswana

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ABSTRACT

Tourism plays a significant role to the economy of Botswana, and has been growing steadily over the years as evidenced by the number of international and regional visitors; increased number of lodging and supporting facilities and services. An increase in visitor numbers to national parks and reserves in the north of the country has been observed in the decades. The number of foreign investors has also increased in renowned wildlife rich Okavango area. However, tourism in Botswana is largely wildlife and wilderness-based. The challenge so far is that nearly 90% of tourists who come to Botswana visit national parks and game reserves. A significant proportion of those who have visited listed wildlife-related tourism, especially to the Chobe National Park (CNP) and Moremi Game Reserve as the greatest attraction. Most tourism developments such as lodges, hotels, and campsites are situated along waterfronts of

the Okavango and the Linyanti/Chobe River in the north. As a result, wildlife tourists tend to concentrate along the scenic Chobe River of the CNP. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine perceived effects of the development of wildlife-based tourism in the CNP, specifically the River Front in northern Botswana. Sampling was conducted on site (entrance at CNP for tourists and some at lodging facilities) and place of work for key informants. Data were collected by means of self-completion survey and questionnaires among 40 tourists who visited the area and 30 key informants from May to July 2012 in Kasane. Additional data was collected via participant observation. The research findings reveal that the development of tourism in the Chobe region has stimulated growth of infrastructure such as hotels, safari lodges and camp sites, especially along the river. This has improved employment opportunities and income for local people. Other benefits were associated with species variety, animal population, scenic beauty and exclusiveness of the CNP. However, there were general perceptions that wildlife tourism development had negative impacts on the environment. Unacceptable levels of congestion by both tourists' boats and vehicles have led to a marked deterioration in the quality of the nature experience. Hitherto, it is doubtful that the policy of Low Volume, High Cost (LVHC) has achieved its intended objectives in CNP. It is for this reason that the study finds management of tourism activities and the ecological sustainability of the Chobe National Park River front being compromised. In the paper, recommendations are offered in light of encouraging more sustainable practices, sustainable marketing and management, and increased monitoring of tourism activity.

KEYWORDS Wildlife; benefits; environment; management, Okavango, Chobe national park

**HIV and AIDS Policy Implementation:
The Case of a Major South African Hotel Group**

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ABSTRACT

The hospitality industry takes pride in being hands-on and service oriented – dedicated to service excellence and customer satisfaction. The hospitality industry has inherent challenges (such as high staff turnover, as well as long and strenuous working hours) that are exacerbated, especially in the South African context, by the prevalence of HIV- and AIDS-infected employees. Both HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus), which represents the initial stage of infection, and AIDS (Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome), which describes the advanced stage of infection, have an impact on employees in the hospitality industry (Barrett-Grant, Fine, Heywood & Stode 2003: 110; Hardy & Kleinsmidt 2004: 2; Stevens, Lynn & Glass 2008: 614). This may result in increased sick leave, lower productivity and increased cost.

South Africa is the country with the largest population of HIV and AIDS sufferers in Sub-Saharan Africa. Since AIDS is an incurable disease that mostly affects individuals in their

productive years, it could have a disruptive impact on the productivity and financial sustainability of organisations, which is especially true in the hospitality industry where long and strenuous working hours are often expected from staff. In addition, South African companies are not compelled to have HIV and AIDS policies in place but are, instead, encouraged to do so by the Code of Good Practice (as part of the Labour Relations Act 55 of 1996 [RSA 1995]). With this in mind, the study evaluated the implementation of HIV and AIDS policies in the hospitality industry, by focusing on a major South African hotel group.

The hotel group under investigation has individual hotels throughout the nine provinces of South Africa. In determining which geographical areas were to be included in the study, the HIV infection rates of the various provinces were taken into account. As most of the hotels are situated within cities, it was decided that one city from the worst-, medium and least-infected areas would be included (thus three cities were included). Durban (representing KwaZulu-Natal) is part of the worst-infected area, whereas Bloemfontein (representing the Free State) is part of the medium-infected area, and Cape Town (representing the Western Cape) is part of the least-infected area. It was determined that the hotel group under investigation has five hotels in these cities – one in Bloemfontein, two in Cape Town and two in Durban. Permission to undertake the research was granted by head office prior to the commencement of the study and the researchers contacted each hotel individually in order to make the necessary arrangements. The researchers were furnished with the staff establishment for each individual hotel which enabled stratified random sampling to be carried out.

This study confirms that the effective implementation of HIV and AIDS policies could mitigate the detrimental effects of the disease in the hospitality industry. The findings show

that the respondents were not aware of the existence of HIV and AIDS policies and that its communication was problematic. The findings also indicate that the respondents do not fully comprehend the disruptive nature of the disease or the fact that it could negatively affect productivity and profit.

AHTMMC

Developing a Strategic Framework for Terrorism Prevention and Mitigation in Sport Events and Festivals in the USA

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ABSTRACT

Tourist activities have always been identified as “soft targets” for terrorist attacks. Terrorists see tourist activities as an easy target to infiltrate. It guarantees international media coverage and provides a cost-effective platform for terrorists to deliver a broader political message. The success is evident in the many tourist attacks that have occurred all over the world in the last 40 years. The National Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism (2013) has indicated that there have been more than 383 incidents in 77 countries involving tourists from 1970 – 2011. Some of the tourist activities that have been targeted by terrorist are sport events and festivals. Although considerable amount of attacks have been on sport events, attacks on festivals although less frequent are not uncommon. Many destinations have struggled to recover from the effects of terrorism attacks and several researchers have suggested strategies for destination recovery while others have focused more on the impacts of the attacks. Although there are several previous studies on how tourism destinations should

deal with a terrorist attack there are very few research that focus specifically on sport events and festivals. The literature on crisis management also does not provide much help to events and festival organizers to prevent and mitigate these terrorist attacks. Arguably, a terrorism prevention and mitigation strategy is in the remit of governmental agencies and local authorities. However it does not decrease the vulnerability of the destination and its tourist to terrorist attacks and therefore destination stakeholders are developing their own plans and anti-terrorism measures to assist. The problem that exists is that there is no particular strategic prevention and mitigation framework that has been empirically tested in the context of sport events and festivals. The aim of this study is therefore develop a strategic framework for terrorism prevention and mitigation in sport events and festivals in the USA. The study was undertaken in two phases: During phase 1, in-depth semi-structured interviews were carried out with sport event and festival organizers in the USA. In phase 2, an online-questionnaire was developed based on several related previous studies and the findings from the semi-structured interviews. The online-questionnaire was then pilot tested with local sport event and festival organizers for a two-week period. The feedback was evaluated and incorporated into the questionnaire. The target population of the study comprises all sport event and festival organizers in the USA. This study develops a strategic framework for terrorism prevention and mitigation for sport events and festivals in the USA. Theoretically, the research contributes to the current body of knowledge, as there is currently no strategic framework for terrorism prevention and mitigation in sport events and festivals. In terms of practical implications the study findings and the proposed framework assist festival organizers in ensuring the prevention and mitigation of terrorist attacks on festivals in the USA.

KEYWORDS Terrorism prevention, mitigation, sport events, festivals, USA

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AHTMMC

**Improving Destination Marketing of Industrial Heritage –
The Case of North Rhine-Westphalia**

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ABSTRACT

In the past decades, many industrial regions in Europe suffered from structural changes away from industrial production towards the provision of services. In particular the Ruhr Area in Germany's North Rhine-Westphalia offers a huge variety of industrial monuments, museums and mines close together in one megalopolis – symbols of the decline in the coal-, iron- and steel-industries. Over the past two to three decades there was an increasing interest in the combination of industry with tourism to absorb economic losses of structural re-organization in the area. Developments like the Route of Industrial Heritage that combines several attractions have shown some success; nevertheless major challenges in destination marketing remain, especially concerning the high number of different parties with varying interests involved.

This paper is based on research that was conducted in 2013 in cooperation with the North Rhine-Westphalia Ministry of Building, Housing, Urban Development and Transport (MBWSV) as well as the states' tourism association. It discusses to what extent industrial

heritage tourism to North Rhine-Westphalia can be enhanced by improving communication between the management of industrial sites and tourism marketing officials thereby improving the overall destination marketing for industrial heritage tourism. A combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches was selected in form of a standardized questionnaire followed by expert interviews. The top 100 industrial heritage sites in terms of their size, touristic significance and offer were addressed with an online questionnaire. The response rate was 60%. The selection of sites was done by ministry officials and state marketing managers. With the completion of the online survey, eight tourism marketing experts representing different areas with high industrial heritage site concentration were interviewed and confronted with the survey results. By applying the above mentioned methodology both perspectives of the management of industrial sites as well as tourism marketing representatives were contrasted and compared.

Results show that there are differing opinions and perceptions of industrial heritage and the necessity for conservation. Several managers of industrial sites mention that they fear the destruction of the historical authenticity of sites. They also comment on the lacking cooperation beyond their regional borders, missing expertise in tourism marketing and the lack of sufficient financial resources. Several regional tourism marketing representatives express that only a very limited number of heritage sites has the touristic potential to be marketed effectively. It is agreed upon that more information, shared guidelines on marketing strategies, more tourism marketing expertise as well as regular meeting intervals may improve the destination marketing of industrial heritage tourism to North Rhine-Westphalia. Limitations are being discussed and recommendations for further research are given.

KEYWORDS Destination marketing, industrial heritage tourism, cultural tourism, industrial attractions, regional restructuring

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The End of Zoos or the Revival of Human Stewardship: Public Attitudes, Visitor Perceptions and Management Implications for Zoo Tourism in a Changing World

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ABSTRACT

The human relationship with other animals symbolises many aspects of the human-nature relationship. Often thinking about this connection moves humans out of their comfort zone as it calls a number of our ethical behaviours into question. Just writing “the human relationship with other animals” seems to be wrong, out of place, not correct as it questions the exceptionality and superiority of humans. However, the uniqueness of human beings within nature has continuously been eroded in the last few decades (Sommer 2012).

For more than 150 years observing wild and domestic animals in captivity has been a prominent leisure activity. Egyptian pharaohs and Chinese and Roman emperors kept captive animals for their royal enjoyment and as status symbols. However, gradually zoos changed their roles from providing privileged access to allowing the general public to gaze upon those animals. In conjunction, the expectation of the visitors and the offers of zoos changed as well. Today, the role of zoos and wildlife parks is based on a complicated concept that is riddled

with contradictions closely linked with fast changing public attitudes and visitor perceptions that move between traditional, modern and post-modern values. These have a variety of impacts on the management of wildlife parks and zoos .

The article explores public attitudes towards a wildlife park in Tasmania, Australia. It replicates work done by Ryan and Saward (2004) at Hamilton Zoo, New Zealand and Reiser, Huyton and Faulks (2006) at the National Zoo and Aquarium in Canberra, Australia. It expands the previous research to a wildlife park to discover similarities and differences within two varying concepts of displaying animals to visitors and the consequences for management. More importantly, the results provide evidence about the cynical relationship that human animals, including tourists, have with other animals.

KEYWORDS Wildlife park, visitor attitudes, tourism management

How to Raise Switching Barrier Strategy in E-Travel Agencies

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to explore and empirically examine the relationships among retailers' e-transaction satisfactions, interpersonal relationships, switching barriers, and repurchase intentions for the burgeoning e-commerce of Taiwan's travel agencies. In the first stage, this study will attempt to develop a measurement scale of above four dimensions in e-travel agencies by identifying existing components of each dimension through a qualitative procedure. This first stage will be conducted by using a three-round Delphi survey methodology. The first-round Delphi survey will use a set of follow-up interviews with a total of 20 experts who are qualified to participate in this study. They are classified into five categories: (1) Academics, (2) Travel agent CEOs, (3) Chairman or Chief Secretary of Taipei, Kaohsiung, Tainan Association of Travel Agents, (4) Vice Chairman of Taiwan International Association of Tour Managers, and (5) Chairman of Certified Travel Counselors Association of the Republic of China. This stage study will conduct 5 focus travel agency interviews of homogeneous participants.

The second stage, adopting a quantitative analysis will expect to raise an optimal switching barrier & enforce interpersonal relationship strategy B2B model for e-travel agencies. The

sample members are from the regions of Taipei, Taichung, Tainan, and Kaohsiung. The sample population size are included both General Travel Agencies(GTAs) and Tour Operator Travel Agencies (TOTAs) in Taiwan. According to statistics from the Taiwan Tourism Bureau, most the General Travel Agencies(GTAs) and the Tour Operator Travel Agencies (TOTAs) are located in the Taipei, Taichung, Tainan, and Kaohsiung areas. Therefore, this survey is based on the above target respondents. Because this survey is based on respondents with B2B transaction experience, random data collection sampling techniques could not be used, and convenience sampling techniques are used instead. Cooperation and assistance from the travel agency practitioners are used to improve the sample's generality and survey validity. Although convenience sampling is adopted, several criteria have been put into place. First, the respondents include: Travel Quality Assurance Association members, R.O.C. Second, the respondents have experience in B2B transactions. Third, only members of General Travel Agencies (GTAs) or Tour Operator Travel Agencies (TOTAs) are chosen for this survey. If the chosen respondent does not match any one of the above criteria, or is unwilling to participate in the survey, then the next immediate convenient sampling unit is approached and interviewed.

In hence, using mailed data and personally- collected data from multiple sources in order to improve the study's validity by using a quantitative method, helping this study to identify the determinants of switching barriers and interpersonal relationships between Taiwan's wholesaler and retailer travel agencies. Besides, Taiwan's wholesaler travel agencies might consider e-satisfaction as the most important antecedents to repurchase intentions, whereas lower switching barriers and higher interpersonal relationships results in the increased repurchase intentions of retailers. This study uses several statistical techniques, including confirmatory factor analysis, correlation analysis, and a linear structural relationship

(LISREL), and also implements a structural equation to test. All of them are top e-wholesalers focusing on e-commerce channel providers. This study is quite innovative in that no related studies so far have analyzed nor tried to discern the cause-and-effect relationship among e-satisfactions, switching barriers, interpersonal relationships and e-repurchase intentions for online travel agencies. This study also proposes an optimal B2B transaction model that matches the essential development needs of B2B commerce transaction. Finally, the model herein illustrates how wholesalers can realize e-commerce strategic goals by increasing the repurchase intentions of retailer travel agencies.

KEYWORDS Travel Agency, switching barrier, interpersonal relationship, satisfaction, repurchase intention

Still Recovering: The Case of the Coco Palms Resort, Hawaii

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ABSTRACT

Recovery from a natural disaster (or crisis – the ‘man-made’ aspect of a natural disaster) has become a focus of many tourism destination managers, planners and academics (Beeton, 2006). To date, most of the focus and reported cases of natural disasters relates to the immediate aftermath, with some studies looking at the situation over a few years, while a few consider the moment of the disaster (Jennings and Beeton, 2006), but rarely do any take a longer term perspective. However, as Tarlow (2005) argues, a place never fully ‘recovers’ from a disaster, rather it is in a continual state of recovery, and needs to be studied.

Hurricane Iniki struck the Hawaiian island of Kauai on 11 September 1992, causing massive destruction that is remembered today. One potent reminder is the ruin of the Coco Palms Resort, that was not only a victim of the hurricane, but also of human mismanagement and crises, resulting in the famous resort not being redeveloped post Iniki (Coffman and Noy, 2012).

Methodology

Based on personal visits to the Coco Palms resort and interviews with the caretaker, Bob Jasper, as well as connection with social media sites, the case of the recovering Coco Palms can be studied.

Discussion

From the 1950s the Coco Palms Resort on the picturesque Hawaiian island of Kauai, had a high celebrity status, not only due to the stars such as Gene Autry, Big Crosby, Frank Sinatra, Liberace and Elvis Presley who stayed there, but also due to movies that were filmed at the resort (Hibbard, 2006). The resort became an icon of island resorts, inventing practices that have now merged into the culture of Pacific/Polynesian Islands, such as the ritual of the sunset torch lighting by well-muscled young men (Hibbard, 2006).

However, due to a series of legal and financial wranglings and bankruptcies post Hurricane Iniki, the resort has remained in ruins, locked up and shut off from the broader public (Hurley, 2013). The only way to visit the resort is as part of a Movie Tour or on a specially organised tour run by the caretaker (and founder of the Hawaii MovieTours operation), Bob Jasper, or to book a wedding.

Over the past 20 years, fans of the resort (and movies) as well as many of the local community fought to have it restored, using social media, traditional media, tourism and legal avenues to achieve this. In January 2014, they succeeded, with developers gaining permission to redevelop the resort, planning to reopen in late 2015 or early 2016 (Hurley, 2013).

Conclusion

With its heritage, celebrity status and natural beauty, the restored Coco Palms stands to become a major Hawaiian tourist attraction, and the story of its recovery may well become another element of the experience at this iconic resort. In terms of tourism and post

disaster/crisis recovery research, this case contributes significantly to the body of knowledge due to its long-term, somewhat unique story.

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Overcoming the “Blood Diamond” Stigma: Developing Tourism and Re-Branding

Sierra Leone

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ABSTRACT

Presently, Sub-Saharan Africa is one of the least developed tourism regions, receiving only 5% of international arrivals each year. But due to the fact the industry is still in its infancy this region has perhaps the most potential for growth. In 2012, Sub-Saharan Africa welcomed 34 million international arrivals, with the majority of those individuals visiting South Africa, Botswana and Zimbabwe. At the opposite end of the spectrum, Sierra Leone hosted a mere 39,000 tourists, making it the least visited country in Africa with the exception of Sao Tome and Principe. Nevertheless, the tourism industry within Sierra Leone has seen consistent growth in the last decade since the end of the civil war (World Tourism Organization UNWTO, 2012b).

A significant challenge associated with Sierra Leone’s attempt to promote tourism is the overwhelmingly negative country image. Many westerners recall stories of blood diamonds, boy soldiers and refugees and mistakenly believe that is a present-day reality. However, Sierra Leone has a rich history, beautiful countryside, and plentiful natural resources which it is currently attempting to harness to promote sustainable tourism development. The Tiwai Wildlife Sanctuary, Bunce Island, and Tokeh Beach are some of the most popular tourist attractions and the backbone of tourism development in Sierra Leone.

This study utilized a qualitative research design to investigate the current destination marketing efforts of Sierra Leone as a way of promoting tourism, the success of these endeavors, and the opportunities and challenges associated with tourism development in a

third world country. Over the course of three weeks, eleven individuals associated with the tourism industry throughout Sierra Leone were interviewed including hotel managers, the Director of the National Tourism Board, and the Minister for Tourism & Cultural Affairs.

Findings demonstrated there were a number of difficulties present while attempting to grow tourism within Sierra Leone. Among some of the most prevalent were beach pollution, lack of widespread drinking water, and the inability to provide sufficient human resources to the service industry. Despite these shortcomings, everyone interviewed as part of this study were universally optimistic that tourism would be successful and result in sustainable development of infrastructure within the country. Opportunities such as the virgin rainforest, tropical climate, natural wildlife, and rich land enabling food production, were cited by respondents as strengths which could lead to Sierra Leone's success as a new tourism destination within Africa.

While this study does focus on a region never before studied in the tourism literature, there are merits which may be of value to researchers and industry practitioners alike. Since tourism is a brand new industry in Sierra Leone there is significant opportunity to embrace this as a best practice for utilizing tourism as a means of sustainable development. Additionally, future studies are planned to examine the implications of destination marketing based on a sustainable tourism model. Results of this study may also be particularly valuable to industry practitioners who are interested in promoting tourism efforts in new destinations and within developing countries.

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AHTMMC

**Antecedents and Consequences of Organizational Fit on Individual Job Performance:
Comparative Studies between International and Local Taiwanese Chain Hotels**

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ABSTRACT

By extending the current organizational behavior research in hospitality, this paper seeks to integrate the organizational theories of person-job fit, leadership, organizational identification and organizational service performance. It investigated the effects of the theories of person-organization fit (POF), person-job fit (PJF), perceived inter-organizational competition (IOC), perceived external prestige (PEP), transformational leadership (TFL) and individual proficiency (IPP) on employee service performance (ESP) in the hotel industry.

These comparative studies collected data from international and local chain hotels. As there are a great number of hotels established in Taiwan, this study focused on investigation in five-star hotels. Some of these hotels are globally managed or franchised by international chain hotels and resorts such as Hyatt International, Regent, Starwood, Shangri-La Groups, etc. The other properties are locally managed chain hotels such as Ambassador, Landis, L'Hotel de Chine, Royal Group, etc. These two types of international and local chain hotels and resorts were targeted as research samples. Data collection was also acquired from those who were working in the room division including the operations of front office and housekeeping. With a consideration of implementing random sampling, only an odd number of their employment identification number were select for filling out the questionnaire. All levels of employees

were encouraged to fill out the surveys.

Of 619 respondents, the LISREAL results of the above two sources of data showed that, in these two categories of chain hotels, PEP had a significant impact on PJF and POF, leading to positively influence ESP. IPP and IOC did not statistically affect POF at a significant level. Interestingly, the results of the data analysis of local chain hotels showed that TFL had a significant impact on perception of PJF and POF. However, the relationship amongst these variables was not statistically significant in the international chain hotels. The relationship between IOC and POF was significant in international chain hotels, but was not significant in local chain hotels.

KEYWORDS Employee performance, inter-organizational competition, organizational prestige, person-organization fit, leadership

Gap Analysis of Service Quality at Innibos Arts Festival

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ABSTRACT

Events, specifically festivals, have experienced significant growth in South Africa over the past ten years in size, numbers, diversity and popularity (Van Zyl, 2010). Arts festivals have become a feature in the South African cultural landscape and long term success and sustainability of these events rely on the emphasis of service quality, thereby highlighting sustainability of festivals and events. The questionnaire, based on the SERVQUAL model and an adaption of the Grönroos model was used to identify service perceptions and expectations of service quality at Innibos National Arts Festival in Mbombela, South Africa. The data were collected in two phases, the first prior to the festival to measure attendee's expectations, and second after the festival to measure the attendee's experience of service quality. The statistical analysis was performed on a construct level as well as an individual variable level. This study aimed at quantifying the gap between attendee's expectations and perceptions of service quality and overall customer satisfaction.

KEYWORDS Service quality, SERVQUAL, festivals, perceptions, expectations

AHTMMC

**Suggesting a Benefit Market Segmentation of the Visitors to Graskop,
Mpumalanga, South Africa**

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ABSTRACT

The growth of tourism's contribution towards the economy is part of the South African National Tourism Strategy (NDT, 2011:4) and in particular Mpumalanga's mission (MTPA, 2011:9). Part of Mpumalanga Tourism Provincial Authority's mission, to grow tourism and to stimulate economic growth (MTPA, 2013:1), is directed at improving their position. Recently, Mpumalanga has been in fierce competition with KwaZulu-Natal for the position of the third most visited province in South Africa, with Gauteng and the Western Cape being in the lead (MTPA, 2011:10). In order to achieve a competitive position, Dolnicar (2004:309) emphasises the importance of marketing planning. However, marketing can only take place once the first two steps of the segmenting, targeting and positioning (STP) process is complete (McCabe, 2009:145). Segmentation of tourists contributes to a destination's competitiveness by differentiating its marketing strategy and therefore uniquely positioning a destination within the market (Dolnicar, 2012:317; McCabe 2009:147). A number of authors

(Morrison, 1996; Loker & Perdue, 1992; Jang, Morrison & O’Leary, 2002; Kim, Park, Gazzoli & Sheng, 2011) have suggested benefit segmentation as one of the best segmentation bases.

The main aim of this study is to investigate benefits sought by tourists visiting Graskop since it is the most central tourist destination in the province. A possible outcome of this study would be to suggest a segmentation based upon two criteria: (i) the various activities performed during visitors’ stay / holidays; and (ii) visitors’ perception of values attached to and benefits sought in these activities.

This study will follow a quantitative research method by distributing self-administered questionnaires (a sample of 250 questionnaires). The data will be analysed by means of descriptive statistics (factor analysis) and findings will be discussed accordingly. The paper will be completed by formulating conclusions and relevant recommendations for tourism planners and managers.

KEYWORDS Market segmentation, activities, visitors’ benefits, South Africa

The Legal Implications for Mauritius to Develop the Medical Tourism Sector.

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ABSTRACT

Medical tourism is an activity which is gaining much popularity throughout the world. It involves people leaving their home countries and going to other countries in order to receive medical treatment. The Mauritian medical sector is a very attractive sector whereby public health services are free of charge and much effort is being placed to provide high quality services to patients. These benefits of the Mauritian health sector have gained a regional and even international recognition, whereby people from different countries are coming to Mauritius to receive medical treatment in relation to cardio-vascular diseases or diabetes. However, what is unclear in Mauritius is the legal framework that addresses the issue of medical tourism in the country. Therefore, the aim of this paper will be to provide for an analysis of the legal implications of enhancing medical tourism for Mauritius. The paper will focus on the law that shall be applicable to the medical contract. Who will be sued in case of medical negligence and what law will be applicable. Then attention will be placed on the enforcement of decision given by the court and the legal implications for a doctor to be revoked from his duties. Finally, the paper will analyse the extent to which a medical tourism act should be created to cater for the needs of medical tourists. The approach used to write the paper will be a 'black letter' approach whereby attention will be laid on the present laws which cater for medical treatments in Mauritius. Moreover, the same approach will be used in

recommending the creation of a medical tourism act which will help medical tourists as well as doctors to know their obligations and liabilities towards each other.

AHTMMC

**Tourism for Business Purposes: Legal Protection of Indigenous Practices against
Foreign Exploitation.**

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ABSTRACT

Today, more and more people are traveling for business purposes. Many people from developed countries travel to developing countries in search of business opportunities and in so doing, discover the usages and practices of their host country. These practices include for instance, use of specific plants for medical purposes or the knowledge of the indigenous people in creating objects that are useful for their daily lives. As a result of this discovery, many business tourists want to implement these practices in their home countries. A way for them to implement those practices is to put a patent right or copyright protection, through their companies, over these indigenous practices. When the patent or copyright protection is granted, those companies are able to exploit and benefit from the said practice. A consequence of this, the indigenous people lose their moral and material rights over practices and inventions that they created. Therefore, the aim of this paper will be to evaluate the extent to which international conventions, for instance the Agreement on Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights 1994 (TRIPS Agreement) and the International Covenant on Economics, Social and Cultural Rights 1976 are being able to protect the moral and material rights of indigenous people over their creations. Moreover an analysis will be made regarding the extent to which local laws are effective enough in protecting local practices from being implemented elsewhere. Furthermore, recommendations will be made in order to help policy makers in strengthening national laws and thus avoid indigenous

practices piracy. The methodology used in writing this paper is a ‘black letter’ approach. This approach is being used as there will be an analysis of the relevant conventions and laws to see the extent to which they are capable of protecting the rights of indigenous people over their creations and whether actions are taken against those who breach the rights of these indigenous people. The policy implications of this paper are, firstly, it will allow people from developing countries to understand what are the rights they have over their native practices. Secondly, it will enable people from developed countries to understand the extent to which they can exploit a foreign practice.

AHTMMC

**Significant Profile Differences among Male and Female Adventure Tourists in Pretoria,
South Africa**

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ABSTRACT

Adventure tourism currently is spreading increasingly as this type of tourism is becoming more and more appealing. An expanding number of people are seeking self-fulfilment and excitement through participating in physically and mentally stimulating activities, travelling to remote destinations, or, engage in adrenaline-rush experiences as part of their tourism activities (Swarbrooke et al., 2003). However, patterns of consumer behaviour in tourism are in a constant state of flux, and as these new tourists emerge as more experienced tourists who are demanding unique and enticing holiday experiences. Adventure tourism has begun to carve a niche market for itself (Poon, 1993).

Different adventure activities and experiences constantly evolve because individuals, their motives, behaviours, and experiences differ and change over time. This notion illustrates the broad nature of the adventure tourism phenomenon and its many links with other forms of tourism. In turn, adventure tourism companies are compelled to promote and sell a vast array of activities and experiences to a diverse range of markets as novel and exclusive experiences in order to facilitate the growth of adventure holidays (Swarbrooke et al., 2003).

To assist adventure tourism companies in achieving a more effective marketing strategy, the objective of this study is to contribute towards the current understanding of adventure tourists by identifying significant socio-psychological profile differences among male and female adventure tourists. Of the two hundred and fifty adventure tourists who used the products/services of adventure tourism companies in Pretoria, South Africa, an equal number of respondents were male and female in order to facilitate the comparison of adventure tourists' profiles. However, after screening the self-completing questionnaires received, the sample size that realised was 234 and this represents a 93.6% response rate.

In comparison to female respondents, male respondents prefer winter as a season to participate in hard/high-risk adventure activities (for example air based activities) when they are with or without their family, and they participate in adventure activities for travelling and socialising purposes. Whereas, female respondents predominantly regard scuba-diving, abseiling, and helicopter flights as a hard/high-risk adventure activity (although these activities are generally regarded by the overall sample as being soft/low-risk adventure activities). Even though females' participation in adventure activities is sponsored, they did not participate or only participated in adventure activities once over the past year which may be due to fear/risk and/or lack of skill.

This study established that there is a need to further research adventure tourists' profiles before it could be equally accepted and interpreted.

KEYWORDS Tourism, adventure tourism, market segmentation, socio-psychological profiles

**Effective Sustainable Tourism Management at a South African National Park and
World Heritage Site**

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ABSTRACT

Mapungubwe National Park (MNP) is one of the smallest and youngest national parks in South Africa it also has the additional honour of having been inscribed as a World Heritage Site in 2003. The park was only recently opened to visitors and since then the park has seen a slow but steady growth in visitor numbers. The growing tourism industry in South Africa faces challenges such as social, economic and environmental concerns. In order to manage impacts associated with tourism, it is important to adopt a sustainable tourism developmental approach. The goal of this paper is to identify challenges in the effective management of

sustainable tourism at MNP, as perceived by visitors, and to make recommendations for improvements. An explorative research approach was followed through a self-administered online questionnaire. An exploratory factor analysis identified two factors and through a t-test, gaps towards effective management of sustainable tourism services were identified. This study is the first to analyse the management effectiveness of tourism service provision at MNP and in the northern region of South African National Parks (SANParks) this may lead to future linear studies at other protected areas in the region. Research results provide much needed input towards the overall strategic management of tourism services at MNP and SANParks.

KEYWORDS Tourism management, national park, protected areas, sustainable tourism, world heritage site

**Visitor Motivations and Its Influence on Visitor Experiences. The Case of a South
African International Airport**

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ABSTRACT

Globally, airports find themselves part of a new era in which service delivery is no longer simply a matter of providing traditional goods and services. These days, visitors to airports are more discerning than before and continuously seek new and meaningful experiences. This approach has caused airports to evolve from being, simply, a point of transit for visitors into elaborate attractions; thus providing much more facilities, services and entertainment – not only to travellers, but also to visitors who find themselves at airports. Management therefore has the complex task of determining what influences visitor experiences within an airport environment in order to provide these experiences. This would ultimately lead to increased revenue for airports. The purpose of this paper is to determine the role of visitor motivations in the airport experience. Literature emphasises the importance of motivations and their relation to the overall experience of visitors within a service environment. Motivations are the primary driving force behind an individual's behaviour, and create desire within a visitor to reach some ideal state of experience. In order to address the role of motivations in visitors' airport experience, a quantitative research study was conducted at a South African international airport. A total of 490 (n) self-administrated questionnaires were obtained during the research period and a factor analysis identified two unique visitor motivations

which management could use to manage their visitors' experience at airports. These two factors are Physiological experience and Travel experience. Understanding visitor motivations to the airport will enable airport management to better create and manage visitor experiences.

KEYWORDS Visitor motivation, memorable experience, management, international airport

AHTMMC

Assessing Feasibility of Film-Induced Tourism in Singapore

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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the feasibility of introducing film-induced tourism to Singapore. It compares the motivations and demographics of film-induced tourists with general tourists in an attempt to increase the understanding of film-induced tourists. The data was collected through questionnaires with tourists visiting the Singapore Visitors Centre in Singapore and three staff from different departments in the Singapore Tourism Board (STB). The results show that film-induced tourism is a small niche tourism market involving tourists who travel due to films. The results also show that both tourists and STB staff believe Singapore should have film-induced tourism. The reasons STB hesitates to introduce this niche tourism are lack of sufficient budget and quality scripts, and Singapore is currently emphasising other forms of tourism that guarantee increased tourist arrivals. Importantly, South Korea is a strong film-

induced tourism competitor that has already established its position in this niche, thus hindering Singapore from venturing into an uncertain form of tourism. Overall, it was concluded that it is feasible for Singapore to use films to promote the country but STB would need to get behind such a move.

KEYWORDS Promotion of destination, feasibility, film-induced tourism, Singapore

AHTMMC

**Health-contributing Travel Factors:
Case of Package Trip Participants in Korea**

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This study explores travel activity and identified which factors positively influence an individual's health domains. It analyzed 862 package trip participants in Korea and a total of 28 health-contributing travel items were used for the study. It was found that there were potential positive influential factors. In the psychological health dimension, 69% of participants stated that they experienced good feelings during the day trip, and 25% identified the factor 'getting out of a bad feeling'. In the physical well-being dimension, natural food intake chances during the day was recognized by 70% of participants, and increased appetite,

and improved digestion by 26%. In the social health dimension, relationship improvement was felt by 51% of the participants, along with more understanding and love for each other. These findings add to the understanding of travelers, a significant step to enhancing the quality of travel services through better product development and enhancing service quality.

KEYWORDS Health-contributing tourism, health/wellness tourism, package tour, Korea

AHTMMC

Relationship between Motivation to Travel and Quality of Medical Services

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ABSTRACT

This research aims to achieve the following four objectives: 1) To identify the motivation to

travel for medical reasons and the quality of the medical services received; 2) To explore the relationship between the motivation and quality of medical services; 3) To explore the relationship between the quality of medical services and tourist attitudes; and 4) To describe medical tourists in terms of their socio-demographic characteristics and medical travel related behaviors. The study is conducted by collecting empirical data on medical tourists who visited Korea to attain medical services. A total of 500 questionnaires were distributed at 25 hospitals and travel agencies. An exploratory factor analysis was employed to identify three motivations (medical travel experience, health recovery/recharge, medical expense/service) and three quality characteristics (credibility, tangibles, responsiveness). A structural equation model (SEM) using the LISREL program was performed to test hypotheses about whether significant relationships existed between medical travel motivation and medical service quality. Finally, using frequency analysis, medical tourists were then described in terms of socio-demographic characteristics and medical travel related behaviors.

Results of this study revealed that medical expense/service has a negative effect on credibility, while health recovery/recharge has a positive effect on responsiveness. Results also indicated that both tangibles and responsiveness of service quality have a significant effect on tourist attitudes of both satisfaction and loyalty. This research has marketing and managerial implications for hospitals and medical service institutions. The research is of benefit not only to academics and practitioners in the fields of travel behavior and attitudes in the medical tourism industry, but also to health marketers and planners in the planning, marketing and managing of medical travel services/products.

KEYWORDS Medical service quality, Travel motivation, medical tourists, Korea

Perceptions and Preferences for Asian Ethnic Foods

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ABSTRACT

This study compared the perceptions and preferences for six types of Asian foods to provide strategic information for relevant marketing. The data were collected from 403 customers at 27 ethnic restaurants in Brisbane, Australia. The results are summarized into three aspects. First, the behavioral aspect shows that the most popular restaurant type was Chinese. Research participants had Asian foods once or twice a week and obtain information mainly from word-of-mouth. Second, Asian foods were perceived as using flavorsome, tasty, nicely textured, and vegetable-based ingredients. People perceived pairs of countries as similar, Korea-Japan, Vietnam-China and India-Thailand. Finally, the preference for food from the six

countries was ranked in descending order as follows: Chinese, Japanese, Thai, Korean, Indian, and Vietnamese. The results may be useful not only for developing marketing strategies for relevant industries, but also for the governments and practitioners who experience a continuous influx of tourists from many Asian countries.

KEYWORDS Consumer perception, food preference, Asian ethnic foods; Australia

AHTMMC

How Pro-Poor is Business Tourism in Sub-Saharan Africa?

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ABSTRACT

In common with trends in tourism scholarship as a whole, the literature on business tourism is overwhelmingly ‘Northern’ biased. Among major themes of concern in this literature are the development of convention centres, bidding for conferences, and the need to understand the development impacts of MICE (Meeting, incentives, conferences and exhibitions) tourism. The key focus in this Northern literature on business tourism is the ‘formal’ sector business tourist, whether international or domestic. Recent work suggests that even though business travel represents a significant share of international travel and thus is a critical economic driver for both the transport and tourism industry the sector is “poorly understood and patchily researched” (Beavestock, Derudder et al. 2010). In the developing world there is a minimal focus of research on business tourism, not least the continent of Africa. Notwithstanding academic neglect, however, Dieke (1998: 39) observes that “one of the most important aspects of travel in Africa is related to ‘business purposes’. Business travel represents a core driver of the growing phenomenon of ‘regional tourism’ flows within sub-Saharan Africa as has been observed during the last decade (Ghimire, 2001). It is often overlooked that business tourism is of critical importance across several African countries. In Ghana 30 percent of inbound international tourists visit for purposes of business, conference or meetings and by 2009 conference tourism became the fastest growing segment of the

Kenyan tourism industry with an estimated higher financial impact than leisure tourism. Geographically, the industry of business tourism in Africa is dominated, however, by South African cities, especially Cape Town, Durban and Johannesburg. New and emerging work on business tourism undertaken in several countries including Ghana, Kenya, and Ethiopia points to an important research agenda around the promotion and maximization of the local impacts of business tourism in Africa, including its pro-poor impacts (eg Coles & Mitchell, 2009).

Conceptually, this paper builds upon works by Ghimire (2001), Gladstone (2005), Timothy & Teye (2005) and Rogerson & Letsie (2013) and adopts a developing world perspective on business travel and business tourism. In contrast to the millions of people in the global North who participate in business tourism and link to leisure activities while away, in the global South the size of this segment is far smaller, albeit growing in several rapidly expanding countries. In Africa it includes also a segment of business travel which is conducted between the continent's major cities and articulated through the continental geography of international air connections. In numerical terms of much greater significance are the flows of informal sector business travellers by rail, shared taxi, by bus and sometimes by bicycle or foot, for business purposes. For these travellers, the business hotel is not the focus of accommodation rather many of these tourists stay with friends and relatives abroad or rent out cheap accommodation in their business tourism destination. These informal business travellers argue Timothy & Teye (2005), are an important if neglected element of the tourism system and challenge the conventional Northern view of what constitutes 'business tourism'. Using the typology of formal and informal sector business tourism, this paper opens up debates on how pro-poor is business tourism in Africa. It is argued that much informal sector business

tourism is inherently pro-poor and that considerable opportunities exist for maximising pro-poor impacts from the growing formal sector business tourism economy across Africa.

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Determinants of Per Diem Tourist Expenditure – The Role of Income

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ABSTRACT

Purpose

Income is not only the most commonly used explanatory variable in models of tourism demand but empirically it is often found to be the most important determinant of tourism demand. This paper seeks to determine whether self-reported income group (low, medium or high) has an effect on the expenditure per day of leisure tourists. The effect on per diem expenditure of a number of explanatory variables including social demography characteristics

of the tourist, country of origin and type of expenditure are estimated, where for each of the effect the income group of respondent is controlled. The aim of this exercise is not to estimate elasticities as the income variable is a qualitative data, but to verify whether the income groups have an impact on the effect of the explanatory variables.

KEYWORDS Tourism demand, income, air passengers, daily tourist expenditure, moderating effect

Methodology

We use official statistics micro data provided by Spanish Ministry of Industry, Energy and Tourism regarding leisure visitors arriving by air to Spain, organizing the trip by themselves and deciding how and how much they spend their trip budget. The survey does not ask the respondents for their actual income level, but they are asked to report whether they are high, medium or low income groups. The sample size used is 17,602 respondents made up of 5,158 high income, 11,352 medium income and 542 low income travellers.

We apply an ANCOVA model, where the variable income is used as an interaction to see how each group behaves, and to identify the main effect. The dependent variable is logarithm of expenditure per day at destination.

Main findings

Results show that while self-report income groups have a significant effect on per diem expenditure, the direction of the effect does not always conform to expectations found in the literature.

This study seems to reveal that there is an inconsistency in the way high medium and low tourism spend their budget at the destination. While it may be intuitive to assume that higher

income travellers spend more per day, this research show that it is not always the case. The findings may be pointing out that there is a travel phenomenon whereby, low income travellers who consider Spain as their main holiday for the year, spend more than high income travellers for whom Spain is only s secondary destination short haul destination or a short break, for example for Italian and French tourists, or for those staying in 4-5* hotels.

Having actual information about how different groups of incomers behave at destination in terms of expenditure per day, might beof key interest for Destination Management Offices to develop proper actions to attract those visitors spending more at destination.

AHTMMC

Impact of Exchange Rate Volatility on Tourism Trade Flows - An African perspective

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ABSTRACT

Taking into account the recent volatility in world known currencies and given that Mauritius rely heavily on tourism trade for its survival, this paper analyses the impact of exchange rate volatility trade flows for a sample for the period. An analysis of exchange rate movements on tourism trade to Mauritius is deemed pertinent as Mauritius has recently experienced several shocks regarding its tourism trade. The euro zone crisis had some severe repercussions, which means that Mauritius have been gradually facing major shocks in its tourism trade. Even though the effect of exchange rate movements has pertinent policy implications, attempts to analyse these issues in Small Island Developing states like Mauritius are apparently scarce. Most studies pertaining to exchange rate volatility and tourism trade are done in Europe, US and even Asia and are inconclusive on account of the sensitiveness to the choices of sample period, econometric modelling (the true functional form of economic relationships are unknown), problems regarding proxies for exchange rate volatility as well as countries considered if panel data analysis is employed. Further, very few studies have been conducted so far to take account of persistence regarding the impact of exchange rate volatility on tourism trade as well as the nature of causality between them. The present study is conducted using time series econometrics so as to provide a fresh insight as regards the impact of exchange rate volatility on tourism trade flows. The econometric analysis employs yearly data for the period spanning 1980-2011 and two measures of exchange rate volatility, viz, the Z-score and the EGARCH are used to analyse the impact of exchange volatility on tourism trade in Mauritius. Newer unit root and cointegration tests will be performed and if cointegration is found, Vector Error Correction will employed. Otherwise, Vector Autoregression will be employed.

The study also raises questions about the competitiveness of Mauritius and what might be done to bring in external stability and lessen susceptibilities. The outcome of the study

provides tourism players a case to negotiate with the governments for a macroeconomic environment conducive for growth as well as enable them to plan their activities more effectively and policies which may be an example to other countries which rely heavily on tourism trade around the globe and notably in Africa.

KEYWORDS Africa, exchange rate, tourism trade

AHTMMC

Respondents Knowledge of Iconic Sustainable Tourism Organisations:

A Case of Waterval Boven South Africa

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ABSTRACT

In South African and around the world, the development of sustainable tourism has resulted in a multitude of different types of activities, destinations, risks, impacts and unsustainable practices. The development of many kinds of tourism including niches such as adventure tourism in many destinations has boosted many economies across rural communities and countries. The added benefits of developing adventure tourism in a sustainable manner include the promotion of responsible investment, infrastructure development and a host of other positive economic, social and environmental impacts. This study investigates respondent's familiarity regarding iconic sustainable tourism organisations that can assist in developing indicators for sustainable adventure tourism from residents, tourists, business owners and government employees at Waterval Boven, South Africa. Descriptive statistics

and Chi-square tests were applied. The International Ecotourism Society was the most familiar to the respondents, followed by the United Nations Millennium Development Goals and The Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria being the least known. There were statistical differences to suggest that the familiarity of iconic sustainable tourism organisation representation was dependent on certain demographic description of the respondents. The study contributes towards encouraging tourism development officials to adopt iconic successful sustainable tourism organisations as well as utilising them as benchmarks for sustainable development.

KEYWORDS Adventure tourism, sustainable tourism, sustainable tourism indicators, familiarity

**Service Gaps and Urban Destination as a
A Day Visitor's Experience**

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ABSTRACT

The paper focus on students as day visitors experiences of a tourism destination. Tshwane is one of the regions that attract day visitors in Universities like Tshwane University of Technology. In a destination learners' tourism activities, such as need for social life, entertainment, curiosity about the destination attraction are regarded to be generating income for the tourism destination at the same time (Vickers & Bekhradnia, 2007:3). Questionnaires were distributed amongst the students in the Tshwane University of Technology open day. One hundred percent of the questionnaires were returned and data analyses were performed by means of the statistical analyses. The paper further made recommendations and conclusions based on the findings.

KEYWORDS Day visitors, service, quality, students, university

**A Logit Model for Local Entrepreneurs' Supportiveness for Tourism Development:
Perspective from the Island of Mauritius (Indian Ocean)**

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ABSTRACT

Mauritius is considered as one of the most established tourism destination in Africa. Despite being a small island, its positive economic performance and success have gained international recognition so that it is also known as “the Singapore of Africa” (Euromonitor, 2011). As a tourism destination, Mauritius is blessed with all the natural and cultural ingredients required to run its tourism industry successfully. In fact, since the 1970's, the tourism sector has been instrumental in the economic contribution and development of the island. However, since the past fifteen years, the Mauritian tourism industry has undergone significant changes in its pace of development. Despite its popularity as a tropical destination, the industry has reached a stage where its potential and competitiveness have been questioned. This has mainly

occurred due to the resentment of the locals who have found themselves marginalised vis a vis tourism promoters of foreign origin and multinational hotel chains. To this end, local entrepreneurs, who happen to be residents, have been expressing their discontent by resenting and opposing various tourism projects on the island. While studies on support for tourism development in small islands have been widely recognized and are growing areas of research, little has been done in terms of local entrepreneurs' supportiveness, who also happens to be residents. Given there is dearth in studies conducted on local entrepreneurs' attitude towards tourism development, it is plausible to suggest that this line of study represents a potential, especially that African tourism has started gaining momentum due to its richness of natural and cultural tourism resources. Given the importance of tourism sector to the economic growth of the country, the objective of the study was, in the first instance, to understand the factors that account for local entrepreneurs' supportiveness and non-supportiveness of tourism development in the island of Mauritius. Grand Bay (GB) is chosen as the case study given its popularity and similarity of characteristics with other tourism destinations. A mixed methodology was adopted given various tourism studies were successfully undertaken under this approach. Study instruments utilised were self-administered questionnaires and semi-structured interviews and these were conducted simultaneously. A list of local entrepreneurs was obtained from the Tourism Authority of Mauritius and convenience sampling techniques was preferred. The total number of surveyed local entrepreneurs was 83 and they were also residents at the destination. The quantitative aspect was addressed through the testing of hypotheses and the design of a Logit Model. The hypotheses testing revealed that most of the relationships inferred by the study were validated. Local entrepreneurs were found to be supportive of tourism development whenever they perceived economic benefit such as business opportunities. The design of a Logit Model was based initially based on seven variables, but after further statistical tests, a two-variable Logit Model was produced.

Therefore, based on the above final logistic regression model, it could be deduced that entrepreneurs who were knowledgeable on tourism promoters and their business activities were more likely to support tourism development in their living environment. The uniqueness of this study lies in the fact that it is the first to propose a Logit Model on local entrepreneurs' support and tourism development. The final part of the study proposes recommendations and implications for the industry are drawn. Particular emphasis is laid on African countries and generalisations are drawn in the context of tourism development and the economy. The study winds up with the notion that this line of research generates further potential investigable areas.

SECTION B
FULL PAPERS

AHTMMC

The Current State of Incentive Travel

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ABSTRACT

Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions (MICE) are an important segment of the hospitality and tourism industry. The extant study focusses on the “I” of MICE or Incentive Travel (IT). While IT has existed for decades it is a relatively under-researched sub-field of hospitality. The goal of this paper is to examine the current state of IT, how it has changed over the past few years and how it is likely to change in the future. Rather than examine every aspect of IT, this research only looks at ‘buyers’ of incentive travel rather than users or recipients and obtains data only from top level corporate executives. Thus the results are of the highest level and highest caliber. It was found that companies have been using IT for

decades and find it to be an effective employee motivator and as an incentive to sell product.

It also builds morale and relationships.

KEYWORDS Incentive travel, reward for performance, multi-tier, employee engagement

INTRODUCTION

Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Exhibitions (MICE) are an important segment of the hospitality and tourism industry. The extant study focusses on the “I” of MICE or Incentive Travel. It is called Incentive Travel (IT) because it is used as an ‘incentive’ to reward individual or group performance using non-cash motivation in the form of free trips or ‘travel.’ While IT has existed for decades it is a relatively under-researched sub-field of hospitality. This research was undertaken in partnership with the Society of Incentive Travel Executives (SITE) and the Center for Survey Research at East Carolina University.

Study Objective

The objective of this study is to investigate incentive travel use in today’s workplace. This exploratory study seeks to examine the evolution and overall value of these IT programs from the perspective of top executives.

Project Overview

This research is meant to provide insight as to the impact that incentive travel (IT) programs have from the perspective of corporate executives. It :

- surveys upper level Corporate Executive end users involved in incentive/motivational program decisions (i.e. , CEO, Chief of Sales or senior marketing officers).

- interview s corporate end users only, not providers.

The methodology used with this approach allows reaching near the top of each organization interviewed. This obtains the best input from those executives whose stake in supporting or authorizing the use of incentive travel/motivational events has a significant impact regarding achievement of their company's business goals and current objectives .

Key Insights from this study:

1. Why (or why not) their organization operates incentives?
2. What benefits and value do these programs currently offer their organization?
3. What benefits and value do these programs have the potential to offer their organization?
4. What benefits and values do these programs have to offer their attendees?
5. How have their incentive programs changed or evolved, if at all, with regards to:
 - Greater achievement of sales objectives including incremental revenue, new product sales, focused product sales, sales training, and more.
 - Greater achievement of other business objectives such as other department incentive programs, safety programs, employee engagement programs, employee retention programs, customer loyalty programs, and more.
 - Program Structure in relation to the targeted audience.
 - Program Structure in relation to budgets or any new alternatives to travel.
 - Program choices such as the destination (i.e. domestic or international) and/or the hotel (i.e. 4 Star vs. 5 Star).
 - Program 'inclusions' such as community service, giveback activities, or lifestyle elements.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Incentive Travel

Organizations are constantly looking for ways to motivate and engage their employees in an attempt to improve performance. Increased employee motivation has a notable impact on performance, which translates to improvements in the organization's overall productivity (Hastins, Kiely, & Watkins, 1988). There are several strategies a company can utilize to facilitate employee engagement and motivation, including incentives. Such incentives can be given in the form of either cash or noncash rewards. One type of noncash incentive program involves rewarding qualified employees with a trip to a desirable travel destination, known as incentive travel ((IT). The design of the program determines how successful it will be at increasing motivation. Such design components can include the criteria for qualification, feedback opportunities, program structure, as well as the trip destination, duration, and itinerary. In recent years, companies have moved away from a one-size-fits-all approach and are moving towards a more customizable method. An organization must first find what drives their employees in order to strategically create a program that increases engagement (“Incentive Travel: The Participant Viewpoint”).

Studies on incentive travel have found that it can sometimes be more effective in motivating employees than cash rewards. Jeffery and Adomdza (2011) compared the use of cash versus noncash rewards in the workplace. They found that noncash, or tangible rewards, have a stronger impact on employee motivation than cash rewards. The salient nature of a tangible reward makes it easier for employees to visualize the achievement. This encourages employees think about tangible rewards more often than cash rewards. Consequently, the frequency of thought associated with rewards is positively related to performance. Therefore, findings suggest that noncash rewards, such as incentive travel, produce better outcomes (Jeffrey & Adomdza, 2011; Chou & Lien, 2012).

In a recent study by Site International Foundation, 1,000 qualifiers and non-qualifiers took part in a survey about the incentive travel program their company offers. Results revealed that the most successful incentive travel programs are meaningful, motivational, and memorable. Together, measuring these three components will help determine the effectiveness of an incentive travel program (“Incentive Travel: The Participant Viewpoint”). Meaningful incentive travel programs are ones with goals that are perceived by employees as fair, attainable, and clearly defined. When employees feel that the objectives are reachable, they are more likely to buy into the program and work harder. According to Incentive Magazine, employees’ perception of fairness had the most impact on their satisfaction with the program (Palmer, 2012). Knowing this, employers should be sure that all employees have an equal opportunity to succeed. For a program to be effective, it must also contain a communication and feedback strategy. If the company frequently promotes their incentive travel program and its goals, it will be on employees’ minds more often. Also, ongoing feedback will encourage employees to continue to put effort into the program (Incentive Travel: The Participant Viewpoint, 2013).

The organization can maximize the motivational aspect of their program by strategically planning the trip duration and location. Choice of destination is one of the strongest motivating factors for employees. Therefore, changing the trip location every year is advantageous. Findings from Site International Foundation reveal that about 86 percent of earners feel that the travel incentive made them feel recognized by the company and 77 percent believed the incentive made them feel like a more valued member of the company (Incentive Travel: The Participant Viewpoint, 2013).

Memorable incentive travel programs are measured by their emotional level of intensity. This includes the emotions an employee feels before, during and after the trip. To spark the creation of memories, the trip itinerary should be well thought out. Opportunities for

collaboration and team building are strategic ways to generate meaningful memories. Activities that have relevance to the organization, its mission, and its values can also produce lasting memories that employees can bring back with them. Additionally, an incentive travel program with free time built in is more desirable than one packed with planned activities (Incentive Travel: The Participant Viewpoint, 2013; Ting, 2012).

Incentive travel programs have several outcomes for companies and their employees. Depending on the program design, IT may yield great benefits or it can cause feelings of hostility in the workplace. According to research findings of the Society for Incentive Travel Executives (SITE), some employees believe the same people “win” the incentive every year. This perception is problematic because it can discourage non-earners from trying harder the following year. It can also create a competitive environment where some employees thrive and others stagnate. To combat this potential issue, companies should provide adequate feedback to non-earners to boost their future engagement. Another option is to develop a tiered program in which employees can receive other incentives if they do not reach the goals necessary for the travel opportunity (Incentive Travel: The Participant Viewpoint, 2013).

Regardless of the possible drawbacks of incentive travel, many companies do see notable increases in employee engagement and motivation. Specifically, 95percent of qualifiers and 90percent of non-qualifiers agreed that they are motivated to earn the travel reward (Ting, 2012). Also, most employees believe that the incentive travel program has increased their trust and loyalty in the company. Because the economy is steadily improving, 86percent of respondents believe that incentive travel opportunities will increase in the next one to three years (Incentive Travel: The Participant Viewpoint, 2013; Palmer, 2013). This potential increase makes it necessary for companies to evaluate their current strategy and determine how to best engage and motivate their employees.

METHOD

The goal of this study is to gain insight regarding the view of top executives regarding IT. Thus, an in-depth interview protocol was selected. The rationale is that interviews allow respondents to, not only answer queries of the interviewer, but to add their own insights and even comments that the research team had not considered. Thus, both quantitative and qualitative data is obtained. The research team developed an interview framework based on the literature review. The queries and probe questions were grouped into four thematic areas:

1. Does the organization have an incentive travel program or not: why or why not?
2. What benefits and value do these programs currently offer their organization?
3. How incentive programs have changed?
4. Determine decision makers and ascertain their behaviors?

Dependent upon the responses a decision tree with three tiers was utilized. Thus after answering or discussing one question, there were two or more alternative queries or 'probe questions' that followed. This occurred for a total of three iterations. Respondents were not only free to add their own concepts, topics, or discussion points; but were encouraged to do so.

The research team organized and conducted 50 telephone interviews to address questions of importance with regard to IT use. Each interview lasted between 15 and 30 minutes, was designed in the Qualtrics online survey software system and administered via telephone. Thus, at an average of 22 minutes per interview and 50 interviews, the findings of the extant research are based on almost 20 hours of interview time. The interviews were conducted by trained interviewers employed by the Center for Survey Research at East Carolina University, USA. All transcription, analysis and production of a final report was accomplished by the entire research team.

The Society of Incentive Travel Executives (SITE) provided qualified contacts for the interviews. SITE contacted each potential respondent (high level, corporate/company executives), invited them to participate and obtain their agreement to participate. SITE provided a list of qualified respondents to the research team who in turn contacted each interviewee, then scheduled and undertook the interviews. Thus, the anonymity of respondents was maintained. The Center for Survey Research transcribed the results of the interviews and the entire research team did the analysis.

FINDINGS

Top executives revealed that incentive travel programs are vastly different depending on a number of variables including the overall goals of the program, the target audience, the culture of the organization, and whether or not the company is a global organization. Results of this research also show that there are two major types of incentive travel programs: ones that focus on internal employees and ones that focus on independent distributors and agents. The type of program has a significant impact on the program goals and objectives. Those that emphasize the participation of internal clients tend to focus their efforts on building relationships and facilitating a familial culture while those that engage their independent agents try to build loyalty and promote strategic alignment so they continue to strengthen their working relationships with these external companies. The objectives of the incentive travel (IT) trip itself varied drastically in that some were purely for leisure while others included a business component. Companies seemed to be adamant about which of these categories they fell under. Those who run their travel programs for leisure truly believe that the trip is a reward for the qualifying employee or agent and want the participant and guest to be able to relax without having to think about work. On the other hand, those that emphasize

business on these trips usually allow for some free time but do include meetings in order to improve alignment and build their corporate strategy.

Analysis of Specific Queries

Interviewees were asked how long their IT program has been in place. It was found that the length of time that the programs have been in place ranged from 4 to over 50 years. Most companies interviewed have had an incentive travel program in place for at least 10 years and the most commonly reported duration is 20-25 years. The breakdown of lengths of time the IT program has been in place follows:

- 10-15 years: 21 percent
- 20-25 years: 32 percent
- 30-35 years: 21 percent
- 40-50 years: 26 percent

Interviewees were also asked whether the IT is a group or individual trip. It was found that over 80 percent of the companies had incentive programs that were group trips. Approximately 10 percent allowed trips by individuals and the other 10 percent employed both. Discussion ensued as to whether the IT is based on group or individual performance?

The respondents indicated IT is mainly based on individual performance. However, given that an in-depth interview protocol was used in this research, insights that could not be obtained via a survey instrument were uncovered. It was found that in many companies, an individual distributor qualifies and then the distributor chooses an agent to go on the incentive trip. This includes the option of adding a group qualification criterion because business is becoming more collaborative in nature.

Respondents were also queried as to whether the IT is a tiered program? A tiered program is one where the rewards or incentives vary by level of performance with higher performance

garnering higher awards. On the other hand, a single tier program is just that; either one qualifies or one does not. In the research it was found 59 percent have a tiered program while 41 percent do not. Most tiered programs have at least two tiers. Some companies have separate trips for each tier but others put all the qualifiers on the same trip and give the top tier qualifiers extra perks or an extra night in the hotel.

One of the primary goals of this research was to determine how IT is used. Over 80 percent of the respondents gave as their most, or second most, important reason to use IT is to provide an incentive to sell product: in other words to increase sales. Over 88 percent said IT was used to increase employee engagement. The interview protocol also revealed some other goals that were frequently reported by participants including: recognition, exposure to senior leadership, loyalty, to motivate employees, to build morale, to build relationships and to engage employees. Some unique goals included aligning with competitors and to deliver a corporate message.

Interviewees were also asked how effective their IT program has it been. Most interviewees agreed that the program was very effective in achieving the goals. None of the participants said that their incentive travel program was ineffective. Based on the five point Likert scale used for this research, 16 percent rated IT “5” or extremely effective while 84 percent rated it ‘4’ and none rated it ‘3’ or below. Some executives reported noticing increased engagement as an additional outcome. Many interviewees voiced the importance of IT to the company culture in that people really look forward to it every year and that it has become a defining feature of the company.

Another line of inquiry was whether the IT program of the respondent was domestic, international or both? It should be noted that, given the interview format, many respondents provided more than one answer. Thus the following percentages will add to more than 100 percent. The majority, 64 percent said it was both domestic and international. Twenty eight

percent indicated IT was domestic and 8 percent indicated it was even more narrowly focused on destinations within the region. For the global companies, the most common response was that it was region based (usually destinations are chosen based on the region). In companies that have separate trips for different tiers, they usually had different perspectives on choice of destination. Most companies mentioned that they have a preference for either choosing mostly international or mostly domestic locations. A few mentioned that they try to rotate between domestic and international destinations every few years in order to target different audiences and to keep the incentive appealing. Twenty percent of the respondents indicated that the destination was determined by tier with lower tiers being rewarded with domestic IT while higher tiers got international IT.

Another point of discussion revolved around the ‘destination choice process.’ The researchers wanted to delve into the how destinations were selected, who made the selection, whether participants were surveyed on their preferences and whether the response influences the choice of destination? If it does not, why not? It was found that many companies use a third party vendor or incentive company to help them select destinations based on the criteria they desire. It was also found that companies have to take many considerations into account when choosing a destination. Some commonly reported considerations included:

- Feasibility (dates, travel practicality, cost, size)
- Ease of travel and accessibility
- Political/security considerations (more important for global travel)
 - VISA considerations
 - Culturally attractiveness
- What employees want
- Popular destination trends
- Uniqueness of destination

Most companies reported the following process for choosing a destination:

- Step 1: solicit recommendations
 - From executives
 - From employees
- Step 2: undertake research on the set of possible destinations
- Step 3: present options to executives for final a decision
- Step 4: undertake site inspections
- Step 5: select destination or destinations

Noteworthy Comments

The interview protocol grouped questions and discussion points into general topics or themes.

The following are those ‘topical areas’ with some of the qualitative output:

Community Service – a community related service project that is included over and above the core function of the IT. This is sometimes referred to as an ‘inclusion.’

- The one that we’re having next week, we spend the morning with the local school kids and give away school supplies or sneakers or something so that’s there’s some local interaction with the local culture.
- You know, they have to realize not everybody has those same things in life and we’ve done things give back at our women’s and children battered center in Hawaii where we went in and did the whole place.
- They did a bunch of renovation stuff on a school in the Caribbean.

Participant Value – the degree to which the recipient finds the IT valuable.

- We are able to provide experiences that the single traveler would never be able to afford/organize on their own.

- Happy employees are more productive and motivated employees increase company profits.
- I think the biggest thing that it gives to them is the opportunity to get some one-on-one time with senior management and regional management in a relatively intimate or smaller group setting and outside of a traditional business setting.
- It's definitely something that people look forward to every single year. It sort of is what defines the company now.
- There is a real culture that builds up around winning these things, especially in the sales culture where it is very competitive.
- They know that we know who they are beyond just the organization that they represent.
- I think the value is the camaraderie and the opportunity to bounce ideas off one another in a much more relaxed environment instead of the business environment.
- These programs have value, real concrete value.
- They have been to places that they never thought they'd be. They have all grown their relationship with us. Some of them have written more business because of it.
- It really is motivation; it's a feather in their cap.
- Getting people outside of the office to do a trip... I think it achieves something greater than what can be done in an office environment. That face to face experience despite what people can achieve with technology these days... face to face still has a relevant place.
- I think especially for the newer producers it's a goal for them to be able to attend the incentive trip.

Family Value – the degree to which the IT to develop of 'familial' sense among recipients.

- The families have kind of grown up together, so if they come, the families are pushing the salesperson to qualify because they want to re-qualify and connect with the friends that they've built over the years through the conferences.
- The children's program has turned into a huge motivator.
- Also, because spouses or guests are included and there are a lot of repeat participants, the relationships get driven much deeper than one might anticipate because now we have spouses who become friends and we have spouses who begin to encourage their spouse who is producing business for us to produce more.
- I think one of the main things that we see intrinsic value is around the significant other engagement, meaning, and someone's spouse. Once they go to our events, they always want to go to the next one.

Company Benefit – the degree to which companies find IT beneficial in achieving their goals and objectives.

- We give away gold, silver, and bronze awards because everyone in the race could have broken the world record and exceeded all of their goals but we are still only giving medals to the top places. So, they are kind of competing against each other in how much revenue they can sell, which is better for us.
- We are willing to cut other things out of the budget versus the incentive and reward program because they see the value in it.
- One of our beliefs is that our sales people work very, very, hard to attain these trips and we are not going to cut back on them for reasons of what the economy is doing or anything like that.
- I truly believe I couldn't get the production out of it if it was a cash reward versus a travel reward.
- I think what it translates to is that business gets done more efficiently in a better way.

- Let's get the incentives going and keep them going because I believe in them.

Goals – the goals and objectives of the company in providing IT.

- Our goal really is to take these individuals to a destination and a resort that might be different than maybe what they have done on their own.
- Our qualifiers are very well traveled and expect the best. We try to make sure we are giving them unique experiences and the highest level of service imaginable.
- My goal is also to make sure that the spouses and the children are happy. Because if their happy then everybody's happy.
- One of the values for our organization is to incent the agent and at the same time, find a way to properly thank the spouses for supporting the agents' efforts.
- To deliver events that elevate our reputation with the agent and provide a forum for meaningful interaction as well as to make our agents feel valued.
- Our contest typically runs for ten months, but I'm going to lengthen that to an annual contest. I get my top producers qualifying for the trip and then they take November and December off and I can't have them doing that because I need year round production out of them. That's what is really driving that decision.

Challenges – the difficulties, hurdles and obstacles companies face in implementing IT.

- One of our challenges is engaging the middle. We do have some challenges that we are working on engaging the 50 or 65 percentile to employees.
- We obviously can't book a program in an area of the world that has unrest or doesn't appreciate American tourists.
- There's always a challenge with cost and that's what's driving greater focus on it but there's definitely value. I think one of things we need to do as an industry is figure out how to measure the impact of these.

- The challenge we have is, there is a lot of expectation about what we've done in the past and how do you keep the best of what you've done in the past while still continuing to innovate? And we are still figuring that out.
- We are so big that we have to go to 4 and 5-stars because we are looking for equal quality amenities and services. That's why sometimes the cruise has been a successful location for us because the amenities are so similar.
- The challenge is usually how to get more value out of what you are trying to do.
- Given that we are global and we are doing events around the world, terrorism and all kinds of things impact where we go, how we go, and what we do.

Exceeding Expectations – the degree to which IT surpassed the expectations of companies and recipients.

- We used to have four planned nights of activities and then we heard from employees through the survey that they would prefer an extra free night on their own just to relax with their guest.
- Every year I try to do more of a wow factor when I can, that's what makes people want to attend the program I think more so than anything.
- We try to give them some free time because we hear time and time again that they don't get enough free time.
- There's something about someone planning my trip, someone taking care of me so that I don't have to worry about a thing, and I get to just go and relax that makes it more worthwhile.
- We mix the family trips in periodically, every six or seven years. That reaches out to a different group of people and seems to work well.
- We are really trying to think about what makes sense for millennials, because in a younger world, what attracts millennials isn't what attracts their parents, right?

- We have people from everywhere in the company making suggestions on where to go and when you get right down to it, we will take all of those and put them with our marketing team.

CONCLUSIONS

Incentive Travel (IT) is an important part of the meetings, incentives, conventions and events (MICE) industry. The extant research is based on in depth interview with top level executives from firms who use IT. IT has been used successfully by companies for decades to; reward sales performance, motivate employees, build engagement, connect sales persons with management, facilitate a familial corporate culture, build morale, build relationships and deliver the corporate message. The objectives of the IT trip itself varied drastically in that some were purely for leisure while others included a business component. The destination of the IT varied with lower tier IT being domestic or closer to home while higher tier IT tended to be outside the U.S.

IT is a largely ‘under researched’ area of the hospitality industry. Thus, the results of this research should be of interest to both academics and industry practitioners.

LIMITATIONS

One limitation is that this study is that only executives based in the U.S. were studied. Thus, to the degree that IT is used differently in different parts of the world, that difference would not be evident in the research at hand. However, this limitation is dampened somewhat by the fact that all of the executives interviewed worked for international companies. Another limitation is the research protocol. Interviews are more open to researcher bias than empirical surveys. However, the research protocol is also a strength in that it allows more free flowing responses that are less constrained and thus can provide unexpected results. The number of

responses or interviews at 50 is somewhat of a limitation. Overall, it is felt that the results of this study are generalizable to the IT industry as a whole.

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Which destination attributes matter to sun-and-sea tourists in Croatia?

A relevance-determinance analysis

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In this article we apply relevance-determinance analysis (RDA) to identify main strengths and weaknesses of Croatian sun-and-sea tourism. In the analysis, tourist-perceived importance of a set of destination attributes (i.e. relevance) is being compared with the attributes' actual influence on the overall destination experience (i.e. determinance). In order to uncover urgent improvement priorities of Croatian sun-and-sea tourism, in this study relevance and determinance were examined simultaneously with tourist-perceived performance of the destination attributes.

The data used for the analysis were obtained from an institutional survey conducted among tourists staying in one of seven Croatian coastal counties during the summer of 2010 (the TOMAS 2010 summer survey conducted by the Institute for Tourism – Zagreb). A

stratified sample was used encompassing about 5,000 tourists coming from 15 different countries. The relevance-determinance analysis provides interesting and valuable insight to policy-makers and stakeholders involved in summer tourism in Croatia.

KEYWORDS Sun-and-seatourism, destination attributes, relevance-determinance analysis, Croatia

INTRODUCTION

In the present article relevance-determinance analysis (RDA) is applied to identify main strengths and weaknesses of Croatian sun-and-sea tourism. The analysis has first been introduced by Mikulić & Prebežac (2011, 2012). In this analysis, tourist-perceived importance of a set of destination attributes (i.e. relevance) is being compared with the attributes' actual influence on the overall destination experience (i.e. determinance). Since asymmetries between relevance and determinance are not unlikely to occur, the RDA provides a significantly more reliable prioritization of destination attributes compared to approaches that use only one dimension of attribute-importance. The RDA further yields a classification of destination attributes into: higher-impact core attributes; higher-impact secondary attributes; lower-impact core attributes and lower-importance attributes. In order to identify urgent improvement priorities of Croatian sun-and-sea tourism, in this study relevance and determinance were examined simultaneously with tourist-perceived performance of the destination attributes. This way, the RDA becomes an extended importance-performance analysis (IPA) with enhanced reliability of attribute-prioritizations.

The data used for the analysis in this study were obtained from an institutional survey that has been conducted among tourists staying in one of seven Croatian coastal counties during the summer of 2010 (the TOMAS 2010 summer survey conducted by the Institute for

Tourism – Zagreb for the Croatian Ministry of Tourism). A stratified sample was used encompassing about 5000 tourists coming from 15 different countries. The survey was conducted in 85 Croatian destinations and four types of accommodation were covered (hotels, tourist villages, campsites, private accommodation).

The remainder of the article is structured as follows. In the next section a review of the relevant literature is conducted. Characteristics of the study setting are presented (i.e. tourism in Croatia), on the one hand, and the importance-performance analysis, as an approach for prioritizing destination development needs, is briefly discussed, on the other hand. The review section is followed by a detailed description of the research methodology used in the present paper. Finally, study results are presented and discussed, and the paper concludes with a brief summary of results and implications for destination management.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism in Croatia

Croatia is a country located in southeastern Europe, on the eastern coasts of the Adriatic Sea with the total area size of 33,846 sq. mi and population of 4.3 million. It is administratively divided into 21 counties. For the purposes of destination marketing it is divided into ten tourism regions and statistically, it is consisting of three statistical regions (EU NUTS2 level), Eastern Croatia (Panonian region), North-west Croatia and Adriatic Croatia. Most of the tourism activity is concentrated in the coastal region (96%), but recently, tourism is also starting to develop more intensively in the continental parts of Croatia.

Although the most intensive tourism development of Croatia begun in the mid-twentieth century, when the majority of accommodation facilities were built, the origins of tourism development can be traced back to the end of the XIX century when the town of Opatija, located in the northern Adriatic region, emerged as the first tourism destination in the

country (Čorak, 2006). Today tourism has an enormous impact on Croatian economy. The Croatian National Bank reported that international tourism receipts reached USD 7.7 bil. in 2012 (CNB, 2013). It is estimated that the direct contribution of tourism to the Croatian GDP is around 8.3% (Gatti, 2013) and direct and indirect contribution of tourism to total Croatian GVA is around 14.7% (Šutalo, Ivandić & Marušić, 2011). Additionally, tourism activity has a strong and positive influence on total employment, since tourism generates around 7% of total employment in Croatia. The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) showed that Croatia has a relatively competitive tourism industry, ranking 35th place among 140 analyzed countries in 2013 (Blanke & Chiesa, 2013).

With its long and intended coastline (3,626 mi of coastline and 1,246 islands), mild Mediterranean climate and rich cultural heritage, Croatia is well endowed with tourism resources and attractions. The most important tourism products in Croatia are “sun and sea” tourism, nautical tourism, cultural tourism but some other forms of tourism, such as health tourism and city breaks are also gaining more importance. Croatian tourism is dominated by small and medium sized enterprises, while major hotel chains are still not significantly represented. In 2013 Croatia recorded 12.4 million tourist arrivals and 64.8 million tourist overnights. Domestic tourism accounted for around 12% of arrivals and 8% of overnights in 2013. Major generating markets are EU countries, including Germany, Slovenia, Austria, the Czech Republic and Italy which generated more than 50% of inbound tourism in 2013. Most important long haul markets are USA, Japan and Canada, but with 1.5% of market share those markets are not very significant for Croatian tourism.

In 2013 the Croatian parliament adopted a new tourism development strategy for the period 2013.-2020 which was prepared by the Croatian Ministry of tourism in collaboration with the Institute for tourism from Zagreb. Another important governmental institution is the Croatian national tourism organization (NTO), i.e. the Croatian Tourism Association (cro.

Hrvatska Turistička Zajednica), which is in charge of promotion of Croatian tourism on international markets. Major problems of Croatian tourism are high seasonal concentration of tourism demand with more than 75% of tourist inflows generated during the summer months (June-August), unfavorable structure of accommodation facilities dominated by lower quality private accommodation and modest offer of additional activities at the destination level. Those problems represent main issues that need to be addressed in the future.

Identifying destination development needs with IPA

Importance-performance analysis (IPA) is a simple and intuitive analytical tool used for prioritizing improvement needs for both products and services. IPA, which was originally introduced by Martilla and James (1977), has gained particular popularity among tourism researchers who have applied the IPA framework to tourist destinations (e.g. Go & Zhang, 1997; Hudson & Shephard, 1998; Joppe, Martin & Waalen, 2001; Krešić, Mikulić & Miličević, 2012; O'Leary & Deegan, 2005; Taplin, 2012; Ziegler, Dearden & Rollins, 2012), tourism and hospitality services (e.g. Breiter & Milman, 2006; Duke & Persia, 1996; Zhang & Chow, 2004), and policymaking in the tourism domain (Dwyer, Knežević Cvelbar, Edwards & Mihalič, 2012; Evans & Chon, 1989; Mihalič, 2013).

The rationale of the technique is to compare the importance and the performance of focal variables. These two variable dimensions are plotted into a matrix that is divided into four quadrants. According to the original methodology, each quadrant has distinct implications for the variables that are located in it (Figure 1).

IMPORTANCE	High	Concentrate here	Keep up the good work
	Low	Low priority	Possible overkill
		Low	High
		PERFORMANCE	

FIGURE 1 Importance-performance analysis.

Although IPA is rather simple and intuitive, a much debated issue over the years has been the operationalization of importance. While the original methodology put forward customer-perceived importance ratings, a type of stated importance measures (Martilla & James, 1977), later studies have increasingly used derived measures obtained by relating attribute-level performance to global performance (e.g. Grønholdt & Martensen, 2005; Matzler *et al.*, 2004). Although one might intuitively expect stated and derived measures to converge, as they are supposed to assess the same concept (i.e. attribute-importance), several authors acknowledge that these measures are complementary because they carry different information about the importance-construct (e.g. Myers & Alpert 1968, 1977; Mikulić & Prebežac, 2008, 2009, 2011a,b; Van Ittersum *et al.*, 2007). Whereas stated measures assess the relevance of variables (i.e. general importance free from any performance context), derived measures assess their determinance (i.e. actual influence in a particular context of variable performances). Accordingly, Mikulić & Prebežac (2011b) have proposed to combine these two types of measures to enhance reliability of prioritizations that are based on assessments of importance, such as in IPA.

METHODOLOGY

The data used for the purpose of this study were obtained from the *TOMAS 2010 Summer survey*, an institutional longitudinal survey-based study on attitudes and expenditures of tourists, staying at Croatian coastal destinations, during the peak tourism season (several summer months). The survey is periodically conducted by the Institute for tourism, Zagreb for more than 20 years (since 1987) and so far it has been repeatedly conducted for eight times. The main objectives of the survey can be formulated as follows: (i) to determine tourism market segmentation, (ii) to identify major strengths and weaknesses of tourism supply in Croatian coastal destinations, (iii) to determine characteristics of tourism expenditures and (iv) to continue monitoring the trends of inbound and outbound tourism demand. This is achieved by collecting data from domestic and foreign tourists who are close to the end of their stay in Croatian coastal destinations. Since this is a longitudinal study, its results are also providing important insights into changing dynamics of tourism market trends that are directly affecting the intensity of tourism demand for Croatian seaside destinations, over longer period of time.

The survey was carried out during the period from June to September 2010 in seven Croatian seaside counties. The survey instrument was a highly structured questionnaire, printed on single sheet of A3 paper and translated into 12 languages (Croatian, German, English, Italian, French, Spanish, Slovenian, Czech, Slovak, Hungarian, Polish and Russian). The research covered tourists from the most important generating markets, namely tourists from 15 countries of origin: Croatia, Germany, Slovenia, Italy, Czech Republic, Austria, Poland, Slovakia, Netherlands, Hungary, Russia, France, Great Britain, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia. Most of the questions were closed-ended questions with predefined answers. The method of data collection was personal interview and, to a lesser extent, self-

completion of the questionnaire. The data collection was conducted by a specialized market research agency whose interviewers were previously specially trained by experts from the Institute for Tourism. Additionally, the Institute was also responsible for the overall preparation of the field research which includes: (i) definition of the questionnaire content, (ii) questionnaire design and printing, (iii) preparation the of instructions for the interviewers, (iv) sample design, (v) sample allocation on the destination level and the accommodation facility level and (vi) monitoring/control of the interviewer's performance.

The research population consisted out of all adult tourists (domestic and foreign) which were close to the end of their tourist visit to Croatia. The research sample was stratified random sample with strata being defined as the country of origin, type of tourist accommodation and county visited by tourists. Therefore, the research sample was representative on a county level, on the type of accommodation facility and on the country of origin. The sample size was 4,973 respondents which represented around 0.07% of the total number of tourists who stayed in Croatian seaside counties in period June to September, 2010. The sample was allocated to the 85 destinations with the highest number of recorded tourist overnights in 2009.

The dataset utilized in this study comprises only part of the collected data. In particular, data on tourist satisfaction with different elements of the tourist destination were used, as well as data on tourist-perceived/stated importance of different elements of the tourist destination for destination choice. Tourist satisfaction was measured on a five-point direct rating scale (1 = very poor and 5 = excellent), and importance for destination choice was measured on a six-point rating scale (1 = totally irrelevant and 6 = extremely important).

Uncovering priorities with relevance-determinance analysis

Since stated and implicit measures of attribute-importance carry different information, Mikulić & Prebežac (2011b) suggest combining them to obtain a more reliable basis for

decision-making. In particular, a comparison of stated importance (i.e. relevance) and derived importance (i.e. determinance) reveals the following four general attribute-categories (Figure2; Mikulić & Prebežac, 2012:5145-5146):

RELEVANCE	High	Lower-impact core attributes	Higher-impact core attributes
	Low	Lower-impact secondary attributes	Higher-impact secondary attributes
		Low	High
		DETERMINANCE	

FIGURE 2Relevance-determinance matrix.

- *Higher-impact core attributes* (quadrant 1): These attributes are perceived very important by tourists, and they have a strong influence on judgment of a particular destination. In order to strengthen the market position, the destination management should primarily focus on this attribute-category. These attributes should be assigned highest general priority in improvement strategies.
- *Lower-impact core attributes* (quadrant 2): These attributes are perceived very important, but they have a relatively lower influence on judgment. In general, market-typical levels of performance should be ensured for these attributes, because significant performance shortfalls towards competitors may result in a strong competitive disadvantage. Moreover, these attributes should be treated with particular care, because they might have a strong negative impact in case of objectively low

performance and/or failures. In this regard, these are *latently determinant* attributes that might remain unidentified in case-based studies if using measures of determinance, only (i.e. implicit importance measures).

- *Higher-impact secondary attributes* (quadrant 4): These attributes are perceived less essential, but they have nevertheless a strong influence on judgment. Attributes from this category are usually part of the augmented destination product. Destinations seeking for opportunities to differentiate themselves from the competition should focus on this category. It is noteworthy that the importance of these attributes would be underestimated if only using measures of relevance in operationalizations of importance (i.e. stated importance measures).
- *Lower-impact secondary attributes* (quadrant 3): These attributes have relatively lower levels of both relevance and determinance. Accordingly, this attribute-category should be assigned lower general priority in improvement strategies than the previous three categories. However, destination managers should be aware that this category may comprise latent satisfiers that have not fully expanded their potentials, because objective attribute-performance is low, and/or because more relevant and/or determinant attributes perform below tourist-desired levels.

Mikulić & Prebežac (2011b, 2012) emphasize that the relevance-determinance matrix (RDM) should only be used to derive implications based on the relative positioning of attributes. Such, when two or more attributes are located close to each other but in different quadrants, a certain degree of flexibility should be retained when interpreting results.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

An overview of respondent characteristics is provided in Table 1.

TABLE 1 Respondent characteristics

Generational category (according to date of birth)	%	Cumulative %
<i>Generation Y (up to 30)</i>	8.2	23.0
<i>Generation X (31 to 50)</i>	22.9	77.5
<i>Babyboomers (51 to 67)</i>	32.9	96.3
<i>Golden agers (68 and more)</i>	22.8	100.0
Gender		
<i>Male</i>	51.0	-
<i>Female</i>	49.0	-
Average household monthly income		
<i>Up to 500 €</i>	1.5	1.5
<i>501 to 1000 €</i>	7.8	9.3
<i>1001 to 1500 €</i>	16.4	25.7
<i>1501 to 2000 €</i>	21.1	46.8
<i>2001 to 2500 €</i>	18.8	65.6
<i>2501 to 3000 €</i>	16.9	82.5
<i>3001 to 3500 €</i>	10.2	92.7
<i>3501 € and more</i>	7.3	100.0
Travel companionship		
<i>Withfamilymembers</i>	52.3	-
<i>With partner only</i>	33.1	-
<i>Withfriends</i>	11.6	-
<i>Alone</i>	3.1	-
Level of education		
<i>Primaryschool</i>	1.0	1.0
<i>Secondaryschool</i>	39.0	40.0
<i>Higherlearning</i>	30.2	70.2
<i>Universitydegree or higher</i>	29.6	99.8
<i>Else</i>	0.2	100.0

The results show a very balanced gender structure with all other characteristics being normally distributed. Most respondents fell into the generational category of *Baby boomers* (32.9%), with an average household monthly income ranging from 1501 to 2500 € (39.9%). The largest share of respondents had a secondary education degree and traveled with family members (52.3%).

Scores of relevance, determinance and performance of Croatian destination attributes are shown in Table 2. These data formed the input for constructing the relevance-determinance matrix in Figure 3. The matrix was divided into four quadrants along grand mean values of relevance and determinance scores. Moreover, attributes performing below

the grand mean were depicted with a minus (-), whereas those performing above average with a plus (+).

TABLE 2 Relevance, determinance and performance of Croatian destination attributes

Attribute	Relevance	Determinance	Performance
z1 Natural beauty	4.84(1.06)	0.45	4.44(0.69)
z2 Picturesqueness and tidiness	3.86(1.40)	0.53	4.14(0.80)
z3 Ecological preservation	4.33(1.25)	0.52	4.07(0.83)
z4 Feeling of personal safety	4.60(1.26)	0.45	4.23(0.79)
z5 Transport accessibility	4.14(1.36)	0.47	3.98(0.89)
z6 Quality of accommodation	4.57(1.15)	0.65	4.15(0.81)
z7 Friendliness of host and locals	4.51(1.19)	0.57	4.11(0.80)
z8 Cultural heritage	4.04(1.28)	0.62	3.84(0.85)
z9 Entertainment opportunities	4.17(1.32)	0.56	3.82(0.91)
z10 Quality of restaurants	4.47(1.19)	0.63	4.07(0.73)
z11 Sports and recreational opportunities	4.09(1.37)	0.57	3.88(0.88)
z12 Shopping opportunities	3.78(1.44)	0.54	3.76(0.98)
z13 Value for money	4.50(1.28)	0.73	3.96(0.80)
<i>Grand mean</i>	<i>4.30(1.27)</i>	<i>0.56</i>	<i>4.03(0.83)</i>

Note. Standard deviations provided in parentheses; determinance-scores are Spearman rank order correlation coefficients; relevance and performance scores are arithmetic means of respective customer ratings.

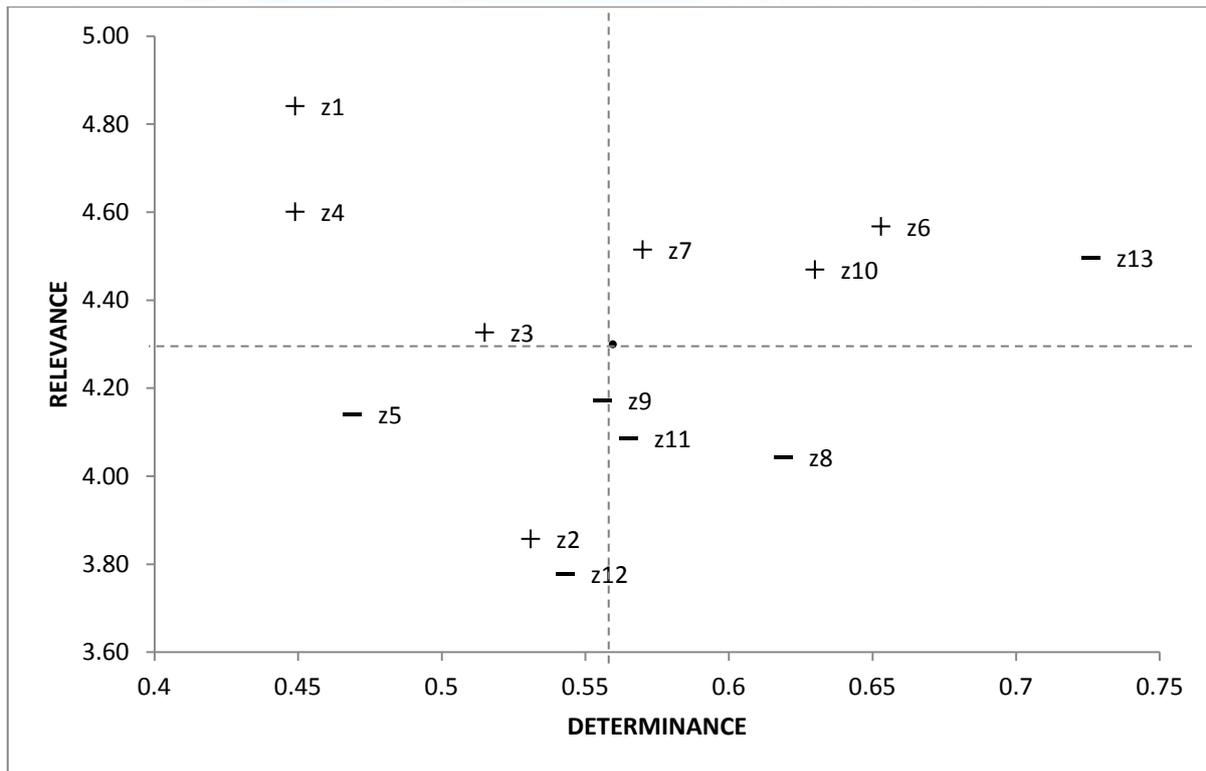


FIGURE 3 Relevance-determinance matrix for Croatian tourism attributes.

According to the RDA, four destination attributes were classified as *higher-impact core attributes*—i.e. z6-‘Quality of accommodation’, z7-‘Friendliness of host and locals’, z10-‘Quality of restaurants’, and z13-‘Value for money’. Among these attributes z13 is performing below average, why it should receive particular attention in plans to enhance the overall tourist experience. The destination management should further ensure that the value-for-money ratio does not fall significantly below competitor levels, as this might strongly weaken the current market position of the sun-and-sea product in Croatia.

Three attributes are further located in the second quadrant and can be referred to as *lower-impact core attributes*—i.e. z1-‘Natural beauty’, z3-‘Ecological preservation’, and z4-‘Feeling of personal safety’. Here we can also find the most extreme asymmetry in the relevance-determinance relationship for an attribute. Such, attribute z1 is both the most relevant and the least determinant attribute in the analyzed set of attributes. Put differently,

natural beauty is considered very important by tourists when choosing a destination, but, in the case of Croatia, it does not exhibit significant variation in the overall destination experience. Although this seems paradoxically, a look at the performance level of this attribute provides clarity. The natural beauty is the best performing attribute (4.44) and it has the lowest standard deviation (0.69). Accordingly, at average, tourists were, rather consensually, very satisfied with this attribute. Other attributes, with lower mean performance and larger variation, thus exhibited significantly more variation in the tourist's overall destination experience. It is, however, rather clear that this attribute (natural beauty) would have a strong negative impact in case of unfulfilled expectations. In this regard, it is a latently determinant attribute. The similar applies to attribute z4- 'Feeling of personal safety' which is also performing very high (4.23).

A look at the fourth quadrant reveals two *higher-impact secondary attributes*—i.e. z8- 'Cultural heritage', and z11- 'Sports and recreational opportunities'. Moreover, z9- 'Entertainment opportunities' is located very close to the border to the fourth quadrant. It is thus feasible to analyze it along with the former two attributes. Interesting to note about these attributes, tourists put relatively less importance on them when choosing Croatia as their destination, but these attributes do in fact significantly influence the overall tourist experience at the destination. Since all the three attributes perform below average, destination managers should shift their focus here. These attributes represent important elements of the augmented product which are most effective for differentiation towards competitor destinations.

Finally, four attributes are located in the third quadrant and should thus be assigned relatively lower general priority than the aforementioned attributes. Attribute z9- 'Entertainment opportunities' converges to the fourth quadrant and has already been commented earlier together with other secondary higher-impact attributes (z8 and z11). Attribute z12- 'Shopping possibilities' is also located rather close to the fourth quadrant.

Interesting to note, tourists put least importance on this attribute when choosing their destination, but this is also the worst performing attribute with the highest standard deviation. Accordingly, despite being categorized a lower importance attribute compared to the other attributes, the ‘shopping opportunities’ may in fact be a latent satisfier that has not yet fully expanded its potentials. If variety and quality of shopping opportunities were enhanced, this might significantly contribute to a better overall destination experience. Two more attributes fell into the category of lower importance attributes. One of them is performing very well and above average—i.e. z2-‘Picturesqueness and tidiness’. Accordingly, it does not require particular attention by destination managers at this moment. The other attribute, i.e. z5-‘Transport accessibility’, is performing below average, and has the second largest standard deviation. The large variation is not surprising, since the accessibility logically varies across both destinations and generating countries. It is, however, also clear that adequate transport accessibility is an important prerequisite for incoming tourism. Interestingly, tourists put, however, only relatively lower importance on this attribute when choosing Croatia as their destination.

CONCLUSION

In this article relevance-determinance analysis (RDA) was applied to identify main strengths and weaknesses of Croatian sun-and-sea tourism. Tourist-perceived importance of a set of destination attributes (i.e. relevance) was being compared with the attributes’ actual influence on the overall destination experience (i.e. determinance). These attribute-dimensions were examined simultaneously with tourist-perceived performance of the destination attributes which facilitated uncovering improvement priorities of Croatian sun-and-sea tourism.

The results of this study have important practical implications for managing sun-and-sea tourism in Croatia. In particular, destination managers should pay significant attention to

the value-for-money, which emerged a higher-impact core attribute. Moreover, the management focus should also be shifted to destination attributes forming the augmented tourism product—i.e. to cultural heritage, sports and recreational opportunities, and to entertainment opportunities. Tourists put relatively lower importance on these attributes when choosing Croatia as their destination, but, nevertheless, they emerged very influential regarding the overall destination experience. Below-average performance thus clearly signals high priority in improvement plans and strategies.

Moreover, since the analysis revealed significant asymmetries between relevance and determinance for some destination attributes, this study has also important theoretical implications with regard to the application of importance-performance analysis. In particular, in case-based studies analysts should not rely on measures of relevance, only. Measures of determinance are more appropriate in such cases. However, a combination of these measures significantly improves reliability of managerial implications and should thus be preferred whenever possible.

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**The Role of Entertainment in Tourism:
Mauritius as a Case Study**

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ABSTRACT

Among the many elements that are combined to make the tourism package, entertainment is one of them, which in its different forms, are utilised to make the offer more attractive and appealing. The study of entertainment in tourism is important as it enables tourism practitioners better understand its significance in enhancing and diversifying existing tourism products. Based on this notion, the present study examines the role of entertainment in the Mauritian tourism context. One of the objectives of the study is to identify the most promising forms of tourism entertainment of the island. The study adopts a mixed methodology approach. The findings indicate that entertainment is a basic motivator for tourists to select their destinations and water-based activities pre-dominate their choice. The

study further shows that the field of tourism entertainment has evolved in form and context. The present research contributes to the existing body of knowledge as it proposes a database on the different forms of entertainment that have evolved in the Mauritian tourism context since the past decades. The study suggests its applicability to other islands destinations facing similar challenges.

KEYWORDS Entertainment, Island Tourism, Mauritius

INTRODUCTION

Among the many elements that are combined to make the tourism package, entertainment is one of them, which in its different forms is utilised to make the offer more attractive. Studies (for example, Bosshart & Macconi, 1998; Wolf, 1999; Loi, 2009) show that people are spending more on recreation today, and they are willing to spend on entertainment while indulging in tourism. Indeed, many countries are capitalising on entertainment activities nowadays. For example, the Bollywood Filmfare Award held in the year 2010 in Mauritius; the FIFA World Cup in year 2010 in South Africa; the Olympic Games held in year 2012 in London *inter alia*, have been potential business platforms for many. In the context of tourism, it is observed that entertainment in the tourism package not only improves businesses, but also has a positive impact on loyalty and repeat visitation of customers. To support, a study was conducted by Nallathiga (2006) to determine the importance of entertainment for tourists visiting Mumbai and findings revealed the following:

“entertainment will not only become an important source for attracting tourists on short term but will also be more useful in retaining them for longer period” (p.4)

In fact, most tourists do look for entertainment in their tourism packages before planning and selecting their holidays (Tenner, 1997; Pearce, 2008). Yet, not many researches have explored entertainment from the tourism perspective. Given that most tourists incorporate some form of entertainment into their itinerary, it may be argued that entertainment occupies an important component of tourism experiences and it is implicit in almost all types of tourism. Entertainment is also seen as an important motivator while making holiday decision (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001; Pearce, 2008; Adeboye, 2012; Yu *et al*, 2014). To further highlight the importance of entertainment in tourism, the destination competitiveness model by Dwyer *et al* (2004) lays particular emphasis on entertainment and explains that it is one of the key success factors in destination competitiveness. In the same line of destination competitiveness, Ritchie and Crouch (2000) also propose entertainment as one of the core resources and attractors at a tourism destination and they argue that entertainment sustains the industry by not centralizing all effort on one product or branch of tourism.

In the context of island tourism, the need to diversify tourism has often been acknowledged by researchers (Dwyer *et al*, 2004; Andriotis, 2005; Loi, 2008; Cooper, 2011). This is so, as islands, by their very nature, face a number of inherent disadvantages like isolation, scarce resources, limited growth *inter alia* (Andriotis, 2005). As such, entertainment is often seen as an alternative to compensate for this limitation. Despite the growing importance of entertainment in island tourism, there is little research undertaken in this direction. With these observations as foundation, the present study attempts to examine the role of entertainment in a given island tourism context. A key purpose of this research work was to identify some immediately promising forms of entertainment and to discuss their potential in enhancing island tourism package. As such, the paper seeks to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the role of entertainment in the tourism offer?

RQ2: Does entertainment enhance the tourism package?

RQ3: Does entertainment influences tourists' decision for future visitation?

RQ4: How entertainment has evolved in the Mauritian tourism sector?

RQ5: What are the main types of entertainment available in the Mauritian tourism offer?

RQ6: What are the immediately promising forms of entertainment that can be considered for the future?

This paper is divided into five sections. Section 1 provides a literature review on entertainment and its relationship with the tourism sector. Section 2 offers an insight on the study area and section 3 reviews the methodology. The final part of the paper presents the findings, discusses the implications and concludes of the study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Defining Entertainment in the Tourism Context

Bosshart and Macconi (1998) define entertainment as a reception phenomenon with basic factors such as joy, fun and it is pleasant, easy, agreeable, without being compulsory and demanding. Hugues and Allen (2008) and Kirillova *et al* (2014) identify similar characteristics while describing entertainment, but they extend the meaning to escapism. They consider live performances of music, dance, shows, going to cinemas, clubs, discos, sport matches, watching TV, playing computer games and listening to CDs as entertainment. In looking into the essence of those definitions, it is found that tourism also is very much grounded to the notion of relaxation, escapism, fun, joy and the like. For instance, according to Swarbrooke *et al* (2003, 5) tourism holidays are about enjoyment, self-expression and satisfaction, and they take place in time set aside from obligation such as business. Likewise,

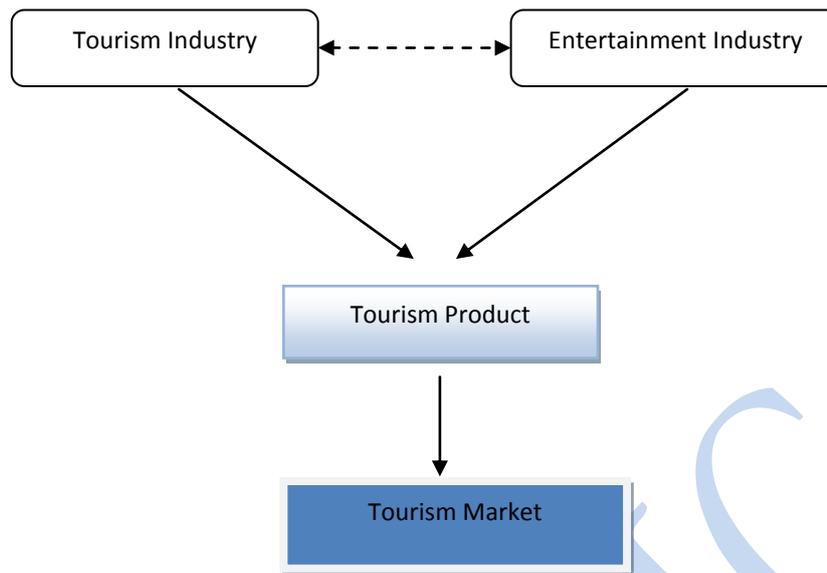
Bhatia (2011) interprets tourism as relaxation, rest and recreation. Similarly, Mathieson and Wall (1982) describe tourism as a set of activities that take place outside the normal living environment with the aim to delight the tourist. Thus, Bates & Ferri, (2010) describe tourism entertainment as a well designed and managed situations with dance performance, cultural shows, theme park presentations, humour oriented guided tours, film and video presentation tailored exclusively for visitors. Entertainment in the context of tourism, can further be explained by Vargho and Lusch (2004) concepts of operand and operant resources; operant resources are those invisible and intangible resources that produce effect whilst, operand resources are resources upon which an operation or act is performed to produce an effect. For instance, sea, sand and sun, as operand resources, become more appealing when beach entertainment activities are included in the package. Operant resources (in this context), might be described as entertainment talent and skills required to conduct beach activities successfully.

The Linkage between Entertainment and Tourism

There is a linkage between the tourism industry, the entertainment industry and the tourism market. Figure 1 illustrates this relationship.

FIGURE 1

The Linkage between Tourism and Entertainment



Source: Authors

The tourism and entertainment industries are inexorably linked, as tourism industry combines entertainment in the tourism package to diversify and become more attractive. The basic tourism product very often needs to be translated into entertainment so as to enhance its appeal. For instance, a tourism heritage site, as an operand resource, requires the support of operand resources like documentaries and films to make the product marketable and more appealing. To support, Tenner (1997), in a study conducted at Las Vegas, observe that entertainment has become the primary focus of Las Vegas tourism and that they are creating precedents for other tourism destinations. In other cases, the integration of entertainment with other activities has helped to correct negative image. For instance, while incorporating some forms of entertainment in gambling activity, visiting a casino is no longer viewed as a vice (D’Hauteserre, 2000). Crete Island is a further example; to reach its potential and sustain its tourism industry, the island utilised its available entertainment to diversify its tourism product and integrated other economic sectors in the process (Andriotis, 2005). Likewise, in India, cultural entertainment has been extensively utilised for marketability (see the Incredible India campaign on www.incredibleindia.org). Although tourism and entertainment industries are

separate, they do share commonalities and they work hand in hand, as a considerable share of the entertainment market consists of tourists. Thus, as tourism flourishes, new avenues for entertainment also present themselves given that both industries are inter-dependent.

The Relevance of Entertainment in Tourism

The tourism industry is dependent on various sectors of the economy to produce the final tourism offer. The entertainment sector, which is the main focus of the current research, is also one of the sectors that significantly contribute to the tourism experience. Entertainment is relevant in the tourism sector, given that the essence of tourism (characterised by relaxation, enjoyment and some form of escapism) is compatible with that of entertainment (Hugues and Allen, 2008; Kirillova *et al*, 2014). As such, Loi (2008) observes that entertainment is a critical element for tourists whenever they select their holiday destinations. To further support, Dwyer *et al* (2004), in his model of destination competitiveness argue that the mere existence of resources is insufficient to generate visitation to a destination in the absence of tourism infrastructure like entertainment and shopping. In fact Dwyer's (2004) model reconciles with that of Ritchie and Crouch (2000) model, which also emphasise on the fulfilling role of entertainment in the tourism experience. Entertainment is therefore treated as an important factor in the tourism experience as it influences perceived destination image and attracts more visitors. As such, different destinations, regions and countries try to brand themselves as the most entertaining city or spot in the world.

In the context of island destinations, entertainment is relevant for the tourism industry for two main reasons:

- First, it brings diversification to the existing tourism product, as islands face scarcity of natural and cultural resources;

- Second, island tourism suffers sustainability threats. As such, it is believed that the creation of entertainment in the tourism experience helps in restoring natural and cultural resources that are often over-exploited in island tourism.

In a study undertaken in Macau, Loi (2009) observes that entertainment components are implicit in all types of tourism and, if appropriately exploited, contribute significantly to tourism businesses. This point is found to be valid in the context of island tourism; given that islands are faced with limited resources and sustainability problems, the development and creation of entertainment helps in the diversification of the existing tourism offer (basically nature and culture). Moreover, it is believed that the creation of entertainment gives a breathing space to natural and cultural resources that are often over-exploited in tourism. As such, many island destinations use entertainment to bring diversification (see for example, Greek islands, Caribbean islands, Mediterranean islands *inter alia*). Tourism and entertainment therefore work hand in hand. If entertainment, as a component of the tourism offer, is properly researched, it will not only enhance the tourism experience, but also contribute in the tourism business. When the other side of the coin is explored, Cooper (2011) observes some negative issues about some attractions in the forms of tourism entertainment. According to him, attractions have been a neglected sector of the tourist industry owing to their variety and fragmented ownership pattern. Furthermore, while some tourist attractions provide visitors a memorable experience for a reasonable admission charge or even for free, others can have a tendency to be of low quality and to overprice their goods and services. Such places are commonly termed as tourist traps and might compromise the usage of entertainment at destinations.

Entertainment in the Push- Pull Factor Framework of Tourism

The push-pull framework is a common terminology that explains why tourists choose a place over another, the type of experiences they seek and the type of activities they want. While push factors represent motivators that influence tourists' decision to visit a destination, pull factors emphasise specific characteristics of destinations (Wu and Pearce, 2014) that motivate people to choose a destination over another. Likewise, Cooper (2011) argues that the richness and variety of destinations around the world continue to contribute to the success of the tourism sector and entertainment is one of the richness that influences the destination choice. The relevance of entertainment in enhancing the appeal of the tourism offer is acknowledged by various researchers including Pearce (2008), Swarbrooke *et al*, (2003) and Crouch and Ritchie, (2005). In reviewing the literature, it is found that most tourism studies qualify entertainment (in its many forms) as an important pull factor. For instance, Cave (2009) argues that leisure, entertainment and recreational facilities is a pull factor for travellers to visit an exotic destination. Likewise, Tenner (1997) consider attractions, historical sites and monuments as important entertainments and hence, pull factors while Awaritefe (2004) classified pull motives as facilities/amenities designed to entertain those visiting the location. Similarly, a study conducted by Kirillova *et al* (2014), show that the environmental qualities of a destination impact on overall tourist experience and re-visitation. According to the authors, tourists' interaction with a destination's overall environment and their internalization of what they see and sense could play a key role in their overall trip satisfaction. When people plan to travel for pleasure, they seek destinations that, in their opinion, maximize the possibility to receive a pleasurable experience (Lue *et al*, 1993). Therefore, one source of such pleasure is the types of entertainment integrated in the tourism package.

Entertainment as a Motivator for Repeat Visitation

It is important to understand why people travel and why they choose a given destinations as this allows marketers to better understand the specific destination factors that influence tourists' choice of a destination. According to Prayag and Hossany (2014), motivation is an important impelling and compelling force behind tourist behaviour. In tourism management literature, it has been acknowledged that aesthetic characteristics affect tourists' experience and satisfaction, contributing to their loyalty towards a destination (Lee *et al*, 2011) and thus intention to return (Baloglu *et al*, 2004). To this effect, Nallathiga (2006) deduces that entertainment will become an important source for attracting the tourists for visiting on short term but will be more useful in retaining them for longer period. Entertainment therefore plays a central role in determining a tourist re-visitation decision. Studies show that the quality and types of entertainment offered at the destination often characterises tourism satisfaction and is significant in formation of tourists' destination experience (Beerli and Martin, 2004; Dwyer *et al*, 2004; Smith, 1994). In fact, tourist satisfaction with a destinations' performance is often viewed as key indicator as it can stimulate behaviour and motivate visitors to recommend and revisit a place (Pritchard and Morgan, 2001; Pritchard, 2003). It is therefore important to be aware of the entertainment provision in the tourism product. Thus, the types of entertainment included in the tourism package have an enhancement effect on the tourists' decision making process. Moreover, tourists' perception of what types of entertainment competitors have to offer also shapes their judgement and hence their attitudes and behaviour as well as their destination selection process (Yuksel and Yuksel, 2001). Therefore, it may be argued that tourists, to a considerable extent, base their decisions on the quality and types of entertainment available at the tourism destination and the entertainment element included in the package motivates the tourist to choose and re-visit the destination.

Entertainment as the Lucrative Part of the Tourism Package

Entertainment is a lucrative product if appropriately exploited. However, it has not received sufficient attention while discussing tourism products. The global entertainment industry is massive with numerous entities that are worth over half a trillion \$US annually (Vorderer, 2001). In a study conducted in Macao, Loi (2009) observes that tourists are increasingly willing to spend on entertainment. Likewise, Bryman (2004) observes that tourists expect a level of entertainment at the destination, as they enjoy a novel experience. This point is also acknowledged by Wolf (1999) who argues that in this era of entertainment, people are spending more and more on recreation and entertainment today. Likewise, Hauper (2006) argues that entertainment is lucrative businesses designed to make a profit and it creates employment in the tourism sector (Wolf, 1999; Pearce *et al*, 2000). In other cases, it is found that entertainment can be both chargeable and free, depending on the circumstances upon which the tourist is using it. For instance, a nature walk might be considered as free entertainment whereas participating in a local cultural show might be chargeable. Based on these observations, it may be argued that entertainment has become an important force in the service industry giving employment opportunities to many and is a revenue-generating activity (Hauper, 2006; Wolf, 1999). In a similar vein, Dwyer *et al* (2004) observe that to achieve competitive advantage for its tourism industry, destinations must ensure that overall entertainment and tourist experience are superior as compared to other alternative destinations. In fact, with more countries opening up their borders and cheaper flights available to different destinations around the world, there has been an increased quest by tourists for entertainment outside their immediate environment.

Typology of Tourism Entertainment

Loi (2009) argues that in normal terms, the typology of entertainment is usually organised around adult, child, public, corporate and live entertainment. Table 2 illustrates same.

TABLE 2

Usual Typology of Entertainment

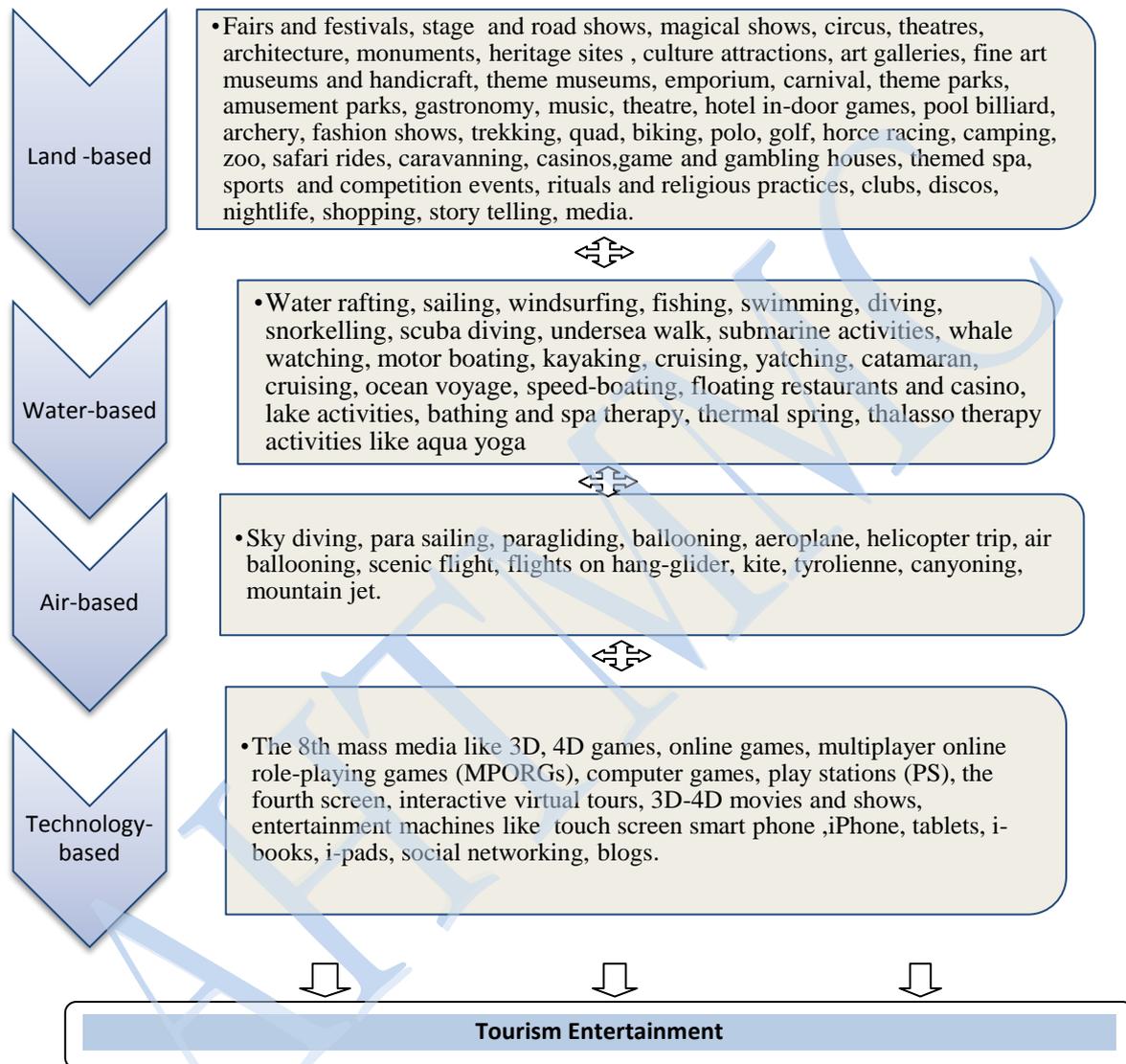
Child Entertainment	Typical examples include children games, clowns, puppets, pantomimes, cartoons, theme parks like Disneyland, where several of enjoyable activities are proposed.
Adult Entertainment	Adult entertainment involves things like music concerts, live sports, opera and also entertainment that arouse sexual desire by displays of eroticism. Example are hippies, beach parties, night life, Prostitution, Peep shows, Striptease, staged sex shows, lap dancing, pole dancing, erotic massage, blue films and shows
Live Entertainment	This form of entertainment is broadened to all ages as there are a variety of activities that can be labelled as live entertainment. For instance music concerts, live TV shows, live sports, theatres and any other activity that you could think of that is aimed to enjoy people.
Public Entertainment	This takes place in public and might include magic shows, singing, dancing, competitions, painting, mass media, photography among others
Corporate Entertainment	Aimed for corporate events, private parties, award ceremonies, product launches and it is mostly organised by professional entertainment companies

Source: Authors

However, in the context of tourism, the typology of entertainment will be treated differently as the entertainment industry is a vast entity featuring numerous categories of entertainment which includes much more than merely venue based entertainment. Entertainment in tourism traditionally takes place in three forms namely, land-based, water-based and air-based. However, with the development and proliferation of technology, another category of entertainment might be introduced – the technology-based activities. Figure 2 illustrates same.

FIGURE 2

Typology of Tourism Entertainment



Source: Authors

PROFILE OF MAURITIUS

Mauritius is a small tropical island in the Indian Ocean (Figure 3). It occupies an area of 720 square miles and is slightly bigger than the city of London (Gowreesunkar, 2012). As a tourism destination, Mauritius is blessed with all natural and cultural ingredients necessary

to successfully run a tourism industry (Gowreesunkar, 2012). While initiatives in tourism date back to the year 1968, tourism is one industry which has continually grown to support the economic pillar. For instance, from demand side, 993,106 tourists visited Mauritius from January to November 2013 (Source: Statistics Mauritius, 2014). From supply side, the number of hotels gradually increased from 50 hotels in the year 1980's to 106 licensed hotels in 2014 (source: Mauritius Statistics, 2014).

FIGURE 3

Map of Mauritius in the Indian Ocean



Source: Google Map, 2013

Similar to other islands, Mauritius has been struggling hard to position its tourism industry. Lots of branding strategies have been utilised by the island to demarcate from competitors of the region like Seychelles and Maldives. The growing dependence of the island on tourism has caused the industry to devise various survival strategies for 3 main reasons namely sustainability, diversification and for attractiveness and competitiveness.

While the tourism industry kept diversifying throughout the decades, various forms of local entertainment were developed to be integrated in tourism packages (see Table 3).

TABLE 3

Entertainment Utilized for Mauritian Tourism

Entertainment Commonly Utilised in Tourism Packages	Entertainment Activities and Examples from Mauritius
Cultural and religious activities	Cultural celebrations and festivals like Chinese new year, Divali night; Holi Mela, Cavadee; Father Laval pilgrimage, Eid-UI-Fitr, cultural shows, Sega festivals, Food & gastronomy festival; themed festival, Grand Bassin pilgrimage, Festival Kreol, Chinese, Tamil and other cultural festivals, sega singing and dancing
Sports and Competitions	Mauritius International Beach Tennis ; MTPA Air Mauritius Golf Chanel Trophy; All Africa Junior Team Golf Championship; Mauritius Regatta; kite competition Golf course are available at Belle Mare Plage hotel, Gymkhana club, Heritage Gold and Spa, Ile aux Cerfs, Le Paradis, Tamarina, Le Maritim, Le Shandrani, St Geran, Sofitel and Trou aux Biches
Conferences, shows and Exhibitions	Exhibitions like hotel world, salon du livre, salon de la Sante, salon de la maison, salon de la famille, Bollywood Award at Swami Vivekanada, pop concert, celebrity musical shows, talks by Management Leader like Robin Sharma, Deepak Chopra, Kotler, magic show, fashion shows; beauty contest and competitions (Miss Mauritius), theatre shows;
Sea, Sun, Sand, and water-based activities	Sea, sun and sand remains the three presiding S's of Mauritian tourism and the island's major drawing card. The North, South, East and West coasts comprise beaches with different characteristics. Overall important beaches are Pereybere, La Cuvette, Mon Choisy, Cap Malheureux, Pte aux Biches, Belle Mare, Flic en Flac, Albion, Tamarin, Blue Bay, La Cambuse, and water activities include parasailing, waterskiing, windsurfing, deep sea fishing, catamaran, undersea walk, bottom glass, snorkelling, scuba diving, islets trips like Ile D'Ambres, Ile Plate, Round island, Ile aux Cerfs among others.
Nature and Ecotourism	The island hosts a number of natural attractions like parks, forests, gardens, waterfalls and valleys. For example, the forest of Maccabé, Sept Cascades waterfall, Rochester fall, Casela nature and leisure park, Domaine d'Anse Jonchee, Domaine de Lagrave, Domaine de l'Etoile, Domaine du Chasseur, Domaine les Pailles, Eureka nature park, Ile aux Aigrettes, Pamplemousses botanical garden, The tea route, Vallée de Ferney, La Vanille crocodile park, La Vieille Cheminée park, Le verger de Labourdonnais, Chamarel seven-coloured earth, Parc Aventure, Le Gorge natural

	<p>park, Valriche nature reserve, Pointe aux Piments aquarium, Carlie dolphin tour, Le Casanita nature park, Riviere des Galets Nature Adventure, Vertical World natural park, Yanature adventure, Yemaya adventure, Terre Rouge bird sanctuary.</p>
Heritage tourism	<p>Mauritius has inherited a plethora of culture so that tourists have found in Mauritius a mini <i>United Nations</i>. The multi-cultural dimension of the island has reinforced and complemented the history and heritage sides of the tourism product. heritage attractions such as Sugar world, Rhumerie de Chamarel, art galleries, history museum, postal museum, photography museum, maritime museum, Mahebourg national museum and Port Louis natural museum, Frederick Henry museum, Aapravasi Ghat, Le Morne, historic monuments and building and statues like Place D'Armes, Fort Adelaide, Balaclava ruins, Champ de Mars, Port Louis Central Market, Port Louis China Town, Eureka, Bois Cherie tea factory, L e Morne Brabant among others.</p>
Medical tourism, wellness and spa	<p>Cosmetic surgery at Clinique du Nord, hair planting at Le Cannonnier, rejuvenating wellness treatments, massage, wrinkles treatment, cosmetic dentistry; thalasso therapy; religious talks; mediation, yoga etc aerobics, stretching, yoga classes and aqua-gym, aqua yoga, belly dancing, dieting plans. Aqua zumba among others</p>
Shopping, gambling and night life	<p>Elegant and world standard shopping malls are now adding to the fourth S of the conventional 3S's of tourism. For example, shopping areas like Caudan waterfront, Mahebourg Waterfront, Port Louis, Grand Bay, Goodlands, Curepipe, Rose Hill, Quatres Bornes, Ebene, Flacq, Goodlands, Black River, pubs, discos, night clubs, casinos, including Cascavelle (Flic en Flac), La Croisette (Grand Bay) and Bagatelle 2011(Reducit) among others; adult entertainment like striptease shows, lap dancing etc. Gambling includes casino, gaming and betting houses.</p>
Land based entertainment	<p>Golf course are available at Belle Mare Plage hotel, Gymkhana club, Heritage Gold and Spa, Ile aux Cerfs, Le Paradis, Tamarina, Le Maritim, Le Shandrani, St Geran, Sofitel and Trou aux Biches. Horse racing at Champ de Mars, horse riding at Flic en Flac and Mon Choisy, walking and hiking, karting, quad biking, river canoeing, cycling, rallying, Aquarium visit, Tyrolienne, safari, canyoning, via ferrata etc</p>
Hotel Entertainment	<p>Hotel entertainment is an infusion of sports, leisure and, cultural entertainment. These may include all of the above as well as games like tennis, basketball, mini-football, mini-golf, beach volley-ball, badminton, bowling, card games, petanque, family games, pool</p>

	game, pedal boats, canoe, hotel animations among others; kids entertainment like mini club, puppet shows, cartoon projection; live and corporate entertainment, adult entertainment.
Media and technology-based Entertainment	Film festival, documentary projections for example at Citadelle, LCD movies with local and international channels, 8th mass media like 3D games, online games, multiplayer online role-playing games (MPORGs), computer games, play stations (PS), the fourth screen, interactive virtual tours, 3D movies and shows, entertainment machines
Post Millennium Entertainment: Themed wedding and international, regional sporting event; conferences and further technology-based entertainment like 4-D theatres.	FIFA world cup, Jeux des Iles, Festival des Cannes, Olympic Games, and the International Association of Athletics Federation's World Athletics Championship. Themed wedding is mostly tailor made and organised by event planners, entertainment providers and hotels around the island and include other entertainment package like Sega, dancing etc These platforms promote tourism.

Source: Authors

Table 3 illustrates the most popular tourism entertainment that are utilised by the Mauritian tourism industry (see Table 3). Various governmental and non-governmental bodies work in collaboration to produce those entertainments, the most important ones being the Ministry of Tourism and Leisure (MOTL), The Mauritius Tourism Promotion Authority (MTPA), The Ministry of Art and Culture (MAC), cultural centres, among others. Earlier, sea, sun and sand were the three S's of tourism, but of late, shopping has become an important S of tourism in Mauritius (and probably in many other island destinations). Although surveys on travel motivations have rarely indicated the intention to shop as a primary motive, shopping has emerged as the most universal element in tourist experience (Dasgupta, 2011). Shopping as a tourist activity has indeed prospered in various markets and to this effect, various shopping complexes like Bagatelle, la Croisette, Mall of Mauritius, Cascavelle have been developed. Also, many previously dormant sites have been converted into tourism attractions. For

instance, cultural show like ‘The Soul of the World’ is staged at cultural spots like la Citadelle. Social and cultural entertainment activities such as “Anou Ale La Mer”, fusion sega shows, “Loisirs lor Laplaze” among others are organized at tourism areas so as to revive their cultural values. The post millennium has witnessed a different niche market with demand for themed weddings, themed conferences, competitions and technology-mediated products. This segment has high tourism potential as it has a multiplier effects by creating businesses for other sectors. For instance, sports event rope in other sectors like entertainment, accommodation, and restaurant and shopping while welcoming athletes, participants and spectators. Despite the various forms of entertainment that have developed to support the Mauritian tourism sector, beach tourism is still the most dominant factor that epitomises the Mauritian image.

METHODOLOGY

The island of Mauritius is chosen for this study for the following reasons:

- Mauritius is a small island very much dependent on its tourism sector;
- The success of the Mauritian tourism sector is dependent on many factors, one of which is the quality of tourism offer;
- The quality of tourism offer is affected by many factors, one among which is, the different forms of entertainment utilised in the offer; and
- The area of study is home to the researcher.

The study adopts a mixed methodology approach and takes place in Port Louis (governmental officers) and in Northern Mauritius (for tourists and entertainment providers).

The Northern part of Mauritius was chosen for the following reasons:

- Proximity, familiarity and established network of the researchers at the area of study;
- Northern part of Mauritius is a popular tourist destination of the island;

- Mauritius is very small; thus popular tourist beach destinations around the island have similar characteristic and features (Gowreesunkar, 2012).

To gain an understanding of the role of entertainment in the tourism experience, semi structured questionnaires were administered to tourists residing in pre-selected Northern hotels and semi structured interviews were conducted on entertainment providers of those hotels as well as on tourism officers at Port Louis. The list of hotels was obtained from MOTL. The sample size was calculated scientifically using Raosoft sample size calculator (Table 4) with a margin of error of 5%, with a confidence level of 95%. After the population size of each hotel was done, the stratified sampling method was chosen. This random sampling was selected to ensure representativeness from each category of northern hotels. A population size of 45 hotels (2 to 5 stars) was generated for the survey, thus giving a recommended sample size of 49 tourists.

TABLE 4
Sample Size of Hotels

Hotel category	2	3	4	5
No of hotels in the north	4	19	11	11
No of tourist to be questioned	$(4/41)*45=4$	$(19/41)*45=21$	$(11/41)*45=12$	$(11/41)*45=12$

Prior to this phase, a pilot test was run on 10 tourists at Grand Bay. This helped in addressing ambiguities and in re-formulating few questions. For questionnaire administration, tourists were carefully approached on the beach of their hotels when they were not involved in any activity. The semi-structured questionnaire was designed to be tourist-friendly (appendix A). Questionnaires included dichotomous questions, Likert scales (with 1 being strongly disagree to 5 being strongly agree) and open ended questions. A total of 49

questionnaires were successfully completed, thus representing a response rate of 100%. Demography of the tourists is attached in appendix C.

Since this study also tries to elicit opinions from entertainment providers and tourism officers, semi-structured interview was preferred and this was based on Brymann (2004) philosophy. Convenience sampling was chosen for the interviews and questions were prepared prior to the interview session (Appendix D). Phone calls were made to seek appointments and the total number of interviewees was 2 officers from MTPA and 1 from MOTL, 1 from MAC and 6 from hotels (2 from 2-star; 2 from 3-star; 1 from 4-star and 1 from 5-star). The duration was approximately thirty minutes. The final phase of the study related to content analysis conducted on existing literature, websites, brochures and entertainment reviews of the island. This was required to answer RQ4 and to build a database on evolution of entertainment in Mauritius. Content analysis has been successfully used by researchers (see for example Xiao and Smith, 2006; Loi, 2009). To analyze the data, the Microsoft Excel software was used. To respect the ethical clause of research, a consent form was introduced to respondents (see appendix B). Also, the names of hotels utilised in the study will not be disclosed. The research suffered limitations in terms of smallness of sample size. Analysis would have been more reliable if data could be collected from all tourism regions around the island. Another limitation was access to hotel entertainers and government officers and access to data. Ministries and para-statal bodies were not too willing to disclose information. Also, there was a dearth of research available on the evolution of entertainment in Mauritius and this limits the number of secondary data.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The Role of Entertainment in the Tourism Offer

The survey reveals that entertainment has fulfilling role and contributes in the tourism offer. From the demand side, 89% tourists stated that it was the main motivator while selecting tourism destinations' packages and tourism packages with limited entertainment were not attractive. The following statement from a South African couple supports:

“ we are tourists not only to passively see the land of Mauritius, but we are here to have fun and to see how we can entertain ourselves; the more entertainment variety we have, the more we find the package worth our time and money spent to come here”

The above finding confirms an earlier observation of Adeboye (2012, p. 13) about Greek tourists who also looked solely for entertainment to qualify Greece tourism as attractive. However, few tourists (11%) did not agree that entertainment was an important factor for a tourism holiday. For them, tourism was about visiting the foreign land only. Entertainment like discos, clubs were not important:

“We are interested to see the history, nature, culture and heritage of Mauritius. We are not interested in artificial entertainment; we can enjoy it in our country as well”.

This observation confirms the findings of Vorderer (2011): It would be difficult to generalise the characteristics of entertainment and just relate it to enjoyment and amusement. From the supply side, interview with the tourism organisations and entertainment providers reveal that entertainment element was considered as enhancer and diversifier for the existing tourism products. According to the MOTL respondents, the Mauritian tourism industry is going through a critical phase and to continue relying on existing tourism products might compromise the future of the tourism industry:

“Mauritian tourism product will not be able to survive without entertainment. The future of the economy is so fragile with the tourism industry exploiting and depleting sea sand and sun resources”.

The interview obtained from MAC officers reveals the following:

“Entertainment works hand in hand with tourism. The tourism sector is nothing without what we are planning and offering in our Ministry”

For hotel entertainers, the following opinion was recorded:

“Entertainment is important as it gives value to tourism product and it gives business to performers”

“Hotel entertainment is the cherry on the cake for the tourism offer”

Based on the findings, it may be argued that entertainment has several roles and impacts on a destinations’ performance. Table 5 illustrates this point. From economic to marketing point of views, if properly and appropriately developed, entertainment can enhance tourism package and generate significant contribution to the tourism sector. To further support the fulfilling role of entertainment in tourism, the study of Abedoye (2012), shows that declining Spain tourism had to introduce entertainment besides the conventional sun, sea, sand in order to revive the existing tourism products. Most of the findings show that entertainment is an important component of the Mauritian tourism industry, and despite being a separate industry, they do have compatible objectives (see Figure 1) and thus, can harmoniously work together. The study ultimately shows that entertainment is an important ingredient for the

Mauritian tourism sector. Based on the findings, the role of entertainment in tourism business may be summarised as follows:

TABLE 5

Roles of Entertainment in Tourism

Role	Rationale
Diversification	Entertainment brings new dimensions to the existing tourism product. Islands have scarce tourism resources; entertainment helps to diversify and deviate from conventional sea sun and sand and to sustain the industry by not centralizing all effort on one product. Loi (2008) findings also show how Chinese tourism industry combines entertainment in their package to diversify and become more attractive.
Pull factor	Ritchie and Crouch (2000) treat entertainment as one of the core resources and potential pull factor in their destination competitiveness model. Pull factors are those elements that are worked upon at the receiving country to render the tourism product more appealing. Entertainment is a potential pull factor as it enhances and adds value to the tourism package and this plays an important role in destination choice (Awaritefe, 2004).
For revitalisation, preservation, and rejuvenation	Entertainment in the tourism product gives a breathing space to typical island tourism resources (sea, sun and sand) and thus contributes in sustainability endeavours; Abekoye (2012) case study on Spain further consolidates this point. While working on the forms of entertainment to include in tourism packages, traditional singing, food, dance, and culture are revived, eg, typical sega dance with raven, banjo, round the fire, story telling, games like la marelle (jumping on small rock), laryaz (bicycle tyre attached to a bamboo), cannette (beads), la corde sauter (group jumping on rope) are revived.
Marketability, profitability and job opportunity	Entertainment is a lucrative component if properly presented. When added to tourism package, it becomes more marketable. For instance, concert at a heritage site combines entertainment and tourism, thus making the product more marketable and effective in the Ps of marketing mix. It can combat seasonality. Diversity of entertainment brings positive publicity, attracts more tourists, influence positively purchase, encourages repeat visitation and prolonged length of stay. From economic standpoint, it provides job opportunities and ideally should spread the benefits among the population and increase tourism revenue.

Enhancement of tourism offer	Studies show that rather than just going on a sightseeing tour and sitting on the beach all day, tourists often search for more intense and energetic experiences like parties or concerts. They would rather choose to go on a vacation to a more entertaining area to have fun and enjoy memorable moments away from their busy schedule rather than ending up on another stressful journey.
For education	Entertainment also serves as a form of education to the emerging generation. With increasing number of people engaged in immigration, many people send their children to their countries of origin to learn the culture and familiarise with their parents' motherland. Thus, there has been an increased quest by tourists for entertainment outside their immediate living environment.

Source: Authors

To understand the relationship between entertainment and tourist future visitation plan, RQ3 was formulated. Primary and secondary data were jointly analysed to elucidate whether entertainment in the tourism product influence tourists' decision for future visitation. The survey reveals that majority of tourists (87%) has intention to visit Mauritius mainly for beach entertainment. The following statements from European and South African tourists support:

“We are here just for the beach and water sports. There is no sea like in Mauritius elsewhere”

“Deep sea fishing, snorkelling and scuba is all I want to do in Mauritius. If I have time, I see the other things”

Previous studies (see for example Kotler *et al*, 2006; Gummesson 2000; Pearce, 2011) have shown that tourist relies on experiences in any destination they visit in order to have a lasting impression, which also determines their recommendation and visit to the destination

again. Likewise, the actual study reports that 68% of tourists agree to come back for entertainment and they are willing to recommend Mauritius to friends and relatives as they are happy with the variety of entertainments available on the island. The quality of entertainment is therefore significant for tourists in formation of their destination experience (Beerli and Martin, 2004; Dwyer *et al*, 2004; Smith, 1994). Qualitative data generated from the interviews show that entertainment will become an important source for attracting the tourists for visiting on short term and will be more useful in retaining them for longer period. This observation reconciles with the findings of Nallathiga (2006) and Swarbrooke (2003, p.3) who also observe that entertainments are value-added element to existing tourism resources. In the context of Mauritius, much money is invested in foreign fairs, marketing programmes, brochures, media and celebrity advertisement. But, not much attention is given on enhancing the existing tourism product to be presented in the package. For instance, places like La Nicoliere Reservoir, Chateau de Ville Bague, Chamarel village, Fort Adelaide, Martello Tower, Millennium Monuments, Photography Museum, Postal Museum, Frederik Henrik Museum, Balaclava ruins *inter alia* have tourism potential but they are not attractive enough as they lack entertainment and are not appropriately utilised.

Evolution of Mauritian Tourism Entertainments

RQs 4 and 5 were formulated to appreciate how entertainment evolved in the Mauritian tourism sector. Qualitative findings derived from semi-structured interviews were mainly utilised. It was found that since the start of the tourism industry (late 1960s), Mauritius has specifically capitalised on its sea, sun and sand to market its tourism product. While this model has been persisting, history shows that the island has gone through various stages of tourism development namely:

Phase 1 – 1960s - Sea, sand and sand with some sight-seeing;

Phase 2 – 1980s - Hotel and infrastructure development; culture and heritage attractions used as entertainment;

Phase 3 – 1990s onwards - Technological development with entertainment defined from the point of view savvy tourists;

During the early years, along with the sea, sun and sand product, the only entertainment available was the traditional “Sega Dance” with typical instruments like the “ravanne”, “maravanne”, “tambour ek triangle” and this was performed around the fire and on beaches. The “Bal Zaricot”, an evening dancing party was also popular and entertainment like “Sugar Time” a singing contest was organized by the Sugar State in every region of the island. The horserace on Sundays was also popular while coastal entertainment like regatta (sailing boat racing) was utilised in tourism. In-door games such as bingo, domino, cards were utilised by hotels. Telebox and Jukebox was another type of leisure utilised for tourists in hotels. Activities like badminton, tennis, petanque, football were organised mainly in hotels along with traditional ‘sega’ shows and some sport such as beach volley, ‘pedalo’ (a boat with pedals) and some other water sports. Another entertainment was the “cinema mobile” which came in different parts of the island especially on football ground most of the time. Fancy fair was another big event where many activities were proposed as well as a musical shows presented by the locals themselves. Natural entertainments were mainly Pamplemousses Garden, the Naval Museum at Mahebourg. Entertainment also took a religious turn as pilgrimage to Père Laval at Sainte Croix and Grand Bassin became popular attractions. After few years of existence (in the early 1980s), more hotels were built and the hotels introduced modern cultural shows on weekends. Night groups were hired to perform different kinds of cultural dance, songs. With the growing demand of entertainment, many

hotels incorporated an entertainment department within their organization. Moreover, cultural festivals like Diwali, Chinese festivals were also increasingly being utilised as entertainment to attract tourists. Today, the entertainment landscape has completely changed in the tourism context. The tourism industry has to face a new form of savvy and knowledge tourists having different expectations. Content analysis of brochures, websites as well as interviews from Government officers and entertainment providers has helped to consolidate a database on the evolution of entertainment in the Mauritian Tourism sector. Table 6 condenses the findings and illustrate the evolution of entertainment in tourism.

TABLE 6

Evolution of Tourism Entertainment in Mauritius

Period	Types of entertainment utilised by Tourism Industry	Remarks
Year 1968-1978 The introduction phase of entertainment in tourism	Sega	Typical and authentic Sega singing and dancing by locals and using instruments like ravanne, maravanne made of wood, bottles, bamboo shoot, beads and iron rod triangle. Usually performed on beaches and round a fire.
	Regatta	Competition of sailing boat which was mostly practised by the locals and proposed to tourists.
	Pilgrimage	Religious walk to Father Laval Tomb at St Croix
	Horse Race	Entertainment for the pleasure of watching horse running
	Fishing	Fishing with fishing rod
	Nature	SSR Botanical Garden visited mostly for its green area with endemic plants.
	Casinos and social games	Small casino only in cities; social games such as bingo, domino, cards for adults
	Typical water-based activities like boating, sailing, surfing, snorkelling, kayaking, parasailing	Mainly for rich people; snorkelling done with tube.
Cultural shows	Small shows and story telling in different areas	

		of the island
Year 1979-1989 The development phase of entertainment in tourism	Sega	Artist start singing in hotels and private business of entertainment from artists; more instruments are utilised giving Sega a different dimension
	Regatta	Included and offered in tourism packages
	Pilgrimage	People from Reunion Island come to Mauritius for Père Laval
	Horse Race	Became popular for family get-together and tourists joining
	Fishing	Proposed to tourists by hotels, and travel trade
	Nature	SSR Botanical garden still visited for its endemic and exotic plants and historical connotation; other gardens and natural areas like Plaine Champagne and Les Gorges are included in tourism package
	Casinos and social games	The number of casinos increases and social games replaced by games like Karrom, Petangue, juke box
	Kayaking, snorkelling, surfing, parasailing, water skiing, undersea walk	Water-based activities become more diversified and popular in tourism packages
	Big game fishing	Big game fishing was found more interesting than fishing rod.
	Cultural shows	The shows was extended to more regions
Year 1990-2000 The commercialisation phase of entertainment in tourism	Night Club	Limited night clubs and routine entertainment like music and dancing
	Sega	Sega become staged and different costumes are utilised; songs are mixed with other cultures.
	Regatta	The activity lost its appeal and practised only yearly at Mahebourg
	Pilgrimage	More tourists from other countries come for Père Laval and Grand- Bassin
	Horse Race	It becomes more a betting game.
	Fishing	Tourists interested mainly in big game fishing
	Nature	More tourists visit the Botanical Garden for the plants as well as other green areas of the island; More natural areas are included in tourism package and guavas plucking entertain tourists and visitors
	Casinos and Social games	More casinos were created to meet the need of the tourists; social games disappeared and replaced by computer games
Water-based activities like kayaking,	Conducted with more professional equipment was provided; Famous and heavily marketed in tourism package	

	snorkelling, undersea walk, sub-marine, scuba diving	
	Cultural shows	Chinese festival, Indian cultural festival , Festival Creole utilised in tourism package to attract tourists
	Big Game fishing and dolphin watching	Deep sea fishing conducted with technological sophistication; dolphin watching offered in tourism package
	Night clubs	More nightclubs with shows and adult entertainment became popular
	Speed boat trip	Boats used as shuttle and also to visit water falls and islets
	Banana boat rides	An amusing activity introduced to entertain tourist.
	Safari, adventure park, green park, water park	With the shift from sugar cane industry to tourism industry, many sugar factory owners develop their land for tourism and convert into parks
	Jet ski, Tyrolienne, quad, canyoning surfing/ Wind surfing/Parasailing	Developed mainly for tourism and of high demand from tourists
	Golf	Only few courses and restricted mostly to tourist with high income.
	Dolphin watching	Very much utilised in tourism package, but expensive and over exploited.
Year 2001-2010 The consolidation phase of entertainment in tourism	Sega	It is modernized with sophisticated musical instruments and lose its authenticity.
	Regatta	It is revived to bring authenticity and diversify existing tourism product.
	Pilgrimage	Tourists still come for Pere Laval and Grand Bassin.
	Horse Race	Tourists more interested in betting and gambling
	Fishing	Tourists interested mainly in big game fishing and not traditional fishing; converted to competitions to render activity more challenging and appealing
	Nature	SSR Botanical Garden ;fewer tourists visit the garden, having an entrance to pay; no more attractive with mismanagement of garden and resources; agricultural areas converted into park like Park Aventure, Domaine des Etoiles etc Guava plucking is rare due to over exploitation of the activity in the previous

		decade. Locals pluck guavas and sell with chilly and salt.
	Casinos	Big Casinos constructed to serve tourism industry and gaming legalised
	Cultural shows	Capitalised to attract tourists including hosting of Award ceremony, live musical shows from celebrities, concerts, food and gastronomy, fairs, utilised in the tourism offer
	Water- based activities like water ski, undersea walk, kayaking, snorkelling, surfing, wind surfing, parasailing, water ski, submarine, scuba	With technology, more sophisticated equipment was used. Tourists do continue to demand for this type of product along with typical sea, sun and sand
	Night club	Night clubs with more facilities and supported by technological advances
	Speed boat rides, banana boat rides, catamaran cruises	Utilised in hotel and travel trade packages and by individual operators to diversify
	Safari and golf	Did not have a big success as Mauritius cannot compete with the safari of Africa.; more golf course and tourists from different income could afford.
	Dolphin watching	Over-utilisation and too much concentration on that activity which result to the deterioration of the eco-system
	Jet ski	Tourists still enjoyed as they like the speed.
	Sports events and competition like Jeux des Iles	Increasingly utilised to promote tourism
	Shopping	24/7 is a new concept of whole night shopping while having live entertainment but the facilities were limited
	Helicopter Tours	Air experience developed to enhance tourism experiences and mostly relevant to tourist of high income
	Canyoning, Zipline, Via Ferrata	Growing demand by tourists of younger generations
	Sight seeing	Islets, gardens, nature, adventure parks developed for tourism
Year 2011-onwards	Culture	Sega - artists realise that sega has lost its real identity and has got commoditised. They seek help from authority; sega is mixed with

The revamping phase of entertainment in tourism		African, European, Indian dances and song; traditional musical instruments cannot be played by new generations; cultural shows are mostly staged with help of foreigners; Award ceremonies, musical shows, concerts; cultural festivals used to attract tourists; gastronomy, food festivals, market, fairs. For example, Carnival at Flic en Flac utilised to enhance tourism products but not appreciated by all locals due to loss of business opportunities.
	Regatta	Is being re-considered for authenticity
	Pilgrimage	Mainly developed for Grand Bassin and Father Laval pilgrimage
	Fishing	Tourists mainly interested in big game fishing and many competitions organized and technological tool affect marine life
	Nature	A variety of parks developed for tourists; eco-lodges are expensive and fewer tourists visit the SSR Garden, having an entrance to pay; Les Gorges and natural areas are still being used in tourism package, but tourist are more demanding and look for more activities like canyoning, zip lining etc
	Casinos and gambling	Big casinos constructed in tourism areas and cities ; horse racing is mostly for betting and gambling
	Sea activities like kayaking, snorkelling, surfing, wind surfing, parasailing, water ski, undersea walk, dolphin watch, submarine activities, scuba	With technology, more sophisticated equipment is proposed by entertainment providers to conduct these activities; beach erosion, marine life disturbance.
	MICE	Exhibitions, Conference utilised to attract tourists; management leaders are invited for corporate, locals and tourists
	Night club	The increasing night clubs and bars created a lively nightlife especially in Grand Bay. More adult entertainment incorporated and this has a sex tourism connotation
	Speed boat rides, banana rides , catamaran cruises and dolphin watching	Of high demand and there is exploitation and overuse affecting the marine life; destruction of marine life like Blue Bay; alienation of dolphin from Mauritian lagoon
	Safari and	Not so many tourists can afford and limited as

	helicopter tours	there is only few places where helicopter can land.
	Sports Event and competition	These allow athletes from other countries to discover the island while doing their favorite sport and still being capitalised upon for boasting tourist arrival
	Shopping	24/7 continues to be organised but not too successful; opening of malls like Bagatelle, Cascavelle, la Croisette utilised in tourism offer but with occasional entertainment
	Heritage sites	World Heritage Sites, historical monuments, museums are developed for tourism, but lacks entertainment elements. Thus, places like Fort Adelaide, Tour Martello, Balaclava , Le Morne, Pte Canon, Donjon St Louis, Balaclava ruins are rarely visited
	New forms of Entertainment	Themed wedding is increasingly being promoted as a new form of entertainment for young couples and buzy, but rich people. Technology-based entertainment are also included like 3D, 4D movies, theatres, entertainment machines

Source: Authors

Table 6 illustrates the various phases of entertainment development in the tourism sector in Mauritius. It is found that throughout the decades, the tourism market and demand from tourists have changed and technology-savvy tourists prefer new forms of entertainment. Traditional games and Sega are still being revived but they are not successful. For instance, the traditional instruments utilized for the Sega are not compatible with hotels' setting. Many times, the acoustic and music arrangement at hotels are not able to accommodate Sega dance due to lack of traditional back-drop and Sega cannot be performed round the fire due to ecology concern. Traditional fishing can no longer take place due to sustainability issues; Pamplemousses Garden no longer has the same giant water lilies that once attracted the tourists and has nothing to offer than few endemic trees, a couple of deer and old monuments; Chamarel 7-coloured earth has restrictions due to over-collection of its colored earth for

souvenirs and commercialization. The ‘new’ post millennium tourists are busy and have different expectations; they have limited time and they want to enjoy quality holiday with possibilities of choosing over variety of entertainment. Given that they are exposed to virtual tours and other technological tools, they are often faced with a very rich choice of entertainment offered by the destination. Thus, the quality of entertainment promoted by Mauritius can impact on tourist experience. This also confirms the findings of earlier studies that tourists come to Mauritius for the sea (Gowreesunkar and Rycha, 2014; Prayag et al 2010; Ramchurn, 2011)

Entertainment Potential for the Mauritian Tourism Product

RQ6 was formulated to understand the most promising forms of tourism entertainment in Mauritius, and upon which the island can capitalise upon. Findings reveal that tourists were particularly fond of beach activities (87%) as compared to the other forms of entertainment (cultural shows, heritage sites, excursion, night life, concert, thrill activities, nature). The following statements represent some of the views of European tourists:

“We come to Mauritius for its sea and we want to spend all our time with what sea offers to us in terms of activities; nature and culture we have the best in Europe”

“I am not the active type; I cannot jump, walk or dance; I come to Mauritius just for beach and all the activities that boathouse gives at the hotel”.

The island of Mauritius is predominantly a beach destination. Besides the sea, sun sand, Mauritius is endowed with a vast amount of sea front and has also a good number of natural lakes. Nordic countries have set examples of how water-based activities with

integrated facilities and entertainment can be effectively utilised to enhance tourism. For instance, development of coastal fronts with parks and recreational grounds in front of the sea; in Europe and Asia Pacific lakes areas are converted into picnic sites for tourists. In so doing, the ecology and natural beauty are conserved. Mauritius can also learn from these experiences and capitalise on lakes like Bassin Blanc, la Nicoliere, Piton du Milieu, Midlands Dam and re-work upon less popular sea front like Sable Noir, Butte a l'Herbe, Poudre d'Or, La Marre La Raie. The development of entertainments like boat riding, motor boat racing, power boat racing, and construction of promenades might further enhance those tourism-potential sites. The usage of islets (small islands around Mauritius) can also be considered for future tourism potential. A study conducted by Gowreesunkar *et al* (2013) show that islets like Ile aux Bernaches and Ile aux Margenies have potential for tourism entertainment and these can be tapped for tourism. Additional water-based activities (like banana ride, boat ride, snorkelling, diving, fishing) might be included in the islet offer. Furthermore, water trip is cost-effective, eco-friendly and entertaining. Entertainment providers with consultation with the authorities and marine expert might capitalise on ferries for promenades; Mauritius might be visited from water ride rather than from land ride.

Interviews from tourism officers show that new forms of entertainment like shopping and exhibitions are emerging markets. Interview from MOTL Officers supports:

“Tourists are smart. They do not want to spend on transport. Instead of hiring a taxi and pay big money to see that the island has to offer, they prefer spend a whole day at La Croisette which has everything”

With the development of shopping centres like Grand Bay La Croisette, Bagatelle, Cascavelle, Ruisseau Creole, the tourists are more interested in shopping as these are

combined with other activities like sales and promotion, fashion shows, cultural shows, painting competitions, art exhibitions etc. Therefore, tourists use the shopping mall as a one-stop-shop and opine that it is more cost effective, if along with shopping, they benefit from free shows and other local entertainment. The happy hours concept which comprise discounted offers are also potential platforms for tourism entertainment. The concept of '24/7' shopping as introduced in 2009 might be organised more regularly to give shopping mall and local entrepreneurs more opportunities to exhibit and sell their products. Findings reveal that post millennium tourists have different expectations. Even island destinations (example Seychelles, Maldives) that are well established are diversifying their tourism development with a variety of entertainment adapted for the savvy tourists. The demands are more specific; tourists look for themed wedding, quality all-in-one entertainment. According to Adeboye (2012), hotel animation is an increasingly important element of tourism package today. Hotels and entertainment providers may regroup themselves in partnership and earmark specific events to be sold as package to the tourists, for instance, Creole night at Hotel X, Indian night at Hotel Y, Chinese night at Hotel Z. This type of partnership is a win-win situation for both hotel and tourists as costs, resources and revenue are shared.

The post millennium shows a paradigm shift in the tourism landscape. Demands for exhibition and live entertainment are also popular among busy tourists who indulge in tourism for escapism from routine work and stress and who have limited time. Exhibitions like Salon du Livre, Salon de la Sante, Indo-Mauritian trade fairs at Mer Rouge, or Swami Vivekananda centre continue to attract an international audience. Live entertainment is found to be highly demanded by young tourists. For instance, authentic cultural shows like the 'Reggae Don Sa', could be integrated in mega event instead of giving opportunities to foreign celebrities only. The findings have revealed that many tourists also choose Mauritius

to participate in concert and talks. For instance, the Swami Vivekananda has attracted various tourists for management leaders talks like Shiv Khera, Robin Sharma and Kotler. Moreover, tourists also enjoy the award Ceremonies and celebrity shows organised in Mauritius. Organising sporting events like the World Cup, football games, inter-island sports competition are also potential platform for tourism. South African is a recent example. Athletes are always interested to indulge in some forms of tourism during their sport trip. Mixed findings indicate that the new tourists are now health conscious and they are ready to invest in their health. Tourists are interested in Thalasso therapy, rejuvenation of their body (hair plantation, plastic surgery) and mind (yoga, meditation). The hospitality sector can tap on this type of market by diversifying their existing products and this aligns with the government vision of making Mauritius a medical tourism hub. Moreover, some tourists were also found to be interested in spiritual benefit. Interviews form officers also confirmed that aging tourists demanded lots of spiritual product like yoga, meditation, spiritual talk participation. As Europe has always been the major markets, hospitality sector should work in conjunction with entertainment providers and the tourism regulators to work on the emerging trends of tourism in Mauritius.

Mixed findings show that Mauritius is too small to accommodate theme parks as existing water-park which has set bad example due to lack of safety and security. But, Mauritius can capitalise on its two UNESCO World Heritage Sites and enhance those sites by developing small entrepreneurs shop, local food outlet and cultural shows. For instance, heritage sites like La Citadelle, Fort Adelaide, Donjon St Louis, Martello Tower, as operand resources could be enhanced by operand resources like music, shows and documentary films. Heritage and culture are important ingredients of the society, existing in the natural and built form, that can be used as an important aspect of city's tourism development as well as

promoting entertainment production and services. But it will take a long time to shift away and give a breathing space to sea sun and sand and develop Mauritius into an entertainment-based tourist destination. However, the need for having such vision for the development of Modern Mauritius is vital if the island wants to be a leading sustainable island destination in the region. The Tripartite Model for Tourists' Destination Experience (TMTDE) as interpreted in the work of Loi (2009) shows that tourists continuously evaluate the existing entertainment facilities and provide feedback on how they could be improved. This model, if applied locally, will help to better understand how to improve existing entertainment offered by Mauritian tourism.

CONCLUSION

The study of entertainment in tourism is important for Mauritius as it explores a concept that has not received enough attention. Mauritius, as a small island, is limited in terms of its natural and cultural resources. In the process of using and re-using the same tourism resources to market the destination, the Mauritian tourism product becomes less attractive and routine in the eyes of savvy tourists in the long run. General findings show that in most cases, the types of entertainment offered are basic motivators to select a tourism destination and sea, sun, sand and beach activities are the preferred forms of entertainment for Mauritius. Despite the green tendency worldwide, it is found that Mauritius is not chosen for its green entertainment and thus, the green model might not be too workable. While the private and public sector in Mauritius have invested lots of effort in green products, this is not really the Unique Selling Point (USP) of Mauritius, as destinations like India, Europe, and Greece have better green options. The present study has been able to meet its overarching aim of understanding the role of entertainment in the Mauritian tourism sector. The study further shows that the field of entertainment has undergone a paradigm shift and has evolved in form

and context. In conclusion, it could be deduced that the entertainment sector has gradually become an important force in the Mauritian tourism sector and the synchronization of the entertainment sector and the tourism industry might help to boost up both industries. The study is particularly relevant as it gives information on existing entertainment that needs improvement and reveals the preference of visitors and provides meaningful information on how it can be utilised to market the island and enhance its image. Further, the study provides practical information on the preferred entertainments of tourists who are planning to choose Mauritius as their future destination. The findings ultimately benefit tourism marketers by providing valuable information on the forms of entertainment to be integrated while designing tourism packages. This study adds to the existing body of knowledge in that it gives an insight on the evolution of the different types of entertainment that have developed in the Mauritian tourism context. The study suggests its applicability to other tourism destinations having similar resources and facing similar challenges. Future research might consider a larger sample and may ambitiously consider comparison of entertainment element among small islands of the surrounding regions.

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APPENDIX A

Tourist Questionnaire

Questionnaire No.

Survey on the Importance of Entertainment in the Mauritian Tourism Product

Instructions for respondents

Your participation in this survey will help to gain an understanding on the importance you accord to entertainment while choosing your tourism destination.

The questionnaire takes about 15 minutes to complete. The information provided for this survey will be treated in confidentiality and we give assurance that data obtained will be solely utilized for the purpose stated above.

We thank you for your collaboration, availing ourselves on the contact details below:

Dr Vanessa G Gowreesunkar
University of Technology, Mauritius, La Tour Koenig
Pte aux Sables
Phone No: 234 7624, 234 6535

1. Which country do you come from?

.....

.....

2. Age Group

16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	51-55	56-60	More than 61
<input type="checkbox"/>								

3. How did you hear about Mauritius?

<input type="checkbox"/>	Recommended by friends or relatives
<input type="checkbox"/>	Tourism trade fair
<input type="checkbox"/>	Internet
<input type="checkbox"/>	Travel agency
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other

4. Reasons why you chose to come to Mauritius

<input type="checkbox"/>	Entertainment
<input type="checkbox"/>	Nightlife
<input type="checkbox"/>	Cultural festivals
<input type="checkbox"/>	Water Sports
<input type="checkbox"/>	Inland sport
<input type="checkbox"/>	Big thrills
<input type="checkbox"/>	Diving
<input type="checkbox"/>	Hiking
<input type="checkbox"/>	Nature activities
<input type="checkbox"/>	Others _____

5. (i) What is your perception about entertainment?

.....

(ii) How important is entertainment while you choose your destination?.....

.....

6. How would you rate your level of satisfaction to what Mauritius has to offer?

	very unsatisfied	unsatisfied	none	satisfied	Very satisfied
live entertainment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
parks and green areas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
child entertainment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Historical-cultural heritage	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Safety of entertainment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Cultural shows	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Animation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Water Sports	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Inland sports	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sailing offer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Excursion offer	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Quality-price ration	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. What are the entertainments that Mauritius offers better than others?

8. Did you discover new entertainment during your stay?

Yes (if yes, mention) _____

No

9. How do you search for a tourism destination?

10. How far do you agree to the following statements?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	None	Agree	Strongly agree
There has been a constant progress of leisure throughout the years.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The entertainers of the different entertainments are professional.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Technology contributes a lot in the evolution of entertainment.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
There is a wide choice of entertainment being proposed now.	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Entertainments are important for pleasant holidays.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Leisure activities are a significant factor which influences the destination's choice.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. Would you visit Mauritius again for its entertainment within the coming 5 years?

Yes No (go to question 14) I don't know (go to question 13)

12. What would be your aim for your next holiday to Mauritius?

- Safari
- Festivals such as "festival Kreol"
- Nightlife
- Concert

- Canyoning, via ferrata, ziplines
- Cultural rituals
- Water Sport
- Inland sport
- ‘A nou ale lamer’
- Regate
- Big thrills activities
- Others _____

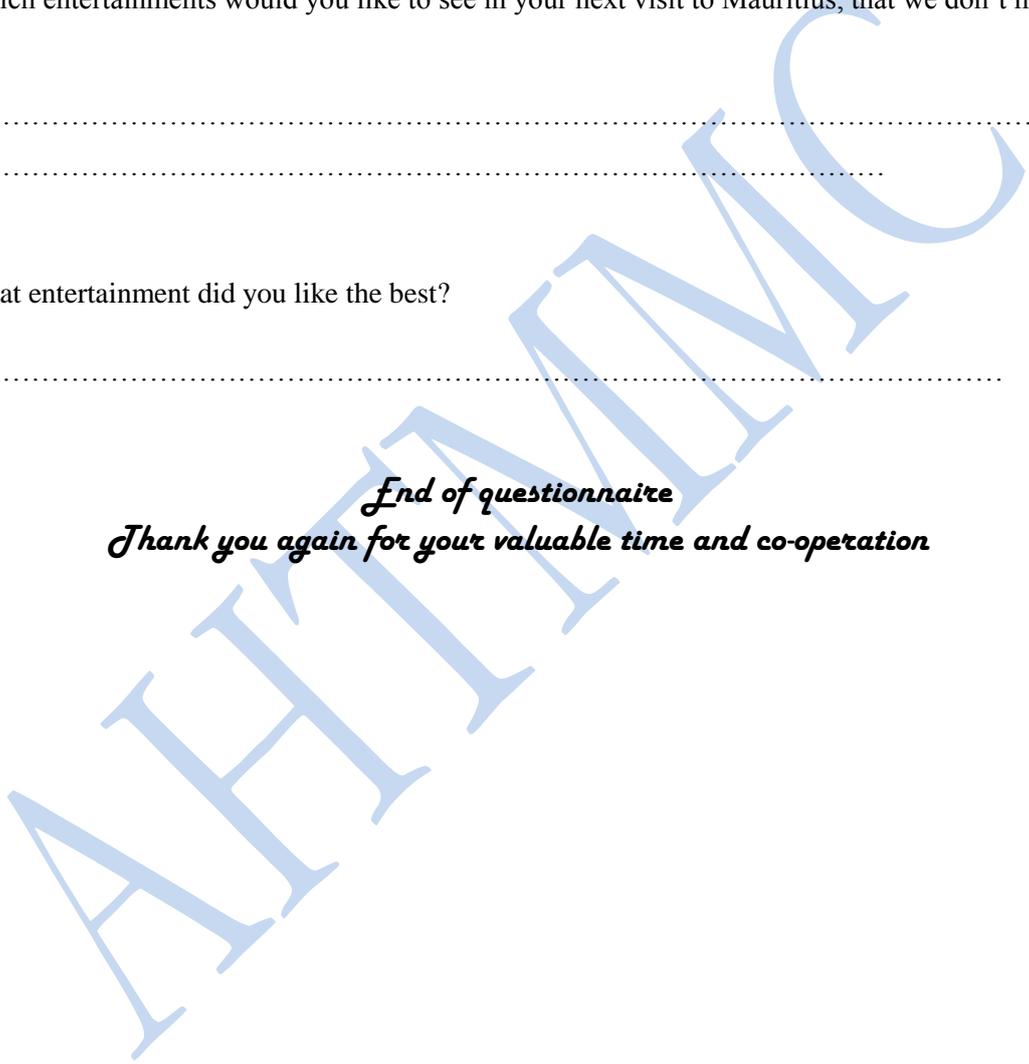
13. Which entertainments would you like to see in your next visit to Mauritius, that we don't have yet?

.....
.....

14. What entertainment did you like the best?

.....

End of questionnaire
Thank you again for your valuable time and co-operation



APPENDIX B

Consent Form

Dr Vanessa GB Gowreesunkar,
Lecturer/Researcher
School of Sustainable Development and Tourism,
University of Technology, Mauritius
Pointe aux Sables.

Semi-Structured Interview on Entertainment in the Mauritian Tourism Product.

I hereby agree to an interview on the above mentioned subject.

I will be available on _____ at _____

Title _____

Organisation: _____

Full Name _____

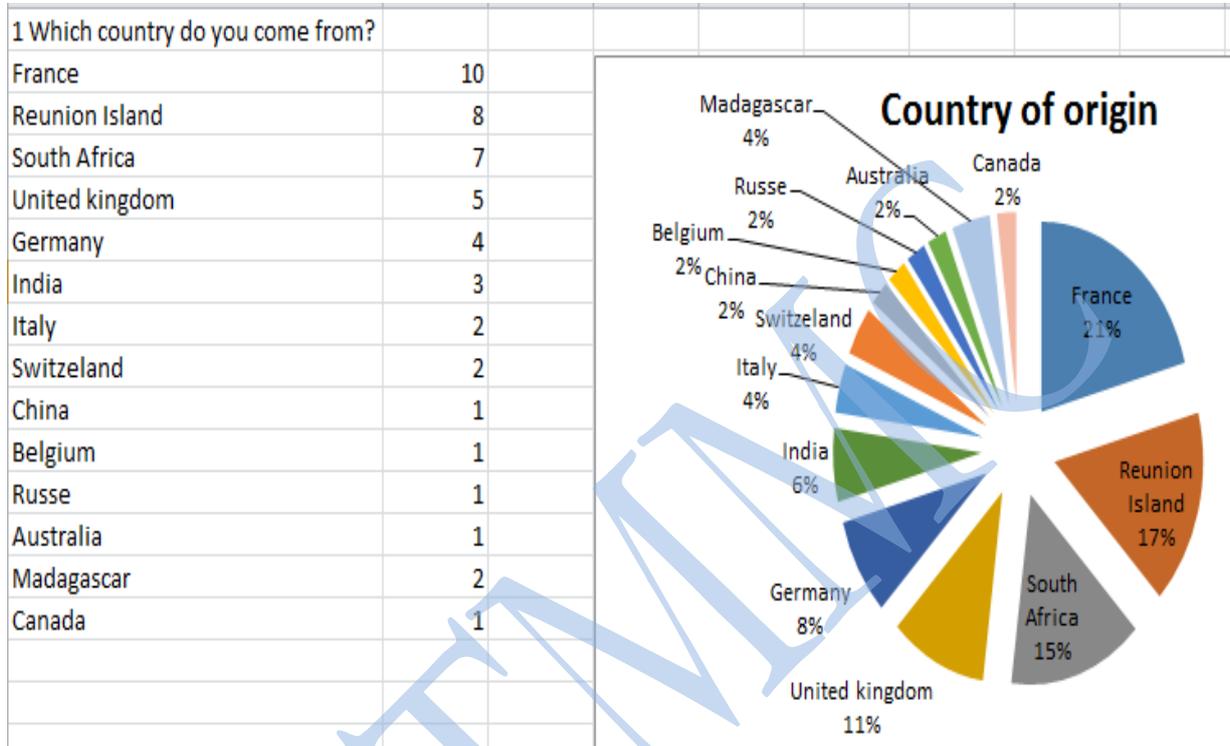
Telephone Numbers: _____

Yours faithfully,

Signature:.....

APPENDIX C

Tourist Country of Residence



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APPENDIX D

Interview Questions

How do you describe entertainment in the tourism context?

Do you think that entertainment is important element in the tourism offer?

Do you think that tourists consider entertainment when making a purchase decision?

What are the most popular forms of entertainment available on the island?

What are the major changes in the entertainment sector since the last few decades?

What are the most promising forms of entertainment for the future?

Which areas of entertainment need improvement?

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Gaitree (Vanessa) Gowreesunkar has undertaken her PhD in Tourism Destination Management and Marketing, a merit scholarship based on her outstanding academic achievement. She was awarded a second scholarship by the University Grants Commission (India) to pursue her PhD related researches at the University of Delhi. Presently, Gaitree is a full time lecturer in the field of tourism marketing, tourism management and communication at the University of Technology (Mauritius). She is the chairperson of the research cell at ANPRAS (www.anpras.org) and is involved in various local tourism projects. Her research interest relates to island tourism, tourism management, tourism marketing and island tourism

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Professor Chris Cooper is Pro-Vice Chancellor and Dean of the Business School at Oxford Brookes University, UK. He has more than twenty-five years experience in the tourism sector and has worked as a researcher and teacher in every region of the world. He held the Chair of the UNWTO's Education Council from 2005 – 2007 and was awarded the UN Ulysses Medal for contributions to tourism education and policy in 2009. He has authored a number of leading textbooks in tourism and is the co-series editor of Channelview's influential book series '*Aspects of Tourism*' and series editor of Goodfellows Publisher's *Contemporary Tourism Reviews*.

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UNDERTAKING

This is to certify that the paper entitled “*The Role of Entertainment in Tourism: Mauritius as Case Study*”, has not been published elsewhere and that it has not been submitted simultaneously for publication elsewhere.



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Tourism Policies and Planning in Santiago de Compostela (Spain).

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ABSTRACT

Santiago de Compostela is a small city of about 100,000 inhabitants in the northwest of Spain. Its international visibility is mainly related to one of the most influential Apostles in the life of Jesus Christ, as his body is buried in the cathedral of Santiago. Throughout time, Santiago has been endowed with various tools of tourism management that are exemplary for historical cities. The undoubted success obtained in the Spanish market was reinforced by foreign market segments; mainly pilgrims. All the improvements were guided by a well-designed roadmap combining a significant in promotion and planning effort. However, public policies and tourism planning have generated some problems that pose a real challenge for the future management of this activity and even of the city. In this paper, we will consider the tourism politics implemented in the city during recent years as well as their consequences for regional development. We will focus our discussion on existing challenges, many of which

arise or are reinforced by the measures implemented during recent decades, that require effective answers to safeguard the city's tourism competitiveness.

KEYWORDS Santiago de Compostela (WHS), Tourism Policies, Tourism Planning, Management of the Historic City

INTRODUCTION

Santiago de Compostela is a small city in the northwest of Spain, with around 100,000 inhabitants spread across the municipal area and some 250,000 in the city itself. Despite its modest size it plays an important role as administrative capital of the region of Galicia; it also serves as the main development hub for the area due to its location more or less equidistant between the two cities that drive the local economy, A Coruña and Vigo. In addition to this, the city is internationally famous as the final destination of one of Europe's most popular pilgrimage routes.

In fact, since the Middle Ages, Santiago de Compostela has played a major part in European history, although its significance has grown and diminished at various times over the centuries. Its origins can be traced back to the 9th century when the remains of the Apostle St. James (known in Spain as Santiago el Mayor) were discovered and authenticated. James was one of Jesus's closest disciples and according to tradition he had been travelling around these westerly lands at "the end of the earth". Based on strictly religious and other more geopolitical considerations (Barreiro Rivas, 2009) a major pilgrimage movement emerged, reaching its heyday in the 12th and 13th centuries. The roads to Santiago helped consolidate Christian Europe and spread cultural ideas and trends.

The splitting up of Christianity in the 16th century and religious wars, amongst other things, pushed Santiago into the background during most of the Modern and Contemporary

era. From the second half of the 19th century pilgrimage experienced something of a resurgence (EsteveSecall, 2002) with its greatest exponent being the Lourdes visions (France). The Church had lost a great deal of its institutional power and needed new ways of stimulating a community undergoing profound social change into rediscovering its faith. Against this backdrop, the figure of the Apostle James (Santiago) made a reappearance, after his body had been missing since the 16th century.

The resurgence of pilgrimages to Santiago happened very gradually. Throughout the 20th century the church at Santiago de Compostela began to set up initiatives aimed at reinstating the tradition of making a pilgrimage to the tomb of St. James. The Franco dictatorship (1939-1975) appropriated the figure of the Apostle as a symbol of the unity of Spain and its Christian status. This also entailed some intense promotion of the pilgrimage movement, which at first had purely religious connotations (Rodríguez, 2004; SantosSolla, 2006). However, rapid tourist growth in Spain meant that pilgrimage inevitably started to take on all kinds of aspects related to tourism, especially from 1965 onwards. This was helped by the promotion of the city's historic monuments, building new hotels with public money and the cultural programme of events that accompanied the marking of Holy Years (the years when 25 July falls on a Sunday). In fact, Holy Years were used as an excuse for building major infrastructure in the city, such as successive expansion and improvement works in the airport.

Although it is true that from 1965 there were already mass events linked with Holy Years, it was in the 1980s that pilgrimages and the city of Santiago really started to become popular. The enlargement process taking place in the EU, which Spain joined in 1986, together with other circumstances such as the involvement of Pope John Paul II, helped to promote pilgrimage and reinvent the city of Santiago. This meant that the city could once again start concentrating on preserving its historic centre following several decades

(particularly the 70s) of disastrous town planning (Lois González, 1999). Some significant milestones in this new era included the historic city being listed as a World Heritage Site by UNESCO in 1985, a recognition also awarded to the Spanish-French route in 1993. The latter was also proclaimed the first European Cultural Itinerary in 1987. Papal visits in 1982 and 1989 put Santiago back on the world stage as a holy city.

These events bring us to 1993, which was the first Holy Year to record mass pilgrimages along traditional routes once again. Unlike what had been happening previously, the rituals and historic pilgrimage routes were now starting to gain appeal, and the phenomenon was no longer confined to the Holy Years. The impact on tourism was really spectacular and not just in terms of the arrival of increasingly larger numbers of pilgrims. While this was happening, Santiago was consolidating its position as a cultural destination in which international tourism was gaining greater importance year after year.

Santiago's status as a major tourist destination is by no means a coincidence. It is partly due to the recovery of the traditional pilgrimage to the tomb of St. James. But it is also due to the measures arising from tourism action, managed using professional criteria and with a strong ambition of continuing to attract new market segments. In addition to this, a series of urban policies reinforced the leading role played by the historic city while they also tried to plan for growth that was subject to major interests and a great deal of pressure.

METHODOLOGY

This study combines the literature reviews of planning documents approved in Santiago de Compostela with empirical methodology consisting of detailed analysis of the case study: Santiago de Compostela.

Our work analyses the planning documents and action plans that were used to draw up a strategy that attempted to optimize a series of results that can be regarded as excellent in terms of increased tourist flows, a higher quality visitor experience and a more diverse set of services and attractions. Throughout this paper we will be discussing tourism policies applied in the city over recent years and their consequences.

We will be focusing mainly on existing challenges, many of which appear or are reinforced as a result of measures implemented over the last few decades and that required effective responses to ensure the city remained competitive. However, public policy and tourism planning generated a whole series of problems that have presented a real challenge for the future management of this activity and even of the city itself.

We will explain how the results of this long process intertwining tourism and town planning have been uneven, although generally speaking they could be described as positive. The economic crisis affecting the whole of Spain since 2008 has also made itself felt in the city, although we believe that it has not prompted a profound reflection on the role of these two factors (tourism and town planning) in relation to how they could have an impact on lessening the effects of the crisis.

URBAN AND TOURISM POLICIES IN SANTIAGO DE COMPOSTELA

In late 20th century Europe there was already a perceived need for preserving the historic and artistic legacy of cities (Ferrer, 2003). Spain, slightly behind the trend, approved a Heritage Law in 1933. Santiago, together with Toledo, followed the path taken a few years earlier by Córdoba and Granada in seeking protection for their historic centres, and that ended by affecting practically all Spain's monument sites. Signed in 1942 (and officially ratified in 1940) the *Declaración de Conjunto Histórico-Artístico* [Declaration of Historic and Artistic Site] for Santiago de Compostela included the walled historic centre, the streets leading away

from the city and the cloistered complexes on the outskirts. In debates on town planning, the 1964 Venice Charter was an important step forward in safeguarding the entirety of a preindustrial city that had been preserved up to the present day (revaluing popular architecture) compared to taking monuments on an individual basis (2nd International Congress of Architects and Specialists of Historic Buildings, 1964). In this context, theoretical contributions to architecture and town planning such as that of A. Rossi with the *genius loci*, the importance of the place itself (the spirit), serve to support a new reading of the city as a set of unique spaces, where people can live and feel in a special way (Rossi, 1966).

During the Franco dictatorship (1939-1975) the figure of the Apostle and therefore of the city of Santiago de Compostela represented the ultraconservative myth used to underpin national Catholicism. The Apostle St. James justified this ideology, as he was associated with the image of the warrior, fighting alongside Franco's troops and leading them on to their final victory. In this way, St. James became "patron saint of all the Spains" and Franco's government set about the historic monumentalising of the city of Santiago and of some of the major landmarks along the *Camino* (Castro Fernández, 2010; Lois González & Lopez, 2012). The most significant contributions in the Franco era can be summed up by two influential factors in raising Santiago's international profile. First, in the Holy Year of 1954 the old Pilgrims' Hospital was officially reopened as a luxury hotel belonging to the Paradores de España state-owned hotel chain, for the purpose of accommodating distinguished visitors (Castro Fernández & Lois González, 2006). Following on from this, in the 1965 Holy Year, a huge hostel was built for foreign visitors, called Burgode las Naciones (Lois González & Santos Solla, n.d.).

FIGURE 1 Luxury hotel belonging to the Paradores de España: “Hostal de los Reyes Católicos”. Source: Authors.



FIGURE 2 Portal of the luxury hotel: “Hostal de los Reyes Católicos”. Source: Authors.



The industrial crisis of the 1970s resulted in a process of change, delayed in countries such as Spain until the early 1980s when the imminence of the country’s entry into the European Union meant that things had to be speeded up. De-industrialisation was accompanied by a process of tertiarisation in which tourism became increasingly important,

not only in small historic towns in which a lack of diversification led to an extremely fragile local economy, but also in large cities. Urban regeneration was accompanied by new trends such as architectural interventions by prominent architects, the gradual pedestrianisation of city centres, the growing number of parks and green areas, the recovery of old modes of transport such as trams, plus the attention given to the cultural economy in general, which would have major repercussions for tourism.

With the *Ley del Patrimonio Histórico Español* [Law on Spanish Historic Heritage] of 25 June 1985, a new framework was introduced for protecting heritage assets, converting the Town Plan into a legislative instrument for protecting historic city sites. From this moment onwards, the term “rehabilitation” would mean “the minimum intervention required for improving, adapting, making habitable and able to fulfil practically any purpose” (Tomé Fernández, 2007: 77). When, in December 1985, the entire historic city of Santiago de Compostela was proclaimed a World Heritage Site by UNESCO, it became crucial to reinforce the planning approach that was consolidated at the end of that decade by the *Plan Especial de Protección y Rehabilitación de la Ciudad Histórica* [Special Historic City Protection and Rehabilitation Plan].

From the town planning perspective, this sparked the development of a series of planning instruments, and in terms of tourism the city now had access to ministerial plans for creating and consolidating new or mature destinations (promotion and excellence plans) as well as more financial tools for taking its projects to fruition (Santos Solla, n.d.). There was also a need to ascertain the number of monuments in the city and their purpose (Sotelo Pérez, 2012).

Although international recognition rewards efforts to preserve valuable assets from a city’s past and puts the historic centre on the world map of attractive places for a growing trend based on cultural city tourism, it also involves a huge burden of responsibility in terms

of city management. Urban plans and interventions have to preserve the historic city, its architecture and its functions. Urban beauty, monumental integrity and religious importance become the basis for planning operations; new symbolic and representative functions are laid down, for which certain areas are recovered. This actually has a dual effect, as incorporating this symbolic and unique value of the historic centre results in the loss of its original residential and local trading function. Cities in Spain, especially historic cities, put an enormous amount of effort into making tourism a significant factor in their local economies, taking advantage of the tradition of receiving tourists attracted by the universal appeal and value of their monuments (de la Calle Vaquero, 2002).

Another significant event in the decade of the 1980s was the declaration of the *Camino de Santiago* as the First European Cultural Itinerary on 23 October 1987, paving the way for the pilgrimage route to be listed as a World Heritage Site in 1993. This European site, loaded with collective memory, claimed its right to be protected and reinvigorated in its role as contributor to the process of building Europe. The profile of the city of Santiago de Compostela as a World Heritage Site with a pilgrimage route leading into it, started to take shape with a wealth of successful attractions. In terms of public policy, the fundamental value of the historic centre for the city as a whole was recognised, understood as being the area containing the legacy of the city prior to the contemporary era. The profile spoke about the old quarter in more descriptive terms, with greater emphasis on its urban and architectural features (Lois González & Santos Solla, n.d.).

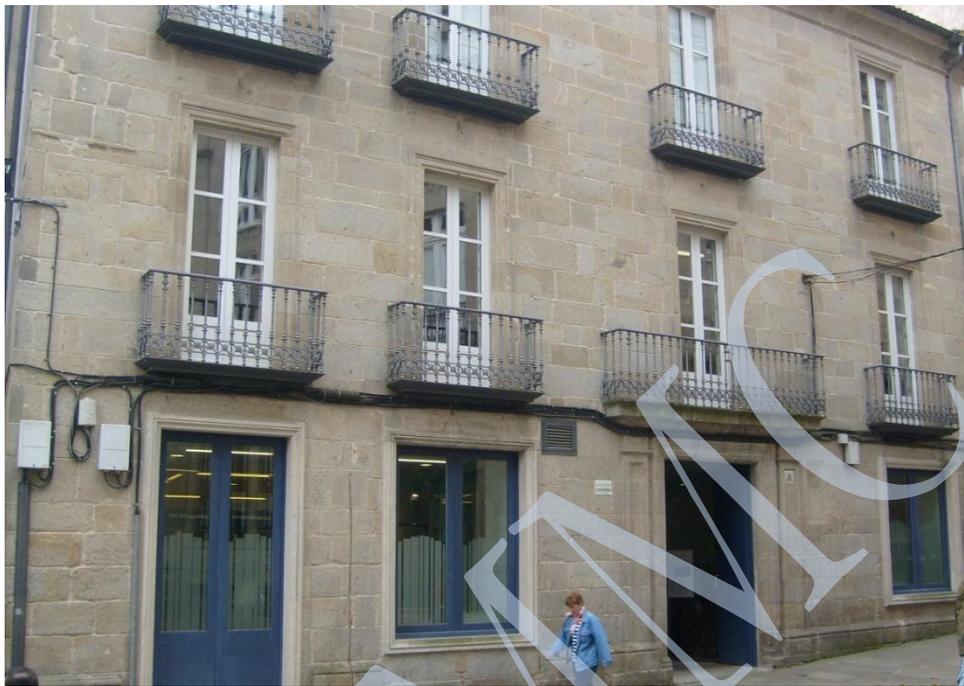
The historic centre, as the expression of the city's uniqueness and its role as guardian of history, was the focus of the first interventions aimed at recovering and preserving its original social functions. The *Plan General de Ordenación Urbanade Santiago* [Santiago General Urban Development Plan] (PGOU) in 1988-89 introduced the need to speed up new building and rehabilitation work in the historic centre, a target that received further attention in the

subsequent *Plan Especial de Protección y Rehabilitación de la Ciudad Histórica* [Special Plan for the Protection and Rehabilitation of the Historic City] (PECH). The main aim of the 1989 PGOU (rewritten with the 2008 text) was to achieve a modern city, equipped with a good set of infrastructures and amenities, socially wellbalanced, with evenly distributed habitability and with good quality planning and architecture (EstévezFernández, 2001).

The *Plan Especial de Protección y Rehabilitación de la Ciudad Histórica de Santiago de Compostela* [Special Plan for the Protection and Rehabilitation of the Historic City of Santiago de Compostela] was approved in 1997. It set out the architectural and landscape features of the historic city, prioritising conservation and recovery of residential use of the historic centre; the consolidation of traditional central functions and their institutional and economic purpose; the protection of built heritage and the urban environment, and improvements to amenities, such as strengthening pedestrian infrastructure (Villanueva, 2013).

The Plan gave prominence to tangible and intangible historic heritage, enabling plans to be made for consolidating and expanding a new type of tourism movement. This resulted in ideas for expanding and improving hotel and hostel infrastructure, promoting cultural, scientific and recreational activities, and for communications and transport (DaldaEscudero, 2007). Special attention was paid to the historic quarter, which recovered its central role, although not all of its classic functions, such as residential, which was still in sharp decline, despite efforts to prevent this from happening. There was also an intention to overcome the excessively conservative image associated with the old city and allow unusual architectural projects to flourish, a move that culminated years later in the city being awarded the status of City of Culture, promoted in this case by the regional government (Santos Solla, n.d.).

FIGURE 3 Historical Building designated to the “International Relation Office” of the University of Santiago de Compostela. Source: Authors.



Policies for rehabilitating, renovating and protecting heritage were the remit of different institutions in each case, but a major role was played by the *Consortio de la Ciudad de Santiago* [Consortium of the City of Santiago]. This body drew together the three levels of public administration (local, regional and state) and since its inception in 1991 it would play a fundamental role in recovering the historic city and in promoting Santiago as a cultural centre. It was within this framework that the *Oficina de Conservación y Rehabilitación* [Office for Conservation and Rehabilitation] was set up in 1994. The Office was the driving force behind ambitious programmes for rehabilitating housing and commercial premises, public spaces and monuments. The work was funded by a series of financial grants, known as *Programas de Ayudas a la Recuperación Urbana de la Ciudad Histórica* [Grant Programmes for the Urban Recovery of the Historic City].

The Holy Year of 1993 marked a milestone in the history of Galicia and of Santiago de Compostela, when the *Camino* became the star product of Galicia and a promotional campaign was set in motion to publicise the “*Plan Xacobeo 93*” (Celeiro, 2013); this was also

followed by other autonomous communities through which the *Camino* passed. It was based on the idea that the *Camino de Santiago* is Galicia's most famous brand and easy to sell on the European and world market. The 1993 Holy Year marked the conversion of both Santiago and the *Camino* into major Spanish tourist destinations and offered the chance to transform Galicia into an international tourist destination: "from the 1993 Holy Year onwards there was a substantial shift: the *Camino de Santiago* became one of Galicia's main cornerstones of development and promotion, showing an appeal that amazed everyone at first" (Santos Solla, 1999: 104).

The historic centre became a major attraction in the city and object of the tourist gaze. This evident interest accentuated the demand for this part of the city to be rehabilitated and renovated. The growing appetite for tourism in the historic centre of Santiago activated a planning process that aimed to put development plans in place for placing what was genuinely monumental, distinctive and cultural at the centre of the tourist experience. Equally important were tourism promotion plans coordinated between public and private, local and/or national agents, with marketing actions strengthening the identity of the destination and creating a brand image.

From 1999, tourism planning was carried out by a municipal company, the new professional body known as *INCOLSA-Turismo de Santiago*, which took over responsibility for managing, planning, structuring, marketing and promoting tourism in the city. With plenty of scope for action, the organisation was market and efficiency led, the same as a modern company. *INCOLSA-Turismo de Santiago* was in charge of managing the *Plan de Excelencia Turística* [Plan for Excellence in Tourism] (PET, 2001-2005) by means of an institutional partnership set up between the Ministry of the Economy (General Secretary for Tourism), the Xunta de Galicia regional government (Department of Social Communication, Culture and Tourism), the *Concello de Santiago* [Santiago City Council], the local Chamber

of Commerce, and Hotel and Restaurant Owners Associations in Santiago and the surrounding area. This Plan was intended to establish the city of Santiago as a focal point for tourism excellence.

The *Plan de Excelencia Turística* [Plan for Excellence in Tourism] (PET) 2001-2005 has been a key tool in the development of tourism, in driving Santiago forward as a tourism destination and in planning for action. This is an objective that was achieved by the drafting of the *Plan de Marketing Estratégico del Turismo* [Strategic Marketing Plan for Tourism] (2002-2005) which focuses on detailing the strategies and the tourist offerings that require development and promotion. The aim of this is to ensure the diversification of the tourist product, by making use of resources and investment in the city, by reducing seasonal variation, by increasing urban cultural value with increased awareness of the available cultural resources and their potential, and by increasing the length of the average stay. This is the purpose of the *Plan de Desestacionalización* [Seasonal Variation Reduction Plan] which is based upon campaigns carried out with the involvement of public and private bodies.

In terms of the diversification of the tourism offering, the Strategic Marketing Plan opts for adding value to particular elements, notably the lively urban scene and the young, university atmosphere. It insists that Santiago is not a “museum city”, but rather a major city that is dynamic and welcoming and it invests in Santiago’s attributes in order to be able to offer a markedly different product through the diversification of the types of tourism available and by providing innovative tourist products. Finally, the Strategic Marketing Plan specifies improved competitiveness as an objective to be achieved by means of quality, with Santiago having been selected in 2001 by the *Sistema Integral de Calidad Turística Española en Destino* [Integrated Quality System for Spanish Tourist Destinations] (SICTED) as one of the eight pilot destinations for the implementation of an *Modelo de Gestión Integral de la Calidad Turística de un Destino* [Integral Management Model for Tourist Destination

Quality]. This system was managed by the *Mesa de Calidad Turística* [Tourism Quality Board], represented by various public and private institutions within the city.

This has served to strengthen Santiago de Compostela as a destination for cultural and city tourism. Cultural tours and pilgrimage routes converge on the city, granting it a semantic and emotional significance (Santos Solla, 2002; Lois González, 2013). There is a progressive rise in a new kind of cultural and city tourism which, whilst not aspiring to become the predominant or most popular type of tourism, is having an impact upon activity as a whole by improving Santiago's experiential offering and the sense of a unique experience from which one can learn whilst at leisure or on holiday (Lois González & Santos Solla, n.d.). This image received a boost in the year 2000 when Santiago was named European Capital of Culture, giving the city new historic status and marking the start of a critical reassessment of its architectural heritage and the twofold task of the redevelopment and conservation of the historic city's shared space (Estévez Fernández, 2001).

The latest *Plan de Turismo de Santiago 2010-2015* [Santiago Tourism Plan 2010-2015] sets out the strengths of tourism in Santiago and the way in which the sector is driving development, supported by increased hotel capacity and a rise in the flow of visiting tourists. However, it is necessary to reposition the city as a broad-ranging destination for cultural tourism and to set new goals for the future. The new Plan analyses the international economic situation and the urban context, warning of some of the problems. One of these relates to day-trippers who spend little but who add to the congestion around the Cathedral and the area surrounding it.

FIGURE 4 "Calle San Francisco": Usual entrance of day-trippers that lead directly to the Cathedral. Source: Authors.



In some areas, the Plan restates issues that were raised in the previous report, such as for example the need to diversify Santiago's city tourism offering and to improve the distribution of visitor flows. One solution would appear to lie in the city's museums, which would also allow Santiago to highlight its importance as a cultural destination. Another option would be greater visibility for the city's green spaces as a tourist product, taking advantage of the abundance of public parks¹. Weaknesses include the problem of air travel links, an issue that is picked up as one of the key points in the city's Strategic Plan (2008) and which is still a matter of the highest priority today.

FIGURE 5 Pilgrimage and Santiago Museum. Source: Authors.

¹Santiago de Compostela is a city that is "enveloped" by green spaces. In fact it has 1,708,017 square metres of green space.



At the present time, the city is in a transitional phase before the next Holy Year which will take place in 2021 and which is likely to mark the beginning of a new phase in tourism for Santiago. In fact, the Santiago Tourism Plan 2010-2015 recognises Santiago's ability to be competitive, as well as its position on the international stage. However, in some foreign markets the city's promotional policies need to be stressed more strongly.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of all of the city planning and tourism measures merit consideration and whilst at times we may examine these individually, they will be continual overlap between them. It is essential to remember that the enhancement of tourism in the historic city of Santiago, a result of the resurgence of the pilgrimage phenomenon, is closely linked to urban planning policy, especially in terms of its effect upon the historic centre (Villanueva, 2013).

At first sight, it is easy to make a positive assessment as in recent years Santiago has been seen to consolidate itself as a destination for cultural tourism at the same time as the

city, primarily its historic centre, has experienced an intense process of recovery. Santiago has even won international recognition, for example in receiving the European Union Prize for Cultural Heritage (the Europa Nostra Award) in 1996, the European Commission's European Prize for Town Planning (1997-1998) and the 2002 UN Habitat Dubai Award for Best Practices awarded by UNESCO for the "protection and rehabilitation of the historic city and its integration with its natural environment".

However, it is essential to add clarification in order to provide a richer analytical perspective and to help to paint a more detailed picture of the city. As stated above, there is no doubt that in terms of tourism, Santiago has become a benchmark for religious and cultural tourism, not only within Spain but also within Europe. This is not due solely to the relevance of the *Camino de Santiago* pilgrimage route, whose attributes incidentally fall outside of the control of local administration. The city itself has also generated its own flow of tourists linked to conference tourism and recreational tourism, as well as in relation to its heritage and to a complex offering of diversified products.

We only have to examine the data to see the overwhelming evidence for this. For example, supply jumps from 3,500 beds in 1994, when the tourism boom linked to the 1993 Holy Year was already underway, to over 7,000 beds in existence at the present time. Thus, the number of tourist beds has doubled. It is also necessary to consider at least two facts which add to the value of these statistics. Firstly, there is new tourist accommodation available in the districts surrounding Santiago, benefitting from rates that reflect the close proximity to the city. Coastal destinations have also played a role. They bring false and indirect day-trippers, of the type identified by Russo (2002), into the city centre via high-capacity transport links. The issue of day visitors, however, merits greater in-depth examination. Secondly, we must mention the emergence of hostels which were initially linked to the pilgrims but which have grown rapidly in recent years. The most significant of these is located at Monte do Gozo and

contains over 3,000 beds. There are also other smaller ones which are scattered around the urban area, and there is also accommodation linked to the Church which is not always very visible.

Following on from these changes in supply are developments in accommodation ratings. In 1994, 41% of hotel establishments were rated above three stars. In 2014 the figure is 56%, bearing in mind that a large proportion of establishments in the historic centre are unable to access high ratings as a result of structural issues connected to the historic nature of many of the buildings.

Alongside the increased supply, demand has also been rising. This rise has probably not been equalled with the increase in supply, however it has maintained a definite upward trend. In analysing the data, it has been necessary to disregard figures for exceptional years, such as Holy Years (for example, 1999) and the year that corresponds to Santiago as European Capital of Culture (2000). According to official information held by the National Institute of Statistics relating to tourists in regulated accommodation, the figures range from 340,000 in 2001 to 573,000 in 2007, the year preceding the onset of the crisis. From 2007 there is a period of stagnation which corresponds to a drop in Spanish tourists and a rise in foreign visitors, although the final total for 2012 was below 540,000 tourists.

Unfortunately, we do not have reliable official data to enable us to go further back in time to appreciate the growth in demand with greater clarity. However, we can report that demand has risen more slowly than supply, as illustrated by occupancy rates which show a continued decline from a level of 41.2% in 2001 to 38.7% in 2012. This, together with the freeze in prices and the significant fall in conference tourism, has led to serious profitability problems for the city's hotels. Santiago's hotels can generally be divided into two broad groups. Firstly, there are the fairly small establishments with exceptional locations inside the urban area, many of which are situated within the historic centre itself. The second group

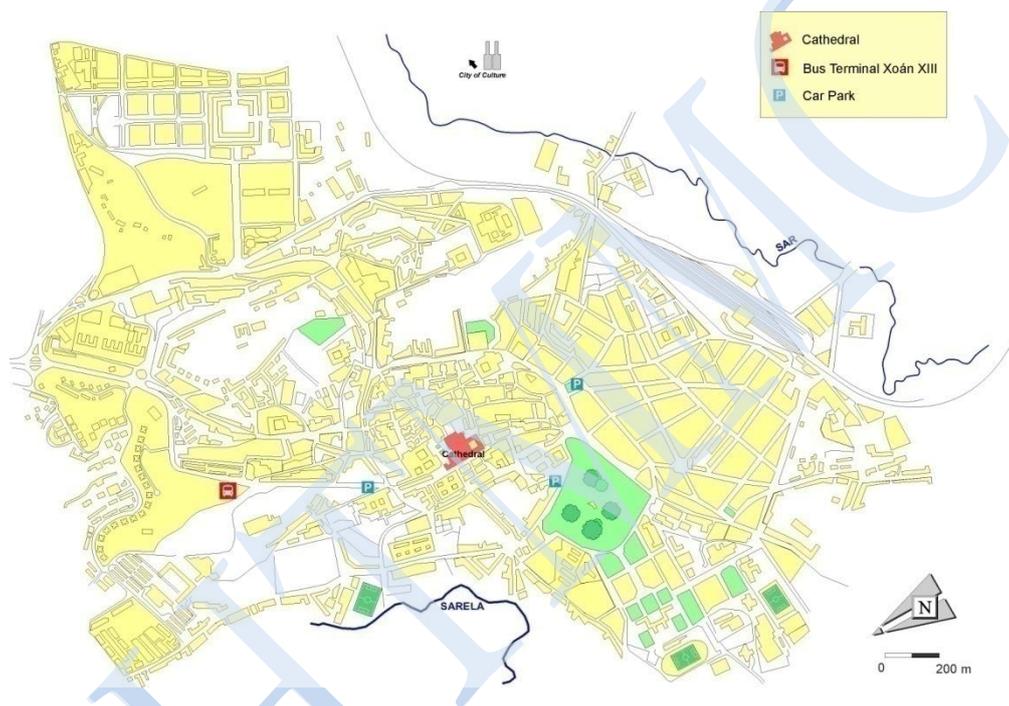
consists of larger-scale hotels, frequently part of major business groups, which tend to be situated within the established city. It is this second group which has suffered most as a result of the expansion in hotel supply due to its greater dependence upon MICE tourism, business tourism and organised tours with overnight stays. In fact, these issues have, for some hotels, led to serious financial difficulties.

In terms of demand, there is evidence of some important changes as well as signs of weaknesses which could determine the future outcome to a significant degree. On the one hand we find that the low levels of foreign tourism have been improving thanks to strong promotional campaigns and very specifically due to the significance that the *Camino de Santiago* has acquired, as international visitors now make up over 50% of pilgrims. On the other hand, Galicia's airport policy has to contend with strong localism which is causing a struggle to maintain three airports within a distance of little more than 100km, resulting in fragmentation that is very impractical for the competitiveness of the three cities in dispute, including Santiago. In addition, Galicia's location as an outlying region makes it particularly vulnerable to deficiencies in its air transport links.

The official figures show that overnight stays by non-residents of Spain have risen from under 30% at the beginning of the 21st Century to the current level of 40%, with the majority of European visitors coming from countries such as Italy, Germany, France, Portugal and the United Kingdom within Europe; and beyond Europe, with most visitors coming from the United States. Furthermore, as indicated above, the number of foreign visitors following the *Camino de Santiago* now exceeds that of Spaniards, with the exception of Holy Years. We can therefore see the way in which the statistics for supply and demand very clearly illustrate the evolution of tourism during recent years. If specific data were available for the 1980s, we would be able to see these developments with greater clarity and definition. However these tangible results, the consequence of urban and tourist policy-making, have also left us with

other less measurable consequences. These include issues relating, for example, to the pressure of tourism on the historic centre and the issue there being fewer and fewer permanent residents living in this area, in addition to other problems linked to urban and tourism management.

FIGURE 6 Map of the city of Santiago de Compostela. Source: Authors.



The way that the Cathedral dominates the whole tourist area has created certain problems of visitor management, particularly in relation to day-trippers. The car parks situated around the area of the historic centre direct the movement of people directly towards the city's key resource, its Cathedral. This increases the pressure on a fragile heritage monument and helps to focus tourist visits within a very small area. This is particularly significant in relation to the requirement for tourist coaches to use a parking area that is situated around 200m from the Cathedral.

Data from the City of Santiago Tourism Observatory shows that day-trippers, who make up between 25 and 30% of all visitors, remain in the city for over six hours on

average. However, the breakdown of these figures gives a more detailed picture. A study carried out by Santos (1999) looking at the length of time that coaches are parked in the city centre for passengers to board and disembark, indicates that the average stay varies between 2.5 hours in February and 4.1 hours in August. These figures refer exclusively to organised tours not involving an overnight stay which, according to the Strategic Marketing Plan (2004), are of medium appeal and are one of the least profitable sectors.

A later study carried out with the aim of regulating tourist flows in and around the Cathedral showed the problem created by organised day trips. Conflicts related essentially to the confluence of day-trippers' schedules, the shortage of time which forced them to concentrate their visit solely upon the most iconic locations and the problems caused inside the Cathedral for the free circulation of other worshippers and visitors. As space in the Cathedral is limited and generally narrow, major problems arise in terms of movement when one or more groups attempt to visit it at the same time. In addition, there are no established itineraries or information stops. For this reason, following the 2010 Holy Year, there was an urgent need to create a booking system for group visits, in addition to other specific measures to manage organised group visits. A final issue in this area relates to the frequently lower spend by visitors who only remain at the destination for a short period of time.

With the excessive pressure placed on the Cathedral by tour managers and the excessive weight given to religious motivation, action was taken to provide alternatives to this situation. On the one hand, the creation of products of a cultural nature was made a requirement. On the other hand, a second tourist node was designed within the historic centre, but on the outside of the walls surrounding the old city. As we understand it, the results were not as expected. Whilst religious motivation is indeed a secondary issue for tourists and even for pilgrims, the image of the holy city and even many of the initiatives that have been rolled out continue to reinforce a religious standpoint.

Research carried out by Lopez (2010) amongst Italian tourists showed how the visitors' image of the city prior to their visit was clearly a religious one. In addition, efforts to diversify tourism products had the effect of giving a central role to the religious perspective. Such offerings included the Domus Dei route linking closed convents, the opening of a new central space to add to the offering, the city museum and the museum of pilgrimages, in addition to that of the Cathedral, which is by far the most visited.

The religious tourism image is indirectly strengthened in other ways. Causes include participation in the Holy Cities network together with Rome and Jerusalem and, most obviously, the papal visits of 1982, 1989 and 2010. There have also been efforts to present events that help mitigate the long gap between the 2010 Holy Year and that of 2021. To this end, in 2012 there were celebrations for the Cathedral's 800th anniversary and 2014 marks the 800th anniversary of Saint Francis of Assisi's pilgrimage to Santiago.

An issue that follows on from this relates to attempts to create a second tourist node to remove congestion from the Cathedral. The technical document within the 2004 Strategic Marketing Plan planned its development on one of the outer sides of the walled city, in a location where the *Camino de Santiago* enters the historic centre and where there are also some interesting cultural facilities. This node would be boosted by the installation in this area of a cable car connecting the urban area with a vast architectural complex called the City of Culture which is situated nearby on the side of one of the mountains that surround Santiago. The negative report produced by ICOMOS in 2008 (<http://www.coag.es/websantiago/pdf/informeteleferico.pdf>) scuppered plans for the creation of this new node and led to the abandonment of Eisenman's complex by the tourism industry.

At present, plans to diversify and extend the tourist area are focused on the incorporation of the surrounding municipalities (<http://www.areasantiago.es>) and on the promotion of gastronomy, the cornerstone of which is the food market. The main problem

with this initiative may be due to the over-development of tourism within this area of the city; an area of the city which continues to be Santiago's commercial hub and one of the engines fuelling life in the historic centre. If urban renewal has been unable to halt the decline in the number of residents and the disappearance of traditional commerce in favour of tourist business, the loss of customers for the food market as a result of tourism pressure could speed up the demographic crisis of this part of the city even further.

CONCLUSIONS

The use of planning, a management approach which gives consideration to the dynamics of tourism in cities that contain historic monuments, the organisation and diversification of visitor flows and the drive towards permanent observatories within key city destinations must form part of the governance and careful management of historic sites with a high density of monuments. Santiago de Compostela has become an iconic city (as a result of its heritage, its history and some of its examples of contemporary architecture), leading to an increase in visitors. Furthermore, it retains its international dimension. Those who historically were pilgrims and merchants from different countries are now tourists and pilgrims.

The importance that Santiago's historic zone has acquired during these years has meant that the image of urban Santiago is at odds with the space constraints in this area where the city's highest concentration of heritage and history are to be found. Santiago's historic centre retains its variety of functions; however this multi-functionality is continually being reduced due to the loss of residents and local business from the area. In fact, one issue that still needs to be resolved is the restoration of the area's original residential function, as tertiarisation, or rather touristification (Santos Solla, 2006), is leaving a visible mark in terms of empty shops and vacant premises which have been *colonised* by tourist establishments. This is, without doubt, harmful for the city's dynamic. It adds to the pressure upon its heritage, social

degradation and conflicts between tourist spaces and residential spaces. Once again, the historic centre is facing profound functional and social change (Troitiño Vinuesa, 2003).

The commitment to valuing the heritage of the historic centre in tourism terms has revealed its weaknesses, and so a new planning focus is called for which will take these changes into consideration and which will ensure that the area's functions are revitalised. Measures that have been taken so far have succeeded neither in extending the tourist area beyond the historic centre, nor in bringing in new residents to any significant degree. It is possible to improve competitiveness and tourism quality through a quality-driven culture. This will benefit both tourists and residents. For these reasons, Santiago de Compostela's urban and tourism planning needs to be reformulated, seeking new ways to value its renewable resources and distancing itself from the spectre of stagnation and trivialisation (Santomil Mosquera, 2011).

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AHTMMC

Regulatory Frame Work for Tourism Sector – Suggested Model for Maharashtra

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INTRODUCTION

Maharashtra is an important and developed state of India. It is known for Industrialisation and Education however it is not yet recognized as a major tourist destination. Maharashtra offers wide variety of tourist destinations. (Please refer to appendix 1) However the entire sector is not duly organized to take advantage of that. Therefore it is necessary to create and suggest an organizational model that will help streamlining tourism activities in the state.

This paper aims at creating a model that will offer enough liberty and flexibility to the private sector at the same time it gives required regulatory authority to the government.

The model recommended in this paper covers two aspects of the entire framework viz. organizational structure and legal aspects. To have effective legislation it is necessary to have robust organizational structure in place. Thus the first three components of the model are to be understood as prerequisite for the effective implementation of the fourth component.

LITERATURE REVIEW:

In India there are no specific Travel and Tourism laws. There are Environmental laws, Labour laws, Companies Act, Foreign Exchange Management Act (FEMA), etc. However there is no exclusive legislation that can encompass various activities of travel trade. There are no laws that will protect the tourists as well as assure quality of service.

Therefore there is no much literature available from Indian perspective. However at international level there are good resources available on this topic. The researcher took the relevant points and aspects from such literature and tried to mold them to suit the Indian legal and organizational scenario.

METHODOLOGY

As this paper is a concept paper, 'Case Study' methodology is being adopted as a primary process. Observations, informal and unstructured interviews and interactions with various stakeholders of tourism industry from various popular destinations of the world such as Singapore, Hong Kong, Europe, and USA etc. which have taken place over a period of time, have also been part of the research process. Interviews with Maharashtra Tourism Development Corporation (MTDC) officials and other stake holders from the state also have contributed immensely towards this paper.

RESULTS

To construct the regulatory framework for the state of Maharashtra, mere creating a law or legislation itself will not be of a great effect unless it has the organizational structure in place to support and implement such a law. Therefore it was felt that the framework should consist of four components of which three components are the organizational structure and the fourth one is the legislation itself.

Components of the Model

- Tourism Organisation
- Destination Development Authority
- Local Tourism Authority
- Travel and Tourism Laws

DISCUSSIONS

Comprehension of the present state of affairs as regards the 'Tourism Organisation' and legal environment will be necessary to appreciate the suggested model of the regulatory framework. At present the state of Maharashtra has one organisation called Maharashtra Tourism Development Corporation (MTDC) as formal and official organization of the State Government to promote tourism in the state. In India Government plays regulatory as well as participatory role in various business sectors e.g. Government runs five stars hotels, road transport, airline etc.

On this line MTDC also runs hotels, has a fleet of buses, runs restaurants etc. The role of MTDC in tourism promotion is elaborated in the following section.

Role of MTDC

The role of MTDC is studied here as the only government agency and its contributions and achievements in promoting tourism in Maharashtra.

The following observations are objective and there is no intention of making any value judgment on the performance of the organisation. Instead of criticizing it for any failure, the researcher is interested in understanding its limitations and make positive suggestions to

improve the image of MTDC and simultaneously help it to market the state. While discussing the role of MTDC in promoting Tourism in Maharashtra the role of Maharashtra State Government is also discussed simultaneously as MTDC is a company which is fully owned by the state government.

These observations are based on the information provided by the Sr. Managers of MTDC, Pune region and the Internet sites of MTDC and Maharashtra State Government.

The recent information available from the Internet site of Government of Maharashtra (GOM) regarding thrust areas for investment reveals the same thing. All types of industries are listed but there is no mention of anything directly related to tourism industry.

Maharashtra is one of the last states to recognise tourism as an industry.

MTDC conducts the surveys, undertakes various other activities such as advertising, organising cultural festivals, etc. to promote tourism and runs hotels at various destinations in Maharashtra. Overall it looks like a case of gross confusion at government level on the role of MTDC and its relation with government, its accountability and various related issues. It is also true that nobody in the government would accept this very easily.

When one says that the Government of Maharashtra (GOM) has not taken the tourism sector seriously, MTDC and its conceptualisation, promotion and other related factors just support the feelings expressed. It seems that, since other states started their 'State Tourism Development Corporations', Maharashtra could not afford to be left behind, hence GOM also started MTDC. It never looked like the GOM had any serious intentions of doing anything meaningful in the field of Tourism. Just have a look at the way it was started.

The Department of Tourism of the state was converted into MTDC as a limited company fully owned by the Government of Maharashtra. The old rest houses, bungalows of various government departments and ministries were handed over to MTDC as seed capital, to run them as hotels. Most of these properties were not in good conditions at that time. The layouts architecture and ambience of all these properties was not suitable to use them as hotels. Even the locations of such properties were not the prime ones from the tourism point of view. Therefore MTDC had to put lot of efforts and spend money to renovate the properties.

The way properties were given; the staff was also transferred from various departments. Naturally most of them were not trained to handle tourism activities. It seems that the GOM was oblivious to the fact that 'Tourism' is a specialized job and it requires special skills and knowledge. It is a job of a professional. However for GOM it was just another department to adjust the staff.

Being the only government body in the field of tourism in Maharashtra, huge responsibility lies on MTDC. Though it is understood that tourism promotion is a primary responsibility of the government, MTDC cannot be totally held responsible for the miserable status of Tourism in Maharashtra.

MTDC is facing some kind of identity crisis.

Tourism promotion was understood by MTDC primarily as identifying various places as tourist destinations and building and running of hotels at all such places. Besides the hotel business MTDC also gets involved in other activities such as conducted tours, city sightseeing, running a water parks etc. However it encourages the local government to take

over responsibilities of all such endeavours. MTDC believes that 'Tourism Development' is a primary responsibility of the local government. Therefore if any other organisation, especially the local body, shows interest in these allied activities then at the first instance MTDC prefers to withdraw from that activity to allow such organisation to takeover. This policy is totally in accordance with the philosophy it cherishes.

The role of MTDC is basically governed by tourism policies announced by the GOM from time to time. Therefore while discussing the role of MTDC it becomes imperative to discuss the various Tourism Policies of the state government and vision therein.

GOM had announced tourism policies in 1993, 2000 and 2006. During this research, all these documents were studied. Such documents simply indicate on paper that the government is doing something for tourism development.

It is a common observation about all these three documents that all of them lack vision, logical progressive plan of marketing and promoting tourism. There is no long term and short term action plan. All these documents don't comment about various aspects of tourism like threat to environment, tourism education etc. These documents can't be considered as comprehensive and purposeful documents. MTDC is the nodal agency for executing these policies.

Since these policies do not offer much focused guidelines for MTDC to follow it is obvious that the performance and actions of MTDC are not effective enough.

To emphasize the point e.g. most of the plans mentioned in 1993 policy have not been executed as per the schedule. The biggest example is of Sindhudurga project. As per the policy Sindhudurg district was announced as an international tourist destination. Unfortunately till date no results have been achieved. The concept behind identifying this

district was to take advantage of the spillover traffic from the neighboring state of Goa. However the concept and its implementation are nowhere near to the required standards.

Places like Karwar, Gokarna, Devbag beach and Murudeshwar from Karnataka are in better position and getting their own traffic as well as the spillover business from Goa.

To be called as an international destination the place needs to undergo lot of changes, physical as well as attitude wise. At Sindhudurga there have been no, smallest, indications of such changes in that district. Even the MTDC admits that the work has not got completed as per the schedule.

In 1993 policy at least there was some attempt to take a review of the position of the state in the world tourism scenario and project some development plans of more comprehensive nature like the Sindhudurg Project. There have been some inputs of vision in that policy as compared with the latest policies.

In the policy announced in the year 2000 various schemes are being offered for construction of hotels and similar components of superstructure. These schemes are in the form of

- Invitation to the private sector enterprises to build the superstructure,
- List of minimum expectations,
- Concessions available,
- Zone wise places where such projects are welcome.

There is no comprehensive thought behind it. Though GOM claiming it as a policy it doesn't talk about the aims and objectives and the stance of the government. It looks like a simple proposal for the private sector.

MTDC is supposed to execute these policies. Truly speaking MTDC doesn't look competent enough to handle all aspects of such deals. MTDC is expected to do everything and to be responsible for everything that goes wrong. However, on professional level the things do not take place in this fashion.

Another hindrance in the functioning of MTDC is the absence of appropriate boss, as there is neither separate department of tourism nor independent Ministry of Tourism. There has been no exclusive Minister for Tourism for many years. Such examples are evident enough to prove that GOM is not really interested in doing something for tourism. In such circumstances it is not justified to blame only MTDC for underdevelopment of tourism in Maharashtra. The most amazing part is that the GOM doesn't realise that there is something seriously wrong in the whole process.

Unfortunately MTDC and GOM both believe that whatever efforts are being taken to promote tourism in Maharashtra are sufficient; and they may also be considering that nothing more is needed and /or nothing more can be done in this respect.

When it comes to tourism, the GOM thinks in a very rigid manner; may not be purposefully but due to ignorance. GOM thinks that promotion can be done in the same way as it has been conducted for years and it is to be done up to a moderate level only.

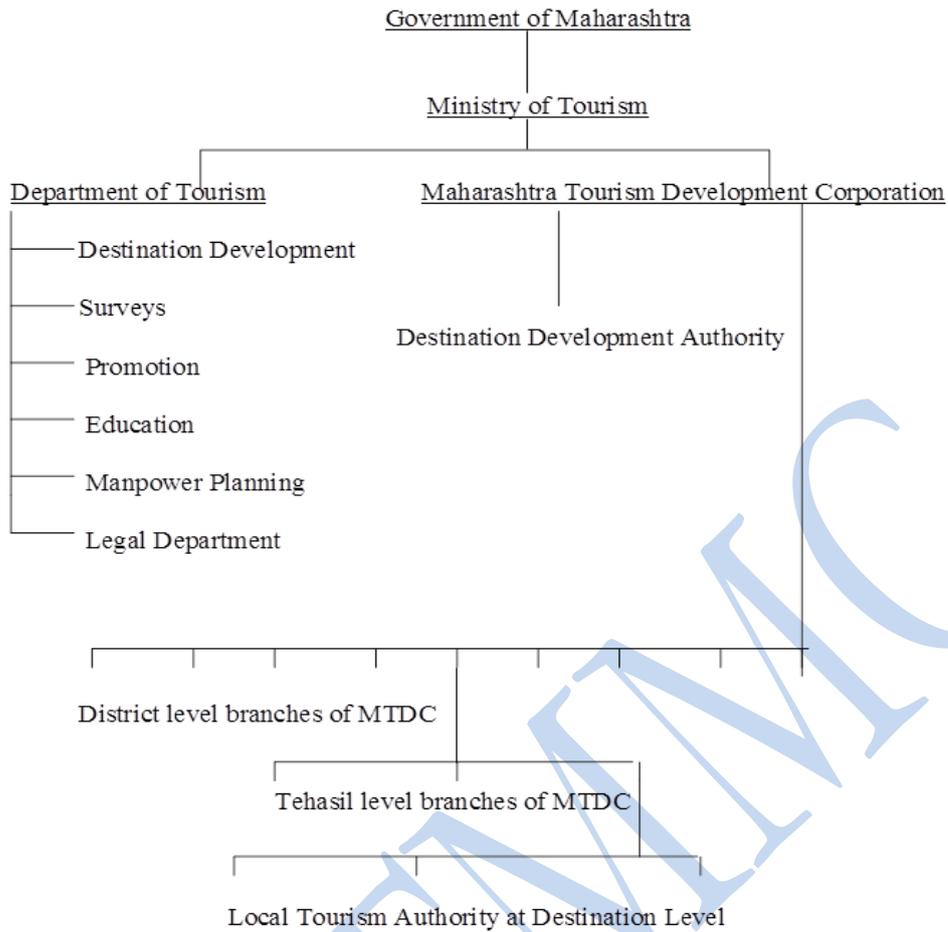
The whole attitude has to be changed. First the government has to understand, the income and prosperity potential of tourism then it will have to understand its responsibility towards tourism and then it will have to work in that direction. Once GOM changes the stance the MTDC will have to transform automatically.

With such an elaborate discussion on the present state of tourism in Maharashtra and role of MTDC it is appropriate to move towards the proposed framework of ‘Tourism Regulation’.

Following discussion would seem to be more meaningful with the presumption that MTDC has been transformed for good.

Tourism Organisation

To translate the policies into reality the government should have a good machinery to implement it. This leads to defining the structure of the tourism organisation at the government level. The Structure should be simple and non-complex. The areas of activity and authority should be well defined and there should be no chance for duplication or omission or overlapping. The basic precautions one has to take while redesigning the organizational chart for the tourism sector in Maharashtra are that the whole structure should be quite agile and dynamic. It should be forward looking. The structure of Tourism Organisation is suggested as follows:



It is being observed that Government department or the entire work philosophy at government level, unfortunately, believes in destroying the charm of the whole phenomenon. This restructuring should avoid it.

It is essential to restructure the whole setup of tourism sector in Maharashtra so that the marketing activity can be conducted smoothly and effectively. In addition to this if the people responsible to promote tourism also become progressive and dynamic then that will be an added advantage.

In this set up the policy and promotion and support system are the jobs of the Department of Tourism. MTDC is supposed to perform more of an executive and regulatory jobs. MTDC should act as a government body, which will take care of implementing the policies and philosophies of the Department of Tourism. In this set up the participatory role of Government is totally denied. That means neither MTDC nor any other tourism body of the GOM will engage actively and directly in any business propositions such as running a hotel or a restaurant etc.

The District, Tehsil and Destination level offices of MTDC mentioned in the structure above are the independent offices formed by local government with the help of experts and local people. They are not the branches of the MTDC in true sense of the term however they work under MTDC. The LTAs especially are not supposed to be the branches of MTDC. They have to be essentially an independent set up formed by the local people and the local government. For a larger administrative coordination and assistance purposes they are linked with MTDC. The detailed discussion on role of LTA is in the following section of this paper.

The tasks for MTDC in the new set up would be:

1. Registration
2. Permission
3. Distribution of Information
4. Making valid Suggestions for various projects
5. Consulting Services to various service providers
6. Inspection
7. Control and Action
8. Promotion - field work

9. Liaison with other State Tourism Development Corporations
10. Liaison with Tour operators from other states
11. Liaison with Tour operators from various countries
12. Liaison with Indian Missions abroad
13. Coordination with all Local Tourism Authorities (LTAs)
14. Participation in Travel Trade Fairs etc.

Since the role of MTDC is discussed at length earlier further elaboration would lead to repetition of the points.

Department of tourism has to play a bigger role in this new set up. Enhancement of Social and Cultural relevance of tourism is possible only if the government body like Department of Tourism expands its scope. It need not stop at running the information booths or producing and distributing the informative literature of the place. It has a bigger job to do and that of 'policy making'. At present, unfortunately, there is no such department prevalent in Maharashtra. The expected department can co-opt experts from various fields like tourism, academics, sociology, behavioral sciences etc. It is hoped that, such inclusions would give sound foundation and rational direction to the activities of the departments.

Tourism development, as it is evident, is a gradual process and all the concerned parties must show some patience so that the true evaluation of efforts can be done.

Tourism organisation at government level must show a positive and progressive inclination so that the private sector should also get due encouragement.

Productivity and Customer Satisfaction Awards

As a quality assurance measure and incentive to offer good service and also as recognition of the good deeds done for tourism, the government may introduce various awards in the field of Tourism for Productivity and Customer Satisfaction.

These awards may be for different categories of service provider like Airline, Tour Operator and Recreation Centre etc.

A religious place may also be considered for rewarding for keeping high level of hygiene and good crowd management. Special award for creativity or for new idea should also encourage many service providers.

The criteria and norms can be finalized at a later stage, however, at the first place; the concept of awards should be accepted in principle. The government should give these awards and they should be given on yearly basis and purely on quality and merits. The awards should be given as an encouragement to the service provider to do better in the following year hence regularity should be maintained.

These steps would help in changing the overall work environment in the Tourism Industry. Communication between the government and private sector businesses will increase and government will also know more about the activities with which more effective control would be possible.

Local Tourism Authority (LTA)

To market a destination the efforts should first begin at the destination level and then the scope of the efforts should get wider geographically i.e. at district level, state level, national

level and international level. To facilitate such efforts it becomes necessary to have at every destination level an independent organisation dedicated to such activity. The main aim of such organisation will be to attract more tourists towards the destination and generating more income from tourism for the place.

Such local body has a threefold job viz.

- Infrastructure Related
- Attraction Related
- Promotion Related
- Infrastructure and Other Tourism Related Facilities:
 - a) Construction
 - b) Expansion
 - c) Maintenance

The Local Tourism Authority may not have a direct control over the agencies, which provide these facilities, however the LTA plays a very important role in prioritising the needs and doing the follow-up with the government and with the agencies.

The infrastructure facilities are divided in two main categories viz. Core infrastructure and Tourism related support facilities. The LTA should certainly be capable in handling the Tourism related support facilities. It need not get involved directly in providing the facilities however it can act as a

1. Planner,
2. Coordinator,
3. Consultant,
4. Quality Controller and
5. Regulating Authority

The LTA has to generate support from the local community to facilitate tourism development in the region. LTA has to convince the local residents about the advantages of tourism. The benefits the local people can directly reap should be highlighted. It is safer to tell them the drawbacks of the phenomenon and the precautionary measures as well. Handling various ecology and environment related objections raised by NGOs, is also a part of the responsibilities of the LTA. Thus it has to work as a link between the local community and the Government and other facility providers.

It is necessary to note, at the outset, that every additional tourist is going to make an impact, positive as well as negative, on the local community, hence due care should be taken against any such negative impacts. This is the job of the LTA. The social and cultural impacts may not be visible or witnessed in the initial stages of the destination life cycle however it will be quite naive to presume that such impacts do not exist.

- Attraction Related:
 - a) To protect the core tourist attractions
 - b) To develop / renovate existing attractions
 - c) To construct / develop new attractions
 - d) To maintain the attractions

'Attractions' is the main reason why a tourist visits a place. As stated earlier 'Attractions' can be natural or manmade; however, to improve the tourist traffic, taking proper care of such attractions is utmost necessary. As the destination becomes more popular, the concept of 'Attractions' changes or gets broaden to accommodate various reasons and motivations for which a tourists normally visit a place. However for small and moderately popular destinations the conventional 'Attractions' are the only main source for attracting the tourists, therefore taking good care of these attractions is very important.

- Promotion Related:

Along with the earlier two major responsibilities the LTA also has to take care of the Promotion of the place. Various activities an LTA is expected to undertake are mentioned below.

Promotional activity of an LTA can be categorised in various sub activities such as -

- Information and assistance offices or booths at main transport stations and in city centres
- Offices or representations at other main cities, state capitals and if necessary even in other countries
- Preparation and production of informative material like brochures, maps etc
- Distribution of such informative material to those who show interest in the destination
- Advertising in Local, National and International media
- Publishing or sponsoring write-ups in the international travel related magazines or trade journals
- Organising 'FAM Tour' (Familiarisation Tour) for Travel Agents and Tour Operators from the other part of the country or the world.
- Participating in the Travel Trade Fairs and Exhibitions and Conferences and Road Shows etc
- Organising meetings of travel trade partners like Travels Agents and Tour Operators and Transporters in various major cities to promote the destination.
- Inviting big hotel chains to open their hotel at the destination
- Convincing the major transport operator to include the destination in its network
- Presence on Internet through own website and offering links to various related sites.
- Facilitating bookings and transactions through Internet and email

Due to limited geographical scope, when LTA undertakes the development and promotional activity for the region then the efforts get more focused.

It sounds logical that when every place takes care of its own promotion then the whole state gets promoted. To avoid repetition, duplication, wastages and ill feeling during the promotional campaign the state apex body like MTDC must coordinate all such LTAs. LTAs should not perceive each other as a threat but should treat each other as a support system whereby many tourists can be attracted.

Local Tourism Authority by itself is a very vast subject and shows great potential for further research. Several issues like its composition, operations, duties and responsibilities, role of government, funding for such LTA etc. need to be discussed at length to have a more matured efforts to develop tourism. In western countries like USA, Canada, U.K. and other European countries, similar organisations are in existence for several years. Detailed study of such organisations would certainly help us adopting their relevant good points.

Destination Development Authority (DDA)

Destination Development Authority will be an apex body at the state level and is expected to cover following areas.

1. Conducting surveys from 'need for development' point of view
2. Identifying development needs of a place.
3. DDA will consider the development from all aspects including investment, employment, quality of life etc.
4. Recommending priorities of development to the Local Tourism Authority (LTA) and the Local Government

5. Preparing Project report for the development
6. Providing assistance to LTA for development, such as Assistance for Finance, Technical Support etc
7. In certain cases compelling LTA and the Local Government to undertake the development project
8. Inviting, if needed, Private Sector Enterprises to participate in the development projects
9. Liaison with various government departments at state level, such as Electricity, PWD and Water Supply etc
10. Relocation and rehabilitation of people affected due to development
11. Protecting Ecology and environment
12. Disaster Management
13. Future growth projections
14. Elements of Town planning to be covered for the future development
15. Giving permissions to new attractions and recreation projects
16. Relocation of attraction if necessary to avoid crowd and chaos in future

In the present Indian conditions where the 'License and Quota Raj' is coming to an end, suggesting a new regulatory authority may sound going against the time. However to introduce discipline and system in any particular activity, such steps are necessary. Such authorities are being established in other sectors like Telephone Insurance etc. Just like LTA even this suggestion has lot of potential for further study. Various details need to be crystallised to have an effective DDA.

Travel and Tourism Laws

In India there are no specific laws related to travel and tourism. The individual service provider in the tourism field like hotels and airlines and travel agents etc. may be covered under various laws like Labour Laws and Income Tax and Sales Tax etc. however there is no one single regulatory authority to keep control on the core area of these service providers i.e. Tourism services. The essence of the activity needs protection in the present age of competition. There could be Travel Law at the Centre as well as at State level. Central Law can be broader and comprehensive whereas the state law can be more specific.

The law should help to get recognition to certain services in the field of Tourism as a profession. It should help in fulfilling the prerequisites of the term 'Profession'.

Such law should aim at

- a) Introduce a System.
- b) Assuring Quality
- c) Restrict Quantity of the service providers.
- d) Protecting Tourists
- e) Protecting Ecology
- f) Maintain Hygiene and Cleanliness.

Main Features:

- Department of Tourism can act as an Apex body.
- MTDC can act as Executive Authority.
- All types of tourism service providers must be registered with MTDC.
- Qualifications and eligibility norms for each type of services to be defined
- All shopkeepers, local transport providers are also covered.
- Quick disposal of complaint- preferably in few hours
- Strict Action against the defaulter

- ❑ Black Star System - with 3 black stars the business may be closed down for few days or months or may be permanently as the case may be etc.
- ❑ Recognition, Approval, Recommendation to certain good service provider
- ❑ No periodical Inspection.
- ❑ Self-initiated action must be based on certain advertisement or publicity or propaganda. If the service is offered at too low price or at too high price then the authorities must find out the motive behind such scheme.
- ❑ 'Statistical Returns' to be submitted periodically, giving all the details of the tourists handled

Tourism law is not expected to be an additional opportunity for corruption. It is expected that the tourism authorities should adopt a matured and unbiased view while implementing such law. The main intention behind introducing such law is to introduce professionalism and to make tourism field more disciplined. 'Tourism law' by itself is a subject of independent research. During such research more focus can be put on the legal, enforcement and other related aspects of the subject.

IMPLEMENTATIONS

The proposed scheme of regulatory framework is comprehensive however there may be a possibility of expanding it to cover some more aspects to make it more strong or robust. Though it is commendable to aim at having a very strong regulatory framework one should also be careful about its effectiveness and practicality. Too strong a framework may prove to be very rigid and practically nuisance to those who are implementing or who are at the receiving end. Therefore the framework needs to be agile and dynamic and it should be capable of incorporating future changes in the tourism environment very easily.

As far as Maharashtra is concerned, as stated earlier, there are no laws and legislations related to tourism and the tourism organization structure is also very weak and suffering from identity crisis.

Therefore implementation of the suggested model will actually impact positively and help Maharashtra in promoting tourism. Though the need for such model is very pertinent, the researcher is in doubt whether there will be a political will to accept, adopt and implement such model.

In a positive environment this model is very easy to implement. It is not time consuming and does not need huge funds for implementation.

LIMITATIONS

Though the model does not suffer from any limitations at conceptual level at the time of execution one may face few awkward situations in case the action plan is not rolled out systematically. Coordination between the tourism authorities at different geographical levels could be a challenge in practical life. However honoring functional independence and avoiding unnecessary interference should take care of such challenge.

Considering the present judiciary system the creation of a comprehensive legislation for tourism at both centre and state level is really going to be the greatest challenge and the researcher, unfortunately cannot offer any immediate solution to overcome this challenge. But it is a conviction of the researcher that if one such legislation comes into force, the tourism industry in India as well as in Maharashtra will certainly get a boost.

CONCLUSION

It may sound paradoxical that in the era of liberalization a new regulatory framework is being suggested in this paper. However if one expects planned growth and desired results then some

element of regulation is necessary. In India in general and in Maharashtra in particular the effects of not having a proper regulatory framework are quite evident and it can be one of the causes that the tourism sector could not flourish in spite of great potential. Such regulatory framework should not be perceived as panacea that will solve all the problems of tourism promotion and suddenly the tourism industry will flourish. It is important to note at this juncture that without the contribution of the host community and other stakeholders, the tourism cannot prosper at a particular place. Regulatory framework gives it a disciplined look and facilitates smooth functioning. It also helps to create a reliable and credible image of the destination and the service providers therein which in turn helps promoting tourism. The researcher hopes that this model though developed specifically for Maharashtra will have universal appeal and can be adopted at other destinations as well.

APPENDIX 1

Classification of various 'Tourist Destinations' in Maharashtra

To begin with, the categories of tourist destinations offered by Maharashtra are listed down to get a fair idea of the variety it possesses.

- Nature -
 - Hill Stations
 - Beaches
 - Wildlife
 - Lakes and Water Falls
- Wonders -
 - Hot Springs
 - Lake at Lonar
- Manmade -
 - ❖ History and Heritage
 - Caves
 - Forts
 - Monuments
 - Museums
 - ❖ Social Institutions
 - Anadvan and similar
 - ❖ Arts and Culture
 - Music
 - Dance

- Folk Arts
- Paintings
- ❖ Religion
- ❖ Medical
- ❖ Education
- ❖ Entertainment and Recreation
 - Amusement Parks
 - Picnic Spots
 - Zoos
 - Theatre

Such a varied choice is rarely available in any other state. This is the treasure, Maharashtra is proud of. With tourist attractions of such variety and magnitude, any state would have been in an enviable position in the tourism market. Unfortunately Maharashtra could not capitalize on this treasure in the past.

APPENDIX 2

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**Environmental Practices and Opinions of Travel Agencies within the Context of
Sustainable Tourism Development: The Case of Turkey**

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ABSTRACT

Sustainable tourism is dependent on the effective co-operation of all the stakeholders in the industry, for example, suppliers, intermediaries, public sector and consumers. The present study was designed to (a) explore the general nature of organizational structure and activities of travel agencies in Turkey, (b) study the managerial views on environmental issues, and (c) finally provide discussions based on the findings and accumulated knowledge. Gaining knowledge on the environmental view and structure of travel agents can help the interested parties gain insights into the nature of prevailing business practices, and thus identify important issues related to management policy and development of new capabilities for the enhancement of sustainable tourism.

Study population included the group A and C agencies. Group B agencies legally cannot organize travel and tourism activities, thus, these agencies were excluded from the population. TURSAB's list of travel agencies was used to (a) collect agency information and (b) determine the sample frame. The systematic random sample of 1665 agencies was selected from the list of 4972 for the study. Sample included 33.5 % of the population. The

questionnaire was based on a comprehensive literature review and comprised of closed-ended questions which included 45 environmental items.

Findings indicate that only very few Turkish travel agencies have environmentally oriented structural characteristics. It was found that travel agents have pro-environmental views on the factors causing environmental problems, the contribution of tourism enterprises to environmental problems, the importance given to environmental management criteria and the obstacles to environmental protection in tourism sector. However, their environmental practices showed that there is a great gap between the views and practices, because nearly all agencies do not have any environmental program, budget allocated for environmental protection, membership to any environmental NGOs, and award for any environmental management activity. It means that Turkish agencies are in need of structural adjustments to the new business environment based on sustainability. Findings of this study demonstrate that travel agents already realize that they depend on the environment's health for their own existence, they are part of the problem and there are important problems to deal with. Travel agents belong to those groups who are responsible for policy formulation, communication and the operational management of tourism destinations, thus, they should seek to understand the complex interplay of the forces that are at work to conserve tourism resources. It was concluded that travel agency managers are in need of reflecting their views to their administrative plans, programs, policies and daily business practices for a sustainable service. They should reorganize their activities in order to make significant contributions to the preservation of natural resources and cultural life, and to contribute to the growth of economic outcomes and the development of sustainable tourism. It seems that it is necessary to develop a relational culture and business practices upholding the principles of sustainable tourism.

KEYWORDS Turkish travel agents, tour operators, environmental views, sustainable tourism

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is one of the largest and fastest growing global industries in the world occupies vital place in local and global sustainability. As the tourism sector continues to grow at fast rate, there is an ever-increasing interest in learning the structural character, sustainability of daily practices and environmental impacts of the sector. Such interest has been boosted by the experiences of negative effects on destinations and danger signals for the future sustainability. Then, environmental outcome of tourism sector has formed a part of the global agenda of management and sustainability and the need for sustainable tourism and development (Torres-Delgado and Palomeque, 2012; Budeanu, 2009).

The sustainable environmental management in tourism is related with the nature of organizational structure, managerial opinions, responsibilities, policies, daily practices, procedures and use of resources that lead to achieve and maintain specific environmental conditions. It is also dependent on the effective co-operation of all the stakeholders including suppliers, intermediaries, public sector, private sector, tourists and NGOs. Travel agents and tour operators play a significant role in the sustainability of the tourism sector, because they occupy crucial positions in this process, acting as information brokers between tourists and tourist destinations, and their opinions about environment and destinations play important role in shaping their daily practices. This unique role means that tour operators can make an important contribution to furthering the goals of sustainable tourism development and protecting the environmental and cultural resources on which the tourism industry depends for its survival and growth (Tour Operators' Initiative, 2003, 2005).

Establishing a close connection with environment and development, World Commission of Environment and Development declared that sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. About five years later, the notion of sustainability was accepted by governments, NGOs and many environmentalists at the 1992 Rio Conference on the environment. The proponents of sustainability vehemently state that natural and tourism resources should be used in such a way that the future generations will also be able to benefit from these resources. This idea is supported and promoted by national, regional, and international organizations, as well as by legal provisions and agreements. For instance, reflecting the basic idea of Agenda 21, some basic principles for sustainable and economically successful tourism have been proposed. Since then government and tourism agencies complemented latterly by the initiatives of various professional bodies, have been promoting attention to aspects of the environmental performance of tourism enterprises (Lesli, 2007).

As the tourism industry continues to grow at a rapid pace, its multifaceted relationship with the environment and host communities is becoming increasingly evident. Although consumer awareness is rising, there is a lack of understanding of what sustainable tourism means. The GSTC brings clarity to the ambiguity surrounding the potential threats that tourism can have on the environment, culture and residents of tourist destinations, as well as exploring and encouraging the many opportunities to have a positive impact, by addressing issues like poverty alleviation and cultural and natural preservation (<http://www.gstcouncil.org/about/learn-about-gstc.html>, 2014).

The tourism sector has also been increasingly affected by changes taking place in environmental laws, issues and practices. 1990s and 2000s have witnessed remarkable changes in the business and regulatory environments, which have placed corporate social

responsibility firmly on the business agenda (Cramer, 2005), and travel agents and tour operators are not excluded (Schwartz et al., 2008). As Trivun et al., point out (2008:175) they “create final product to be offered to market, transforming attractions and services into products with tailored personality. Specialization in this field of travel has changed the structure of travel industry and hospitality”. Particularly when linked to sustainable tourism development, there has been an increasing demand for managerial policies and daily practices to be assessed for environmental consequences (Claver-Cortes et al., 2007; Sigala, 2008). Debates, as well as initiatives, have long been started about the environmental responsibilities, protection policies and practices in the developed countries, and gradually spread to the developing nations. Voluntary instruments, such as eco-labels, are also important in minimising environmental impacts (Logar, 2010). A growing number of studies have dealt with the impacts of tourism development on sustainability and environmental quality, including effects related to diminished biodiversity, erosion, pollution, degradation of water and other natural resources and human health (Erdogan, 2009; Kasim, 2007; Seales and Stein, 2012; Sigala, 2008). It is also recognized that the important steps towards environmental action are the proper managerial opinions, attitudes, formal adoption of a written policy and daily practices based on sustainability. A great deal of studies has been devoted to the assessment of environmental opinions, attitudes, perceptions and concerns (Bohdanowicz, 2006; Dodds and Kuehnel, 2010), because opinions, attitudes, perceptions and concerns on environment and tourist destinations are important indicators for managerial policies that shape their daily practices that are intimately related with environmental protection and sustainability.

Despite the mounting studies, there is a continuing need for research on the indicators of sustainability such as sensitivity training of managers and employees, proper policy formations and implementations, and assessment of and changes in views and practices in the

tourism sector all over the world. It is generally accepted that opinions and attitudes of travel agents and tour operators affect the nature of their own decisions and relations, and consequently effect the natural and human environment (Baloglu and Mangalolu, 2001). Travel agencies/operators supposedly have certain roles compatible with high principles of sustainable tourism: They are expected to provide services without causing ecological, social, cultural and economical damages. The sector commonly views environmental concerns as both a constraint and an opportunity. Travel agents/operators belong to those groups who are responsible for policy formulation, communication and the operational management of tourism destinations, thus, they are expected to understand the complex interplay of the forces that are at work to conserve tourism resources (Herzberg, 2006).

The present study is designed to provide new insights to the prevailing issues, add new information to the accumulated knowledge and help in closing the gap in the research needs in Turkey. Firstly, we should know the views/opinions, attitudes, justifications or rationale behind the daily business practices in order to provide any explanation about sustainability. Knowledge on the views and practices of travel agents and tour operator can help the interested parties gain insights into the nature of prevailing business practices, and thus identify important issues related to policy and strategy formulation and developing new capabilities geared towards sustainable tourism.

METHOD

Study population was comprised of 4602 group (A) agencies that were listed in Association of Turkish Travel Agencies web page. The list of travel agencies in the Association's web site was used to determine the sample frame which is 4602. The systematic random sample of 1620 agencies was selected from the list of 4602 for the study.

The data collection was performed by means of questionnaire. The content of questionnaire was formed according to the aim of study. It was comprised of 22 closed-ended questions and divided into some functional sections: The first section of the questionnaire aimed to identify some of the basic characteristics of the travel agencies and respondents. The second section of the questionnaire was related to the types and extent of tourism service the agencies provide. The third section of the questionnaire dealt with the existence of a formal written policy on the environment, the number of personnel assigned for the environmental practices, membership to NGOs and environmental awards received. The fourth section of the questionnaire sought the views of the travel agents on four issues: (1) factors contributing environmental problems, (2) probable outcomes of environmental protection activities, (3) importance given to environmental management criteria in tourism accommodations, and (4) environmental concern of public sector, private sector and NGOs. The specific statements were used in order to measure the views of the travel agents. Each statement was rated on an ordinal scale. Regarding the research question, frequency distributions were used to explore the views of the travel agents in Turkey about the environment related issues.

FINDINGS

Agency

The oldest travel agency in the sample was established in 1939. The great majority of agencies (85.2 %) were established in 1990s (43.8 %) and 2000s (41.4 %). Only a small percent (12.4 %) were older than 20 years. Of all agencies, 55.6 % have only single office (main office), 72.2 % has two, 92.5 % has five and 97.2 % has ten offices. Only 6.7 % agencies have over 10 offices operating in different locations. Nearly half of the agencies employ less than six persons (45.9 %). Three thirds (74.6 %) employ up to ten and only 10 % employs over 20 persons. Close to one-third (30.4 %) of the agencies have no person in charge of environmental protection. Although 62.9 % reported one personnel in charge, in all

cases, this is still an additional duty, typically for managers, salesperson, technical, administrative or tour staff. Most agencies provide service for domestic and foreign tourists. Only 8.3 % of them do not provide service to domestic tourists, while 11.1 % do not provide service to foreign tourists (Table 1). Agencies provide service to more domestic clients than foreign ones.

Table 2. Distribution of service provided for domestic and foreign tourists

Services		Extent of service provided				Total
		None	Little	Medium	A lot	
Domestic tourists	N	129	230	213	976	1548
	%	8.3	14.9	13.8	63.0	100.0
Foreign tourists	N	167	357	310	665	1499
	%	11.1	23.8	20.7	44.4	100.0

Type and extent of services they provide

Services that travel agencies provide vary in type and extent, as it is seen in Table 2. Most agencies (75.6 %) provide mass tourism service as medium to a lot, followed by culture tourism (69.1 %), faith tourism (44.4%) and convention tourism (42.7 %). The extents of nature based tourism that they provide are rather low, ranging from 9.1 % (bird watching) to 28.2 % (highland tourism) (Table 3).

Table 4. Type and extent of tourism services agencies provide

Type of tourism	N	Extent of service provided (%)			
		None	Little	Medium	A lot
Mass tourism	1401	24.4	2.9	10.9	61.7
Faith tourism	1462	55.6	7.6	12.6	24.2
Convention tourism	1426	57.3	9.2	16.8	16.8
Culture tourism	1384	29.1	7.3	20.2	43.4
Health tourism	1443	69.9	6.7	14.1	9.4

Nature-based tourism					
Trekking	1470	77.7	7.9	8.8	5.6
Rafting	1475	71.5	8.4	9.2	10.9
Botanic tourism	1462	87.1	5.3	4.7	2.9
Highland tourism	1473	71.2	8.8	11.4	8.6
Bird watching	1469	90.9	4.2	3.3	1.6
Horse riding	1469	85.8	5.8	5.7	2.8
Mountaineering	1471	80.4	8.0	7.6	4.1
Cave tourism	1475	85.2	5.8	4.6	4.4
Paragliding	1462	81.1	7.3	6.9	4.7
Scuba diving	1461	75.7	7.5	8.6	8.3
Photo-safari	1469	83.2	5.1	5.3	6.4

Existence of environmental policy

In respect to existence of environmental policy, travel agents have very poor record: Of the respondents, 88.3 % reported to have no environmental programs, 89.9 % have no budget allocated for environmental protection, 91.6 % have no membership to any environmental NGOs and 96.4 % have received no award for any environmental management.

On the factors contributing to environmental problems

Findings shown in Table 3 demonstrate that majority of respondents think that all seven factors contribute to environmental problems to a considerable extent. When ranked according to the extent of contribution to the environmental problems, “non-enforcement of environmental laws” (75.6 %) has the highest contribution as much to very much, followed by “Inadequate environmental education” (74.3 %).

Table 3. Views about the factors that contribute to environmental problems

Factors	N	Extent of contribution (%)				
		Very little	Little	Medium	Much	Very much
Inadequacy of environmental education	1535	2.5	4.7	18.6	33.6	40.7
Inadequacy of environmental awareness of tourists	1511	10.6	13.9	29.9	28.4	17.2
Inadequacy of environmental awareness of tourism enterprises	1524	3.0	7.5	27.0	35.1	27.4
Inadequacy of environmental laws	1522	2.6	5.5	26.3	35.8	29.8
Non-enforcement of environmental laws	1517	1.7	5.0	19.6	38.3	37.3
Concern with cost of environmental management	1496	3.1	8.9	26.5	35.2	26.3
Insensitivity of local administration	1441	2.2	6.0	24.7	36.3	30.8

On the outcomes of environmental protection activities

Most respondents agreed that environmental protection activities are important for the future of tourism sector (88.6 %), do not hinder the development of economy” (72.5 %), make positive effect on marketing (71.6 %) and do not deprive local population of their livelihood (66.3 %). However, the differences decrease in respect to the statements indicating that environmental protection activities “create competitive advantage” (% 33.0 % agree and 19.6 % strongly agree) and “engender financial burdens” (15.3 % agree and 9.7 % strongly agree).

On the importance of environmental criteria in tourism accommodations

Majority of respondents consider all 10 environmental criteria important (Table 4). Most respondents consider that criteria related with air pollution (71.9 %), noise (78.8 %), facility architecture (67.9 %), blue flag project (74.6 %) and contribution to local life (65.7 %) are important for environmental concerns. However, when it comes to type of energy used, energy saving activities and building-construction materials used, the extent of importance decreases.

Table 4. Views concerning the importance of environmental criteria in tourism accommodations

Environmental criteria	N	Distribution of responses (%) ^a				
		1	2	3	4	5
Wastewater treatment	1446	3.7	9.5	25.1	32.6	29.1
Air pollution in destination	1439	1.7	5.8	20.6	40.4	31.5
Separation of paper, plastic, metal, glass, organic waste	1390	4.4	12.6	33.7	29.2	20.1
Type of energy used	1406	5.2	12.2	33.0	32.3	17.3
Energy saving activities	1406	6.6	13.4	32.5	30.0	17.4
Noise control in the facility	1437	1.4	3.7	16.1	39.7	39.1

Building-construction materials used	1411	6.1	11.1	31.5	31.2	20.1
Environmental suitability of hotel architecture	1429	2.8	5.2	20.1	37.9	34.0
Blue Flag project	1435	2.7	5.2	17.6	32.0	42.6
Socio-economic contribution to the local community	1223	2.5	7.8	24.1	36.0	29.7

^a1=very unimportant 2=unimportant 3=moderate 4=important 5=very important

Agents' self-evaluations of their own environmental practices

Managers generally view their agency's daily practices as environmentally sensitive and in the direction of environmental protection (Table 5). The negative evaluations in all 16 items range from 5.6 % (sensitivity towards local life and traditions) to 40.0 % (existence of environmental information in their brochures). The great majority of them (81.8 %) think that their daily company practices do not have negative impacts on environment. Similarly, they state that they are sensitive to environment in their tours to protected areas (76.9 %) and they have positive effects in social (67.2 %) and economic (64.7 %) development of destinations. On the other hand, significant number of them report that they do not participate in environmental meetings (36.5 %) and do not provide environmental training to their personnel (28.6 %).

Table 5. Agency managers' self-evaluation of their environmental practices

Environmental practices	N	Distribution of responses (%)				
		1	2	3	4	5
We are sensitive to local life and traditions	1501	2.5	3.1	15.7	39.2	39.4
We are sensitive to environment in our tours to protected areas	1525	3.1	4.0	16.0	39.5	37.4
Our agency activities have positive effects on social development of destinations	1482	3.8	6.3	22.7	36.7	30.5
Our agency activities have positive effects on economic development of destinations	1482	5.3	6.3	23.8	37.0	27.7
We employ local people in our tours	1489	7.5	12.6	27.2	30.3	22.5
We encourage tourist to use public transportation	1479	10.8	12.7	27.7	31.0	17.8
Our agency contributes to the environmental protection of destinations	1526	7.5	11.1	37.0	32.4	12.0
We convey the views of tourists to our personnel	1464	11.1	14.6	31.2	30.7	12.4
We keep the number of tourist less in our nature tourism tours	1429	11.8	15.4	34.5	25.5	12.7
We provide environmental training to our personnel	1486	10.4	18.2	35.5	23.4	12.6
We collect tourist opinions about our environmental activities	1474	11.7	16.9	32.3	27.7	11.3
We provide environmental training to our clients	1478	12.4	20.0	34.2	22.3	11.1
We provide environmental training to local people	1450	15.8	21.4	32.9	20.1	9.8
Our agency participates in environmental meetings	1523	13.1	23.4	35.5	20.4	7.5
We have environmental information in our brochures	1460	15.8	24.2	29.8	20.0	10.1
Our agency activities have negative effects on environment	1561	55.2	26.6	7.8	6.5	4.0

1=Absolutely disagree 2= Disagree 3=Neither disagree nor agree 4=Agree 5= Absolutely agree

On the environmental sensitivity of public sector, private sector and NGOs

On the environmental sensitivity of public sector, private sector and NGOs Findings show that there are more respondents who consider public sector (40.4%), private sector (39.9%) and NGOs (40.5%) as inadequate to very inadequate in their sensitivity toward environmental activities, as compared to those who think otherwise.

Table 6. Views on the environmental concerns of main parties

Sector	N	Distribution of responses (%) ^a				
		1	2	3	4	5
Public sector	1468	13.2	27.2	38.1	16.8	4.7
Private sector	1479	10.9	29.0	36.2	18.9	7.0
NGOs	1452	14.3	26.2	35.6	17.9	6.1

^a 1= very inadequate, 2=inadequate, 3=moderate, 4=adequate, 5= very adequate

CONCLUSION

The natures of daily practices from production to consumption create and sustain certain human and environmental circumstances that form the prevailing and changing character of human and environmental conditions. The views and work practices of the travel agents are integrated parts of such circumstances, making important negative and positive contributions to the formation, continuation and development of such conditions. Regarding general nature of the travel agencies, findings indicate that only very few Turkish travel agencies have environmentally oriented structural characteristics. It means that Turkish agencies are in need of structural adjustment to the new tourism environment based on sustainability. The feasibility of structural adjustment seems to be very low since most travel agents/operators, like in many countries (Clarke, 2002), are not large enough to pay attention to sustainability issues beyond their own economical sustainability as well as be able to afford any contribution to environmental, social and cultural sustainability efforts. As Budeanu (2005)

pointed out, even large tour operators have taken a more proactive view and have started to develop environmental policies and plans only in recent years.

Environment related views consist of information, ideas and dispositions travel agents possess on the environmental issues. Views regarding beneficial and harmful environmental behaviours are obvious prerequisites for environmentally conscious actions/activities, only if there are no strong intervening variables that eliminate such relationship in a specific situation. This study suggests that travel agents cannot be considered a homogeneous group in terms of their views on environmental issues. However, their views about the factors contributing to the environmental problems, outcomes of environmental protection activities, importance of environmental criteria, and sensitivity of main sectors of society are generally environmentally friendly, since their answers demonstrate environmental awareness. This findings are in accord with the related studies which indicate that tourism operators and travel agents perceive advantage in environmental protection and sustainability (Curtin and Wilkes, 2005; Seales and Stein, 2012; Tepelus, 2005).

It is expected from travel agencies and tour operators that they make tourism and conservation compatible, support the preservation of wilderness and biodiversity, use natural resources in a sustainable way, minimize consumption, waste and pollution, respect local cultures, historic and scientific sites, educate their staff, provide clients with information about the environment and conservation, and follow safety rules. Realization of such expectations depends on various factors related with economics, politics, business culture, personality traits, education, awareness, views, attitudes and behavioural characteristics. Findings of this study show that, at least in term of views, travel agents hold some assuring opinions.

The most agencies offering tourism and ecotourism for their clients claim to provide more or less all popular kinds of tourism activities. For instance, a typical tourism agency

claims to provide mass tourism and ecotourism services including rafting tours, trekking, bird watching, botanic tours, historical places, village tours, mountain biking, scuba diving, photo safari and camping. All these are activities that require specialized knowledge and experience that they possibly cannot have unless they are multi-service large companies. This means that it is hard to expect that these agencies do business in a professional and environmentally responsible manner. It is most likely their awareness is primarily determined by the economic interest, because they have no discrimination in their activities based on ecotourism principles, sustainable development and environmental protection.

Even though the nature of views among travel agents about the environmental issues and environmental consequences of activities are appropriate to encourage them to make a corporate commitment to sustainable development and to make considerations for environmental, cultural and social impacts an integral part of the conduct of their daily business activities, it is necessary to acknowledge the fact that the extent of behaving according to one's view/attitude in daily business practices is not known, since it depends on numerous intervening variables and the structural environment of economical and political decision making is marked by personal and organizational power relations and dominance. We should also keep in mind that there are numerous structural obstacles in the way of proper and improved performance of translating their views and principles of sustainable tourism into concrete operational changes.

At least, findings of this study demonstrate that travel agents are already realizing that they depend on the environment's health for their own existence, they are part of the problem and there are important problems to deal with. Awareness is an important step toward change.

The research agenda of tourism is beginning to acknowledge the importance of understanding issues around entrepreneurship and perceptual and behavioral manifestations especially in terms of sustainable development in the developing world. Further empirical

studies are needed into the travel agents' and tour operators' views and daily tourism activities especially in the countries like Turkey in order to understand and find ways for existing sustainability problems. There is a need not only to provide further data, information, analysis and suggestions by means of exploratory and descriptive research based on bivariate study designs with multiple variables in sustainable tourism issues, but also to design and conduct causal/inferential studies that can be functional for public policies, policy evaluation and revisions and betterment of industrial activities, products and services in order to obtain sustainable objectives. Similarly, we need more (a) exploratory and descriptive studies to understand the basic nature of the phenomenon, (b) comparative studies in order to share and enhance the accumulated knowledge in the word, (c) focus on the various aspects and crucial problems in the question of sustainability, (d) emphasis on closing the serious gap among the parties involved, (e) consideration on the fact that studies in sustainable tourism are not limited with the activities of tourism firms and state regulations, (f) concern in differentiating normative rules, ideal expectations and sustainable principles from actual conditions and practices, and (g) attention in reconnecting the theoretical abstractions and findings to the whole that the abstractions were extracted. We should also include personal and organizational goals and interests and structured power relations in design, analysis or concluding remarks.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Policy Recommendations: Travel agents and tour operators can use their market power to improve sustainability in the tourism. Supporting Wijk's findings in 2006, the present study found that, despite their environmental views, the travel agencies and tour operators seriously fall short in terms of sustainable practices in their daily business activities. There are widespread problems to be solved in the way of sustainable tourism and development.

Overcoming the problems depends on not only changes in the views and practices of travel agents and tourism sector, but also changes in the policies of the state organizations, NGOs and international organizations, in the expectations and behaviours of tourists, and in the ruling forces and people in destinations. Moreover, none of the problems, causes and solutions is independent from each other. That's why understanding of problems, causes and solutions requires understanding of the nature of multitudes of interrelationships and co-effects. In any case, there are individuals in organized action for organized interest at the centre, and changes depend on the changes in the modes and relations in the organization and organized interests and practices.

Recommendations on the tourism agencies and sector: This study finds that basic problem is not related to the views/opinions, rather there is a serious lack of commitment in the sustainable development. Then, we should first find the factors that determine travel agents' policies which are not congruent with their opinions. The existing studies inform us about that such factors include personal interests, lack of commitment and organizational and general structural constraints. In terms of the scope of the present study some primary recommendations can be as follows (Tour Operators' Initiative, 2003):

- Internal management, by taking into account sustainability principles in the management of human resources, office supplies and production of printed materials;
- Product development and management, by planning tours and selecting holiday package components that minimise environmental, economic and social impacts;
- Contracting with suppliers, by integrating sustainability principles into the selection criteria and service agreements of suppliers;

- Customer relations, by guaranteeing privacy, health and safety standards, and providing customers with information on responsible behaviour and sustainability issues at their destinations;
- Relations with destinations, by supporting destination stakeholders' efforts to address sustainability issues and financially contributing to conservation and development projects.

Recommendations on state policies and related organizations: In the current world affairs, it is hard to find any state, state institutions and related organizations that have no sustainable tourism development policy on earth. For instance, the changing nature of tourism markets and consideration about the future prospects of the country has forced Turkey to make serious changes in tourism policies and tourism activities. In order to better integrate environmental considerations in tourism policies, Turkey has progressively put in place a legislative and regulatory framework aimed at sustainable tourism development and protecting sensitive areas. "Tourism Vision of Turkey 2010" that emphasizes on the environmental sustainability in 2004 and "Tourism Strategies of Turkey 2023" in 2007 were developed by The Ministry of Culture and Tourism. The main priority is investment in the infrastructure, including improved water and sanitation systems and waste management systems. The Tourism Strategy 2023 clearly acknowledges the prevailing problems i.e. "Developments towards mass tourism activities and particularistic approaches to tourism planning in Turkey have led to deficient infrastructure and environmental problems" Further, under the "objectives for the year 2023", the main strategic direction is: Provisions shall be made for establishment of participative mechanisms such as Local Agenda 21, with the local councils becoming functional in a given neighbourhood. Also, it states that an effective policy "... should reroute all tourism investments toward reducing the imbalances of welfare and development imbalances throughout the country and treat them with an approach that safeguards, conserves and improves the natural, historical, cultural and social

environment...." and should "...conserve and use natural resources in the most economically and ecologically sustainable way." (Turkish Ministry Culture and Tourism, 2012).

Then, what is the problem with the state and state organizations? In addition to the prevailing situation that the tourism sector lags behind these legal requirements and policy objectives, there is a lack of control mechanisms and enforcement of legal requirements which exacerbates the situation. Thus, the problem with state is the problem of establishing workable mechanisms of control and finding ways to enforce the laws properly.

Another problem with state policy and enforcement issue is protected and enhance the quality and condition of national resources which are essential also to tourism. Unfortunately, gap between the policy and daily practices in governmental bodies shows itself in collaborating in or ignoring the misuse of resources. Then, who will stop the governmental/state bodies from doing what they should not do or not doing what they should do? It seems that only feasible solution is the effective existence of supra-governmental structures, international agencies or organizations. The NGO's and especially trade/business associations in Europe and the USA are highly involved in the promotion of sustainable tourism development by means of, e.g., setting standards and principles to improve sustainability performance in tourism sector. They establish joint initiatives with other concerned parties and engage in setting policies and principles, publishing guidelines and evaluations, setting priorities for proper actions and evaluating progress (Schwartz *et. al.*, 2008; Seales and Stein, 2012; Tour Operators' Initiative, 2003 and 2005).

In order to encourage sustainable practices, concerned state bodies and local, national and international organizations should adopt tourism and environment indicators to evaluate business performance in carrying out action plans, and ensure that environmental concerns are fully integrated in tourism development strategies. They should actively support

any strategic action plan that aims for progress towards sustainable development in the promotion and delivery of tourism products and services.

The present study also implies that the state, international and concerned organizations should establish and apply policies that provide financial and other incentives for small or medium size enterprises so that they can establish and develop sustainable tourism practices.

Recommendation on destination: The destination could be a large city or community with its historical life style, or state owned national park, protected area, seashore, mountain, lake or a river. The basic question here is whether or not to compromise local life and environmental quality for the sake of national economic prosperity or prosperity of certain industries. The destination rarely can decide on answering this question because of the existing and legitimized power relations. Then, fate of destination mostly depends on the outside interests and policies. What remains for, e.g., local communities is to participate or show opposition. Even the empowerment of local population is mostly dependent upon the outside forces. The only valid and realistic recommendation is that the local people should establish organized bodies for protecting and enhancing their own interests. If they agree on the sustainable tourism development in their region, they should promote a local-based destination product and marketing, and sustainable tourism principles and development.

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The Impact of Negative Events on Brand Relationship in Restaurant Service: An Experiment Study

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ABSTRACT

Recent research has paid a considerable attention to the harm that negative events do to the brand relationship. Most of the research, however, investigates this harm based on the viewpoint of direct customers' interests. From the view of hierarchy of customers' interests, the negative events incorporate two types: direct customers' interests (DCI) and indirect customers' interests (IDCI). Thus, the current study tried to investigate the mechanism through which both the two types of negative events impact brand relationship. By using two scenario simulation experiments, this study concludes that: (1) the negative impacts of the two types of negative events on brand relationship are significant without statistical differences; (2) the mechanisms through which the two types of negative events on brand relationship are different. Specifically, the DCI type impacts brand relationship through perceived quality while the IDCI ones affect the BR through the brand image; and (3) brand reputation positively moderates the relationship between the two types of negative events and brand relationship.

KEYWORDS Negative events; restaurant service; brand relationship; hierarchy of interests

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INTRODUCTION

Recently, the negative events in restaurant services widely occur, resulting in harm to restaurant service brands without doubt. According to the perspective of customers' interests, negative event can be divided into two types. The first type is the negative event which is directly related to the customers' interests. Such examples are that KFC produces crash chicken within 45 days and South Beauty changes long-dead fish into fresh ones. The second type is indirectly related to the symbolic interests of customers, such as South beauty's nationality event and KFC's illegal employment. It is obvious that customers will generate

brand boycott behavior if the first type of negative events happens. However, there is lack study on whether customers will do the same behavior if the second type of negative events happens.

Negative event can be classified into different aspects according to different viewpoints. For example, according to the view of event attribution, Coombs and Holladay (1996) divide negative event into three types, which are injury type, accidental type, and deliberated type. Based on the perspective of organizational behavior, Pullig et al. (2006) decompose negative event into two types: performance-related and organizational culture-related ones. Wei (2012) analyzes the cause of events and divide negative event into three types – product-harming event, false-promotion event, and social responsibility-lacking event. Targeting corporates, these studies analyze negative event from its causes and nature while ignoring customers' evaluation on and reactions to negative events.

To fill this gap, this study divides negative events into two types: direct customers' interests and indirect customers' interests according to the view of hierarchy of customers' interests. By taking restaurant service brand as an example, this study explores the impacts of these two types of negative events on brand relationship and the moderating role of brand reputation on the linkages.

Literature review and hypotheses development

Brand relationship

Known as one of the most critical indicators of brand equity (Keller, 2001), brand relationship, referring to the interactive reaction between a firm's brand and its customers, includes customers' attitudes to the brand and the brand's attitude to customers (Blankston, 1992). Manifesting the continuous development and retain of relationship between customers and brands (Fournier, 1994), brand relationship quality is often used as a criterion to assess

the goodness of brand relationship.

Extant studies on the impact of negative events on brand relationship mainly unfold from the relationship between negative events and brand equity. Negative events in terms of product recall were firstly examined to cause the loss of intangible brand equity from the view of customers (Davidson & Worrell, 1992). Then, the relationship between negative events and brand equity were analyzed to be moderated by variables such as consumer expectations, consumption amount, corporate reputation, and firm remedy strategy. Specifically, Darwar and Pillutla (2000) explore that given the higher level of customer expectation, the impact of negative events on brand equity is weakened. Wu (2008) analyzes that consumption amount plays a moderating role on the relationship between negative events and brand equity. In other words, for the firms with high consumption groups (i.e., high consumers), negative events may lead less damage to the firms' brand equity. Fang (2007) also concludes that corporate reputation moderates the relationship between negative events and brand equity, which means the better a firm's reputation, the less the impact of negative events on brand equity. Yang et al. (2012) find that firms could implement remedy strategy to balance consumers' perceived fairness, which in turn relieves the negative impact of negative events on brand equity. In addition, Jing et al. (2009) indicate that hazardous-product events negatively impact indicators of brand equity such as perceived quality, brand attitude, and brand loyalty.

To conclude, the extant studies mainly focus on the negative event which is related to customers' direct interests. However, they hardly pay attention to the impact of such negative events on brand equity and the mechanisms through which such negative events impact brand relationship as well.

The classification of negative event from interest-hierarchy theory

Two competing results exist on the relationship between individual interests and consumer behaviors. The theory of rational choice manifests that pursuit of individual interests is the only rational behaviors of human beings and can be used to predict others' behaviors (Wuthnow, 1991). On the other hand, symbolic politics theory holds that emotional response obtained in the early age may be extended to other aspects to trigger individual's behavior (Cremer and Dijk, 2002). To respond the above two different viewpoints, Woessner (2001) proposes the theory of hierarchy of interests. According to this theory, before responding to certain events, individuals tend to do a series of logical thinking, during the process of which the direct self-interest plays a critical role among various interests arranged. Under the condition that self-interest is obvious; it affects individuals' attitudes and behaviors. Under the opposite condition, however, group interest or sociotropic interest will affect individuals' attitudes and behaviors (Woessner, 2001).

In fact, different types of negative events in restaurant services will damage different interests of customers. By analyzing recent typical examples of negative events on restaurant services published in Sina (<http://www.sina.com.cn/>), Phoenix (<http://www.ifeng.com/>), Tencent (<http://www.qq.com/>), Sohu (<http://www.sohu.com/>) and other websites, this study finds that negative events impact customers' interests through two ways (see Table 1). The first way is through hurting economic benefits or customers' health, which lead to the loss of utilitarian interests of customers. Such loss is more related to self-interest of customers. The second way is through going against rational ethics, improving customers' negative feelings, and creating symbolic benefit loss to customers. This way is similar to group interests or society-oriented interests in the theory of hierarchy of interests and should be classified as indirect self-interests of customers.

Table 1 Types of negative events on the brands of restaurant service since 2008

The category of events	The name of events	The description of events
First: direct customers' interests, DCI	Little Sheep "adulteration scandal "	In May 2013, the network said a batch of adulterated mutton flew into the Little Sheep and other famous hotpot restaurant
	Yoshinoya's "health wave"	In March 2013, Yoshinoya was said to be not health and use rice with expired
	KFC's "45 days intensive chicken"	In November 2012, media reports said that KFC used "45 days intensive chicken" as raw materials
	South Beauty "dead fish change storm "	In September 2011, media reported South Beauty used dead fish to process.
	CSC's "health scandal "	In October 2011, undercover journalists reported CSC's staff did not operate according to health provisions.
	Hai Di Lao Hot Pot "Blending men"	In August 2011, the media said the bottom of Hai Di Lao Hot Pot was not stewed by a real authentic materials
	Ajisen Ramen "bone soup scandal"	In July 2011, media reports said the soup of Ajisen Ramen was not stewed by bone, but made by dehydrated soup
Second: indirect customers' interests, IDCI	KFC's " seckilling scandal"	In April 2010, KFC held promotional activities by seckilling online discount coupons. when customers exchange their coupons, KFC unilaterally declare their coupons were null and void
	KUNGFU Catering "ribs scandal"	Internal information about ribs' quality problem of KUNGFU Catering were exposed
	South Beauty "nationality scandal "	ZHANG Lan, chairman of South Beauty, once talked about patriotism and refused to immigrants. But Beijing Morning Post reported ZHANG have changed her nationality in November 2012
	Quan Ju De " Sell scrap duck oil "	In May 2012, the media said vendors purchased wasted duck oil from Quan Ju De and resold for making cooking oil.
	Kung Fu Restaurant " Infighting scandal "	In May 2011, "infighting" existed among high-level managers and Cai (Chairman of Kung Fu Restaurant) was suspected of economic crimes
	KFC's "sweatshop"	In 2010, authoritative media reported that KFC hired part-time employees illegally and was referred to as a "sweatshop"
	KFC's "pollute the environment"	In 2009, according to the authority of the environmental protection organization, KFC discharged arbitrary garbage and pollute the environment.
McDonalds' "Donation scandal"	In May 2008, it was debated that McDonald's donations have not reached the public expectations.	

Individual's self-interests are different in the two types of negative events. Such differences may cause the perceptual variety of individuals and lead to different attitudes and behaviors. Thus, based on the theory of hierarchy of interests, this study divides negative events in restaurant services into direct customers' interests (DCI) and indirect customers' interests (IDCI). In the following, we explain in detail whether and how such two types impact brand relationship.

Hypotheses development

The impacts of two types of negative events on brand relationship

Individual interests could drive a person's behaviors (Wuthnow, 1991). In other words, a person tends to accept things which are good for him/her and resist things that are bad. When negative events of DCI happen, direct customers' interests will be damaged if the firms cannot fulfil brand's commitment and cannot meet the needs on utilitarian interests of customers. Such events will in turn hurt brand relationship and trigger purchasing boycott of customers.

On the other hand, the negative events of IDCI are not related to individual interests and cannot involve individual conflicts. Thus, brand relationship will not be influenced according to rational self-interest hypothesis. However, the theory of hierarchy of interests holds that when individual interests are not related, individual perception, emotion, and behavior will be impacted by group interests or society-oriented interests. Brand relationship can be treated as psychological linkage between consumers and brands and can make individual perception, emotion, and behavior mix with each other. Identity can be treated as an important bridge between customers and brand relationship. Identity can produce emotional reliance of individuals on brands and thus stabilize the relationship between customers and brands. In the customer's identity, the most core thing is the values and beliefs of the firms. When a customer perceives his/her individual identity is consistent with the firm's value, this customer tends to produce a sense of identification, which improves psychological linkage between customers and brands. On the opposite side, the identity will reduce trustworthiness and belonging and even generate a sense of brand resentment. Negative events of IDCI can be treated as betrayal of firms on social ethics and groups. Such events manifest the disagreement of firms' behaviors on the values perceived by public. Customers tend to evaluate the firms based on these values, form a kind of negative experience on the brands, and reduce their identity on the brands.

When customers purchase some products with brands following their heart and their

traditional values, the linkage between customers and brands become tighter and brand relationship is with high quality. Thus, we hypothesize as follows.

H1: negative events of DCI are negatively related to brand relationship.

H2: negative events of IDCI are negatively related to brand relationship.

For the negative events of DCI, obvious defects existing in the products or service processes will reduce customers' perception of the overall quality. Perceived quality refers to customers' awareness on the reliability of the products and/or services (Aaker, 1991). According to the American Customer Satisfaction Index, perceived quality could improve customer satisfaction and brand loyalty (Fornell et al., 1996), both of which are treated as two critical dimensions of the stability of brand relationship (Fournier, 1998; Aaker et al., 2004). In other words, the higher level customer satisfaction or brand loyalty, the higher quality of brand relationship, and vice versa. To conclude, the negative events of DCI will reduce customer-perceived quality, satisfaction, and brand loyalty. Thus, the brand relationship will be un-stabilized.

Based on the above, we hypothesize as follows.

H3: Perceived quality mediates the relationship between negative events of DCI and brand relationship.

Caused by the lack of corporate social responsibility, negative events of IDCI will lead to the conflict between the value expressed by firms and value orientation of customers, so to damage brand image. Brand image, referring to customers' perception on brands, is the symbol of the brand perceived by customers (Aaker, 1991). Brand image can impact customers' perception on brand values and customers' loyalty through non-functional factors such as emotional factors (Jiang and Lu, 2006). When brand image contains a lot of negative social values, purchase intention and satisfaction will be reduced and brand relationship will be weakened. Oppositely, if customers interpret brand image in a positive way, perceived value

of customers will be created and financial performance of firms will be improved. Therefore, negative events of IDCI will weaken the linkage between brands and customers and reduce the quality of brand relationship by means of damaging brand image. Thus we hypothesize as follows.

H4: Brand image mediates the relationship between negative events of IDCI and brand relationship.

Effect of brand reputation in the negative events' impact on brand relationship

Brand reputation refers to how well most of customers know and respect one brand. It contains the concept of time and manifests customers' evaluations on the past performance of the brand (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001). Brand reputation can help firms to enhance their brand expectation of customers (Rhee and Haunschild, 2006).

Customers will harbor higher expectations to the products or services with high reputation brand. High brand reputation is actually a kind of implicit commitment to the customers. This commitment shows that firms should provide customers with services or products which are consistent with customers' expectations (Rhee and Haunschild, 2006). According to the theory of expectation violation effect, in the process of interaction between individuals, they tend to hold expectation on others' behaviors. If such expectation cannot be satisfied, individuals will hold negative attitude toward others. The more individuals are not satisfied, the more negative attitude they will have (Burgoon and Poire, 1993). For negative events of DCI, the higher level brand reputation, the larger extent violation of commitment perceived by customers. In this condition, customers will have larger extent of negative emotion. Thus, compared with low level of brand reputation, negative events of DCI tend to have a more influence on high level of brand reputation and damage brand relationship with a large extent. On the other hand, brand image with high level of reputation means firms should fulfill their social responsibility. In other words, on the aspect of protecting public interest and delivering

positive values, customers hold high level of expectation on brand with high level of reputation (Dean, 2004). For negative events of IDCI, the higher level brand reputation, the larger extent to which firms' image perceived by customers is damaged. In this condition, customers will have larger extent of negative attitude on the brand. Therefore, compared with a low brand reputation, the influence on brand image in negative events of IDCI on the high reputation of brand is bigger, and the damage on brand relationship is stronger. By combining H3 with H4, we hypothesize as follows:

H5: brand reputation positively moderates the relationship between negative events of DCI and brand relationship.

H6: brand reputation positively moderates the relationship between negative events of IDCI and brand relationship.

Experiment Design

Two simulation experiments are designed to test the influence of two types of negative events on the brand name of restaurant service.

Experiment 1

116 MBA students are selected to participate in the Experiment 1, with 52 male and 64 female. A one-factor between-group experiment is used to test hypotheses H1, H2, H3 and H4.

Scenario Design

(1) Stimuli

Considering the well-known brand name of KFC and the strong influence of negative events, this experiment selected two negative events related to KFC as stimuli.

Event 1: China News Taiyuan, on 24 November, reports that KFC and other well-known

fast food restaurants international purchase chicken which grow up in a short 45-day period from Shanxi ** Group.

Event 1 is a direct related negative event.

Event 2: Goat City Evening reports, journalists disclose that part-time employees working for KFC need to work for more than 10 hours daily with salary of 4 RMB per hour, which is far lower than the minimum wage standard set up by local government. KFC is then called as Sweet Plant.

Event 2 is an indirect related negative event.

(2) Pretest

Pretest is conducted to control the consistence of experiment material, the severity and authenticity of the events. 58 MBA students participated in the pretest. The result shows that the consistence of categorizing negative events by participants is 100%, which indicates that the aforementioned scenario is consistent with proposed design. The severity scores for the two events are 5.92 and 6.02 respectively, higher than the medium 4, $T_{\text{matched}} = 1.46, p > 0.10$, indicating there is no significant difference between the two events and the two types of negative events are highly severe. The average authenticity scores for the two events are 5.89 and 5.88 respectively, higher than the medium 4, $T_{\text{matched}} = 1.46, p > 0.1$, indicating that the two negative events show some reliability.

Construct Measure

We borrow the measurement for brand image, perceived quality, and brand relationship from extant literature.

The measurement for brand image is borrowed from Aaker (1997) and Schouten (1991) and consists of three items, i.e., “This Brand has its personality and gives me unique feeling”, “This brand shows my own type,” and “This brand raises my social statue.”

The measurement for perceptual quality is borrowed from Dodds et al. (1991) and Kim et

al. (2003) and consists of three items, i.e., “Your evaluation on the quality of food and drink of this brand”, “Your evaluation on the service quality of this brand, ” and “Your evaluation on the environment and facilities of this brand. ”

The measurement for brand relationship is borrowed from He Jiaxun(2006), Fournier(1998), Aaker, et al. (1997) and Escalas and Bettman (2003) and consists of 5 items, i.e., “I think I am satisfied by this brand, ” “I think I am loyal to this brand,” “I will miss it if this brand doesn’t exist, ” “I will come and shop in this brand,” “This brand is related to how I look at myself.”

We conducted reliability and validity test for these measurement items. The reliability test shows the Cronbach’s alphas of brand image, perceptual quality and brand relationship are 0.902, 0.817, and 0.931 respectively, indicating an acceptable reliability. The factor loadings for three items of brand image are 0.88, 0.87 and 0.93; those for perceptual quality are 0.86, 0.83 and 0.71, and those for brand relationship are 0.85, 0.89, 0.92, 0.94 and 0.77 respectively. All the factor loads are higher than the threshold 0.70 (Qiu and Lin, 2009) indicating that the measures have convergent validity. The square roots of AVE for brand image, perceptual quality and brand relationship are 0.79, 0.78 and 0.81, higher than the correlation coefficients of the respect variables (0.22, 0.51, 0.49), which shows discriminant validity.

Results

This experiment conducts a series of steps including grouping and guiding participants, test of control, and measuring participants’ cognition and emotional response. SPSS 16.0 is used to analyze data.

(1) The main effect of two types of negative events on brand relationship

A comparison test of participants’ response before and after they were exposed for negative events stimuli is conducted to testify the main effect of negative events of DCI on brand relationship. The scores for brand relationship are $M_{\text{before}} = 5.40 > M_{\text{after}} = 4.07$

($T_{\text{matched}} = 4.65, p < 0.001$) (see Figure 1), indicating that negative events of DCI have significant negative impacts on brand relationship and H1 is supported.

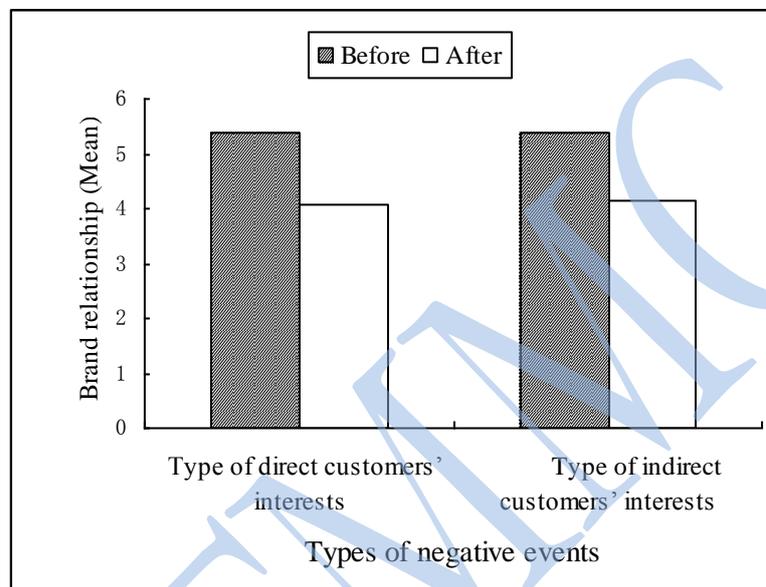


Figure 1 Impacts of the two types of negative events on brand relationship

A comparison test of participants' response before and after they were exposed for negative events of IDCII stimuli is conducted to testify the main effect of negative events of IDCII on brand relationship. The variation of scores for brand relationship are $M_{\text{before}} = 5.39 > M_{\text{after}} = 4.13$ ($T_{\text{matched}} = 4.98, p < 0.001$) (see Figure 1), indicating that negative events of IDCII have significant negative impacts on brand relationship and H2 is supported.

In addition, the variation of scores for brand relationship of two groups are $\Delta M_{\text{direct}} = 5.40 - 4.07 = 1.33$, $\Delta M_{\text{indirect}} = 5.39 - 4.13 = 1.26$, with $T_{\text{independent}} = 0.75, p > 0.10$, indicating that two types of negative events have no significant impacts on brand relationship.

(2) The mediation of perceived quality and brand image on the relationship between negative events on brand relationship

The Baron and Kenny's (1986) causal analysis method is used to test the proposed

mediation of perceptual quality and brand image on the relationship between negative events on brand relationship. A dummy variable (1 indicates “There is negative event”, 0 indicates “No negative events”) is used for data analysis. The results are shown in Table 2 and show that perceived quality has mediation effect on the relationship between direct related negative events and brand relationship and H3 is supported. The results also show that brand image mediates the relationship between indirect related negative events and brand relationship and H4 is supported.

Table 2 Mediation analysis

	Testing of perceived quality' mediating effect			Testing of brand image' mediating effect		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
	BR	PQ	BR	BR	BI	BR
DCI	-0.45**	-0.56**	-0.21*	IDCI	-0.55**	-0.49**
Perceived quality			0.42**	Brand image		0.63**
Adjusted R ²	0.35	0.38	0.49	Adjusted R ²	0.23	0.39

注：**表示 $p < 0.01$, *表示 $p < 0.05$; BR: brand relationship; PQ: perceived quality; BI: brand image

Experiment II

We selected 122 MBA students as the experiment participants, including 68 males and 54 females. To test whether H5 and H6 are supported, we used 2 (negative events of DCI and IDCI) × 2 (brands with high and low levels of reputation) between-group analysis.

Experimental Design

(1) Experiment pre-test: choosing catering firms

Two types of catering firms were chosen from 10 brands enumerated in Table 1. Based on Fombrun (1995), we use four items to test the condition of brand reputation. They are “this brand is reputable”, “this brand is credible”, “this brand is deserved to be trusted”, and “this brand pays attention to customers” interests”. 7-point Likert scale was used to measure these items.

We then test the reliability and convergent validity of the construct of brand reputation. Our results show that the Cronbach alpha is 0.914 and the factor loading of the four items are 0.83, 0.90, 0.84, and 0.79, which are all above 0.70. These results manifest good reliability and convergent validity.

Next, we test the demographic condition of the ten brands. The results show that KFC has the best brand reputation ($M_{KFC}=5.89$) and the Country Type Cooking (CSC) has the worst brand reputation ($M_{CSC} = 4.17$). The difference of mean values between KFC and CSC is significant ($T_{paired} = 22.78, p < 0.001$), manifesting brand reputations of KFC and CSC are different. Therefore, it is reasonable for us to choose these two brands as study objectives.

(2) The Stimuli of Experiment

To control the impacts of irrelevant variables on experiment results, we design the same stimuli for KFC and CSC in our experiment to be consistent with experiment I.

Results

(1) The moderating role of brand reputation on the relationship between negative events of DCI and brand relationship.

Our result shows that the difference of perceived quality in the brands with different reputation is significant ($\Delta M_{reputable} = 1.52 > \Delta M_{disreputable} = 1.31, T_{independent} = 2.02, p < 0.05$), manifesting that compared with brands with low reputation, negative events of DCI impact more on perceived quality of brand with high reputation (See Figure 2). The difference of brand relationship in brands with different reputation is also significant ($\Delta M_{reputable} = 1.62 > \Delta M_{disreputable} = 1.29, T_{independent} = 2.11, p < 0.05$), manifesting that compared with brands with low reputation, negative events of DCI impact more on brand relationship with high reputation. Accordingly, H5 was supported.

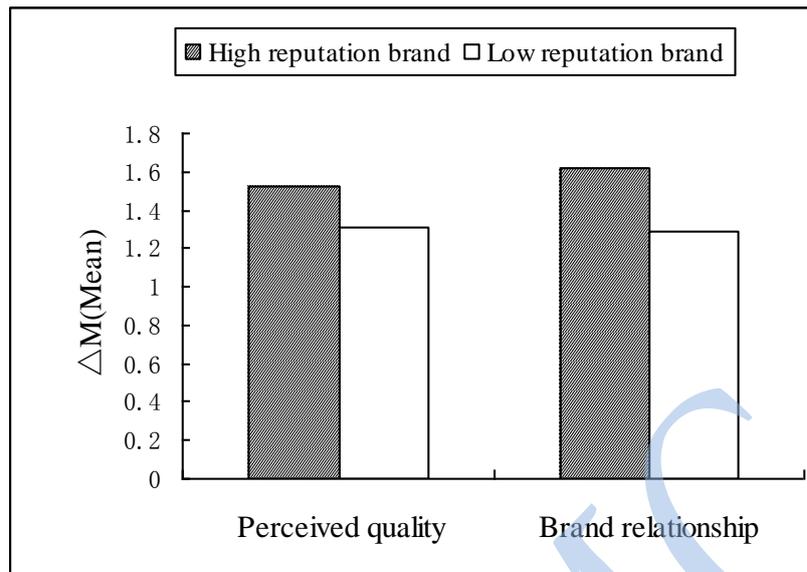


Figure 2 Moderating effect of brand reputation on brand relationship under the condition of DCI negative events

(2) The moderating role of brand reputation on the relationship between negative events of IDCI and brand relationship.

Our result shows that the difference of brand image in the brands with different reputation is significant ($\Delta M_{\text{reputable}} = 1.83 > \Delta M_{\text{disreputable}} = 1.32$, $T_{\text{independent}} = 3.19$, $p < 0.01$), manifesting that compared with brands with low reputation, negative events of IDCI impact more on image of brand with high reputation (See Figure 3). The difference of brand relationship in brands with different reputation is also significant ($\Delta M_{\text{reputable}} = 1.67 > \Delta M_{\text{disreputable}} = 1.25$, $T_{\text{independent}} = 3.07$, $p < 0.01$), manifesting that compared with brands with low reputation, negative events of IDCI impact more on brand relationship with high reputation. Accordingly, H6 was supported.

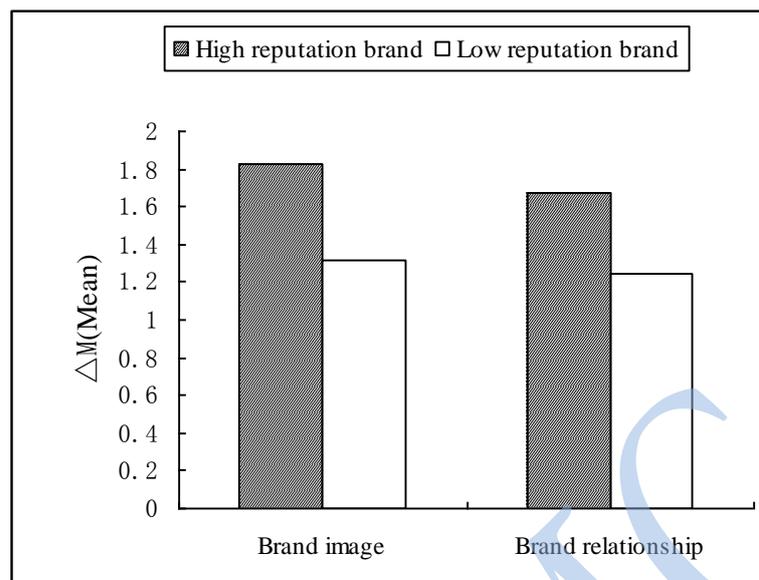


Figure 3 Moderating effect of brand reputation on brand relationship under the condition of IDCI negative events

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND LIMITATIONS

Research implications

First, the results of this study show that the two types of negative events (i.e., DCI and IDCI) negatively impact brand relationship and no difference exist on these two types. This result manifests that individual's behavior is driven by two types of interests including personal interest and public interest. When individuals' interests are reduced in negative events, individuals tend to make decisions based on their interests' loss. When individuals' interests are not affected in negative events, individuals' decision-making may be replaced by public interest oriented by social values. In fact, altruistic behaviors driven by public interest are to realize individuals' interests at last. Restaurant service is different from other industries on the aspect of food security, which is paid much attention by customers. Thus, consumers' trust on the brands of restaurant service is very important for firms. Such trust can be strengthened or weaken by customers' interpretation on the non-operational behaviors of restaurants. Therefore, brand relationship of restaurant service tends to be easily impacted by

negative events. Negative events of IDCI and DCI can both damage the brand relationship and cause consumers' boycott on the brand.

Second, our results show that the two types of negative events impact brand relationship on different ways. Specifically, negative events of DCI impact brand relationship through perceived quality while negative events of IDCI are through brand image. This result means that brand relationship can be damaged by both perceived quality and brand image. Negative events of DCI produce negative perception of customers on brands' functional attributes, which in turns reduce perceived quality and damage brand relationship. On the other hand, negative events of IDCI produce negative identification of customers on brands' symbolic attributes, which in turns damage brand image and brand relationship.

Third, our results show that the impact of negative events on brand relationship is moderated by brand reputation; such that the higher brand reputation, the more negative impact of negative events on brand relationship. Compared with brand with low reputation, negative events of DCI impact more on perceived quality, and thus on brand relationship. On the other hand, compared with brand with low reputation, negative events of IDCI impact more on brand image with high reputation, and on brand relationship. Such results manifest that brand reputation can strengthen the adverse effect of negative events. Past studies show that when customers obtain information that is different from their pre-judgment, they prefer to follow their pre-judgment and neglect the information they obtained (Hogarth and Einhorn, 1992). In other words, customer can positively pre-judge on the brand with high reputation. In fact, this result reveals the initial stage that consumers respond to negative events. As customers know more about negative events, they tend to generate more negative emotion toward brand with high reputation and strengthen the extent to which negative events damage brand relationship.

Managerial Implications

First, restaurants should classify negative events from the viewpoint of customers' interests. Previously, firms paid much attention to negative events of DCI while neglect the importance of the ones of IDCI. This study finds that negative events of IDCI play a negative impact on brand relationship. Therefore, restaurants should especially highlight the management of negative events of IDCI.

Second, for negative events of DCI, firms should implement starting from improving perceived quality of customers, so to minimize the interest loss and maintain the relationship between customers and brands. For negative events of IDCI, firms should implement from improving brand image, so to minimize the interest loss and maintain the relationship between customers and brands.

Third, brand reputation can be treated as a double-edged sword. Firm should not only pay attention to the profit brought by reputation, but also highlight the impact of brand reputation on the reinforcement of negative events. Firms should do appropriate brand communication to strengthen the expectation management of brand.

Limitations and Future Research

This study used MBA students as respondents. Future studies should adopt other sample to generalize our results. This study did not consider customers' personality. Future studies should consider treating personality such as cognition need and implicit personality as a moderator. Moreover, future studies could also consider firms' communication strategy as a moderator on the relationship between negative events and brand relationship.

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The Case of the 2010 FIFA World Cup; Was It Truly an African Event?

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ABSTRACT

This article critically examines the effect and the dynamics of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in relation to major African regional economic players. It was conducted with an assumption that the branding of the 2010 FIFA World Cup as ‘Africa’s Time’, ‘Africa’s moment’, and ‘Africa’s turn’ to the benefit of the continent would be viewed with pessimism, at least by the (Egypt, Algeria, Kenya, Ethiopia, Ghana and Nigeria) major African regional economic players, as an event that did not benefit the continent as a whole but South Africa and the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region.

Phenomenological strategy under qualitative methods whereby face to face interviews were conducted was used. Sample was drawn from the pool of diplomatic community and the staff of relevant Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and Inter-Governmental Organisations (IGOs) in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The results revealed that an event was a tremendous boost to the pride and confidence of Africa and its people. Credit should be given to South Africa

because an event did not only ensure African ownership but instilled the sense of African pride.

KEYWORDS African Regional Economic Players, 2010 FIFA WC, South African marketing strategy

INTRODUCTION

Hosting the FIFA World Cup for the first time in Africa brought a lot of expectations. Expectations were not only fuelled by the excitement of Africa's opportunity to host this spectacle, but anticipation of benefits associated with the actual hosting of the event. The international community diverted its attention to South Africa from 11 June to 11 July 2010. Such attention was due to the country's hosting of the Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) soccer World Cup (WC). South Africa is regarded as the modern and the most developed country on the African continent. According to Ridgers (2007, p. 46), South Africa is a perfectly positioned country that boasts with the most developed system of infrastructure within an African continent. Ridgers further states that South Africa seizes to take advantage of potential trade and tourism opportunities in both the East and the West given a fact that the country is quite neutral country in terms of geographic location. Moreover, South Africa's historical background, infrastructure and advancement contribute to South Africa's popularity, including its distinctive destination marketing and advertising strategies.

The country has creatively used sports tourism events and mega events such as the Rugby World Cup in (1995), the Cricket World Cup in (2003), FIFA World Cup (2010) and the Africa Cup of Nations Cup (2012) to champion her global marketing agenda. In this

connection, one would argue that South Africa used the opportunity of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup to further entrench her global position. However, the reality remains that the 2010 FIFA World Cup placed South Africa at the different level.

Since this was the first time for such a big sporting event to be held in Africa, a lot of expectations and assumptions were triggered. Such expectations and assumptions ranged from economic, social and environmental benefits. According to Swart and Bob (2004, p.1311), major international events are generally associated with high levels of socio-economic and political benefits for host countries. They further, contend that such socio-economic and political benefits are often linked to the accrual of economic opportunities, related infrastructural development, and identity and image building of the host country, as well as to a significant contribution towards future tourism potential. Judging from the above assertion, it would be no surprise that hosting an event of such magnitude could be viewed as undoubtedly providing a unique and advantageous opportunity to market the host country. The World Cup is famous for delivering measurable media value, category exclusivity and a genuine opportunity to reach core consumers while expanding the boundaries of brand loyalty through an authentic marketing vehicle that boosts sales. The question arise whether the 2010 FIFA World Cup branded as 'Africa's Time', 'Africa's moment', and 'Africa's turn' brought benefits to other African countries, especially the major regional economic players, who had high hopes since this was the first mega event taking place in the continent?

This paper focuses on the effects and the dynamics of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on major African regional economic players. This paper also seeks to examine if, indeed, the African economic regional players viewed the 2010 soccer World Cup as *Africa's moment*, or *Africa's time*, or *Africa's turn*. Through the marketing of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, there were lots of

expectations of benefits which are explored in this study. The critical area of focus was on the views and perceptions towards South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The chosen African economic regional players are the Northern, Eastern and Western African regions. Two countries were selected per region. Collectively, these countries were referred to as "*African regional economic players*", and are also referred to as the "*African countries*" in this study. The term '*African regional economic players*' is specifically meant to refer to Egypt and Algeria (Northern Africa), Nigeria and Ghana (Western Africa), Kenya and Ethiopia (Eastern Africa) as the key major role players within their economic regions. In this context, the study will focus on effects of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on the above mentioned countries.

Marketing privileges that often accompany hosting of the event of this magnitude cannot be over emphasized. Suffice to state that individual countries that have the privilege to host the FIFA World Cup often take advantage of the opportunity and thereby marketing themselves tremendously to the world. The host country (South Africa) was undoubtedly awarded the opportunity to host the event, not only by virtue of her potential but as an African representative. In a nutshell, South Africa was awarded the opportunity due to her being situated in Africa. It would be fallacy to assume that in her bidding process, South Africa was unaware of her comparative advantage. Thus, the organizers capitalized on the comparative advantage of South Africa's location with a view of swinging votes in favour of South Africa. However, such strategy came at a price. According to Desai and Vahed (2009: 162), marketing the World Cup as an African event added pressure on organizers to 'deliver' not only the myriad of benefits promised to South Africa but also meet the expectations of African countries. In this regard and taking into account Desai and Vahed's argument, one would argue that failure to deliver on the expectations of other African countries could result

in the event being viewed with pessimism, at least by the Northern, Eastern and Western major African regional economic players. Such pessimism would be motivated by the assumption that the event will not benefit the continent but South Africa and the Southern region. It is against this backdrop, this study observes the dilemma that would face South Africa in trying to balance its national marketing and development strategy against the continental wide agenda of economic integration.

It is worth noting that this article was conducted through obtaining information from the chosen African countries on their views towards the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The point of departure was to examine and analyze the literature that exists on the effect of the World Cup as a mega event and in relation to an African context. The understanding and analysis of the views of the major African regional economic players was obtained from the conduct of unstructured interviews to identify themes and motifs. As mentioned earlier that the sample included the representatives of the mentioned countries through their respective embassies in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Other interviewees were nationals of the selected countries who work at the African Union (AU) and United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA). This approach was not only cost effective but served to overcome challenges associated with the feasibility of visiting or travelling to all the selected countries by the researcher within the limited time.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical framework based on Game and Keynes theory

Mega-events have a tendency to create prospects and assumption that are often linked to the accumulation of economic opportunities, related infrastructural development, identity and image building of the host country, let alone a massive boost to the tourism potential of the

country. South Africa hoped to utilize the World Cup for long term benefits of attracting investors to the country. In this regard, it is contended that the Keynesianism theory and Game theory offer a better understanding of South Africa's decision to host the FIFA World Cup. According to Conway (2009, p. 38 see also Case and Fair, 2007, p.683), the key to Keynes argument is the idea of the government being responsible for the economy. In his argument, Keynes purports that the extra cash spent by government would filter through the economy. Thus, the key to Keynes' argument is the idea of the multiplier effect (Conway, 2009: 39). Keynes also believed that the government had a role to play in fighting inflation and unemployment. He also believed that monetary and fiscal policy should be used to manage macro-economy (Case & Fair, 2007: 683).

Using the Keynesianism in relation to South Africa's decision to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup, it could be argued that the government utilized the event to address its economic and development programs and thereby keeping the economy afloat. Thus, within a space of a month South Africa gained unprecedented levels of publicity. Such publicity may go a long way in advertising South Africa as an investor friendly environment. Keynes theory would describe such publicity to investors as long term benefits that were created through government's active involvement by hosting the World Cup event to address economic challenges. South African government used the event as a stepping stone to invest in the long-term capital gains. Indeed, the idea by the government seems to have borne some fruits. During his interview on TV, Mr Mkhondo, the Communications officer of the LOC, 'the 2010 FIFA World Cup enabled South Africa to achieve her goals in many ways; including an estimated 4% Gross Domestic Product (GDP)'. He further revealed that 'through the hosting of the event South Africa managed to create about 159 000 new jobs for the poor'. This figure, according to Mkhondo, excludes other temporary jobs from the construction of the

stadia and the roads. Based on the above stated socioeconomic and other benefits obtained by South Africa by virtue of hosting, and since the event was dubbed “Africa’s moment” one would wonder the extent to which the continent benefited from this event. It could be asked if other African countries received the economic benefits from this massive event, as it may have been originally anticipated.

However, indications so far are that South Africa remains the sole beneficiary of tangible gains arising from hosting the event. It is against this backdrop that this study anticipates pessimism from other major African economies. Hence, it is argued that major African economies will view South Africa with pessimism owing to her capitalizing on Africa’s sentiments for her selfish economic developmental needs.

It is contended that the Game theory assisted in explaining the decision by South Africa to host event. Before delving on the explanation, it is critical to unpack the theory. According to Conway (2009: 190) the Game theory is the science behind human strategy. It is a study that embarks on second-guessing each others actions and what the ultimate consequences will be. Case and Fair (2007: 314-315) state that Game theorists believe that if two or more people or organizations pursue their own interests and in which no one of them can dictate the outcome, they are playing a game; hence the Game theory. In an attempt to explain South Africa’s situation one would argue that the country employed Game theory as a strategy aimed at assisting her to lure support of the continent and the international community at large to host the event. The bidding process which was characterized by pan-Africanist sentiments, the logo and slogan 'It's Africa's Turn!', as well as the marketing of an event itself (*it is Africa’s time*) one would contend that South Africa appealed to the pan-Africanist ideology for her benefit. Moreover, it should be noted that the official slogan of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was

“*KeNako – Celebrate Africa’s Humanity*”. Using the Game theory to explain South Africa’s appeal to pan-Africanism, it would appear that the country second-guessed FIFA and the international community at large. From this premise, one may argue that South Africa employed this strategy with the thorough consideration of the history of the event. After realizing that FIFA had been alternating between America and Europe but not Asia and Africa, South Africa used that history to her advantage. In this connection, FIFA was plunged in a dilemma between sticking to its guns and face criticism of discrimination or surrender to Africa’s demands and risk criticism from the beneficiaries of the status quo. Neither FIFA nor the international community could risk criticism for unfairness on Africa.

South Africa also second-guessed the continent when it came to her serious competitor (Morocco). In this regard, South Africa would appeal to the African Union (AU), a grouping of 53 African countries with the exclusion of Morocco. This approach may have ensured South Africa’s endorsement (by the AU) as an African candidate to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Arguing in the same premise, one would state that FIFA was made to believe that the event was being awarded to the continent (Africa) and not the country (South Africa). Hence, the ‘*Africa’s moment*’ slogan was dubbed. Conway (2009, p.192), further states that the key to Game theory is that in an art of second-guessing people are forced to second-guess another rational, self-interested human intentions. Moreover, South Africa pulled the cards of the 2010 FIFA World Cup legacy, which is likely to leave the positive effects on the African continent. The legacy by FIFA included a, ‘win in Africa with Africa’ campaign endorsed by FIFA Congress and the ‘Goal program’.

Although both Keynesianism and Game theories, seem to offer a better theoretical understanding of South Africa’s decision to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the setback could be the sustainability of South Africa’s strategies. For instance Roche (2000, p.8) notes that

mega-events tend to send ambiguous messages. In this regard, one would agree with Roche considering that South Africa may have unintentionally sent mixed messages to the continent. The first message would be that South Africa can serve as a representative of Africa in the world. The question arises if the major African regional economic players continue to support South Africa for future bids? Will South Africa's game plan backfire?

An overview of the dynamics and effects of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on major African regional economic players

The FIFA World Cup is the most popular and prestigious event in the world, attracting similar international events goes a long way in showcasing the country's potential to the world. Although the general population of Africa expected the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup to contribute to the development of the continent in one way or another, the host country appears to have been a major benefactor in terms of marketing as well as development.

The benefits of hosting the FIFA World Cup are innumerable, as they include the direct and indirect economic, social and environmental benefits. For instance, being the host of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa enjoys friendly matches with international teams. According to the research conducted by Lepp and Gibson (2011), the results suggest that SA's strategy to reimage through sport appears to be working and the media coverage of major sport events is quite influential and should be managed to achieve desired outcomes. Existing literature shows that costs of hosting a major event are usually underestimated, while beneficial impacts are normally overestimated. Although it is mostly assumed that hosting the World Cup encompasses benefits (ranging from the utilization of economies of scale, new technology, foreign investment, mass media advertising, and increase in tourism, employment opportunities, increase in consumption patterns and other positive effects, Sterken (2010,

p.22) cautions against overestimating the growth impact of large sporting events. Arguing along Sterken's views one would add that hosting an event like this often requires serious commitment of resources by the host country to ensure that the standards associated with hosting are met. For instance, in preparation to host an event, the host country is often compelled to invest in its infrastructure, be it the remarkable stadia, tourism facilities, transportation or communication networks. This work may not always be motivated by the desire of the host country to unleash its potential, but the anticipation of heightened economic activity during the actual event. However, others suggest that the sporting events or stadiums have little or no significant impact on the regional income and /or unemployment (Maennig and Du Plessis 2007, p.578). The question arises as to what extent has the 2010 FIFA World Cup fulfilled the notion of 'Africa's moment' or 'Africa's turn' or 'Africa's time'?

Mega-sporting events play a huge role on destination marketing. The research by Hinch and Higham (2004 cited in Swart *et al.* 2008: 123) reveals that events have become an increasingly significant component of destination marketing and sport is increasingly being used as the focus of strategies to rejuvenate tourism destinations. This can be interpreted as meaning that any sporting event can have a great effect on the lives of the people, organizations and governments. According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006) sporting mega-events are complex affairs which originate from specific sets of economic objectives but which have political and social corollaries that usually extend beyond the event itself. FIFA World Cup is not an exception.

Maennig and Du Plessis (2007, p.578) affirm that potential benefits of hosting the tournament are multidimensional, since they include direct pecuniary benefits associated with activities at the time of the tournaments and expenditure by tourists, teams, the media, and the

organizing committee. Therefore, it is not surprising that a number of countries seriously embark on competitive bidding to host the FIFA World Cup. South Africa's 2010 bidding is therefore not an exception to the above enumerated statements. Countries often bid for the right to host sporting events because of the attached benefits which can include creating better social interactions, stimulating the local economy and showcasing the region to the world, the development of facilities and infrastructure, entertainment and social opportunities, and the sense of pride and identity, as a result of hosting a sport event (Swart *et al.* 123). However, competitions to host mega-events occur on an unequal basis which, for African countries, is worsened by very unfavorable positioning in the international arena (Cornelissen 2004, p.1293). In this connection one would ask if the unfavorable position is enough motivation for African countries to stand together when it comes to the bidding of mega-events or it will make African countries to indulge more on extensive individual competition. FIFA World Cup is one such event that countries often compete to host.

Although, there were other African countries who bided to host 2010 soccer World Cup, South Africa was an eventual winner. According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006: 1), once a country is able to break into the international arena of hosting mega-events its desire to attract more mega events usually gets stimulated. In doing so, it means that the host country will continue to get massive marketing through the power of destination branding. Despite the decision to accord Africa a chance, the bidding process remained tedious and complicated. For instance, Cornelissen (2004, p.1296) maintains that for developing countries, the process of constructing their bids, the ways in which these bids are received by the Western World, and the various effects that this might have are significantly influenced by their position in the world. Hence, the African countries FIFA final bids could be understood when placed against the backdrop of the continent's position in a wider international system. According to

Grundling and Stynberg (2008,p.16) five African countries including Nigeria, Egypt, Libya, Morocco, Tunisia and South Africa presented their bids on 30 September 2003. However, towards the end of 2003 Nigeria withdrew and thereby creating a way for South Africa. Reasons for Nigeria's withdrawal remain unclear.

On the 8th of May 2004, Tunisia and Libya withdrew owing to their joint bid proposal being disallowed. The rejection of the joint bid was due to it not meeting the requirements. This situation meant that the competition would only be between South Africa, Egypt and Morocco. At the end Egypt got zero points, Morocco managed to get 10 points as opposed to South Africa which got 14 points and effectively became the first African country to win the bid to host the most prestigious event in the globe. It has been observed that during the bidding process South Africa and Morocco made an extensive use of an ideological and emotive posturing of 'Africa' (Cornelissen 2004, p.1293). It is important to note that it was not for the first time for both Morocco and South Africa to bid for the FIFA World Cup. They both bided to host the 2006 FIFA World Cup finals but both lost the bid to Germany.

According to Cornelissen (2004, p.1297) (2008) one of the most significant qualities of the South Africa's bid was its pan-Africanist basis, characterized by its logo and slogan: 'It's Africa's Turn!' The logo was geared to convey to the remainder of the world the central idea that Africa (a large football region) had never had the opportunity to host a spectacle of this magnitude. Bob, et al. (2008,p .50) assert that the slogan '[I]t's Africa's turn' has centralized political imperatives regarding Africa's 'right' to benefit from the mega-event industry. Consequently, the pan-Africanist thrust was vitally aimed at gathering as much African support for South Africa's bid as possible. Alegi (2008, p.399) purports that South Africa's successful attempts to host the 1999 All-Africa Games and 2003 Cricket World Cup bids

constructed ‘a particular conception of the African continent’. In this connection it should be argued that South Africa effectively utilized pan-Africanist ideology, slogans and Africa’s past successes as bases for her 2010 FIFA World Cup bidding process.

However, during the bidding process South Africa’s strategy was to capitalize on the sentiments that the African continent has never been accorded an opportunity to host the World Cup. Hence, the key message was that “it is Africa’s time”. Moving from this premise, South Africa became the Ambassador of the continent, a factor that raised expectations that South Africa would host the event on behalf of the continent. Even the continent in general, hoped that the benefits associated with the World Cup would spread to other countries. In this connection, the question that is worth asking is if other major African regional economic players really saw growth and development as initially anticipated. Another question would be, if either South Africa took the continent for a ride with ‘its Africa’s time’ slogan.

Bonnett (2004, p.4) notes that ‘the debate surrounding the role South Africa plays in Africa seems to intensify every time the country wins a continental show piece, be it the rights to the World Cup or the Pan African Parliament. Although the general feeling was that the event was going to benefit the entire continent, but the reality is that South Africa, and to some extent the Southern region may be the only recipients of the tangible benefits associated with the World Cup, as opposed to other African regional economic players. Thus, potential investors (from all over the world) took the advantage of World Cup to explore potential investment opportunities in South Africa and the Southern Africa Region in general but not in Nigeria, Egypt, Ghana, Algeria, Ethiopia or Kenya. Indeed, it would have been practically impossible for this event to benefit the entire continent the same way it benefited South Africa and the Region considering that visiting business community would have identified

investments and trade opportunities in South Africa and possibly the SADC region, not the selected major African regional economic players.

Given the above factors, one would ask as to how we expect major African regional economic players outside the Southern region to be optimistic about an event that will not directly benefit them. It is hard not to imagine that at the end of it all, African countries outside the SADC region will view South Africa as a selfish country that took the continent for a free ride. This pessimistic view could be born out of South Africa's initial bidding strategy (since the bid was made on the basis of a Pan Africanist agenda) and the marketing slogans that were used to promote the event. Thus, South Africa could be viewed as a country that strategically manipulated the continent's political sentiments to further her economic and developmental agenda. Desai and Vahed (2009, p.155), pose a question as to what did Africa stand to gain from the World Cup in 2010 to warrant its bidding as a pan-African event. They further wonder if this strategy was to 'provide a powerful, irresistible momentum to [the] African renaissance'. This is an indication of scepticism on the event's benefits. However, Desai and Vahed (2009, p.159), further provide an answer to the above questions by stating that the broad rationale was that the 2010 event would be a boost for South Africa specifically and more generally on the African Renaissance agenda, heralding the growing unity of the continent in its quest to escape the quagmire of poverty.

South Africa was faced with a dilemma for being the host of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and striking a balance between the national economic and development policy as opposed to the continent- wide integration agenda. This observation is based on the understanding that South Africa stands to be the main beneficiary from hosting this event, yet, during the bidding process and during the event itself, South Africa marketed the event as 'Africa's time',

‘Africa’s moment’ and ‘Africa’s turn’. This strategy may have raised a lot of assumptions to the rest of the continent, specifically the major African regional economic players. According to Swart and Bob (2004: 312) hosting major events depends on the international recognition in relations to economic, social, political capacity. This has a symbolic meaning as it is the fine line that separates adoration and resentment. Hosting an international event has reparations and drawbacks. Expectations tend to be shaped and assumptions are made that create a sense of discerning. It is important that South African government and business entities play a crucial role when it comes to the cooperation between South Africa and major African regional economic players. According to Grundling and Steynberg (2008, p.17) South Africa as the host of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, has a unique opportunity to market herself to the world. This can be illustrated by the bigger businesses, especially those in South Africa's sophisticated financial services sector that stood to benefit from the World Cup.

Consequently, South Africa should have no difficulty taking advantage of 2010's economic opportunities. For this reason, a major intervention by the Government of South Africa is recommended to ensure that regional economic integration in Africa goes smoothly, without any hesitation and unhealthy competition within the continent.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This article was undertaken through the utilization of the qualitative research methods. Phenomenological design strategy was used. to understand the effects of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on the selected major Africa regional economic players. This choice was to obtain understanding of perceptions and perspectives associated with South Africa’s hosting of the World Cup could enhance one’s understanding of the possible effects of the 2010 FIFA World

Cup. Thus, views, opinions and perceptions on the effect of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on major African regional economic players were a crucial point of departure. Interviews were chosen as a better tool of obtaining people's views and opinions with regard to the 2010 FIFA World Cup. De Vos et al, (2005, p. 287-293), assert that the focused and discursive nature of in-depth interviews allow the researcher and participant to explore an issue extensively; hence the choice of interviews as a proper tool for the study. Moreover, this research method was further chosen because it made things easier for the researcher to represent narrative findings and thereby leading to an understanding of the selected major African regional economic players on the effects and if there were any benefits from the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

Research design

Face to face interviews and consisted of 3 different types of structured questionnaires (for the experts on trade and industry - economists or official representatives of the chosen countries; the representatives or nationals of all the selected countries working at the AU and UNECA; and for South African representatives and officials at the South African embassy in Ethiopia. Interviews were conducted with consistency, data confidentiality, and personal privacy (by obtaining informed consent from the interviewees). Face to face interviews tremendously assisted when it comes to ambiguous answers, because one had an opportunity to ask for clarity or for more information. To ensure validity a comparison of opinions and views was undertaken, especially with regard to interviewees of the same country. Where necessary, evidence obtained from the interviewees was scrutinised with due cognisance of the Keynesianism and Game theories so as to get a better relationship between the theory and reality.

Sampling design and description

The sample was drawn from the pool of diplomatic community and the staff of relevant Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and Inter-Governmental Organisations (IGOs) in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The target group were individuals from the major African regional economic players namely; Northern region (Egypt and Algeria), Eastern region (Kenya and Ethiopia) and Western region (Ghana and Nigeria). In this context, for official responses from various diplomats at the embassies of the above stated countries in Ethiopia were interviewed. One of the advantages is that Ethiopia is Africa's diplomatic hub with multilateral missions (e.g. AU and United Nation's Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA)). These institutions provided an opportunity to get unofficial responses through interviewing officials of the mentioned countries and experts within AU and UNECA. With regards to Ethiopia, in-depth interviews were carried out with the leaders and officials in both government and private sector. Thus, respondents were chosen from Ethiopian Ministry of Youth and Sports, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Culture and Tourism as well as a private the an NGO based in Ethiopia (Institute for Security Studies (ISS)).

Under this arrangement, the description of research participants included the official representatives of Algeria, Egypt, Ghana, Nigeria and Kenya as well as the experts holding key positions relevant to the subject from any country (like the Head of Social Affairs division in AU, who was interviewed regardless of the origin due to the fact that he was dealing closely with the issues surrounding the 2010 FIFA World Cup). Also interviewed were the experts holding relevant positions at the UNECA. This approach served to overcome the unfeasibility of visiting or travelling to all the selected countries by the researcher within the limited time.

One would assume that the selected sample would be inhibited by what could be called a ‘diplomatic trap’ where representatives of selected countries would rather be diplomatic and give the researcher evasive and diplomatic answers, owing to each country’s relations with South Africa. However, this trap was overcome through carefully crafted questions. For instance, rather than asking questions about the relations between the selected countries and South Africa or their feelings about the latter, questions concentrated on promises, expectations, and declarations regarding South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Feelings, perceptions and attitudes of the selected countries could be better gauged by juxtaposing the responses of the participants to the questions on promises, expectations, and declarations regarding South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The intended outcome of this exercise was to get an understanding of the effects of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on major African regional economic players.

Data collection

The data collection method involved multiple sources of information. For instance all the relevant data was gathered through primary and secondary sources. The study contextualized South Africa’s decision of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup through the Keynesianism and game theories. A detailed literature review was conducted to measure the African regional economic players’ attitudes towards the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Unstructured interviews were conducted owing to the wisdom of De Vos et al. (2005, p. 287-293), that unstructured interviews are used to determine individuals perceptions, opinions, facts and forecast, and their reaction to the initial findings and potential solutions. Data for this study was collected from the 23 representatives of the selected countries located in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Data was collected from five embassies (Algeria, Egypt, Kenya, Nigeria and Ghana), 3 Ethiopian ministries and 1 NGO (ISS) as well as 2 IGOs (AU and UNECA). To ensure accuracy of the

data collected, during the interview process, a voice recorder was utilised whilst reading the questionnaire to the respondents and taking notes. This procedure was also geared to ensure data consistency and to avoid biasness and misrepresentation of facts. For data processing, the computer, digital voice recorder, questionnaire, and pen were utilised. The data was collected from July to September 2010 using a questionnaire. A series of specific open ended questions were asked to the representatives experts (Trade and industry attaché's or economists) at the selected country's embassies (i.e. Algeria, Egypt, Ghana, Nigeria, Kenya and South Africa) as well as relevant department of the government of Ethiopia. The questionnaires were also directed to the representatives of the selected countries within the AU and UNECA. It was ensured that all individuals understood the questions and were encouraged to express their inner feelings without fear of prejudice.

Data Analysis

The results were disseminated, interpreted and analysed as per standard norms of conducting a research. For instance, Mouton and Marais, 1990, p.7. cited in De Vos et al (2005, p.41) states that the aim of data analysis is to understand the various constitutive elements of one's data through an inspection of the relationships between concepts, constructs or variables, and to see whether there are patterns or trends that can be identified or isolated, or to establish themes in the data.

Limitations

Due to the limited information in the public domain that connects the sport together with continental cooperation especially in an African continent; the study tended to rely more on the information obtained from the interviews. Moreover, there is scarcity of information on the 2010 FIFA World Cup in relation to the balancing of the South Africa's national policy

versus the continental integration. This may have contributed to the difficulty of obtaining a consolidated opinion. Also worthy of note is the fact that little is known about the effects of the 2010 FIFA World Cup event and the dynamics of such a mega event on South Africa in relation to the rest of the continent.

Reliability and Validity

To ensure the quality of the research instruments, utilizing tools such as reliability and validity to enhance the accuracy of the findings was indispensable. There were multiple informants that were used for this study; the documents such as journals, newspapers articles, formal or official reports and records, personal notes, commercially available data sets, archival records, books, CD's and brochures were examined. The population selected was representative in a way that the views expressed came from all 3 quarters of the continent (Northern, Eastern and Western regions) touching on the issues of concern in the study. Moreover, the sample selected and mentioned above were interviewed at their comfortable environments, be it their places of work or central location in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia where there was no disturbance to ensure veracity, honesty and clarity. However, it must be noted that people's responses may have been influenced by the fact that the interviews were conducted immediately after the 2010 FIFA World Cup, whereby most of them were still enthusiastic about the event. The results of this study are representative of the phenomenon of interest.

For internal validity, in order to reduce the potential for alternative explanations to the researchers claims of causation, Yin cited in Lee (1999: 155), recommends three related tactics. Firstly, pattern should be matched when conducting a study. The second tactic is explanation building and lastly, the time series designs from experiential research must be

adopted. It was therefore essential to measure the research claim for this study. The study claimed that the 2010 FIFA World Cup that was branded as ‘Africa’s moment’, ‘Africa’s time’ and ‘Africa’s turn’ to the benefit of the continent could be viewed with pessimism (at least by the Northern, Eastern and Western major African regional economic players) as an event that did not benefit the continent as a whole but South Africa and the Southern region only. A series of theoretically or conceptually relevant predictions were generated and examined through the findings for its consistency with the theory. Empirical data to test the assumption or claim of the study was collected and examined. Through the above processes, evidence for internal validity was inferred since there is an internally consistent logic and series of designs appears to be stable overtime.

Ethical considerations

The data collection methods of the study was consistent with ethical principles such as informed consent, disclosure, respect for intellectual property for others, withdrawal etc. To ensure confidentiality, the study was conducted under voluntary participation; where by all the respondents were requested to be interviewed (those who turned down an appeal were never interviewed). Those who wanted to be interviewed under the condition of anonymity, they were interviewed under such condition. All participants knew the nature of the study and participated willingly with an informed consent. One of the examples is that of a South African and Nigerian ambassadors who were requested to be interviewed, due to their busy schedules, there were appointed officials who were given consent due to their capabilities and knowledge on the subject. Participants were not tricked or forced to participate in the study. Privacy was observed especially because the study was conducted within the diplomatic community where by the all governments of different countries are represented through the

embassies and Inter-Governmental Organisations (IGOs) in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia including AU and UNECA

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data findings were grouped and categorised in relation to the aim of the study.

Defining the effect that the 2010 FIFA World Cup had on the major African regional economic players

Responses of experts or official representatives' of major African regional economic players' on the effects of the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

The responses obtained from the interviewees point to various critical factors. For instance, there was a general feeling that the effects of the 2010 FIFA World Cup were experienced at varying social levels in every African country including the major African regional economic players (and more especially the countries that participated during the tournament). Moreover, the 2010 FIFA World Cup also contributed to the marketing policies of many countries in Africa including the major African regional players, one way or the other (e.g. Ghana, Nigeria and Kenya). Thus, the event accorded certain countries an opportunity to learn from South Africa's marketing strategies. The shared experiences in-terms of the strategies used by South Africa could be interpreted as the manner in which South Africa used the World Cup to provide other African countries an opportunity to refine their marketing strategies by following South Africa's model. Suffice to state that the event contributed in the revival of innovation in marketing.

All respondents mentioned that the event was filled with pride, glory and a sense of Pan-Africanism. Therefore, the event reunited the continent and was characterised by shared sentiments on the successful organization of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. There is a general feeling that the event exceeded the perceptions of the world by showing the world that Africa, most importantly South Africa, has the ability and capacity to host an event of such magnitude. There were shared sentiments on the 2010 FIFA World Cup contribution towards marketing Africa to the potential investors since it had full coverage for the whole month.

However, there seem to be a view that the event was a major boost for South Africa's image and that it was South Africa's moment to shine and not the continent (e.g. Anonymous form Egypt, Anonymous form Kenya, Ethiopian Researcher and the AU national at the AU). This view perfectly resonates with the views expressed by Anonymous from Kenyan that "it will be a fallacy if the world associates what was seen on TV during the World Cup with Africa as a whole". Although, no signs of discontent against South Africa, it could be argued that the misgivings by the respondents point to a factor that not everyone subscribe to the notion that the 2010 FIFA World Cup benefitted Africa in general.

Responses of the AU and UNECA officials on the effects of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on major African regional economic players.

To others the event presented hope and an opportunity for showcasing African talent. There seem to have been a general hope (especially with Ghana) that the event may have helped in uplifting some African players from the ruins of poverty to the glamorous and celebrity life of international football players. The event contributed in the development of sports. It also appears that the event was the trend setter for future events (like Olympics) on the importance of putting the emphasis on the Pan Africanist ideals. The hosting of the event in South Africa

gave the positive impression that the continent has the potential to host big events. Moreover, the 2010 FIFA World Cup provided the opportunity for countries to market themselves. However, many opportunities were not fully exploited (e.g. Nigeria felt that they lost out on the opportunity of dispelling negative perceptions)

However, though not explicit, the representative of Nigeria appears to envy South Africa. For instance, his insistence that Nigeria should have marketed itself as a country that brought stability in the Southern region as well as ending apartheid in South Africa and other countries is an indication of a feeling of discontent. In this context one would argue that Nigeria wishes that it should have benefited more on the World Cup, considering that it helped South Africa in the fight against apartheid. Moreover, the Nigerian representative underscored the importance of the role Nigeria plays in the area of peace and security in the continent. By so doing the representative felt that Nigeria deserves more recognition. This could be viewed as a silent protest that Nigeria feels South Africa has not done enough in the continent, and therefore she does not deserve the prize of hosting the World Cup.

Determining the dynamics that the 2010 FIFA World Cup had on the major African regional economic players

Questions regarding this objective were more on the processes in various African countries prior and after the tournament.

Responses of experts or official representatives' of major African regional economic players' on the dynamics of the 2010 FIFA World Cup

There was a general sense that South Africa did not necessarily manipulate the continental sentiment in her bidding, but rather did what they had to for the success of the event. The

2010 FIFA World Cup contributed to improvement of the confidence on Africa's capabilities. The abilities of the continent were showcased through the event. The direction of the continent in terms of development has been set, thanks to the event.

Responses of the AU and UNECA officials on the dynamics of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on major African regional economic players

There is a general feeling of appreciation on the role played by the event in marketing Africa to potential investors. This is exemplified by Algeria's response. There seem to be a growing acceptance of South Africa's hegemonic status in the continent as indicated by Algeria and others' willingness to let South Africa lead the developmental and marketing agendas of the continent. Moreover, the event brought the Pan African spirit of togetherness in the continent and contributed to dispelling negative perceptions about the continent. The event was also able to bring cultural exchange to a certain extent. However, there were pessimistic sentiments from Egypt on specific benefits of the country except for the sense of pride. This is exemplified by Egyptian official at the AU Commission who revealed resentment on the loss of his country's bidding process, which is evident through his response by saying the "Egypt started long time before any other African in Africa to participate in FIFA, when we (Egypt) realized that we couldn't be part of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, we were discouraged and very disappointed". Therefore, the responses from the Egyptian nationals pointed of feelings of discontent against FIFA's decision to allow hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup to South Africa. There appears (at least from some in the North) to be a growing feeling that South Africa seeks to dominate the continent.

The support of other African countries towards South Africa as the host of the 2010 FIFA World Cup appears to be genuine and pure. Almost all the major African regional economic

players concurred that the 2010 FIFA World Cup contributed towards the ongoing continental integration effort and to Pan Africanism, even though they felt that South Africa did not open the doors enough for them to utilize the opportunity. There was the feeling of African solidarity and Pan African spirit of togetherness. It appears that South Africa succeeded on applying the ‘Game theory’ through second-guessing Africa and international community’s reaction on the technique of using the ‘pan-Africanist drive’ to garner support for South Africa. This is exemplified through responses from interviewees, that different major African regional economic players ended up supporting South Africa. For example Nigeria stepped down to support South Africa, while Algeria threw its weight behind South Africa after she lost the bid.

Despite this, it appears that South Africa had her reasons other than to boost Africa’s image. Thus, she had to boost her image. As noted by a participant from Ghana that “after South Africa was selected as a host country, everything became a South African Affair”. It also appears that the event tremendously contributed to the marketing of South Africa in Africa and abroad. Moreover, most countries felt that there was not much cooperation between South Africa and other African countries and that more could have been done with regard to cooperation (e.g. pooling resources together and form joint programs be it youth programs, advertising etc).

In overall, the major African regional economic players would have liked to contribute towards the maximization of benefits from the event. However, they realized that the geographical distance between them and South Africa made it hard to realize other positive effects of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, unlike the SADC region. However, some countries like

Ethiopia and Kenya realized the monetary benefits in terms of tourism. The event was seen as a key gateway to addressing challenges faced by the continent.

Views, opinions and perceptions of the major African regional economic players on the benefits of the 2010 FIFA World Cup

Embassy officials views, opinions and perceptions on the benefits of the major African regional economic players from the 2010 FIFA World Cup

According to the **Nigeria** official representative 1, (19 August 2010), “the 2010 FIFA World Cup was an achievement for Africa due to the level of capacity, attendance and preparations that exceeded the expectations. He further mentioned that, “the attendance of Nigerian leadership, President Jonathan Goodluck in South Africa during the World Cup, extended to Nigeria’s benefits because of the business contacts and engagements that Nigeria snatched”. Moreover, a **Nigeria** official representative 1 stated that Nigeria exploited the opportunity presented by the World Cup to market itself. Moreover, he revealed that most of Nigerian private institutions utilized the opportunity to their advantage. For example some Nigerian banks, travel agencies, insurance companies etc, used the opportunity to advertise their institutions to the international audience that watched the event.

According to the **Ghana** embassy official 1 “the mere fact that the FIFA football soccer tournament was staged in Africa, that alone gives a certain picture about the continent” (14 August 2010). He further argued that the World Cup event forged unity and boosted the moral of Ghanaians because it assisted them to understand the importance of sport (soccer in particular) and the need to invest on their children in-terms of sports education and development. Moreover, he stated that the event assisted in marketing Ghana to interested expatriate to invest in soccer academies and in promoting the sport within the borders of

Ghana. It also played a role in terms of marketing soccer talent of national team players. In his view, the fact that an African country succeeded in hosting the event went a long way in restoring confidence and a sense of pride among Africans as they realized that any African country can do it.

The official 1 from **Ethiopia** (19 August 2010), stated that “Ethiopia was extremely proud with the organization of the 2010 FIFA World Cup for exceeding the perceptions of the world thereby showing the world that Africa, most importantly South Africa, has the ability and capacity to host an event of such magnitude”. He further mentioned that Ethiopia did not expect any economic benefits. Nonetheless, he stated that there were economic spill over benefits for those who used the opportunity to their advantage. For example, according to official 1, Ethiopian Airline was able to get economic benefits through providing transportation of Football fanatics and other parties from Asia and Europe to Africa. He argued that the continent generally benefited from the event as it Africa was portrayed in a positive light and the image of the continent was uplifted to international tourists and foreign investors.

An official from the Embassy of **Kenya**, stated that he did not recall any promises of benefits connected to the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa to Kenya. However, Kenya marketed itself especially its National Airline (Kenyan Airways) that started long before the 11th of June 2010 to market Kenya as a stopover to the World Cup in South Africa (02 September 2010). As a result Kenyan Airways flights were fully booked during that period, a factor that led to the addition of more flights during the event.

Perceptions, views and opinions of major African regional economic players' nationals from the AU and UNECA on the benefits of the 2010 FIFA World Cup

For countries like Ethiopia, the expectations were more on the cultural integration in Africa than economic benefits. There was a general feeling that the Eastern region including Ethiopia and Kenya benefited from the 2010 FIFA World. Most respondents believed that the 2010 FIFA World Cup was a tremendous boost to the prestige of the continent. However, South Africa was believed to have benefited economically, socially and environmentally, more especially its tourism industry. Most interviewed respondents concurred that the major beneficiary from the 2010 FIFA World Cup was South Africa. There is a growing sense that the successful hosting of the event exposed the continent in the new light and created hopes for future investments in the continent. This further provided valuable lessons for other African countries on how to hold successful major international events. In this regard, the event exposed the importance of investing in infrastructure in order to achieve greater developmental goals.

Response of the AU Commission Head and Social Affairs, on the effects and dynamics of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on major African regional economic players

The AU feels that South Africa and FIFA took charge of preparations for the event to the exclusion of interested African parties (e.g. AU and African Artists). The event was more of a South African event than an Africa one. Nevertheless, the AU coordinated the African solidarity where necessary. In the end there seem to be general consensus that the successful hosting of the event generated a sense of African ownership of the event as was witnessed by the AU Heads of State and Government Declaration on 27 July 2010, in Kampala, Uganda.

Responses of the South African embassy officials in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia on the major African regional economic players' effects and dynamics of the 2010 FIFA World Cup

It appears that South Africa does not believe that her strategy (of Africa's time) prior to the hosting of the event may have any negative repercussions. The general understanding is that the strategy was used in apposite way. It also transpired that there is a general belief that South Africa is expected to play a leading role in the continent; hence she should use her role as a powerful representative of the continent to address continental challenges. In this regard, it could be argued that it was within South Africa's right to market the World Cup as Africa's event, considering that South Africa was viewed as championing the role of the continent in the international scene. Therefore, as long as South Africa is still perceived as a credible representative of the continent, she will continue to use Africa's name in her international overtures.

Despite this, there is a general consensus that the 2010 FIFA World Cup revived national and continental pride. It also contributed to a positive rebranding of the continent; a factor that may attract foreign investors in future.

CONCLUSION

This study embarked on establishing whether the 2010 FIFA World Cup had any effect on the major African regional economic players. The fundamental reason for conducting this study was to possibly recommend to South Africa as the country to consider, if need be, a revision of her marketing strategy with due consideration of the feelings and perceptions of other critical players in the continent.

This study highlighted the dynamics and the effects of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on major African regional players. It clarified the opportunities presented by the FIFA World Cup to South Africa and the entire African continent. It further revealed the 2010 FIFA World Cup as having contributed in instilling hope, sense of pride as well as giving the continent an opportunity of being seen on the positive light; and thus creating positive path for future continental engagement with the international community. Moreover, the study provided related recommendations to the IMC and the government.

The general conclusion was that the 2010 FIFA World Cup brought pride to Africans as it played a role in positively rebranding the continent and thereby marketing the continent to the international community. In a nutshell, the findings pointed to an enhanced sense of pan-Africanism. It also reveals that there are no general feelings of discontent of the select regional economic players against South Africa. This factor led to the conclusion that the event served a greater purpose of dispelling negative connotations while unleashing Africa's potential and capabilities to host events of great magnitude.

However, there were shared sentiments on the social benefits and future benefits that the 2010 FIFA World Cup will bring. Even though the study was intended on understanding South Africa's decision on hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the impacts on the major African regional economic players, the insight gained through conducting the qualitative research, was that the major African regional economic players looked to South Africa as the champion in the continent. The success of the 2010 FIFA World Cup revealed that it brought pride to Africans and played a huge role to the ongoing continental integration effort because it was a unifying factor for the continent. However, the bigger challenge is how to translate the success of the World Cup in future by focusing its success on the challenges facing Africa

as a whole. Scott, Law and Boksberger (2009, p.99-110) state that ‘tourism marketing may be embarking on a more sophisticated phase in which the concern is to understand, appeal to and satisfy customers' tourism experiences, rather than base business success on the perceived features’ in this case, an event itself.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- South Africa should use her marketing strategies with extreme caution so as to avoid being viewed as taking advantage of the continent to further her ambitious objectives.
- South Africa should develop well thought marketing strategy without necessarily alienating the major regional economic players in Africa
- It is recommended for the IMC, South African government, and other related bodies to consider the results of this research as it provides an insight for South African government to rethink its foreign *investment attraction strategy* that takes due cognisance of other major African regional economic players to ensure longer term continental relations and continental support in her future endeavours.
- It is hoped that this study would be a source of information on how South Africa’s strategy is perceived in the continent especially the Northern region (Egypt and Algeria), Eastern region (Kenya and Ethiopia) and Western region (Ghana and Nigeria).
- It is recommended that South Africa should play a leading role in championing the future events in other African countries so as to win the confidence of the continent.

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Wine Packaging Marketing

Recent trends in the Wine Market

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ABSTRACT

Packaging design of food products in general and wine specifically aims to influence consumers' sensory expectation and taste evaluation (Deliza and MacFie, 1996; Lange et al., 2002; Szolnoki, 2007). Orth and Malkewitz (2008) report five distinct holistic packaging

design styles for which consumers have different product associations. Consumers' liking of a wine was found to be influenced by the label design and labeling information (Szolnoki, 2007).

One approach to studying food choice comes from psychological research into attitude and behaviour relationships. Referring to the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991), it is assumed that most part of the influences on food choice are mediated by the beliefs and attitudes held by an individual.

This paper investigates studies and summarizes the packaging options available to the wine industry, including the positives and negatives of traditional glass and alternative media. It is based on a review of available research, literature and reports and on the opinions of local and international industry stakeholders.

KEYWORDS Wine packaging, wine marketing, label

INTRODUCTION

Wine packaging has received increasing research attention in the last few years (Barber, Almanza, & Donovan, 2006; Boudreaux & Palmer, 2007; Orth & Malkewitz, 2006 and 2008; Rocchi & Stefani, 2005; Szolnoki, 2007). Appearance and packaging of food products and wine play an important role in influencing consumer perception and subsequent acceptance (Imram, 1999). The first taste is almost always with the eye. Extrinsic packaging attributes provide consumers with social and aesthetic utility and strongly influence expectations of sensory perception (Deliza & MacFie, 1996; Gianluca, Donato, & Cavicchi, 2006; Sara R. Jaeger, 2006; Lange, Martin, Chabanet, Combris, & Issanchou, 2002). Those expectations have been shown to be very robust against later disconfirmation when consumers actually taste the product (Cardello & Sawyer, 1992). Despite what we know about the

underlying psychological influence packaging exerts on product evaluation, contradictory findings were found on the relative importance of wine packaging compared to other extrinsic product cues as brand name, origin and price.

Several studies directly measuring the importance of attributes conclude that wine packaging design is rather unimportant (Goodman, Lockshin, & Cohen, 2005, 2006, 2007; Mueller, Lockshin, Louviere, & Hackman, 2007). Other studies find that strong consumer impressions are evoked by wine packaging design elements (Boudreaux & Palmer, 2007; Orth & Malkewitz, 2006) and that during in depth focus groups consumers reveal they consider packaging design features when making purchase decisions (Rocchi & Stefani, 2005; Szolnoki, 2007). A first indicative study including a relatively small subset of packaging attributes without considering product price by Szolnoki (2007) reveals that the importance of wine packaging designs differ when measured directly and indirectly.

It further can be expected that the importance of wine packaging design and preferred attribute levels differ for different wine consumers as empirically confirmed for other food products (Deliza, MacFie, & Hedderley, 2003; Silayoi & Speece, 2007). Nevertheless, the majority of previous wine packaging studies did not consider consumer preference heterogeneity, which is managerially important to target different consumer segments.

Thus, a major unresolved research question is how wine packaging preference and importance can be reliably and validly measured. To answer this question we will first discuss prior findings on different psychological processes initiated by visual and verbal information and review previous empirical studies comparing direct verbal and indirect visual attribute importance measurement. To test our two research propositions we compare wine packaging design importance and importance variance in two experimental settings – a direct verbal Best Worst Scaling study with an indirect graphical discrete choice experiment. We will

discuss the validity and reliability of both methods and conclude how graphical choice experiments can provide the wine industry with extremely valuable advice for product development and consumer targeting.

PACKAGING DESIGN AND ITS INFLUENCE ON CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

In general, packaging design is known to communicate with the consumer (Nickels and Jolson 1976). It holds information about product attributes in written form – i.e. factual information about origin or grape variety. Beyond that it communicates impressions of brand personality (Orth and Malkewitz 2008). Holding the factual information constant different designs may result in very different perceptions of the wine's attributes. Consequently, we have to ask how different product attributes like e.g. origin may be expressed by packaging designs. Furthermore, with the already established influence of involvement on choice we also have to ask if and how high and low involved consumers differ in their perception of these packaging design differences. In the following we will summarise the existing literature on these issues and construct tentative propositions.

Dual process models of information processing establish involvement's importance in perception (Chaiken, Liberman and Eagly 1989; Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann 1983). While high involvement consumers with high ability and great motivation follow a systematic/ central route in their information processing, low involvement consumers rely on a heuristic/ peripheral route to arrive at their judgements. This is in accordance with general wine behaviour described earlier. High involvement consumers engage closely with product information whereas low involved consumers only use a fraction of the information given. Nancarrow et al. (1998) and Lammers (2000) apply these models to packaging design perception. Both studies however stay confined to displaying high involvement consumers

engaging with the written information more closely while their low involvement counterparts are more easily persuaded by purely visual factors. Consequently, they do not account for subtle effect of visual display proposed here. Miniard et al. (1991) and DeRosia (2008) study different types of visual display in advertising. They identify that highly involved consumers are more attracted by congruent and relevant pictorial content as well as informative textual elements. In contrast, low involved consumers put more importance on the attractiveness of the picture and are much less interested in textual information. We aim to explore whether similar effects exist in wine packaging design perception.

In order to examine packaging design impacts on wine preferences, an understanding of basic perception processes is necessary. In the realm of perception literature we find two competing schools of thought – visual grammar/ rhetoric and Gestalt theory. Visual grammar/ rhetoric tradition posits that consumers process packaging information via sequential, atomistic processing in order to arrive at a composite view (e.g. Durgee 2003). Empirically, studies following this tradition either centre their efforts on one particular component of packaging design such as typeface (Henderson, Giese and Cote 2004), logo (Henderson and Cote 1998), or proportion and shape (Pittard, Ewing and Jevons 2007; Raghbir and Greenleaf 2006). Other studies manipulate a selected number of packaging attributes whilst holding other characteristics constant. By this they can estimate each design feature's particular impact on the composite impression. For instance, researchers have established the impact of packaging design factors on general product beliefs (Bone and France 2001), perceived quality (Rigaux-Bricmont 1982) and intention to buy (Laboissière et al. 2007). Visual grammar/ rhetoric implicitly guides the study of wine packaging design. Boudreaux and Palmer (2007) manipulate specific parts of wine labels measuring their impact on brand personality. Using a repertory grid method Rocchi and Stefani (2006) find consumer heuristics employed to judge wine packaging design. For instance, a flat bottom will impact negatively on their quality

perception as will an uncoordinated design. De Luca and Penco (2006) comparing producer and consumer focus groups find disturbances in the communication process. Producers link different messages to the same visual contents than consumers will do. This study shows that specifically low involved consumer have problems deciphering the 'packaging code' set by producers. Müller and Lockshin (2008) show first indications for different wine packaging preferences of consumer segments. In direct visual measurement, two out of five consumer groups placed the highest importance on packaging design. One preferred minimalist designs whereas the other preferred traditional design featuring chateaux images. Visual grammar / rhetoric research can reveal insights into which cues consumers rely on as well as their particular importance. As shown, some of these studies also include personal variables, relating them to various, but isolated visual packaging design elements. However, this literature fails to recognise holistic brand impressions largely imposed by individual perception and remains detached from actual purchase and consumption situations.

The second school of thought is the Gestalt approach (e.g. Katz 1950; Koffka 1922), which posits perception of visual information as an immediate holistic impression. Since human perception can differ greatly from the objective visual information (Kimchi and Navon 2000), researchers in design studies (Oxman 2002) as well as visual perception (Enns 2004) have favoured this approach. They contend it offers a more satisfying explanation of how consumers process information. With the impression forming in the mind of consumers rather than residing with the visual properties of the packaging design alone we have to ask whether any patterns of perception exist. Ampuero and Vila (2006) present tentative evidence that consumers do indeed recognise and distinguish types of whole packaging designs in a meaningful way. Their conclusions are confirmed for wine by the major study of Orth and Malkewitz (2008).

The authors show consumers' ability to distinguish five fundamental wine packaging archetypes: Massive, Contrasting, Natural, Delicate and Non-Descript (Figure 2). Of these, the first two comprise two variations of bold, modern design; Natural and Delicate comprise more traditional, old-fashioned designs; Non-Descript designs encompass clean, simple designs producing little differentiation. Beyond this basic differentiation, Orth and Malkewitz (2008) can also identify largely congruent brand personality attributes consumers link to wines based on their packaging designs. While incorporating consumer's impressions more strongly than visual grammar/ rhetoric studies do, these studies so far do not link design impressions to consumer involvement or other personal factors nor can they inform us about individual design preferences. Drawing from Miniard et al.'s (1991) as well as DeRosia's (2008) results, we aim to overcome this shortcoming and formulate a tentative proposal on how involvement will influence packaging design preferences for wine.

For this proposal we draw from the Orth and Malkewitz (2008) archetypes combining them with basic insights from dual process models of information processing theories (Chaiken, Liberman and Eagly 1989; Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann 1983) and established preferences for visual display (DeRosia 2008; Miniard, Bhatla, Lord, Dickson and Unnava 1991). Massive and Contrasting designs depict bold, striking, incongruous images with little textual information about origin, quality designation and so on. In many ways they directly oppose traditional wine packaging designs. We expect that they appeal more to low involvement consumers than to high involvement consumers. High involvement consumers will prefer relevant visual content and a high amount of textual information both are not featured by Massive and Contrasting archetypes. For low involved consumers attractiveness is more important. Thus, they would be persuaded more by these designs. Indeed, they might make

the product wine more approachable for low involved consumers. In contrast, Delicate and Natural designs represent more traditional wine packaging designs, with line-drawn images of chateaux and vineyards, conventional bottle shapes and more textual information. Consequently, high involvement consumer should prefer these designs. Low involvement consumers instead would rather refrain from these less affective designs. Bottles falling in the Non-Descript category, meanwhile, could elicit similar preferences for both groups. This proposal forms the core of our study; we will discuss and justify the methods used in the next section.

METHODS OF RESEARCH

Given the shortcomings of dominating quantitative approaches in existing research into consumers' perceptions of wine packaging and the exploratory character of this research stemming from the lack of knowledge we face related to consumers' preferences for different designs, a qualitative approach was deemed appropriate. Specifically, we selected the focus group method. This method enables us to bridge the gap between depth interview and observation (Morgan and Spanish 1984; Threlfall 1999), resulting in a deeper understanding of choice processes (Wynberg and O'Brien 1993) and the drivers behind them (Morgan 1997). The focus group method has already proven to be a valuable tool for the investigation of wine consumption and the formation of quality perceptions (Charters and Pettigrew 2006a; Charters and Pettigrew 2006b; Ritchie 2007; Veale, Quester and Karunaratna 2006). Charters and Pettigrew (2006b) specifically discuss involvement's impact on wine quality perceptions.

High involvement consumers in their study link wine quality mostly to their learned, paradigmatic categories relying on an idea of objective, measurable wine quality. Low involvement consumers instead rely more their subjective taste judgements. Beyond these

two very distinct categories of consumers, Charters and Pettigrew (2006b) also introduce a ‘medium involvement’ group of consumers showing some characteristics of both extremes and possibly being in transit from the low to the high involvement group. While reinforcing the importance of involvement and thus our proposal, this also illustrates the potential exploratory power residing with focus groups.

In total, the study comprises seven focus group discussions, four with low involvement and three with high involvement consumers (Table 1).

Table 1: Focus Group Participants in low involvement groups

Group	Involvement	Gender	Number of Participants	Age-Group	Sample Population
1	Low	all female	7	Mature	Teachers & Students of the Cretan Technical Foundation of Tourism Management (ATEI)
2	Low	all female	5	Young	
3	Low	3 female; 2 male	5	Mature	
4	Low	all female	3	Young	
5	High	3 female; 1 male	4	Young	
6	High	1 female; 2 male	3	Mature	
7	High	All male	4	Mature	

Wine involvement level represented the main differentiator between groups, and was recorded by participants via self-completion questionnaires using well-documented and reliable scales by Lockshin et al. (1997) and Brown et al. (2006). The groups were further divided by age as this variable strongly correlates with life-stage alcohol consumption patterns, thereby enhancing group homogeneity and comfort for participants (Krueger and Casey 2000). In accordance with the aims of the study, the discussion guide was structured according to three main themes. First, to gain an understanding of the social and behavioural context of packaging perceptions as well as to explore their choice procedures, participants were asked to talk generally about their wine consumption and choice habits. Then, more particularly participants were encouraged to discuss packaging perceptions. The final part of the discussion focused more specifically on packaging perceptions and preferences,

supported by the use of eleven wine bottle prompts, two examples for each of the five archetypes of (Orth and Malkewitz 2008), plus one very stereotypically wine bottle design . In order to embrace the study's focus on wine without sacrificing a somewhat realistic choice environment, we selected five wine bottles and five bottles from other countries resembling the identified archetypes. After discussing the packaging designs the wine prompts were used to initiate discussions on the participants' perceptions of wine. On average, each focus group discussion lasted about two hours, and were fully recorded and transcribed by the author. The analysis followed the basic principles of grounded theory (Corbin and Strauss 1990) with initial stages using the cognitive mapping approach described by Jones (1985). At the time of writing, only preliminary analysis on the four low involvement and two of the three high involvement groups has been conducted. The next section reports the key findings revealed so far.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

What is clear from these findings is the major role played by labels. However, our research holds some limitations. First of all, from an academic point of view, because our results are directly relevant only to young people, researchers should be interested in understanding the effects of labels of bottled wine on other kinds of targets. The middle-aged people can be considered as an important target for wine producers and the research may be replicated to know if this target is influenced by authenticity as young consumers are. Further research should clarify the extent to which the relationships we have found will broadly hold. Additionally, we only studied the influence of authenticity for red wines. Further research should clarify the extent to which the relationships we have found will be similar for white wines. Moreover, more attributes may have to be determined and tested for further research to better understand the role of authenticity. Indeed, there may be other factors than the ones

determined in this study that could have a potential influence on authenticity. Our qualitative study brought some interesting results, but these results should be measured in order to confirm if attributes of authenticity found out in this study really increase perception of authenticity. And authenticity could be linked to other variables, such as attitude, attitude being seen as a powerful predictor of behaviour (Fischbein and Ajzen, 1975). Of particular interest could be the influence of point of sale on authenticity. Future research might focus on the way the point of sale, if it is perceived as authentic or not, could influence the perceived authenticity of the wine sold in it. From a methodological point of view, we only presented front labels in the questionnaire. While front label is usually considered for evocation, back label is expected to provide to an informative function, containing the relevant technical information about the wine. This back label could have been presented. Further research should measure its influence during the purchasing process. Another methodological limit is due to linear regressions. Structural equation modeling could be chosen in future research because it can support simultaneously latent variables with multiple indicators, interrelated dependent variables, mediating effects, and causality hypotheses. Structural equations can measure independent variable errors while regression analysis cannot (Bollen, 1989).

WINE LABEL, CHOICE AND AUTHENTICITY

One approach to studying food choice derives from social psychological research into attitude-behaviour relationships. Referring to the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991), it is assumed that most part of the influences on food choice are mediated by the beliefs and attitudes held by an individual. Beliefs about the nutritional quality and health effects of a food may be factors more important than the actual nutritional quality and health consequences in determining an individual's choice. Concerning wine, the beliefs about its health consequences play a major role. Indeed, wine can be both a good friend (in moderation,

providing physical and social benefits) but a cruel enemy too (in excess, causing moral and physical declines). That is, one of the most prominent factors influencing consumer's wine choice has been found to be perceived quality (Hauck, 1991).

Quality can be perceived by human senses, as sight: for food products, and especially for wine, that means packaging and labels are some of the sources consumers refer to in order to judge the quality of the product and to make a choice.

With respect to Olson and Jacoby's typology (1973), the label is considered as an extrinsic cue, an attribute which is not part of the physical product. Rocchi and Stefani (2005) found out consumers seem to be affected by extrinsic cues, such as shape, size and colour of the bottle. On the other hand they consider the dress of the bottle, represented by the set of the other packaging elements (labels, capsules). The label on the bottle signals the producers' names, the types of wines, the origin, the vintage, the level of alcohol, and the government warnings. But it is also placed on goods to make them seem more authentic, to add a quality assurance tag, and even explain their wider context. Such marking helps to make explicit the exchange value of the product (Halewood and Hannam, 2001).

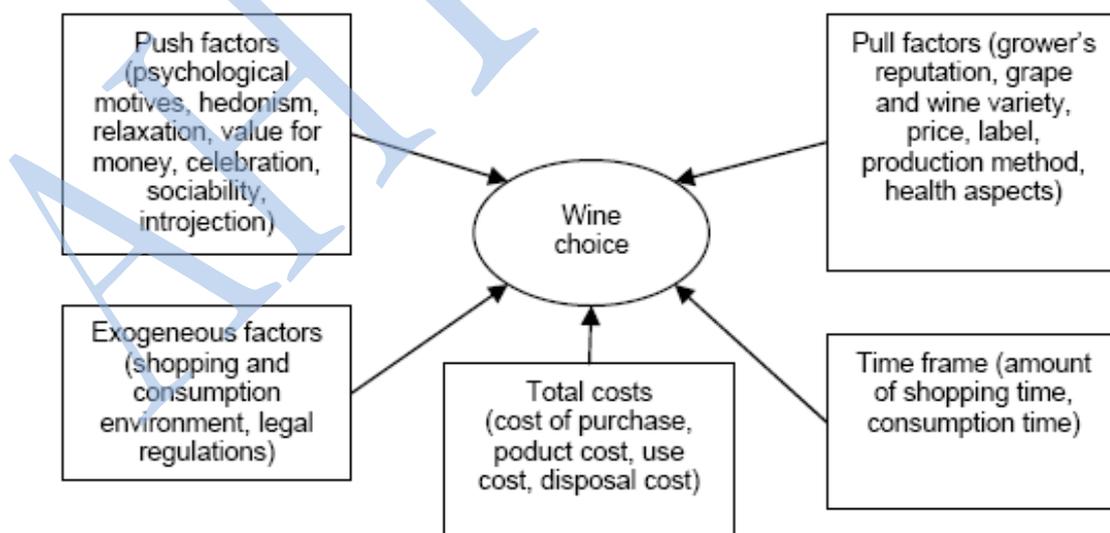
An other factor influencing consumer's wine choice is information. As Marianna (1997) suggests, consumers have become clearly discerning and are demanding more information about the products they buy. People want to know what they are buying and what the product's origins are. In case of wine, the 'where' question is complex and elicits notions of classifications, appellations and the terroir. Indeed, when a winery wants to indicate the geographic pedigree of its wine, it uses a tag on its label called an appellation of origin.

This appellation of origin must meet federal and state legal requirements. It is seen as a sign of quality for reputable production areas, and an assurance to consumers of quality standards. The origins carry significant weight for both producers and consumers, and so much effort goes into protecting and promoting it. For instance, the National Institute of Controlled

Appellations created in 1935 made the label “Controlled Appellation” as a sign of authenticity and singularity.

Quality is not the only factor consumers refer to in their choice. Choice is not determined only by physiological or nutritional need (Shepherd, 1999); it is influenced by many interrelating factors. There are many factors in the context within which the choice is made that are likely to be very important, such as motivations for instance. In addition to the utilitarian (physical) and symbolic (social) motivation, a third motivation labeled ‘experience’ must be emphasized, in line with the evolution of consumer behaviour studies of wine consumption. People choose a bottle of wine not only for the taste or for social reasons, but also to live a unique experience (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). Other factors include marketing and economic variables as well as social, cultural, religious or demographic factors (Murcott, 1989). In their summarizing framework, Orth and Krska (2002) identified five factors influencing consumer’s choice of bottled wine (Figure 1).

Figure 1 – Factors influencing consumer's choice of bottled wine (Orth and Krska, 2002)



They include push factors, pull factors, exogenous factors and economic restraints (time and money) Besides these situational factors, consumer’s choice can be moderated by individual ones. Wine consumption has been seen as moderated by sex: men drink more alcohol than

women. It is also moderated by age. It is only between 20 and 25 years old that people begin to appreciate drinking wine (Aigrain et alii., 1996).

CONCLUSIONS

Wine marketers spend billions of dollars annually seeking to enhance consumers' perceptions of value associated with their bottles. Because of the size and the negative evolution of the market, it is critical for them to have a clear understanding of the way the labels on the bottles can influence buying behavior, especially for young consumers. Indeed, although young consumers still account for only a small portion of total consumers, they represent the future consumers for wine producers.

This study was intended to provide a more complete understanding of the influence of the wine packaging for the consumer to buy the wine. As an attempt to extend the research on the influence label of bottled wine can have on consumers' decisions of buying, the current article shows some interesting results. Based on the regression results, the answer the study gives to the research questions can be summarized as follows. Our central finding is that consumers perceive from the label on bottled wine influences the performance risk they perceive while buying the product. Bottles of wine with labels perceived as authentic by young consumers are seen as less risky to buy. New kinds of labels, without any drawing of castle of vineyard for example, or with bright colours, are seen as.

This is not, however, the only one interesting result. Rather, our second major finding is that all the dimensions of authenticity do not affect the consumers' behavior. As original dimension of authenticity influences performance risk, perceived price and purchase intention, reflect of personality and uniqueness dimensions do not influence all the dependant variables. For instance, the fact that the label reflects the consumers' personality does not influence perceived price, while natural dimension.

In this context, we also show that young consumers only develop purchase intentions from two dimensions of authenticity. Natural dimension and the fact that the label reflects the consumers' personality influence purchase intentions. The fact that young people want to buy wine that reflects their personality is interesting for marketers. Wine has become a situational product, a product you consume for special times, as parties or important dinners. A young person would like to offer his guests a wine they would enjoy drinking, a wine he can be proud of, a wine he can "you like it, you like me". Wine can be seen here as an extended self product (Belk, 1988). Implications for producers are numerous. Producers could adopt a marketing strategy based on labels. For young people, they could make typologies in order to have a good knowledge of their customers and adapt the labels to their personality.

IMPLICATIONS FOR MARKET

A number of implications for research and practice flow from this line of research. An obvious implication of these findings is that, in order to increase a consumer's intention to buy a bottle of wine, a marketer needs to enhance his/her perceived authenticity. Authenticity decreases the level of performance risk, enhances perceived price and purchase intention. Enhancing authenticity can be done by making a label that makes the wine be perceived as natural and unique (the projection dimension does not significantly influence consumer behavior). Making the wine be perceived as natural can be easy, by putting a picture of vineyard or castle on the label. Making it being perceived as unique can be done by enhancing the quality of the label for instance. According to Seth Godwin (2005): "Authenticity: If you can fake that, the rest will take care of itself". As a conclusion, we emphasize the jeopardy of faking authenticity. Labelling bottled wine in a way that enhances the consumers' perception of authenticity could be doomed to failure. Consumers could

perceive the wine as “false authentic” and develop negative affect toward the producers and negative purchase intentions.

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Actual Internet Use to Plan and Book a Trip as a Bidimensional Latent Variable

Related to Trip Characteristics

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Running head: Traveler Internet use as a latent variable

ABSTRACT

The aims of this paper are to identify latent dimensions underlying actual Internet use by independent tourists when planning and booking their trip, and to study how these latent dimensions are affected by trip characteristics. We use structural equation models for binary variables and official statistics micro data regarding leisure visitors arriving to Spain by air and organizing the trip by themselves (n=19,359). We found a two-dimensional structure of actual Internet use related to the type of service (accommodation and transportation versus activities) rather than to purpose of use (information gathering and booking). Low cost flights, low category hotels, trips planned long in advance, summer trips, and trips with

friends increase Internet use in both dimensions. Cultural trips lead to a higher Internet use in the activity dimension. Longer trips and higher daily expenditure at destination reduce Internet use in the accommodation-transportation dimension.

KEYWORDS Traveler Internet usage, online travel booking, web trip planning, MIMIC model, travel e-shopping

INTRODUCTION

A growing tourist segment is the independent tourist. The independent tourist does not travel on a package deal and can organize the entire trip by him or herself. A good example of this trend is incoming tourism to Spain (the 4th ranked tourism destination in the world according to the WTO), where the data used in this paper are from. While 48% of all tourists to Spain in 2004 traveled without a package deal, this rose to 66% in 2010 according to the IET (Instituto de Estudios Turísticos/Spanish Institute for Tourism Studies; IET 2004; 2010). According to the same source, Spain received 52.7 million tourists in 2010, 77% of whom traveled by air. Within air travelers, the growth of independent tourists is accompanied by an increasing expansion and consolidation of no-frills airlines, also referred to as low cost carriers (LCC). More LCC users than legacy airline passengers travel independently of the package tour. In 2010, 74% of all tourists who arrived in Spain with LCCs did not book a package deal (IET, 2004; 2010). Even if LCC and legacy airlines are getting close in many respects, they still differ in others (Ferrer-Rosell, et al., in press; Ferrer-Rosell et al., 2014), Internet use being one of them. The percentage of Internet use among LCC flyers is higher than that of legacy airline flyers by 18.7% (IET, 2010). While legacy airline users and package travelers still frequently resort to traditional travel agents, LCC users and independent tourists usually go hand in hand with Internet information seeking and online tourist service booking.

The literature on Internet in the tourism field gets close to 1000 articles addressing such varied issues as Internet use by firms, institutional promotion of destinations via Internet, the web as a data source for scholarly research (content analysis of web pages, pricing of web marketed tourist products), optimal web design, web page perception and evaluation by users, Internet tourist promotion in special cases (e.g., rural tourism, less developed areas, medical tourism), Internet as a substitute for travel agencies, web 2.0., web effectiveness for various business and marketing purposes, travelers' strategies and patterns of online search behavior, web loyalty and satisfaction, web choice, web accessibility to impaired, web social networks, online customer complaints and reviews, online reputation, online travel agencies, web surveys in tourism and online tourism education.

The determinants of web usage by tourists when planning or booking a trip constitute a major research stream, especially since 2003 (see a recent review by Amaro & Duarte, 2013), including such predictors as demographic variables, computer literacy, travel-related behaviors, psychological variables, shopping orientation, concern about privacy, perceived risk, perceived advantages/disadvantages of Internet, past experience, and web characteristics. Very few studies use trip characteristics as predictors and, to the best of our knowledge, none includes airline type. Many studies deal with intention to use Internet rather than actual use. While intention can be used to predict actual behavior, this prediction is far from accurate, which makes future research on actual Internet use more attractive (Amaro & Duarte, 2013).

A part of the literature distinguishes between several purposes of Internet use, such as information seeking and booking related to the commonest tourism products. A more reduced

set of authors acknowledge the fact that these purposes may be more or less related to one another. By means of bivariate analyses, Jun et al. (2007) find relatively weak associations. By means of cluster analysis, Duman and Tanrisevdi (2011) identify three dimensions related to information search, comparison of alternatives and reservation/purchase. By means of exploratory factor analysis, Susskind and Stefanone (2010) identify a dimension of information search and a dimension of purchasing. Park et al. (2011), using Guttman scaling, identify cumulative sets of tourist products purchased online: flight and accommodation (core); car rentals and event/attraction tickets (advanced); travel packages and cruise reservations (comprehensive). The above mentioned studies used statistical methods which are not the most appropriate to relate the found dimensions to external variables.

So, the aims of this paper are twofold. Firstly, to identify and test latent dimensions underlying actual Internet use by independent (i.e., non package) tourists traveling by air when planning and booking their trip, both regarding the different purposes of Internet use and the different tourist products. Secondly, to estimate how these latent dimensions are affected by trip characteristics, some of which we consider for the first time in the literature, including airline type (LCC versus legacy airline). With this purpose we use the multiple-indicator multiple-cause (MIMIC) model, a particular case of structural equation model.

While structural equation models have frequently been used to estimate and test the dimensions of attitudes regarding Internet use and intentions to use Internet (e.g., Ayeh et al., 2013; Okazaki & Hirose, 2009; Pulido-Fernández & Sánchez-Rivero, 2010; San Martín & Herrero, 2012; Wen, 2012), they have not often been used for modeling the dimensions of actual Internet use. The exceptions are Ryan and Rao (2008), who defined a single dimension of actual Internet use with only two indicators (overall use for purchasing and overall use for

planning); Jensen (2012), who defined a dimension of actual use for information search and a dimension of intended use for booking; and Kamarulzaman (2007), who identified a single dimension of actual use without giving detailed information of its indicators.

The paper is structured as follows. First we present the literature review, then an overview of the data and the statistical model, then the results, whose implications we discuss, and, finally, the limitations and suggestions for further research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature on determinants of actual Internet use when planning and booking a trip includes a wide range of variables. Subjective variables are among the most frequently considered. A review by Wen (2009) identified as major focus variables the following: perceived quality of web sites, trust in web sites, satisfaction with Internet use, attitudes towards Internet use, and intention to use Internet. Since that review, Beldona et al. (2011) considered Internet usage orientation and Internet valuation; Jensen (2012) considered tourist orientation, perceived risk and travel experience; Lee and Cheng (2010) included price sensitivity and quality sensitivity; Okazaki and Hirose (2009) took into account satisfaction and attitudes; and Toh et al. (2011) attitudes.

Past habits regarding travel, amount of prior Internet use, styles of prior Internet use, and destination and Internet prior knowledge are also considered in many studies (Beldona et al., 2011; Fleischer & Felsenstein, 2004; Kah et al., 2008; Lehto et al., 2006; Toh et al., 2011).

Cohort of the traveler frequently appears in longitudinal studies (Beldona, 2005; Beldona et al., 2009; Huh & Frye, 2011). Other traveler background variables are encountered in several

studies: age (Beldona et al., 2011; Fleischer & Felsenstein, 2004; Ip et al., 2012; Toh et al., 2011; Wolfe et al., 2004), gender (Luo et al., 2004; Okazaki & Hirose, 2009), education (Beritelli et al., 2007; Heung, 2003; Ip et al., 2012), income or professional status (Beritelli et al., 2007; Heung, 2003; Ip et al., 2012; Luo et al., 2004; Wolfe et al., 2004).

As regards the specific focus of this paper, trip characteristics have been considered by a smaller number of articles. The review of Amaro and Duarte (2013) only reports two papers including them (Bogdanovych et al., 2006 and Law et al., 2004) whose main finding was that Internet tended to be used more often with short-haul trips. Additional relevant works are that of Beritelli et al. (2007), who related Internet use to long-distance trips, to hotel accommodation, and to planning the trip well in advance; and that of Luo et al. (2004), who related Internet use to other trips than pleasure trips, to traveling with friends, to hotel accommodation and to high total expenditure.

Amaro and Duarte (2013) suggest that a general concept of trip complexity may underlie the effect of trip characteristics on Internet, less complex trips being more prone to Internet usage. They also conclude that further research is needed on trip characteristics, especially regarding trip purpose/motivation and trip complexity. Similarly, Beritelli et al. (2007) suggest the related concepts of risk and uncertainty as key issues, low risk travels being, in theory, more prone to Internet usage. This can be related to the literature on consumer involvement (e.g., Laurent & Kapferer, 1985) which defines risk as a consumer involvement dimension with two subdimensions: the perceived importance of negative consequences in case of poor choice and the perceived probability of making such a mistake. The negative consequences increase with trip price and duration while the perceived mispurchase probability may increase when using Internet (Kim et al., 2005).

To the best of our knowledge, airline type, season and length of stay have not yet been reported to predict actual Internet use in the literature. The fact that LCC users tend to book their flight online is, of course, quite a trivial result. Another issue is that LCC users, being familiar with Internet, are also expected to book other tourist services online. Longer lengths of stay may be related to trip complexity and risk and thus reduce Internet use. We have no prior expectation about the impact of high or low season trips.

METHODOLOGY

Sample and variables

In this paper we use secondary official statistics data. The data were provided by the *Instituto de Estudios Turísticos* (IET) an official agency of the Ministry of Industry, Energy and Tourism which produces the majority of tourism data in Spain. The survey is known as the *Encuesta de Gasto Turístico* (EGATUR), in which tourism expenditure and other tourist information such as trip characteristics, is studied. The EGATUR survey, conducted in 27 major Spanish airports in 2010, used CAPI (Computer Assisted Personal Interview) to interview tourists leaving the country. The sample is non-proportionally stratified by country of residence, airport and month. See IET (2012) for further details on the EGATUR methodology.

Our universe is a subset of the EGATUR universe which consists of leisure visitors arriving by air, spending between one and 120 nights in Spain and organizing the trip by themselves instead of as a package. We excluded flights from outside Europe because LCCs mostly operate short-haul flights.

For this study, we did not consider:

- tourists for whom it does not make sense to use Internet regarding accommodation (tourists who own a house at the destination or tourists who stay with friends or relatives)
- tourists who likely do not have the freedom to fully organize the trip by themselves (business and study trips, trips paid for by the company, by family/friends, by contests, etc.)

The final sample size was $n=19,359$.

The EGATUR questionnaire includes yes-no questions regarding the actual major uses of Internet during the planning and booking process (Table 1):

- to get information on transportation (inf_tran)
- to get information on accommodation (inf_acco)
- to get information on activities (inf_acti)
- to book transportation (res_tran)
- to book accommodation (res_acco)
- to book activities (res_acti)

The questionnaire also includes trip characteristics. Qualitative characteristics include airline type, accommodation, trip motivation, time of advance booking, season, and traveling with friends. Categories and their frequencies are in Table 2. Numeric characteristics include length of stay in nights and daily expenditure at destination in euro (i.e., excluding only expenditure on transportation from the place of origin and back). Both variables together account for total expenditure at destination and their descriptive statistics are in Table 3.

Table 1. Frequency distributions of actual Internet use variables

Variable names and descriptions	Count	Percent
Uses Internet to get information on transportation (inf_tran)		
no	2295	11.9
yes	17064	88.1
Uses Internet to get information on accommodation (inf_acco)		
no	3882	20.1
yes	15477	79.9
Uses Internet to get information on activities (inf_acti)		
no	11504	59.4
yes	7855	40.6
Uses Internet to book transportation (res_tran)		
no	2884	14.9
yes	16475	85.1
Uses Internet to book accommodation (res_acco)		
no	5334	27.6
yes	14025	72.4
Uses Internet to book activities (res_acti)		
no	16333	84.4
yes	3026	15.6

Table 2. Frequency distributions of trip characteristic variables

Variable names and descriptions	Count	Percent
Low cost carrier		
No ^a	5884	30.4
Yes (lcc)	13475	69.6
Type of accommodation		
Apartments and other accommodation (ap_oth) ^b	2708	14.0
Hotel 4-5* (hot_45)	5056	26.1
Hotel 3* (hot_3)	4922	25.4
Hotel <3* ^a	6673	34.5

Main trip motivation		
Cultural trip to singular cities (urban)	5324	27.5
Leisure trip on coast/in countryside (seacount)	8083	41.8
Others ^a	5952	30.7
Booked less than one month in advance - "last minute"-		
No ^a	12403	64.1
yes (last_min)	6956	35.9
Out of summer season - low season -		
No ^a	5937	30.7
Yes (low_s) ^c	13422	69.3
Trip with friends		
No ^a	14919	77.1
Yes (friends) ^d	4440	22.9

^a Reference category in the statistical model.

^b It includes mainly rooms, flats, apartments and houses directly rented from owners (9.4%), camp sites (1.6%), apartments other than apart-hotels rented through agencies (1.5%), and tourist farms (0.7%).

^c January-June and October-December.

^d It includes all trips with one or more friends (20.5%), with colleagues (0.5%), and both with friends and relatives (1.9%).

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for trip characteristic variables

	Min.	Max.	Mean	St. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
Length of stay in log scale (l_stay)	0.00	4.64	1.689	0.611	0.435	1.306
Daily at-destination expenditure in log scale (l_d_exp)	1.63	7.71	4.470	0.575	0.186	0.676

Statistical analysis

In order to find patterns or dimensions in the binary Internet use variables, Pearson correlations are not appropriate (Babakus et al., 1987; Olsson 1979a). Some dedicated measures of association for contingency tables (Pearson's phi coefficient and Cramér's V)

yield identical results as Pearson correlations in the binary×binary case, and thus offer no improvement. The upper bound of the Pearson correlation between two binary variables is one only when the percentages of yes-no answers are identical. This is unlikely to be the case in Internet use data, as the percentages of informational use tend to considerably exceed those of booking (Jun et al., 2007), regardless of the fact that Internet booking and Internet information seeking may be manifestations of one single latent continuous dimension indicating a general propensity to Internet use. Such a dimension can emerge by means of structural equation models or factor analysis models, only when properly dealing with the binary nature of the variables.

When modeling binary variables (y) from latent continuous variables, it is usually assumed that a logit or probit equation relates both:

$$y=1 \text{ if } \tau < y^* \tag{1}$$

where τ is the so-called threshold parameter and the latent y^* may follow a logistic or a standard normal distribution. In the normal case, this is equivalent to using tetrachoric correlations, a particular case of polychoric correlations (Jöreskog, 1990; O'Brien & Homer, 1987; Olsson, 1979b). It is also equivalent to fitting a system of simultaneous probit equations in which the binary indicators (dependent) are regressed on the continuous latent variables (explanatory; Coenders et al., 1997; Muthén, 1979; 1983; 1984).

Table 4 shows tetrachoric correlations (above the diagonal) to be far higher than Pearson correlations (below the diagonal) and to lead to two dimensions (also referred to as factors) of

very highly correlated Internet uses, which are related to the tourist products rather than to the information/booking divide:

- f1: to get information on or book transportation and accommodation (res_tran, res_acco, inf_tran, inf_acco)
- f2: to get information on or book activities (inf_acti, res_acti)

Jun et al. (2007) used classic measures of association (Pearson's C contingency coefficients) to relate information seeking and booking across a wide range of tourist services and found relatively weak associations, of the same order of magnitude as our Pearson correlations. Only when using tetrachoric correlations it becomes apparent that booking and information gathering may converge into one single behavioral dimension (Table 4).

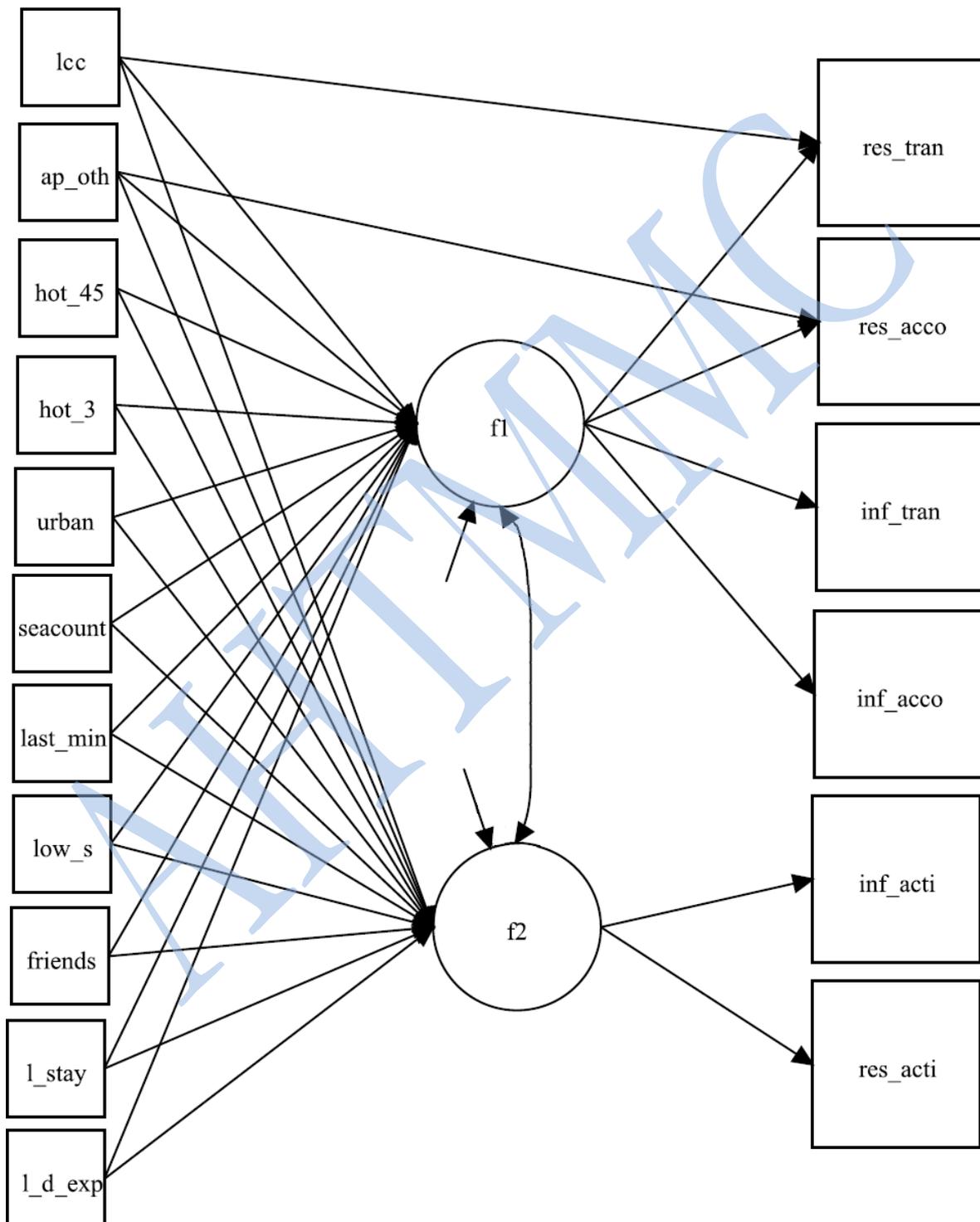
The trip characteristic variables (explanatory in our case) can be related to the dimensions of Internet use (dependent) by means of a multiple-indicator multiple-cause (MIMIC) model, a particular case of structural equation model (Figure 1, see for instance Schumacker & Lomax, 2010, chapter 15).

Table 4. Pearson (below diagonal) and tetrachoric (above diagonal) correlations among Internet use variables

	res_tran	res_acco	inf_tran	inf_acco	inf_acti	res_acti
res_tran	1.000	0.935	0.966	0.798	0.256	0.651
res_acco	0.644	1.000	0.873	0.965	0.351	0.665
inf_tran	0.787	0.538	1.000	0.963	0.772	0.578
inf_acco	0.536	0.768	0.708	1.000	0.800	0.611
inf_acti	0.127	0.204	0.293	0.391	1.000	0.888
res_acti	0.174	0.246	0.148	0.199	0.502	1.000

Figure 1. Path diagram of the proposed MIMIC model^a

^a Variances and covariances of explanatory variables are not shown for the sake of simplicity



MIMIC models can be understood as a combination of factor analysis and simultaneous regression equations. A major advantage over simultaneous regressions is that only one equation per factor is needed, as opposed to one equation for each Internet-use variable. Statistically speaking, this contributes to parsimony, to test power, and to estimator efficiency; and practically speaking, to interpretational economy.

A major advantage with regard to factor analysis lies in the fact that the MIMIC model provides a stronger test for the dimensions. If a set of Internet use variables converge into a dimension, they should be similarly related to the explanatory trip characteristic variables, which will result in a good fit of the MIMIC model to the data. This notwithstanding, direct effects from the trip characteristics to the Internet use variables may also be included in the model, but should be used sparingly only when there are theoretical grounds. In our case, for certain LCCs Internet booking is mandatory, thus requiring a positive direct effect between the variables *lcc* and *res_tran*; for certain accommodation types other than hotels, Internet booking is impossible thus requiring a negative direct effect between the variables *ap_oth* and *res_acc* (see the names and descriptions of the variables in Table 2 and the depiction of the effects in Figure 1).

As in linear regression models, explanatory variables in MIMIC models may include not only numeric variables but also dummy coded qualitative variables. When used in this manner the model is equivalent to the latent-variable MANOVA and the latent-variable MANCOVA models (Bagozzi & Yi, 1994).

Estimation was carried out with the MPLUS7.11 program (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012) by diagonal weighted least squares with mean-and-variance adjusted goodness of fit statistics

(WLSMV option in MPLUS, which is the default estimation method for binary dependent variables).

RESULTS

The goodness of fit of the model fulfils the usual standards in structural equation modeling. The RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation) is 0.072 (90 Percent C.I. 0.070-0.073). The CFI (comparative fit index) is 0.992 and the TLI (Tucker and Lewis index) is 0.987. On the weak side, the R^2 predicting factors f1 and f2 are low at 0.039 and 0.067, respectively.

Table 5. Standardized model estimates

	estimate	p-value
f1 factor loadings ^a		
res_tran	0.963	0.000
res_acco	0.965	0.000
inf_tran	0.992	^b
inf_acco	0.990	0.000
f2 factor loadings ^a		
inf_acti	0.928	^b
res_acti	0.964	0.000
equation predicting f1		
lcc	0.073	0.000
ap_oth	-0.044	0.000
hot_45	-0.099	0.000
hot_3	-0.059	0.000
urban	-0.050	0.000
seacount	-0.044	0.000
last_min	-0.050	0.000
low_s	-0.059	0.000
friends	0.032	0.001

l_stay	-0.141	0.000
l_d_exp	-0.034	0.001
equation predicting f2		
lcc	0.041	0.000
ap_oth	-0.074	0.000
hot_45	-0.135	0.000
hot_3	-0.098	0.000
urban	0.146	0.000
seacount	-0.045	0.000
last_min	-0.040	0.000
low_s	-0.051	0.000
friends	0.064	0.000
l_stay	-0.021	0.071
l_d_exp	-0.006	0.574
direct effects		
lcc→res_tran	0.067	0.000
ap_oth→res_acco	-0.088	0.000
error correlation		
f2-f1	0.681	0.000
error variances ^c		
f1	0.961	0.000
f2	0.933	0.000

^a Unlike the case is with continuous factor indicators, binary indicators only define a correlation structure with unit total variances. Standardized error variances are trivially derived as 1 minus the squared standardized loading and are not counted as model parameters.

^b Constrained parameter to fix the scale of the latent factor.

^c The R^2 are derived as 1 minus the standardized error variances.

The standardized model estimates are shown in Table 5. The very high loadings relating the Internet use variables to the two latent dimensions support the two-dimensional structure

which was already inferred from Table 4 (accommodation and transportation –f1– versus activities –f2).

As regards the equations predicting both Internet-use dimensions from the trip-characteristic variables, as expected, LCC flyers use Internet more often on both dimensions, and not only regarding flight information and flight booking. The same occurs among travelers with friends (friends). Conversely, last-minute booking (last_min) reduces Internet use in both dimensions, as well as out-of-summer travel (low_s) does.

Compared to hotels with two or fewer stars (reference) all accommodation types (hot_45, hot_3 and ap_oth) reduce Internet use in both dimensions. The reduction is highest for the highest-category hotels (hot_45).

Compared to the reference (other trips), cultural trips to singular cities (urban) and leisure trips to the seaside or the countryside (seacount) reduce Internet use in the accommodation-transportation dimension (f1). Leisure trips to the seaside or the countryside reduce Internet use in the activity dimension (f2). Conversely, cultural trips lead to higher f2 scores.

As regards both numeric variables which are related to total at-destination expenditure, both longer lengths of stay (l_stay) and higher daily expenditure at destination (l_d_exp) reduce Internet use only for the accommodation and transportation dimension (f1).

The direct effects from LCC use to transportation reservation (lcc→res_tran) and from other accommodation to accommodation reservation (ap_oth→res_acco) are highly significant and of the expected sign.

The highest standardized effects predicting the accommodation-transportation dimension are those of accommodation type and length of stay. The highest effects predicting the activity dimension are those of accommodation and trip motivation.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this paper regarding actual Internet use predictors complement the yet scarce research on trip characteristics. As Beritelli et al. (2007) we found last-minute planning to be negatively related to Internet use. As Luo et al. (2004) we relate Internet use to traveling with friends, but unlike them, we find length and daily expenditure to be negatively related to Internet use. Trip motivation has confirmed its relevance. High category hotels, high expenditures and long trip durations may be understood as indicators of trip complexity and of trip risk (risk being understood here as a higher investment of time and money and hence more severe consequences in the event of a mispurchase) and reduce Internet use, as expected by Beritelli et al. (2007) and by Amaro and Duarte (2013). New findings include the effect of LCCs, not only on Internet use regarding the flight itself but also on overall Internet use; and of season (summer versus rest of the year).

Another relevant contribution of this paper concerns the dimensionality issue. Like Park et al. (2011) and unlike Jensen (2012), Duman and Tanrisvedi (2011) and Susskind and Stefanone (2010), we encountered dimensions of traveler Internet use which are not based on the purpose of Internet use (information gathering and booking) but rather on the type of service. Since accommodation and transportation Internet use seem to belong together, web sites may find it advantageous to market accommodation and transportation together (for instance, as www.ryanair.com is currently doing). Since propensity to book online and to seek

information online also belong to the same dimension, booking web sites should do their best in providing information in an attractive manner.

Our analysis made it possible to identify certain niches for which Internet use can increase, including legacy airlines, non-hotel accommodation, leisure trips to the seaside and countryside, last-minute bookings, and low-season trips. As a whole, the so-called high quality tourism market segment may show some promise, as indicated by high category hotels and high daily expenditures.

The previous literature has gathered a large amount of evidence regarding Internet use and many types of traveler characteristics, background-related, behavioral and attitudinal. However, from a managerial perspective, some key information about how Internet is used in relation to specific trip types and tourism products is also relevant. For instance, even if a 4- or 5-star hotel manager may have a target market segment with specific background, behavior or attitudes, he or she will find it valuable to know that Internet has a potential for further development for 4- and 5-star hotels as a whole.

As far as methodology is concerned, MIMIC models using tetrachoric correlations show promise in predicting multidimensional binary behaviors. On the one hand, behavior dimensions are more clearly visible than when using traditional measures of association. On the other hand, relating predictors to dimensions rather than to single behaviors, results in a clearer and more parsimonious interpretation. While the standard MIMIC model assumes that all effects from predictors to behaviors flows through the dimensions, the model is flexible enough to include specific direct effects whenever the researcher wants to model a specific relationship between a given predictor and a given behavior.

LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

Even though there are some advantages related to using a database from an official statistics institution, as in this case (large sample size and whole-country scope rather than one single destination), the main disadvantage is that the set of available variables cannot be controlled by the researcher. Further research could include a primary-data study with a wider range of Internet uses, tourist products and trip characteristics.

Related to the variable availability issue, the literature has identified four large categories of variables which can be used to predict Internet usage: subjective variables, past experience and behavior, background, and trip characteristics. While this paper has for the first time tested the dimensions of actual Internet use behavior and related them to a wide range of trip characteristic variables, it is a piece of research somehow exploratory in nature, and results are prone to omitted-variable bias. In further research it would be desirable to introduce all four types of variables in one single model predicting the Internet use dimensions.

Further research is also needed to test the stability of the found relationships through time. While overall Internet use at the univariate level is expected to continue increasing, some of the relationships and dimensions found in this paper might show some degree of stability.

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**Cultural World Heritage Site Management – A Case Study of Sacred Sites and
Pilgrimage Routes in the Kii Mountain Range**

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ABSTRACT

The research aims to examine (1) heritage management and conservation activities, (2) local communities and (3) tourism development in WHS Kii after its WHS listing. Primary data

was collected through the visits to WHS Kii, observations of/ad hoc small interviews with stakeholders in the local communities, and in-depth interviews with key stakeholders. According to the findings, overall diverse positive changes are confirmed in relation to the above-mentioned three fields. After its WHS inscription, for instance, people's awareness of conservation of WHS Kii has been raised and the actual level of conservation of the WHS has also been enhanced. People from outside WHS Kii as well as local people have been involved in the conservation of the WHS and tourism in the WHS. Local people have a higher level of pride in their living place thanks to its WHS designation. The number of overseas tourists has also increased after WHS listing.

KEYWORDS World Heritage Site, heritage management, heritage conservation, local communities, tourism development, Kii

INTRODUCTION

The research aims to examine (1) heritage management and conservation activities in a cultural World Heritage Site (WHS) in Japan, "Sacred Sites and Pilgrimage Routes in the Kii Mountain Range" (WHS Kii), after its WHS designation in 2004. This research also aims to investigate other related fields such as (2) local communities, and (3) tourism development after its WHS listing. The number of WHSs in the world as of September 2013 is 981: 759 cultural, 193 natural and 29 mixed properties in 160 State Parties (SPs) (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2013a). There are 17 WHSs in Japan as of September 2013: 13 cultural and 4 natural WHSs (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2013a). WHS Kii encompasses an extensive area and extends over several municipalities in three different prefectures, Wakayama, Nara and Mie. The above-mentioned three themes in WHS Kii are worth investigating with the following reasons. First, there are only three WHSs, which include pilgrimage routes, in the world;

moreover, of these, WHS Kii is the only WHS whose pilgrimage routes have close links with Shintoism, Buddhism and/or Shugendo. Shugendo is a syncretism of Japanese ancient mountain worship. The routes related to such non-Christian religions have not been explored well in existing studies. Second, the significance of tourism for most WHSs in terms of their sustainability has been more and more recognised by UNESCO, ICOMOS, academics, and practitioners in recent years. This could be evidenced by an increase in the number of opportunities to share and exchange various ideas, views and practice at conferences, symposiums and workshops (e.g. ICOMOS UK, 2012).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Scared Sites, Pilgrimage Routes and Religious Tourism

Tourism is not a new phenomenon. In the West, some types of activities, which can be seen as tourism in a current context, already existed in the Greek and Roman eras (Page & Connell, 2009). Early tourism had various purposes such as leisure, trade and military. In the Western world, people began to travel to attend religious festivals and events, or for pilgrimages in the Middle Ages (the 5th–15th centuries) (Page & Connell, 2009). During this period, the West saw the rise of Christianity, including the development of monastic orders and a feudal system. In this situation, most holidays were taken to attend religious festivals, though this did not always include movement to a different place. In the 16th century, in England, the most important holidays for people were still related to their religion (e.g. annual parish feast, wake or revel), and still did not always include movement. During the 18th century, the Grand Tour became very popular amongst young aristocrats in some Western countries (Page & Connell, 2009). Some of the activities taken in the Grand Tour can be seen as religious tourism. For example, Venice was popular around May and June for the Ascensiontide, whilst Rome was favoured at Christmas, both for the renowned festivities (Towner, 1996).

Generally speaking, Christianity and the Western world have been studied more than other major religions and the rest of the world in previous heritage/tourism studies. In fact, as far as the researcher is aware, there are not many heritage/tourism studies which deal with Shintoism, Buddhism and/or Shugendo, and Japan. In Japan, “okage-mairi” in the Edo period (1603-1868) can be seen as the oldest type of religious tourism. It is also ‘recognised as a forerunner of modern-day Japanese tourism’ (Linhart & Fruhstuck, 1998 cited in Cooper et al., 2008: 111). Okage-mairi is the religious tourism to Ise Jingu (Ise Grand Shrine) in Mie prefecture (Traganou, 2004) made by ordinary people. This travel was regarded as an once-in-a-lifetime opportunity for them, especially farmers; because they were not allowed to travel freely and the travel cost them a large amount of time and money. People travelled to Ise Jingu from all over Japan and it was believed that they could receive good luck or protection from the gods. The pilgrimage routes to Ise Jingu were also developed with the growing popularity of okage-mairi.

In light of the number of visits, religious tourism still can be seen as one of most popular types of tourism in Japan as well as in the West. WHS Kii also can be regarded as sacred sites because of its historical linkage with Shintoism, Buddhism and/or Shugendo. Shackley (2001) developed a classification of sacred sites (see Table 1). In light of the categorisation in Table 1, shrines and temples in WHSKii would fall into Categories 4 and/or 10, and the mountains which have such sacred sites (Koya-san and Yoshino-yama) would fall into Category 8. In recent years, Kumano Sanzan (three shrines in the Kumano area) has been seen as one of “power spots”. In Japan, some people believe that places acknowledged as “power spots” could give a spiritual power of the places to the people who visit there. Hence, they visit the sites such as Kumano Sanzan not to worship but to receive the power. In this sense, Kumano Sanzan would fall into Category 7.

Table 1: Classification of Sacred Sites (Source: Shackley, 2001)

Category	Type	Examples
1	Single nodal feature	Canterbury Cathedral, Emerald Buddha (Bangkok), Hagia Sophia (Istanbul)
2	Archaeological sites	Machu Picchu (Peru), Chichen Itza (Mexico)
3	Burial sites	Catacombs (Rome), Pyramids (Giza)
4	Detached temples/shrines	Borobudur, Ankor Wat, Amritsar
5	Whole towns	Rome, Jerusalem, Assisi, Varanasi, Bethlehem
6	Shrine/temple complexes	Lalibela (Ethiopia), Patala (Tibet), St Katherine's Monastery (Egypt)
7	Earth energy' sites	Nazca Lines (Peru), Glastonbury
8	Sacred mountains	Uluru, Everest, Tai Shan, Athos, Mt Fuji
9	Sacred islands	Rapa Nui, Lindisfarne, Iona, Mont-St-Michel
10	Pilgrimage foci	Mecca, Medina, Mt Kailash, Compostela
11	Secular pilgrimage	Robben Island (RSA), Goree (Senegal), Holocaust sites

Management and Conservation of WHSs (Research Aim 1)

To be inscribed as a WHS, first every candidate site needs to be listed on the Tentative List which is prepared within each States Party (SP) through consultation with local authorities, non-government organisations, members of the public, private owners (Leask, 2006). In fact, however, some stakeholders such as the member of the public and private owners in a candidate site might not be involved enough in this process (Jimura, 2007) and these stakeholders are unlikely to fully understand the meaning of WHS even after its listing (Jimura, 2007, 2011).

The candidate site nominated by its SP must have a detailed management plan and a strong legal framework as part of the Nomination Documents for a WHS status (Jimura 2007, 2011; Shackley, 1998). This means that the management and conservation plan for the candidate site need to be improved or enhanced accordingly through the nomination process (Smith, 2002). In other words, central government of SPs need to develop the plan based on the advice from World Heritage Centre, advisory bodies within the SP, IUCN, ICOMOS, regional authorities, local government, local trusts and experts and consultation (Leask, 2006). The site also must keep improving their management and conservation plan even after it was designated as a WHS (Bianchi, 2002; Smith, 2002). However, having an excellent management and conservation plan is not always enough for the management and conservation of the WHSs. Jimura (2007)

conducted the resident survey in WHS Saltaire, UK and WHS Ogimachi, Japan. In WHS Saltaire, 32.0% of the questionnaire respondents think the level of conservation of the site has increased since WHS listing in 2001, and only 2.0% think it has decreased. In WHS Ogimachi, on the other hand, only 12.6% of the respondents think the level of conservation of the site has increased, and 44.6% think it has actually decreased. Hence, it can be said that an increase in the level of conservation of the site cannot be fully guaranteed even after WHS designation. In case of WHS Ogimachi, a decrease in the level of conservation was caused mainly by rapid and extensive tourism development after its WHS listing in 1994 (Jimura, 2007, 2011).

The involvement of local communities in the management and conservation of the WHS as well as its nomination process is essential. In fact, to 'encourage participation of the local population in the preservation of their cultural and natural heritage' is part of the mission of WHSs (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2013b). In addition to the management and conservation plan, Jimura (2011) suggests that a comprehensive tourism management plan is also required for WHSs in order to ensure the successful future of the site as a place to live, a WHS and a tourist destination.

According to UNESCO World Heritage Centre (2013c), 'The World Heritage Fund (WHF) provides about US\$4 million annually to support activities requested by SPs in need of international assistance. It includes compulsory and voluntary contributions from the SPs, as well as from private donations. The World Heritage Committee (WHCommittee) allocates funds according to the urgency of requests, priority being given to the most threatened sites'. As pointed out by Jimura (2007) in his study about Saltaire, UK, the issue is that a WHS status does not guarantee any automatic funding. This is true to all the WHSs in the world except some exceptional WHSs which could obtain some automatic funding from national, regional and/or local government (e.g. Shirakawa-mura, Japan). This research investigates (1) heritage management

and conservation activities in WHS Kii after its WHS listing, considering the themes discussed in 2.1 and 2.2.

WHS Inscription and Local Communities (Research Aims 2 and 3)

WHS listing can bring a wide range of changes to local communities and tourism in the area designated as a WHS (Jimura, 2007, 2011). In light of the nature and characteristics of WHS Kii, the following points should be prominent examples of such changes related to local communities and/or tourism development.

Local Culture

In their study on Bukhara, Uzbekistan, Airey & Shackley (1998) argue that WHS listing could revitalise local products, such as silk carpets, textiles and silver. Shackley (1998) also confirms the same kind of impact in Ninstints, Canada. Whilst, Bianchi & Boniface (2002) point out that negative changes such as degradation and commercialisation of local culture might be caused as a result of enhanced publicity of the site by WHS inscription.

Local Identity, Community Spirit and Local Pride

Shackley (1998) asserts that WHSs can be a centre of nationalism through the enhancement of identity. Jimura (2007) and Smith (2002) argue that WHS listing can enhance the ties among different agencies within the area designated as a WHS. This can be supported by the result of the resident survey conducted by Jimura (2007) in WHS Saltaire. 24.0% of the questionnaire respondents think the “feel” and spirit of the area has become stronger since WHS designation, whilst 12.0% think it has become weaker. However, the resident survey conducted by Jimura (2007) in WHS Ogimachi shows an opposite result: only 5.4% of the questionnaire respondents think the “feel” and spirit of the area has become stronger since WHS inscription, whilst 47.3%

think it has become weaker. For example, weakened neighbourly companionship and rise of materialism are listed as the reason of this negative change (Jimura, 2007). It should also be noted that WHS designation can increase local people's pride in their culture (Evans, 2002; Shackley, 1998) and their place to live (Jimura, 2007, 2011).

Recognition and Image

The site can be more recognised by people after its WHS destination (Jimura, 2007; Shackley, 1998; Smith, 2002). The image of the site can also be enhanced by the designation (Bianchi, 2002; Jimura, 2007; Smith, 2002). Bianchi (2002) and Smith (2002) also note that a WHS status can be seen as a marker of authenticity and quality for overseas tourists.

Tourists and Visitors

'In principle, UNESCO places equal emphasis on the conservation and the use of WHSs' (Jimura, 2011: 291). However, it is clear that the physical environment of WHSs, especially those which are fragile and/or not well-managed, has been severely damaged by excessive visitation (Smith, 2002) and this issue is also linked with overcrowding of the WHSs. Regarding the relationship between a WHS status and the number of visitors/tourists, Hall & Piggin (2003) argue that a WHS status does not guarantee an increase in the visitor number. On the other hand, Asakura (2008) notes that the Japanese WHSs which were not famous amongst tourists before WHS inscription are more likely to see a huge increase in the number of tourists/visitors after the designation. Jimura (2007; 2011) concludes that in case of WHS Ogimachi in Japan, the number of domestic tourists has seen a much larger increase than that of overseas tourists. Shepherd et al. (2012) examine the tourists to Wutai Shan (Mt Wutai), China, as a WHS and a tourist destination; and conclude that the majority of tourists are domestic tourists with religious

(Buddhism) intentions. For the above-mentioned points, it could also be said that not all the WHSs see a clear increase in the number of overseas tourists.

This research explores (2) local communities and (3) tourism development in WHS Kii after its WHS listing, considering the themes argued in 2.1 and 2.3.

METHODOLOGY

A methodological framework has been developed, considering the aims of this research. Saunders et al. (2007) developed a concept called “the research onion”. It shows different layers (from “philosophies” to “techniques and procedures”) and available options can be adopted. This concept can be used to outline the methodology for this research. Regarding research philosophies, the research stems from interpretivism. The research adopts inductive approach and a case study is its research strategy. It can be categorised as a cross-sectional research and examines mainly qualitative data to explore detailed backgrounds of the above-mentioned (1)-(3) and to have deep understanding of these three themes.

The research deals with both primary and secondary data. The data collection methods for primary data are (i) visits to the WHS, (ii) observations of the WHS itself and tourists/visitors to there, (iii) scheduled in-depth interviews with the experts (regional and local governments, tourist associations and visitor attractions), and (iv) ad hoc brief interviews with the front-line staff of the visitor attractions which did not respond to the researcher’s email to make an appointment for an in-depth interview. Of these, (iii) works as the main data collection method, and others work supplementarily. The data collection methods for secondary data are (v) collections of the resources for visitors and general public at the WHS and on the websites, and (vi) collections of the resources from the interviewees.

The fieldwork was conducted in August and September 2012. The researcher visited three key areas within WHS Kii: Kumano Sanzan, Koya-san and Yoshino-yama (i). Observations were

conducted at the main visitor attractions and pilgrimage routes (e.g. Kumano Hongu Taisha, Kongobu-ji, Kinpusen-ji, and Daimon-zaka) (ii). Six in-depth interviews (iii) and two brief interviews (iv) were completed. Through the process of (i) and (iii), a wide variety of secondary data was also collected [(v) and (vi)]. All in-depth interviews were recorded and the researcher transcribed each recorded interview for data analysis. The researcher took a note about the contents of brief interviews. The transcripts and notes are analysed manually through summarising the original data, coding by theme, and categorisation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section shows the summary of key findings by theme [the above-stated (1)-(3)], and discussions based on these findings and Section 2.

Heritage Management and Conservation Activities after WHS listing (Research Aim 1)

- (a) The awareness of proper management and conservation of the WHS, especially the pilgrimage routes, has been raised amongst tourists/visitors as well as local people.
- (b) There have been some man-made disasters (e.g. fire by negligence and devilmnt), and some of them have been done without knowing that the area is a WHS. The latest example is that trees in Gongen Mountain, which are properties administered by Kumano Hayatama Taisha in Shingu, were cut down without permission in 2011.
- (c) Conservation activities of the pilgrimage routes by individual volunteers and as CSR activities have been blossomed (e.g. the “michi-bushin” programme organised by regional/local governments and everybody can join it).

- (d) Although living in a WHS is not the only reason, local people have begun to do whatever they can to support the heritage management and conservation (e.g. planting flowers and keeping the front of their houses clean).
- (e) Ministry of the Environment have become more careful about the maintenance of the footpaths than before the WHS designation. What they are afraid of most is that the site may lose its WHS status if their management and conservation are regarded inadequate. New instalment of artificial objects is prohibited (e.g. a new bridge is not allowed to be built when a footpath collapsed. Instead, restitution of the footpath will be carried out).
- (f) Regional and local governments have arranged various awareness-building activities. (e.g. special classes for young children, lectures by experts for local people).
- (g) Rules for tourists/visitors, who enjoy walking the pilgrimage routes, have been developed; and the rules have been promoted amongst tourists/visitors via websites or leaflets.
- (h) There is no automatic funding for shrines or temples from public or private sectors for being part of a WHS.

Local Communities after WHS listing (Research Aim 2)

- (i) Local people have begun to be much more proud of their place to live and to have stronger attachment to their society and culture.
- (j) Local communities have begun to be keener to revitalise their communities through active involvement in conservation/tourism-related activities.
- (k) River Kumano is part of WHS Kii and it is the only pilgrimage route inscribed as a river. The traditional boat which was once used by local people has been rebuilt, and boat tours of River Kumano have been newly developed.

Tourism Development after WHS inscription (Research Aim 3)

- (l) WHS designation triggered revitalisation of local communities through tourism development. Originally, the area inscribed as WHS Kii was full of rich cultural and natural tourism resources. Before WHS listing; however, there were limited opportunities to be recognised by people, especially foreigners, as the area is not easy to access and not well-known to overseas tourists.
- (m) The number of domestic tourists/visitors, especially repeat domestic tourists/visitors, has increased.
- (n) The number of overseas tourists has increased. Koya-san had a large number of overseas tourists even before WHS listing. However, it has increased in other places as well as in Koya-san after WHS designation.
- (o) It is fully recognised that Asia, especially East Asia, is a big market for WHS Kii. However, it has been confirmed that Western tourists tend to stay in the WHS much longer than Asian or domestic tourists. Moreover, they are keener to understand WHS Kii deeply. Hence, Western tourists have been set as the main target market segment for the WHS.
- (p) In light of tourists' environmental and economic impacts on WHS Kii, not group tourists but individual tourists should be set as its main target segment. Regional/local governments and tourist associations try to limit the number of tourists/visitors, to extend the length of their stay, and to encourage them to spend more money.
- (q) Local tourist associations have arranged hospitality courses for local taxi drivers.
- (r) Although the number of tourists/visitors has increased, there has been no problem with rubbish or vandalism. However, there are some problems caused by irresponsible tourists/visitors [e.g. some bike through the pilgrimage routes. Three men climbed up the sacred falls (Nachi Falls)].

Discussion

As Jimura (2007) pointed out, having an excellent management and conservation plan does not always guarantee good management and conservation of the WHSs. For instance, a decrease in the level of conservation could be caused by rapid and extensive tourism development after the WHS designation (Jimura, 2007, 2011). In case of WHS Kii; overall, its heritage management and conservation activities are going well thanks to various positive factors [see (a) & (c)–(g)]. However, even WHS Kii still has some problems in its heritage management and conservation [see (b) & (r)]. It is not clear enough from the results of this research that who were actually involved in the nomination process of WHS Kii and to what extent. As Jimura (2007, 2011) argues; however, a lack of understanding of the meaning of a WHS status amongst some local people and tourists/visitors can be seen as one of the main reasons of such issues. As stated in 2.2, to ‘encourage participation of the local population in the preservation of their cultural and natural heritage’ is part of the mission of WHSs (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2013b). WHS Kii is also a successful case in this sense as evidenced by (a), (c), (d) and (f). Regarding funding, there is no automatic funding for shrines or temples in WHS Kii from public or private sectors for being part of a WHS [see (h)]. This situation is different from the owners of listed houses in WHS Ogimachi, Japan (Jimura, 2007). This is probably because of the difference in the nature of properties between WHS Ogimachi (ordinary house owners) and WHS Kii (great shrines or temples which have financial resources and can obtain donations from followers and visitors).

WHS listing can revitalise local culture and products (Airey & Shackley, 1998; Shackley, 1998) (2.3.1). As (k) demonstrates, WHS Kii applies to such a positive case. As discussed in 2.3.2, WHS designation can enhance the ties among different agencies within a WHS (Jimura, 2007; Smith, 2002), and can increase local people’s pride in their culture (Evans, 2002; Shackley,

1998) and their place to live (Jimura, 2007, 2011). As (i) and (j) indicate, all of these statements apply to WHS Kii.

As argued in 2.3.3, WHS designation could enhance the level of recognition of the site (Jimura, 2007; Shackley, 1998; Smith, 2002) and the image of the site (Bianchi, 2002; Jimura, 2007; Smith, 2002). Concerning WHS Kii, it can be stated that such positive changes have occurred as (l) demonstrates. It also could be said that WHS designation of WHS Kii has been regarded as a marker of authenticity and quality for overseas as Bianchi (2002) and Smith suggest (2.4.1). This would be one of the main reasons why the number of overseas tourists has increased (n). As for the relationship between a WHS status and the number of visitors/tourists, there are different views suggested by various researchers (2.3.4). In light of (l)-(n), the case of WHS Kii agrees with Asakura's (2008) opinion, whilst does not fit the cases of WHS Ogimachi (Jimura, 2007, 2011) and WHS Wutai (Shepherd et al., 2012) as WHS Kii has seen an increase in the number of both overseas and domestic tourists/visitors.

As (o) and (p) display, WHS Kii has specific target market segments and recognise what types of tourism they should pursue in the future. Considering the backgrounds of their choice, it seems to be appropriate. (q) can be seen as a good example of activities which could please the tourists who spend relatively large amount of money (i.e. reserving a taxi for half or one day). (b) and (r) can be regarded as issues which have been caused by a lack of awareness, understanding and/or respect of the significance of the WHS, cultural and natural heritage, and sacred sites amongst local communities (b) and tourists/visitors (r).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In conclusion, overall, diverse positive changes are confirmed in WHS Kii after its WHS listing in relation to (1) heritage management and conservation activities, (2) local communities, and (3) tourism development. This admirable situation would be thanks to good

understanding, continuous efforts and appropriate activities of all the stakeholders, including local communities and tourists/visitors as well as regional/local governments and tourist associations. Any unique findings cannot be found in terms of religions related to WHS Kii (Shintoism, Buddhism and/or Shugendo) though the research. However, regional/local governments have organised unique and innovative approaches for the conservation of the pilgrimage routes (e.g. the michi-bushin programme). This is noteworthy as not only experts but also ordinary people can be involved in the conservation activities of a WHS as individual volunteers. Moreover, this opportunity is open to overseas/domestic tourists as well as local people, and private companies can also join this programme as part of their CSR activities. It should also be useful to enhance the ties amongst different stakeholders related to WHS Kii. As (b) and (r) demonstrates, there have been some problems in terms of heritage management and conservation activities. As discussed in 4.4, these problems have been caused by local communities (b) or tourists/visitors (r) due to a lack of awareness, understanding and/or respect of the meaning of the WHS, cultural and natural heritage, and sacred sites.

For the above-mentioned reasons, further awareness-building activities covering (1)-(3) for local communities as well as for tourists would be a key to maintain the current worthy situation of the WHS, and to achieve better and more sustainable future as a WHS, people's place to live and tourist destination. Needless to say, local people's daily life should come first; however, a certain proportion of economic benefits from tourism should be reinvested in heritage management, conservation activities and tourism development in a sustainable manner for the future of WHS Kii. Regarding tourism development, the WHS already has specific target market segments and recognise what types of tourism they should pursue in the future (4.4). As Jimura (2011) suggests, having a thorough tourism management plan could strengthen WHS Kii's tourism strategy further. All the stakeholders, especially tourists/visitors and local communities, need to fully recognise their roles and duties in the heritage

management and conservation and tourism development of WHS Kii. In light of these points, for instance, representatives from each stakeholder group form a project team which aims to develop appropriate strategies with clear goals for a long-term success of the whole of the WHS. Each stakeholder would sometimes have different aspirations; however, they need to be reconciled at least to a certain extent in order to set up the goals can be shared by all. A holistic approach, which covers all of the above-stated (1)-(3), should also be taken to achieve these goals.

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**Managing Business Travel: Behavioral Patterns of Road Warriors and Implications for
Their Work-Life Balance. Study of Travelling Academics.**

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ABSTRACT

Employees of companies from many, if not all, industry sectors on a global arena are involved into diverse forms of mobility, business travel among them. Focusing on the segment of university employees, current research seeks to investigate their business travel behavior, not only analyzing the data on modes of travel and types of trips of academics, but also placing the phenomenon in a broader framework of attitude to travel and work-life balance. Due to changing patterns of business travel in the modern society, influenced by blurring boundaries between work and private life, the involvement of road warriors into leisure life of visited destinations is under investigation. Results demonstrate relations

between multiple leisure factors and attitude to business travel, as well as their influence on work-life balance of the travelers of various profiles. The study implications are beneficial in terms of refining travel policies, along with improving the well-being of academics.

KEYWORDS Business travel, travelling academics, attitude to business trips, work-life balance.

INTRODUCTION

In a modern globalized society, business travel is an essential activity for any company, private or public one. Business travel today is an important industry worldwide, the value of which in terms of global expenses exceeded USD 800 billion in 2010 (WTTC). Every fifth trip is undertaken with work-related purposes (UNWTO, 2005), and the volume of business travel is constantly growing (EC, 2008). In this regard, it is important to thoroughly examine the behavior of business travelers, especially in the conditions of economic instability when cost reduction is among the highest concerns of many organizations.

Business travel is a dual experience, which is not only connected with positive effects of being away from regular workplace and visiting new destinations; it is a source of extra expenses for the employer and a cause of additional stress, fatigue and challenges to personal life of the employee. Deteriorating with the increase of the number of business trips, work-life balance (WLB) of the travelers is getting to be a serious concern for human resources (HR) departments, which are constantly looking for new ways of supporting well-being of travelers and taking care of social sustainability.

Business travel plays an increasingly important role in today's modern world and global economy, but, partially due to its nature, this field is under-researched in the scientific literature (Storme et al., 2013). Quite a limited body of literature characterizes the field, as

existing research has mostly concentrated on MICE segment (Meetings, Incentives, Conferences, Events), paying little attention to individual travelers. Moreover, just a scarce evidence from the segment of academics is present in the literature, despite the fact that for many years this profession has been by necessity internationally mobile (Bentley et al., 2012). Work-related travel of professors and researchers being an indispensable part of an academic career is the focus of the current research, that seeks to investigate the attitude of the university employees to business travel, as well as their behavior while being on the road, not only analyzing the data on modes of travel and types of trips, but also placing the phenomenon in a broader framework of work and family domains. Moreover, due to changing patterns of business travel in the modern society, influenced by the blurring boundaries between work and private life, present paper explores the involvement of business travelers into leisure life of the visited destinations, looking at the possibilities of improving their work-life balance. The study implications are beneficial in terms of refining travel policies, along with improving the well-being of academics, for whom the problem is relevant due to high amount of hours generally devoted to their jobs (Charters, 1942) and increasing pressure of teaching, research work and administrative stream of their activity (Enders, 1997). The primary data is collected through an online questionnaire from a sample of university employees of different positions, whose work foresees business trips. The survey analysis clarifies behavioral patterns of academic business travelers and allows addressing the efforts of travel managers and HR departments on the way to eliminate negative effects of business travel, taking care of the personnel well-being.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Business Travel: general overview

Presently, multiple companies are organized in the way that requires sustaining regular contacts between people located in geographically dispersed locations (Gustafson, 2012). Globalization processes in the economy requiring optimal allocation of resources contributed to creation and spread of new forms of mobility; therefore, nowadays we are speaking about localization, long- and short-term assignments translocation, commuting, virtual forms of mobility and business travel (Millar & Salt, 2008), the latter being the focus of the current research. Business travel is generally defined as “work-related travel to an irregular place of work” (Aguilera, 2008) and often refers to a journey of under 30 days (Millar & Salt, 2008). Work-related trips occur to the employees of wide array of professions conducted for a myriad of diverse reasons (Gustafson, 2006).

Business travel is often associated with twofold effects. Amongst its positive outcomes there can be named getting new partners and clients, thus, growing the business volume; developing interpersonal trust with the existing stakeholders; acquiring new knowledge; solving strategic and daily problems; stimulating personnel, etc. (Faulkonbridge et al., 2009; Beaverstock et al., 2009). However, while being related to the above-mentioned benefits, work-related travel is claimed to be a direct source of constantly growing expenses for the companies (Advito, 2013), stress, inconvenience and social costs for the employees (DeFrank et al., 2000) and additional burden for the environment (Wilbers, 2009). Given the above-mentioned, it is important to deeper investigate the ways employees travel, paying attention not just to improvement of economic aspects of business travel but also exploring social challenges for companies and travelers related to it (Amadeus, 2012).

Business Travel in the field of academia

In addition to corporate business travelers, a particular segment of the ‘road warriors’ comprises academics, who are explored in the current paper. Their mobility is assumed to

describe maneuvers of university employees within and between the spaces of the university, state, and market on the academic arena worldwide (Cantwell, 2011). Presently universities have become global centres of knowledge and innovation, which compete between each other on the global arena (Mok, 2006; Elkin et al., 2008). Process of internalization is happening on various levels – internalization of professors and students, of curriculum and research, alumni relations and international recruitment. Inevitably, it leads to increasing volume of business travel in the field (Brookes & Becket, 2011), which is crucial for the knowledge production and its global spread, as well as for establishing and strengthening academic networks (Altbach, 1989). In spite of this, surprisingly limited research is available on the nature of academic travel at modern universities.

Academic travel is defined as ‘physical journeys for the purpose of research, lecturing, visiting appointments, consulting and other professional tasks’ (Jons, 2008). Multiple typologies are discussed in the literature distinguishing various segments, mostly according to functionality (Storme et al., 2013; Lassen et al., 2006). Business trips of academics might have various duration, lasting between a day and several years (Jons, 2008). However, the latter might be referred as work-related travel for long-term work assignments or temporary migration, which has been a focus of considerable body of the literature till now (Hoffman, 2009; Kim, 2009; Bekhardia & Sastry 2005; Nunn 2005); however, individual business travel of academics so far has not been researched extensively.

Short-term trips are often undertaken by tenured academics who locally belong to a certain educational institution and are required to travel for work activities. Growing mobilization of expertise in the form of invited lectures and visited appointments is presently illustrated by high numbers of visiting academics. Multiple goals are accomplished via business travel of academic employees, among which there can be mentioned accessing field sites and information sources for scientific production, which are not available otherwise, setting

formal and informal contacts with academics and industry professionals all over the world, visiting geographically dispersed institutes and laboratories beneficial for research, etc.

Despite a high importance of this occupation, not much is known about the academic business travel and the factors ensuring its sustainability (Bentley et al., 1997). Present research considering multiple socio-demographic and travel-related factors, focuses on short-term business travel, seeking to explore attitude of academics of different profiles to work-related trips investigating work and leisure related activities undertaken by the road warriors at the unknown destinations. Moreover, exploring business travel behavioral patterns, I focus on the related work-life balance issues that might produce an effect on the job satisfaction overall.

Life domains, work-life balance and travel stress

Business travel undoubtedly has its positive effects but, at the same time, it is a source of stress and inconvenience for the travelers, which, among the rest, might influence their success in accomplishing organizational goals (Westman et al., 2012). Extensive literature exists on the topic of general occupational stress and WLB problems, disregarding business travel context (Espino et al., 2002). WLB has been defined as ‘satisfaction and good functioning at work and at home with a minimum role conflict’ (Clark, 2000). In the situation when the boundaries between work and life are becoming increasingly blurred, many attempts have been made to understand how individuals integrate their roles and move between different domains. Everyday role transitions involve movement between work and home and between work and third places (Ashforth et al., 2000). These shifts have been studied within the framework of the boundary theory (Nippert-Eng, 1996), according to which individuals create and maintain limits between different life domains. The boundaries are characterized by flexibility and permeability. A role with flexible boundaries can be taken

at any setting, while permeable boundaries allow one to be physically located in one domain but psychologically to be engaged into another. Great variations exist in the degree of segmentation or integration of different roles; however, weaker boundaries and easier roles penetration are found to be connected with higher work-family conflict.

In the view of growing volume of work-related journeys, WLB of the travelers is getting to be an important concern for many employers, who are looking for new ways of supporting well-being of their employees. Research findings provide evidence to the importance of keeping equilibrium between work and non-work domains for employees, as WLB is rated as the key work characteristics, being considered even more important than job security and financial rewards by all age and gender groups (Finegold&Mohrman, 2001). Moreover, Cheese et al. (2002) demonstrate that over utilizing personnel forcing it to work long hours, travel a lot, often be away from home, causes a long-term depletion of the workforce energy. However, when stress-reduction work management is applied allowing employees to recover from exhaustion, they are twice as likely to be engaged into their work.

The debate about work and life domains and their equilibrium has to capture more diversified attitudes of employees towards their work and private life, not failing to understand work-life patterns in any context (Warhurst et al., 2008), paying particular attention to the specific setting of business trips. According to DeFrank et al. (2000) travel stress is "perceptual, emotional, behavioral and physical responses made by an individual to the various problems faced during one or more of the phases of travel (pre-, during and post-trip)". There exist diverse potentially risky stress issues connected with business trips, among which journey preparation in terms of not only work but also family arrangements (Westman et al., 2012), physical and psychological problems (Rogers, 1998), decreased performance at work (Espino et al., 2002) could be mentioned. Negative impact of frequent flying on private life arises from scarcity of time for family and household, friends and social obligations (Mayo et al.,

2011), as well as lacking periods of rest and recreation (Demel&Mayerhofer, 2010). Different trip characteristics, such as length of a journey, its lead time, flexibility and control exercised by the traveler, frequency of trips, unforeseeable circumstances arising during business travel have their role in creating stressful situations (Westman et al., 2012).

Despite high importance of academic profession, not much is known about social effects and development prospects of rising volume of their business trips (Bentley et al., 2013). Regardless extended work hours, academic work has traditionally been viewed as not particularly stressful. However, there exist multiple evidences to increasing stress and work pressure at work not just for executives but also for academics, reported predominantly in the last two decades in different countries (Altbach, 1996; Kinman et al., 2006; Taris et al., 2001). Sometimes academics are claimed to experience higher levels of pressure than general staff (Gillespie et al., 2001). Increased workload, rising psychological strain, work-family conflict and decreased social support are among the factors leading to this situation (Winefield et al., 2008).

Business Travel and Leisure Tourism

Some consideration regarding negative consequences of business travel have been discussed earlier. However, along with increasing attention to its negative characteristics, it is important to better study positive outcomes of business travel, which might create opportunities for stress-reduction and elimination of work-family conflict. These possibilities emerge due to arising learning occasions, exposure to new cultures, meeting new people, career growth chances and having some time off routine generated by work-related journeys (Westman et al., 2012).

Despite the fact that business travel is becoming a regular, and even boring work activity for many people, no longer something exceptional, for some travelers and in particular places it

still bears the elements of ‘escape from daily routine, exploration, excitement and even eroticism’ (Wickham & Vecchi, 2009). Business travel may be considered as a source of new experiences, freedom and independence (Fisher & Stoneman, 1998). The above mentioned trend regarding increasing hunger for new experiences while being on the way is in line with the findings of the research on leisure motivations of conference attendees, indicating that business travelers are greatly interested in experiencing local culture when attending business events (Tretyakevich & Maggi, 2012).

Mobility can be perceived very differently by various travelers: for someone it is a ‘necessary evil’, while for others it is enjoyment and fun, related with learning and gaining experience, as illustrated by Demel & Mayerhofer (2010). Interestingly, the desire to experience different culture and get engaged into tourist activities in a new place, alone or in a company, is more common among academics than for the employees of large corporations (Lassen et al., 2006), which might be explained by higher flexibility and autonomy exercised by the university staff that allows satisfying their personal interests and curiosities helping them to keep WLB (Enders, 2001).

Rising amount of business travel caused many HR-related questions that have not yet been addressed (Mayerhofer et al., 2004). In the light of deteriorating situation with WLB of frequent business travelers, the goal for companies today is to develop a commitment oriented HRM policy to maintain efficient working activities, at the same time supporting individuals’ lifestyles and accounting for the needs of employees (Mayerhofer et al., 2010). The organizational support culture, if being taken care of in a correct way, might foster stress and exhaustion reduction (Westman et al., 2012).

METHODOLOGY AND DATA

The data for the present research was collected via an online questionnaire launched at the University of Lugano, Switzerland. First, the pilot survey was conducted with 20 university employees, revealing some weak points, which were consequently revised in the final version. The survey was distributed among all employees of the university, whose work involved business travel, including both academic staff of various positions and administration. After one week, a reminder was sent out. As a result, after two weeks in the field, 203 valid responses constituting the basis for the current analysis have been received. The response rate made up 24%.

Table 1 demonstrates socio-demographic composition of the analyzed sample. According to positions, the respondents are split in the following way: 37% of the sample are made up by doctoral students; professors of different categories (including assistant professors) constitute the second largest category (23%), followed by administrative personnel (18%), postdocs (14%), assistants and researchers (9%). What concerns length of work of the university personnel at their present positions, one third of the total sample consists of academics and administration employed by university for 2-4 years. Three groups of employees - under 2 years, from 4 to 8 and more than 8 years similarly correspond to 20-24% of the survey participants. Male gender slightly dominates in the sample (57%), as well as employees between 18 and 40 years old, who account for 72% of the respondents. The vast majority have residence in Switzerland, are of Swiss or of Italian origin, have partner and no kids. 94% of the sample have Master or Doctoral University degree. Overall, the survey respondents' composition largely corresponds to the real distribution of the university employees, with some minor exceptions.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the sample

Category	Sample (n)	Sample (%)	Category	Sample (n)	Sample (%)
n=203			n=203		
Position			Residence		
PhD	74	37 %	CH	165	81 %
PostDoc	28	14 %	IT	33	16 %
Professors/Assistant Profs	46	23 %	Other	5	2 %
Assistants/Researchers	18	8 %	Origin		
Administration	37	18 %	CH	71	35 %
Faculty			IT	79	39 %
Economics	58	29 %	DE	15	7 %
Communications	58	29 %	Other	38	19 %
Informatics	37	18 %	Partner		
Architecture	27	13 %	Yes	121	60 %
Administration	23	11 %	No	82	40 %
Length of Work at USI			Kids		
0-2 years	41	20 %	Yes	70	34 %
2-4 years	68	34 %	No	133	66 %
4-8 years	49	24 %	Education completed		
8+ years	45	22 %	Bachelor	8	4 %
Gender			Master	109	54 %
male	115	57 %	PhD	82	40 %
female	88	43 %	Other	4	2 %
Age			Number of Business Trips		
18-30	73	36 %	1-3 yearly	87	43 %
31-40	74	36 %	4-6 yearly	54	27 %
41-50	33	16 %	7-11 yearly	35	17 %
51-60	11	5 %	1 monthly	12	6 %
61+	12	6 %	2-3 monthly	13	6 %
			4 monthly	2	1 %

Academics generally are known not to be particularly frequent business travelers and the collected data proves this fact. Survey participants are widely distributed according to the volume of work-related journeys conducted during the last year. 43% of the respondents undertook not more than 3 yearly business trips; at the same time, the remaining two thirds of the sample travel more extensively, being engaged into at least one business trip every two months. Some of them report travelling for business purposes on a monthly or even weekly

basis. Various groups of academics with different travel frequency might possess diverse behavioral patterns and attitude to work-related journeys and are to be examined in this paper.

RESULTS

Literature in the field outlines multiple factors (demographic, personality, organizational, job related, etc.) that define the inclination to get engaged into business travel. With this respect, introductory correlation and t-test analysis shed some light on the travel profiles of academics possessing different socio-demographic characteristics. The variables, which are proven most influential, are age and gender, availability of partner and kids. Frequency of business trips is analyzed also in regard to the influence on work and leisure travel behavior. The results are illustrated in *Table 2*.

Table 2. Correlations: gender, age, partner, kids, frequency of business travel

	Gender	Age	Partner	Kids	Frequency BT
BTrips	-.105	.236**	-.166*	-.211**	.857**
BT_CH	.053	.172*	-.145*	-.267**	.227**
BT_IT	-.166*	.104	-.065	-.080	.165*
BT_international	-.158*	-.036	-.102	.104	.081
BT_weekend	-.078	-.195**	.041	.204**	-.080
BT_conference	-.145*	-.171*	.080	.175*	-.044
BT_coursegive	-.161*	.436**	-.199**	-.325**	.317**
BT_courseattend	.188**	-.405**	.156*	.194**	-.055
BT_plane	-.141*	-.133	-.078	.123	.035
BT_train	.112	.112	-.099	-.121	.158*
BT_car	-.051	.127	-.069	-.165*	-.017
AttitudeBT	.152*	-.240**	.013	.149*	-.039
Work_morethanhome	.006	.026	-.178*	-.145*	.058
Work_officeduties	-.206**	.101	-.063	-.111	.191**
Work_unusualplaces	-.033	.058	-.302**	-.159*	.154*
Work_hotel	-.086	.037	-.072	-.015	.011
Work_stressnotime	.022	-.245**	.041	.157*	-.168*
Work_stressnocommunication	-.001	-.047	-.131	-.126	.044
Work_mixwithleisure	.127	-.210**	.094	.116	-.155*
Leisure_organized	.092	-.210**	-.026	.159*	-.168*

Leisure_individual	.033	-.230**	.047	.163*	-.116
Leisure_freetime	.023	-.158*	.139*	.229**	-.084
Leisure_hotellocation	-.038	-.063	.017	.057	.030
Leisure_prolongstay	-.141*	-.269**	.128	.288**	-.117
Lesisure_company	-.027	.119	-.309**	-.133	.016
Leisure_return	-.128	-.076	.004	.106	-.019
Leisure_researchoffer	-.033	-.244**	-.036	.115	-.174*
Leisure_talkfamily	.002	.087	-.409**	-.253**	.096
Lesire_meetfriends	-.031	-.027	-.273**	-.118	.026
Lifesat_job	-.074	.178*	-.049	-.120	.150*
Lifesat_health	.068	-.032	.020	.013	-.054
Lifesat_family	-.001	.138	-.416**	-.288**	.015
Lifesat_leisure	.097	-.096	.005	-.001	-.069
Lifesat_sociallife	.110	-.058	-.058	.000	-.072

Correlation analysis depicts that individuals living with a partner travel more often than single academics; however, this might be connected to the fact that they are usually older and occupy higher positions in academia. This segment of travelers during business trips tends to work more than at home making use of unusual places for business purposes, what could be happening in order to avoid increased workload when being back home for the sake of devoting more time to their partners. At the same time, travelers having partners meet friends and participate in group leisure activities more frequently than their single colleagues, which might be explained by the necessity to make use of the time on their own in the best possible way and get involved into activities which are not very typical for them at home. Similar results are observed for travelers having kids, who tend to work more while being away, are much less inclined to prolong their business trips over weekends and get more stressed than their no-kids colleagues due to the absence of time. In general, this group of travelers demonstrate more negative attitude to business travel than their no-kids counterparts, rarely participating in individual and organized leisure activities.

Age is another variable influencing business travel behavioral patterns of the academics. Older academics tend to possess more negative attitude to business travel, enjoying it less than their younger colleagues and sometimes even avoiding work-related journeys. However,

stress during business trips due to the absence of free time is shown to decrease with age, along with the desire to participate in individual and organized leisure activities, prolong stays at business destinations and mix work with leisure.

Not many dissimilarities have been noticed between two genders, apart from the fact that t test reveals women possessing better attitude to BT (at 0.5 sig level) to compare with men who travel more internationally, giving courses and attending conferences. Males report lower satisfaction with their WLB to compare with their female colleagues.

Considerable differences are found between frequent and non-frequent business travelers when comparing the samples. The travelers undertaking less than 6 business journey a year, are referred to the category of non-frequent road warriors, as their regular life does not particularly suffer from business travel. The rest undergo the category of frequent travelers. Apart from the afore-mentioned positive correlations with age and education, and negative with having a partner or kids, frequent travelers tend to work more when being on the way than at home, stay awake long hours, fulfilling in addition to trip-related duties also home office responsibilities. The independent sample t-test reveals that non-frequent travelers reporting significantly more trips in Switzerland and Italy are getting stressed due to the absence of free time more frequently, but at the same time, they also mix work with leisure and participate in organized leisure activities more often than frequent travelers. Overall, frequent business travelers are satisfied with their jobs more than those leaving their office rarely, what confirms positive influence of business travel on job satisfaction. However, at the same time, the issue of work-life balance – another variable of interest - is not reported to be significantly correlated with travel frequency.

After analyzing socio-demographic characteristics of the sample under consideration, further analysis focuses on one of the main variables of interest, namely attitude to business travel (Table 2), which being significantly negatively correlated with a number of socio-

demographic variables, such as age, education and length of work, at the same time is shown to be related to other work and leisure constructs. Looking at a broader picture, we might observe interdependencies between positive attitude to business trips and mix of work with leisure at unknown destinations, including both organized and individual leisure activities engagement. Persons with positive attitude to BT tend to not only behave as tourists during their journeys, but also prolong their stays at work locations for leisure purposes and return to the destinations later on their own for purely recreational purposes; however, the cause and the consequence are not defined by this analysis. Correlations are shown by significant Pearson coefficients, which, meanwhile, illustrate negative relation of the attitude to work-related travel and suffering from stress due to absence of free time or insufficient opportunity for communication with families.

Last, having a look at the issue of work-life balance, correlation analysis reveals the following picture: WLB evaluation is positively correlated with multiple leisure related variables, such as mixing work and leisure, individual recreational activities, availability of free time, good location of the hotel, prolonging stay and returning to the destination for leisure purposes later in time. This proves the potential of interest in leisure participation for improving WLB situation of travelling employees. Meanwhile, expectedly, the variable of interest is negatively correlated with work-related characteristics: working long hours, more than at home location, working in hotel, getting stressed due to the absence of time.

Table 3. Correlations: BT volume, BT attitude, WLB evaluation

	BT volume	BT attitude	Job_wlb		BT volume	BT attitude	Job_wlb
Work_long	.154*	-.071	-.233**	Job_security	.207**	-.063	.193**
Work_morethanhome	.139*	-.052	-.171*	Job_conditions	.093	.100	.334**
Work_officeduties	.205**	-.073	-.092	Job_finreward	.195**	.095	.202**
Work_unusualplaces	.169*	.097	-.033	Job_fulfillment	.151*	.090	.130
Work_hotel	.061	-.010	-.160*	Job_learning	.033	.071	.087
Work_stressnotime	-.101	-.206**	-.226**	Jobe_careerprospects	.060	.076	.162*

Work_stressnocommunication	.125	-.289**	-.066	Job_control	.168*	-.039	.259**
Work_mixwithleisure	-.184**	.364**	.292**	Job_autonomy	.182**	.079	.242**
Leisure_organized	-.136	.334**	.087	Job1_Scheduleflex	.100	.077	.303**
Leisure_individual	-.162*	.331**	.281**	Job1_Workload	.020	-.009	-.234**
Leisure_freetime	-.122	.308**	.318**	Job1_Workinghours	.069	-.019	-.179*
Leisure_hotellocation	.033	.089	.192**	Job1_stress	-.087	-.099	-.269**
Leisure_prolongstay	-.131	.316**	.177*	Job1_BT	.397**	.161*	-.023
Lesiure_company	.057	.002	.239**	Lifesat_job	.178*	.076	.133
Leisure_return	.007	.145*	.166*	Lifesat_health	-.056	-.002	.358**
Leisure_researchoffer	-.168*	.237**	.212**	Lifesat_family	.013	.117	.409**
Leisure_talkfamily	.137	-.010	.102	Lifesat_leisure	-.106	.174*	.538**
Lesire_meetfriends	.054	.247**	.050	Lifesat_sociallife	-.072	.227**	.507**
Leisure_dosports	.051	.054	.100	Gender	-.105	.152*	.185**
				Age	.236**	-.240**	-.098
				Partner	-.166*	.013	-.024
				Kids	-.211**	.149*	-.104

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Next step of the data analysis foresees conducting regression analysis with the goal, first, to explore the factors influencing attitude to business travel and, second, to deeper investigate connections between business travel and work-life balance by means of examining independent variables, which have an impact on it. The results are presented below.

In the first case, the dependent variable - attitude to business travel - being measured on a 5-point Likert scale is treated as an ordinal one. Approximately quarter of respondents, demonstrate every positive attitude to business travel looking forward to every work-related trip and enjoying these moments a lot; in other words, they are ready to travel as much as possible. Half of the survey participants do not mind travelling for work acknowledging its value and often having a good time while on business journeys. At the same time, one fourth have either neutral or negative attitude to business travel, often trying to avoid work-related trips and having a preference towards staying in their regular work environment.

Logistic ordered regression is run to explain the relationship between the explanatory variables and the outcome. Model fit indicates that final model provides a significant

improvement over the baseline intercept-only model. The goodness of fit test also works well being not significant, which suggests the model fits the data well. McFadden pseudo R-Square is .226 (Nagelkerke .448) in our case of ordered probit regression. Test of parallel lines proves the assumption of proportional odds giving a non-significant value.

Ordered probit estimation reveals the following results. Out of the group of work-related business trip characteristics four happen to be significant, namely performing office duties during business journeys, being stressed during travel due to absence of time and no possibility to communicate with home and family and work in unusual places. Interestingly, the last coefficient is positive, meaning that the more business travelers manage to work in non-standard places and not just in the office, thus distributing their work over a time and possibly getting less stressed, the better their attitude to business travel. Meanwhile, stress from no communication and no time, as well as following daily office activities when being away from the office are all the variables referring to high work intensity, which expectedly contribute to lower attitude to business travel as such.

The group of leisure-related factors explaining the variable of interest is represented by such factors as prolonging work stays for recreational purposes, returning to the business destination for tourism, meeting friends at business locations, being accompanied by partners while on a trip, as well as participating in organized leisure activities provided by business partners or event organizers (all but the last one are significant at .05 level). Positive coefficients confirm that those business travelers who tend to prolong their journeys or return to the destinations previously visited for work in order to get acquainted with tourism offer, possess better attitude to business travel. Travelers meeting their friends or participating in organized leisure activities also tend to be more satisfied with work-related trips. This proves our assumption about leisure engagement at the business destinations improving overall business travel experience. However, unexpectedly, the coefficient of the variable related to

travel in a company of family/partners/friends demonstrates that this characteristic negatively influences the dependent variable. Travel by plane contributes to the better attitude towards business trips overall, while travel for research meetings moves the attitude in the opposite direction. Moreover, employees who are satisfied with their career prospects tend to enjoy business travel more, as well as individuals with better health state.

Analysis of socio-demographic characteristics confirms that women like business travel more than men, suffering less from being away from home and office. This might be connected with the fact that females on average travel less than their male colleagues. In addition, residents in Italy tend to appreciate work-related journeys more than those living in Switzerland. The frequent necessity to travel from home to their workplace makes this category of respondents used to moving a lot, so they could be better adjusted to such a lifestyle. Concerning age groups, the only category demonstrating significant results are travelers between 50 and 60 years old, who strangely, possess worse attitude and lower inclination to participate in work-related journeys than older ones. Travelers over 60 might enjoy business trips being possibly more interested in leisure due to having more time and flexibility than their younger colleagues.

Table 4. Ordered probit regression: Attitude to BT as a dependent variable

		Parameter Estimates					95% Confidence Interval	
		Estimate	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[AttitudeBT = 1]	-2.961	.853	12.048	1	.001	-4.632	-1.289
	[AttitudeBT = 2]	-2.332	.827	7.944	1	.005	-3.953	-.710
	[AttitudeBT = 3]	-.945	.813	1.350	1	.245	-2.539	.649
	[AttitudeBT = 4]	1.102	.811	1.848	1	.174	-.487	2.691
Location	Work_officeduties	-.144	.072	4.033	1	.045	-.285	-.003
	Work_unusualplaces	.175	.063	7.716	1	.005	.051	.298
	Work_stressnotime	-.190	.061	9.623	1	.002	-.310	-.070
	Work_stressnocommunication	-.233	.064	13.299	1	.000	-.358	-.108

Leisure_organized	.095	.059	2.586	1	.108	-.021	.210
Leisure_prolongstay	.154	.064	5.701	1	.017	.028	.280
Leisure_company	-.213	.082	6.678	1	.010	-.375	-.051
Leisure_return	.175	.075	5.446	1	.020	.028	.322
Leisure_meetfriends	.182	.059	9.628	1	.002	.067	.298
BT_research	-.106	.052	4.194	1	.041	-.207	-.005
BT_plane	.089	.055	2.665	1	.103	-.018	.197
Job_careerprospects	.111	.060	3.445	1	.063	-.006	.228
Lifesat_health	-.125	.073	2.904	1	.088	-.268	.019
[Gender=1]	-.609	.187	10.645	1	.001	-.975	-.243
[Gender=2]	0 ^a			0			
[Residence=1]	.853	.622	1.876	1	.171	-.367	2.073
[Residence=2]	1.506	.659	5.231	1	.022	.215	2.797
[Residence=3]	0 ^a			0			
[AgeNew=1.00]	-.452	.439	1.062	1	.303	-1.311	.408
[AgeNew=2.00]	-1.229	.526	5.466	1	.019	-2.260	-.199
[AgeNew=3.00]	0 ^a			0			

Link function: Probit.

- a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Second regression model focuses on the WLB issue mapping the factors of its influence. Logistic ordered regression (McFadden Pseudo R-Square .179, good model fit) demonstrates the following results: long work hours during business trips and stress arising from absence of time negatively impact WLB of the university employees, while work in unusual places, on the contrary, improves it, that is an evidence to the positive effects of fading boundaries between life domains demonstrated in the literature. These findings are in line with independent variables of the first regression explaining attitude to business travel. Individual leisure activities undertaken alone, with accompanying partner or family, as well as with friends at business destination, and returning to the business location for exclusively touristic purposes, produce a positive impact on the dependent variable. Moreover, travelers who are satisfied with their social and leisure life tend to evaluate their WLB higher. In regard to socio-demographic profile, strong significance was demonstrated by the characteristics of gender and kids availability: men are significantly less satisfied with the WLB their job gives them

an opportunity, just as employees with kids expectedly report lower WLB than their no-kids colleagues. Italians evaluate their WLB higher than university employees of other nationalities; however, academics with substantial amount of work-related travel to Italy are less satisfied with their equilibrium between job and private life. Thus, we may have an idea which work- and leisure-related factors being important for WLB are moving the latter in the positive or negative direction.

Table 5. Ordered probit regression: WLB evaluation as dependednt characteristic
Parameter Estimates

		Estimate	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
							Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[Job1_wlb = 1]	-1.130	.600	3.544	1	.060	-2.307	.047
	[Job1_wlb = 2]	-.074	.576	.017	1	.898	-1.202	1.054
	[Job1_wlb = 3]	.838	.574	2.130	1	.144	-.287	1.964
	[Job1_wlb = 4]	1.525	.578	6.971	1	.008	.393	2.658
	[Job1_wlb = 5]	2.490	.587	18.007	1	.000	1.340	3.641
	[Job1_wlb = 6]	3.703	.611	36.681	1	.000	2.504	4.901
Location	Work_long	-.188	.065	8.436	1	.004	-.315	-.061
	Work_stressnotime	-.110	.053	4.312	1	.038	-.214	-.006
	Work_unusualplaces	.083	.055	2.309	1	.129	-.024	.190
	Leisure_individual	.148	.056	6.990	1	.008	.038	.258
	Lesiure_company	.229	.073	9.895	1	.002	.086	.372
	Leisure_return	.164	.066	6.108	1	.013	.034	.294
	Lesire_meetfriends	-.176	.052	11.524	1	.001	-.277	-.074
	Lifesat_leisure	.216	.076	8.122	1	.004	.068	.365
	Lifesat_sociallife	.186	.074	6.336	1	.012	.041	.331
	BT_IT	-.112	.052	4.764	1	.029	-.213	-.011
	[Gender=1]	-.469	.157	8.952	1	.003	-.776	-.162
	[Gender=2]	0 ^a			0			
	[Kids=1]	.493	.176	7.826	1	.005	.148	.839
	[Kids=2]	0 ^a			0			
	[OriginNew=1.00]	.159	.226	.492	1	.483	-.284	.601
	[OriginNew=2.00]	.387	.222	3.034	1	.082	-.048	.822
[OriginNew=3.00]	.125	.335	.140	1	.708	-.530	.781	
[OriginNew=4.00]	0 ^a			0				

Link function: Probit.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

DISCUSSION

Today, when business travel has become a normal activity, road warriors want to have as homely atmosphere and comfort when being away, and at the same time, to be compensated for staying away often they would like to experience the new place during their trips (Amadeus, 2012). Manifold motives are influencing the desire to travel, among which satisfaction of personal interests and curiosities and relaxing, which helps them keep work-life balance by allowing activities change (Lassen et al., 2006). These literature evidences are fully confirmed by the present study.

According to the research findings, despite the fact that during work-related trips university employees tend to work long hours and in unusual places, frequently performing their regular office duties, at the same time, often when being away from home they mix work with leisure. Individual leisure activities, as well as organized ones, provided by business partners, are of interest to the segment under investigation. Therefore, providing business travelers with extra information on cultural opportunities at destinations could, in addition, directly contribute to local tourism development, since correctly managed leisure interest of business travelers could potentially initiate longer stays, if they take some time off work and extend trips over weekends, thus becoming business tourists. Such results reflect peculiarities of present lifestyles of business travelers, their personal interests and preferences.

Studying the ways people travel for business and the activities they undertake meanwhile provides implications for the individual relationship to home and family. Travel arrangements along with travel experience also largely depends on how the traveler feels about leaving his spouse and kids: for example, his attention might not be fully dedicated to working process due to necessity of communicate with home or rush back to the airport to catch the last return flight. After the trip, business traveler has to catch up with both office duties and family life,

meanwhile recovering from stress and tiredness of the trip itself. Therefore, different patterns of business travel behavior are proven to exist between individuals living with a partner and having kids and those who live alone.

Within continuous search of improvement of WLB, in order to have more time with partners and friends, businessmen on the way are sometimes accompanied by their family, thus bringing additional tourists to the destinations. Interestingly, present research demonstrates that if business travelers are accompanied by partners or friends, their attitude to business travel as such is lower than of those travelling alone. Possibly, this type of travel being often both short and intense, provides less flexibility and lower chances for satisfying personal interests of the travelers than, for instance, attending conferences. At the same time, WLB of accompanied academics is evaluated higher. Those who work in unusual places blurring the boundaries between life and work also report better WLB that confirms strong interconnections between work and leisure and positive influence of the travelers' flexibility on the final work outcome.

Another possibility of getting involved into leisure for business travelers is returning to the destination of interest later, exclusively for tourism. In case of positive experiences, they might be interested in coming back again as leisure tourists, alone or with friends and partners. Travelers returning to business locations possess better attitude to business travel, which gives them an opportunity to discover new places. Therefore, in cases when the traveler has some freedom of choice, for example, when choosing which conference to attend, business destination can be selected under the influence of its tourism attractiveness or personal interest. Thus, not only leisure tourism but also business travel might be linked to pleasure outside work.

Thus, diverse ways of incorporating leisure elements into business journeys provide a potential for improving WLB of the travelers. In this respect, leisure elements and their

utilization by the businesspersons on the road is a prospective field of the research that could bring added value to the business travel industry and undoubtedly widen the existing body of the literature on the matter.

IMPLEMENTATIONS

Growing volume of business travel trigger manifold novel travel management and HR-related issues. In the past, dealing with them meant offering employees some family-friendly policies, however, with increasing work pressure, employees need to adopt a broader perspective on the problem (Sturges & Guest, 2004). Therefore, presently organizations are directing more efforts to the ways of helping their employees balance work and life.

Current research suggests looking at business travel from a different perspective, examining the possibility of neutralizing its negative consequences by means of providing an opportunity to get involved into leisure and recreation of the destinations visited for business. This requires supportive culture at work, which would demonstrate care of the company about its employees, foreseeing flexible travel policies for the road warriors. Given that people vary in their inclinations towards integration or segmentation of their life domains, organizations should not blindly blur work and private life borders. Segmentation measures might include a myriad of small steps, such as flexible schedule, avoiding business trips on weekends for those who do not want them or being accompanied by families for the others, incentivizing performance with leisure elements during business trips and many others. Not just the differences between leisure and business will blur in the future, but this will produce an influence on the business travel itself changing its pattern and requiring more flexibility from the side of travel managers. Through mobile technologies leisure involvement of businessmen will be facilitated, as access to various information will become much easier

and faster and everyone will be provided with a customized approach to the way of experiencing the destination.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The behavior of individual business travelers when they are away from their usual workplace has not been researched much: with this regard a thorough analysis of all activities –both work- and leisure-related - conducted by them in the ‘third places’ would be of particular interest. Given the importance of the topic nowadays and its under-explored character further analysis of academic business travel is needed to be conducted, amplifying and diversifying the sample under investigation and the leisure issues under exploration. The survey is planned to be improved, including further points of interest regarding business travel and its influence on WLB, as well as implications for engagement into leisure activities during work-related journeys. In this regards, using the expertise of professionals from the field of HR and OB might be beneficial. Further ambition is to launch similar questionnaire for other segments, in particular, corporate business travelers, who might demonstrate diverse patterns of travelbehaviour. Moreover, it is important to accommodate the necessities of various groups of employees, in particular paying attention to frequent business travelers.

CONCLUSIONS

Present research seeking to explore overall attitude to business travel, contributes to revealing new ways of increasing attractiveness of business travel making it more comfortable for academics and bringing less stress and fatigue. As a result, it is found that a wide range of both leisure and work-related factors influence the overall attitude to business travel of university employees, in addition to some demographic characteristics.

This knowledge might be useful for amplifying the range of policies in the organizations aiming to improve employees' well-being. Enhancing positive consequences of work-related trips not simply improves quality of travel, affecting employees' WLB, but also brings novel considerations for travel management. Currently, with a great abundance of business trips, novel character of worklocations and changing individual travel patterns, business travelers demonstrate higher interest to engage into leisure activities at new destinations, thus becoming business tourists. New flexible and customized travel policies allowing getting engaged into recreational life of the destinations could be one of the solutions to the problem of deteriorating WLB while being away from home.

In the conditions of stressing high value of travel time for individual travelers, as well as the necessity to cut travel costs when possible, meanwhile taking care of the personnel well-being and the state of the environment, the efforts of travel managers on the way to eliminate negative effects of business travel developments are addressed by the current research, in addition to exploration of behavioral patterns of business travelers.

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AHTMMC

Sharing Economy and Tourism

Choice Set Considerations for Tourism Research

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ABSTRACT

This paper sheds light on the role of sharing economy within tourism, provides an empirical example and proposes a new direction in the assembly of tourist's choice sets for choice experiments. Although there are a variety of other goods consumed in tourism, we consider transportation, accommodation and destination as essential elements, which, summed up, result in a trip. To test the relevance of sharing economy products and services in the field of accommodation, we included this topic in our experiment on travel behavior. The experiment on travel behavior, a combination of choice tasks and focus groups, forms part of an overall research project with focus on the interdependencies of different travel decision elements. The results of this paper contribute to the literature of tourism research, it furthermore discusses different studies about sharing economy and proposes a way to include sharing economy into research.

KEYWORDS Tourism research, choice set, sharing economy, airbnb

INTRODUCTION

A trip is the composition of different elements, such as destination, transportation and accommodation. Each of these elements stands for a bundle of services, which deliver the choice set upon which a potential tourist chooses and combines his or her trip. It is straightforward, that a decision can only be made on elements, which are included in a given choice set. While the choice set for destinations can be considered as very large, the choice set for transportation and accommodation is more easily manageable. When the choice set appears to be too large, researchers often make use of computational power and statistical methods, such as algorithms, to generate a limited choice set (Bekhor, Ben-Akiva and Ramming, 2006). This study, as part of a larger research project, focuses on the assembling of choice sets and raises attention to eventual changes of the classical tourism consumption basket. More precisely, it discusses where sharing economy products and services could be included in the tourism choice set. In this paper, we focus on sharing economy in accommodation and do not consider transportation or any other sharing economy field. A good source of information about the choice set for accommodation is the UNWTO Compendium, which specifies a variety of different accommodation types taken into account in tourism research. Although the Compendium refers to “all type of establishments providing accommodation services to visitors on a commercial (market) basis; that is, as a paid service” (UNWTO, 2012) and includes “the provision of furnished accommodation in guestrooms and suites or complete self-contained units” (UNWTO, 2012), it does not account for, or explicitly specify, privately rented rooms, apartments and other accommodation provided by sharing economy services, most prominently airbnb.

Decision-making is a widely researched topic in the field of behavioral economics and there is consensus about the presumption, that individuals seek to maximize their utilities, when making a choice (Varian, 2007). For the development of a choice experiment, where utilities

of different choices are tested, the researcher needs to consider a reasonable choice set to derive to a realistic theory. This has been done in destination decision theories thus far, commencing with destinations and destinations attributes as a focal choices for the final destination outcome (Lancaster, 1966, Goodrich, 1978, Ben-Akiva and Lerman, 1985, Woodside and Lysonski, 1989, Echtner and Ritchie, 1993, and Sirgy and Su, 2000). Over time, researchers have then subsequently included and tested different variables, which could play a role in destination choices. Think about the relationship between prices and distances, destination image or weather for instance (Crompton and Um, 1990, Moorley, 1994, Huybers, 2003, Beerli, 2004, Crouch and Louviere, 2004, Brau, Scorcu and Vici, 2006 and Nicolau and Masiero, 2013). The challenge for researchers is not only to develop a theory about a causal relationship on what could influence a decision, but also to include the right explanatory variables. It is a fact, that making a holiday is the consequence of many choices given many individual decision making situations about transportation, accommodation and destination. These choices are either sequential, or simultaneous, as assumed in many destination decision models. The outcome of the decision situation depends on the information available through different sources to the decision maker in that moment (Poon, 1993, cited in Fotis, Buhalis and Rossides, 2012, Buhalis, 1998). With the advances of information communication technology (ICT) the available information to the decision maker is increasing constantly. Therefore, the inclusion of explanatory variables into the choice model should be revised and in case updated periodically, to test, if theories and predictions can be improved. As underlined by various studies, social media and networks gain increasingly importance as a main travel information source (Constantinidis and Fountain, 2008, Valck, Van Bruggen and Wierenga, 2009 and Fotis, Buhalis, and Rossides, 2012). Consequently, social media and networks should be considered, when looking for new explanatory variables. As, lately, sharing economy products and services are appearing

frequently within social media and networks, we want to collect evidence in this study, testing whether sharing economy services should be included in the choice sets or not. This seems reasonable, following the current focus of interest in tourism developments and tourism research, where sharing economy receives noticeable attention as well. Within tourism, sharing is often related to private accommodation for rent, or car sharing. In this study we will limit the attention to accommodation. The company airbnb is often cited as a breakthrough in private accommodation service, and as being exemplary for the business model of sharing economy. The sharing economy is at home in peer economy marketplaces, where goods and services are traded, “shared”, with low or no transaction costs, for one or multiple times, enabled by Web 2.0 technology. The character of the sharing economy alludes strongly to a high social interaction with seemingly economic and social benefits for its consumer. The challenge of conducting research about sharing economy within tourism is primarily to overcome lack of data. The sharing economy products and services within tourism are a composition of ICT, peer to peer business model and carry a social component. All this forms a hybrid character and together with it’s (il)legality it complicates the collection of statistics. However, how and why sharing economy products and services are often found within tourism has been explained by several qualitative studies and only recently researchers come up with methods to overcome the statistical challenges and start to quantify sharing economy within tourism. Within this study, we not only present several theories towards sharing economy, but also provide preliminary evidence on the presence of the sharing economy in the mindset of participants who took part in the experiment we conducted about travel behavior. The primary contribution of our study is therefore to revise traditional tourism choice sets and suggest a method how to test for their relevance. In a laboratory experiment, we identify single elements, which come to the consumer’s mind,

when thinking about transportation, accommodation and destination in a hypothetical vacation context. We then crystallize sharing economy scenarios.

In our experiment, participants are recruited at the Università della Svizzera italiana (USI) and grouped into four categories, academic staff, Bachelor and Master students, doctoral students and professors. To each group of participants the same three different tasks are assigned, followed by a subsequent discussion as typical for a focus group. The tasks have a paper & pen character and are solved individually in order to rule out peer effects on choices made.

Firstly, the participant is asked to recall transportation, accommodation and destination elements, which come to the participant's mindset, when thinking about a holiday. To find evidence for including or excluding sharing economy within choice sets of further studies, we observe, if the participants choose airbnb and couchsurfing on their own. Secondly, the participant is asked to create different trip scenarios out of a choice set in which we included airbnb and couchsurfing as popular representatives for sharing economy products and services. Additionally they are asked to allocate a hypothetical budget to the trips they create. Airbnb is an online platform, where people can rent out their private apartment or a room to other people. Couchsurfing is a similar service, where you can offer to or stay on a couch of someone for free.

To find out the reasoning why or why not they have chosen airbnb or couchsurfing is part of a subsequent discussion. Apart from the accommodation choice options of airbnb and couchsurfing, no a priori reference to sharing economy was made in order to avoid biases. This is later relaxed during the focus group discussion to find out why, or why not airbnb or couchsurfing are chosen in the tourism context. Given the different ages, time and money budgets available to the different groups of participants, younger participants with looser time but tighter money budget should be more familiar with sharing economy products and

services and choose them more often, than older participants with tighter time and looser money budget.

This is precisely what we observe. Out of 71 created trip scenarios, 11 contained either airbnb, couchsurfing or both alternatives. Out of these 11 scenarios, three were made by participants belonging to administrative staff, four by Bachelor and Master students and four by doctoral students. As expected, none of the professors chose or recalled sharing economy products and services.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In discrete choice experiments, the advantage for the researcher lies in the control of variability in attributes and the ability to examine collinearity of seemingly independent attributes (Huybers, 2004). The design of such choice experiments bears challenges, such as assembling the choice set and labeling, that influence the results and affect validity (Huybers, 2003, Huybers, 2004, and Park and Jang, 2013). To be able to judge if sharing economy should be included in a discrete choice experiment within the tourism context, its relevancy needs to be clarified. The economic niche of sharing economy is an interesting topic for a variety of fields and evokes discussion among the fields of economics, communications, social science, psychology and transportation. Preceded most prominently by low cost carriers, that paved the way to very cost conscious tourists, sharing economy has become a niche in tourism and its according literature. In general, the availability of suitable data for research about sharing economy is very limited. In addition, the topic is a rather young one, as Linne (2013) described the sharing turn to be around 2008.

Literature often refers to Martin Weitzman and his book “The Sharing economy – Conquering Stagflation”, published in 1984 as baseline for understanding the idea of sharing economy. After Weitzman`s publication, there was a long gap until the discussion flamed up

again. The next cornerstones in sharing economy literature appear in Botsman and Rogers (2010), "*What's Mine Is Yours: The Rise of Collaborative Consumption*" and Gansky (2010) "*The Mesh: Why the Future of Business is Sharing*" building up a basis for discussion on peer to peer market places, online trust, economic explanations and social logics of sharing economy (John, 2013). Nevertheless, Linne (2013) was among the first to describe the sharing economy specifically within the tourism context. Publications on the subject of sharing economy largely focus on the description of its business model and its consumer type (Bootsman, 2010). Solely studies on transport, including bike and car sharing, frequently make use of statistics, where figures are more likely to be available (Menzi, 2014). A rough categorization of studies therefore can be made between quantitative and qualitative research, of which the latter dominates the sharing economy literature. Among the qualitative studies, the motivation why to engage and the opportunities how to engage are widely discussed. Belk (2013), Botsman and Rogers (2010, cited in Belk, 2013), state, that there is a new paradigm of ownership. Labrecque et al. (2013) describe sharing economy as a community driven business model as part of crowd based power.

Other studies with focus on the consumer behavior in this context take similar approaches and add the explicit characteristic of co creation of a "prosumer" in sharing economy (Ritzer and Jurgenson, 2010). In line with the previous, Belk (2013) discusses sharing economy and collaborative consumption as a conceptual review "based on an analysis of both scholarly research on sharing and collaborative consumption and media accounts of the latest developments in these contexts" (Belk, 2013, p.1). The concept of sharing economy as a subculture of consumption is discussed based on the emergence of new vocabulary connected to sharing economy recognized by John (2013b) in his paper "Sharing, Collaborative Consumption and Web 2.0". His methodology makes use of a qualitative analysis of 63 newspaper articles. Others discuss the sharing economy from a social perspective, as Slee

(2013) points out certain risks that accompany sharing economy and warns about the trade-off between experience and security within sharing economy. Rifkin (2014) argues, that “hundreds of millions of people shift large parts of their economic activity to the sharing economy, they will change the course of economic history”. In contrast to qualitative driven studies, data limitation recently has been overcome by more creative approaches by Zervas, Proserpio and Byers (2014), using the official listings of airbnb and reviews together with official tourism statistics in order to develop an estimate about the impact of airbnb on the hotel industry for Texas. Their empirical methodology includes an econometric approach using panel data and difference-in-difference estimation. The results indicate that “a 1% increase in Airbnb listings is associated with a statistically significant 0.04% ($p < 0.01$) decrease in quarterly hotel revenues” (Zervas et al, 2014, p.10). Accounting for an alternative effect of additional hotel room supply, the impact of airbnb listing is estimated to be one-sixth the impact of additional hotel rooms. These estimates appear marginal, and yet they accomplish to provide insight into the “airbnb effect” (Zervas, 2014) on the tourism industry. The publicity of the Cebit 2013 convention in Hannover, Germany, additionally pushed the term sharing economy eminently into the spotlight. In contrast to academic research, non-academic studies by the industry profit from their own data and are able to provide statistical results, but come along with the drawback of mistrust. Following airbnb, “Airbnb visitors stay on average 6.4 nights (compared to 3.9 for hotel guests) and spend \$880 at NYC businesses (compared to \$690 for average New York visitors).” (airbnb.com, 2014). It is no surprise, that airbnb with its social character, uses the social media network Facebook as main word of mouth and word of mouse (WOM) channel. For tourism, Facebook and other social networks have become increasingly influential for travel decision-making. Buhalis (1998) and Poon (1993) conclude, that individuals’ decisions are always influenced by the information they have obtained via different sources of information. With each innovation in

ICT the accessibility and hence pool of information augments dramatically (Buhalis, 2012), which theoretically expands the tourist choice sets.

METHODOLOGY

For our experiment at USI, over 120 potential participants were contacted. The population of the sample was directly related to USI, and divided into different categories: Bachelor/Master students, administrative staff, doctoral students and professors. The groups were selected upon the criteria of their available holiday per year in terms of *time* and their salaries in terms of *revenue*. Among each of the subsamples, the participants were selected randomly. The 40 contacted professors were selected from the USI homepage, where all professors are listed, and received a personal invitation via email. The administrative staff, Bachelor and Master students and doctoral students were invited either via personal email invitation or directly on campus with printed invitations handed to them. The invitation reached the participants 10 to 14 days prior the scheduled group. Those who signalled willingness to volunteer were listed on a tentative list. The language of the experiment, including focus groups, is English as lingua franca in order to avoid miscommunication and enhance discussion flow.

Participants were sent confirmation emails and reminders 24 hours prior the focus group. The experiments took place on four different evenings between March 10th and 14th in rooms of the Università della Svizzera italiana. The experiment sessions lasted between 45 and 60 minutes and were recorded with an digital voice recorder. Upon the arrival of the participants, each participant was given a confirmation acknowledging that he or she will be recorded and any personal information treated confidentially. Thereafter, the participants received instructions about the first part of the experiment, before moving on to the second part of the experiment, the focus group discussion. In the first task of the first part, all participants were asked to recall and write down accommodation, transportation and destination alternatives

that come to their mind when they think about going on vacation. Secondly, each participant was asked to create at minimum three travel scenarios, each including one accommodation, one transportation and one destination. To construct these scenarios, participants received a list with three columns of elements describing transportation, accommodation and destination. Thereby each column contains the same elements, but they are randomly ordered within each column and the participant is asked to circle and connect the chosen alternatives for each trip, starting from the first left column and ending with the third, right column (Figure 1). We included the variables airbnb and couchsurfing as representative sharing economy alternatives in our experiment. After this task, participants were asked to divide and allocate a hypothetical budget on the three created scenarios. For this task each participant received 30 symbolic coins as a budget. Although the groups themselves are heterogeneous, the age, revenues and time constraints within the groups are assumed to be rather homogenous. The first group is the administrative staff, with tight revenue and time constraints, the second group are doctoral students (PhD), with a tight time but a loose revenue constraint. The third group are students, with a tight revenue, but a loose time constraint and the fourth and last group are professors, with a loose time and revenue constraint (Table 1).

Figure 1 Individual choice task within the experiment

*Please connect **one choice of each column with each other** for a potential trip. Please create a **minimum 3** (or more) potential trips.*

Example:

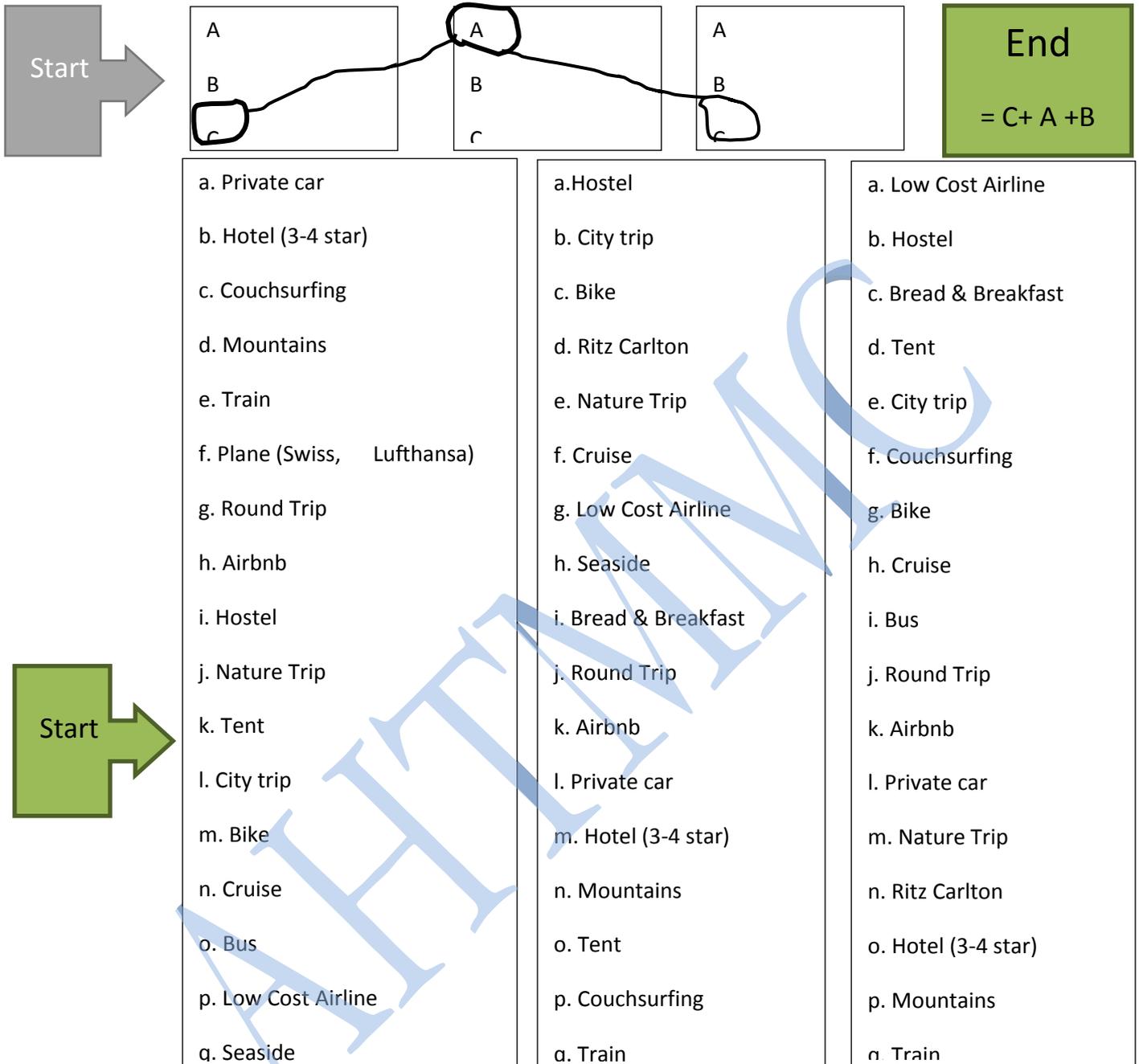


Table 1

Constraints	Revenue tight	Revenue loose
Time tight	Administrative staff	PhD students
Time loose	Students (Bachelor/Master)	Professors

Participant groups

Since the groups don't know about each other's available travel budget, there is no reason, why different groups should receive different amounts of hypothetical budget. What we receive is the participants' hypothetical willingness to pay for different scenarios for each group. Since money in terms of revenue was a criterion for grouping, we can now observe the reactions of different groups who are used to different salaries on given scenarios. Take the students for example, they have a tight revenue constraint. Would their spending on a certain scenario be similar to a spending of a professor on the same or comparable scenario? We expect that spending within this experiment reflect the spending of a real situation, hence different allocations of the budget among the different groups.

In the second part of the experiment, the created travel scenarios are used as a basis of discussion for the focus group. A focus group is a discussion between a small group of six to twelve people in a relaxed atmosphere about a certain topic (Kitzinger, 1995). The outcome of the discussion aims on revealing those travel elements, which participants consider to be important for taking a holiday, i.e. if sharing economy related products and services were considered at all. As suggested by Kitzinger (1995) a focus group is a particularly useful method for exploring people's knowledge and experience about a certain topic. This gives the researcher a good hint on the alternatives, which should be included in a choice set of a

discrete choice experiment continuous to this study. Other expectations are, that results are expected to be similar within each group, but not among all four groups. Since each group is different with respect to age, hence life cycles, specific time and budget constraints, we state the following hypotheses:

H1: Administrative staff has a tight revenue and time constraint, therefore, shorter and more economic travels are expected.

H2: Students have a tight revenue and a loose time constraint, hence more frequent, flexible and economic travels are expected. Furthermore, given the commonly known high share of young people active in social media and networks, hence higher exposure to sharing economy products and services, knowledge and usage of sharing economy products is expected to be the highest among this group.

H3: Doctoral students have a tight time, but a looser revenue constraint. The age group is expected to be the most flexible travel group concerning low cost carriers (LCC) and city trips because of two reasons: 1) economically more independent and 2) already experienced in LCC's throughout the last 10 years (eurocentric point of view).

H4: Professors are expected to make the longest holidays and spent the most, which we expect to be reflected in the selected alternatives. Since this is the expected oldest age group, travels with family are more likely and participation in technology and social affine sharing economy is expected to be low.

RESULTS

Although the focus groups were scheduled in after work hours, the goal of minimum six participants per group was not always reached, sometimes due to conflicting time schedules. In total 22 participants took part in four separate focus groups. Among them, there were four academic staff members, seven professors, five doctoral students and six Bachelor and Master students (Table 2).

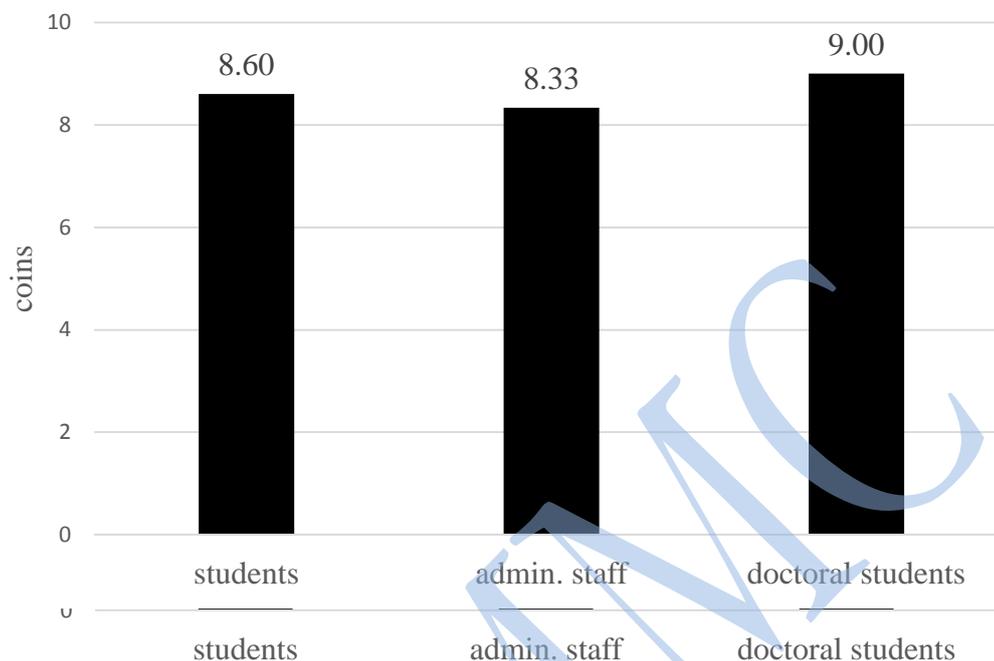
Table 2 Number of Participants and average age

Constraints	Revenuetight	Revenueloose
Time tight	Administrative staff (4) average age: 36 years	PhD students (5) average age: 26 years
Time loose	Bachelor/Master Students (6) average age: 22 years	Professors (7) average age: 44 years

Upon arrival, each participant agreed to be recorded and analyzed anonymously. After the first focus group with the administrative staff, the option of selecting seaside as a destination was added to the elements. From all participants, only three actually recalled airbnb or couchsurfing in the first task. These three belonged to the categories administrative staff, doctoral students and Bachelor or Master student. No professor recalled or later created a scenario with one of the two sharing economy options. Those who recalled airbnb and couchsurfing, actually also created up to three scenarios containing either one or the other

later on. Once the participants could choose airbnb or couchsurfing from the given choice set in the second task, five further participants, who did not recall airbnb or couchsurfing before, created holiday scenarios containing either one or the other. In total eleven sharing economy scenarios were generated. Three of them by the administrative staff, another three by the doctoral students and five by the remaining student group. The age range of the participants choosing airbnb or couchsurfing goes from 18 to 31 years, while one participant did not indicate his age. In total 15 men and seven women participated in the focus groups, out of them, five men and three women choose a sharing economy scenario. In nine out of eleven of these scenarios, the choice of airbnb or couchsurfing is connected with a city trip or a low cost airline. In four cases, the created scenario contains both, city trip and low cost airline in connection with airbnb or couchsurfing. Furthermore, the participants allocated hypothetically a budget of thirty coins to their scenarios. The range of coins allocated to the sharing economy scenarios goes from 3 to 15 coins, with an average of 8.5 coins per scenario. This is about 1.2 coins below the average spending on one of the other, non-sharing economy, scenarios (Table 3). Three participants did not spend all their budget and saved coins. Since the game did not involve a second round, this is equal to lost budget. Among them one doctoral student with a saving of four coins, one professor with a saving of nine coins and one professor with a saving of ten coins.

Table 3 Average spending per sharing economy scenario



In the second part of the experiment, the discussion round revealed insight about the knowledge about sharing economy in tourism, including different motivations why to choose airbnb or couchsurfing, or actually why not to choose it. In general, talking about the topic helped to clarify what airbnb and couchsurfing are, as some participants had no idea about it. Among the administrative staff group, all but one participant were familiar with airbnb and couchsurfing. One of them even recommended it to a friend as an opportunity to rent out his flat. Another participant was surprised by the offer and definitely considered it as an economic alternative to hotels “I chose airbnb, which could be a low cost thing”. Apart from economic benefits, the participants also discussed the gains in terms of experience through staying with a privately rented place. However, one of the participants of this group clearly would prefer to stay in a bed and breakfast or hotel, as in this case, the experience was preferred to be with the travel partner and not with potential hosts.

In the focus group with professors, the knowledge about airbnb and couchsurfing was very low. While two participants knew about these elements, only one so far has been using it. The main reason for not using it appeared to be the given preference for comfort for some members of the group, while other members of the group who for instance created scenarios containing a tent and basically didn't know about the sharing economy options. Another limitation to use airbnb was travelling with the family. As most professors preferred longer family trips they perceived airbnb or couchsurfing unsuitable for them. In the group of doctoral students, a clear preference existed for couchsurfing as an often-used way to save money, but it was stressed that the experience was at least as important as economic aspects. Overall, this focus group spent on average the most on sharing economy scenarios and overall mostly travelled alone. However, two participants out of this group didn't know airbnb or couchsurfing before, one stated not to consider it as an alternative to a hotel. Among the student group airbnb and couchsurfing were unknown to two of six participants. One participant stated to always travel with couchsurfing and also being an active host. For this participant the experience of social interaction was the main motivation to engage in sharing economy. For another participant the risks of ending up in strange place or being scammed was considered too high.

DISCUSSION

The results of the focus group and the choice experiment indicate that sharing economy is definitely present in tourism. However, knowledge about sharing economy in tourism results to be lower than expected. The expectations about spending in connection with sharing economy scenarios were confirmed. As reported, the saving of coins in three cases does not necessarily make sense, since the game only involved one round. Saved coins are therefore equal to lost budget. Eventually the participants did not understand the task well, where

satisfied with using a lower budget or hoped for a second round of the game. While students paid the least on average for their sharing economy scenario, the preference for social interaction in this group was the highest. On the other hand, the administrative staff appeared to be motivated to participate in sharing economy more out of economic reasons. The group of professors was ambiguous concerning the potential usage of airbnb or couchsurfing. Not surprisingly, the limitation of traveling with children was the highest among this group. This is reasonable, as professors are more likely than other groups to have children, given the highest average age of 44 years within this group. About one third of this group actually created scenarios including tents and other not high comfort accommodation. As there was an information gap about airbnb and couchsurfing, the group of professors consequently did not choose this unknown option. If airbnb and couchsurfing would have been known to the professors, we don't know if they would have chosen it. The group of doctoral students was split into two parties, against sharing economy and one in favor of it. For one part the necessity of privacy and high service was very important, while contrasting, this was too formal for another one. Overall, airbnb and couchsurfing were mainly chosen in connection with low cost airlines and city trips. This could imply several things. Eventually the share of airbnb and couchsurfing accommodation is higher in urban areas, such as cities, than in coastal or rural destinations. Furthermore there could be a connection among the economic attributes of the other choices. Low cost carriers are a cost saving alternative, which is the same case for couchsurfing and airbnb. Since there is also always a risk factor, when booking a sharing economy accommodation, a city setting with lots of alternatives around may provide safety for the user and increase the willingness to try it out. Another explanation could be, that city trips are also undertaken by people traveling alone for a few days and they might seek social and local contact during their stay. In the case of one doctoral student it was stated, that using these sharing economy services actually increased the participants

frequency of short trips and being in touch with people. Regarding the age of sharing economy scenario choosers, the age group of 18 to 31 years is not surprising, as this age group is more likely to be exposed to sharing economy via social media. As stated before, social media is a favoring factor for sharing economy.

The previously stated hypothesis can therefore be answered as followed:

H1: Administrative staff has a tight money and time constraint, therefore, shorter and more economic travels are expected.

R1: The results indicate that the overall as well as the sharing economy scenarios among this group follow an economic reasoning, which verifies the hypotheses.

H2: Students have a tight money and a loose time constraint, hence more frequent, flexible and economic travels are expected. Furthermore, given the commonly known high share of young people active in social media and networks (hence higher exposure to sharing economy products and services), knowledge and usage of sharing economy products is expected to be the highest among this group.

R2: We can verify this hypothesis, following, that we have five sharing economy scenarios among this group, which makes students the leading group for sharing economy scenario. However, it is noticed, that students spend less on average on sharing economy scenarios, than on other scenarios. The high discrepancy of 8.6 (sharing economy) to 10.5 (other) indicates, that, if students involve in more economic travels, they tend to save more than other groups.

H3: Doctoral students have a tight time, but a looser money constraint. The age group is expected to be the most flexible travel group concerning low cost carriers and city trips because of two reasons: 1) economically more independent and 2) already experienced in LCC`s throughout the last 10 years (Eurocentric point of view).

R3: It can be verified, that doctoral students have a preference for city trips, no matter if they were favouring sharing economy or not. Out of those who chose airbnb or couchsurfing, most indicated, that they do so, because of social interaction. However, the results indicate, that sharing economy scenarios (average spending 9 coins) often included the usage of LCC`s.

H4: Professors are expected to make the longest holidays and spent the most, which we expect to be reflected in the selected alternatives. Since this is the expected oldest age group, travels with family are more likely and participation in technology and social affine sharing economy is expected to be low.

R4: The hypothesis can be neither clearly verified nor falsified. Following the discussion round, indeed professors tend to undertake longer vacations with their families. However, some professors, i.e. without children indicated, that they often combine business and leisure travel and in cases surprisingly also consider sleeping in a tent. This would neglect the expectation on the spending.

The usage of sharing economy according the different groups of participants can be summarized as follows: mixed positive and negative for the administrative staff, positive for doctoral students (PhD), very positive for Bachelor or Master students and negative for professors (Table 4).

Table 4 Usage of airbnb and couchsurfing among the different participant groups

Constraints	Revenuetight	Revenueloose
Time tight	<p>Administrative staff</p> <p>+ -</p>	<p>PhD students</p> <p>+</p>
Time loose	<p>Bachelor/Master Students</p> <p>++</p>	<p>Professors</p> <p>-</p>

IMPLEMENTATION

Overall, the mixed method within this experiment provided rich information about the knowledge, usage, circumstances and drawbacks of sharing economy within leisure travel. Since the presence of sharing economy can't be neglected following the results of the experiments, its usage within a discrete choice experiment about tourism decision-making appears justified. However, the challenge of integrating sharing economy in a discrete choice model will be for instance the question of labelling. The results of the discussion have shown, that for some participants airbnb and couchsurfing were not known, while for others these were exactly the keywords of understanding what type of product was meant. It is expected, that a discrete choice model with sharing economy integrated as one of the elements would

add to validity, or at least not decrease the validity of statistical analysis within tourism/destination decision models.

LIMITATIONS

The limitation of research about sharing economy definitely lie in availability of data and the manifold qualitative conceptualizing papers deliver heterogeneous definitions. Some of them perceive collaborative consumption and sharing economy as the same, others strictly separate these two concepts (Belk, 2013). The limitations of the focus group were twofold. On the one hand, too few focus groups were actually conducted to provide statistical evidence. On the other hand the design of the choice set lacked for instance the point of a blank option to fill in a missing or desired element. Adding this could have increased insight about stated preferences and eventually informed about another explanatory variable that could be of importance for the assembly of a choice set. Unfortunately the methodology of a focus group seemed to be unknown for many participants, which sometimes led to a gooey conversation.

CONCLUSION

Although sharing economy and consumer behavior have been studied profoundly, at least from the qualitative perspective, this paper demonstrates that there is no uniformity in methodologies applied to the topic sharing economy. This results in many different concepts and definitions of sharing economy and leaves the choice of methodology open, depended on the researcher's interests and intentions. As the literature review has shown, and as it was suggested by the empirical example given in this paper, there is scope to undertake more quantitative studies on sharing economy and tourism. Overall, the quantitative driven studies still suffer the lack of data, which needs to be overcome in order to better identify the role of sharing economy in tourism. The impact on tourism in general is not yet quantified, in terms

of magnitude and sustainability. Much is known about the motives and the mechanisms of sharing economy products and services in tourism, less about, how it actually changes or influences travel related decision making. However, we observe many scenarios in which sharing economy was connected to city trips and low cost carriers. In addition, the results of the focus group indicate that the typical sharing economy user is relatively young with a higher knowledge rate compared to participants over the age of 31. Concluding, the results of the hypothetical budget allocation have shown, that students seem to follow the same behavior in the experiment that we would expect from their real life situation, hence according to their revenue and time constraints. To validate this theory a more thoroughly study needs to be conducted. It is suggested to include sharing economy products and services into the tourism product basket where statistically possible. Definitely it is reasonable to include tourism related sharing economy products and services in the choice sets for further research from today's point of view.

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STATEMENT

Hereby I, Caroline Sturm, state, that the submitted paper *Sharing Economy and Tourism – Choice Set Considerations for Tourism Research*, has not been published anywhere else and is the solely work of the author. The paper is submitted to the 4th Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management Conference Mauritius 25-27 of June, 2014.

The Impact of Direct Flights on Destination Development: The Case of Turkish

Airlines

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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the role of Turkish Airlines (Turkish National Carrier) in development of tourism in various sub-destinations of Turkey. Studying Turkish airlines (THY) is important as the Turkish Flag Carrier has been challenging the global airline industry by regularly adding new routes (currently the widest in Europe) and increasing the frequencies of existing routes as well. Turkish airlines is also considered to be a quality service airline, awarded with various international prizes. Considering accessibility of a destination as an important determinant of success of tourism development, airlines have prime role in growth tourist numbers in a region. Therefore this study aims to analyze the impact of air

accessibility of destinations on the number of arrivals to the destinations by analyzing secondary statistical information acquired from Turkish Airlines and airport customs.

KEYWORDS Airline Industry, destination development, accessibility, flight Routes, Turkish airlines

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is considered as one of the fastest growing industry. One of the major causes of this development is progress in transportation technology (Hospers, 2011; Lohmann, Albers, Koch, & Pavlovich, 2009). Transportation is an essential link between tourist generating regions and tourist receiving countries. It is the key element which connects the tourist with the destination, unifying the origin-destination elements and thereby is regarded as the dynamic element in the tourism system. Air travel is one of the principal modes of transport used by travelers especially for international tourism (Page S. , 2004). Lohmann and et all. (2009) emphasize development of transport networks that have allowed small, low populated places become major international tourism destinations. Especially improvements in aviation as a major mode of transportation between borders made tourism movements faster, safer, more comfortable and more convenient. The airline industry also led to a geographic spread of tourism destinations. This mutually beneficial cooperation between airline industry and tourism created many destinations in various remote geographical locations that were inaccessible before. The frequency of flights and accessibility of destinations created new trends in tourism industry and new competition for established destinations. Travelers started to have shorter holidays, long-haul travel became more popular, and frequency of travel increased. Travel patterns in most developed countries are increasingly dependent on the airplane.

Growth of transportation systems facilitates not only connection of different part of country, but the airlines also connect small regions in the country with global economy. Transportation networks are considered as a developments of the aviation industry in a country helps to promote national identity, as ‘national carrier’ considered as a ‘flag-carrier’ and effects perception of achievement in the cultural and economic development of the country in general. The national carriers have been considered as major national symbols and are important in the representation of the country at international level. Having a national carrier is essential for countries’ economic development (Raguraman, 1997). According to Henderson (2006) accessibility can extend to issues of costs of visiting and destinations are judged not only based on financial costs but also time costs

This paper discusses the role of Turkish Airlines (Turkish National Carrier) in development of tourism in various destination of Turkey. Studying of Turkish Airlines (THY) is important as the airline has been challenging the global airline industry by adding new routes constantly (currently the widest in Europe) and increasing the frequencies of traditional routes as well. Some of these direct flight routes do not yet have competition. Turkish airlines is also considered to be a quality service airline, awarded with various international prizes. The main aim of this paper is to identify the importance of aviation system in development of destinations. Although there is extensive research about transport factor on the destination development, there is lack of research on the role of a specific airline on destination development. This paper will compare numbers of international arrivals in selected destinations in Turkey (Ankara, Istanbul and Antalya) with Turkish airlines new routes to tourist generating countries based on secondary data acquired from statistics and Turkish Airlines corporate web site.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Transportation has been an important element of tourism, by definition people need to travel outside their usual residence to be considered as tourists. The development of tourism has followed the same pattern as the improvements in transportation, from horse carriages to modern aircrafts. It is now possible to travel long distances in a quite reasonable price and in a very short time. Especially developments in air travel had a significant effect on tourism to become a mass phenomenon. (Prideaux, 2000, s. 53). The development of the tourism industry is closely linked to the progress in transport system and well-organized access by air transport is an important requirement for countries to become the leading international destination countries. (Henderson, 2006).

Improvements in the air transport, especially progress in jet engine and wide body passenger jets made it possible to travel through the continents. Aviation development was particularly important for the European nations who wanted to make closer and strengthen the ties with their colonies and sovereignty in their territories. Civil aviation development was probably considered as the most visible symbol of the technological progress in the whole western world. Since the late 1990's, the world has seen trends affecting both the economic and social life of many countries and probably one of the most profound is the growing importance of globalization. Transport has been a key element in achieving the greater global interaction of different areas and regions as transport connects different places and destinations; put simply, transport connects the origin and destinations (Page S. j., 2009). Tourism industry, transport is the key factor in enabling tourists to travel from their place of residence to the place where they wish to holiday (Prideaux, 2000). Peters and Gössling (2008) Tourism trends in the industrialized countries have changed substantially in the past decade, with a general trend towards more frequent, but shorter trips, and trips to more distant locations. Within Europe, this development is characterized by the emergence of low-fare airlines offering, for example, a wide variety of city breaks. Globally, an increasing number of people travel to distant or

peripheral destinations, often for short periods of time. This development is facilitated by developments and competition in air travel.

In many tourism studies, the relationship between transport and tourism is defined in terms of accessibility; that is, transport is seen as link between tourist generation regions and tourism destination regions. Transport systems play a major role in tourism destination expansion. The time spent for travelling is an important element in choosing destination (Prideaux, 2000). The more frequent and direct the flight alternatives, the more accessible and convenient a destination is (Lohmann, Albers, Koch, & Pavlovich, 2009).

Recent papers illustrate the connection between destinations and air transportation. The distance between tourist generating regions and tourist destination regions and the cost of that travel, expressed as a monetary value and the time required for the journey, have significant impact on the mode of the transport used (Prideaux, 2000). Raguraman (1997), states the national airlines and general civil aviation promote the social and economic development and the national identity of Malaysia and Singapore (Raguraman, 1997). Lumsdon & Page (2004), also mention how important low cost airlines is in historical development of tourism. Prideaux (2000), has discussed the transport cost model that identifies transport as factor in destination development and selection of the destination. In this study the importance of fare costs, travel time and geographical distance travelled are considered as transport access costs in destination selection decisions.

METHODOLOGY

The main objective of this study is to analyze impact of air accessibility of destinations on tourism development. The first step of the analysis was selecting an airline in order to compare the impact of routes on destinations. Turkish Airlines has been selected because it has been successfully expanding in global airline industry and as it is the national air carrier

the information considering routes, dates and load factors are easier to collect. Secondary data acquired from Turkish Airlines annual reports and public announcements about new destinations as well as load factors of these new routes are than compared with statistics collected from Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK) regarding the nationality of visitors to selected destinations.

Therefore the aim of the paper is to discuss the impact of flight accessibility of destinations on the growth in number of visitors to the area. The level of impact might be considered as an important criterion of success especially in introducing new destinations and increasing frequency of flights particularly for flag carriers owned or subsidized by their government such as Turkish Airlines. The tourism industry in general would be in a better position to defend the role of accessibility, airline incentives and new airports if the level of impact can be justified.

RESULTS: TRANSPORT AND DESTINATION DEVELOPMENT

The development of tourist destinations is a central theme in the tourism literature and researchers approach to the subject from various perspectives and disciplines. The temporal and spatial evolution of destinations, the impacts of development, government growth policies, planning imperatives, marketing issues and business strategies, growing of the air transportation are amongst the many topics studied (Henderson, 2006). Well-established transport networks can make tourism destination more accessible and attractive, so destination development can be seen as a factor of its accessibility (Lohmann, Albers, Koch, & Pavlovich, 2009). If the transport is such a critical element of the growth of destinations, it is important to understand what in fact a destination is. In essence, tourist destinations are places where tourist visit and stay. This concept represents geographical areas of a country,

rural area and village. Tourist destinations are a mix of tourism products, experiences and other intangible items promoted to consumers (Page, 2009).

As a growing international destination, Turkey embodies many natural and cultural resources within its own context. For instance, Istanbul, Antalya, Cappadocia and most Aegean cities can be considered as growing destinations in Turkey. Istanbul, which hosts Roman, Byzantine and Ottoman cultures all together, is considered as an important destination for cultural tourism. Another reason for growing tourism demand in Turkey is considered as the booming airline industry. THY, was established on May 20th, 1933 as the “State Airlines Administration” under the direction of the Ministry of Defense. In 1956, it was restricted becoming “Turkish Airlines. The rapidly developing aviation industry which is under the leadership of Turkish Airlines, still plays a key role in Turkey. In 1933, Turkish Airlines started operating in domestic and international flights and now, is operating almost 200 flights to the internationalist destinations. Furthermore, the direct operated flight routes from the different international points to the Istanbul, Ankara, Antalya and Izmir also contribute the development of tourism in the regional destinations(Ministry Of Culture and Tourism, 2014; Turkish Airlines, 2014; Star Allinced , 2014).

Table 1: Number of Passengers

2005:	14.134.000
2006	16.947.000
2007:	19.636.000
2008:	22.597.000
2009:	25.102.000
2010:	29.119.000
2011:	32.648.000
2012:	39.040.409
2013:	48.270.005

Source: <http://www.turkishairlines.com/> 02. 13. 2014.

As shown in table 1, despite economic crises affecting the aviation industry Turkish Airlines is ever improving number of passengers. In 2010 alone, THY increased number of its passengers from 14, 1 million in 2005 to 29, 1 million in 2010, in 2014, THY reached 48, 2 million passengers in total.

On April 2008, THY accepted as the 21st member of the Star Alliance group that was established in 1997. The Star Alliance network is leading global airline network, with highest number of member airline, daily flights, destinations and countries flown to. As a member of Star Alliance, THY obtained wide flight network of the alliance and a special flight program. After 2008, Turkish Airlines has the capacity to organize and connect with direct and indirect flights around the World. Rather than increasing frequency on existing destinations Turkish Airlines strategy was to add up completely new destinations to its flight network.

Table 2: THY Direct Fly to Destination between 2008 and 2013

	2008	2009	2010
America	Canada-Toronto Brazil- Sao Paulo	Canada-Toronto Brazil- Sao Paulo	America-los Angeles, Washington
European	Ukraine -Lviv	Russia- Ufa Sweden- Goteborg Ukraine -Lviv Italia-Bologna *Greece-Athenian- İzmir(Turkey)	Russia -Soçi *Germany- Frankfurt-İzmir (Turkey) *Germany- Düsseldorf- İzmir (Turkey) *France-Paris- İzmir (Turkey) Montenegro- Podgorica
Africa	Kenya-Nairobi Senegal-Dakar Algerian-Oran Egypt-Alexandria	Libya-Benghazi	Uganda- Entebbe Tanzania - Darussalam Ghana - Accra
Asia	Iraq -Baghdad *Russia-Moscow-	Indonesia -Jakarta İran-Mashhad	Azerbaijan - Nakhchivan

	Antalya(Turkey) Pakistan-Lahore Kazakhstan-Aktau	Georgia-Batumi China-Sangay	
	2011	2012	2013
America	America-Los Angeles	Argentina-Buenos Aires America-Houston	-
European	*England-London- Ankara(Turkey) Italia -Genoa-Turin- Naples France-Toulouse Spain-Malaga- Valencia *Germany-Munich- Frankfurt- İzmir(Turkey)	Spain-Malaga-Valencia Scotland-Edinburg Denmark- Aalborg-Billund *Vienna-Dusseldorf- Stockholm-Brussels- Amsterdam-Köln-Stuttgart- Berlin-Ankara(Turkey) Italia-Turin	Estonia-Tallinn Lithuanian- Vilnius Luxemburg Romanian- Constanta France- Marseille Austria - Salzburg Malta-Malta Spain-De Compostela
Africa	Libya-Tripoli- Benghazi Senegal- Karachi- Dhaka	Cameroon -Yaoundé-Douala Niger-Niamey Burkina Faso-Vogadugu Libya-Sabha Tanzania-Kilimanjaro Kenya-Mombasa Mauritania-Nouakchott Djibouti- Djibouti Democratic Republic of the Congo-Kinshasa Ivory Coast- Abidjan Ruanda-Kigali Somali- Mogadishu Egypt-Hurghada-Sharm el- Sheikh	
Asia	Thailand-Bangkok – Vietnam-Ho Chi Minh City (Saigon) Philippines-Manila İran-Shiraz China-Guangzhou ‘a Lebanon-Beirut Kazakhstan-Astana- Almaty Iraq-Erbil- Sulaymaniyah-Najaf- Basra-Mosul Afghanistan-Kabul Saudi Arabian- Dammam	İran-Kermanshah-İsfahan Maldives-Male Azerbaijan-Ganja Kyrgyzstan- Osh Mongolia- Ulan Bator Saudi Arabian -Yanbu * Moscow-Teheran-Bagdad Iraq- Mosul	Pakistan- Lahore Afghanistan- Mazar-e Sharif Nepal- Katmandu Saudi Arabian –Al-Qassim Malaysia- Kuala Lumpur Jordan-Aqaba

Source: <http://www.turkishairlines.com/> 02. 13. 2014.

As shown in the above table 2, THY added new destinations especially in Africa, Asia, Middle East (Iraq and Afghanistan), Baltic and Balkan countries in Europe. As of the end of 2013, Turkish Airlines was able to serve its clients flying to/from 105 different countries. Besides THY started in to organize new direct flights to the major tourist attracting cities of Turkey such as, Antalya and Izmir besides Istanbul (largest populated city) and Ankara (the capital). (Turkish Airlines, 2014).

Table 3: Number of Departing Visitors by Nationality, 2008-2013

Nationality	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Total	30.979.980	31.972.375	33.027.942	36.151.327	36.463.918	39.226.226
USA	607.453	614.025	595.507	711.608	714.398	739.494
Germany	3.557.718	3.703.056	3.625.603	4.100.334	4.224.978	4.193.043
Australia	117.942	123.546	123.589	143.450	156.540	180.692
Austria	383.474	428.967	399.779	425.540	400.706	396.921
Azerbaijan	443.252	404.063	441.468	517.859	523.486	568.474
Belgium	422.283	426.212	398.038	466.467	462.201	480.148
Bulgaria	1.369.237	1.523.809	1.388.381	1.384.137	1.406.392	1.491.433
Denmark	205.181	234.610	247.384	284.934	284.393	350.081
France	672.538	741.373	740.053	878.681	875.035	856.172
Georgia	810.912	974.111	1.083.550	1.130.846	1.364.945	1.732.706
Netherlands	811.239	849.293	824.741	904.993	993.179	1.001.905
United Kingdom	1.659.965	1.937.975	2.131.481	2.009.556	1.934.775	1.963.559
Iran	951.894	1.291.592	1.760.733	1.764.788	1.073.779	1.081.626
Spain	278.665	318.683	271.310	276.697	255.153	259.067
Israel	454.765	252.041	93.265	81.715	87.951	129.414
Sweden	299.081	317.514	348.371	463.205	463.166	553.897
Switzerland	200.732	233.757	222.459	261.725	292.264	324.850
Italy	524.442	563.241	578.614	677.436	645.757	661.663

Japan	145.778	146.804	191.116	189.897	196.586	172.469
Canada	132.878	143.065	141.513	178.795	167.576	183.993
Russian Federation	2.180.025	2.065.588	2.392.927	2.644.239	2.647.090	3.049.035
Syria	365.948	457.099	792.622	868.864	298.455	191.773
Tunisia	39.724	53.891	51.160	62.018	76.552	82.190
Turkey ⁽¹⁾	3.519.602	3.721.349	3.568.660	3.783.604	4.066.157	4.254.393
Ukraine	574.923	460.980	455.159	489.140	496.190	598.668
Greece	529.720	585.401	635.640	664.199	624.536	674.367
African countries	214.491	322.327	269.101	322.010	527.781	599.575
American countries	139.317	154.992	122.304	171.915	170.056	227.118
Com. Of Independent States	683.865	695.648	662.851	740.953	822.251	938.400
West Asian countries	533.770	662.660	696.346	822.771	1.053.894	1.280.151
Other European countries	1.575.879	1.503.457	866.663	952.097	990.570	1.075.917
East Asian countries	196.729	179.783	101.760	128.374	148.225	179.860
South Asian countries	105.387	93.924	96.676	119.782	118.610	151.882
Southeast Asian countries	97.250	118.012	-	-	-	-
OECD countries(other)	426.780	487.982	1.334.968	1.578.493	1.532.896	1.581.428
Other countries	17.516	22.414	131.101	193.575	207.007	224.412
Accompanying persons	5.729.625	5.159.131	5.243.049	5.756.630	6.160.388	6.795.452

Source: TURKSAT Departing Visitors Survey/ 02.17.2014.

Table 3 depicts, information related the nationality of arriving visitors to Turkey between 2008 and 2013. Turkey was visited by 30 million international tourist in 2008 which increased over 39 in 2013. Table 3 also proves that the new routes established by Turkish Airlines to Italy, Iraq, Sweden, Holland, Georgia, Tunisia and Africa had a positive impact on number of arrivals.

The growth in number of destinations and flights also turned Istanbul as a hub for stop-over flights especially for long-haul flights. As of 2008, Turkish Airlines particularly improved its transportation network constantly with direct flights to different destinations by the purpose

of expanding its share in connection flights. This strategy also increased the accessibility of tourist destinations in Turkey. By the end of 2013, through direct flights, to/from Senegal, Egypt, Libya, Ghana result in an increase of the number of the tourist from these African countries increased from 214, 491 in 2008 to 599, 575 in 2013.

A similar impact can be seen on Asian tourist generating countries. For example after launching a new route to Batumi in 2009 the number of the Georgian tourists increased from 975.000 to one million in 2013. Another example from Asia is Nakhchivan (Azerbaijan), the number of tourists jumped from 441.000 to 568.000 in 2013 after the first direct flight from Istanbul to Nakhchivan in 2010. There has also been significant increases from other countries such as Sweden, Switzerland and Italy as the new flights were introduced by Turkish Airlines. Turkish Airlines, get sales revenue increased by 27 percent in 2013 compared 2012 and reached Turkish lira (TL) 18.8 billion. While Turkish Airlines net profit was TL 683 million, operating profit of TL 1 billion 240 million.

CONCLUSIONS

Turkey is has become a major international destination for tourism industry. By the end of 2013, more than 35 million tourists were hosted. Turkish Airlines, which is member of Star Alliance from 2008 that provide a wide flight route network through membership in the alliance and the frequent flyer program This expansion has also turned major cities in Turkey a hub from long-haul connections.

The expansion strategy of Turkish Airlines had a positive impact on the number of arrivals to Turkey. This study examines various new routes that Turkish Airlines have been adding to its flight network since 2008 and their impact on number of tourists from these new destinations as tourist generating countries. The analysis shows that there is a significant relation between direct flights between destinations and increase in number of arrivals from those countries.

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AHTMMC

**Extraordinary Tourism Experiences:
How Value Is Created and Drained During Customer Interactions**

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Work-in-progress paper.

This work-in-progress paper focuses on consumer value in extraordinary experiences, and how value is created and drained through customer-interactions. Customer-interactions are central in experiencescapes. A framework of six main types of customer-interactions is used when analyzing the data. The cases studied are multiday tours being packages of total experiences. Data gathering is qualitative (semi-structured interviews, often combined with observations, pictures and documents). Three subsectors within nature-based tourism have been studied, i.e. sea kayaking, horseback riding and dog sledding, this work-in-progress paper includes mainly the first subsector. The paper contributes with new knowledge about

the nature of consumer value and how value is creation is facilitated and hampered. We argue that such knowledge is vital for innovation and production of total experiences.

KEYWORDS Extraordinary experiences/tourism, nature-based tourism, customer-interaction, consumer value, value creation, value draining, experience design, experience economy

INTRODUCTION

Experiences as products are characterized by being positive, memorable and meaningful (Sundbo and Sørensen, 2013). However what is meaningful is not objective; rather it is subjective, relational, dynamic and co-created (Peñaloza and Venkatesh, 2006). In contrast to services, where the functional value is central, experiences can create different types of value, and the functional are not necessary significant (Prebensen, 2014). Value creation in experience economy has gradually changed from a main focus on staging (generation 1), to co-creation (generation 2), and partly also to self-managing (generation 3), which gradually has reduced the control and role of the firm (Boswijk, et al, 2012).

The competition is global and hard within experience based tourism. It is therefore vital to be able to design and produce attractive experience concepts, but this is not easy. In nature-based experiences, beautiful or exciting nature is not enough. It is often an important resource (valuable assets), but nature needs to be processed and made accessible for consumers so that the total experience can be valuable. Managers, tour guides or others often have an important role as facilitators (e.g. Arnould & Price, 1993; Mossberg & Hansen, 2014). There is a need for increased knowledge of how nature environments and customer-interactions can be designed to facilitate value co-creation (Prahalad & Ramaswamay, 2003, 2004; Eide & Mossberg, 2014; Mathisen, 2014). The aim of this paper is to contribute with a

new understanding of consumer value creation in nature-based experiences, and how firms can facilitate for creation of value. We study different types of customer-interactions (CI) and how they can contribute to value creation or value draining. We study this in cases of multiday total experiences within extraordinary nature-based experiences (sea kayaking, horseback riding and dog sledding) which call for active involvement and performance. The findings have implications for both production and design/innovation.

EXTRAORDINARY EXPERIENCES AND CONSUMER VALUE

Extraordinary experiences

Nature-based tourism businesses often attempt to facilitate extraordinary, adventurous, experiences to consumers. According to adventure tourism literature (Buckley, 2007), such products are most often guided tours, where the principal attraction is an outdoor activity that relies on natural terrain and specialized equipment. The experience is assumed to be *exciting* to the consumers who seek *novel quests* away from the ordinary, *challenges* and *risk* (Gyimóthy & Mykletun, 2004), or semblance of risk (Buckley, 2012).

Within marketing, research has proposed extraordinary products as those that are experienced as something extra or *surprising* (Mossberg, 2007). Although the experience economy relies on the staging ability of businesses (Pine & Gilmore, 2011), experiential marketing suggests that consumers have a *co-creative role* in the production and consumption of highly intangible experiences (Carù & Cova, 2003; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). In extraordinary experiences one may assume that consumers receive “more intense, framed and stylish practices” that stand out as special and *memorable* moments (Abrahams, 1986, p. 50). Consumer research theorize *transformative experiences* as important for understanding extraordinary experiences because everyday life tends to exclude mystery, magic, passion, and soul (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995). Tumbat and Belk (2011) criticize this thesis and argue

instead that the extraordinary might not be as romantic and communitarian as previous research suggest, and that consumers instead may *negotiate between various dualities* of the everyday mundane and the extraordinary enchanting.

Studying river rafting, Arnould & Price(1993) report that “*communion with nature, communitas* or connecting with others [...] and *renewal of self*” are essential experiential traits (p. 31). They show how extraordinary experiences provide nature-based absorption and social integration, and that tourism providers and guides contribute with cultural scripts so that consumers may return to an everyday world as renewed individuals. Studying high-risk experiences, primarily skydiving, Celsi et al. (1993) propose a holistic “extended dramatic model” (p. 3) and argue that adventurous experiences should be viewed *dynamic and holistically* instead of static with focus on single and isolated constructs.

Value creation

Value has often been understood as an exchange (see Zeithaml, 1988). In a commercial experience context, the “get-versus-give” tradeoff is not necessarily the preferred way of conceptualizing value. The last two decades alternative views have been suggested. Holbrook (1995, p. 5) definition of value as “an interactive relativistic preference experience” have inspired tourism and consumer researchers. Different researchers suggest that the intangible, interactive and multifarious nature *demands a multidimensional approach*(Gallarza, Gil-Saura, & Holbrook, 2011). Sweeney & Soutar (2001) suggest a typology with social, emotional, epistemic and funtional value. Instead of a focus on value-in-exchange (see Bagozzi, 1975), more focus is needed on value-in-use; i.e. the experience of using a service (Gummerus & Pihlström, 2011). Several contributions suggest a value-in-use approach (Vargo & Lusch, 2008; Holbrook, 1999; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004), and central in the service dominant logic (SDL) approach is focus on how the consumer integrates resources

proposed by the company with his/her own resources during an experience. In experiences, businesses would mobilize operand resources (i.e., tangible aspects), but primarily operant resources (i.e. intangible aspects, such as competences, themes and stories) to offer value propositions to consumers (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). This theoretical trend pertains that the consumer must always be thought of as a value co-creator who contributes with operand resources like knowledge and skills, and for extraordinary consumption, interests and active involvement. In tourism, the consumer act as resource integrators, and value is centered in the experience of tourists (Prebensen, Vittersø, & Dahl, 2013). An important imperative by Vargo and Lusch is that “resources *are* not: they *become*.” (Vargo & Lusch, 2004, p. 2), which means that value is co-created in use and practice throughout extraordinary consumption. Arnould, Price, and Malshe (2006) enlarged the context for the becoming of value co-creation to include also cultural resources. The accounts for what-is-valued and how-is-valued, perhaps articulated as regimes of value (Arnould, 2014), are continually changing and belong to the cultural context surrounding commercial contexts. One can argue the in-use understanding of value, also includes the dynamic time-dimension and phenomenological nature of value (Helkkula et al., 2012)

M. Holbrook defines consumer value as an interactive, relativistic and preference experience (Holbrook, 1999, 2005). Based on the seminal publication on hedonic consumption three decades ago (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982), Holbrook argues for *symbolic value* as detached from any product. He argues instead to focus on fantasies, feelings and fun that the resources render possible. The (hedonic) process of becoming value is fundamentally *interactive* because the process “involves a relationship between some subject (the consumer) and some object (the product)” (Holbrook, 2005, p. 46). In an extraordinary tourism context, additional relationships would be important. For example, relationships toward nature, animals, guides and other tourists can prove significant for the

becoming of resource integration when actively engaging in dog sledding in the arctic Svalbard (Lindberg, Hansen, & Eide, 2014). Furthermore, Holbrook (1999) argues that consumer value is *relativistic* insofar as its becoming differs between persons, depends on the situation the consumer is in, and reflects a comparison of products with another. Finally, the *preference* as symbolic value refers to dimensions such as “like/dislike, favourable/unfavourable, good/bad, positive/negative, pro/con, or approach/avoid.” (Holbrook, 2005, p. 46). This conception leads to a typology of (eight) consumer value where the becoming of value can be extrinsic (utilitarian) and/or intrinsic (end-in-itself, autotelic). For the purpose of the present research, examples of value types are efficiency (e.g. kayaking as mean for reaching a destination) and play (e.g. kayaking as a fun activity).

In their recent review of value in marketing and consumer research, Karababa and Kjeldgaard (2014) argue that consumer culture research (CCT) tries to establish a dialogue between the diverse understanding of the notion of value. For example, that value is context dependent and that context exists both on individual, consumption/business, and cultural level. Schau, Muñiz, and Arnould (2009) argue for a *practice perspective* for understanding value creation because consumers would undergo progressive appropriation throughout consumption experiences. The consumer becoming as resource integrators throughout consumption (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) is then supplemented with cultural meaning among a multiplicity of actors as it unfolds throughout practice. More specifically, value creation in extraordinary contexts would be influenced by consumers adjusting to know-how and tacit elements, procedures for doing and saying, emotional commitments and engagements (see Schatzki, 1996; Warde, 2005).

Karababa and Kjeldgaard (2014) argue that three abstract value types dominate the literature. *Economic value* and exchange value refer to the “value for money” logic, *social value* refers to the “goodness” for individuals, and *semiotic value* refers to the sign value that

embodies persons and is embedded in processes and things in a culture. Their review shows that the notion of value is subjective, context-dependent, complex and interrelated, and that various value types are separable analytically, but not in practice. Value construction is not individual construction within consumption experiences, which is argued by Holbrook (1999) and Vargo and Lusch (2004). The contextualization which is at stake in much contemporary literature remains decontextualized, instead, “what may be valued societally is articulated semiotically and hence is also valorized in exchange terms” (Karababa & Kjeldgaard, 2014, pp. 123-124). Thus, value co-creation in consumption experiences can be understood through practices resulting in a variety of value types (Schau et al., 2009), such as identity value, experience value, aesthetic value, functional value, hedonic value, and community value (Karababa & Kjeldgaard, 2014), and many actors on different contextual levels may influence such processes.

Customer-interactions in value creation and draining processes

Customer-interactions can be argued the main place where consumers can be motivated and involved in co-creation of value (Prebensen, Woo, Chen & Uysal, 2013). The environment where the consumption takes place have been described as ‘scapes’, but partly different depending on being servicescapes versus experiencescapes (Bitner, 1992; McColl-Kennedy, 2003; Prahalad & Ramaswamay, 2004; Rosenbaum, 2005; O’Dell, 2005; Mossberg, 2007). We define experiencescapes as the physical, social and symbolic environments, which are nested, and where customer-interactions are central. Experiencescapes are not static, rather they are dynamic (Hale et al., 2001) due to interactions, and even a one day tour can involve more than one ‘scape’. It is within the scapes that co-creation takes place (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). Some mainly see this as the place of pleasure, enjoyment and

entertainment (O’Dell, 2005); however we assume scapes as the arena of diverse experiences, activities and emotions.

Earlier studies of experiencescapes show that customer-interaction with: personnel, other customers and objects are important for customers’ value creation, and that the experiencescape should be tematized to increase meaning and value (Mossberg, 2007). Eide and Mossberg (2012) however, suggest a broader theoretical model involving six main types of customer-interactions and situate them in experiencescapes perhaps framed by a main theme or main history (e.g. trapping in the Arctic, coastal culture). The six main types of customer-interactions (CI) are shown in the figure below, with experiencescape(s) framed within a theme/main history:

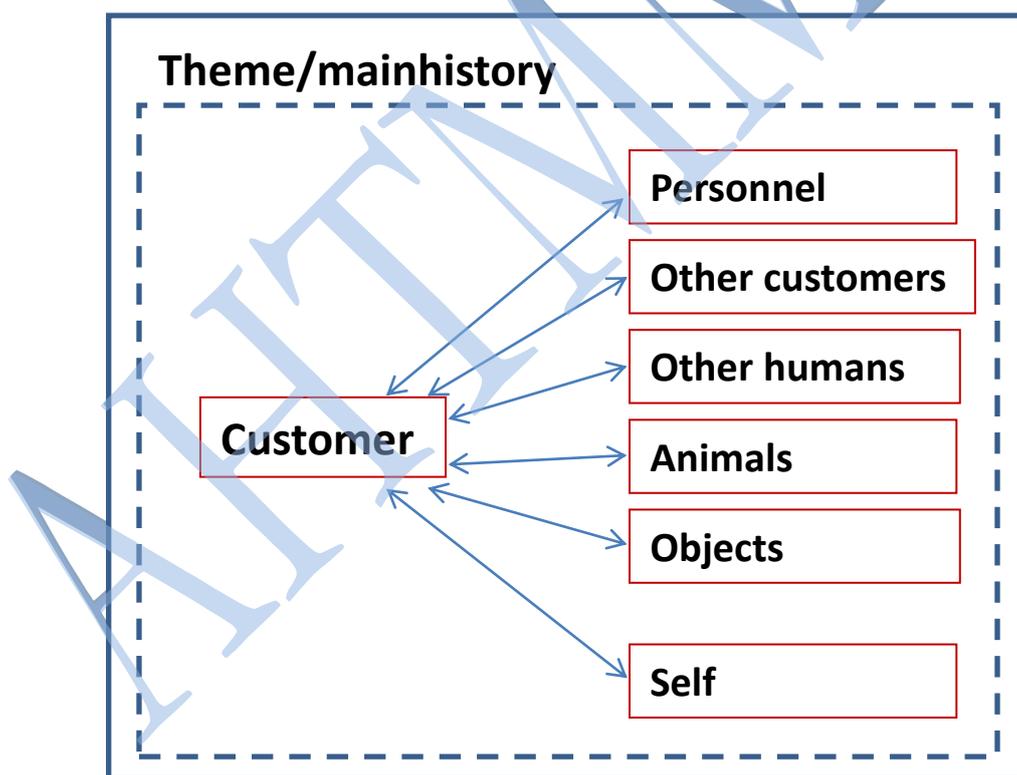


FIGURE 1: Six main types of CI

In addition to the more common interactions with personnel, other customers and objects, they argue that also interactions with others humans, animals and self are important. The role of interactions with animals can be particularly important in nature-based tourism, but might

be irrelevant in culture or food based experiences. Previous studies of nature-based experiences often focus on the roles of personnel in the form of tour guides (see e.g. Arnould & Prde, 1993; Mossberg, 1995; Ap & Wong, 2001; Hansen & Mossberg, forthcoming; Mossberg, Hanefors & Hansen, 2014).

Researchers focus on the importance of interactions with other customers, they can be seen as co-producers or the audience, and such interactions can influence the atmosphere, emotions, belonging/bonding and teamwork of the group (e.g. Gustafsson et al, 2006; Hallin & Mykletun, 2006). Sørensen & Sundbo (2014) show in a study of one safari park, that customers tend to see interaction with the family/friends that they arrived with as more important for their value creation, than interactions with animals. This knowledge changed the focus of innovations, using more resources on social arenas and less on new animals.

Eide and Mossberg (2013) suggest grids with ideal types of combinations of customer-interactions as entrance for studying or working with innovations and experience designs, indicating large variety in alternative ways to design experiences. Understanding how the different customer-interaction types and their combinations contributes to consumer value, and how alternative possible designs can be made, are important not only for the customers value creation, but also for the value creation of businesses in order to innovate and offer attractive concepts, and to facilitate such value during production.

We use the framework (Figure 1) with potentially six customer-interactions as one central conceptual tool in the study of consumer value and how value is created and drained.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

The main empirical strategy chosen is a hermeneutic framework (Alvesson & Sköldberg, 2009; Thompson, 1997) with the main aim to develop increased understanding of the meaning and roles of the phenomena studied. The research question is studied within nature-

based experiences, multiday total experiences with active (rather demanding) involvement calling for escapism and learning; involving different types of customer-interactions. Although the customer journeys are mainly situated in nature-based subsectors, they are often mixed and supplemented with culture and food based experiences.

Three subsectors were chosen, i.e. sea kayaking, horseback riding and dog sledding in Norway and Iceland. A total of eight experience packages (tours) are the cases of this study; three kayaking, two horseback riding, and three dog sledding cases. The multi-case design opens up for comparing across cases and comparing across informants within each case. The main data gathering methods are participative observations and semi-structured interviews. Pictures and documents supplement the data collection. Most interviews follow the same line of main topics (interview guide). They are in-depth interviews addressing process, context, meaning and reflections through dialogue (Kvale & Brinkman, 2009). Each interview lasted between 1-2 hours. They took place, either face-to-face, by phone or through Skype. We have met all informants face-to-face one or more times, and often been together with them on the tour. Interviews were recorded and transcribed. Some interviews were accomplished with two informants at the same time (e.g couple, brothers or two friends).

The preliminary analyzes started with within-case analyzes and then across analyses. Each interview was coded first with content analyzing (Miles & Huberman, 1984; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Jackson, 2008) focusing on the six customer-interactions, then continuing with more open exploration of meaning, developing categories and meaning patterns/concentration. Due to limited space and time, this version of the paper includes findings based mainly on the three cases from sea kayaking at the Helgeland coastline in Norway, in total 14 interviews with customers. All trips were provided by a small enterprise specializing on kayaking courses and guided tours. Helgeland is a region in Nordland County in the northern part of Norway. Its coastline is unique due to the thousands of islands, making

it perfect for kayaking and island jumping (also popular for biking, hiking and fishing). In this area there are also many fjords and mountains, and the World Heritage area of the island Vega. Some of the larger islands are still inhabited by humans, but some only as second homes. Helgeland's coastline is about 200 km. All informants are Norwegians. The first case K-A is a 3,5 day tour (12 customers), case K-B is 6 days (6 customers), and case K-C is 3 days (3 customers). The two first had the same two tour guides, and the first author participated as customer and researcher, using participative observation. Tour K-C involved a tour guide who the first author has been on tour with earlier, in approximately the same area. Tour K-B and K-C used camping with lavvo/tent accommodation in addition to in house accommodation.

HOW CUSTOMERS-INTERACTIONS DRIVE OR DRAIN CUSTOMER VALUE

This section present and discuss briefly the preliminary findings across 3 cases within the sea kayaking subsector. A later version of this paper will include also findings across horseback riding and dog sledding; now only a few glimpses are included.

The study show how different customer-interactions co-exists and contribute to the *multi-dimensional* and *multi-relational* nature of experiencescapes, value creation and value types. It is not only CI's that contributes to that, the processual time-dimension contributes to this as well (Lindberg, Hansen & Eide, 2014). Multiday tours partly changes experiencescapes each day, for example since the weather changes, customers meet new locals, new landscapes, animals or situations, i.e. they are on the move not only physically but also in time. The value creation is dynamic due to time being a continual process of past-present-future, which accumulates and weave together parts like activities, stories, meaning, emotions and knowledge. The involvement and intensity of customer-interactions, emotions and other elements varies across time and contexts, and makes up the dramaturgy of each day

and of the total experience journey. The dramaturgy can be more or less designed by the firm when the concept was innovated and more or less emerging throughout the ongoing processes.

Main findings in the sea kayaking subsector

The main categories revealed (constructed) within each main type of customer-interaction are presented in the figure below, using “+” when contributing positive to the creation and “-” when draining value or other ways contributing negatively in the value creation.

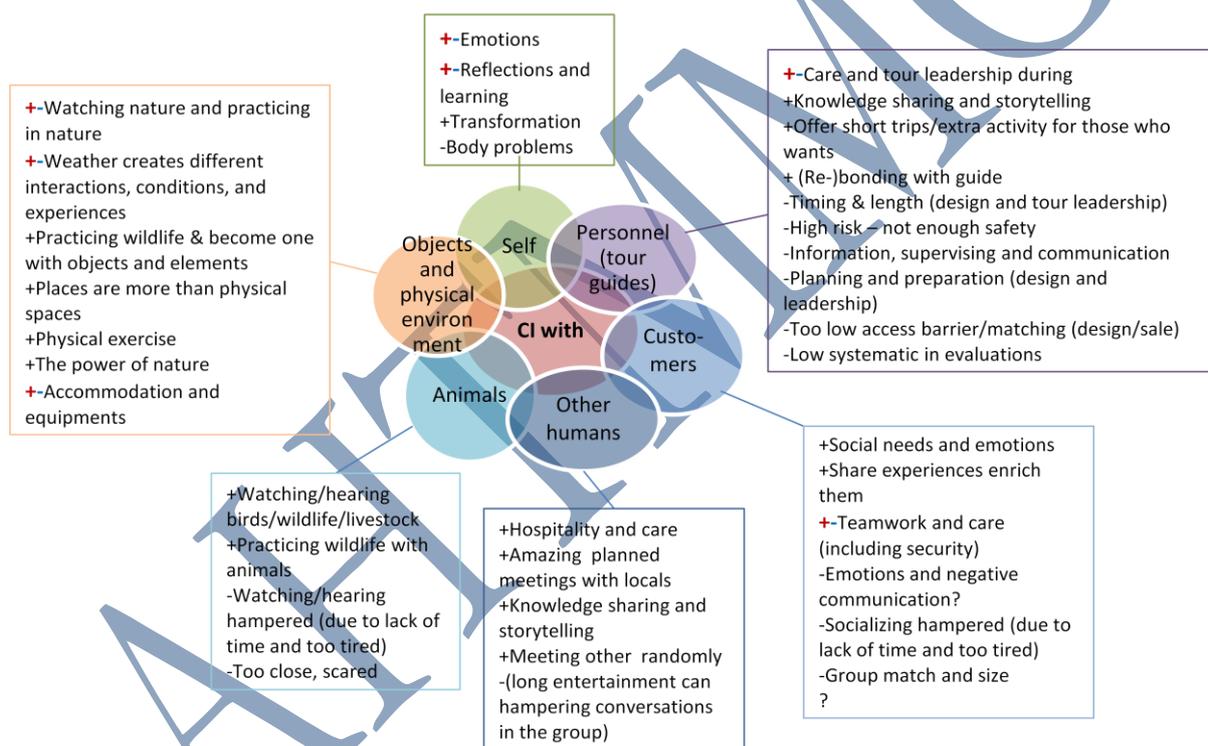


FIGURE 2: Sea kayaking in coastal contexts

Each category has been developed into subcategories and summarized in one table for value creation and one for draining (not included due to limited space). Some categories contribute in both positive and negative ways, such as ‘care and tour leadership’. It means that care and tour leadership contributes positively in the co-creation of value, but when there is too little care and bad tour leadership then value is drained or value creation is hampered. ‘Teamwork

and care' between customers is another example, when it works well it creates value, but when not working it drains.

The most important CI's for positive value creations found in the sea kayaking cases are interactions 'with other humans' (local inhabitants in particular) and 'with personnel/tour guides', in both CI's it is largely related to knowledge sharing and storytelling, as well as care and hospitality. Interactions 'with other customers' are seen as important, but not what they see as peaks or what informants talk much about. Interactions 'with self' both help them to focus on the positive (i.e. take a positive approach), and to dwell in and on the varied activities and sense experiences, creating meaning and learning, for some it starts a transformation of more long term consequences. Taken that this is mainly (but not only) nature-based experiences, it is surprising that interactions with animals and with objects and physical environment does not have more direct strong importance in the value creation. However there is indirect importance. Also there is at least one exception, demanding weather can first drain value, and later due to the hard struggling of the person (including interactions with self), create strong positive emotions (coping and pride). We did not find any examples of interactions 'with other humans' hampering value creation (except from addressing some risk of too much entertainment). We only found one example of event where interaction 'with animals' where experienced as negative. What seemed to hamper value creation most *during* the experience are interactions 'with personnel/tour guides', 'with other customers', and 'with objects and physical environment'. While *after* some of the struggles due to the latter could turn into a positive value creation. There were also examples of interactions 'with self' hampering, mainly connected to bodily pain or irritation about others/self. Work or other things taking the mind away from the activity were hardly a problem.

We expect to find some differences when bringing in the subsectors of horseback riding and dog sledding. A brief glimpse shows that CI with animals are significantly more important for value creation due to the close and direct interactions. This brings new categories when compared to the sea kayaking subsectors, like ‘bonding with animals’. Some horseback riding and dog sledding cases takes place in very rural areas with no inhabitants who can contribute with narratives and authentic voices. The places can be perceived mainly as physical environments around the activity, unless the tour guides take an active role as storytellers to enrich the places and connect customers and place, making the experiencescape into a symbolic environment. In all subsectors we find that tour guides can take an active role to facilitate the social interactions between tourists (i.e. care for the social environment and persons) and hence the creation of social value, when not doing so it hamper value creation.

The CIs are intertwined and multi-dimensional:

The sea kayaking cases shows how *different CI's not only are related to each others, but often are intertwined and multi-dimensional, drivers and drainers of value.* This proposition can be illustrated with two quotes below:

“The landscape was great and the evening light. And it was not commercial, it was authentic places, and the people we met were very engaged and gave lots of stories. In the start of the paddling I was a bit unsecure but became more confident through learning. In between I was very tired, but really I am glad to be pushed a bit, and to cope in difficult water, that was Ok, no really it was great. Also the parts when you are not thinking, just feeling one with the water, just glide through it, it feels good...But the wind was hard, and the stress with time pressure the last day drained”
(K-A-7 female).

‘The nature, nice weather and nice people we visited at the island were all great. And of course those we paddled with, it was cozy to sit and talk...There were nice small hiking trips...Too much carrying of kayaks, too little information, tour leadership and planning ahead...Too long trip with such a small group, some of the other participants became increasingly annoying due to constant complaining, need of help and unable to cope. I am not sure I will take the risk again on group tours when not controlling who the others are...One guide started yelling and seemed fed up and with bad temper, it made the atmosphere low’ (K-B-1 female, freely quoted)

Informants in case-A argue that the opportunities of value creation with other customers, with nature and with animals were hampered due to lack of time and being too tired. We argue that this is partly a design problem (too hard journey) and segmentation problem (too low access barriers), and partly a tour leadership problem during (tour guide not seeing or doing enough to reduce the emerging draining factors). Further, the customers are not only doing active adventure experiences together, they also eat together, sometimes even sleep in the same room or lavvo. In kayaking, customers have to cooperate as a team to some degree; interactions are therefore not ‘only’ a matter of socializing, it is therefore more important to facilitate for a positive social environment and understanding of what teamwork means. The tour guides have the main role in this, but the customers co-create it.

Each of the cases are total experience (Sundbo & Hagedorn-Rasmussen, 2008) with three main parts, i.e. they have wildlife like paddling (riding or sledding) as the *core activity*, other experience based activities like storytelling, hiking and attractions surround the core activity, the two makes up the *core experience*; in addition comes peripheral products (e.g. sleeping, eating). Value is created and drained in relation to all three. As briefly indicated in the quotes, the study shows that consumers are motivated and appreciated mixed and varied experiences and combinations of value types on multiday tours, and particularly appreciate

authentic meetings and being touched and involved in personal ways rather than standardized commercialized ways (see e.g. Wang, 1999; Urry, 1992). Multiday tours can open up for bonding with other customers and tour guides, even animals; and for other elements being part of or contributing to social value (Arnould & Price, 1993; Celsi, 1993). Such tours can also open up for different challenges related to the social, nature and practice (Tumbat & Belk, 2011).

In particular, the storytelling enrich the meetings/relations and learning, and connects the customers not only with the person storytelling but also with the context, being it the physical nature, the culture or the social. According to Mossberg, Hanefors & Hansen (2014), one of the most important roles of tour guides is to facilitate the *connection of customers with contexts*, and communication is then central. One can argue the guide or other humans like local inhabitants, operate as a mediator staging attention and interpretation (see e.g. Arnould & Price, 1993; Ooi, 2005) or as broker (see e.g. Wenger, 2003) between the customer and the other/objects. Through storytelling the guide or others contributes with richness and knowledge, facilitates increased meaning, learning, fun, etc. that increases value. Meeting locals and their hospitality also significantly add value, partly due to the openness and friendliness beyond all expectation, but also due to letting they glimpse a different life/time, and an authentic, unique and not commercialized experience. Such close meetings and storytelling we interpret as one of three modes of *immersion* observed in the material. According to Hansen & Mossberg (2013), immersion is important for value creation and is therefore something one should seek to facilitate when designing and when operating as tour guide.

Types of value created

The analyzes of three sea kayaking cases shows that the main type of value created are:

- *Social value:*

- social needs like laughter, talking, opening up, relating, togetherness, connecting, bonding;
- becoming and behaving like a pair/group (attentive, interactions within, bonding, identity, community);
- team working like carrying kayaks, camping tasks;
- caring for each others: help, sharing food/drinks, looking after
- *Learning/epistemic value:*
 - Do something new, go to a new place, meet new people
 - Learn about self, others, nature, culture, objects, techniques.
 - Become more experienced within the wildlife practice, increase or change meaning/understanding, identity, skills, etc. through doing.
 - Existential, transformational
- *Emotional value:*
 - During: Mix of calm, no stress, enjoyment, feel whole and alive, bonding with/connect with others/nature, pressure, struggle, unsafe, angry, pain; two main different immersions (calm peaceful; attentive active)
 - After: Coping and pride (the more hell, the more pride); wellness
- *Physical/bodily value:*
 - Engage in physical activity, sensing and involving larger/other parts of the body, almost immediate
 - Open up for other types of value
 - Exercise muscles, fitness, health
 - feel alive, wellness;
- *Identity value:*
 - meaning, self-development,

- testing one self,
- personal branding, showing of after
- Existential, transformational
- *Nostalgic value:*
 - Stories to tell; pictures to show; objects to show (shell, stone)
 - Share with others after (friends/family not participating, with others in the group),
 - Help remembering, relive, keep the value of the tour alive and long
- *Functional value:*
 - Transportation from A to B;
 - Cover basic physical needs (eat to get energy, sleep, get to the toilet, get warm)
 - Safety: cannot go alone; the package tour gives access to safety (local guide, rescue each others) and hence to the experience of wildlife and places

These types of value have been localized in earlier studies, in particular the emotional, social, physical and epistemic (termed intellectual) by e.g. Dube & LeBel (2003); and Sweeney & Soutar (2001) include the functional, emotional, social and epistemic in their typology. Identity value and nostalgic value are less elaborated.

All informants doing kayaking seek more balance in life, wanting to do something else than everyday life and to have active physical holidays and leisure time, arguing it creates energy and value in life. There is often more than one reason to go or value created, and *the types of value created seem intertwined* as well. This proposition is illustrated in the quotes below:

“I got the experience of nature, the safety and the physical exercise. To me the struggling is part of the experience. The landscape was more monotone this time,

while the group larger which made it better since it was more social. The meeting with locals was great this time, amazing stories and hospitality, people with personality expressing themselves, that is unforgettable and is what you tell about when getting home” (K-A-2, man)

“I wanted to see the nature from another angle than from fast boats, you see more details with kayak. And I wanted to be active, to get the physical exercise. Also I wanted to meet new people, and some I knew from before. I wanted to develop myself, learn things like planning, packing and orienting on tours like that” (K-B-4, female)

The total experience has not only different parts/circles as suggested by Sundbo & Hagedorn-Rasmussen (2008), they also creates different types of value. The second informant described her motivation before, and when sense making after the tour, she point at how the tour was far more than paddling, there were many dimensions like hiking and visits to locals which she see as very positive. She value high the closeness to nature, the coping with paddling, and being with people. Still the tour was harder and more painful than imaged. The social was ok, but not as great as she had hoped, the group, the tour guides and she co-created that.

The functional value is not the most significant for the consumers, but since it influence on the total experience it must be cared for both when working with innovations and when producing. In particularly one of the kayaking cases (when they got the strong wind and time pressure), the last day was experienced mainly as a day about transportation, i.e. it became almost only functional, which suppressed the creation of other types of value during the day. However it got a positive meaning later, which shows the importance of *taking a dynamic approach when studying or facilitating for value creation*. Also strong hunger, need to get to the toilet, or being too exhausted, afraid, cold, etc. could overshadow the ability to participate in the creation of emotional value such as enjoying seeing animals or beautiful

landscape, or creation of social value through talk and humor. The informants were not focusing on functional value; it was the other types of value that motivated them. The functional value types mostly covered activities that were instrumental for achieving intrinsic, autotelic, value (see Holbrook, 1999; 2005).

FURTHER DISCUSSION AND CLOSING REMARKS

This paper contributes with a more multi-dimensional and dynamic approach to consumer value and value creation with a focus on and conceptual frame of six types of customer-interactions.

Firstly, we have shown and elaborated *seven main types of consumer value* created during extraordinary multiday total experiences. Some of them have overlap with the value types suggested by others (Dube & KeBel, 2003; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Schau et al., 2009). The study shows how functional value, as depicted by the exchange paradigm (Bagizzi, 1975), is not as relevant for studying total experiences as the intrinsic value types (see Holbrook, 2005). Also the study shows that the types of value often are *intertwined* as argued by Karababa & Kjeldgaard (2014). Our study shows for example that doing/learning something new are vital reasons to go, and part of the value created, but seldom operates alone. It contributes to, and can be intertwined with, the other value types such as social, emotional, identity, and/or functional value. Sundbo, et al (2013) argues that experience products often seem multidimensional since they often are designed as a mix of entertainment, learning and social gathering. One can argue, design mix facilitates different and hence a mix of *multi-dimensional* value types.

Secondly, we have shown (in Figure 2) and elaborated *categories of how each of the six main types of customer-interactions can create and drain value*. Some categories revealed are more novel, such as how care for other customers both creates and drain value; and the importance of meeting the locals with authentic storytelling and hospitality. Pearce (2013)

argues that tourism firms more often should facilitate for meeting the locals and learning about their everyday life, the ordinary for the locals can be extraordinary for tourists. Some categories are well known from previous research about tour guides; like the importance of storytelling and connecting (e.g. Mossberg, 2008; Mathisen, 2014). The importance of different CI's varies across person, product and subsector as claimed also by Holbrook (1999; 2005), but it do so also across time and space within a customer journey, since a total experience is dynamic and more or less subjective. The relational and dynamic time and space has been addressed by writers like Ek et al. (2008), Lindberg, et al. (2014), and is here shown and elaborated also empirically.

Thirdly, we showed how *different types of CI can be related and intertwined in the total experience* during the journey. This has also been argued by Eide & Mossberg (2013), when they suggested focusing on potentially all six interaction types, but two at a time, when analyzing and improving the product portfolio, or when working with innovations. This paper shows the need to be able to focus on, and take care of, more than two CI's at a time. It is important to address them carefully as intertwined when working with innovations (such as experience design) and to facilitate and care/cope with them in both prepared and spontaneous ways when being tour guides as the journey emerge. The intertwinedness of types of value and of CI's shows the need of professionalism and holistic competence and innovations, that not only focus on one part or only the core activity of e.g. wildlife practicing (paddling), but the total experience as a whole.

Forth, *active co-creation of value* is present in all the cases in different degrees and in different ways. Binkhors & Dekker (2009 p. 312) argue that "Co-creation will increase value for human beings in the experience economy". One can argue there is always some degree of co-creation due to sensing, perceiving and meaning construction, but this is not unique for experience economy, and it can be argued a more passive inner co-creation and part of being

human. The more active holistic co-creations involves the whole person and body more, and can involve different people, and be of less control by the firm. Some describes it as personal interaction (ibid), or as personalized experiences instead of staged (Volo, 2009). The cases involve not only valued resources (objects); resources are transformed into increased meaning and value through the rich storytelling (activity/processes of doing), unique meetings with authentic locals, the practicing of wildlife, etc. The physical environment is not only something gazed at (as a backdrop scenery) or as making the physical conditions and infrastructure for physical exercise. It is connected with through the CI's, not least through the humans and the multi-dimensions (physical, emotional, mentally) ways consumers are actively involved. Therefore the physical space is transformed into also symbolic, social and performance experience spaces (Edenson, 2001). Knowledge about how customers can actively be involved and connect is important knowledge to use in innovations and co-production.

In sum, these findings about different types of value, the roles of different CI's as drivers and drainers of consumer value creations, and how they can be intertwined and multi-dimensional, have implications for innovation, management of production and tour guiding since it addresses what is most critical to carefully focus on. Also it indicates that innovations should not only focus on product innovations, since the categories can be systemized within different and intertwined innovation types. This paper draw upon studies in one (to be three) subsectors mainly situated within nature-based tourism. There is a need of further cases within these three subsectors with other firms and/or with other informant types (international consumers, managers, employees, cooperators). Also there is a need of studies within other nature-based subsectors and within subsectors focusing mainly on culture or food based experiences. There is also a need to use and test the new understanding of customer value and how they are created and drained in studies of innovation and management.

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Evaluation of Rural Tourism Projects – A Respondent Perspective

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ABSTRACT

Despite tourism scholars highlighting the use of evaluation as a tool in managing the development of tourism, few evaluation studies form an integral part of tourism development practice, a situation exacerbated by the fragmented nature of the tourism sector and the diversity of its actors. Selecting stakeholders for inclusion in the evaluation process is conflict ridden since evaluation findings may threaten entrenched interests and highlight controversial issues and perspectives. This article attempts to establish how rural tourism project evaluation should be implemented; who should participate in such evaluation; and with whom responsibility for the management of the evaluation should lie. In consideration of the complexities of the topic, a hybrid approach, utilising quantitative research sequentially followed by a qualitative investigation, was adopted. Participation was solicited from academics, consultants in the field of tourism, public sector officials representing the various tiers of government and their agencies, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), rural tourism project managers and private sector tourism operators in order to draw upon a cross-section of expertise within the subject area. Respondents commented on the locational context of rural tourism project evaluation and suggested that projects should be divided into

three categories dependent on the local level of tourism development. Pre-implementation evaluation was perceived as that most commonly undertaken with minimal evaluation taking place during the operational phase where operators' priorities centre on maximising profit and evaluation is perceived as intrusive and irrelevant. Whilst some respondents suggested that the evaluation process should be incentivised, non-conformist interviewees argued that the requirement for rural tourism projects to be evaluated should be legislated. The local authority was predominantly perceived as the institution with which responsibility for evaluation should rest, however, the lack of capacity of local authorities to undertake this responsibility was expressed as problematic.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism scholars highlight the use of evaluation as a tool in managing the development of tourism. Despite this, few evaluation studies appear to form an integral part of tourism development practice. Nevertheless, Hall (2000) alleges that systematic evaluation is becoming a more common constituent of tourism policy and planning. Scholars argue that 'prior to, or at least concurrent with, the promotion of a programme of rural tourism as an economic development strategy, better evaluations of current efforts are needed' (Luloff et al, 1994:62) and posit that developing tourism policy and plans without regular, systematic evaluation of tourism at local level negates the value of the entire process (Middleton and Hawkins, 1998; Wall and Dibnah, 1992). Numerous authors (Middleton and Hawkins, 1998; Dearden, 1993; Wall and Dibnah, 1992) emphasize that it is at local level that monitoring, evaluation, planning and management of tourism should occur. Whilst concurring with the importance of evaluation, Butler (1993: 27) perceives that gaining an understanding of 'the views of the actors involved' is equally important. However, the fragmented nature of the rural tourism sector, and the mounting number of actors within the rural tourism arena,

renders the determination of who should be classified as legitimate stakeholders in rural tourism both complex and problematic. Whilst Jamal and Getz (1995:188) define stakeholders as ‘actors with an interest in a common problem or issues and include all individuals, groups or organizations directly influenced by the actions others take to solve a problem’, Gray (1985:922) argues that to be ‘perceived as legitimate, stakeholders must also have the capacity to participate’. The multiplicity of stakeholders, with conflicting and sometimes irreconcilable opinions and differing levels of capacity, thus exacerbates the complexity of identifying those stakeholders with a legitimate claim to involvement in the evaluation process. This article is divided into three primary themes. The first pertains to the implementation of the evaluation of rural tourism projects. The second focuses on the responsibility for the management of such evaluation, while the third relates to stakeholder participation in the evaluation process.

Evaluation: A Conceptual Clarification

Notwithstanding the widespread practice of evaluation, a review of the literature reveals dissension with regard to its interpretation. The Latin origins of the word ‘evaluate’ mean ‘to strengthen’ or ‘to empower’. In practice the term has, however, come to denote measurements of worth or value and is often viewed as threatening. For example, Scriven (1991:139), an eminent scholar, defines evaluation as ‘the process of determining the merit, worth, or value,’ of something. To describe the ‘thing’ (product, project, program, process) being evaluated Scriven coined the term evaluand. Scriven is adamant that evaluation is about valuing and is critical of evaluators who define it as the provision of information or a means of empowerment and believes that the use of its findings is unrelated to its purpose which is deciding what is good or bad about the evaluand (Scriven 1986a).

Conversely, Patton (1999:13) refers to evaluation as a ‘reality testing’ exercise, which utilizes logic and evidence, to establish whether what is believed to be true of the evaluand, is in fact ‘real’ or factual. Patton’s (1997:28) concept of evaluation thus implies a ‘common sense connotation of finding out what is happening’. The utilisation-focused evaluation approach propounded by Patton is defined as:

The systematic collection of information about the activities, characteristics and outcomes of programmes to make judgments about the programme, improve programme effectiveness and/or inform decisions about future programming. Utilization-focused evaluation...is evaluation done for and with specific, intended primary users for specific, intended uses (Patton, 1997:23).

Pawson and Tilley (1997:xii) similarly champion the concept of ‘realistic evaluation’ which they conceive as context-dependent, encompassing understanding of the balance in relationships between individuals and organisations, behaviours and interventions, power-plays and interdependencies and the choices available to the people involved. Pawson and Tilley (1997:xiv) contend that ‘being realistic means trying to perfect a particular method of evaluation which will work for a specific class of project’. Fetterman (2001:3), adopting an empowerment approach to evaluation, argues that ‘the assessment of a programme’s value and worth is not the endpoint of the evaluation ...but is part of an ongoing process of programme improvement’. He emphasises that empowerment evaluation is a collaborative and participative activity in which issues of concern to an entire community are openly debated. The empowerment approach has, however, received harsh criticism from other evaluation experts, such as Scriven.

Analysis of the diverse approaches and interpretations of evaluation and selecting that most appropriate for utilization in the evaluation of rural tourism projects is complex. The preponderance of the prolific volume of academic evaluation literature is focused on educational or social welfare programmes and projects whilst there are minimal studies

pertaining to the evaluation of rural tourism projects or their impacts upon the rural environment.

Stakeholder Participation in the Evaluation of Rural Tourism Projects

Because of the negative connotations inherent in evaluation, the relationships and utilisation of power and control between evaluation participants is crucial. Evaluation, which should be a learning and capacity building tool, is frequently looked upon as a means whereby those in authority achieve more control (United Nations Development Programme, 1997; The United States Agency for International Development, 1996). Identifying which stakeholders will participate in the evaluation of rural tourism projects is thus critically important. Patton posits that participation is dependent on commitment to the evaluation process and a valid interest in the utilization of its findings ‘...evaluation stakeholders are people who have a stake – a vested interest - in the evaluation findings’ (Patton, 1997:41). Development agencies (United Nations Development Programme, 1997; United States Agency for International Development, 1996) however report that it is not uncommon that participants attempt to hijack proceedings in order to further their own agendas or that evaluation results are viewed as subjective since stakeholders with vested interests participate.

Implementing and Utilising Evaluation Findings

A challenge in facilitating the use of evaluation findings is the possibility that results may threaten entrenched interests and highlight controversial issues and perspectives (Shadish et al, 1991). This factor is prevalent in tourism where the plethora of actors, each with their own agenda and opinions, pose a constraint in reaching accord on tourism related issues. Rural tourism project operators will not want to hear negative reports about their projects and will

need to be persuaded that learning from mistakes identified through evaluation is a cognitive and capacity building process (Patton, 1999).

Patton (1997, 1999) argues that the audience to whom, and the manner in which, evaluation results are presented are decisive in determining if findings are constructively utilised. He claims that the utilisation of evaluation results is dependent upon how well the participants have been prepared from the inception of the evaluation planning process toward putting the findings to use. Development agencies argue that evaluation findings, based on empirical evidence, must be presented in a factual, simple and easily interpreted format (Curnan et al, 1998; United Nations Development Programme, 1997). Recommendations and proposals for action must be clear and focus on improving the project evaluated. Both positive and negative lessons learned from the evaluation, in particular those relating to best and worst practices, should form an important element of the evaluation report (United Nations Development Programme, 1997). 'The style, format, content and process of reporting should all be geared toward intended use by intended users' (Patton, 1997:331).

Responsibility for the Evaluation of Rural Tourism Projects

Notwithstanding the importance of the public sector as the architect of tourism policy, there is scepticism with regard to its understanding of rural tourism and thus to the proficiency with which its responsibilities are executed. Whilst the degree of government intervention is largely determined by current political philosophy, its intervention in rural tourism is generally based upon the sector's perceived contribution to the rural economy (Hall and Jenkins, 1998). The problem is exacerbated by the fact that different levels of government tend to have tourism objectives that bifurcate from those levels above or below them (McKercher, 1999) whilst limited demarcation of responsibilities between tiers of

government may lead to ubiquitous role incertitude and lack of direction (Briedenhann and Butts, 2003).

Conflicting intra-government interests and priorities can play havoc with the tourism policy agenda, particularly where control of tourism resources rests with more than one department (Mowforth and Munt, 1998). The diverse and fragmented nature of tourism as a sector, together with over-lapping functions in government departments, creates confusion as to where responsibility and control is vested. Hall and Jenkins argue that local community control of rural tourism is crucial, implying that it is at local government, the closest institution on the ground and putatively neutral and working for the benefit of the wider community, that sound management and evaluation of rural tourism can best be implemented. However, whilst academics (Hall and Jenkins, 1998; Jefferies, 2001) agree that local government are best placed to manage the intricacies of tourism, they also assert that public sector lack of knowledge, understanding and commitment to the industry is most prevalent at this level. The designation of responsibility for the evaluation of rural tourism projects to the public sector, in particular at local level, is thus likely to be fragmented and ineffective.

METHODOLOGY

In consideration of the complexities of the rural tourism sector a hybrid research approach was adopted with a view to minimising the weakness of any single technique in procuring the data required. The study, distinguished by an emphasis on the practical application of the research findings, was thus designed to utilise a Delphi Survey, supplemented by a focus group and semi-structured interviews.

Issues in relation to evaluation are, as evidenced by the literature, encapsulated in a complex political and social environment and characterized by diverse stakeholders each with their own overriding interests and agendas. Originally developed as a forecasting tool through

which to solicit opinion from a group of experts, the Delphi Technique is increasingly gaining recognition as a means of consensus building and has been utilized in numerous tourism studies (Green and Hunter, 1992; Korca, 1992; Seddighi et al, 1999; Kearsley et al, 1999; Tideswell, Mules and Faulkner, 2001; Mayaka and King, 2002; Miller, 2001). Utilisation of the Delphi Technique called for the careful, deliberate selection of prospective panellists in order to increase the likelihood that the variances of opinion and expertise in the rural tourism field would be represented in the data collected. Participation was solicited from academics, consultants in the field of tourism, public sector tourism officials and their agencies, managers of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) involved in rural tourism projects, rural tourism project managers and private sector tourism operators in order to draw upon a cross-section of expertise within the subject area. The selection of panellists from two countries (South Africa and Britain) ensured further diversification of the expert panel and allowed for the comparison of issues considered of consequence between experts geographically located in countries between which the stage of development of the rural tourism sector differs substantially. Sixty panellists participated in the Delphi Survey. Despite the length of the Delphi questionnaire, 75% of these panellists participated from the inception of the survey, through four rounds, to its conclusion – a participation rate that, in comparison with other Delphi studies (Mayaka and King, 2002; Pan et al, 1995; Spenceley, 2000) is exceptionally high underscoring Veal's (1997:196) assertion that:

factors, such as the topic and the presentation of the questionnaire, are more important than the length of the questionnaire...if the topic is interesting to the respondent and is well presented then length is not an issue.

Quantitative research, which yielded information on which questions required further probing, was sequentially followed by qualitative investigation designed to better understand the multi-faceted aspects of rural tourism project evaluation and to derive confidence in the findings of the Delphi survey. Utilisation of a focus group and semi-structured interviews as

supplementary research methods allowed for the reinforcement of the key findings in order to increase validity and for the further probing of issues that had emerged during the Delphi Survey. Whilst the initial intention had been to restrict participation in the second phase of the research to those experts who had been involved in the Delphi Survey, emergent data indicated the need for the inclusion of persons not involved who could, by virtue of academic expertise or on-the-ground rural tourism experience, augment the data previously collected.

It is argued that the quality of data generated by focus group discussion is dependent upon the quality of the group members who should be selected on the basis of common experience, similar levels of understanding pertinent to the topic and capacity to provide stimulating, quality input (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990; Carey, 1994; Gibbs, 1997 Greenbaum, 1998). The six-member focus group consisted of equal representation from the public and private sectors, a factor considered important in maintaining balanced viewpoints and ensuring that one sector did not feel intimidated by the other.

Soliciting the opinion of interviewees with significant, in-depth knowledge and understanding (Frechtling and Sharp 1997; Patton, 1990) of the development and management of rural tourism projects was considered essential. Purposive sampling was thus practiced for the semi-structured interviews, with consideration given to selecting interviewees from diverse geographical locations and from different levels of the rural tourism sector. The utilisation of complementary quantitative and qualitative research methods facilitated the accommodation of disparate opinions, solicited from a diverse range of actors within the rural tourism domain. This was considered essential to the credibility of the research findings.

Presentation and Discussion of the Findings

Discussion of the findings is divided into three themes. The first pertains to implementation of the evaluation of rural tourism projects, the second to the responsibility for the management of such evaluation, and the third to stakeholder participation in the evaluation process.

Implementing Rural Tourism Project Evaluation

The application of evaluation in rural tourism projects was highlighted as a source of concern by Delphi panellists. Opinion as to its implementation was divided with some respondents in favour of the concept and others fiercely opposed to it. Contextual issues raised by panellists, such as differences in scale, scope, location and ownership of projects highlighted the complexities. Questions asked of respondents in the focus group and semi-structured interviews sought to establish how the respondent perceived that the evaluation of rural tourism projects should be implemented and where responsibility for such evaluation should lie. Three statements, submissions to the scoping round of the Delphi Survey, were included in subsequent Delphi questionnaires.

	SA/BR x	M	%	SD	SA x	M	%	BR x	M	%
Similar, successful rural tourism projects should where possible be used for comparative purposes.	3.22	3	88%	0.64	3.36	3	93%	3.04	3	83%
Lessons learned from project evaluation should be transferred to other rural tourism projects.	3.25	3	88%	0.72	3.45	4	96%	3.00	3	78%
Results of rural tourism project evaluation should be fed back into the planning/policy process.	3.25	4	81%	0.76	3.36	4	82%	3.13	3	79%

Table 1.1 Use of evaluation findings

SA/BR = Combined South Africa/Britain

SA= South African

BR= British

Mean = Arithmetic Mean M = Mode %= Percentage of the panel who rated the statement 3 (important) or 4 (essential) SD = Standard Deviation

Eighty-eight percent of the Delphi panel agreed that, where possible, similar, successful projects should be used for comparative purposes. Consultants (93%) and the operational sector (92%) perceived this as particularly important. The panel was equally (88%) in

agreement that lessons learned from project evaluation should be transferred to other rural tourism projects. South Africans (96%) were significantly more supportive than their British counterparts (78%). Eighty-one percent of the panel recognised the relevance of evaluation results being fed back into the tourism policy and planning process. However, whilst academics (92%), the operational sector (85%) and consultants (80%) were in support of this statement, the public sector (69%), to which it should have been of consequence, was not. Delphi panellists suggested that the results of post-implementation evaluation of publicly funded projects, especially those that had failed should, within limits of commercial sensitivity, be disseminated. Panellists also suggested that the results of rural tourism project evaluation should be fed back to operators. South African support for evaluation was well encapsulated in the statement that ‘all destinations should have effective and ongoing evaluation systems otherwise nobody has any idea of how well or how badly we are doing’ (Consultant panellist).

The lack of importance attached by the public sector to the issue of feedback of evaluation findings into the policy and planning process underscores the public sector lack of capacity previously identified. As Curnan et al (1998) argue the policy environment in which projects operate may, in the long-term, be more important to their ultimate success and to the sustainability of the resources upon which they are built and consume, than either creativity or innovation. It is asserted that evaluation should be adopted as an integral part of tourism policy and planning and that its value lies in providing both knowledge and practical information, most particularly that related to deviations in policy or plan implementation and changes in objectives (Elliott, 1997; Hall, 2000). Such information facilitates informed decision-making in important spheres such as the allocation of resources or the adaptation of policies in line with changing circumstance (Hall, 2000).

Delphi panellists professed that pre-implementation evaluation should be undertaken to help inform decisions about individual projects and should include evidence of the way a project would benefit the local community. Panellists intimated that the evaluation of social impacts was problematic and that consideration of sociocultural factors should be built into projects from the outset. However, whilst focus group members agreed that the potential social impacts of a project should be evaluated prior to implementation this 'would be based on guesswork'. It can nonetheless be argued that the aggregation of information and knowledge generated will facilitate informed decision-making and, where indicated, adaptation to policy and plans with a view to proactively ameliorating the negative impacts identified and widening opportunity to capitalise on benefits.

The Context of Rural Tourism Project Evaluation

Panellists highlighted that the stage of development of both project and the rural area in which it is located will influence the context in which evaluation is undertaken. In particular consultants pointed out: 1) that there would be differences between evaluation conducted in the pre-implementation and operational phases of projects; 2) that the degree of development of the area in which projects were located would influence the criteria against which projects would be evaluated; and 3) that criteria would differ between first and third world environments and between developed and less-developed areas within such environments. It was suggested that projects should be divided into three categories: 1) projects located in areas with no previous tourism development where an inclusive and comprehensive framework of criteria was required; 2) projects located in areas in early stages of tourism development in which a selected framework of criteria was required; and 3) projects located in areas with increasing tourism development, which also required a selected framework of criteria. The rural tourism project may be situated on a stage-based continuum from pre-start-

up to post closedown. Similarly the location of the project may range on a continuum from totally undeveloped/wilderness area to a well-established/near urban rural tourism area (Page and Getz, 1997).

Delphi panellists, particularly consultants, emphasised that projects vary in scope, scale and type and that each is unique, posing a challenge for comparison across areas or regions. The choice of criteria for evaluation of a particular project would depend on local circumstances, the nature of the project, its objectives and its likely impact on the local economy and community. Whilst there were some generic issues that cut across projects, evaluation should be tailored to the needs and requirements of the specific initiative - 'post-implementation will be dictated by the nature of the project, the rate of development and the rogue factors that emerge during the course of implementation' (British consultant).

The complexity is exacerbated by the lack of a universally accepted definition of rural tourism and the fact that projects are heterogeneous. On one hand rural tourism ventures are said to be small-scale and rural in character (Lane, 1994a). On the other hand many large-scale resort type complexes and leisure developments are located in rural areas (Butler et al, 1998; Sharpley and Sharpley, 1997). Respondents added to the complexities arguing that rural tourism projects should be divorced from the small-scale dictum that has held sway and that primary concern should be whether it is the sort of project that optimises regional development 'something acting as a mega attraction, as a magnet to bring tourists in' (British academic). 'Rural tourism should maximise the benefits that the attraction can deliver within the context of what is acceptable to the host community. The scale should be determined by the opportunity and the aspirations/acceptance of the host community' (South African consultant).

It is an underlying principle of utilization-focused evaluation that it is tailored to the specific context in which it takes place. Like respondents to this research Patton (1999:40) argues the imperative that the evaluation is 'matched' to the particular situation and that the evaluator must work with those who will use the information generated to ensure that the evaluation is tailored to the context of the project and the concerns of the users. A useful, practical, ethical and accurate evaluation emerges from the special characteristics and conditions of a particular situation (Patton, 1997). Deciding on which criteria should be used in project evaluation must thus be determined consultatively between the various project stakeholders and potential users of the evaluation findings.

Pre-implementation evaluation is the most common. The greatest proportion, however, pertains to financial assessment in support of applications for external or public sector investment or funding.

We ring fence money that project sponsors can access from us as a county council. We establish a very complicated appraisal system. We have a monitor responsible for reporting of projects. It's a process of mostly telephone and meetings with a number of organisations, boards and groups involved in the monitoring process. You can't bend the rules in any way. The issue is claw-back of the funds, a nightmare for everybody (British Public Sector).

Included in this system are criteria such as the generation of employment, the attraction of extra visitors to the area, and the undertaking of environmental enhancements. By contrast once funds have been allocated public sector evaluation is not rigorous. Whilst long-term monitoring of the economic, employment and social impacts should take place that very rarely happens.

'Somebody might do an economic impact appraisal to support the bid, but thereafter everybody who's given the money is onto the next project or the funding programme has ended so they're not bothered. There isn't that much ex-post evaluation going on' (British consultant).

Despite the fact that most respondents tended to focus on the pre-implementation evaluation of projects, the importance of ongoing evaluation was acknowledged:

Evaluation should take place when the project is conceived, then six months and a year into the project. The other critical one is usually three years because that's your break-even point. Then definitely ongoing, because any project has to continually re-invent itself so that it can keep on being something good (South African Operator). Rubin (1995) is of the opinion that evaluation that encourages informed decision-making and improved project design should take place at regular intervals throughout the project lifetime. Long (1993) similarly expounds the need for preliminary evaluation during the project-planning phase, followed by evaluation and feedback during the operational phase. The concept of ongoing evaluation of rural tourism projects is however fraught with tension since operators' priorities centre on maximising tourist numbers and optimising profits and evaluation is likely to be perceived as intrusive, irrelevant and curtailing freedom.

How Should The Evaluation of Rural Tourism Projects Be Implemented?

Respondents had diverse opinions with regard to how the evaluation of rural tourism projects should be implemented. Consultants expressed concern that evaluation could be over bureaucratic and a barrier to entry, especially in the case of small projects. 'An over bureaucratic approach could kill off worthy projects before they get started (British consultant).

Comment from focus group members was positive. 'If there was a decent evaluation framework included in planning many projects would not fail'. It was envisaged that evaluation could play an invaluable role in providing guidelines for the public sector from planning for development and infrastructure to formulating tourism policy. Members of the group intimated that evaluation should be based on incentives rather than regulation. Incentives could, for example, be offered where projects met criteria such as use of local products, selling local goods (for example handicrafts) or including new projects in tours. Focus group members envisaged that such criteria would then be taken into consideration by developers in their project planning process.

South African interviewees generally favoured the ‘carrot rather than the stick’ approach. They claimed that legislative structures did not work and that people would find ways in which to circumvent regulation. Conversely, if incentives were offered, operators would comply in their own self-interest. A variety of incentives suggested included accreditation, increased exposure from tourism boards, and the provision of public agency marketing opportunities for tour operators and projects that incorporated community benefits. Recognition could also be rewarded through awards programmes for complying with key criteria. Conversely projects that did not meet criteria could be prohibited from receiving public sector marketing support or from joining local or regional tourism associations. It was also suggested that incentives should be provided for operators to enter into partnerships with the community. Projects should make a commitment to meet criteria over a period of time and there should be clarity as to how milestones would be measured. The point was made that evaluation should be conducive to growth and added value rather than restrictive. British respondents also raised the idea of incentives suggesting that existing accreditation schemes could give projects that met criteria a stamp of approval that could be used as a marketing tool.

Not all respondents were of the view that evaluation should be incentive based. Non-conformist interviewees of both countries opined that the requirement for rural tourism projects to be evaluated should be legislated. ‘Evaluation should be obligatory. Evaluation is good business practice and it is good policy practice’ (South African operator). British respondents were more tentative. When asked how evaluation of rural tourism projects should be implemented a consultant replied ‘this is very difficult. Evaluation issues are very new stuff’. British academics recognized that the evaluation of rural tourism projects was a difficult concept. ‘It seems to be a virtually impossible task trying to provide key principles or trying to model this. I think rural tourism would be more successful if we knew the

answers'. Academics generally agreed that criteria for project evaluation should be incorporated in the initial project proposal and business plan, in practice, however, this seldom happened. The point was made that a clear agenda of what the evaluation should achieve was imperative. Evaluation criteria should be measurable and only cover areas in which information would be available to make quantifiable judgement. This, however, implies that many sociocultural criteria, which are difficult to measure quantifiably, would be discarded.

Public sector interviewees confirmed that there were currently neither criteria for, nor evaluation of, self-funded projects. There was a free market and if project developers had funding there was little, other than a contravention of planning regulations, to stop projects going ahead. Whilst councils would like to have input to ensure that the region and its communities benefited from tourism it was perceived to be difficult for councils with limited power to control project developers. 'In the wider public interest we want to encourage the right kind of rural tourism to get maximum benefit for visitors and the wider economy so that everybody wins' (British public sector). Whilst some respondents were unsure as to whether private sector enterprises needed to be evaluated, it was conceded that development agencies should 'be looking at what is actually going on in terms of rural tourism provision' (British academic).

South African respondents were generally more supportive of the concept of evaluation, referred to as 'ground-breaking stuff' (consultant). British respondents were unsure and gave the impression that evaluation of rural tourism projects was 'very new stuff' (British consultant). Other interviewees perceived the benefits of evaluation as a learning process, enhancing understanding of what was happening in the rural tourism sector.

If we have evaluation at least we have a learning experience that we could apply again and again and make sure that next time we got it better. It's a continuous thing and in that continuity you could get learning that you could apply to other projects (South African Operator).

A change of attitude will be needed if rural tourism stakeholders are to perceive evaluation as learning, rather than a judgmental or bureaucratic, process. Kaplan (1999) argues that the better the concept of evaluation is understood, the less threatening it becomes and the more likely that its benefits are recognised. Patton (1999:24) concurs that the findings from an evaluation should assist in identifying strengths and weaknesses of a project and generating understanding required for its improvement, serving as an agent of capacity building and providing valuable lessons that can be transferred to other projects.

The benefits of evaluation have wider implications. On the one hand information generated from evaluating rural tourism projects will be important to the public sector in building a composite picture of what is happening at the local level and cumulatively at regional and national level. This information can be used in informing the direction to be followed in tourism planning and in establishing minimum standards for accreditation or licensing purposes. On the other hand lessons learned at project level will cumulatively strengthen the rural tourism business sector. Striking a balance between those criteria perceived as obligatory and those merely desirable was deemed important. It is thus possible that criteria considered 'obligatory' should be introduced in the short-term, whilst conformance with wider ranging 'desirable' criteria becomes a medium to longer-term objective. Further work is required to determine which criteria are perceived as obligatory and which merely desirable.

Who Should Be Responsible For The Evaluation Of Rural Tourism Projects?

The issue of where responsibility for the evaluation of rural tourism projects should rest elicited a range of responses. In the focus group it was proposed that there was a need for a partnership between government, the private sector and a prominent sector of the community 'institutionally mandated to be the implementers of evaluation and the policeman of the

criteria'. Although the word 'policeman' smacks of bureaucracy, several South African interviewees favoured the committee type approach - 'the ideal model is a committee of local, regional and central representatives from both business and government' (South African operator). 'It should be done as a joint venture between industry associations and tourism authorities at local and provincial level. A special capacity should be created' (South African public sector). It was, however, perceived that few government institutions and tourism structures had the expertise to assess the tourism potential and impact of rural tourism projects. Other interviewees argued that it was a local authority responsibility.

The public sector, at local authority level, is the only one with the credibility to perform the task. Problem is that the local authority lacks expertise to collect, correlate and analyse the information or to create a methodology to undertake evaluation (British consultant).

Nonetheless, respondents commonly recognised the role of the local authority, perceived as the most apposite institution by virtue of their perceived neutrality and representation of wider community interest, as the central agency.

British respondents were overwhelmingly of the opinion that there was no single authority with the competence to accept this responsibility. Although various authorities (Departments of Town and Country Planning, local authorities, environmental organisations, enterprise companies, tourist boards) were mentioned in relation to the evaluation of economic and environmental criteria no mention was made of social criteria. Respondents acknowledged that there did not appear to be any organisation with the necessary competency to undertake this function. In both South Africa and Britain academic respondents, who perceived that individual agencies would not have the resources to undertake evaluation on their own, widely supported the possible role of universities.

Judging from responses in both Britain and South Africa it becomes apparent that there is no authority with the capacity to assume the mantle of responsibility for the evaluation of rural

tourism projects. An additional problem is the lack of co-operation and co-ordination existing between authorities and other public sector organisations. A British academic endorsed this problem:

It's one of the problems. We've put projects forward for funding and they say "well we don't have anybody to properly evaluate this" and then they try and farm it out and it goes round and round in circles. Nobody feels that they are appropriate to undertake it but they don't want to come together to pool their resources and create some sort of synergy.

Two important issues emerged from the previous discussion. First academic respondents recognised the role that universities can play as facilitators in the evaluation process. Second is the realisation of the imperative that rural tourism operators buy into and take ownership of the concept of evaluation:

The trade is nervous of being asked for information. They must be told why and must be assured of confidentiality. They must be convinced that the process will be used to produce valuable information for people in the trade (British consultant).

Acceptance of evaluation by the rural tourism sector will entail education with regard to its merits. Lack of capacity and paucity of in-depth business and tourism knowledge have been identified as major constraints throughout the rural tourism sector (Mckercher and Robbins, 1998; Roberts and Hall, 2001). The importance of the knowledge generated to inform decision-making, to create greater understanding of rural tourism amongst local authorities and ultimately to lead to more appropriate rural tourism policy and planning must be accentuated. Although the public sector should assume leadership of the process, it is imperative that evaluation should be both participatory and utilisation-focused thus building a sense of ownership amongst participants making them more receptive to the evaluation findings (Patton, 1999).

Participation in the Evaluation of Rural Tourism Projects

Delphi panellists rated the perceived importance of diverse stakeholders for inclusion in the process of evaluating rural tourism projects.

	SA/BR x	M	%	SD	SA x	M	%	BR x	M	%
Local Councils/Authorities	3.63	4	98%	0.53	3.71	4	100%	3.52	4	96%
Funding Agencies	3.59	4	96%	0.57	3.64	4	100%	3.52	4	91%
National Parks/Protected Areas within the region	3.50	4	94%	0.61	3.63	4	93%	3.35	3	96%
Regional/District/County Councils	3.48	4	90%	0.68	3.57	4	89%	3.36	3	91%
Local Tourism Organisations	3.40	4	88%	0.69	3.57	4	93%	3.20	3	82%
Regional/Provincial Tourism Boards	3.24	3	84%	0.72	3.36	4	86%	3.09	3	82%
Community Organisations/ Committees	3.31	4	82%	0.76	3.46	4	82%	3.13	3	83%
Heritage Management Organisations within the region	3.18	3	80%	0.74	3.36	4	82%	2.96	3	78%
Regional Tourism Organisations	3.25	4	80%	0.81	3.41	4	85%	3.07	4	73%
Tourism Industry Organisations (Tour Operator/ Hotelier etc)	2.96	3	72%	0.73	3.11	3	79%	2.77	3	64%
Political Leadership (Councillors, Mayors, MP/MECs)	3.03	3	71%	0.84	3.13	4	69%	2.91	3	74%
NGOs involved in the Local area	2.94	3	69%	0.90	3.07	4	75%	2.78	3	61%

Table 1.2 Stakeholder Involvement in The Evaluation of Rural Tourism Projects.

Majority recognition was for local authorities (98%). Funding agencies (96%), national park and protected area authorities within the region (94%) and regional district/county councils (90%) also received firm support. Whilst academics, the public sector and consultants were in consensus with regard to regional/district/county council inclusion, the operational sector (77%) was less supportive. The inclusion of local tourism organisations was perceived as important (88%). Regional/Provincial tourism boards (84%); community organisations (82%) and heritage management organisations within the region (80%) were also perceived as important stakeholders whose involvement was necessary. However, in the case of regional/provincial tourism boards, consultants (62%) and the operational sector (77%) were less supportive than either academics (100%) or the public sector (92%). Community organisations, highly rated by academics (92%) and the public sector (83%) received less support from operators (67%).

South Africans (85%) supported the inclusion of regional tourism organisations as opposed to 73% of British panellists. Whilst both the academic (92%) and public sector (92%) were in

favour of Regional Tourism Organisations, the operational sector (77%) and consultants (62%) were less so. Support from South Africans (79%) for the inclusion of tourism industry organisations was also higher than from British panellists (64%). Academics were unanimous that tourism industry organisations should be included. The public sector (75%), consultants (58%) and the operational sector (54%) were unconvinced.

The inclusion of political leadership did not receive wide support. Academics (75%) were most in favour of this stakeholder. Similarly academics (91%) supported the inclusion of NGOs in the local area. Other sectors, in particular consultants (54%), did not. Academics recognised the inclusion of a wide range of stakeholders as important, conversely consultants and the operational sector did not. 'If we want to make sure that no projects get off the ground, then we must give it to all potential stakeholders – they will kill it' (South African Consultant).

Respondents considered it vital that participants should be those with tourism expertise rather than political agendas to further.

Those with a political reason for involvement, but limited knowledge of tourism issues, are of less importance and can get in the way, key players should be those with particular and relevant expertise (British consultant).

It may be all very well that a local council is involved. However, they may be intransigent opponents of participatory development (British academic).

There is a big gap between the provincial and local levels, which results in a different focus and outcome is measured differently (South African public sector).

The reason behind the lack of support for the inclusion of tourism industry organisations was edified in panellist comments

Sometimes industry members don't want more products in their region and will stonewall competition (British operator).

Care should be taken to ensure that sub-sector interests are not over-influential. The accommodation sector is generally the most numerous and vociferous, but strangely has limited understanding of wider issues (British consultant).

The view that participants in an evaluation should only be those with expertise negates its importance as a capacity building exercise. Respondents intimated that evaluation expertise in the rural tourism field is deficient and acknowledged that there is a lack of tourism expertise both within the public sector and amongst rural tourism operators in both countries. The necessary expertise must thus be built. What is important is the point made by panellists from both countries that the evaluation process should be simple, straightforward and understandable by consultants, operators and communities.

What is apparent is that there is a diverse range of stakeholders who could or should be involved in the evaluation process. The complications inherent in the issue of stakeholder participation and how the interests of various stakeholders should be represented will, however, require significant debate. Patton (1997:42) similarly recognises the plurality and conflicting nature of stakeholder interests and accepts that no evaluation is able to accommodate every concern since focus is central to good evaluation. He advocates that the range of potential stakeholders be restricted to a 'group of primary intended users. Their information needs, that is, their intended uses, focus the evaluation'. Selecting the correct stakeholders is imperative in ensuring that the evaluation process does not degenerate into a platform for airing grievances or making political points but maintains its focus on generating information useful to the project operator in improving his project and to the local authority in taking more informed decisions in relation to the management of the rural tourism sector.

Principal Research Findings

Overall South African respondents appeared to be more supportive of the concept of rural tourism project evaluation than their British counterparts. The majority of respondents were in favour of incentives being awarded to projects meeting evaluation criteria. However, acceptance of evaluation by the rural tourism sector will entail education with regard to its

merits and emphasis of its value as a learning process and its benefits to rural tourism stakeholders.

Overall respondents view local authorities as the logical custodians of the rural tourism evaluation process. Of significance will be the acceptance by local authorities of their responsibility in this regard. Of primary concern is building capacity at this level if local authorities are to assume their leadership role in proactively promoting the adoption of evaluation and the utilisation of its findings as an integral feature of the rural tourism development agenda. Identifying legitimate stakeholders for participation in the evaluation process will require extensive deliberation and negotiation. The list of participants and the criteria for selection will perforce have to be tailor-made to the individual circumstances of the project, its stage of development and its location. As a new concept the ongoing evaluation of rural tourism projects will require substantial negotiation and consultation with regard to its implementation.

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Nation Branding in Zimbabwe: Lessons to Learn

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ABSTRACT

A nation's brand image may have evolved over many years, shaped by wars, religion, diplomacy or the lack of it, international sporting triumph or disasters, and by the brand itself. Zimbabwe as a nation suffered from a negative image gained during 2000-2008 that has been characterised by, inter alia the fast track land reform programme, political instability, corruption, hyperinflation, economic sanctions and so forth.

The primary objective of the study was to develop a workable conceptual framework for nation branding suitable for the case of Zimbabwe and empirically test the impact of the identified variables in the framework. Empirical findings revealed that tourist attractions and entertainment events have a positive relationship with nation branding. The empirical results of the study also indicated that nation branding has a positive relationship with nation building in Zimbabwe. It was also shown that nation branding has a positive relationship with good governance in Zimbabwe. These results indicated that it would be easier to build the

Zimbabwean nation when its brand is strong. Good governance, on the other hand, will increase if the nation's branding improves.

KEY WORDS Nation branding, country branding, destination branding, sports tourism, nation building, nation competitive advantage

Introduction and problem statement

Nation branding is a discipline that has not received as much research as product branding and as a result there are no nation branding theories as there are product-branding theories. According to Kotler and Gertner (2002:250), every nation exists as a brand with either positive or negative attributes and any other nations and individuals that interact with it either will positively or negatively contribute to its image. Kotler and Gertner (2002) further argued that, a nation's political, economy, legal, and cultural environments all contribute to its identity.

Zimbabwe suffered from a negative image gained during the (2000-2008) decade that has been characterised by the fast track land reform programme, political instability, corruption, hyperinflation, disease outbreaks, food shortages, and starvation of its people, government policy on private properties without proper compensation strategies and economic sanctions. However, since 2009 The country has experienced a major transformation in its political environment that has had a positive effect on all sectors of national development. A new government of national unity came into being following the signing of the Memorandum of Understanding among the main warring political parties, ZANU-PF, MDC-T and MDC-M. The new inclusive government, thriving on national unity has seen the people of Zimbabwe combining effort to work together to sustain the development of the country. Machakanja

(2010:8) argues that the national reconciliation and national healing commission was set up to reconcile former feuding political parties and people. The final desired transformations and nation image and hope cannot be achieved through politics alone, but through nation branding by all the stakeholders, as a way of informing the outside world about the potential of Zimbabwe to achieve self sustenance and competitiveness as a nation. Hence, the requirement for a comprehensive framework on how this can be achieved.

The major area of concern pertains to how all sectors can brand Zimbabwe as one body with shared vision, and one voice and let the outside world know that the country can now compete more efficiently at all levels. Tourism and hospitality for example is one sector that has been championing destination and major event branding and marketing in Zimbabwe. However, tourism and hospitality alone cannot be used as nation-branding tools, as a country with best tourist attractions such as fine beaches, safaris and great wonders like the Victoria Falls, in the case of Zimbabwe, might not be a suitable place to invest in if other factors do not positively contribute towards the process.

Objectives of the study

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, the objectives were divided into two main groups which are, primary and secondary objectives. The primary objective of this study was to develop a workable conceptual framework for nation branding that is suitable for the case of Zimbabwe and empirically test the impact of the identified variables in the framework.

Nation branding as a concept

Anholt (2002:229) argues that country branding is a synonym for nation branding. However, nation branding is a better term because it shows a clear understanding that it is the people

who brand their country, who benefit from an improved national reputation and who truly own that national brand. Kotler, Hamlin, Rein and Haider (2002:232) argue that country branding is a synonym of place branding, destination marketing and public diplomacy. They further postulate that a country refers to the physical and geopolitical location of a nation or state, a region or a location with cultural or historical links, a city with a larger population, a market of various given attributes. According to Fan (2006:14), nation branding does not only stand for creating a new logo, slogan or brand but rather for a comprehensive process including positioning and various communication methods. The objectives of nation branding are primarily of economic nature. Selling the country basically covers such aspects as, fostering nation building, attracting tourists and visitors into the country, fostering foreign and local investment, improving exports, fostering hope about the country: its people, products and services and all that its people are good at, attracting talent into the country and creating the nation competitive advantage of a country.

Gilmore (2001:286) argues that nation branding can also shape how a nation is perceived both locally and internationally. It will help a nation to develop internally and successfully integrate into regional and international communities. Nationals, as part of stakeholders, will develop shared vision, cultural values and feel that they are important entities in the day to day shaping of their national image. Furthermore, citizens will develop confidence and hope for their nation and feel the power and drive to work towards the building and development of their nation. Thus, nation branding becomes a necessity for countries like Zimbabwe that have been branded as unsafe destinations for visitors, tourists and foreign investors and has gone through political and economical transformations that have resulted in the formation of a new inclusive government of national unity. The purpose of this study is to formulate a framework for nation branding for Zimbabwe.

Allen (2007:66) argues that country or place branding activities may also be interpreted as a complex strategic and tactical merger with cooperation from stakeholder groups and the management of communication channels capable of stimulating prospective customers' willingness and intention to purchase. Avraham and Kettner (2008:69) proposed that the strategic approach to place branding is connected to public relations, asserting that altering an image is a conscious, comprehensive, holistic and interactive process which requires far more than a quick and simple change of slogans and logos.

According to Kotler; Haider, and Rein, (1993:193) place branding also known as destination branding, place marketing or place promotion is a relatively new umbrella term encompassing nation branding, region branding and city branding. The term was first developed by Kotler and could refer to a city, country or a tourist destination and to their competition for tourists, visitors, investors, residents and other resources. Avraham and Ketter (2008:43) argue that place branding is based upon a strategic approach to public relations, stating that, a change of image is an ongoing, holistic, interactive and wide-scale process, requiring more than a quick change of logo or slogan. In other words brand management for a city, country, or tourist destination does not merely consist of attaching new labels but consolidates the essential characteristics of the individual identity into a brand core. Avraham and Ketter (2008) further argued that, brand development is not a logo or a tagline, but instead a commitment to a community-wide strategy on what distinguished the community from others as well as a community-wide effort to effectively communicate and create that unique destination experience to the customer. Spieker, (2007:40) argues that as part of this holistic process, the creation of a brand sets social, economical and cultural processes in motion which can nuance, strengthen or correct others' perceptions.

The consideration of a place as a brand has become common in many definitions of a brand, for instance, in their definition of a brand deChernatony and McDonald (2003:65) said that a brand is an identifiable product, service, person or place augmented in such a way that the buyer or user perceives relevant unique added values which match their needs closely. Caldwell and Freire (2004:50-61) argue that a place like any other product is evaluated not only by its functional aspects but also by its symbolic features, which implies a place embedded with symbolic meaning. Having a clear, differentiated positioning gives a country an advantage in attracting investment, business and tourism and in building markets for its exports. A clear positioning strategy sets out for each stakeholder group (tourists, overseas consumers, foreign direct investors) a superiority claim (how the nation is better) and the reason why the superiority claimed should be believed. Quelch (2005:229-237) argues that, as a rule of thumb, a clear positioning can be articulated in twenty words or less, for example, Singapore traditionally positioned itself as the best entry point to Asia for Western multinationals, a position backed up by the reality that its laws, institutions and educated English speaking workforce made doing business there easy.

Moilanen and Rainisto (2009:10) argue that place branding is the management of place image through strategic innovation and coordinated economic, commercial, social, cultural and government policy. Competitive identity is the term to describe the synthesis of brand management with public diplomacy and with trade, investment, tourism and export promotion.

Country branding can be viewed as a synonym of nation branding, but however nation branding is a better term because it shows a clear understanding that it is the people who

brand their country, who benefit from an improved national reputation and who truly own that national brand (Anholt (2002:229-239). Country as a brand, product, and beyond: a place marketing and brand management perspective. Kotler and Gertner (2002:249-239) reiterate, that country branding is a synonym of place branding, destination marketing and public diplomacy. They further argue that a country refers to the physical and geopolitical location of a nation or state, a region or a location with cultural or historical links, a city with a larger population, a market of various given attributes. According to Fan (2006:5-14) nation branding does not only stand for creating a new logo, slogan or brand but rather for a comprehensive process including positioning and various communication methods. The objectives of nation branding are primarily of economic nature. Selling the country basically covers such aspects as, fostering nation building, attracting tourists and visitors into the country, fostering foreign and local investment, improving exports, fostering hope about the country, its people, products and services and all that its people are good at, attracting talent into the country and creating nation competitive advantage of a country

As Allen (2007:60-68) puts it, country or place branding activities may also be interpreted as a complex strategic and tactical merger with cooperation from stakeholder groups and the management of communication channels capable of stimulating prospective customers' willingness and intention to purchase. Avraham and Ketter (2008:62) proposed that the strategic approach to place branding is connected to public relations, asserting that altering an image is a conscious, comprehensive, holistic and interactive process which requires far more than a quick and simple change of slogans and logos.

Corporate branding versus nation branding

Allen (2007) maintains that, corporate is defined as applied to products and services within a corporate organisational framework, differently a place brand is defined as applied to products and services within political or geographical framework. Allen (2003) further reasons that, the concept of place branding is the need to provide clear product differentiation in an increasing competitive, globalizing market place that rests on memorability and emotional connection with consumers, delivered throughout all points of contact in the product or service value chain. Every destination has fantastic hotels, attractions and a huge number of differentiated services, thus, every country claims a unique culture and heritage, each place describes itself as having the friendliest people and the most customer-focused tourism and services and facilities. Allen (2003) however further argues that this lack of differentiation makes one appreciate even more the strategic role that place branding could have in tourism industry development. Table shows the difference between the two entities. Hanna and Rowley (2008:65) suggest that a nation is comparatively equated to a place or location and a location is further equated to cities, towns, and rural regions all of which may produce their own outputs.

Table 1: Distinction between corporate brand and nation brand

Corporate brand	Nation, country, place or location brand
Single component product/service	Multiple component product/service
Cohesive stakeholder relationships	Fragmented stakeholder relationships
Lower organisational complexity	Higher organisational complexity
Functional	Experiential/hedonic
Individual orientation	Collective orientation
Sub-brand coherence	Sub-brand inequality and rivalry
Private enterprise	Public-private partnerships

Lack of overt government role	Overt government role
Product attributes consistent	Product attributes subject to seasonality
Flexibility of product offering	Inflexibility of product offering

Source: Allen (2003:60-68)

Nation hope

According to Snyder (2002:249) hope refers to a cognitive set that is based on a mutually originated sense of a successful nation (goal-directed determination) and pathways (planning to meet goals). It is a total insight and belief that set aims and objectives that are achievable. It plays a significant role for both the organisation and its employees' performances. Attributes for a conducive environment for the attainment of nation hope are, peace, political stability and social order, partnerships in development, favourable macro-economic financial environment as well as good governance. In order for nation branding and nation building processes to be successful and able to recapture lost hope, all stakeholders should work out initiatives to indicate that, the nation has no longer such ill practices as scandals, corruption, political violence but are ready to work as a unit to revive nation building efforts and stimulate growth of private sector to promote human resources and industrial development in the country.

Nation building

Nation building refers to the process of constructing or structuring a national identity. This process aims at the unification of the people within the state so that it remains politically stable and viable in the long-run. Eaton (2002:46) defined nation building as a social process of transforming an underdeveloped, poor and divided society into a community with peace, equal opportunities and economic viability within which individuals enjoy dignity, basic

human rights, and the prospect of observing their own religion, tradition, culture and language in harmony with other people who function within other traditions. He further argued that the whole community should be involved in this process. Bloom (1990:55) also argues that the process of nation building attempts to forge or create a nation after gaining independence, after divisive civil wars or civil conflicts. It seeks to provide distinct understanding of national constructs, redefining them in ways that are more broad and inclusive. Citizens must participate wholly in nation building since they are the custodians of their own problems and government should be the guardian that provides resources and protection to solve these problems. The objectives of nation building are:

- To establish a fully representative government and set environmental conditions that promote economic growth and individual prosperity
- To establish security, social order, and rule of law
- To create hope, confidence and pride in the nation's capabilities.
- To establish institutions that would support social and economic development.
- To promote, reconstruction, local and regional reconciliation and integration.
- To enhance unity and cooperation and construction of a new broad, united national identity among citizens.

Nation competitive advantage

Competitive advantage can be created or raised significantly and the improvement of competitiveness within an economy should be a key element of every nation. Competitive advantage initiatives should address competitive issues not only at the level of individual product and services sector but at the national level as well. This is because what makes a nation more competitive on the international market are cross-sectoral factors rather than

single industry-specific factors. Exports, direct investment, direct competition, consumer demands and technological base are factors that promote competitive advantage of a nation.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology is the systematic and logical study of the principles guiding research. It is concerned with how the researcher established knowledge about his/her study and how the researcher can convince others that his/her knowledge is correct. Leedy & Ormrod (2005:179) define research methodology as the general approach the researcher takes in carrying out the research study, to some extent, this approach dictates the particular tools the researcher selects. Bryman (2009:31) also defines research methodology as a technique for collecting data, he further argues that it can involve specific instruments such as self-completion questionnaire, a structured interview schedule or participation observation whereby the researcher listens to and watches others. In this study, the discussion on the research methodology will be focused on the research design, population of study and sample size, sampling design and procedures, instrument design, instrument validity and reliability, data collection procedures, data presentation, analysis and interpretation. In this chapter, focus was on research design, sampling procedures and methods as well as an overview of the instrument measurement process and data analysis will be covered.

Research design

According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2003:73) research design is a framework used as a guide in collecting and analyzing data. Bryman (2009:35) argues that there are many research designs available for research and the choice depends on the nature of the study, population under study and even expertise of the researcher. Bryman (2009) further argues that all the designs are concerned with systematic collection, presentation, and analysis of

data. The function of research design is to help the researcher obtain clear and meaningful answers to problems.

The design employed by the researcher in this study was the descriptive survey design. According to Salkind (2012:197), a descriptive research tries to understand events that are occurring in the present and how they might relate to other factors. He further argues that the purpose of descriptive research is to describe the current state of affairs at the time of study. Neuman (2003:267) defines a survey as an attempt to obtain data (facts and opinions) about the current conditions and state of things. Neuman (2003) points out that a descriptive survey summarizes the status of some phenomena of interest as they currently occur and collects information from a sample of the study population and relates the attributes to the rest of the population. Since the data is collected from a sample with similar attributes to that of the population the results can then be generalised to the total population within calculable margin of error. Salkind (2012) says that, surveys examine the frequency and relationships between psychological and sociological variables and taps into constructs such as attitudes, beliefs, prejudice, preferences and opinions.

In this study the survey design was chosen because surveys have the general capacity to describe the characteristics of a large population. The study becomes feasible by carefully choosing a sample and administering standardized questionnaires. The sample chosen from the population will represent those who were not chosen but had the opportunity to be part of the sample.

Sampling

Malgarini (2005:33) argues that with a single grain of rice, an asian housewife tests if all the rice in the pot has boiled, from a cup of tea, a tea-taster determines the quality of the brand of tea and a sample of moon rocks provides scientist with information on the origin of the moon.

This process of testing some data based on a small sample is called sampling. Bailey (1999:95) defined a sample as a subset of the population of study and sampling is a process by which the study subjects or objects are chosen from a larger population. It is a process of choosing from a much larger population, a group about which the researcher wishes to make general statements so that the selected part will represent the whole group. Borg, Gall and Gall (2003:93) defined sampling as a way of selecting a given number of subjects from a defined population as a representative of that population. A hundred percent sample would be the entire population and this is common with national census enumerations. A one percent sample would consist of only one out of every hundred in the population.

It was not possible to gather data from all people in key stakeholder groups like ministries or organisations from the key stakeholders of study. The researcher approached the Permanent Secretaries of various government ministries and Chief Executive Officers of organisations who elected resource persons who helped to identify the target population for questionnaire distribution. The sampling procedure was based on the position of an individual in the organisation. The study targeted those on positions ranging from supervisor, assistant managers, managers, chief executive officers, ministers and other senior research officers and economists in the various organisations and ministries visited. The process was repeated in all categories until the required number of questionnaires was obtained. A total of four hundred questionnaires were distributed.

Target population of the study

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:202) defined population as the entire set of objectives and events or group of people, which is the subject of research and about which the researcher wants to determine some characteristics. According to Salkind (2012:33) target population refers to a group of potential participants to whom you want to generalise the results of a study. In this

study, the target population of study is comprised of the entertainment industry and its sub divisions; sports tourism, cultural tourism and hospitality; the cultural elements such as social institutions, material elements and religion, the education and training systems in the country from primary to tertiary levels and stakeholders including the government, individuals and private enterprises and investors.

Sampling methods

According to Borg, Gall, & Gall, (2003:94) sampling methods can be classified into two major classes which are those that yield probability samples and those that yield non-probability samples. Burns (2000:410) says that, in probability sampling the researcher knows the exact possibility of selecting each member of the population and in non-probability the chance of being included is not known.

Probability sampling

In probability sampling the probability of selections of each respondent is known. Leedy & Ormrod (2005:199) state that, in probability sampling, the researcher can specify in advance that each segment of the population will be represented in the sample. The probability sampling methods are; random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling and cluster sampling (Salkind 2012).

According to Burns (2000) in the random sampling method each person in the universe/population of study has an equal opportunity of being chosen for the sample and every collection of persons of the same size has an equal probability of becoming the actual sample. All that is required to conduct a random sample after an adequate sampling frame is constructed of is to select persons without showing bias for any personal characteristics. Leedy & Ormrod (2005) argue that when a random sample is selected, the researcher can

assume that the characteristics of the sample approximate the characteristics of the total population.

Non-probability sampling

In non-probability sampling, the probability of selection is not known, individuals are selected not by chance but other means. The researcher has no way of forecasting or guaranteeing that each element of the population will be represented in the sample. According to the Fairfax County Department of Systems Management for Human Services (2003:2) non- probability samples do not allow the study's findings to be generalized from the sample to the population. When discussing the results of a non-probability sample, the researcher must limit his/her findings to the persons or elements sampled. This procedure also does not allow the researcher to calculate sampling statistics that provide information about the precision of the results. The advantages of non-probability sampling are the easy in which it can be administered and non-probability samples tend to be less complicated and less time consuming than probability samples. If the the researcher has no intention of generalizing beyond the sample, one of the non-probability sampling methods will provide the desired information. The three common types of non-probability samples are; convenience sampling, quota sampling and purposive/judgmental sampling.

In this study, the researcher applied the random probability sampling method and purposive sampling methods. The researcher consulted senior personnel from the position of director to the chief executive officer and/or Permanent Secretaries in the case of government ministries (those that have an input on policy issues that govern the operations of their respective organisations or ministries). Four hundred questionnaires were hand delivered and respondents were given time to complete the questionnaires on their own time and an appointment was made for the collection period. The researcher went back to collect the

filled questionnaires. Three hundred and nine filled questionnaires were collected of the returned questionnaires two were not fully completed making them unusable and this left 307 fully completed questionnaires considered for analysis.

The measuring instrument

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) define questionnaires as written forms of paper on which questions are asked and information about a research study is gathered. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005) a questionnaire is the main means of collecting quantitative data, it enables quantitative data to be collected in a standardized way so that the data are internally consistent and coherent for analysis. A questionnaire ensures standardization and comparability of the data and increases speed and accuracy of recording and facilitates data processing. In the study the questionnaire was divided into two sections with, section 'A' covering the opinions of the respondents on nation branding for Zimbabwe. Section B covered some questions that sought personal biographical data about the respondent.

Internal reliability of instruments

The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to assess the internal validity and consistency of the measuring instruments and STATISTICA (Version 10) computer package was used for that purpose. According to Hair, Money, Samouel, and Page, (2007:244) researchers normally consider an alpha of 0.5 as the cut off point, although lower coefficients may be accepted depending on the research objectives. There are three factors involved when considering whether a measure is reliable and these are; stability, internal reliability and inter-observer consistency. For the purpose of this study, an alpha coefficient equal to or greater than 0.4 (≥ 0.4) was considered acceptable and was deemed to indicate good reliability. The

acceptance of a value ≥ 0.4 was in accordance with writings of (Hair, *et al.* 2007:244) Sekeran, 2003:307).

Table 3: Cronbach alpha values of measuring instruments

Measuring instrument	Cronbach alpha values
EI	0.70
CE	0.69
SH	0.81
PNB	0.83
NH	0.56
NB	0.83
CA	0.50

Validity of measurement instruments

The assessment of correlations was done by utilizing a computer package. The next step in the data analysis was the assessment of the validity of all the variables indicated in Table 3. Construct validity is a scale evaluation criterion that relates to the question that probes the actual meaning of the nature of the underlying variable or construct measured by the scale. In other words, it deals with accuracy by providing an indication of the degree of the relationship between the instrument and the construct measured.

Table 5 shows that respondents did not perceive the individual underlying dimensions of ‘tourism attractions’ as separate dimensions. This means that respondents view ‘tourist attractions’ as a single construct. Three (ST1, ST2 and ST5) of the five items that are expected to measure Sports tourism (ST) also (CT3, H3, VN1, VN2, VN5, R3, E2, E3 and

LC6) all loaded on factor one (1) and these items are now termed 'tourist attractions'. One item (ST3) expected to measure 'sports tourism' loaded on factor two (2) and other items (E1, E2, M4, M5, ME3, H4 and LC5) all loaded to factor two (2) and are now termed 'entertainment events'. Four items out of the seven intended to measure government intervention (GI2, GI4, GI5, and GI7) as well as other items as (VN4, R5, LC4, IP1, IP2, IP3, IP4, I1, I2 and M20) all loaded to factor three and are now termed 'stakeholders'. One item out of four that were intended to measure hospitality, (H1) as well as (ME2, ME5, and GI) all loaded on factor four (4) and are now termed 'hospitality'. Table 5 also shows that respondents did not perceive the individual underlying dimensions of 'cultural elements' as separate dimensions. Two items meant to measure cultural tourism (CT1 and CT4) as well as (VN3 and R1) are all loaded on factor 5 and are now termed cultural elements. The minimum number of items for loading per factor is three.

Factor analysis

Zikmund and Babin (2010:625) defined factor analysis as a prototypical multivariate, interdependency technique of statistically identifying a reduced number of factors from a larger number of measured variables. Factor analysis is considered a data reduction technique. It allows the researcher to summarise information from many variables into a reduced set of variates or composite variables. Factor analysis accomplishes data reduction by capturing variance from many variables with a single variate (Zikmund and Babin 2010).

Factor loading

Zikmund and Babin (2010:626) point out that a factor loading indicates how strongly correlated is a factor with a measured variable. In other words, to what extent does a variable load on a factor. Zikmund and Babin (2010) maintain that EFA depends on the

loadings for proper interpretation. The interpretation of a latent construct can be based on the pattern of loadings and the content of the variables. In this way, the latent construct is measured indirectly by the variables. Loading estimates are provided by factor analysis programmes. For the purpose of this study the factor loading of three items per factor is considered significant and any factors that fail to load three and more items are considered insignificant and as such will be deleted and ignored for any further analysis.

Regression Analysis

Regression analysis is utilised to examine factors in circumstances where the intention is to predict one variable based on numerous independent factors. Regression analysis assumes that the correlation involving two variables is linear, that is, an increase in the values on one variable is linked with either an increase (positive relationship) or decrease (negative relationship) on the other variable, and that changes in the value on both variables occur at the same rate (Zikmund and Babin, 2010:618). Churchill & Iacobucci (2002:72) indicated that having an additional predictor variable is important when predicting human behaviour, particularly when using a statistical technique such as multiple regressions to test theories or models concerning variables that affect behaviour.

For the purpose of this study, regression analyses were performed to establish the influence of independent variables to dependent variables. The first level of regression analysis tested the relationship between the independent variables suggested in the model of the study the outcome (dependent) variable 'nation branding'. The second level of analysis tested the influence of the moderating variable to each of the outcomes (dependent) variables.

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

Perceptions of management towards nation branding

Table 7 shows that twelve of the fifteen items that were expected to measure nation branding (PNB2, PNB3, PNB4, PNB5, PNB6, PNB7, PNB8, PNB9, PNB10, PNB11, PNB12, PNB13,) were loaded on factor one (1). This means that respondents viewed the items that loaded on factor one as a single construct ‘perceptions of nation branding’. Only three items that were expected to measure ‘nation branding’ (PNB1, PNB14 and PNB15) did not load and were deleted as they showed insufficient validity and were not considered for further analysis.

Table 7: Factor loading: Perceptions of management for nation branding

Perceptions on nation branding	Factor 1
PNB2	0.403
PNB3	0.594
PNB4	0.605
PNB5	0.639
PNB6	0.512
PNB7	0.588
PNB8	0.624
PNB9	0.478
PNB10	0.465
PNB11	0.614
PNB12	0.691
PNB13	0.509

Loadings greater than 0.4 were considered significant

Outcomes of the nation branding: Nation hope, nation building and competitive advantage

Table 8 indicates that all items that were expected to measure ‘nation building’ (NB1-NB6) and three of the six items (NH2, NH3, NH4) that were expected to measure ‘nation hope’ loaded on factor one (1). This means that respondents view these items as a single construct termed ‘nation building’. The table shows that one item out of the six that were measuring nation hope (NH6), as well as two items out of six that were measuring nation competitive advantage (CA1, CA4) loaded on factor two. One item out of the six (NH5) that were measuring nation hope and two factors that were measuring nation competitive advantage loaded on factor three. This means that respondents viewed these items as one construct ‘competitive advantage.’

Table 8: Factor loadings: Nation hope, nation building and competitive advantage

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
	Nation Building	Good Governance	Competitive Advantage
NH2	0.565	0.065	0.011
NH3	0.583	0.167	-0.257
NH4	0.725	0.011	0.019
NB1	0.684	-0.026	0.086
NB2	0.533	0.236	-0.223
NB3	0.664	-0.217	0.317
NB4	0.787	-0.247	0.020
NB5	0.599	0.106	0.288
NB6	0.807	0.080	-0.302
NH6	-0.171	0.687	0.058

CA1	0.013	0.886	0.178
CA4	0.071	0.768	0.286
NH5	0.034	0.120	0.485
CA3	-0.043	0.148	0.649
CA5	0.136	0.021	0.615

Loadings greater than 0.4 were considered significant

The influence of independent variables to perception of nation branding

Table 9 shows that ‘tourist attraction’ has a positive relationship with nation branding ($b=0.40$; $p<0.001$). This indicates that respondents feel successful hosting and winning major sport events will help to boost the image of the country and that Zimbabwe has a pleasant climate all year round for tourists and visitors, among other factors. Table 9 also shows that there is a positive relationship between ‘entertainment events’ and nation branding ($b=0.09$; $p<0.05$) This indicates that respondents feel that hosting of mega events attract foreign investors in the country and that Zimbabwe has established attractions like holiday resorts and shopping malls that are capable of hosting world events.

Stakeholders have a positive relationship with nation branding ($b=0.19$; $p<0.001$). This indicates that authorities realise the role of individuals and private enterprises in the Zimbabwe economy and that there is political stability in Zimbabwe that is favourable to a sustainable economic development. Hospitality has a negative relationship with nation branding ($b= -0.12$; $p<0.001$). This indicates that the respondents believe that the seizure of private properties by authorities without compensation repels the investors. Cultural elements have a positive relationship with nation branding ($b=0.11$, $p<0.01$). This means that respondents believe that Zimbabwe has transport networks capable of conveying tourists from one point to another.

Table 9: Regression analysis: The influence of independent variables to perception of nation branding

Regression summary for independent variables to perception of nation branding						
	b*	Std Err. of b*	B	Std. Err. of b	t(312)	p-value
Intercept			1.24	0.27	4.62	0.0000***
Tourist Attractions (TA)	0.36	0.05	0.40	0.06	6.94	0.0001***
Entertainment Events (EE)	0.12	0.05	0.09	0.04	2.36	0.0191*
Stakeholders (SH)	0.24	0.05	0.19	0.04	4.77	0.0001***
Hospitality (H)	-0.17	0.05	-0.12	0.03	-3.52	0.0001***
Cultural Elements (CE)	0.16	0.05	0.11	0.04	3.11	0.0020**

R 56 % **R²** 32 % **F** 29.190 **Std Error of estimate** 0.38249 **P-value** P<0.0000

*=p<0.05

**=p<0.01

***=p<0.001

The influence of ‘perception of nation branding’ to nation building

Table 10 shows that nation branding has a positive relationship with nation building (b=0.69, p<0.001). The R² of 0.21 indicates that 21% variability of the study is explained by the

variable ‘nation building’ (NB). This indicates that among other factors, respondents believe that Zimbabwe promotes a favourable environment for peace, equal opportunity and economic viability for all its inhabitants, and that Zimbabwe as a nation always creates hope, confidence and pride in the nation’s capabilities, for example in trading, professionals and tourism.

Table 10: Regression summary for the influence of nation branding to (Nation Building)

Regression summary for perceptions of nation branding to nation building						
	b*	Std Err of b*	B	Std Err of b	t(312)	p-value
Intercept			0.74	0.29	2.53	0.01200
Nation Branding (PNB)	0.46	0.05	0.69	0.07	9.22	0.00000
R		R²	F	Std Error of estimate	P	
46%		21%	85.026	0.61330	P<0.0000	
*= $p < 0.05$						
**= $p < 0.01$						
***= $p < 0.001$						

The influence of dependent variable ‘perception of nation branding’ to good governance

Table 11 shows that there is a positive relationship between branding and good governance (b=0.27, p<0.0000). This means that respondents feel that good governance of global firms is the most important pre-condition for a successful negotiation process of strategic foreign business alliances. In Zimbabwe, there is a competent human capital and the education

Table 12: Regression summary for dependent variable: F3 (Competitive Advantage)

Regression summary: perceptions of nation branding on competitive advantage						
	b*	Std Err of b*	b	Std Err of b	t(312)	p-value
Intercept			2.21	0.28	8.01	0.00000
Branding (DV)	0.33	0.05	0.44	0.07	6.24	0.00000

R	R ²	F	Std Error of estimate	P
0.33	0.11	85.026	0.61330	P<0.0000

*=p<0.05

**=p<0.01

***=p<0.001

The null hypotheses concerning nation branding for Zimbabwe are as follows:

H0¹: There is no relationship between stakeholders and perception of nation branding

There is a significant positive relationship between tourist attractions and perceptions of nation branding (p < 0.001). This means that there is a significant positive correlation between stakeholders and perceptions of nation branding with a correlation coefficient of 30%. Therefore H0¹ is rejected and an alternative hypothesis is accepted.

H0²: There is no relationship between cultural elements and perceptions of nation branding

There is a significant positive relationship between cultural elements and perceptions of nation branding (p<0.002). Therefore, H0¹ is rejected and an alternative hypothesis accepted.

Findings on the second set of hypotheses: (outcomes)

H0³: There is no relationship between perceptions of nation branding and nation

building

There is a significant positive relationship between perceptions of nation branding and nation building ($p < 0.001$). Therefore H_0^1 is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted.

H_0^4 : There is no relationship between perceptions of nation branding and good governance

There is a significant positive relationship between perceptions of nation branding and nation building ($p < 0.01$). Therefore H_0^4 is rejected and alternative hypothesis accepted.

H_0^5 : There is no relationship between perceptions of nation branding and competitive advantage

There is a significant positive relationship between perceptions of nation branding and competitive advantage ($p < 0.01$). Therefore, H_0^5 is rejected and alternative hypothesis accepted.

Managerial implications

Empirical findings revealed that tourist attractions and entertainment events have a positive relationship with nation branding. The empirical results of the study also indicated that nation branding has a positive relationship with nation building in Zimbabwe. It was also shown that nation branding has a positive relationship with good governance in Zimbabwe. These results indicated that it would be easier to build the Zimbabwean nation when its brand is strong. Good governance, on the other hand, will increase if the nation's branding improves.

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The Benefit/Activity-Based Segmentation of Tourism Market: is it Effective and Operational?

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ABSTRACT

It is generally accepted that market segmentation could be considered as accurate, effective, operational and useful to tourism marketers only when the market segments chosen have certain features and meet particular criteria. Literature suggests that segments must be measurable, substantial, accessible, actionable, and operational. Therefore, these characteristics could be used as the assessment criteria/factors for the effectiveness of any segmentation. The aim of this paper is to investigate whether benefit/activity-based segmentation is an effective method of subdividing tourism market and a useful method is

operational terms. Firstly an evaluation framework encompassing twelve criteria is outlined and suggested. The paper then reports on the findings of a qualitative research applying the method of focus group, within the context of wildlife attractions in South Africa. The research's aim was to empirically examine the effectiveness of benefit/activity-based segmentation. The study's main findings, as well as marketing management implications, are discussed.

KEYWORDS Consumer market segmentation, tourism market, nature-based attractions, benefits, activities, effectiveness, focus group

INTRODUCTION

Consumer market segmentation means splitting a market into subgroups or segments whose members show similar characteristics, needs and consumer behaviour. This tool constitutes one way of dealing with the complexity of the market and to look at the market in a way which is helpful for marketing purposes (McDonald & Dunbar, 2004; Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). Hence, segmentation is a marketing strategy that involves dividing a broad target market into subsets of consumers, who have common needs and behaviour, and then designing and implementing strategies to target their needs and desires using tools and channels that best allow reaching them. Segmentation analysis is considered to be an approach supporting the decision-making process at strategic management level in tourism industry, destination or business level (Middleton et al., 2009). Obviously the identification of market segments is necessary to organisations in creating product differentiation strategy to target them. Once the segments are identified, organisation is bound to offer customised products and services to its customers. The knowledge generated by the segmentation process would be applied into an effective marketing plan, rendering the marketing activities more

efficient. This is to assist the business in segmenting their customers so that they can promote their offering effectively to the target market. Therefore, strategic marketing may take place once the first two steps of segmenting, targeting and positioning process are completed (McCabe, 2009:145). Segmentation of tourists contributes to an organisation's competitiveness by differentiating its marketing strategy (Dolnicar, 2012: 317; McCabe, 2009:147).

There are four main methods used in segmenting the market, namely: geographic, demographic, psychographic, and behaviourist segmentation. As for the latter, one of the suggested types is the benefit segmentation. This segmentation is based on benefits sought/realised by consumers, the benefits they seek from using a particular product or experiencing a specific service (McDonald & Dunbar, 2004:202-204). A number of authors (see, for instance, Jang et al., 2002; Kim et al., 2011) have suggested benefit segmentation as one of the best segmentation bases. The paper's aim is to investigate whether benefit/activity-based segmentation is an effective method of subdividing the tourism market and a useful method in operational terms. The paper reports on the findings of a qualitative research applying the method of focus group.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Consumer market segmentation: approaches and methods

Scholars as well as practitioners use various segmentation principles and models in their attempt to bring some sort of structure. One of the most common approaches is the bottom-up approach (or Kotler model). Kotler suggests a "build-up approach", where huge volumes of customer data are analysed and similarities searched to make up segments that have similar needs, i.e. assessing the customer base quantitatively and grouping them, the segments based on similarities in purchasing attitude (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). When starting the

segmentation process, instead of seeing customers as identical, the build-up approach begins by viewing customer as different and then proceeds to identify possible similarities between them. Brassington & Pettitt (2006) argues that in a turbulence market (almost all markets today in a globalized context) using a build-up approach is more suitable than a “breakdown approach”. An organisation might create its own segmentation scheme to meet its particular needs. The goal for every market segmentation scheme is to identify the most significant differences among current and potential customers that will influence their purchase decisions or buying behaviour, the goal being for companies to segment groups of potential customers with similar wants and demands that may respond to a particular marketing mix (Middleton et al., 2009). This will allow marketers to differentiate their offerings, services, or prices for maximum competitive advantage. One of the most significant uses of consumer market segmentation schemes is to make targeting and product positioning decisions. Companies choose to target some segments and downplay or avoid other segments in order to maximise their competitive advantage and the likelihood of success. The four main methods used in segmenting the consumer markets are illustrated in the following table (Table 1):

Table 1: Methods for segmenting consumer markets

Type of Segmentation	Criteria
Demographic	Segmentation according to demography is based on variables such as age, gender, occupation and education level.
Geographic	Segmentation according to geographic criteria –regions, countries, provinces, cities, or neighbourhoods. The geo-cluster approach combines demographic data with geographic data to create a more accurate profile.
Behavioural	Segmentation divides consumers into groups according to their knowledge of, attitude towards, use of or response to a product. It

	is based on behavioural variables, such as benefits, usage rate or loyalty.
Psychographic	Psychographics is the study of personality, values, attitudes, interests, and lifestyles. Segmentation based on factors such as beliefs, attitudes, values, behaviours, interests, and opinions.

Source: retrieved from Brassington & Pettitt, 2006; Kotler & Keller, 2006; Reid & Bojanic 2009.

As for the behaviourist, one of the suggested types is benefit segmentation. This segmentation is based on benefits sought by consumers, the benefits they seek from using a particular product or experiencing a specific service; in other words it can be based “on the benefits that consumers are seeking when they purchase a product” (Reid & Bojanic, 2009: 139) or according to perceived benefits which a product/service may provide. Benefit segmentation is an approach whereby a market segment is identified by causal factors rather than descriptive factors (McDonald & Dunbar, 2004). The difference between causal factors and descriptive factors is that the latter only explain a segment, for example, psychographic factors; whereas the former describe the motivation behind decision making, for example, what are the benefits sought by tourists visiting a destination or having a tourism experience. It recognises that consumers buy the same products for different reasons, and place different values on particular product features (Webster, 2003). A comprehensive review of applications of this type of segmentation to tourism research was performed by Frochot & Morrison (2001). Further, when considering the literature related to wildlife attractions and the natural resources in conjunction with tourism and leisure activities, it seems that scholars have been interested in exploring this topic mainly from an environmental and social perspective; see for instance Muganda et al. (2013). Some other related studies were interested in natural resources planning, development and management; see for instance Neba (2009). Finally, the same topic has been explored from a marketing perspective; at this regard

two related studies could be mentioned, regarding branding (Chellan et al., 2013) and travel motivation (Kruger & Saayman, 2010). Apparently the issue of market segmentation of wildlife attractions is under-researched; there is a gap of knowledge.

Before moving on it seems necessary to clarify concepts used in order to avoid ambiguities. This is the subject of following sub-section.

Conceptual issues

According to Oxford Dictionary, effectiveness “is the degree to which something is successful in producing a desired result”. Therefore, it is the capability of producing a desired result. According to Drucker (2006), in the management field effectiveness relates to getting the right things done, perform duties and responsibilities properly. A marketing or management tool is considered to be effective when it has an intended or expected outcome (www.dictionary.com). Efficacy and efficiency are terms that can, in some cases, be interchangeable with the term effectiveness. Efficacy is the extent to which a desired effect is achieved; the ability to produce a desired amount of the desired effect, or the success in achieving a given goal. Contrary to the term efficiency, the focus of efficacy is the achievement as such, not the resources spent in achieving the desired effect. Simply stated, efficiency means output, and effectiveness means outcome. Hence, it might be argued that effective segmentation means successful in producing a desired or intended result. This is the meaning adopted by the present study. Operational is “ready for use” (www.oxforddictionaries.com). Operationalise means to put into operation; the term operational means pertaining to a process or series of actions for achieving a result (www.thefreedictionary.com). Operational, in a process context, can also denote a working method that focuses principally on cause and effect relationships of specific interest to a particular domain at a particular point in time. It also means fit or ready for use or service,

usable, functional, and ready for service. Synonym adjectives are functioning, functional, working, and usable. The meaning adopted by present study is that operational segmentation is able to be used, thus, functional.

Market segmentation: rules and criteria

It is generally accepted that the market segments identified and chosen should have certain features in order to be operational and the segmentation effective. Only then market segmentation could be considered as accurate and useful to tourism marketers. Literature (see, for instance, McDonald & Dunbar, 2004) suggests that there are five cardinal rules of segmentation, additional to the first step and prerequisite to the segmentation analysis, namely the identification; the segments must firstly be identified. Webster (2003) describes segmentation variables as “customer characteristics that relate to some important difference in customer response to marketing effort” and recommends the following three rules: measurability, substantiality and accessibility. Along the same line, Morgan (1996) argues that market segments must have five characteristics: measurable, substantial, accessible, actionable, and operational. Other authors suggest another two criteria: responsiveness and ability of operation (Kotler & Keller, 2006; McDonald & Dunbar, 2004). Let us briefly consider the meaning of each one. **Measurability:** segments must be measurable and have significant size in order to judge if it is worthwhile to be targeted (McDonald & Dunbar, 2004; Morgan 1996). Otherwise, the scheme will not be operational. While this would be an absolute ideal, its implementation can face some difficulties/barriers (Webster, 2003): First, it often necessitates field research, which is expensive and time-consuming. Second, it is impossible to get accurate strategic data on a large number of customers. Third, if gathered, the analysis of the data can be a daunting task. These barriers lead most companies to use more qualitative and intuitive methods in measuring customer data, hoping to compensate for the

gap of accurate data measurement. **Substantiality (or attractiveness of size)**: segments must be substantial enough in size; in other words the variable should be relevant to a substantial group of customers (McDonald & Dunbar, 2004). The challenge here is finding the right size or balance. If the segment gets too large, there is a risk of diluting effectiveness; and if the segment group becomes too small, the company will lose the benefits of economies of scale. In some cases, customers are sometimes distinctive enough to justify constituting a segment on their own. **Accessibility**: The segment's characteristics (e.g. age group, education level, benefits, and activities) must be accessible to marketing actions. Therefore the main question to be addressed is: are segments accessible by integrated communication channels? **Responsiveness**: the issue to consider is whether the market segments are responsive to marketing communications and actions and actionable by the organisation, given its marketing resources, i.e. financial and other resources (McDonald & Dunbar, 2004). **Ability of operation (or operational relevance to marketing strategy)**: Segmentation should enable an organisation to offer the suitable operational offering to the chosen segment, for example faster delivery service, credit-card payment facility and so forth. It is about the promise of service/experience and the organisation's ability to meet it. This can only be applied by organisations with sufficient operational resources (Kotler & Keller, 2006).

Based on the above five rules, it could be suggested that an ideal market segment must meet all of the following criteria:

- **Measurability**: possible to be measured.
- **Substantiality/attractiveness**: it must be large enough to have a profitability potential.
- **Relative stability**: it must be stable enough that it does not vanish after some time.
- **Accessibility**: segment's characteristics must be accessible to marketing actions.
- **Decision-supporting**: useful in deciding on the marketing mix.

- Actionable ability: possible to reach potential customers via the organisation's promotional channels.
- Cost-effectiveness: can be reached by market intervention in a cost-effective manner.
- Internal homogeneity: potential customers in the same segment prefer the same service offering qualities.
- External homogeneity: potential customers from different segments have different offering quality preferences.
- Responsiveness: it must be consistently responsive to a given market stimulus, to marketing communications by the organisation, given its marketing financial and other resources.
- Operational relevance to marketing strategy: segmentation should enable an organisation to offer the suitable operational offering to the chosen segment.
- Operational ability: Does the organisation have sufficient operational resources to properly service the chosen segments?

The present study adopted the above criteria to be used as an assessment framework to evaluate the effectiveness of benefit segmentation. The suggested research hypothesis might be formulated as follows: 'Is the benefit/activity-based segmentation effective and operational for the tourism market?' An empirical study has examined this research hypothesis in the context of wildlife attractions in South Africa (SA). These attractions are those whose offering is based on wildlife flora and fauna, including national parks, nature reserves and game reserves.

EMPIRICAL STUDY

The empirical study has been conducted on last week of February, 2014. The context/background and main elements of this study are presented hereafter.

Background: South Africa and Wildlife attractions

SA is an emerging tourism destination with a plethora of visitor attractions. The country offers experiences and unique interactions between tourists and nature. SA has a global competitive advantage in nature-based tourism which is the biggest draw card for the country's main markets (SA Tourism 2012). Long-haul visitors to SA mainly visit nature-based and wildlife attractions, such as National Parks, Nature Reserves and Game Reserves (GRs) to enjoy a lifetime experience. As for the latter, it is an area of land set aside for conservation purposes; although is more than just a land to keep wildlife. It is a place where ecosystems are protected and conservation is a key. Indigenous wildlife in its natural habitat makes for an ideal situation as this helps in providing an environment where growth in numbers at a natural rate can occur. Many GRs are located in Africa, most are open to the public, and tourists commonly take sightseeing safaris. There are seventy-nine GRs operating in South Africa (SA Nature Reserve, 2013), a potential which provides a well distributed and a variety of product offering for the country. The above volume doesn't include the twenty-two national parks managed by SA National Parks. Some GRs provide safari adventure and conservation effort coupled with responsible tourism. The biggest attraction is the Big Five (Africa) – rhinoceros, elephant, buffalo, leopard and lion, named so because of the difficulty in hunting them and not their size. Game drives are more commonly known as photo safaris, as it points out that no hunting is involved. Some well-known and established GRs have earned international praise for their memorable safari experiences. As already noted, GRs provide safari adventure and conservation effort complemented by high level tourism services (accommodation, dining, recreation, entertainment). It is imperative that GR managers understand their existing and potential clientele. This issue, and more particularly

the consumer behaviour, is crucial in properly performing integrated marketing communications. One of the main tools in this field is market segmentation.

Study: purpose and methodology

The aim of the empirical study was to investigate the effectiveness of the benefit/activity-based segmentation of the market of NBAs. The main research hypothesis was: “Is the benefit/activity-based segmentation effective and operational for tourism market?” To attain this aim, the study applied a qualitative research method, focus group, a discussion group with experts and business practitioners in the field of nature-based tourism and /or tourism marketing. In the field of social sciences, focus groups are seen as an important tool for acquiring feedback regarding various topics (Nachmais & Nachmais, 2008). Questions are asked in an interactive group setting where participants are free to talk with other group members. Group discussion produces data and insights that would be less accessible without interaction found in a group setting - listening to others’ verbalised experiences stimulates ideas and experiences in participants (Lindlof & Taylor, 2002: 182). The technique applied by the present study was a combination of mini focus groups (composed of four to five members rather than six to twelve) and online discussion group (discussion on Skype).

Discussion groups – participants

The professional network LinkedIn was used to recruit focus group participants. LinkedIn is a social networking website mainly used for professional networking. Firstly, a screening selection had been performed on authors’ connections and thirty persons were chosen based on four criteria: (i) comprehensive perception and opinion about nature-based tourism; (ii) long experience and sound expertise; (iii) activity in tourism marketing; and (iv) geographical region to obtain a representative sample. Then, a message was sent to the initially selected

potential participants asking them whether they are willing to participate to this study and be member of a discussion group. Twenty of them responded positively and ten out of this group have been finally selected to form two discussion groups. The main concern was to reach an appropriate blend/mixture of participants to create interaction. Two focus groups were formed: (i) first group consisted of two business practitioners, one scholar and two marketing experts; (ii) second group consisted of two scholars, two business practitioners and one marketing expert. Countries: Australia, Canada, China, Greece, France, Ireland, Italy, and South Africa.

Instrument and online discussion groups

The next stage was to elaborate a “discussion enabler”, the aim being to determine a framework of and basis to facilitate the discussion in exploring the perceptions and opinions of participants regarding the effectiveness of benefit segmentation for wildlife attractions. The items of this discussion framework resulted from the literature review; the study adopted the criteria to be used as an assessment framework to evaluate the effectiveness. The items were classified into four parts: conceptual issues of segmentation, segmentation rules, effectiveness criteria for market segmentation; and an example of benefit segmentation. The questions were measured using a 5-point Likert scale. This discussion enabler was sent to the selected participants through email and a date and time were fixed, following an internal consulting, for discussion group on Skype. The two discussion groups took place on last week of February 2014.

Study’s findings: data analysis and discussion

Data analysis can take place at the level of the individual or the group. This study adopted the latter, because at the collective level focus group data can sometimes reveal shared

understandings or common views (Harding, 2013). The data set coming from two groups were analysed and the main findings are presented hereafter.

Conceptual issues of segmentation: Discussion participants expressed their full or mere agreement on the suggestions by literature and formulated some comments and suggestions in regard with other related issues. A participant stated that: *“Maybe the following targeting and positioning actions as part of the marketing strategy”*. A second one indicated that: *“Accessibility of Internet impacts on market. Today we rely on the internet to do almost everything”*. Another expert suggested that: *“(i) Defensibility (could possibly be combined with substantiality): uniqueness of the segment characteristics to justify a separate marketing effort and marketing mix, e.g. when using geographic segmentation only (as is often done in tourism), tourist characteristics and marketing mix may not differ substantially between countries or regions; (ii) Stability: ability of segment types to maintain differences as the market develops during the marketing period; (iii) Feasibility: does the business have the capacity/resources to execute its marketing programs when applying the segmentation?”* A scholar argued that: *“It’s more correct to define the importance of having all the five characteristics after the identification of the target markets (after the targeting). A market segment maybe does not have all of the above as characteristics but it is very important that target market segment to meet the five criteria. The naming of those can be also identifiable, sufficient in term of size, stable or growing, accessible in terms of media and cost and congruent with firm’s objectives & resources”*.

With regard to segmentation rules, participants expressed shared opinion and their full agreement on the following rules: (i) Measurability, (ii) Substantiality (segments must have significant size in order to judge if they offer profitability potential); (iii) Accessibility; (iv) Responsiveness (segments must be responsive to marketing communications and actions); (v) Responsiveness (segments must be actionable by the business, given its marketing resources).

They expressed their simple agreement on the following rules: (i) Substantiality (the segmentation variable should be relevant to a substantial group of customers); and (ii) Ability of operation or operational relevance to marketing strategy. Further, participants added the following comments/opinions about the five segmentation rules used in evaluating the effectiveness of segmentation. A first member suggested that: *‘Measurability is important for segmentation basically for comparison purposes also accurate results and generalising the conclusions with statistical testing can enforce the statistical hypothesis or research statements about customer segments. But in many cases the building and development of measurement tools that are related with qualitative aspects and non-objective and stable characteristics of the human beings are a difficult task especially for the non-related with sophisticated models practitioners. Checking those models through the time and under different circumstances is very important for the accuracy of those models. Responsiveness yes, but in what kind of time frame? Considering that you are talking about wildlife attractions, perhaps it is also safe to assume that you are talking about longer term, more sustainable development efforts, marketing included. In this case, lower responsiveness rates can be acceptable with the objective being to engage potential customers in the building of a relationship (via marketing efforts virtual or other) over a longer time frame. Further, ability of operation yes, but remember this also depends on management and its ability to train and motivate staff in order to meet this promises...’*. A second participant pointed out that: *‘a rule is more of feasibility than a responsiveness issue. I’m not sure of this terminology “operational ability” – segmentation should also be done to identify gaps and opportunities where the business may not have the operational ability but maybe needs to re-engineer to improve competitiveness to the segment’*. A third participant argued that *‘the internal homogeneity and external heterogeneity are very important issues to determine a useful segmentation process.’*

Effectiveness criteria for market segmentation: participants rated as very important the following eight criteria: (i) Substantiality/attractiveness, (ii) Relative stability, (iii) Decision-supporting, (iv) External homogeneity, (v) Accessibility, (vi) Responsiveness, (vii) Actionable ability, and (viii) Cost-effectiveness. They regarded as fairly important the following three criteria: (i) Internal homogeneity, (ii) Feasibility/Operational ability, and (iii) Operational relevance to marketing strategy. Finally they considered as merely important the criterion of measurability. In this regard, participants suggested some additional criteria. An expert stressed that another criterion is the applicability of social media, and rated it as very important. A second participant (scholar) indicated that: *“It is important to find geo-locations of segments and to distribute business supply offers (place or distribution variable of marketing mix). GIS, GPS technologies contribute to that. It is important to identify segments with the e-environment aspects (internet, social networks, virtual communities, e-markets).”* Further, participants expressed some interesting views regarding the criteria that play a determining role in the effectiveness and operation ability of segmentation. A first one stated that: *“It is important to take advantage of information and communication technologies to identify segments in digital environment.”* A second participant indicated: *“Yes, no use doing “pie in the sky” segmentation, without being able to reach segments through your marketing channels, not having the resources to adequately target them and not being able to differentiate their value so that this can influence allocation of marketing mixes and resources”.* And a third member stated that: *“These criteria are decisive to determine an effective and efficient segmentation. Wideness and stability are the criteria more influenced by the purpose of the segmentation”.*

An example of benefit market segmentation: A conceptual suggestion was provided to focus group participants to illustrate benefit segmentation with an example and to stimulate more discussion interest and interaction. As for this issue, the participants expressed shared and

contradictory opinions. There was a simple to full agreement that: (i) suggested benefit segmentation could be considered accurate and useful to wildlife attractions' marketers; (ii) a benefit segmentation could be operational for wildlife attractions; and (iii) the suggested benefit segmentation looks like being effective. Additionally, there was a simple agreement that the suggested segmentation seems to follow the segmentation rules and meets the related criteria. On the other hand, there are contradictory opinions about the fact that segmentation analysis is suitable only for organisations having sufficient operational resources to properly service the chosen segments. In this regard, participants expressed the following views: (i) *"A more helpful categorization can be... Naturalists & escapers, Explorers & place experience seekers, Entertainers, Health & fitness seekers (or the sport & being active funs) and the Socializers"*. A second one (expert): *"Companies don't often over think marketing as indicated above. They test what works and use aspects that do, and disregard aspects that don't"*. A third participant (business practitioner) pointed out: *"In my humble opinion your proposed segmentation is on the right track and a good starting point; however it may a bit "coarse" as tourism markets are becoming increasingly specialised and sophisticated. For example, special interest groups like birding, botanists, photographers, adventure running and cycling etc. are growing; also I think foreign tourists often have different motivations for visiting NBAs – some for the thrill of seeing the Big 5 in real life, some for the luxury and romance of being treated on a safari, etc. I would suggest to get this right you would have to do primary research among visitors or interpret SANPARK's market research data (if they have) to be able to derive a meaningful segmentation that adheres to the criteria set out. I am not sure you will be able to practically target the segments suggested above, e.g. may be challenging to define, quantify and access "hedonists", sightseers, etc."*

As for the utility of market segmentation in general for marketing and operational purposes, their opinion is very positive; let's state some comments: *"It's helpful to identify more*

effective the product differentiation strategies, competition target markets and positioning strategies for each sub-market.”“Yes of course, it helps in numerous ways from the identification of the various marketing segments to the product supply, sales, and training of staff to meet and exceed customer satisfaction and create loyalty”. Yes, however not over thinking is better”. “Yes for sure, I can’t do without it”.“Segmentation, as if all the ‘preparatory’ analysis about location and target, is essential to organize an efficient and effective marketing strategy. I always use this tool”. “Yes indeed, segmentation is the best way not only to identify markets but through monitoring and evaluation, segmentation still offers the best answers to why operators should stick to specific markets in anticipation of business”. Finally, it is worth stating some additional suggestions and comments. A scholar indicated: “It is interesting to find visitors with same interests like those of your categorization (like this kind of benefit driven motivators) and to ask them making a qualitative study like in depth interview using maybe means end or laddering technique, repertory grids, Critical Incident, or focus group analytical techniques”. A business practitioner pointed out that: “Segmentation is only one of the phases to define a marketing strategy. It is almost useless when it is not completed with an environment and competition analysis, additionally to benchmarking analysis. Segmentation is an important step to position the firm/product, to influence and attract potential market segments”.

From the above discussion, it might be concluded that: (i) the assessment framework used to evaluate the effectiveness and operation ability of this type of segmentation seems to be a good evaluation tool; however it is not perfect. It must be improved to include some criteria/factors (feasibility, digital environment); and (ii) the benefit/activity-based segmentation is effective and operational in the context of wildlife attractions. The focusgroup members estimated that this segmentation have the features needed (effective and operational) to be useful in performing marketing managerial tasks. However, it is not a

panacea, a magic stick for any marketing action. This tool must be used and implemented in combination with other tools of strategic marketing. Only then tourism businesses will be in position to conceive and manage effective marketing plans.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Marketing planning involves distinct stages and tasks that must be implemented and performed properly in order to create a successful marketing plan. In every stage of this process, decisions need to be made. These stages include analysing consumer behaviour, segmenting the market, targeting market segments and positioning the organisation, setting measurable marketing objectives, choosing generic marketing strategies and selecting/designing an effective marketing mix (Kotler et al., 2010). This paper focused on the second stage of marketing planning and examined the effectiveness of the benefit/activity-based market segmentation. Firstly it proposed a series of criteria that could be used as an assessment framework to evaluate the effectiveness and operation ability of this segmentation. It was then empirically tested by means of a qualitative research method (focus group) that explored the perceptions and opinions of business practitioners, marketing experts and scholars. The main conclusions of this study are twofold. Firstly, at conceptual level, an evaluation framework to assess the effectiveness and operation ability of market segmentation was proposed. This framework, based on five segmentation rules, includes twelve criteria, namely: measurability, substantiality/attractiveness, relative stability, accessibility, decision-supporting, actionable ability, cost-effectiveness, internal homogeneity, external homogeneity, responsiveness, operational relevance to marketing strategy, and operational ability. This framework could constitute a good basis to assess not just the benefit segmentation, but any type of segmentation. Secondly, the study's findings indicate that (i) this evaluation framework is simply good, not perfect; it must be improved to

include some additional factors, especially to take into consideration the developments in information and communication technologies and digital environment; (ii) the benefit/activity-based segmentation is effective and operational for tourism market within the context of wildlife attractions. This segmentation meets the main effectiveness criteria. However, it is not a panacea; it must be adequately used, following the principles of strategic marketing planning. This tool must be implemented along with other tools of strategic marketing, e.g. positioning and targeting. Obviously, the strategic implications of segmentation lie primarily in promotional strategy; decisions include selecting the communications techniques, tools and media. However, promotion should not be seen in isolation, as it cannot facilitate long-lasting success, unless supported on all the relevant marketing functions such as product/service, price and place. This study generates some useful practical implications in the fields of strategic marketing. Firstly, the outlined evaluation framework to assess segmentation's effectiveness, despite its shortcomings, might be used by tourism business marketers in performing their tasks. The study's findings also suggest that segmentation analysis should be approached as a process following some rational steps. Secondly, it might be argued that benefit segmentation (based on activities) is an effective and operational method of subdividing the wildlife attractions market; although it must be used properly within an integrated approach to marketing planning, as suggested by literature and confirmed by present study. The study's findings provide evidence that this segmentation method is effective in management and operational terms. Benefits involve specific tourism consumer behaviour, activities during holidays. Nevertheless, this type of segmentation could be more efficient and operational if the identified segments could be translated into precise tourism experience and activities. Only then businesses would be in a position to design the adequate offering of customer experiences. Furthermore, it must be stressed that the challenge for tourism business managers is to make sure that their

organisations have the infrastructure and potential required to meet their promises, that is financial and human resources to adequately target the chosen market segments, provide these segments with the adequate experience opportunities, and have the operation ability to service them.

Before completing this paper, it is worth pointing out that the exploratory nature of study has inherent drawbacks of the method used (focus groups). Therefore, its findings cannot be generalised. There is a need for more empirical studies.

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Service Dominant Logic for Innovation in Nature Based Tourism

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, the service dominant logic (S-D logic) has gained increased attention in both marketing and innovation research due to its focus on co-creation. Based on the idea that characteristics of products and services influence the unevenness of co-creation processes across different tourism sectors, it is explored in this paper what the S-D logic means for innovation in nature-based (NB) tourism. S-D logic and five particularities of NB tourism are discussed in order to explore the meaning of the premises of the service dominant logic for innovation in nature based tourism. The tourism experience is the most central co-creational practice of a tourism firm where all actors play their own role. During these co-creational practices, new knowledge and insights become available for innovators in tourism firms. Drawing on existing research, the article concludes that the SD-logic can be a useful framework for studying innovation in NB tourism and offer inspiration and insights for tourism practitioners that wish to work with innovation.

KEYWORDS Service dominant logic, co-creation, NB tourism, innovation

INTRODUCTION

The constant accumulation of incremental and revolutionary changes in tourism continuously redefine and reshape the arena of tourism occupied by firms, tourists and other agents (Hall et

al., 2008). Many tourism innovation researchers have argued that these innovation processes and innovations can only be understood when looking at the interaction of tourism firms with their environment, and especially their customers (Shaw et al., 2011, Hoarau and Kline, 2014, Cabiddu et al., 2013) because knowledge sharing for innovation is inherently a social process. Even more so because the tourism sector is increasingly based around the customer experience and as such firms and tourists interact more closely together at all stages of their relationship (Shaw et al., 2011) and especially during co-creation. The joint role of organizations and customers in value co-creation processes has been theorized by the increasingly popular service dominant logic (Cabiddu et al., 2013, Vargo and Lusch, 2008). Shaw et al (2011) have therefore introduced the service dominant (S-D) logic in a tourism management setting by arguing that the application of the concepts of S-D logic provides a framework with which to examine supplier-customers processes involved in co-creating the visitor experience. They argue that the S-D logic is particularly relevant to tourism management since it is based on an understanding of the interwoven fabric of individuals and organizations. In other words, the S-D logic is build upon a relational, networked ontology that understands social and physical elements in the world to be connected and interacting. These processes of interaction and exchange form the basis of innovation in tourism. Shaw et al. (2011) have argued that characteristics of products and services (like for example nature-based tourism experiences, hotel rooms or luxury cruises) influence the unevenness of co-creation processes across different tourism business sectors. In this paper I will explore what the service dominant logic means for innovation in the sector of nature-based (NB) tourism. The question this paper seeks to answer is: how do the particularities of innovation in nature-based tourism affect the premises of the service dominant logic?

NB tourism can be understood as tourism 'primarily concerned with the direct enjoyment of some relatively undisturbed phenomena of nature' (Valentine, 1992). Examples of NB

tourism are: diving tourism, whale-watching, wildlife safaris, hiking tourism, expeditions etc. Especially in Nordic countries, nature tourism is an important contributor to the tourism sector (Hall and Saarinen, 2010). NB tourism is a part of the experience economy that has its own particularities that can shed new light on aspects of the S-D logic. However, innovation research in this tourism sector is underrepresented and a framework that represents the particularities of innovation processes in this sub-sector, is still lacking (Hjalager, 2010). The particularities that are discussed in this paper are the arena of nature based tourism and co-creation with a multitude of actors (vs. the dyadic relationship between tourist and provider). For example, Hoarau and Kline (2014) argue that in experience based tourism, there are more relations and co-creational interactions than only the ones between customers and firm that influence innovation processes. Examples are the relations between tourism employees and researchers, consultants, wildlife and others that interact with tourism firms. Wildlife plays a special role in NB tourism. On the one hand wildlife is the most important resource for co-creation but on the other hand tourism providers do not own or control wildlife and as such they are actors by themselves. Interaction is voluntary which makes innovation efforts often geared towards reducing the insecurities of wildlife watching. Two other particularities of NB tourism that are discussed in this paper are the motivations of tourists and providers to engage in co-creation and the simultaneous co-creation and co-production in practice and the way this affects knowledge sharing and learning for innovation.

In the remaining of the paper the theory of service dominant logic will be discussed. Subsequently the particularities of tourism innovation and NB tourism will be further explored. This theoretical background will form the basis for discussing the premises of SD-logic for innovation in NB tourism. The case of whale watching as example of NB tourism is used to discuss the different premises. The paper ends with discussing the relevance and

usefulness of applying SD-logic in NBtourism innovation research and identifies key areas for future research.

THEORETICAL DISCUSSION

In an influential paper in the Journal of Marketing, Vargo and Lusch (2004) argue that there has been a shift in marketing and management from a 'resource dominant' to a 'service dominant' (S-D) logic. Although introduced already 10 years ago, S-D logic is still an emerging school of thought within marketing and management that is open for further elaboration, refinement and development (Clausen and Madsen, 2014) and there are ample opportunities to further extend innovation theory by adopting S-D logic (Michel et al., 2008). In addition, Shaw et al. (2011) have argued that there is a considerable scope to explore the ideas of co-creation within a tourism context.

Resources

Fundamental to the S-D logic is the way resources are understood. Vargo and Lusch (2004) distinguish between operant and operand resources. Operand resources are resources on which an operation or act is performed to produce an effect, and they compare operand resources with operant resources, which are employed to act on operand resources (and other operant resources). The S-D logic emphasizes the importance of operant resources and as such the dynamic nature of resources in action, which produce a service that creates value. Along this line of thinking, Edvardsson et al.(2011)define service as the application of resources linked to competence (knowledge and skills) for the benefit of an actor. Resources are not objective and existing outside of the social world. Instead, they are socially constructed, or in other words, they *are* not; they *become* (Vargo and Lusch, 2004).

The first particularity of nature based tourism is the role of their most important resource for

co-creating value: wildlife. However, wildlife, like whales or elephants or moose, is not a resource that can be applied in the traditional sense; they have a will of their own. Interaction with wildlife is (to an extent) voluntary for the animals involved and therefore highly unpredictable. For example whales are the most important resource for whale-watching companies. For a wildlife operation to be successful from a tourist's perspective, the animals should display most of the following characteristics. They should be: predictable in activity or location, approachable, readily viewable (open habitats), tolerant of human intrusion, possess elements of rarity or local super abundance and diurnal activity pattern (Reynolds and Braithwaite, 2001) pp. 34). Despite that whales in Nordic whale-watching locations display the above-mentioned characteristic, they can still dive and swim away anytime they don't want to be watched. Whale-watching companies try therefore many things not to disturb them, or even lure them, so that tourists can watch them in their natural habitat. So, not only are whales not a resource in the traditional sense, they can also choose to be a resource one day and refuse the other. This means that in some occasions, the tourism company has to create a valuable experience without their most important resource that decided to not become a resource during that particular tour. Some whale-watching companies prefer therefore to call their product 'an experience at sea' instead of a whale-watching tour.

Motivations for co-creation

The second particularity of nature based tourism are the motivations of providers and tourists to co-create experiences. Co-creating actors in NB tourism are likely to have different motivations for co-creation than actors in other sectors. Shaw et al. (2011) illustrate the S-D logic in tourism with data from case studies from the hospitality industry. They argue that characteristics of products influence the unevenness of co-creation processes across different

business sectors (Etgar, 2008, Thomas et al., 2011, Shaw et al., 2011). Etgar (2008) argues that consumers engage in co-production to achieve pre-set goals that reflect diverse consumer values and serve as motivational forces – psychological drives that encourage consumers to participate in such activities (Shaw et al., 2011). In the case of nature based experience tourism, consumers may decide to participate in production activities (the tour itself) because the very act of participation and performance of the relevant tasks can yield experiences that provide psychological benefits. Tourists that co-produce a nature based tourism experience are mainly driven by intrinsic values to do so. They want to become immersed in the experience (Hansen and Mossberg, 2013). Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) explain that intrinsic values imply that an experience is appreciated for its own sake and among potential intrinsic values he includes a desire for play and fun (an experience enjoyed by oneself and actively pursued for its own sake) and a search for aesthetics (when a co-productive experience ensures a self oriented appreciation of the aesthetic value of such activity) (Shaw et al., 2011). Holbrook also lists a drive for ethics and a drive for spirituality (Shaw et al., 2011). The value placed on excitement and variety seeking can be added to this list (Etgar, 2008). In addition, it has been argued that consumers may want to participate in various production activities because these offer deviation from their daily routines (Shaw et al., 2011). Values of tourism providers influence the co-creation process as well. For example, Ateljevic and Doorne (2000) and Thomas et al. (2011) do not see tourism actors as rational, problem-solving machines but rather as beings who are influenced by values in their business practice and decision-making processes (Ateljevic & Doorne, 2000; Thomas et al., 2011). Tourism owners are often life-style entrepreneurs that have made their work out of their passions and hobbies. Their subjective beliefs, passions and knowledge is input in the co-creation of the tourism experience and affects how they interpret knowledge learned in practice. The innovation process is thus influenced by the subjective beliefs, interpretations

and knowledge of different social groups and actors both inside and outside the organization. This is because people seem to act toward things (and thus create value) based on the meaning those things have for them; and these meanings are derived from social interaction and modified through interpretation (Blumer, 1986).

The nature based tourism arena

The dynamic interaction of resources and actors in order to produce an experience happens in a system where all elements are interconnected. As argued in the previous paragraph, the resources and motivations of actors to co-create an experience are different in NB tourism than in other tourism sectors and the system in which these experiences are co-created is unique as well (third particularity). A nature based tourism system can be perceived as layered. In the core are the actors that produce the immediate experience like customers, employees and nature or wildlife and has therefore also been referred to as the experience scope (Mossberg, 2007). Specially selected goods or material objects, knowledge and skills are all interconnected and interacting with actors to produce the experience. Also involved within the system, but not in the core anymore, are both partners and competitors of a tour company; the interaction is critical and frequent, but perhaps secondary by comparison to the interactions that occur between actors in the core. This can be thought of as the destination network. Between actors and organizations in these networks, knowledge sharing is taking place but depending on the strength of the relations between actors (Hoarau et al., 2014). The outer most ring of the tourism system contains the groups that impact and are impacted by the tour company, albeit in lesser intensity and frequency than the partners and competitors. All these actors in the nature based tourism system, or network, bring their own unique knowledge base and that is why networks can both function as repositories and generators of knowledge, which is considered of critical importance for innovation (Cooper, 2006, Bertella,

2011, Hoarau, 2014, Hoarau and Kline, 2014). Appropriate relationships with external actors appear to be associated with higher innovation orientation within firms (Alsos et al., 2014 pp. 8). For example, Hjalager (2007, 2010) applied the concept of innovation systems to tourism case studies and found that, on the one hand, inter-firm relations and cooperation are crucial to the transfer of information, inspiration and eventually innovation (Hoarau et al., 2014). As Alsos et al. (2014) pointed out; knowledge exchange that occurs in the system is one of the most important features of innovation systems. Tether and Metcalfe (2003) argue that the knowledge bases of service- and experience products are diverse and can change fundamentally over time. Because of the changing character of knowledge bases, the boundaries of the systems of innovation are understood to be evolving. Tether and Metcalfe (2003) have referred to this as system evolution where over time new agents with different knowledge bases have been brought into the system. Sundbo and Gallouij (2000) have argued that the tourism industry does not fit the criteria for an innovation system but instead fits the description of a loosely coupled system that promotes innovation (Alsos et al., 2014). System evolution and changing knowledge bases are even more characteristic for loosely coupled systems than they are for more rigid innovation systems because the boundaries are more fluid. It depends on the sources of knowledge that tourism actors are interacting with during a certain period of time. One constant and important source of knowledge is the customer. This is why the service dominant logic is considered to be so well fitting to study innovation in tourism; the customer is understood as most important source of knowledge (Shaw et al., 2011). This is confirmed by empirical research in tourism. For example, Rønningen and Lien (2014) and Clausen and Madsen (2014) found in their research that experience based tourism firms use customers as a source of knowledge and the majority of the firms consider this knowledge important for innovation. Clausen and Madsen (2014) and Fuglsang and Sundbo (Fuglsang et al., 2011) also found suppliers, competitors and other tourism firms to be

important sources of knowledge for innovation. In nature based tourism, there is a special role for scientists as co-creators and as sources of knowledge as well (Hoarau and Kline, 2014). For example, during a whale-watching tour, guides, deckhands, captains, marine biologists, customers and wildlife are co-creating the experience. During these co-creation practices, knowledge is shared between these stakeholders present in the experience. In the following paragraph, I will explore deeper how this knowledge sharing between stakeholders affects the innovation process in nature based tourism.

Knowledge sharing and learning for tourism innovation

The fifth particularity of NB tourism discussed in this paper is the way tourism actors learn and share knowledge for innovation. Innovation can be defined as the process of making changes, large and small, radical and incremental, to products, processes, and services that result in the introduction of something new for the organization that adds value to customers and contributes to the knowledge store of the organization (O'Sullivan and Dooley, 2009). Innovation requires a view of novelty plus the ability to implement it (Nooteboom, 2009, Pitelis, 2002) and as such it involves the capacity of people to change and adapt (Hjalager, 1997, Hall et al., 2008, Hjalager, 2010). Innovation in tourism can be understood as a form of service innovation and most innovations in tourism are non technological and consist of a change of behaviour (Sundbo, 1997). Because these kinds of innovations are not directly visible, the tourism industry has wrongly the reputation of not being very innovative (Hjalager, 2002).

Most innovation theories are building further on the work of Schumpeter (Sundbo, 1997, Schumpeter, 1934, Hjalager, 2010). Schumpeter's legacy has proven useful for the service dominant logic as well because as early as the 1930s, Schumpeter (1934) in his writings on the role of innovation in economic development, identified the importance of intangible

innovations (Edvardsson et al., 2011). Sundbo (1998) discusses three basic approaches to innovation that are based on different aspects of Schumpeter's work: entrepreneurial theory, technology economics theory and the strategic-reflexivity theory (Sundbo, 1997, Sundbo and Fuglsang, 2002, Hjalager, 2010). Some overlap and transfer of elements among these three basic theories exist; yet, different processes, innovation-agents and driving forces are fundamental to each. The entrepreneurial- and strategic approaches operate with all types of innovation, while the technology economic approach mainly operates with process and product innovations. In the technology-economics and entrepreneurial approach the push-factor, whether defined as technology development or entrepreneurial activity determines innovation. The strategic-reflexivity approach sees innovation often as pull-oriented towards market possibilities (Sundbo, 1998) and other environmental factors. From this attitude towards driving forces of innovation follows that the strategic reflexivity approach, understands innovation as a social process where actors manipulate with, and perform strategies and roles. This actor is a reflecting being that tries to make sense of its environment. The concept of reflexivity stems from temporary sociology (Malerba, 2006) and is trying to understand the phenomenon that people in our modern society follow their own trajectory in a world that is full of possibilities and dangers (Hoarau and Kline, 2014). Therefore, they inevitably reflect upon their situation and try to find out what would be clever to do. Sundbo & Fuglsang (2006) argue that innovation is a way to develop solutions to (socially constructed) problems of firms and individuals and to reduce risks. In order to survive in the modern world, firms need to be able to make interpretations and choices, recruit personnel who are engaged in critical dialogue, establish reflexive roles and change the relation to the environment to become more complementary and flexible (Malerba, 2006). So, by strategically reflecting upon the internal and external environment of the firm, people get new ideas and knowledge for change and innovation.

Hoarau (*in review*) argues that the strategic reflexive approach to innovation is quite similar to what Ordanini and Parasuraman (2001) have proposed as innovation viewed through a service dominant lens. They have derived three relevant drivers for service innovation based on the premises of the service dominant logic: collaborative competences, dynamic capability of customer orientation and knowledge interfaces (Reynolds and Braithwaite, 2001). Collaborative competences are based on the idea that the customer always plays an active role in service offerings by integrating his or her own set of resources and competences into any service activity (Reynolds and Braithwaite, 2001). Ordanini and Parasuraman (2011) argue that effective new service development depends on the continuous renewal, creation, integration, and transformation of information and knowledge. To be able to do this, the company needs to have the dynamic capability of orientation towards the environment. This can take many forms as Hjalager and Nordin (2011) argue when they discuss the concept of user driven innovation. They demonstrate that a range of methods exist which can be constructively exploited to harvest valuable ideas and inspiration from customers. However, orientation towards the environment goes beyond active harvesting of customer knowledge. It is also about reflexivity in practice to understand value-creation during the moment that the service or experience is happening. In tourism, customers and providers interact during this practice, which leads to sharing of knowledge, ideas and values. This happens in regard to customers, but not limited to them as other actors in the environment, like the government, competitors, nature etc., are also sources of knowledge and information (Hall et al., 2008). In NB tourism, knowledge for innovation is even derived from observing nature while co-creating the tourism experience (Hoarau, 2014). Thus, the production and consumption of the experience are the locus where all actors come together, the experience practice is the moment where all parties involved learn and gain new knowledge. Hjalager and Nordin doubt that staff skills are sufficient enough to interpret what happens during the encounter with

customers. However, Hoarau (2014) shows that tourism managers and staff do interpret and reflect upon customer interaction and that this new knowledge contributes to innovation despite the challenges that are met during these continuous innovation processes.

THE PREMISES OF THE SERVICE DOMINANT LOGIC IN A NB-TOURISM

CONTEXT – THE EXAMPLE OF NORDIC WHALE WATCHING

Whale watching has become a booming worldwide industry that attracts around 10 million people a year who spend more than 1.25 billion US dollars (Einarsson, 2009). The number of whale-watchers is increasing by 12% a year, which is more than three times that of the overall tourism industry (Einarsson, 2009). There are 495 communities in 87 countries and territories that now offer whale-watching tours. Whale watching companies are innovative and their success and survival depends on how well they can adapt to their ever-changing environmental and social environment. As argued so far, the ability to adapt and innovate depends to a large degree upon how knowledge is acquired and absorbed from co-creational encounters with several actors. The service dominant logic is build upon eight premises (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). In the following the premises of the SD logic will be discussed and applied to the case of whale watching in order to explore how they can contribute to innovation processes in NB tourism.

Premise 1 - application of skills & knowledge as fundamental unit of exchange

In the case of NB tourism, the tourism experience is the effect that is created by applying resources for the benefit of the customer or tourist. Most of these resources are operant, like the knowledge and skills of the guides and captain of the whale watching vessels the participating tourist, wildlife, the environment, and the equipment needed to have access to or see wildlife. The first premise of the SDLogic is that the application of specialized skills and

knowledge is the fundamental unit of exchange (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). The guides and captains on board a whale-watching vessel have knowledge and skills that they use to create a tourism experience. The guide stages a story for the tourists on board in order to tell them about the surrounding culture, nature and wildlife. This story of the guide depends on the interactions with nature and is therefore never the same. It also develops and evolves because the guides interact with researches and tourists all the time. They learn what kind of stories are interesting for what kind of people (Hoarau and Kline, 2014). Innovation according to the service dominant logic is about improving the experience for the customer. Improving the stories that are told can improve the value for the customer because he or she becomes more immersed in the experience. Innovation in tourism should therefore focus on helping the customer to get immersed in the experience. The combination of knowledge, skills, nature, wildlife, technology and other assets of the company (like the boat, floatation jackets etc.) together form the value-proposition and the tools the company has to engage the customer in the experience. The tourist co-creates the value during the tour and as such shares knowledge and values with the staff. Like that the staff learns about how tourists create value during the tour, what is important to facilitate value and what differences there can be between different tourists (see (Hoarau and Kline, 2014) for a discussion on interpretation and reflexivity of NB tourism staff during whale watching tours and other practices). This is the most important input in innovation processes and as such SD-logic premise one brings important insights for what the focus should be for innovation processes in nature based tourism.

Premise 2 - indirect exchange masks the real unit of exchange

Tourists buy a ticket for a whale watching tour to have access to technology, knowledge and skills that are needed to see and understand whales in their natural habitat. Due to specialization of labour in our society, the knowledge and skills of the guides are not

exchanged for the particular skills of the customer but for money that has the role of exchange vehicle. This kind of indirect exchange masks the fundamental unit of exchange; physical and mental skills that are input for the co-creation process. Vargo & Lusch propose this as the second premise of the service dominant logic (Vargo and Lusch, 2004). Understanding this second premise can help bringing insight into the difference of co-creation processes between customers. Depending on their relations with the world, their history and social context, they construct the experience differently (Lindberg et al., 2013). Some customers get immersed in the experience of whale watching while others don't depending on their preferences, mood, company, history etc. However, the value of the experience for tourists depends to a large extent on the value-proposition of the tourism providers who can actually influence quite a lot the relations that tourists have with their physical environment during the experience. For some tourists value is only created when they see whales while for others the experience of an adventure at sea is already enough to make the price of the tour worth it. The most difficult challenge for whale watching companies is that nature and wildlife are so unpredictable and therefore difficult co-creators of value. Innovation activities are therefore often aimed at reducing this unpredictability (for example by developing techniques to find or approach whales) or by enhancing the value-proposition to get immersed in the tour. Getting the customer to create value even when the weather is bad and there are no whales. This is difficult because every customer is different. However, story telling is a promising tool for co-creating value and meaning for customers in experience tourism (Mossberg, 2008).

Premise 3 - goods as distribution mechanisms for service provision

Several goods are needed to provide the service of whale watching. For example, a boat is needed to bring the tourists into the natural habitat of marine mammals out on the ocean.

These boats are often adapted to having tourists on board that want to look at the sea, which means they are equipped with places to sit, have toilets on board and all the necessary safety equipment. The third premise of the SDL is about the role of goods, like the whale watching boats, and argues that goods are distribution mechanisms for service provision. Looking closely into the type of goods that are used in the service provision, can tell what kind of services are actually offered. In the case of whale watching, some companies choose a fast catamaran while others opt for a traditional oak schooner to see the same whales. The service offered is not the same. The catamaran offers a fast and comfortable tour while the traditional schooner offers the experience of feeling like a real Viking hunting for whales (with your camera) for a few hours. Hence, goods play an important role in value-creation and especially in the experience sector; they can be a powerful mechanism for creating different types of value for the same outcome or product. In this example of marine experience tourism, there does not seem to be an easy answer for defining the role of wildlife as resource in the value creating process. Are the whales and other cetaceans operant or operand resources? They are not merely an input in the production process, like raw materials, as they are able to produce an effect as well. Whales and other marine mammals are watched in their natural habitat where they can choose to participate in the tourism experience. If they are not interested, or scared, to interact with people, they can dive and swim away. Interactions with wildlife are known to have an effect on the behaviour of wildlife and as such, they are operant resources that co-produce the service. Just like customers, they are active participants in relational exchanges and co-production. This role of non-human actors in service provisions is unique for this type of tourism.

Premise 4 - knowledge as fundamental source of competitive advantage

The fourth premise of the service dominant logic paradigm is that knowledge is the fundamental source of competitive advantage. Knowledge about customer preferences is gained via numerous encounters in practice and absorbed into the company by strategic reflexive processes (Hoarau, 2014). In addition, some whale-watching companies use other tools like customer surveys, complaint collection and analysis, social media analysis etc. to gain knowledge from customers. Other actors are important sources of knowledge as well and especially the ones that can reduce the unpredictability of nature and wildlife (see previous premise). Whale watching companies that have knowledge about behaviour of whales, the environment and weather conditions have competitive advantages because they can propose an experience with higher value for the customer. On the one hand this knowledge is gained via cooperation with biologists and naturalists (Hoarau and Kline, 2014). On the other hand, years of experience of captains and staff bring knowledge about nature and wildlife. This is more practice and experience based knowledge than academic knowledge but nevertheless fundamental for carrying out the business. In whale watching there are thus several types of different knowledge that all play a unique role in providing customer value. The total knowledge base of the company is a social resource as it is strongly linked to the people working there. Via strategic reflexive processes tourism managers can apply this knowledge in innovation processes (see Hoarau and Kline, 2014, for a discussion of strategic reflexivity in nature based tourism).

Premise 5 - all economies are service economies

Vargo and Lusch (2004) argued that the increased refinement and exchange of knowledge and skills, or operant resources leads to specialization in economies. Virtually all the activities performed today have always been performed in some manner; however, they have become increasingly separated into specialties and exchanged in the market' (Vargo and

Lusch, 2004). So, the service of whale-spotting has been around for a while (for example as a skill of whale-hunters), however, not the service of offering an adventure at sea for tourists. Premise 5 assumes that people used to take care of their own experiences before outsourcing them to tourism companies. This relates to the motivations that tourists have co-create value together with tourism companies. Maybe it is no coincidence that most customers of whale-watching companies are big city dwellers from the US and Europe. The experience of gazing at nature and wildlife, having a spiritual encounter with unspoiled, wild nature is not an everyday reality for them but a service they have to buy from a specialized provider. This could be a reason why authenticity is more and more important in innovation processes; it addresses the basic motivations of customers to engage in whale-watching and other nature based experiences.

Premise 6 - customer as co-producer and co-creator of value

This leads to the next premise that the customer is always a co-producer and value is co-created when resources are used. As argued earlier, the service dominant logic is a well fitting framework for understanding the nature of tourism experiences and to understand the role of the customer. The role of the company is to create an experience environment in which consumers can have active dialogue and co-construct personalized experiences; the value-proposition might be the same but customers can construct different, personalized experiences. These kind of high-quality interactions that enable an individual customer to co-create unique service experiences with the company are the key to unlocking new sources of competitive advantage (Prahalad, 2004). Innovation challenges are then to be flexible as a company in order to understand the customer and offer different value-propositions depending on the types of customers. In whale-watching tourism, this is a skill that guides develop over time (Hoarau, 2014). They learn to understand for example the cultural

background of different tourists and adapt their story accordingly. This means that not only management but the staff as well is increasingly important in innovation processes as they often have this kind of knowledge and experience with customers.

Premise 7 - a company can only make value-propositions

From this premise follows that value is uniquely and phenomenologically determined by actors on the basis of value in a certain context (Clausen and Madsen, 2014). The tourists or customers have to be physically present in order to produce the experience of whale watching. The value they get from this experience depends on their personal situation and how emerged they are in the experience. Hence, the value the customer gets from the experience depends on his or her own role in the experience. For example, whale-watching customers are often very sick on board the boats and this affects the way they are able to co-produce the value. Whale-watching companies have the possibilities to innovate in order to improve their value-propositions. For example, whale watching companies have started to hand out medication, glasses of water and tissues so that their customers feel better during the tour. Innovation processes are therefore inherently aimed at improving value-propositions directly or indirectly. Product and process innovations are often affecting the value-propositions of tourism companies. Managerial and institutional innovations are less visible for tourists but they affect the value-proposition indirectly as they often are targeting the structure of the company itself. An example is the environmental management system adopted by a whale-watching company. This affects for example how the company carries out several activities and what materials are used for maintenance and development. Using environmentally friendly paint for the boat does not directly affect the customer-experience. However, having an eco-label affects the value-proposition as they customer might feel good that they make sustainable, green choices in their tourism activities. Marketing and

communication are then linked to these kinds of innovations; customers have to know about managerial choices in order to involve them in their co-creation processes. Although tourism companies have considerable scope in innovating their value-propositions, there are other actors involved in the experience as well (like for example wildlife and researchers) that are more difficult to influence while they are part of the value co-creation process anyway.

Premise 8 - a service-centred view is customer oriented and relational

The one who offers the experience and the consumer of it are inseparable, which makes economic exchange in tourism inherently interactive and integrative, or customer oriented and relational. At least, the more interactive and integrative, the better the value-proposition for the customer. Whale-watching companies engage their customers actively by giving them a role in the experience, for example by teaching them how to spot whales or lift the sales of the schooner. The interactive relation with the customer in practice is important for innovation processes because knowledge is shared during these practices (Hoarau, 2013). However, for innovation processes orientations towards and relations with other actors like for example employees, researchers, competitors, consultants and officials are as important. Knowledge sharing with these actors contributes to new ideas for innovation, which will improve the customer experience. So although the focus of innovation processes is enhancing customer value, knowledge comes from a wider range of stakeholders than only the customer.

DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

The question this paper aimed to answer was: how do the particularities of innovation in nature based tourism affect the premises of the SD logic? Table one summarizes the theoretical discussion and links the particularities of NBT to the SD premises.

ParticularitiesNBT	Characteristics	SD-premises
NBT Arena	Core of actors and resources that co-produce the value of the experience: tourism providers, tourists, wildlife, operant and operand resources. Outer layers that interact with the core and provide knowledge input for innovation.	Premise 8: interactive relations between customers and other actors present in the experience. On the one hand these interactive relations are a source of knowledge for innovation that is acquired in practice during the co-creation of the experience. On the other hand the relations and interactions of customers with the different elements of the tourism experience system can be focus of innovation efforts as well.
Collective co-creation	Multiple stakeholders (guides, other staff, researchers, tourists and wildlife) present in co-creation of the tourism experience.	Premise 7: a company can only make value-propositions but value is co-created by all actors involved in the experience practice. This means that there are more actors that are unpredictable and difficult to influence while the scope for proposing value for the company is less big. Premise 8: innovations that enhance the interactive role of customers in co-creation value of experiences.
Wildlife as resource & actor	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Predictable in activity or location • Approachable • Readily viewable tolerant of human intrusion • Possess elements of rarity or local super abundance • Diurnal activity pattern • Unpredictable • Free will 	Premise 2 and 3: Tourism providers have to rethink their value-proposition to tourists so that they don't depend solely on wildlife for creating experience value. The unit of exchange, like for example stories, activities and knowledge, should be the main focus of innovation processes. In addition, the relations between the different actors can be focus of innovation.
Motivations for co-creation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Desire for play and fun search for aesthetics • Drive for ethics and values • Drive for spirituality • Excitement • Variety seeking • Deviation from their daily routines 	Premise 5: all economies are service economies. Nature based tourism experiences are developed in order to meet tourists' intrinsic needs. Premise 6: understanding customers intrinsic motivations for co-creation can help develop innovations that enhance value for customers.
Knowledge sharing and learning for innovation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Renewal, creation, integration and transformation of knowledge • Knowledge interface in practice. • Strategic reflexivity. 	Premise 1: Orientation towards the environment (customers are a small part of it; knowledge for innovation comes from co-creation with other actors as well) Focus on collaborative competences so that knowledge and skills evolve and can be exchanged with customers in order to co-create value. Premise 3: knowledge as fundamental source of competitive advantage means that nature based tourism companies need capabilities to acquire and absorb knowledge for innovation (see Hoarau, 2014).

Table 1: Nature based tourism innovation and SD-premises

Based on SD-logic, tourism services and experiences are understood to take place in an 'experience system'. S-D logic therefore advocates a customer-oriented, relational view in which innovation processes focus on a specific customer need, and the value-proposition embraces the customer's co-creation of value (Michel et al., 2008). However, due to the characteristics of nature tourism, the relational view should be extended from merely the dyadic relation between customer and provider to other agents in the innovation system, like wildlife, NGO's and other stakeholders. Cabiddu et al. (2013) have therefore argued for a multi-relational approach to value-creation based on SD-logic. According to a multi-relational S-D logic actors in the tourism system represent dynamic, operant, and active resources that are connected via many-to-many organizational relationships in which value co-creation is not limited to the supplier and the customer but involves an entire network of stakeholders. Consequently, innovation should be understood as interactive, co-creational process. When the experience is co-created, there is interaction between actors in practice. During this interaction, knowledge and values are consciously and unconsciously shared which means that new information becomes accessible for the tourism firm. This induces learning and a feedback loop back to the tourism company organizing the experience (see Hoarau, 2014).

It has been argued in this paper that wildlife plays a special role in nature based tourism experiences. Acknowledging that wildlife is not a mere resource and including their interests in innovation processes, in addition to interests of customers, could guide development more towards sustainability which is vital for nature based tourism firms because they are directly dependent on the quality and quantity of their natural resources and wildlife to create experiences for their customers. Understanding wildlife behaviour becomes essential for the development of tourism experiences. Because there is a role for non-human actors like animals and objects, actor network theory (ANT) could be interesting to explore further in

order to contribute to understanding innovation processes in nature tourism. See for example Arnaboldi and Spiller (2011) for an application of ANT and stakeholder collaboration in a tourism context.

The premises of the service dominant logic contribute to an understanding of innovation processes within this system on an ontological level. How do we understand the relations between actors? As one-way or two-way connections? For example the importance of dialogue with customers in innovation processes is addressed within the service dominant logic framework and this offers important insights for innovation in NB tourism as well. So far, innovation in NB tourism is mainly based on a strategic reflexive interpretation of customer knowledge and behaviour where real dialogue is limited. In other words, tourists are often treated as passive suppliers of knowledge instead of active co-developers. Tourism companies use different means to understand customers, but these are mainly passive (see Hjalager and Nordin (2011) for an overview of approaches to user-driven innovation) and co-development of new experiences or processes does not seem common practice yet in nature based tourism. Service dominant logic offers a framework to understand innovation processes in nature based tourism that could be helpful for practitioners as well. For example, thinking about the role of wildlife for innovation and the possibilities of dialogue with customers and other actors, could be an incentive for inspiration and innovation in this sector.

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A Pilot Study:

Comparing African Destination Images among American Millennials

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ABSTRACT

Destination images are a historical collection of external events and experiences combined with actual travel. They are developed via organic or induced experiences. This research explores millennials perceptions and how they make destination decisions. Even when they have not visited the continent, the motivation to go and visit are still biased based on their organic/induced experiences. Their images using Bojanic's (1991) 20 question image study is explored.

KEYWORDS Destination image, millennials, Africa

INTRODUCTION

One of the reasons that is cited for people to get an education is that it broadens the mind and creates a global curiosity. Traveling abroad is also considered to be part of the university experience as it expands knowledge about the world. Students have been brought up on movies, television programs, and similar cultural experiences which have formed their perceptions and biases about the desirability to visit countries. However, there are also biases that develop from political, social, cultural beliefs and values on a regional basis because of

interactions with different countries. Therefore, countries and their images exert a pull influence on potential young travelers. For example, Louisiana with its French roots may find that residents desire to travel to France first while California with its relative proximity to Asia and its large Asian population may find other factors desirable. At one Southern university, a trip to China had to be canceled because of a lack of interest while a trip to Australia was sold out. In a different university, the reverse might have happened. Therefore, different regions of the country may alter destination images, changing the desirability to travel there. It would be valuable to assess regional images and then expand the study across the country to compare how perceptions change. Understanding how destination images change across America would aid in creating comparable target market demographic and psychographic profiles for other countries who want the large, lucrative American markets.

In addition, different historical events occur not only in regions, but also across time and experience. Therefore, age also plays a role in changing images. People living through the Depression and WWI have images of Europe that today's college students only read about in history books. A market with people in their 70s and 80s may have more discretionary income with time to spend on travel. People in their 60s used to be the target for travel until the economic downturn created problems in retirement plans and now more are working until their 70s. As a result, there are fewer jobs available for the younger generation and they are moving home with their parents. In addition, retired people are living longer and are also moving in with their children creating a full house for working 50 year olds. Travel plans are now pushed back as the "empty nest syndrome" is no longer a reality in the new family life cycle.

College students are usually at the beginning of their travel careers where they have the desire to travel but perhaps not the finances to go. In a preliminary question, 96% of the students in this study all expressed a desire to travel (4 (29%) and 5(67%) on a 5 point Likert scale). It is also at this age where desire to travel and travel experiences can be compared. Students who have not traveled outside the United States rely on their regionally developed image and may have different images of countries than people who have traveled. In this case, 75% of the millenials have traveled outside the US. The most common countries that were visited: France, Italy, Germany, England, Canada, Mexico, Bahamas, and Costa Rica. When asked to rank where they would prefer to travel now: Australia came in first and second place, followed by Europe. South and Central America came in the middle with Africa then China coming in last. Since .04% of the subjects had visited Australia, .05% had visited Africa, and .01% had visited China, there appears to be a definitive selection process based on organic/induced cultural experiences, rather than actual visitations.

As more countries compete for tourism dollars and fewer people are traveling because of the threatening economies and the increasing cost of transportation, countries need to be aware of their image in the eyes of different groups of consumers. Because of historically significant events in each age bracket and even each geographic region, different fears, perceptions and media hype have proliferated. Therefore, it is valuable to investigate what millenials in a specific region perceive as an image even when they have not been there. In order to reach each group of millenials, the perception of the individuals, not reality, will alter the desirability to travel to different countries. This pilot study uses one university to explore destination images in terms of desirability to travel to Africa. In addition, without practical experiences, what destination image do millenials in a Southern university see when they are asked to decide whether they want to go to visit?

LITERATURE REVIEW

DESTINATION IMAGE

Image, especially destination images, are important in creating a desire in potential visitors to look for information on countries of an evoked set when making a final decision on where to travel. Crompton (1979) defined image as the “sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has about a destination (Crompton 1979:18).” On the other hand, Baud Bovy and Lawson (1977) expanded the defined image as “the expression of all objective knowledge, impressions, prejudice, imaginations, and emotional thoughts an individual or group might have about of a particular place.” In either case, image is an accumulated perception of an individual that includes prejudices and emotional thoughts based on their social and cultural backgrounds that molds their expectations (Jenkins 1999, Javalgi, Thomas, & Rao 1992). This ‘accumulation’ of information changes as one ages and gains more experience. Therefore, millennials, at the start of their travel experiences, have a minimal set of images that tap into their actual experiences. Therefore, this study explores a culmination of mostly cultural images that millennials have accumulated when selecting where to travel.

During the 1970s, Gunn developed image research in tourism by theorizing images are developed in two ways: organic and induced. The organic image develops internally from general information from various media sources like television, books, newspapers and magazines found in the course of everyday living in the culture. Thus, individuals who have never visited a destination nor have sought out any tourism-specific information will likely have some kind of information stored in their memory. People may not think they know anything about a country because they have not sought out information and yet, when asked, they may have very definitive answers on whether they want to travel to a specific country.

This comes from the incomplete organic image that has developed over time. Therefore, millennials who have not traveled outside the United States may still have preferences on countries they would like to visit based on their general knowledge. This might be viewed as a regional ‘conjured’ image since there are no actual experiences on which to base the perception. Since general biases are also political and specific to a country or region, it is important to explore age specific as well as regional images. The organic image is beyond the control of the destination however, it is important to know what that image is. These images may be national and generalizable, but this research is a pilot study exploring the millennials from a specific area and future studies will compare images from various regions to assess whether images are generalizable nationally.

The induced image is created from a conscious effort by tourism promoters seeking to attract tourists to their destination. The induced image is directed by the destination's marketing efforts and includes information from Visitor Information Centers, travel agencies, travel articles, advertisements, and other activities generated by tourism organizations promoting the destination. The induced image is added to the organic experiences to create the second group of students: those who have traveled outside the US and may have even visited the country in question. Because of this direct experience with the destination, the image tends to be more complex and differentiated (Chon 1991, Fakeye & Crompton 1991). An example of this distinction is a study by Baloglu and McCleary (1999), that found significant differences between visitors and non-visitors in their analysis of images by the US pleasure travel market of various Mediterranean tourist destinations. In a similar study, non-visitors perceived Turkey, Italy, and Greece as equally appealing, while visitors found Greece less appealing when compared with Turkey and Italy (Sonmez & Sirakaya 2002). However in another pilot study (unpublished, 2012) students found Greece to be their number one choice

when comparing England, France, Germany, Greece and Turkey. Turkey was their least appealing even though none of the millenials had ever visited Greece or Turkey. This was consistent whether the subjects had traveled in or out of the US. In 1993, Garner expanded this concept of organic/induced by theorizing that these are end points on a continuum in image formation influenced in addition by information credibility, cost and market penetration.

Most travelers choose options due to time and money constraints, however after this, the most favorable image is likely to be chosen (Gartner, 1989). It is important to understand and identify the images held by regional people so that the most lucrative target markets can be selected. Intuitively, the potential travelers with the most positive images would be most likely to have the desire to see more information and then to visit. The identification of these groups would allow marketers to target and develop campaigns that would further enhance their image so that probabilities for travel to their destination would increase (Leisen 2001; Crompton 1979). This would optimize the spending of promotional resources which in turn would result in more effectiveness of campaigns and increased travel to the destination. Therefore, this pilot study is the beginning of exploring regional differences in images, one region at a time.

METHODOLOGY

Using an attitude toward country questionnaire by Bojanic (1991), this study adapted the 20 questions to 19 deleting “hardly any modern roads” and editing “many European tourists” to “Hardly any American tourists.” There were 68 usable responses to the Blackboard survey. Subjects for the pilot were millenials from a Southern university who have formed cohorts that might influence their images with 93% between the ages of 18-22, 88% female, 98% single, and 99% with no children.

RESULTS

General Findings

The first question asked, “Do you have a desire to travel?” Only 2% said it was a ‘little descriptive’, while the majority replied that it was descriptive (29%) to extremely descriptive (67%). Therefore, it is quite likely that these subjects have viewed travel materials with interest when the occasion presented itself. In addition, 75% of the subjects have traveled outside the United States.

To understand their overall preferences, the second question asked, “ Rank these 6 destinations according to your preference to travel there? Central America, South America, Africa, China, Australia, and Europe. Australia placed in first (41%) and second (37.5%) with Europe coming in second. This was interesting since only .04% had traveled to Australia and .07% had been to Europe. South America was third with a close fourth for Central America. If the subjects traveled outside the United States, they primarily had been to Mexico (23%). Africa was fourth out of six preferred choices for travel and China was last.

African Findings

When asked “would you like to travel to Africa?”, comments ranged from friends’ experiences to desire to travel anywhere to generic African images.

My friend is from there and it is very dangerous

I would like to visit Africa because my middle school teacher was from there and he taught the class a little about his culture and would like to see South Africa for myself.

I would like to go to Africa because I have had both friends and family visit and suggest I travel there.

It's not my first choice for a destination to visit, but I wouldn't mind visiting if the opportunity arose.

I would love to go anywhere and visit as long as it is safe.

I think it would be interesting to see how other cultures live.

The major reason to travel to Africa is to see and be part of a safari.

I would love to explore the safari and immerse myself in another culture.

Africa is a dangerous place.

A lot of areas there are under civil wars and instability.

there's a lack of interest in visiting Africa along with the threat of tsetse flies.

Another image is more subtle: Africa as a place to send medical supplies and help out the poor who live in dirt huts and drink polluted water- a place for humanitarian gestures.

“I feel Africa is a very run down continent and the only place I would travel if I had to travel to Africa would be South Africa just because it is the most developed part.

Yes because I like to help people and it would be a good experience for me. It would be something out of my comfort zone and I would learn a lot from the trip.

My church travels to Africa every other summer and I would love to go to Africa to work at the Aids Orphanage in Zambia.

Finally, the major reasons not to go: Africa is a place far away and there is no information about why a person should go.

I really have never had any desire to go that far away from home and it doesn't seem like a place I would enjoy.

Even though Africa has gorgeous landscapes, there is really nothing else attractive out there.

I have not encountered anything that provides me with a desire to travel to Africa.

I am not quite sure what there is to do in Africa. It is intriguing that it is so different from North America, but I'm not sure if I would like to stay for any extended period of time.

I would want to travel there, but there are other locations I would prefer to go to.

I do not like extreme heat, I feel as though it would be hot there.

It has been suggested that people like to travel to cultures that are more similar to their own before trying more unique destinations. However, no one had visited Australia and it is very far away. Yet it was first choice. On the other hand, there have been some very successful movies in America with Paul Hogan, Nicole Kidman, Hugh Jackman, and Mel Gibson to name a few and some movies included scenes and story lines about Australia. In addition, Australians have starred in our tv shows like Simon Baker and in our music Olivia Newton John and AC/DC. There are over 400 acclaimed actors, actresses and celebrities at the Listal website that are labeled Australian who are popular in America. Outback Steakhouse is a

very popular chain restaurant that claims to be Australian in design and food. Therefore, while few have been to Australia, many have cultural perceptions due to the famous popular people and the products they advertise.

On the other hand, there appears to be no destination attractiveness information on Africa for the millenials. While the Listal website immediately appeared on the computer screen for the search term-Australian actors, a site “10 Popular Hollywood Actors Who Are Actually Africans” appeared when the search term was African actors. “The debate about how deeply rooted should one be in order to be considered African is still going on” was the opening sentence for the article. Perhaps the travel perception of Africa is confused and subdued by other peripheral issues. When the students commented on their reasons for traveling to Africa, there appear to be old images and news stories that appear to create a slightly negative image. But more importantly, millennials appear to be saying that there is no travel information. “No reason to go”, was the most prevalent answer.

To gain a better idea of the image that students had about Africa, two destinations were selected to assess the image. South Africa has been heavily in the news especially since they hosted the Soccer World Cup in 2010. The second destination was Mauritius. It was expected that the students would not know anything about Mauritius so the images they selected would be from their subconscious.

South African Findings

Would you like to travel to South Africa? Over 60% of the subjects agreed to strongly agreed that they would like to travel to South Africa. However, most of the same responses as

Africa prevailed. Comments ranged from friends' experiences to a desire to travel anywhere to generic African images.

I have a South African biology professor and when he talks about "home"; it seems like an interesting and exciting place

I have heard a lot about South Africa and its travel/tourism experiences through one of my classes and it has always struck me as a place that I would like to visit.

I would enjoy going to South Africa because it would be an amazing experience but it is not on my top travel list.

Unfortunately, I do not know a lot about South Africa, but that might be an interesting reason to visit.

Some of the more focused responses to South Africa:

Because South Africa is more urbanized so I wouldn't mind visiting
It seems cleaner and nicer than most of the other countries within
Africa, so yes I would.

Because there is a lot of history in South Africa.

If I was to travel to South Africa I would most likely go to volunteer in
the villages

South Africa is a place I've wanted to go ever since I was a little girl.

Capetown is said to be a nice destination.

I would really enjoy relaxing on an exotic South African beach and I
have a deep appreciation for unique wildlife.

South Africa, from what I've heard and researched is the safest place to

go to study and live.

South Africa is completely different from the rest of the continent.

Although I would travel to South Africa before any other part of the continent, I still do not want to go there.

However, most of the responses replied that they had never thought about traveling to South Africa and they did not see any reason to go.

I don't know of anything I could do or see there that I can't do or see anywhere else.

I don't know much about the country, except that the people there speak with British accents.

Don't know of anything specific in South Africa that I would like to see but would be interesting to see the environment there

I don't know much about it and don't know the difference between Africa and South Africa.

I am not sure if I would like to travel to South Africa or not. I think it would be interesting to go there and see how different it is, but it would probably not be my first choice destination.

I think it'd be a good experience. I don't know a lot about South Africa but it'd be cool to visit.

I've never thought about South Africa as a place I'd like to visit but

I'm open to going anywhere. I love to travel and would enjoy seeing any part of the world.

I never have heard anything about South Africa but I wouldn't mind

traveling

The reason to travel to South Africa is because they do not know anything about South Africa. There does not appear to be a strong reason not to go but rather there is no reason to go. Since most of the subjects did not know much about South Africa, Bojanic’s revised questionnaire using a 5 point Likert scale was administered to focus on more details of the destination image for South Africa.

Table 1
Destination Images for South Africa

	Strongly Agree		Strongly Disagree		
1. Sunny destination.	77	21	2	0	0
2. Beautiful architecture	50	25	21	4	0
3. Boring place to visit.	0	4	27	31	37
4. Beautiful beaches.	65	23	8	2	2
5. Food is different.	27	56	12	4	0
6. People are dishonest.	0	6	25	29	37
7. US\$ does not buy much.	2	6	52	27	10
8. Cities are interesting.	56	35	6	2	0
9. Not safe to visit.	4	19	27	15	35
10. Shopping Bargains.	21	42	25	10	0
11. Good night life.	27	31	31	10	0
12. Poor country	6	17	60	13	4
13. Not many American tourists	0	27	52	15	6
14. Hotels not as modern	2	31	52	13	2
15. People are hospitable	52	29	17	2	0
16. Out of the way site	8	29	56	4	2
17. People speak English	27	31	35	6	0
18. Historical sites	25	50	17	8	0
19. People don't like Americans	4	8	35	27	21

It is interesting to note that although most of the subjects admitted to a lack of knowledge about South Africa, they had strong opinions about what South Africa had to offer. South Africa has beautiful architecture, beautiful beaches, good nightlife, and interesting cities. The people are honest, very hospitable, speak English, and like Americans. Some of the questionable areas related to practical issues like how much does a dollar buy, how many

American tourists are there, and how modern are hotels. Two of the areas of uncertainty was the distance and how poor the country was. This contradicted some of the comments that said Africa was too far away and it is a very poor country. Therefore, it appears that if millennials were given reasons to go to South Africa, it would not take a lot of persuasion.

Mauritius Findings

When answering the questions on Mauritius, 83% said they had never heard of Mauritius. In addition, 90% of the subjects did not know where Mauritius was. However when asked whether they would like to travel to Mauritius, 65% answered yes. When asked why? Most of the answers said that they did not know anything about Mauritius.

The Executive Chef at my Resort is from Mauritius, so I would like to go there to see more about where he is from

I have seen many pictures about 6 months ago, and decided to look it up, I know pictures can be deceiving, but the place looks beautiful, and there are no distractions there.

because I have no clue about the area or what it may be like

I have never heard of it.

The only fact I know about Mauritius is that it is an island. An island, I am down to go.

I don't know where it is so I wouldn't know what I would be traveling to.

I wouldn't want to travel there just because i have never heard of it. If i knew more about it I may change my mind about traveling there.

I know that it is an island in the Indian Ocean and looks beautiful, so it does appeal to me as a place to travel. It still isn't on my top places to travel though.

I've never heard of it, random island. It's kind of terrifying looking.

As with South Africa, although most had never heard of it or where it was, they did have strong opinions about some aspects. However, there were more who took the middle road and said they didn't agree or disagree.

Table 2
Perception of Mauritius

	Strongly Agree			Strongly Disagree		
20. Sunny destination.	58	15	17	0	0	0
21. Beautiful architecture	44	17	29	0	0	0
22. Boring place to visit.	0	0	42	23	25	0
23. Beautiful beaches.	50	17	23	0	0	0
24. Food is different.	23	38	29	0	0	0
25. People are dishonest.	0	2	38	19	30	0
26. US\$ does not buy much.	0	4	50	23	6	0
27. Cities are interesting.	33	29	25	0	0	0
28. Not safe to visit.	2	4	38	15	29	0
29. Shopping Bargains.	19	31	38	0	0	0
30. Good night life.	19	31	35	2	0	0
31. Poor country	0	6	67	10	4	0
32. Not many American tourists	2	17	56	8	4	0
33. Hotels not as modern	2	17	56	12	0	0
34. People are hospitable	35	27	23	2	0	0
35. Out of the way site	4	21	56	4	2	0
36. People speak English	21	21	42	4	0	0
37. Historical sites	19	33	35	0	0	0
38. People don't like Americans	2	4	44	13	23	0

Because it was an island, many assumed that it must be sunny with beautiful beaches. They weren't as confident as South Africa when it came time to determine the honesty of the people, the safety of the area and whether Americans were liked, but they did think that people were hospitable. Therefore, it would appear that the less the Millennials knew about a

country, the less confident their image was. However, that did not stop them from having an opinion since they could have answered that it was unapplicable or just not answered.

CONCLUSIONS

This pilot study is based on the demographic and geographic segmentation of millennials. The underlying premise is each geographic region has its organic/induced images about places outside the United States that are based on historical events that have occurred within the region. As a result, each geographic region will have its own perceptions and images. This study is part of a series to assess how large each geographic segment is that have similar perceptions and images. In addition, this study explores the organic/induced images millennials have about Africa so that advertisers can understand what the starting point is to develop a promotional campaign.

In this case, millennials have positive images about Africa. They perceive that the people are friendly, hospitable and like Americans. While they are not confident about their beliefs, overall it seems that they are willing to travel to Africa if they had a reason to go. Therefore, the subjects are open to the adventure but they need a strong image and justification to make the effort.

Future research will include larger samples of millennials in the same region and expand to include samples in different regions across the United States to see if these differences in travel experiences are validated and to explore regional differences in destination images.

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AHTMMC

Advances in the Protection of Tourist Consumers in South Africa

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ABSTRACT

The coming into operation of the Consumer Protection Act, 2008 in South Africa has advanced the cause of consumer protection significantly, including for consumers of tourism services. Tourists are routinely required to consent to exemption clauses excluding the liability of suppliers in the event that harm comes to the consumer, even harm resulting from the negligence of the supplier. The Act introduces both procedural and content controls to be adhered to when making use of an exemption clause. The paper considers these requirements and concludes that exemption clauses in “normal risk” scenarios are unlikely to provide much protection to the supplier. In “high risk” situations suppliers may be more successful in making use of exemption clauses.

KEYWORDS Consumer protection, exemption clauses, accommodation establishment, hospitality

Tourism is one of the key drivers of economic growth and development in South Africa (Department of Tourism, 2011). It is therefore particularly good news for the country that the tourist accommodation segment is set for a period of economic growth over the next five years, with hotels being the fastest-growing category according to Van Winsen (2013). The recent slump of the rand against other major currencies is sure to provide further impetus for this trend.

On 1 April 2011 the Consumer Protection Act 68 of 2008 (CPA) became generally effective in South Africa. It has been said that this Act was bound to change the legal landscape and would leave consumers in South Africa amongst the best protected in the world. The introduction of the Act has also drawn the attention of the hospitality industry. “Guest houses brace for the CPA impact” (Penaluna, 2011) was the heading of one report reflecting the apprehension and uncertainty around the new legislation at the time it came into effect.

The CPA does contain a number of provisions that are very relevant to the tourism industry and the hospitality segment in particular. This paper focuses on the impact which the CPA has on the hospitality industry’s frequent use of so-called “exemption clauses”, by which the supplier excludes liability for harm caused to consumers.

Exclusion of liability

The common law of contract in South Africa rests on the twin principles of freedom of contract and *pacta sunt servanda* and on their consequences: that parties are free to negotiate the terms of their contracts and that contracts entered into are to be upheld. This then will be the case where a consumer signifies his/her assent by signing a written contract whether or not he/she has read and/or understood the terms to which he/she has assented – *caveat subscriptor*. See, for example, *George v Fairmead (Pty) Ltd* 1958 (2) SA 465 (A). Furthermore, a consumer can be held to a contract where the term(s) are contained in a notice

if the consumer was aware of the notice or where the supplier took reasonable steps to bring the notice to the attention of the consumer (see *Durban's Water Wonderland v Botha* 1991(1) SA 982 (SCA)). Such notices are commonly used at public venues such as hotels, restaurants, shopping malls, parking garages, entertainment complexes and tourist attractions (Maxwell, 2012). Suppliers of accommodation services to tourists have also found it most convenient to reduce their risk of liability by inserting a term in the contract with consumers – be it in a written contract signed as part of the registration process, or in the form of a notice displayed at the premises – in terms of which the suppliers are exempted from liabilities they would otherwise be obliged to accept (Christie & Bradfield, 2011). In fact, the use of these exemption clauses have become the rule rather than the exception. (See also *Afrox Healthcare (Pty) Ltd v Strydom* 2002 6 SA 21 (SCA) 42).

Although certain rules have been developed by the courts to mitigate the sometimes very unfair consequences that can result from exemption provisions, the general rule is that these terms are valid and enforceable by the courts (*Durban's Water Wonderland v Botha* 1991(1) SA 982 (AD) and *Afrox Healthcare (Pty) Ltd v Strydom* 2002 6 SA 21 (SCA); see also Maxwell, 2012 and Christie & Bradfield, 2011). Thus, the South African courts have enforced exemption agreements excluding liability on the part of the supplier for harm caused negligently, and even for harm caused through gross negligence, but not for harm caused intentionally (Loubser & Midgley, 2009).

Enter the CPA. It is worth noting that a significant driving force in the development of consumer law in general is the legislative response to exemption provisions used by suppliers to exclude liability in respect of consumers (Van Eeden, 2009).

The CPA and exemption clauses

The CPA contains a number of provisions controlling the use of exemption clauses in consumer agreements. These can be divided into different categories (Naudé, 2009), the first being procedural requirements (also called “incorporation tests” or “prerequisites”). These specify that the exemption clause complies with certain formal requirements before it can become part of the contract between the supplier and the consumer. The second form of control relates to the content of the actual term and this is referred to as “substantive control” or “content control” (relating to the procedural requirements imposed for using an exemption clause). In the third form of control, the Act makes provision for the inclusion of certain mandatory terms by implication in the contract between the consumer and supplier – terms which the parties cannot contract out of. The last form of control is “interpretational control” which involves the rules and process of legal interpretation. Ambiguous terms of contract generally will be interpreted against the drafter of the contract which is usually the supplier of the good or services according to the *contra proferentem* rule which is incorporated in the CPA in section 4(4)(a).

Section 49 of the CPA and the tests of incorporation

Section 49 of the Act prescribes a number of formal procedural requirements for the lawful use of exemption clauses by suppliers. The essence of the section contained in s49(1), is that an exemption clause in a consumer agreement must be drawn to the attention of the consumer. Section 49(3) – (5) provides for the *manner* in which the clause must be drawn to the attention of the consumer. Section 49(2) prescribes additional requirements when dealing with a special class of exemption clause, namely exemption clauses pertaining to activities or facilities constituting an unusual or unexpected risk, or a risk that can result in serious injury or death.

Exemption notice must be in plain language.

Section 49(3) requires the clause to be in plain language. This requirement is supported by section 50(2)(b)(i) which states that if a consumer agreement entered into between a consumer and a supplier is in writing, whether the writing is required by the Act or not, the agreement must be in plain language. Section 52, which sets out the powers of the courts to ensure fair and just terms and conditions in a consumer contract, provides that if an agreement, term or notice fails to comply with the requirements of section 49, the court may sever the term or notice from the agreement or declare it to have no force or effect. Naudé (2009) argues that to require a court to pronounce a term or notice to be of no force and effect is to ignore the limitations the judicial process holds for consumers, particularly in view of the time, cost, risk and effort factors. The challenges faced by tourist consumers, especially international tourists, are even greater. Naudé (2009) suggests that it would have been preferable had section 49 stated that non-compliance with the requirement of section 49 would prevent the supplier from relying on the term or notice, which would mean the court would only need to be approached in the event of a dispute. Although this reasoning is agreed with, it is difficult to foresee that a supplier would use such a term or notice only to concede that it does not comply with the requirements of section 49. Thus, judicial adjudication would in any event be required, not only to pronounce on whether the term or notice was in plain language but also in respect of the other incorporation requirements, not to mention questions relating to content control.

Exemption notice must be conspicuous.

Section 49(4) requires the fact, nature and effect of the clause to be drawn to the attention of the consumer in a conspicuous manner and form that is likely to attract the attention of an ordinary alert consumer, having regard to the circumstance. This must be done *before* the

earlier time at which the consumer is required to pay, or enters into the transaction, begins to engage in the activity or enters or gains access to the facility.

The first formal prerequisite contained in this section requires that the attention of the consumer be drawn to the *fact, nature* and *effect* of the clause. Simply put, it means that the consumer must be made aware of the *existence* of the provision of notice. Secondly, the consumer must be made aware of the *type* of clause or notice, and that the notice or provision establishes a legally binding and enforceable agreement. Thirdly, the consumer must be made aware that the clause or notice may result in the exclusion of the liability of the supplier – or, stated differently, that the consumer is deprived of a right of redress against the supplier where the consumer has suffered a loss, injury or death as a result of the conduct of the supplier, even where the supplier is at fault (such as in the form of negligence). The clause must clearly demonstrate that it has very important legal consequences for the consumer because it means that the consumer will not be able to hold the supplier liable for death, loss or damage even when caused through the fault of the supplier (De Stadler, 2013).

The notice or provision must be drawn to the attention of the consumer in a *conspicuous manner*, meaning in a manner that is easy to see or notice or is likely to attract attention. (See Wehmeier, 2005 for the definition of “conspicuous”.) This requirement addresses the question of whether the supplier took reasonable steps to bring the clause to the attention of the consumer. In a document, it may mean that the exemption clause needs to be placed on the very first page and be formatted in a manner that will result in the likelihood of it being noticed, such as putting it in a larger font, in bold lettering and placed in a box with a clear heading.

In a situation where notices are erected, the type of premises, specific layout and other physical characteristics thereof will play a role in determining whether sufficient notices can be said to be displayed in order to comply with the “conspicuous” requirement. Generally

such notices will have to appear at various locations in sufficient numbers on the premises of the establishment and placed at the public entrances. The notices must be visible, large enough to be seen and read, sufficiently well-lit to ensure their visibility to guests arriving after dark, and the establishment must guard against notices becoming obscured by, for example, plant growth. See for instance *Naidoo v Birchwood Hotel* 2012 (6) SA 170 (GSJ) and *Hanson v Liberty Group Ltd* unreported case: 2009/4633 SGHCJ.

Drawing the attention of the consumer to the disclaimer notice can be done in many innovative ways. Placing a notice in the hands of a garden statue or sculpture may help to draw attention to a notice which may otherwise remain unnoticed. (See in this regard also the suggestions of Corrada, 2006 and Vrancken & Tait, 2008.)

The attention of the consumer must be drawn to the indemnity provision *before* the earlier of the time the consumer is expected to pay for the activity, or the time the consumer enters into the transaction, begins to engage in the activity or enters the facility. The rationale behind this requirement – and the specific formulation thereof – appears to be to provide the consumer with the option to change his/her mind when the exemption provision comes to his/her attention which must be before any agreement is reached, payment is required or participation takes place. This is to protect the consumer from being placed in a difficult situation where he/she has, for instance, already paid and is only then made aware of the exemption provision and its consequences.

This may be quite easy to achieve with on-line bookings, in that the supplier's website can be set up in a manner that requires the consumer to read and acknowledge that the indemnity clause has been read and understood before proceeding to make a booking and/or paying any money. Telephonic bookings on the other hand will have to be handled carefully. If a consumer indicates that a booking is required, the supplier must first warn the consumer that before a booking can be made, the consumer must understand that an indemnity clause is part

of the contract and will then have to explain the indemnity provision to the consumer and get an indication from the consumer that the provision is understood before proceeding with the booking. It may be worthwhile confirming to the consumer via sms or email that the indemnity provision has been explained and understood. The message should include the wording of the clause. Such an action may have significant evidentiary value to show that the indemnity provision was explained and that the consumer assented to it. What is clear is that, for instance, adventure sport companies can no longer book an adventure holiday, require payment and then confront the consumer with an exemption clause upon arrival (Naudé, 2009).

For many accommodation establishments, the practical implication of this requirement will be that the notice will have to be placed outside the premises on a wall next to or affixed to all entrance gates. Besides the fact that such a notice may detract from the aesthetic appeal of the establishment, it will in all likelihood have a dissuasive potential for prospective guests if the first thing the potential guest sees about an establishment is a conspicuous notice excluding the liability of the supplier for death, personal injury or damages which may befall the guest while staying there. However, this may be the price to be paid for compliance with the Act.

Consumers must have an adequate opportunity to consider the notice.

Section 49(5) of the CPA provides that:

The consumer must be given an adequate opportunity in the circumstances to receive and comprehend the provision or notice as contemplated in subsection (1).

This means that consumers confronted with an exemption clause must be given sufficient opportunity to read, consider and question any aspects of the provision before deciding

whether to assent to the specific clause. What the provision is trying to prevent is the consumer being placed in a position where the consumer is pressured into assenting to the exemption provision.

It may be instructive to consider this requirement in the context of participating in an activity offered by an accommodation establishment. Accommodation establishments often offer extra activities to consumers, including adventure activities such as mountain-biking, horse-riding and game drives. Consumers usually are required to sign an exemption agreement before being allowed to participate in such an activity. The consumer is often required to sign or assent to the exemption clause when the activity has already started (for example, the consumer is already in or on the vehicle en route to the activity or already has been granted access to the facility). It is then extremely difficult for the consumer to opt out of continuing. Suppliers of services requiring consumers to assent to an exemption clause must carefully consider practical ways in which the consumer can be afforded a reasonable opportunity to receive and comprehend the exemption provision. It will be sound practice and in line with the requirements of section 49(5) of the CPA to provide consumers with the document containing the exemption provision some time before they are required to sign and submit the document. When handling the reception of the consumer at the time of checking-in, the consumer can be advised of these additional activities and be advised of the exemption form to be completed and signed. At this stage, the consumer can be provided with a copy of the document. This will allow some time to consider the provisions and reflect on them, allowing the consumer an opportunity to question the supplier about the risks involved, for example, before even deciding to participate in the activity. Again, tourists should be provided with copies of indemnity forms where reasonably possible even prior to departing on their holiday, by the supplier via the travel agent or tour operator and/or websites.

Unusual risk.

Section 49(2) of the CPA provides that:

“In addition to subsection (1), if a provision or notice concerns any activity or facility that is subject to any risk-

- (a) of an unusual character or nature;
- (b) the presence of which the consumer could not reasonably be expected to be aware or notice, or which an ordinarily alert consumer could not reasonably be expected to notice or contemplate in the circumstances; or
- (c) that could result in serious injury or death,

the supplier must specifically draw the fact, nature and potential effect of that risk to the attention of the consumer in a manner and form that satisfies the requirements of subsections (3) to (5), and the consumer must have assented to that provision or notice by signing or initialling the provision or otherwise acting in a manner consistent with acknowledgement of the notice, awareness of the risk and acceptance of the provision.”

This subsection imposes, in addition to the formal procedural requirements contained in section 49(3), (4) and (5), further formal requirements in certain situations.

Clearly subsection (2) aims to provide for more serious situations and therefore imposes further and stricter requirements when the notice or clause applies to such a serious situation.

These additional requirements entail firstly, that the supplier must specifically draw the fact, nature and potential effect of that risk to the attention of the consumer in the manner contemplated in section 49(3) to (5) of the Act. Secondly, the consumer must, in the case of an exemption clause (in a written document), assent to the provision by signing or initialling the provision. If the exemption is contained in an exemption notice, the consumer must indicate assent thereto by acting in a manner consistent with acknowledging awareness of the

notice, awareness of the risk warned against, and acceptance of the exclusion of liability on the part of the supplier.

Therefore, in the context of section 49(2) of the CPA, the consumer must be made aware of two risks. The first is the existence of a risk in relation to an activity or facility of an unusual character or nature, or the presence of which the consumer could not reasonably be expected to be aware of or notice, or that could result in serious injury or death (section 49(2)). The second risk is the one constituted by agreeing to the exemption clause and whereby the consumer excludes his or her right of redress as discussed above when considering section 49(4).

It is the context within which the exemption clause provision or notice is used that will determine the exact requirements with which the supplier will have to comply. If the clause or notice is used in a “normal” risk context, then the requirements of subsection (1), incorporating the requirements of subsections (3) to (5), must be complied with. If the notice is used in a “high” risk scenario (as provided for in section 49(2)(a), (b) and (c) of the CPA), the supplier must comply with the requirements of subsection (1), also incorporating the requirements of subsection (3) to (5), as well as the additional requirements as provided for in subsection (2).

A problem that tourist accommodation establishments and tourist attractions may face in implementing the provisions of section 49, is the difficulty encountered when trying to determine whether in a particular situation the requirements as provided for in subsection (1) or subsection (2) must be complied with. It may well mean that such establishments must comply with both sets of requirements depending on the context. A hotel may make use of an exemption clause which is part of the contract concluded with the consumer at time of registration. This clause must then comply with the requirements of section 49(1) of the CPA. However, the hotel may also make use of a clause or notice in respect of particular

activities at the accommodation establishment that may require the application of section 49(2) and the requirements provided therein. For instance, where the hotel offers game drives it may require that consumers sign an exemption agreement complying with section 49(2) of the Act.

It remains to consider the risks covered by section 49(1) and (2) of the CPA respectively. As already indicated, subsection (2) provides for specific types of risks and it can therefore be said that whatever risk falls outside the ambit of subsection (2) will be covered by subsection (1). For this reason, the guidance provided in subsection (2) is considered to determine the ambit of each subsection.

What is of an “unusual character or nature” is not defined in the Act, but paragraph (a) seems to refer to a risk that is intrinsic to that activity or facility and which is “different from what is usual or normal” (to use Wehmeier’s 2005 defines definition of “unusual”). In other words, where the activity is itself unusual, the provisions of section 49(2) must be complied with because the associated risks will therefore be unusual. The risks may even be self-evident, but because the activity or facility is of an unusual character or nature, the provisions of subsection (2) must apply. It appears that the risks contemplated in paragraph (a) are the risks that may flow from a dangerous activity, and it is dangerous mostly because it is unusual or not normal. The unknown aspect or unusual nature of the activity holds the danger or risk (and appeal) for the consumer. The rationale for this paragraph probably is that, even though the potential for risk may be self-evident, it is considered necessary to draw the attention of the consumer to that fact to ensure that he/she is indeed aware and fully understands the nature thereof, and also understands the potential effect of the risk for himself/herself.

Paragraph (b), in turn, provides for the situation where the risk is not evident and risk would not normally be associated with the activity or facility as it is a risk of which a consumer could not reasonably be expected to be aware, or which an ordinarily alert consumer could

not reasonably be expected to contemplate in the particular circumstances. However, the supplier of the activity or facility is aware of the potential risk, or is at least in a position to foresee the risk because of the experience or specialised knowledge that the supplier has. The supplier will therefore have to draw the attention of the consumer to the fact, nature and potential effect of the risk (which the consumer cannot foresee but the supplier should or does foresee) in the prescribed form.

Paragraph (c) pertains to an activity or facility that could cause serious injury or death. As subsection (2) is worded, where there is an unusual risk or one that cannot be reasonably foreseen (even if the risk is such that it will not result in serious injury or death), the supplier must provide the warning. Furthermore, a warning must be provided when any risk exists, whether of unusual character or nature or not and whether it can be foreseen or is not reasonably foreseeable by the consumer, which may result in serious injury or death. Understood in this manner, there is a distinction between the different paragraphs. However, there remains a significant overlap between paragraph (c) and the other paragraphs. The problem created for the supplier by paragraph (c) is that just about any activity can result in serious injury or death. Many accommodation establishments have a swimming pool. Swimming pools may constitute a risk that can lead to serious injury or death, whether from drowning or diving into the pool or slipping on wet surfaces. It may be argued that these risks are not of an unusual character or nature and are in all likelihood reasonably foreseeable but may still result in serious injury or death. This interpretation does place a significant responsibility on the supplier to carefully consider the potential risks (and the potential seriousness) of the facilities and activities provided, in order to ensure that the required warnings are displayed. Failure to do so can be extremely costly.

Section 48(2)(d)(ii) provides that if the fact, nature and effect of the clause or notice contemplated in section 49(1) was not drawn to the attention of the consumer as prescribed

by the section, then the transaction, agreement, term, condition or notice is unfair, unreasonable and unjust. (Section 48 has been criticised for not just providing content control but for confusing and conflating other forms of control with content control. See Naudé, 2009.)

Substantive control measures of section 48 of the CPA

Section 48 of the CPA provides for content control of consumer agreements in that it contains a general prohibition against unfair, unreasonable and unjust terms in consumer agreements. For purposes of the current discussion, section 48(1)(c) specifically prohibits a supplier from requiring a consumer to whom goods or services are provided at the direction of the consumer, to waive any rights, assume any obligation, or waive any liability of the supplier on terms that are unfair, unreasonable or unjust, or impose any such terms as a condition of entering into a transaction.

What constitutes unfair, unreasonable or unjust terms is not defined, but the section itself does provide guidance regarding how these terms are to be understood. (Further to this, the regulations made in terms of the Act will assist greatly in addressing this need.) Section 48(2) provides that an agreement, term or condition will be considered unfair, unreasonable or unjust if it is excessively one-sided to any person other than the consumer, or is so adverse to the consumer as to be inequitable. Section 48(2)(d)(i) provides that if a transaction or agreement was subject to a term, condition or notice contemplated in section 49(1) and the term, condition or notice is unfair, unreasonable, unjust or unconscionable, then the agreement or transaction consequently will be unfair, unreasonable or unjust. This provision – despite the rather circular nature thereof – relates to the substantive (un)fairness of the exemption clause itself and also, arguably, to the potential substantive (un)fairness in enforcing such exemption clause in a particular situation. Thus even if there is full

compliance with the formal requirements of section 49, it may still be that the exemption clause or notice may in its actual, substantive form or application be considered to be unfair, unreasonable and unjust (*Barkhuizen v Napier* 2007 (5) SA 323 (CC) and *Birchwood Hotel v Naidoo* 2012 (6) SA 170 (GSJ)).

In *Birchwood Hotel v Naidoo* 2012 (6) SA 170 (GSJ) which matter arose before the coming into operation of the CPA, the court held that enforcing the exemption clause that existed between the parties would have been unfair and unjust because it would have had the effect of denying the consumer access to the courts. The court came to this conclusion in the specific circumstances of the case where the consumer sustained his injuries in the process of exiting from the hotel. In this regard the court stated:

“To enter and egress is an integral component of his stay. A guest in a hotel does not take his life in his hands when he exists through the hotel gates. To deny him judicial redress for injuries he suffered in doing so, which came about as a result of the negligent conduct of the hotel, offends against notions of justice and fairness.”

In this decision the court provided some guidance as to the application of exemption provisions in “normal” and “high” risk scenarios. Clearly the court was of the view that a term excluding the right of the consumer to hold a supplier liable for personal injury or death resulting from the negligence of the supplier is unfair. Partaking of normal activities like taking a shower, switching on a kettle or television set, exiting or entering through a gate or door are activities that cannot by any stretch of the imagination be considered dangerous and therefore it would be unfair to allow the supplier to exclude liability for death or personal injury resulting from the negligent actions of the supplier. It is important also to remember in this context that property owners are under a legal duty to ensure that their property is maintained in a safe condition and ‘that their property does not present undue hazards for the

public who enter and use the premises. This duty is even greater in respect of property such as a hotel which is designed for use by the public. The hotel is obliged to take reasonable steps to ensure that the public is safe (*Birchwood Hotel v Naidoo* 2012 (6) SA 170 (GSJ)).

In contrast to this, high-risk scenarios may lend themselves to the “fair” use of exemption clauses. This aspect will be considered in the context of regulation 44(3)(a) below.

As stated above, the regulations made in terms of the Act provides significant guidance as to what will be considered to be unfair, unreasonable and unjust terms. Regulation 44 contains a so-called “grey-list” of contract terms that are presumed to be unfair, unreasonable and unjust. Regulation 44(3)(a) in particular may have a significant impact on exemption clauses.

The provision provides:

“A term of a consumer agreement subject to the provisions of subregulation (1) is presumed to be unfair if it has the purpose or effect of-

- (a) excluding or limiting the liability of the supplier for death or personal injury caused to the consumer through an act or omission of that supplier subject to section 61(1) of the Act.”

Thus, the inclusion of a term in a contract which excludes liability for death or personal injury is presumed to be unfair, irrespective of whether the term or notice was brought to the attention of the consumer according to the prescripts of section 49.

A supplier, wishing to rely on the protection of an exemption provision in the event of a claim resulting from the death or personal injury of the consumer, will bear the onus to prove that the exclusionary clause is fair. This presumption will present the supplier with a significant challenge indeed. As indicated above, it is difficult to foresee how a supplier can argue that it is fair to exclude the supplier’s liability for negligence when the consumer undertakes an action that can by no stretch of the imagination be considered dangerous, also

bearing in mind the general duty imposed by the law on suppliers of accommodation services to provide a safe environment. The consequence of this provision may well be that terms or notices excluding the liability of a supplier for the death or personal injury of a consumer sustained during participation in normal risk activities (section 49(1) scenarios) will not be considered fair.

The likelihood is greater that exemption provisions in respect of high-risk activities (or section 49(2) scenarios) will more readily be considered fair because these activities may often entail a considered decision by the consumer to expose himself/ herself to dangerous activities. But again this may depend on the context.

Where a supplier (hotel) offers certain high-risk activities such as exposure to wild animals, then the supplier may be more likely to show that the exemption provision is indeed fair in the specific circumstances. This is an important consideration since adventure tourism has become one of the fastest growing niche markets in international tourism, and South Africa markets itself as an adventure destination. Tourists seek adventure and with adventure comes an inherent risk. It may well be argued that suppliers should be allowed to protect themselves against the risks that may result from even the slightest negligence. But of course the supplier will also have to establish that there was complete compliance with section 49 of the CPA, particularly since a significant part of the supplier's case that the exemption provision is fair will rely on the consumer making an informed decision to participate in the high-risk activity. It may be against the interests of justice and fairness if a party is prevented by law from protecting himself/herself from civil liability despite the other party's willingness to contract on that basis, particularly in the context of a high-risk situation and where there has been full compliance with tests of incorporation (See the separate judgment of Marais JA in *Johannesburg Country Club v Stott* 2004 (5) SA 511 (SCA)).

A further aspect of regulation 44(3)(a) to be considered is the fact that the regulation is only relevant to exemption provisions applicable in the event of death or personal injury, and not to damage or loss of property. Thus an exemption provision incorporated into a contract with a consumer must be presumed unfair insofar as it excludes liability for death or personal injury, but not if it excludes liability for damage or loss to property.

Effect of non-compliance with section 49

As indicated above, section 52(4)(a)(ii) of the CPA provides that in proceedings before a court where it is alleged specifically that any agreement, term or condition of an agreement, or notice does not comply with the applicable requirements of section 49 of the Act, a court may sever such provision or notice from the agreement or declare it to have no force or effect. This pertains then to the formal prerequisites of section 49.

Where an exemption clause or notice is argued to be void for reason of being in conflict with the provisions of section 48 (i.e. unfair, unreasonable or unjust), the court may likewise declare such term or notice to be void and sever it from the agreement.

Section 51 of the CPA

Section 51 contains a blacklist of terms that a supplier is prohibited from incorporating in a consumer contract. Specifically s51 (1)(c)(i) prohibits a clause which purports to limit or exempt a supplier of goods or services from liability for any loss attributable to the *gross* negligence of the supplier.

Excluding liability for death, injury or damage to or loss of property which is caused by the gross negligence of the supplier is no longer possible where the supplier-consumer relationship is subject to the CPA.

SOME CONCLUDING REMARKS

Suppliers of hospitality services to the tourism industry make use of exemption clauses as a matter of course. In terms of the common law these clauses were generally enforceable. The CPA has changed the rules of the game and has introduced both content control and procedural prerequisites. The formal prerequisites place a significant burden on suppliers to ensure that the exemption provision is drawn to the attention of the consumer according to the dictates of section 49.

Once these stringent requirements have been met, the exemption clause is subjected to a fairness test. Whether the exemption term or notice is fair and reasonable, or whether the enforcement of a seemingly reasonable and fair term or notice is indeed fair and reasonable, will depend on each situation. However, two aspects may play a significant role. These are firstly, whether one is dealing with exclusion of liability for death or personal injury. If this is the case, then the exemption provision is presumed unfair and the supplier then has the burden to prove that the exemption clause or notice is fair. This brings into play the second factor, namely whether one is dealing with a situation of high or normal risk. It is submitted that a supplier will have an exceptionally difficult task to discharge the burden to prove that excluding liability for death or personal injury of a consumer participating in normal-risk activities, is fair. In a situation where one is dealing with a high-risk scenario to which the consumer has consented after complete compliance with the section 49 requirements, a case may well be made out that excluding liability in such a situation is fair.

What is certain is that the CPA has brought about significantly greater protection for consumers in the context of the use (and abuse) of exemption clauses.

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Consumer Protection Act 68 of 2008

Critical Factors in Cooperation Between Local Service Suppliers and Tour Operators

With Regard to Local Sustainable Development (In Developing Destinations) –

Evidence from Different Geographical Contexts.

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ABSTRACT

The choice of business exchange partners remains one of the basic decisions for a number of firms, not least within the international tourism industry. Depending on the dominant terms of trade within the industry where the business actors are operating and on the relative importance of the resources and values involved, the choice of exchange partners can have strategic, tactical, or merely operational implications for the actors. The range of considerations can vary from implications by choice of a partner as a strategic alliance, on the one end, to the performance of pure practical tasks, such as providing accommodation for a group of people on a certain point of time, on the other. Despite the importance that choices of exchange partners have for a number of business actors in the tourism sector the question of what criteria the actors employ in their choice of partners and of cooperative arrangement in their business exchange have been scarcely illuminated by empirical research. This is not at least the case for exchange between internationally operating tour operators and local

service suppliers. The purpose of this paper is to contribute to increased knowledge of how to create local supplier-tour operator business exchange that creates values for «all» parts on long-term basis contributing to local sustainable tourism business development. The paper is based on the comparison of published empirical studies of business exchange between local service suppliers and internationally operating tour operators within different geographical contexts.

INTRODUCTION

Tour operators (TOs) have generally played a crucial role for generating tourism to various destinations worldwide. With regard to developing destinations, in particular, they continuously contribute to opening up new areas for international tourism. How TO-generated tourist flows contribute to develop a local tourism business sector will still vary and there is just limited empirically based research going deeply into relationships between TOs and single business actors. This paper focuses on some selected empirical studies on business exchange or cooperation between international and/or incoming tour operators and local service suppliers in developing destinations (see subsequent sections). Basic questions are how this business exchange occurs, under what contextual conditions it takes place and how the actual exchange behavior and contextual conditions possibly could support or restrict competence development among local tourism firms and thereby contributing positively to local business sustainability.

THEORETICAL ASPECTS

Business exchange as part of distribution channel and tourism supply chain research

Business exchange relationships remain a central topic within research on inter-organizational relationships and management and economics. Despite the strong influence

that business exchange processes can have on the long-term development in tourist destinations, this topic has just to a limited degree been in focus within sustainable tourism research (Hall 2005). There have, however, been some empirical studies on cooperative behaviour among tour operators in distribution channels (Bywater 1992, Buhalis 2000, Bywater 2001, Casarin 2001, Medina-Muñoz, Medina-Muñoz et al. 2003, Roper, Jensen et al. 2005, Schwartz, Tapper et al. 2008), including tour operator's choice of service suppliers (Jensen 1998, Jensen 2000, Medina-Muñoz, Medina-Muñoz et al. 2003, Jensen 2009a). Research on business actors' behavior in tourism distribution channels intersects also to a great extent research on vertical relationships in supply chain management (Zhang, Song et al. 2009).

Zhang et al (2009) suggest that a tourism supply chain is "a network of tourism organizations" (p. 347) performing all necessary types of activities all the way through the value chain until the realization of the final tourism product at a specific tourism destination. This represents a holistic descriptive approach to the supply chain with less attention to the strategic and managerial aspects of the supply chain as regarded from the business actors involved. Within supply chain management literature supply chain management can more generally be defined as «... the systemic, strategic coordination of the traditional business functions and the tactics across these business functions within a particular company and across businesses within the supply chain, for the purpose of improving the long-term performance of the individual companies and the supply chain as a whole" (Mentzer, DeWitt et al. (2001),p.18). When analyzing cooperation between tour operators and local service suppliers it will be appropriate to apply a management oriented approach to be able to illuminate the rationales for their actions and choices. As for the local sustainability issues, however, it will be appropriate also to include the destination as a prime context beside critical parts of the tourism supply chain network (compare for example(Budeanu

2000)(Budeanu 2009)). For the single company the market and the destination will nevertheless be perceived as parts of their “business environment”.

Business exchange as contractual arrangement (institutional economics)

From an institutional economic perspective business exchange, such as between an incoming TO (buyer) and a local supplier of service (seller), can be regarded as contracts governed by formal and informal governmental mechanisms(Grossman and Hart 1986). This is the case whether the incoming TO just buys a single service item for a specific tour or both parties commit themselves to future joint cooperation of service production(Bradach and Eccles 1989, Lambe, Spekman et al. 2000). The exchange-specific behavior among incoming TOs can after this vary considerably, such as by regarding the purchase of a service just as one single transaction (to an exact price) or by considering the other party as a partner with whom one wants to develop and maintain a close, cooperative and long-term relationship. The willingness to share information will differ considerably depending on degree of commitment among and between the exchange partners(Morgan and Hunt 1994). As mutual transfer of knowledge and learning in the exchange relationships generally occur as an essential issue within research on business exchange and business networks (for example(Hitt, Dacin et al. 2000, Kale, Singh et al. 2000, Johanson and Vahlne 2003))it has been scarcely covered in tourism studies (Tremblay 1998).Knowledge transfer can, for example, be generated by “experiential learning-commitment interplay”(Johannisson 1991, Johanson and Vahlne 2003) based on a wish of developing long-term mutually benefitting relationships, such as between entrepreneurs and global firms. Related to local sustainable tourism development this is also an important issue as information sharing could contribute to competence generation and to stronger competitive advantages for the local exchange partners. The way incoming and/or international tour operators and local service suppliers arrange their cooperation and the way

partners are selected within the tourism supply chain can moreover have great influence on how competence and learning can be nurtured, how synergies can be generated and how the power balance between the actors is developing. For local sustainable tourism development it will thus be highly relevant to explore the critical conditions that might have an impact on the way business exchange occur between local service suppliers and national and global business actors, not at least in developing destinations.

The perception of uncertainty and risk in the business environment

Overall market conditions produce specific decision environments for various industries in terms of ambiguity and uncertainty for the actors involved in business exchange (Achrol and Stern 1988, Reve 1988, Achrol 1991, Jones, Hesterly et al. 1997, Hitt, Dacin et al. 2000). In a situation of high perceived uncertainty the existence of confidence or trust will be quite essential (Anderson and Narus 1990, Noordewier, John et al. 1990, Nootboom, Berger et al. 1997). Also the criteria for the choice of business partners will be influenced by the perceptions of uncertainty in the business environment, such as within an organized tourism industry contexts (Holloway 1989, Jensen 2000, Jensen 2001, Jensen 2009a). The significance of trust will, furthermore, be influenced by perception of risk (McAllister 1995, Lyons and Mehta 1997, McKnight, Cummings et al. 1998), which can be defined as a function of the probability of things going wrong, and the consequences or the size of any loss when this occurs (Sako 1992, Nootboom, Berger et al. 1997). Whilst the first aspect is related to the perceived uncertainty surrounding a (potential) partner and, more generally, to the characteristics of the environment in which decisions are taken (Thompson 1967, Achrol and Stern 1988, Burchell and Wilkinson 1997, Paulraj and Chen 2007), the second is more concerned with the values which can be put at risk. Within a tourism business exchange context values put on risk encompass both tangible and intangible assets. For a TO the

company's reputation and image in the marketplace is one of the most critical values that can be put at risk(Jensen 2000). If, for example, a service supplier to a TO-organized tour causes serious service failures it is the TO who has to take the blame from the customer and possibly sustain damage to reputation or image. This dilemma will be quite sensitive for tour operators considering to cooperate with a local supplier with just limited business experience and documented skills which is frequently the case when working with developing destinations. The assumed or expected role performance among the partners (Frazier 1983, Frazier and Summers 1984) within such a context thus remains a critical issue for incoming and international TOs.

Sustainable destination development

The notion of sustainable tourism is covering a wide range of aspects of tourism development and can be approached from various angles(Hardy, Beeton et al. 2002). It is obvious that the idea of sustainable tourism does not only embrace the care of the well-being of the natural, cultural, social and economic environment as such but it also assumes a community planning approach (Murphy 1985)with emphasis on local participation and involvement, integrated planning procedures, the acknowledgement of various stakeholders' interests, and the education of local residents as well the visitors(Milne 1998, Hall 2000, Richards and Hall 2000, Tosun and Timothy 2003, Jensen 2004). Problems of globalization (Teo 2002) and empowerment to local level(Sofield 2003, Tosun and Timothy 2003)and of cultural conflicts(Robinson 1999)are some of the issues that have to be dealt with involving a number of public agencies and business actors located both within and outside the region or the destination.

As the destination both represents a socio-political unit and encompasses important contextual conditions for business performance its actual and perceived status will have

significant influence on the way local suppliers and tour operators interact and what considerations that are done. The role and politics of the government, infra-structure, institutional structures, wealth, education level, the involvement of NGOs, cultural norms etc. will thus have importance for the way internal and external business actors will and do operate.

One of the general models purposing to describe the development of tourism on different stages at destinations in general terms “from birth to death” is the “Destination life circle” (Butler 1980, Cooper and Jackson 1989, Buhalis 2000, Butler 2005). One problem with this framework is the great variety of development “trajectories” among different types of destinations. The framework nevertheless represents a dynamic perspective that identifies various crucial development aspects and illustrates different types of responses of various actors on incidents triggered by the tourism development in the destination. Characteristics by competence development and business-exchange behavior on micro-level have, however, not been widely explored through empirical research based on this framework.

In the succeeding sections of the paper empirical evidence of selected studies from different contexts will be presented. The main issues are linked to business exchange behavior within the tourism supply chain with focus on local service suppliers and incoming and international TOs with main attention to developing destinations. Key questions will be how characteristics by business exchange behavior possibly could facilitate or restrict the activation of local tourism business actors in a sustainable way and the relevance of the contextual conditions. The selected published studies are not assumed to represent all types of cases, but are assumed to reveal some of the basic challenges linked to the main issues focused on.

EVIDENCE FROM SELECTED EMPIRICAL STUDIES FROM DIFFERENT CONTEXTS

Jensen (Jensen 1998, Jensen 2002) carried out a study of business exchange relationships between local service suppliers (tourism firms) and tour operators within a Scandinavian/European context. It was based on personal interviews with a total of 47 key informants in buying and selling companies and facilitators in the European tourism industry for inclusive tour products. A main objective was to elaborate the characteristics of the exchange relationships between the buyers and the sellers within an international tourist industry context and the study including questions about criteria, priorities and considerations by the choice of business exchange-partners. The buying firms were European tour operators producing and/or distributing organized round trips for tourists to Scandinavia and the sellers were Norwegian (local) service providers selling partial service elements of packages to the tour operators. Among the 22 tour operators (buyers) 6 were incoming TOs from Scandinavia and the remain were ordinary TOs from Germany (8), Switzerland (4) and Italy (3). The interviews with the 16 selling firms primarily located in the north of Norway comprised 12 hotels (the central management of 4 national hotel chains to which the local hotels belonged was also interviewed), 3 providers of activities/adventures and 1 transport company. The data also included interviews with 5 tourist organizations that facilitated contacts between local service providers and tour operators.

Within the actual empirical context selection criteria of exchange partners occurred a central aspect (Jensen 2002). The criteria, denoted as “Critical factors in the choice of exchange partners”, were described as those factors that come into play when choosing an exchange partner. Two sets of factors applied by respectively the buyers (tour operators on incoming and global level) and the sellers (local service suppliers, primarily hotels) were identified. The three main factors from the tour operators’ view were, price, product (such as estimated quality, capacity, suitability etc.) and confidence (reliability), as the corresponding factors

from the local service suppliers' perspective were market capacity (abilities to acquire customers), purchase price (including attaching conditions, and confidence (reliability).

The confidence-specific factors turned out to play quite a significant role by the partner selection decisions both for TOs and for local suppliers. The factors included specific sub-areas, such as interaction abilities, intentions (loyalty and expanding business commitment) and competitive strength/stability (solidity or ability to stay in business within international competitive environment). The perceived importance of the confidence-specific factors were first of all linked to the relative high degree of decision uncertainty within the given tourism business context. The confidence in an actual or a potential exchange partner was especially associated with uncertainty regarding future performance. For tour operators (buyers) this problem was above all related to future service performances of a service supplier (local tourism firm) with concern to the availability and the quality of the contracted service in the moment of consumption by the tourist. For tour operators selling their products directly on the consumer markets under their own brand, reliable service deliveries were fundamental for avoiding damaging their corporate or brand images. In this situation both cognitive and affective dimensions of trust (McAllister 1995) were of significance for the judgment and evaluation of potential or actual business exchange partners.

Another study that focuses on organized tourism in a poorly developed national destination with limited exposure to international tourism is based on Madagascar as geographical context (Jensen 2009a, Jensen 2009b). Jensen (op.cit.) studied actors involved in organized tourism to Madagascar with particular focus on cooperation between incoming TOs and local service suppliers. The primary data were based on personal interviews between 2006 and 2007 with 12 incoming TOs, mainly located in the capital, and with 6 professional tourism organizations. Additionally two regions were subject to more wider studies that included interviews with local entrepreneurial TOs, and hotels and local organizations (Jensen, 2010b).

As a destination context Madagascar is still on quite a virgin stage of tourism development (estimated 250.000 tourists in 2006) and is continuously facing quite unstable political conditions. It still has a poorly developed economy, public and private infrastructure, technical standard and a low level of education. A great proportion of the populations live in rural, frequently difficult accessible areas. Service facilities and support are not well developed. Tourism consists of round trip tourism by road (on an island of about 760.000 km²), activities (such as trekking, canoeing, eco-trips) and resort tourism of which a great deal is controlled for foreign companies. The data mainly focus on round trip tourism and activity-based tourism.

Jensen (Jensen 2009a) was able to categorize three groups of critical factors for the incoming TOs by their choices of local service suppliers (local TOs and local guides):

1) Partner-specific factors (of local suppliers): Those specific qualities of potential a local partner that makes it/she/he suitable for being selected by an incoming TO. These main factors are divided into:

- a. Product-specific: What type of products/activities the local supplier could offer or produce and qualities and range of products or services
- b. Cooperation-specific qualities: Ability and commitment to cooperate in a reliable and professional way

2) Local attraction-specific factors (destination-specific attraction resources in the actual locality): Resources, features or settings in the destination in an unprocessed (natural) or processed (managed) form that has appeal to tourists

3) Context-specific factors: Conditions within or above the local destination level (political factors or general regulations) that facilitate or restrict the incoming TOs' access to the local attraction-specific resources, including activities. Examples are physical or institutional infrastructure, coordination and marketing of the local tourist organization, education and

level of service skills and facilities (ref. initial description). Context-specific factors can also have an influence on the partner-specific factors among local suppliers.

Additionally a fourth category of factor linked to the TO's strategy with a possible influence on the tour operators' priorities with regard to use/choice of local suppliers were specified.

4) TO-profile-specific factors: Characteristics by the incoming TO linked to market/product strategic approach with the differentiation into "users" and "developers" (*Users* primarily utilizing the existing or recognized attractions and facilities in their program and *developers* more actively involved in local product development and more disposed to be involved with cooperation local suppliers).

Figure 1 offers a simplified overview of a section of a tourism supply chain (distribution channel) from local destination level up to the source markets of tourist customers in different countries. Main critical decision factors of incoming TOs by the choice of local service suppliers (TO, tour operator) are included in this model (developed from Jensen, 2010a)

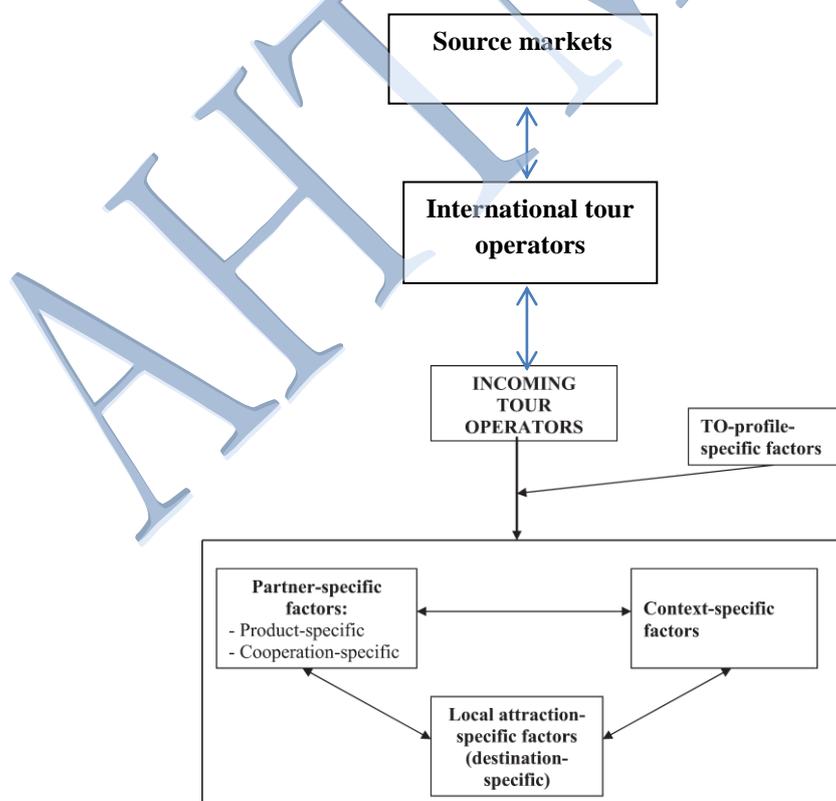


Figure 1: Main critical decision factors of incoming TOs by the choice of local service suppliers (TO, tour operator). (Developed from Jensen, 2010a)

Ad.Context-specific factors:

The context-specific factors in the study of Jensen were derived from the specific context of Madagascar and the interviewees' references to such factors. An important overall point is that Madagascar represents a destination on a virgin state of tourism development. Some illustrations from interviews with the regional authorities, organizations and tourism business actors in two regions also demonstrated several shortcomings of cooperation and coordination of activities and planning not just caused by scarcity of resources but also by opportunistic behavior among individual business actors and tourist organizations (Jensen 2009a, Jensen 2009b). The trust among individual business actors in public offices and organizations dealing with tourism was generally quite low and the authorities were perceived to fail to establish uniting strategic initiatives. Many business actors preferred to work for themselves and marketing of the regions clearly suffered from this mentality. The situation would, however, vary between regions.

As for the consideration among the local suppliers many of them complained about lack of patience among tour operators to work out visitation projects, such as village products and cultural products (Jensen 2009b). The development of such products took time, and few TOs were willing to work on a long-term basis. Finally they also complained about the lack of local support and professional skills and involvement of local tourist authorities.

The proceeding study is taken from the geographical context of Gabon(Cloquet 2013). Initially Cloquet (op.cit.) states that tourism supply chain literature has paid limited attention to destinations at early development stages. She conducted a study of the slowly growing inbound tourism industry in Gabon (Cloquet 2013) which could be regarded as a parallel to the Madagascar context. Her data from 2011-2012 included 11 semi-structured in-depth interviews with incoming TOs and 11 interviews with hotel managers. To a great extent the

results support the findings of Jensen (2009a, b) from Madagascar as well as findings from other similar studies, such as (Van der Duim and Caalders 2008) from Costa Rica.

In particular, Cloquet offers support for the context-exchange-specific behavior model of ITOs (Jensen, 2009a) and states furthermore that that the ITOs “..tolerance regarding factors within each category varied and most notably regarding certain partner-specific factors ... and one context-specific factor (i.e. access)” Cloquet ((2013)p. 658). Facing the same context-specific difficulties, the marketing and channel behaviours among the incoming TOs were “...rational and business-oriented, but responded to different logics...” and moreover “... developed different business strategies according to their profiles” (ibid.). Incoming TOs were constantly challenged by having to prove that they were reliable partners to their core clients and this reliability also depended on their key suppliers. Partly for this reason tour operators generally liked to be in control as expressed more pinpointed by one of the longest established incoming TOa: “I believe that Gabon as a tourism product will be far better off once an operator will fully control the supply chain. This is our ambition.” (Cloquet, 2013, p. 657). (compare “users”, Jensen, 2009a).

A deviation from Jensen (2009a, b) was that price occurred as an important partner selections criteria by the incoming TOs (can be explained by fact that, in contrast to Jensen (op.cit.) hotels were the main business units in the sample).

Another recent study of exchange relationships between local service suppliers and tour operators on different vertical levels (international, national incoming and regional) was based on a comparative study of Northern Norway and GilgitBaltistand in Pakistan(Arif 2013).

Arif (op.cit.) was based on personal interviews with 63 tourism industry actors and organizations in Norway (37) and Pakistan (29). Among the Norwegian actors there 12

(incoming) TO, 14 local suppliers (in Northern Norway) and 6 destination organizations and among the Pakistan there were 12 incoming TOs, 16 local suppliers (in the remote region of GilgitBaltistan) and 3 destination organizations. Compared with Northern Norway that is considered as part of a strongly developed and wealthy part of the Western world, GilgitBaltistan can be considered be on a less developed level.

This study covers a wide range of aspects by local supplier-TO-exchange relationships and reveals in particular variations pertained to two extreme different contexts. Compared with Northern Norway (as part of the wealthy Western world) GilgitBaltistan remains a remote agricultural mountain/valley area with institutional and economic challenges that share some of the same type of challenges with Madagascar, however, with some specific internal political challenges that lead to a general perception of unstable and unsafe local conditions. Organized tourism development had not really started yet all over there was a lack of local supportive conditions for tourism entrepreneurs. Despite the fact that the dominant cultural norms were considered to be collective (Hofstede, Hofstede et al. 1997) there was a relatively high degree of opportunism among/between local suppliers contributing to restricting local cooperation. Generally local suppliers demonstrated first of all what was denoted as *desperate* behavior relative to tour operators. This was associated with a weak negotiation position and a “desperate” wish for getting into business. As a contrast, a more dominant *measured* behavior was found among local suppliers in Norway where other business and income opportunities (also outside the tourism business) offered alternative options. As with the case of Madagascar and Gabon, incoming TOs in Pakistan were perceived to play a central role in order to generate tourism business in the destination and local suppliers were willing to develop strong relationships with national incoming TOs being closer to them than foreign TOs within tourism distribution channels (vertical supply chain). As a contrast, local suppliers in Northern Norway not being that dependent on regional nor national incoming

TOs were able to “jump over” at least one vertical level in distributions channels and deal directly with the foreign TOs or communication even close towards the source markets. On the side of TOs in general, they would be more willing to enter into a stronger resource-interdependency relationships with local suppliers in Northern Norway than with local suppliers in GilgitBaltistan. It was suggested that the latter findings could be due to higher levels of locally/reginally generated unpredictability and risk making it appropriate to be able to cut the business ties on short term if necessary. There was typically also lack of competence-based trust/confidence, especially in the way that TOs generally did not rely on local suppliers abilities to perform professionally.

The revealed differences in exchange behavior between the destination contexts of Northern Norway and the GilgitBaltistan relative to incoming and international TOs offer additional support to the significance of analyzing characteristics of the destination’s contextual conditions to be able to sort out some basic challenges for developing local sustainable tourism in less developed destinations, especially those associated with the general stage of development and the stage of tourism in particular. This also includes the exchange behavior between incoming and international/global TOs and local suppliers in the destinations.

The contrast case of Madagascar and Gabon with regard to stage of tourism development is the typical well established mass tourism destination demonstrated by Phuket in Southern Thailand(Shepherd 2002, Kontogeorgopoulos 2004) . Here the challenges and the exchange behavior between local suppliers and tour operators turn out to be quite different.

Tourist arrivals in Phuket grew from 20.000 in 1976 to 530.00 in 1989 ((Kontogeorgopoulos 2004) during the 1990s it “..achieved a meteoric growth” (Shepard, 2002, p.309), and during 2012 it received estimately between 2,0 and 2,5 million foreign arrivals (Thailand Tourism Authorities).

The study of Kontogeorgopoulos(2004) refers to the 160 registered tour agents and tour operators offering nature-oriented trips in the destination (of which 20 satisfy eco-tourism criteria of Fennell (1999)) and focuses more deeply on the two main founding companies, Sea Canoe (offering sea-based eco-trips) and Siam Safari (offering eco-oriented trips in-land, including Elephant Riding). In conservable degree of the registered companies local persons have been the founders, managers or have been part of the management. Much of the activities have been locally oriented in terms of control, benefits and scale (such as by the founding main local operators "Sea Canoe" and "Siam Safari").

Customers of ecotourism companies are conventional tourists staying in Phuket (at 4 or 5 stars resort hotels) and there is a close distance between ecotourism locations and the resort enclaves of Phuket. It exists a good cooperate relationships between ecotourism operators and conventional businesses, especially hotels, touroperators and travel agents.

The process in the international distribution channels between global and local level is described this way: Global (international) tour operators buy their packages from incoming TOs (travel whole sellers) based in Thailand. These incoming TOs assemble packages of service by entering into contracts with local sub-suppliers (tour companies, restaurants, shops and hotels). The global tour operators sell their full or "part" packages outside Asia and/or as extras through their representatives at the destination in Phucket. A proportion of trips are also bought directly by the tourists on the spot from local producers/operators individually

Kontogeorgopoulos (2004) concludes that in this way a *symbiotic relationships* established between conventional mass-tourism- and locally oriented ecotourism. He furthermore argue that the necessary combination of conventional tourism infrastructure, markets and networks and ecotourism principles of conservation, local control, and education has contributed to the production of a unique local form of ecotourism in southern Thailand: "*..ecotourism in Phuket has emerged out of, not in ... opposition to, the established package tourism industry*"

(Kontogeorgopoulos, 2004, p.100). This case nevertheless occurs as an illustration of how the business exchange behavior within the tourism supply chain between local suppliers and incoming and international TOs over the years results an increase in experience-based competence and skills among local suppliers who are able to perform more advanced tasks in the value chain activities and to go into long-term cooperation with external actors (TOs).

The optimistic trend in the “story” presented by Kontogeorgopoulos(2004) was modified by Shepard (2002) using the same type of companies as main cases. Beside the more critical environmental aspects Shepard points at the growing opportunistic behavior among the local operators and suppliers engaging in copying simplified versions of original concepts and entering into destroying internal price competition and over-bidding relative to tour operators and individual tourists. In this situation the authorities, following a laissez-faire attitude to business, are moreover described as rather powerless to help and both local and central tourism authority thus failed to regulate the market and the standards of the local suppliers. Mass tourism contributed in this way to drive prices down. A similar type of challenges and context have also been reported by Drammeh(2014) and Sharpley(2009) using the development of mass tourism in The Gambia as a case. (Recently Kontogeorgopoulos et al. (2012) published a more reflectively empirically based article about success factors of community-based tourism in northern Thailand).

Summing up the case of Phuket, in a quite simplified manner one can state that global TOs “brought the market” to Southern Thailand by bringing millions of international tourist to Phuket. Phuket thus functioned as a meeting place between actual or potential local service providers or independent local operators and international companies and individual tourists. This has lead to opportunities over several years for local entrepreneurs to observe and to make own experiences with handling foreign tourists and with professional companies. During the growth period the demand for extended activities and range of exploration among

tourists already there were grew which in turn offered opportunities for local persons with localized knowledge and social networks to get involved.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The published material referred to indicates that as the requirements among incoming and international TOs to the performance of their sub-suppliers of service basically are the same due to the fact that they are operating towards international tourist markets that require products and experiences matching certain “non-negotiable” standards. The TOs therefore must be assured that if they cooperate with local suppliers in any destination the latter will fulfill specific requirements. As the situation “on the ground” can differ considerably, the way to handle the challenges in the tourism supply chain therefore also vary considerably, such as when working with a well established and developed destination compared with one that is poorly developed. The situation “on the ground” has been categorized through what is denoted as “partner-specific factors” and context-specific factors” of which the latter represent given conditions that mainly are in the hands of other forces and authorities than the TOs. Considerations about these set of factors nevertheless have to be balanced with the TOs’ estimated value of available “local attraction- specific factors” or resources (see figure 1).

The cases of Madagascar, Gabon and Pakistan have clearly demonstrated the cautious behavior among most TOs regarding entering into cooperation with local service suppliers due to shortcomings pertained to partner-specific factors, on the one hand, and uncertainty and risk perceived from context-specific factors, on the other. However, the findings of Jensen (2009a, Jensen 2009b) have given indications that there can be different profiles between various TOs with regard to their interests to get involved locally and their willingness to be engaged in product development and in long-term cooperation. Basic questions are how certain context-specific factors (formal education, training-programs,

institutional support, etc.) and the politics among TOs can contribute to improve the qualifications among local service suppliers and entrepreneurs and make them able to be more actively involved in local tourism business activities as partners. Generally measures that could reduce uncertainty and risk in the decision environment as perceived by the TOs, both among critical context-specific and partner-specific factors, can be expected to have a favorable effect on the TOs dispositions to long-term local commitment.

The Phuket case (Kontogeorgopoulos 2004) has illustrated that a long period of exposure to international tourism can contribute to the accumulation of experience among local entrepreneurs gradually making them able to gain skills and capacities to get actively involved in tourism business activities. By benefiting on their superior local knowledge and networks this situation can furthermore contribute to a greater variability of tourist offerings in the destination. However, the danger of negative impacts of internal competitions also needs to be realized (compare the DLC-model, Butler (1980)). As for less developed destinations they have not yet reached the position of experiencing neither the general “blessings” nor the “curse” of the market caused by mass-tourism (possibly with the exception of some selected “hot” spots).

On general level Hjalager (2000) argue that “... centrifugal processes make tourism destinations develop into delivery regions, while the chance to become ‘intelligent’ and ‘innovative’ is, at the same time, reduced” (Hjalager, 2000, p. 12). A typical dilemma for tourist destinations is thus that as they on the one hand produce very heterogeneous type of regional product that are highly complementary, the lack of systematic cooperative and coordinated actions make them, on the other hand, dependent on external actors, such as tour operators, who are performing the more “intelligent” functions (cp. Jensen (1996)).

Basically it would be assumed that both central and local authorities have considerable responsibilities for improving contextual conditions where that is possible and necessary for a

more sustainable tourism development. In many developing destinations NGOs and foreign agencies are involved in tourism projects with the purpose to improve governmental capacities. Within tourism development projects and research it has still been limited stress on pro-active approaches to incoming and international TOs based on a deep understanding of the strategic challenges within supply chain management, including how to move local entrepreneurs to gain skills facilitating them to be professional partners in international tourism business.

As for the case of The Gambia, authorizes, have in accordance to Drammeh(2014), during recent years made efforts to try prevent global tour operators and hotel chains to overrun local entrepreneurs and other stakeholders in their exploitation of local resources and have, moreover, tried to encourage establishments of tourism in more rural areas beyond the central tourism area.

Recently Kontogeorgopoulos et al (2012) published a reflective article about success factors of community-based tourism (in northern Thailand) based on a local study the existence of traditional collective cultural norms with openness and sharing and transformational leadership that has contributed to more long-term cooperation among devoted stakeholders and to sustainable local development that is supported by devoted NGO as researchers. This demonstrates the potentials by coordinating local traditional governance, local entrepreneurs, NGOs, formal authorities and research for the purpose of a developing a local platform for sustainable tourism business.

IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR RESEARCH AND TOURISM POLITICS

For tourism research there is a need to integrate more established generic research on business exchange and supply chain management with research on local sustainable tourism business development. Without knowledge and frameworks on how business actors interact

in supply chains and in bilateral exchange central aspects of the driving forces for these processes are missed. This includes both behavior within business exchange relationships and by selection of partners. In particular the use of research-based knowledge on how information-sharing and competence-development can be nurtured between and among all business exchange partners, how trust, commitment and social norms develop (Dwyer, Schurr et al. 1987, Heide and John 1992, Heide 1994, Morgan and Hunt 1994, Dyer and Singh 1998) and the advantages gained by long-term commitment should not be ignored.

Based on the data and the discussion it is suggested that more attention in the overall national tourism politics should be directed at:

- * A national policy with positive incitements favoring those TOs willing to long term-local involvement with local entrepreneurs/local service suppliers
- * Positive incitement to TOs willing to develop the local attraction-specific resources further towards more differentiated tourist offerings beyond the level of traditional sea-sun-sand-consumption on “hot” spots.
- * Strengthening the capacities of local service providers to ”become better business partners”
- * Support programs for local entrepreneurs
- * Encouragement of closer cooperation between NGOs, local entrepreneurs and incoming and international TOs where the TOs represent the link to external markets and do possess the professional competence and skills necessary for operating successfully in these markets.
- * Nationally and internationally supported long-term formal and informal educational programs, also in cooperation with NGOs and other foreign agencies.

Government has to some degree the potential power to shape the face of how tourism is promoted, planned, managed and regulated. For sustainable tourism business development it will be of relevance to devise a set of institutional and organizational arrangements that are

compatible with the correct mixture of market orientation and state intervention (Milne 1998).

Finally, as expressed by an incoming TO in Madagascar :*“It is not [a] place for amateurs, one has to be professional.”*(Jensen, 2009, p.152). The critical question is - how to turn amateurs into professionals?

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AHTMMC

FDI in Tourism and Economic Growth in Mauritius.

Evidence from a Dynamic Framework.

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ABSTRACT

Using a dynamic vector error correction model, catering for dynamic, endogeneity and causality issues, this study addresses the important question of whether foreign direct investment in the tourism sector enhances economic growth in Mauritius using time series data for the period 1983-2013. The results show that tourism FDI has eventually contributed to economic growth both in the short run and long run. However, the magnitude of the coefficient is relatively small as compared to FDI in the non-tourism sector and the other control variables. This is explained by the fact that the bulk of FDI flows in the non-tourism sector in Mauritius. Furthermore, the results confirm the presence of bi-causality and feedback effects in the tourism FDI-economic growth model. Moreover the VECM analysis has enabled us to detect important indirect effects through the 'tourism development channel' to economic growth. We also observed a positive relationship between tourism development and economic growth, thus supporting the tourism led hypothesis. The results for economic

freedom further support the view that economic stability is an important ingredient for economic growth in an economy.

KEYWORDS Economic growth, tourism FDI, VECM and Cointegration.

INTRODUCTION

The tourism sector is being given much attention by many developing countries, as it is considered as a potentially promising source for economic growth and development as well as human development. As highlighted by UNCTAD 2008, traditionally, tourism was placed below manufacturing or agriculture, as it was not considered as an important source of growth. However, presently, many developing countries put much emphasis on this sector as it is regarded as an engine for economic development. The tourism sector can be a major route through which the country can boost its earning export revenues, generating large numbers of employment- both directly and indirectly, whereby creating jobs for the young and women. More so, the development of the tourism sector in a country helps economic diversification and promotes a more service oriented economy. Tourism FDI is one way through which developing countries can promote the tourism sector in their economies. Mauritius, a small island state is not an exception. It is observed that the island is well known for being a high quality tourist destination. The Mauritian government has devised attractive policies in order to boost tourism activities in the country. Many incentives were given, whereby a favorable investment climate was created to encourage tourism investment. Tourism in 2013 accounted for about 7.1 per cent of gross domestic product (GDP). From 1983, tourist arrivals have increased by 9 folds in 2013. More hotels are domestic owned but there are also a considerable amount of foreign owned hotels as well. The Government of Mauritius conducts its marketing activities through the Mauritius Tourism Promotion

Authority. Hotels also do their own marketing and deal mainly with foreign tour operators. Foreign direct investment (FDI) has been important for Mauritius. In fact, FDI policy towards the tourism sector has evolved from being quite restrictive in the past to almost full liberalisation. From 2005, FDI has increased tremendously with the introduction of the Integrated Resort Scheme (IRS), which is mainly the acquisition of villa for residential purposes by foreigners only. Investment under this scheme has driven FDI inflows upward in the Hotel and Restaurant sector. Although with tourism TNCs, there is a significant amount of foreign exchange which flows in the economy, there are no studies which have assessed the multiplier effect of the revenue generated by the industry in the economy. Hence, there is a need to analyse the implications of the dynamics of FDI in the tourism sector in the economy. The main research question is “How far does tourism FDI flowing into the economy contribute positively towards development?” To that end, whilst it is acknowledged that there are benefits to be had from tourism TNCs, unfortunately however, it is also true that these foreign firms do pose certain problems in certain cases.

Given the above, the focus of the paper attempts to fill this gap and aim at adding on to literature by investigating the relationship between tourism FDI and economic growth in Mauritius. To attain this objective, this study uses rigorous dynamic time series analysis; a dynamic vector error correction model (VECM), to carry out the investigation. This procedure ensures that the dynamic behaviour of the time series under consideration is properly captured, while simultaneously catering for endogeneity and causality issues. Any feedback and indirect effects which might be present will also be detected within the VECM. This model also simultaneously allows the identification of any bi-directional and/or uni-directional causality between the variables of interest. Ultimately, Granger-Causality tests will help to discern the exact direction of causality between the variables of interest.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: The existing theoretical and empirical literature is provided in section 2. Section 3 provides a brief overview of the evolution of tourism and tourism FDI in Mauritius, while section 4 defines the dependent variable which is economic growth and the control variables proxies which will be used in this study. Additionally, it introduces the VECM model and provides empirical results to the stationarity tests and the co-integration tests. Section 5 eventually constructs the VECM for the purpose of this study in Mauritius and provides a detailed interpretation of the results. The Granger-Causality results are then presented and interpreted. Finally, based on the results obtained, some conclusions are drawn in the last section.

LITERATURE REVIEW

FDI in tourism has been defined by UNWTO, (2004) as a category of international investment whereby an entity resident in one economy (direct investor) acquires a lasting interest in a tourism specific enterprise engaging in tourism growth fixed capital formation resident in an economy other than that of direct investor. The tourism transnational companies do play an important role for the economies of both developed and developing countries. Tourism TNCs allows host countries to be integrated into international tourism networks which eventually lead to an increase in the flow of tourists and generating more income from tourism-related activities. To be able to successfully attract tourism FDI, the following components are of paramount importance; political stability, level of economic development, socio-economic environments, privatization of the industry, liberalization of FDI regime, taxation, investment incentives, availability and quality of hard and soft infrastructures and corporate strategies or company-specific factors. Endo, K (2006),

For instance, tourism FDI comes in various forms. The most frequent tourism FDI activities are highlighted in the table below.

Table 1: Most frequent tourism FDI activities

TSA component	Frequency with which FDI appears to occur		
	Most frequent	Occasional	Rare
Hotels and similar	✓		
Restaurants and similar	✓		
Second homes	✓		
Passenger transport rental equipment	✓		
Railway passenger transport services		✓	
Air passenger transport services		✓	
Road passenger transport services		✓	
Water passenger transport services		✓	
Passenger transport supporting services			✓
Travel agencies and similar			✓
Cultural services			✓
Sports and other recreational services			✓

Source: *FDI in Tourism: The Development Dimension*, UNCTAD, 2007, p. 14

FDI in tourism like FDI in any other sector, is often considered to be growth-enhancing and as an effective engine for economic development. It is mainly seen as an important channel through which capital, technology and know-how is being transferred to the recipient country. By transferring knowledge, FDI normally increases the existing stock of knowledge of the host country through labour training, transfer of skills, and the transfer of new managerial and organisational practice. FDI also promote the use of more advance technologies by domestic firms through capital accumulation in the domestic country (De Mello, 1997, 1999). Foreign tourism companies also act as a catalyst for the injection of fresh capital in the host country and also help in attracting foreign tour operators and tourists. Hence, there are many emerging tourism destinations that are competing for these objectives. (Yunis, 2008). More so, foreign investment and know-how are considered to be of paramount importance in creating and upgrading tourism-related infrastructure. It is also important to note that foreign investment can give rise to more investment in tourism in total (Forsyth, Dwyer, 2003, 72).

Tourism itself is seen to be an important ingredient for economic growth when analysing the economic effect of tourism development on an economy. The benefits of tourism extend to a wider section of the society as compared to other sectors of the economy (Telce et al, 2006). Various studies have demonstrated that tourism development has the potential effect of promoting economic growth, creating jobs and generating revenue for the government. For instance, the Tourism Led growth hypothesis analyses the possible relationship between tourism and economic growth. This hypothesis supports the fact that tourism activity leads to economic growth and also economic expansion drives tourism growth. This theory supports a bi-directional relationship between tourism and economic growth. (Brida et al, 2010). In addition to that, tourist spending is seen as an alternative form of exports which provides foreign exchange earnings for an economy which are used to import capital goods to produce goods and services, which in turn leads to economic growth in host countries (Balaguer, L. and M. Cantavella, 2002).

Through competition among firms and other international tourist destinations, international tourism also enhances efficiency in the host country. Also, since tourists demand goods and services such as accommodation, food, transportation facilities and entertainment services, this creates a need on local firms to produce more. Hence, with tourist development in the economy, aggregate supply in an economy is increased. These represent an increase in income, output and employment in the host country (Balaguer, 2002).

The tourism industry development also produces certain social benefits to the economy. There is a belief that tourism industry development lead to benefit poor people in particular, introducing the concept of “pro-poor tourism” (Ashley et al, 2006). Thus apart from promoting economic growth, tourism development also promotes economic development of an economy. Moreover, it helps developing countries suffering from high unemployment,

low growth and from countries facing difficulties in competing internationally (Archer et al, 1996).

FDI in tourism and economic growth and development

FDI in tourism can boost economic growth of the host countries in various ways. For instance, as noted in the literature, FDI boost economic growth through an increase in income, increase in local employment, and an increase in foreign exchange and an improvement in income distribution. It also lead to growth by promoting the countries productive capacities including transfer of technology and management practices, spillovers, externalities, stimulation of domestic investment, increases in productivity of domestic firms, increased integration in global markets and decreased cost/increased rates of R&D and innovation. (WWF,2003).

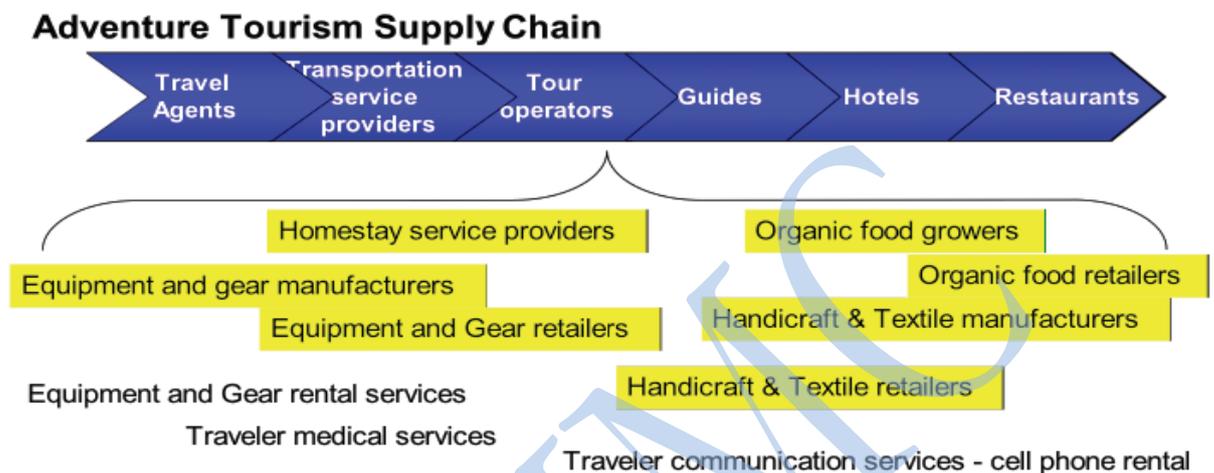
The **employment creation** aspect of FDI in tourism is an important factor contributing to economic growth and development of the country. For instance, we note that the tourism industry employs local citizens in hotels, restaurants, and entertainment and tourist services that cater directly to tourists or through the multiplier effect (Haley and Haley 1997, 598). Also since it is noted that quality services is of utmost importance in the tourism sector, there is constant training given to workers recruited in order to enhance their skill needed in the industry. Skill transfers are highly practiced by international hotels. For instance, they elaborate training programmes for their staff, including formal integrated education packages that can run from housekeeping skills to top level accountancy, arranging seminars in various parts of the world to bring hotel management in a particular region up to date on new techniques, methods and procedures in all phases of hotel operations, on the job training, marketing and sales, and international placements within the chain's different locations.

(UNCTAD, 2007). One significant problem that is observed in the literature related to employment opportunities by tourism TNC, is the fact that local residents are not given high managerial post, and are instead given lower hierarchical jobs, mainly those that do not require specific skills for reasons of quality service and performance. Higher managerial posts are normally given to expatriates and thus this practice limits the career advancement of the local citizens. (Dwyer, Forsyth and Dwyer 2010). Also, it is observed that even if domestic hotels are present, and are recruiting local residents, yet foreign hotels do make a strong positive contribution to complement the overall employment figures in the sector (UNCTAD 2007, 68). However, indirectly, it can also affect employment in a country adversely. For instance as argued by Haley and Haley (1997), if the tourism industry displaces farmers, loggers, fishermen or other productively employed individuals, it destroys these individuals' jobs and those of individuals in related service and support industries. Foreign hotels may also potentially offer higher wages to better non-pecuniary benefits to their employees as compared to domestic hotels. However, this may not hold for all destinations.

Also, FDI in tourism can contribute significantly to spill over a diverse range of **new technologies and skills** into the economy, including advanced management, environmental and financial systems. As highlighted in the research of the Adventure industry consultant, (2008) the adventure companies in particular offer excellent examples of this, working with local outfitters and tourism suppliers to learn about good practices for conservation and tourism management. Transferring technology and managerial expertise by Tourism TNCs are often frequent. Another strand of literature outlines that tourism-related TNCs often establish **linkages with local suppliers and distributors**, sometimes to a much more than local firms, which breeds economic activity and business opportunities. There is generally

little evidence of TNCs crowding out local firms. The diagram below offers a basic view of how adventure tourism companies are supported by a range of businesses in a local economy.

[Adapted from Adventure industry consultant, 2008]



Most of the developing countries depend on tourism as a **source of foreign exchange**. More investment in the tourism industry both domestic and foreign can mean more tourism in the economy and additional flow of foreign currencies. More so, these foreign exchange revenues are normally used in the process of export which helps to improve the host countries balance of payments. (Belloumi, 2010). Also, Robu and Ballan (2009) suggest that a growing national tourism sector contributes to increase national income and employment which effectively leads to an improved balance of payments. However, there is always some adverse effect of tourism TNCs on the economy, mainly when profits are repatriated, or even when expatriate labour's repatriate their income.(Kusluvan and Karamustafa 2001, 184). Hence, the outflow of these capital negatively impact on the balance of payment.

More so, tourism TNCs can potentially contribute towards building a **positive image of the destination** where they choose to locate. Foreign investments in the tourism sector are seen to put the host country on the map, and the foreign brands further enhanced their image as

tourist's destinations. It is normally noted that multinational hotel companies with a good reputation of quality services enhance a destination's positive image. More so, tourism TNCs can be stronger than domestic firms of the industry and thus help to ensure stability and confidence in the economy. Also, as supported by Kusluvan and Karamustafa (2001), the knowledge that home familiar hotels exist in particular countries encourages and reduces the search cost of potential tourists.

Analysing the theories which explain the relationship between FDI and economic growth, we observe the Solow growth model and the Endogenous growth model.

In the *Solow growth model also known as Neo classical growth model*, FDI is seen as a source of additional capital which increases the existing capital stock of the host country. Thus an increase in FDI will lead to an increase in production further leading to an increase in the output hence economic growth. FDI allows host countries to achieve investment that exceeds their own domestic saving and enhances capital formation. According to this theory, the potential beneficial impact of FDI on economic growth is confined to the short run. In the long run, given the diminishing marginal returns to physical capital, the recipient economy could converge to the steady state growth rate as if FDI had never taken place leaving no permanent impact on the growth of the economy. Therefore, according to this theory FDI is significant only in the short run while in the long run, it becomes insignificant, a reason why many empirical evidences found an insignificant relationship between the two variables. Moreso, referring to the work of Findlay (1978), FDI augments the rate of technical progress in the host country from the more advanced technology and management practices used by foreign firms. This is because foreign firms own and transfer their technology in the host country, where such technology is not available. These knowledge effects are known as FDI

externalities or spillovers and are defined as an increase in productivity, thus economic growth.

Another theory developed by Romer (1986) is the *Endogenous growth model*. The Romer Growth Model highlights the significance of development in technology, efficiency, and productivity and this theory suggest that FDI can positively impact the growth rate in so far as it yields increasing returns in production. Thus economic growth will not only depend on the amount of physical investment but will also depend on how efficiently the host country can use this investment to increase production. Therefore this theory supports the view that as FDI tends to increase, economic growth will also increase generating a positive relationship between them. The theory further highlights the fact that, to stimulate efficiency in the country, the government should encourage private investment in technologically developed industries. Also, the theory further points out that a country which promotes trade, through open trade policies, will be able to achieve allocative efficiency. The country will be able to allocate its factors of production toward those sectors where it has comparative advantages. Thus, trade openness promotes economic growth.

Empirical Review

Studies about FDI in tourism and economic growth are very limited. The empirical review is about Total FDI and economic growth. Analysing the study of Blin and Ouattara (2009), investigating the role of FDI on economic growth, they found a highly significant and positive impact of FDI on Mauritius economic growth. They used a time series data for the period of 1975-2000 and the ARDL (Auto- regressive distributed lag) bounds test approach to co-integration to conduct their study. Furthermore, the study shows that private investment and human capital have a positive impact on growth. Nevertheless they found that trade

openness and public investment do not have an impact on growth. Similarly, Seetanah et al (2009) investigated the impact of FDI on Mauritian economic growth for the period 1960-2004 by using a vector error correction model. Their study shows that FDI has a positive impact on economic growth both in the short run and the long run. Also they found the existence of an endogenous relationship between FDI and growth. In addition, the study reveals that FDI has a 'crowding in' effect on domestic private capital due to their positive relationship. Crowding in effect arises when an increase in government spending leads to an increase in private investment. They further employed the Granger-causality test to investigate the effect of FDI on growth in the short run and found a bi-directional relation between FDI and growth.

Another strand of literature by De Mello (1999), used data covering the period 1970-1990 from a sample of 32 OECD and non-OECD countries. The study found that FDI positively influenced economic growth each time FDI and domestic investment complemented each other. Chakraborty and Basu (2002) also found similar results in the Indian economy. Except that the positive and significant impact of FDI was observed both in the short-run and in the long-run. They use the co-integration and error-correction model to find the relation between FDI and economic growth. Contrary to Seetanah, Chakraborty and Basu (2002) advocated that FDI do not Granger cause GDP.

Analysing studies on FDI and sectoral performance, Alfaro and al (2003) also takes into consideration the sectoral performance of the country to illustrate the impact of FDI on economic growth. The sample data was taken from a group of forty-seven developing countries. According to this study, the effect of FDI on economic growth varies across the sectors. The study finds that FDI on the primary sector has a negative effect; the manufacturing sector has positive effect while the service sector exerts an unclear effect on

economic growth. Conversely, Carkovic and Levine (2002) used a data sample of 72 countries both developed and developing countries. He advocated that there is no significant positive relation between FDI and economic growth. Even if there is a positive relation, FDI effect on economic growth is weak.

Similarly, Khaliq and Noy (2007) used a sectoral data for the period 1997-2006, to study the impact of FDI on Indonesia economic growth. They found that FDI has a positive impact on the whole economy. However when taking into consideration the sector wise performance, only a few sectors show a positive impact of FDI while other sectors especially the mining and quarrying sector show a negative impact of FDI. On the contrary, Saqib et al (2013) found that FDI has a negative impact on the economic performance of Pakistan for the period 1981-2010. Hence, the empirical review support the fact that there are mixed evidence between FDI and economic growth. Also noted, is the lack of studies on tourism FDI and economic growth studies.

Overview of FDI and Tourism in Mauritius

Mauritius has registered considerable transformation since the past three decades, whereby its economy has achieved sustained growth. The economy has moved from a poor country with high unemployment exporting mainly sugar, to one which has become relatively prosperous and diverse, although not without problems. The country has achieved the status of a middle income diversified economy with increasing emphasis on financial services and tourism. The promotion of tourism and the creation of the EPZs did much to attain these goals. Tourism has evolved to become a reliable growth industry, even outperforming the traditional sectors (UNCTAD, 2008).

The 1970s were marked by a strong government commitment to diversify the economy and to provide more high-paying jobs to the population. The economy had slowed down by the late 1980s and early 1990s, but the government was optimistic that it could ensure the long-term prosperity of the country by drawing up and implementing prudent development plans. The main motivations behind the urge to diversify the economy have been the threat to agriculture, mainly sugar, resulting from Europe's common agricultural policy and the potential detrimental effects of the Agreement on Textile and Clothing on the textiles and clothing sector. For instance, there was the phasing out of preferential markets stemming from the proposed reforms of the European Union (EU) and the phasing out of the Multi Fibre arrangement. More so, the country had to face intensified global competition from low-wage countries (particularly China and India) and limited opportunities for preferential trade arrangements in the future represent serious constraints on future growth. Hence, the contraction in the manufacturing sector, mainly in the Export Processing Zone (EPZ), rising unemployment and fiercer competition from the fast growing East Asian economies presented some challenges to the economy. (UNCTAD, 2008). Looking at sectoral growth rate of the country, for the last 20 years, the tertiary sector has been an important driver of the economy. Such growth can be attributed to the booming tourism services coupled with the strong growth in transport and communication; financial services and the real estate sector. The table below summarises the economic growth of the country by industry.

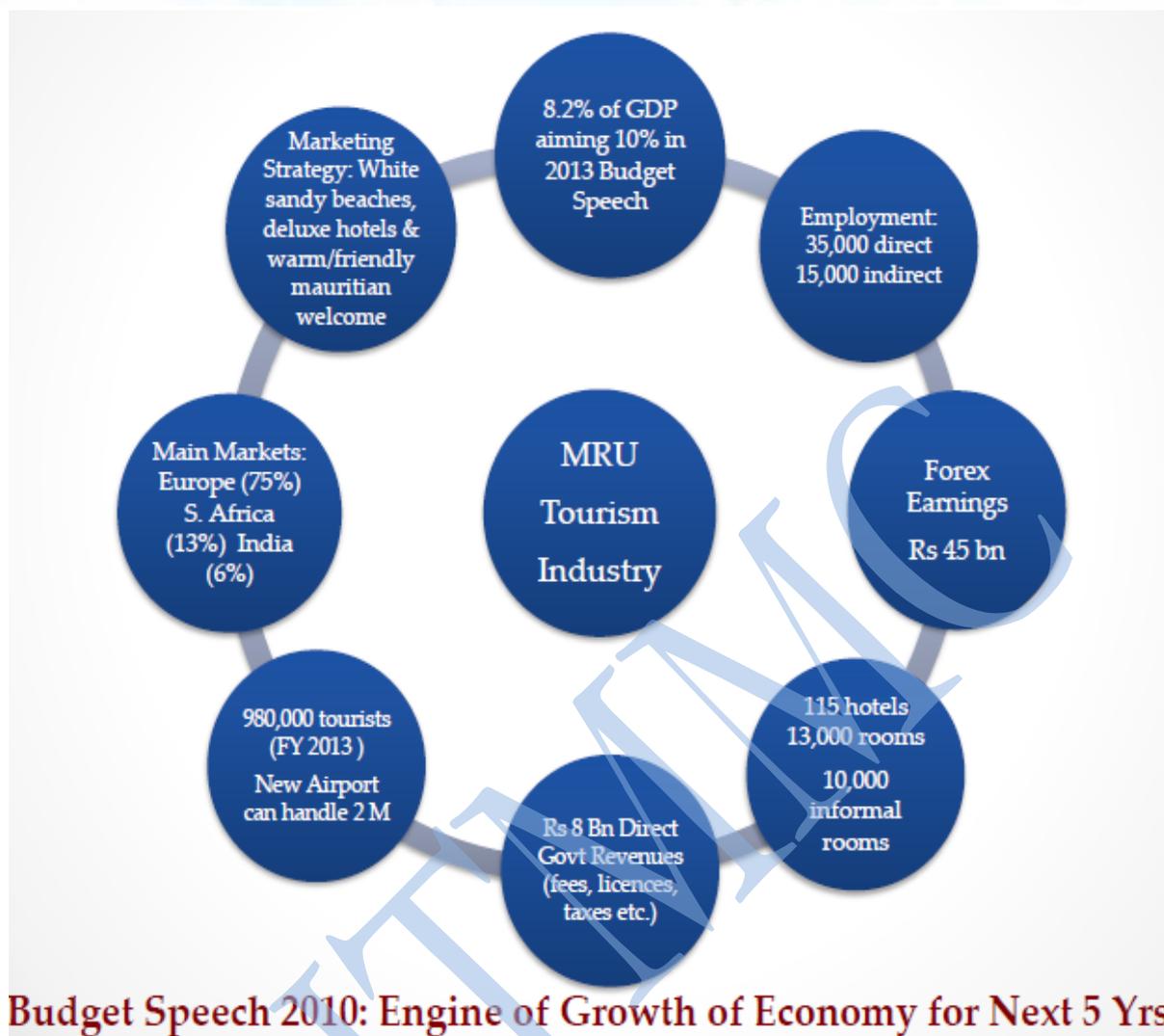
Percentage Distribution of Gross Domestic Product by industry group at current basic prices, 2009 – 2012

	2009	2010	2011	2012
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	3.9	3.7	3.7	3.5
Manufacturing	18.8	18.0	17.7	17.5
Electricity, gas and water supply	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.9
Construction	6.9	6.9	6.5	6.3

Wholesale & retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles, personal and household goods	11.4	11.8	11.9	12.1
Tourism (Hotels and restaurants)	6.7	7.0	7.1	6.8
Transport, storage and communications	9.6	9.5	9.2	9.0
Financial intermediation	10.4	10.0	10.1	10.2
Real estate, renting and business activities	11.8	12.3	13.0	13.4
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	6.1	6.1	5.9	5.9
Education	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.4
Health and social work	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.9
Other community, social and personal service activities and private households with employed persons	4.3	4.6	4.8	5.1
Gross Domestic Product at basic prices	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

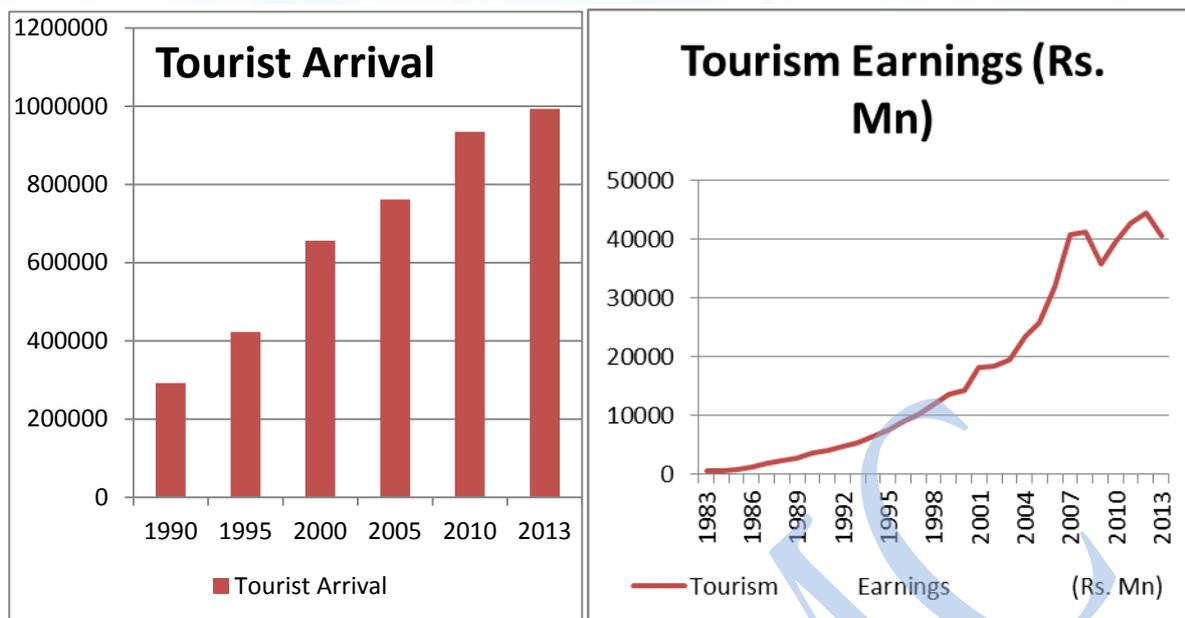
Tourism in Mauritius

Tourism in Mauritius has developed progressively since 1970s with about 18,000 visitors to become one of the main pillars for growth of the economy accounted for almost one million visitors annually. Indeed it is considered as the third pillar of the Mauritian economy. The tourism sector in Mauritius has been a reliable growth engine the economy. Where on one hand side, the EPZ sector was contracting, the tourism sector continued to grow at a steady pace. Tourism in Mauritius has been very beneficial to the economy. The diagram below highlights the positive effects of tourism on the Mauritian economy.



Tourist arrival

Tourist arrivals have been expanding consequently, thus rising from 103,000 in 1977 to 993,106 in 2013, a more than eight-fold increase. In 2013, about 55% of the tourist arrivals are of European origin, with France supplying nearly half. The African residents provided 28% of tourist arrivals. Most of them are from the nearby Reunion French Territory representing the most important short haul source market accounting for about 14% of total tourist arrivals. The Government's ambition is to reach the 2 million tourist figures by 2015. The diagram below shows the performance of tourist arrivals and tourism earnings from 1990 to 2013.



Source: Computed Statistics Mauritius data

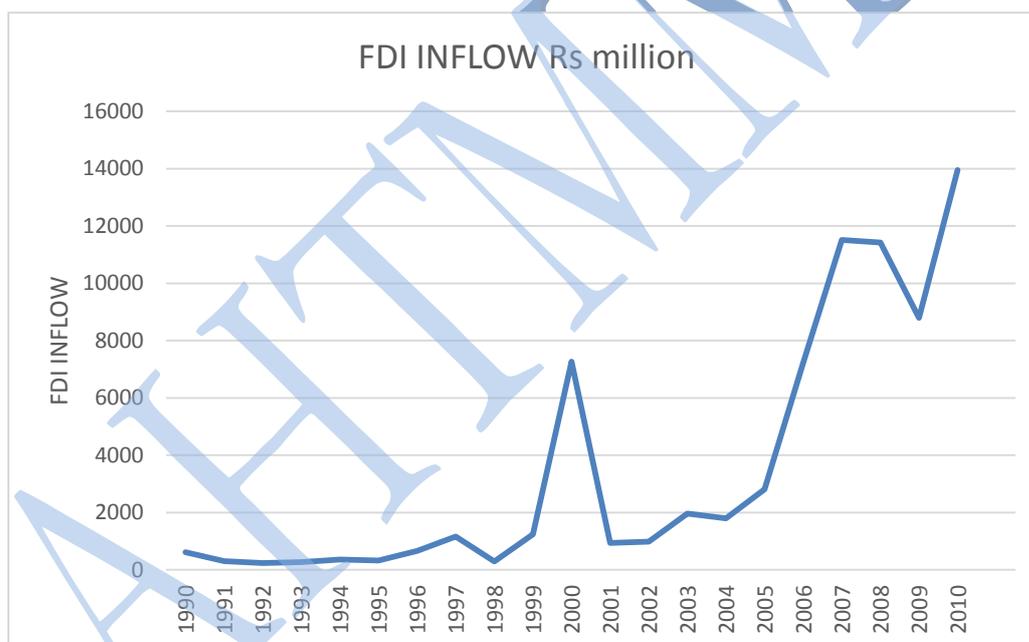
Mauritius has been able to record such good performance in tourist arrival mainly due to the perception that Mauritius is a secure destination, as well as to the promotional efforts of the Mauritius Tourism Promotion Authority (MTPA) in Europe and India. Recent opening up of the access is another major factor contributing to the recent growth. Moreover, there are a growing number of visitors from Australia, Austria and Spain. (UNCTAD, 2007). Mauritius also registered impressive inflow of tourism receipt over the last decades. For instance, in 1983 tourism receipt was quite low at Rs 530 million. However, this increased by almost 80 fold in 2013 more precisely to Rs 40,557 million. The figure below shows tourist receipts in Mauritian rupees. This remarkable performance is attributable to Mauritius' success in attracting tourists at the high end of the market.

FDI in tourism

Foreign direct investment has greatly contributed towards the diversification of the Mauritian economy. FDI has been playing an important role in stimulating the economic growth of the island. On a more general ground, FDI has been reported to be more productive than

domestic investments. FDI has several positive effects which include productivity gains, technology transfers, and the introduction of new processes, managerial skills, and know-how in the domestic market.

Mauritius has been recognized to be among the few sub-Saharan African countries to have successfully competed with other countries for FDI. As reported in UNCTAD 2008, the quest for Mauritius to open its economy and integrating into the globalization process has attracted significant export-oriented FDI, which now plays a pivotal role in the development of the country's economy. The figure below shows the evolution of FDI inflows in Mauritius from 1990 to 2010.



Most of the FDI since 1970 was flowing in the EPZ sector of the country. However, from 1990 and onwards, FDI in the tourism sector and other service providing sectors has been increasing. With liberalisation of FDI in the economy, the Hotels and Restaurants sector and the financial intermediation sector have attracted huge inflow of FDI in the economy.

In fact, FDI policy towards the tourism sector has evolved from being quite restrictive in the past to almost full liberalisation. From 2005 onwards, FDI has increased tremendously with

the introduction of the Integrated Resort Scheme (IRS), which is mainly the acquisition of villa for residential purposes by foreigners only. FDI has risen significantly. Investment under this scheme has driven FDI inflows upward in the Hotel and Restaurant sector. (UNCTAD report, 2008)

Description	2,006	2,007	2,008	2,009	2,010	2,011	2,012	2,013
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	26	18	447	-	-	215	127	678
Manufacturing	181	271	149	485	63	669	1,597	280
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	17	-	-	-	2	18	8	238
Construction	12	45	68	211	1,292	2,117	2,305	762
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	198	38	103	291	125	600	746	327
Transportation and storage	13	-	14	10	110	204	43	-
Accommodation, food service and IRS	2609.7	5979.1	3984.6	3923.39	2869.3	4351	6067.4	4910
Information and communication	42.7	18.2	7.8	-	235.47	462	373	60
Financial and insurance activities	3592.9	4055.6	4563.9	1371.4	4645.292	1972	5512	716
Real estate activities	473.3	1029.5	1887.7	2231.29	1389.2	1884	3324.6	1328
Professional, scientific and technical activities	-	-	-	-	404.2	266	52	12
Administrative and support service activities	-	-	-	-	-	38	8	161
Education	54.6	30.034	74.054	125	18	4	-	32
Human health and social work activities	2.2	28.952	119.7	145.1	2732.2	91	210	-
Arts, entertainment and recreation	-	-	-	-	61.8	3	-	8.1
Total	7221.6	11513.686	11419.054	8793.18	13948.062	12894	20373	9512.1

From the above figure, it can be noted that there is considerable FDI inflow in the tourism sector in the economy. From 2006 to 2007, FDI inflow in the tourism sector has increased by 380 percent. It should be noted that this remarkable performance in tourism FDI, is mainly due to the support of the government who has been very supportive to investors. Clear policies were set by offering incentives to investors and creating an environment conducive to investment and by eliminating bureaucratic procedures. Tourism is now regarded as an established pillar of the Mauritian economy and the government is supporting the sector extensively through various policies. Thus the government has redefined the sector as the

Hospitality and Property Development Sector. Moreover, the Government has been providing proactive support to this sector through strategies such as: (i) having an open skies policy, (ii) developing Mauritius as a duty-free island, (iii) promoting the country as a centre for meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions (MICE), and (iv) allowing foreigners to acquire property. (UNCTAD, 2008)

METHODOLOGY

Model Specifications

The aim of this study is to investigate the relationship between FDI in tourism and economic growth in Mauritius over a period of 31 years (1983-2013). This section describes the model adopted and the empirical indicators of Tourism FDI, economic growth and, other control variables used in the model. The basic specification of the model is based on the principles of some earlier studies of growth models carried out by Barro and Lee (1994), Temple (1999), Durbarry (2004) and Seetanaah (2008) for the case of an African country.

An augmented Solow growth model is adopted in this study. In fact the Solow model provides essential foundation for growth estimation. We thus included conventional sources of economic growth mainly, human capital (*HC*). The econometric model is augmented by including a proxy for economic freedom (*EF*), tourism development (*TOUR*), and FDI in tourism (*FDI T*) and non-tourism sector (*FDI NT*).

The model takes the following functional form:

$$Y = f(HC, EF, FDI T, FDI NT, TOUR)$$

The dependent variable is proxied by gross domestic product growth (*Y*). The variable of interest for this study is FDI in the tourism sector. The extent of foreign presence in the tourism sector is measured by *FDIT* and the proxy used is FDI in the tourism sector as a percentage of real GDP. Data for FDI flowing in the tourism sector for Mauritius is extracted from the Balance

of Payments reports as provided by the Bank of Mauritius. As argued by various scholars, such as Yunis (2008), tourism FDI can boost a country's economic growth as foreign tourism companies also act as a promoter for the injection of fresh capital in the host country and also help in attracting foreign tour operators and tourists. More so, as per Forsyth & Dwyer (2003), foreign investment and know-how are considered to be of paramount importance in creating and upgrading tourism-related infrastructure and also foreign investment can give rise to more investment in tourism in total. Hence, a positive coefficient is expected here.

FDI in non-tourism sector is as well included in the model to account for the impact of non-tourism FDI flows on economic growth of the country. FDI NT is used as a proxy for this and we expect the coefficient to have a positive relationship with economic growth. We also added a measure of education (HC) to account for the quality of the labour force. A higher level of human capital increases the ability of workers to learn and adopt new technologies faster and more efficiently and thus are more productive. Many scholars, such as Mankiw, Romer and Weil (1992) and Barro (1998) put forward empirical evidences showing the positive relationship between human capital and economic growth. This study uses secondary school enrollment ratio as a proxy for human capital and a positive coefficient is expected. The data is extracted from statistics Mauritius database.

Since political, economic, social, transparency and security are necessary requirements for economic growth, we included in this study a measure of economic freedom² and the proxy used for this is the economic freedom index as obtained from Holmes, Feulner and O'Grady (various ranking years). Data for economic freedom is obtained from Heritage foundation.

²The economic freedom index is calculated as the weighted average of ten economic freedoms related namely to business, trade, fiscal, government size, monetary, investment, financial, property rights, corruption, and labour freedoms. It is measured on a scale of 0 to 100 with the higher the scale, the higher the level of freedom.

We further included tourism receipt as a measure of tourism development in the country. Tourism development is as well crucial for economic growth. For instance, considering the tourism led growth hypothesis, the papers by Durbarry (2004) and Louca (2006), Noriko and Mototsugu (2007) and Gani (1998) supports the positive relationship between international tourism and economic growth for small island economies using cointegration and causality tests. Hence, tourism receipt is used as proxy for tourism expansion in the country and the data are extracted from statistics Mauritius database.

The econometric specification can be written as follows

$$y_t = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 fdit_t + \beta_2 fdint_t + \beta_3 hc_t + \beta_4 Ef_t + \beta_5 Tr + \mu_t$$

Where t denotes the time dimension and the small letters denote the natural logarithm of the variables employed for the ease of interpretation (that is in percentage terms).

Estimation Issues

Applying regression on time series data may generate spurious results (Granger and Newbold, 1974; Philips, 1986) due to the possibility of non-stationarity data. Hence, checking the stationarity of data is a prerequisite for applying co-integration test. As a result the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test (Dickey-Fuller, 1979, 1981) and the Phillips-Perron test (Phillips and Perron 1988) were applied. Once, the variables are stationary of the same order, the second step is to check for co-integration test or long run co-integration relationship amongst the variables. The Johansen Co-integrating Test (Johansen 1988; Johansen and Juselius, 1990), which uses maximum likelihood testing process is applied, to

investigate the number of Co-integration vectors in the Vector Auto Regressive (VAR) setting.

Actually, the static single equation often fails to take into account the presence of dynamic feedback among relevant variables. Accordingly, we chose to use a VAR approach to study the relationship between FDI in tourism and economic growth. Such an approach does not impose a priori restriction on the dynamic relations among the different variables. It resembles simultaneous equation modeling, whereby several endogeneous variables are considered together.

The common form of VAR is as given;

$$Z_t = \lambda + \gamma_1 Z_{t-1} + \dots + \gamma_k Z_{t-k} + \varepsilon_t \quad \text{---2}$$

Where Z is an $(n \times 1)$ vector of k variables having integrated of order 1 that is $I(1)$, λ is a $(n \times 1)$ vector of intercepts, $\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_k$, are parameters and ε_t is a normally distributed residual term.

The common VAR based model in equation (2) may also take the form of the vector error correction model (VECM) as follows:

$$\Delta Z_t = \lambda + \Gamma \Delta Z_{t-1} + \Pi Z_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad \text{---3}$$

$$Z_t = [y_t, fdit_t, fdint_t, hc_t, Ef_t, Tr]$$

Where Z is an $(n \times 1)$ vector of k variables having integrated of order 1 that is $I(1)$, λ is a $(n \times 1)$ vector of intercepts, ε_t is an $(n \times 1)$ vector of residuals. Further, Δ is the difference operator and Γ and Π are coefficient matrices. Π is also known as the impact matrix as it explains the long run equilibrium relationship of the variables; while Γ explains the short run effect. The VECM linking short term and long term causality between Tourism FDI and economic growth is set as follows;

$$\Delta \ln y_t = \alpha_0 + \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_1 \Delta \ln \text{fdi T}_{t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_2 \Delta \ln \text{fdi NT}_{t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_3 \Delta \ln \text{hc}_{t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_4 \Delta \ln \text{Ef}_{t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_5 \Delta \ln \text{Tr}_{t-j} + \eta \text{ECT}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \text{---4}$$

The coefficient of the error correction term (ECT_{t-1}) indicates whether there exists a short run relationship among the time series variables. The sign and value of the coefficient provides information about the speed of convergence or divergence of the variables from their long run co integrating equilibrium. A negative and significant coefficient of ECT_{t-1} is favourable for the stability of long run equilibrium.

FINDINGS

Referring to the results reported in table 1, we observe that both augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) (1979) and Phillips-Perron (PP) (1988) unit-roots tests were employed and the stationarity tests suggest that all our variables are integrated of order 1 and stationary in first difference.

Table 1: AUGMENTED DICKEY FULLER TEST FOR UNIT ROOT

Variables	At Level	At First Difference
Output	0.9519	0.000
FDI T	0.8456	0.000
FDI NT	0.2143	0.000
HC	0.7361	0.000
TR	0.3143	0.000
ER	0.6518	0.000

The Johansen Maximum Likelihood approach is subsequently used to test the presence of cointegration in a vector error correction model. Trace statistics λ_{trace} and maximal eigenvalue

are used to check the number of co-integrating vectors. These statistics test the null hypothesis of no co-integrating equations against the alternative of co-integration. The trace statistics either rejects the null hypothesis of no-cointegration among the variables or does not reject the null hypothesis that there is a co-integration relation between the variables. The results show the presence of co-integrating vector and we thus conclude that a long run relationship exists between the dependent variable and the control variables.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

Vector Error Correction Model, VECM

Since there is the presence of co integration, and hence a long run equilibrium relationship among the variables has been established, the next step is to specify and estimate a VECM including the error correction term to investigate the dynamic nature of the model. The VECM specification forces the long run behavior of the endogenous variables to converge to their co integrated relationships, which accommodates short run dynamics. In this study, the VECM is estimated using an optimum lag length of 1.

The long run coefficients of our analysis are reported in equation 5 below:

$$y_t = 15.53 + 0.10^{**} fdit_t + 0.41^{**} fdint_t - 7.44hc_t + 0.17^{*} Ef_t + 0.45^{***} Tr_t \quad (5)$$

*Indicates the significance at 10%, ** significance at 5% and ***significance at 1%

The long run equation yields very interesting results. All variables except human capital have a significant impact on economic growth in Mauritius. Since the focus of the study is to analyse the impact of FDI in tourism on economic growth in Mauritius, we will first analyse the results of the variable *fdit*. The result shows that tourism FDI in the economy has contributed to the economic well-being of the country in the long run as supported by the positive and significant coefficient of the variable. In fact a 1% increase in FDI in tourism

raises economic growth by 0.10%. Our results are in line with Todl and Fornero (2009). The relatively small coefficient can be explained by the fact that most FDI that was flowing in Mauritius was basically in the EPZ sector. FDI in the tourism sector started to increase in the year 1995 and onwards. In fact initially, FDI policies towards tourism were quite restrictive as the government was dreading that this might lead to an over capacity of hotel rooms. Full foreign ownership was only permitted for hotels of more than 100 rooms. However, the government has come up with liberalization policies and foreign investment is actually permitted in restaurants, yachts and travel agencies among others. This change in policy has not only attracted more FDI in the sector, but has brought the needed capital for further investment, and also the necessary technological know-how and skills, and has led to the construction of world-class hotels and villas. Direct and indirect employment has also increased to a large extent.

Regarding the variable FDI in non-tourism sector, here as well we noted that the coefficient is positive and highly significant. It shows that a 1% increase in FDI in other sectors apart from tourism contributed to 0.41% increase in economic growth. Our results are in line with the studies of Blin and Ouattara (2009) and Seetanah et al (2009) analysing the impact of FDI on the economic growth of Mauritius. Hence, the foreign investment proxies, which are FDI in tourism and FDI in non-tourism, (i.e. total FDI); we find evidence that both have a significant and positive role to play in generating gains in terms of economic growth. Our result is in line with Kholdy, (1995), Carkovic and Levine (2002) and Durham (2004). Looking at the actual scenario of Mauritius, it is observed that FDI has contributed significantly to the diversification of the Mauritian economy. According to the UNCTAD report 2008, "Mauritius is among the few sub-Saharan African countries to have successfully competed with other countries for FDI". The Mauritian government has engage in an open

door policy and has successfully integrated into the globalization process which has attracted significant export-oriented FDI, which now plays a fundamental role in the development of the country's economy.

Another interesting result observed is the tourism development variable. Here as well we note that the variable is positive and significant. In fact, the coefficient of 0.45, a measure of output elasticity, denotes that a 1% increase in tourist development contributed to a 0.45 per cent increase in the economic growth of Mauritius. The result shows that a 1% increase in tourism development in the economy leads to 0.45% increase in economic growth. Similar results are obtained by Dritsakis (2004), Kim, Chen, and Jang (2006), and Eugenio-Martin, Morales and Scarpa (2004). Indeed the tourism industry in Mauritius has recorded a consistently robust performance since 1995. Mauritius also registered impressive inflow of tourism receipt. For instance, from 1983 to 2013, tourism receipt has increased by almost 9 fold. Referring now to the economic freedom coefficient, we observe again a positive and significant coefficient. It shows that economic freedom in a country is of upmost importance for the country's economic growth. However, referring to the human capital variable, rather disappointing results are obtained. We found that human capital has a negative but yet insignificant relationship with economic growth. This result can be explained by the fact that the tourism sector is not skill intensive which is confirmed by the insignificant coefficient of education. A similar result has been obtained by Todl and Fornero (2009).

The Short Run Regression

As observed from the preliminary tests, the variables are co integrated, in the short run; deviations from the long run equilibrium will feed back on the changes in the dependent variables so as to force their movements towards the long run equilibrium state. The

deviation from the long-run equilibrium is corrected gradually through a series of partial short term adjustments, the co-integration term or the error correction term. It indicates the speed of adjustment of any disequilibrium towards the long-run equilibrium. The empirical results of the short run estimates of the VECM are displayed in the table below.

Table 2:Short run Dynamics

Error correction Model	Δy	$\Delta fdi t$	$\Delta fdi nt$	Δhc	ΔEf	ΔTr
Constant	-0.17 [-0.77]	-1.10 [-2.03]	0.52 [0.97]	-0.003*** [-0.19]	0.14*** [5.82]	0.11*** [2.99]
Δy_{t-1}	0.46*** [1.58]	0.54** [1.05]	0.16* [1.15]	0.016*** [0.72]	0.13*** [4.30]	0.12* [2.54]
$\Delta fdi t_{t-1}$	0.09* [2.43]	0.39*** [1.88]	0.40 [1.95]	0.003* [0.51]	0.013 [1.32]	0.001* [0.07]
$\Delta fdi nt_{t-1}$	0.11* [1.69]	0.21** [0.57]	0.32*** [0.89]	0.017* [1.517]	-0.03 [-1.92]	0.02* [1.47]
Δhc_{t-1}	-7.21 [-1.58]	-6.89 [-0.62]	14.71 [1.33]	-0.321*** [-0.94]	1.07 [2.14]	1.47 [1.97]
ΔEf_{t-1}	1.26 [2.83]	0.27 [2.62]	-11.24 [-3.11]	0.06 [0.53]	0.38*** [-2.32]	-0.53 [-2.19]
ΔTr_{t-1}	0.16* [0.23]	0.25* [0.86]	0.11 [0.67]	0.08 [0.61]	-0.95 [-4.49]	0.082*** [0.26]
$\sqrt{t-1}$	-0.70*	-2.23	-0.49**	-0.03***	-0.17***	0.12***
R²	0.80	0.70	0.60	0.30	0.76	0.45

*significant at 10%, ** significant at 5%, ***significant at 1%

Table 2 is a composite table, where each column can be viewed and analyzed as an independent function, that is, each column in the table corresponds to an equation in the

VECM. The variable named in the first cell of each column is viewed as the dependent variable. The estimated coefficient of the explanatory variables is reported in the cells. Our focus will be on the first column. Analysing the short run estimates of equation one, that is the regression equation with economic growth as the dependent variable, it is observed that tourism FDI is confirmed to be an important element in economic growth even in the short run. However, the coefficient is small which indicated that such capital flow takes time to have its full effect on the economy. Thus a 1 percentage point increase in the growth rate of capital flow associated with tourism FDI leads to a 0.09 percentage point increase in the growth rate of output after one year. This relationship is the direct effect of tourism FDI on economic growth. FDI in non-tourism sector is also significant showing that it favorably influences output growth in the short run. Hence, both types of FDI have positive impact on the economic growth of the country in the short run. More so, the other control variables such as tourism development and economic freedom have positive influence on output growth. It should be noted that the magnitude of the tourism FDI coefficient remains relatively smaller as compared to the other control variables such as FDI in non-tourism sector and tourism development which remains the major growth drivers in Mauritius according to the study.

The VAR/ VECM framework, as discussed before, allows us to gauge more interesting insights on endogeneity issues and also allows us to detect any indirect effects present in the study. While, our results shows that FDI in tourism influences growth, the results reported in the above table shows that economic growth in the country also determine the level of tourism FDI. Referring to the FDI tourism equation that is the third column in table..., it is observed that a reverse causation exist between output growth and tourism FDI. Thus the results support a bi causal and reinforcing relationship between output growth and tourism FDI. Hence, output level which proxies economic well-being and level of development, plays

a key role in attracting tourism FDI in the country. Similar analysis can be done for FDI in the non-tourism sector as well. We observed from column 4 in the table, that economic growth is also a determinant of FDI in other sectors. Therefore, we can conclude that there exist a bi causal and reinforcing relationship between output growth and aggregate FDI. This result is in line with several studies such as Choe (2003), Bende-Nabende, Ford, Sen and Slater (2000).

Referring to the tourism FDI equation, positive indirect effects of tourist development on tourism FDI are noted. This confirms the view that additional tourism in the country encourages foreign investment in the sector, for instance hotels, restaurants and other tourism related activities. An elasticity value of 0.1 denotes that a percentage increase in tourist development would lead to a 0.25 increase in tourism foreign investment. Given that the direct effect is to the order of 0.09 in output for a 1 percent increase in tourism FDI, put together this leads to a 0.09×0.25 (0.03) percentage increase in the output after two years. This is an estimate of the indirect effect of tourism FDI on output via the tourism development channel. Also, it is observed that tourism FDI is influenced by FDI in non-tourism sector as well. The result shows that a 1 percentage point increase in FDI in non-tourism sector leads to a 0.27 percentage point increase in tourism FDI. Therefore, we can deduce that there are FDI spillover effects from the non-tourism sector to the tourism sector.

In line with the above regression results, we thus confirm the existence of a positive and significant relationship between tourism FDI and economic growth, both in the short run and in the long run.

Structural Analysis

It is also possible from our framework to analyse the Granger-causal relation between a series of variables pairs. Granger-Causality is adopted to examine the direction of causality between tourism FDI and economic growth. The Granger-Causality test allows for the test of the null hypothesis: variable X does not Granger-Cause variable Y, against the alternative that variable X does Granger-Cause variable Y. The results are given below where $X \rightarrow Y$ implies X Granger-Causes Y and \leftrightarrow indicates bi-directional causality.

A summary of results of the Granger causality test is displayed in the table 3. It should be noted that these results are to a large extent in line with the one obtained earlier.

Table 3: Summary of Pairwise Granger-Causality tests

Variables Pairs	Direction of causation
Output and FDI T	Bi Causality Output \leftrightarrow FDI T
Output and FDI NT	Bi Causality Output \leftrightarrow FDI NT
Output and HC	Causality from HC to economic growth Output \rightarrow HC
Output and EF	Bi Causality Output \leftrightarrow EF
Output and TR	Bi causality Output \leftrightarrow TR
FDIT and FDI NT	Causality from FDI NT to FDI T FDI NT \rightarrow FDI T
FDI T and EF	Causality from EF to FDI T EF \rightarrow FDI T
FDI T and TR	Bi Causality FDI T \leftrightarrow TR

CONCLUSION

Based on the VECM framework adopted in this study, the main objective is to investigate the relationship that might exist between tourism FDI and economic growth in Mauritius over the period 1983 to 2013. Referring to the results, we found that tourism FDI is a contributor of economic growth in Mauritius both in the long run and in the short run. However, the magnitude of the coefficient is relatively small as compared to FDI in the non-tourism sector and the other control variables. This is explained by the fact the bulk of FDI flows in the non-tourism sector in Mauritius. Furthermore, the results confirm the presence of bi-causality and feedback effects in the tourism FDI-economic growth model. Moreover the VECM analysis has enabled us to detect important indirect effects through the 'tourism development channel' to economic growth. We also observed a positive relationship between tourism development and economic growth. This result supports the tourism led hypothesis. The results for economic freedom further support the view that economic stability is an important ingredient for economic growth in an economy. Overall this study provides new evidences in the field of tourism FDI for the case of Mauritius using recent cointegration approach in a dynamic framework.

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Awareness and Credibility of Ecolabels in the U.S. Lodging Industry

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INTRODUCTION

Given information asymmetry in the market, ecolabels are instruments that businesses can use to provide assurance about their favorable environmental qualities, and differentiate themselves from others. For consumers, ecolabels function as search attributes, and make it easier for them to identify environmentally friendly market offerings. The goal for ecolabels is “to encourage the demand for and supply of those products and services that cause less stress on the environment, thereby stimulating the potential for market-driven continuous environmental improvement” (Global Ecolabelling Network or GEN, 2004, p. 1). Ecolabels range from self-claimed to verified and awarded by third party (GEN, 2004), and the number and type for tourism and hospitality companies has proliferated in recent decades (e.g., Haaland & Aas, 2010; Tepelus & Córdoba, 2005). Although there are more than 440 ecolabels worldwide (<http://www.ecolabelindex.com>), they are still a relatively new trend (Bonsi, Hammett, & Smith, 2008).

Lodging companies can obtain ecolabels that are tailored specifically for hotels such as Green Key International, and/or they can obtain those that are applicable to multiple industries, such as the Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) label. Currently in the U.S.A., about 600 hotels have received Green Key certification, while 150 hotels have obtained LEED. Online travel intermediaries such as Travelocity.com and TripAdvisor.com have also recently begun ecolabel programs for which hotels voluntarily apply.

It is often claimed that travelers value environmental management efforts by lodging companies. As these practices can be difficult for the traveler to judge on their own, ecolabels convey the quality and credibility of those efforts (Crespi & Marette, 2003; Karstens & Belz, 2006). However, little is known about how the consumers actually perceive the credibility of ecolabels, or if they are even aware of them. The increasing number of ecolabels, many with different levels of environmental standards and processes, has caused confusion in the market, making it difficult to understand or distinguish among the ecolabels, which jeopardizes their credibility. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine the traveler's awareness, and their perceived credibility of ecolabels in the U.S.A. lodging industry. Results of this empirical study can provide lodging managers with important insight into consumer awareness and perceptions of the ecolabels, which will be useful in identifying which ecolabels, if any, to pursue.

Ecolabels

In general, there are three types of ecolabels (GEN, 2004), all of which are voluntarily pursued - those without external verification (Types I and II) and those with external validation (Type III). A Type I label is the classic type of ecolabel, with an informal, second party certification process such as California's Green Lodging Program. Such a product or

service has met *certain* qualifying criteria process for an ecolabel, but there is no verification of those criteria by a third party. A Type II label is often referred to as a *self-declared* label, such as the Green Lodging Association. Companies declare that their products are less harmful to the environment, without meeting any sort of specific criteria, and without any verification of such claims. Type III is third party certification, indicating that an independent group verified the company’s environmental declarations. For example, if a hotel wishes to start using an ecolabel, they must show that they have met the standards for the particular label for which they are applying. Then, a representative from the certifying organization awarding the label will visit the hotel to check how well it is fulfilling those standards.

As presented in Table 1, six ecolabels were selected for this study (Audubon International, Green Key, TripAdvisor’s GreenLeaders, LEED, Energy Star, Green Business Bureau). These six ecolabels vary in terms of industry scope (lodging-only vs. multi-industry) and issuer type (profit, nonprofit, government), and are currently used by lodging companies in the U.S.A. Except for Green Key and TripAdvisor’s GreenLeaders, which are Type II ecolabels, the other four ecolabels are Type III.

Table 1: Ecolabels included in this study

	Industry scope		Issuer characteristics		Ecolabel type **
	Lodging only	Multi-industries	Profit	Government / Nonprofit	
Audubon International	x			x	Type III
Green Key	x		x		Type II

TripAdvisor				
GreenLeaders	x	x*		Type II
LEED			x	Type III
Energy Star	x			Type III
Green Business Bureau	x	x		Type III

* developed in partnership with Energy Star, US Green Building Council, United Nation's Environmental Program, but the label itself is used by TripAdvisor.

** based on Global Ecolabelling Network (GEN) definitions: Type II is self-declared ecolabel (no certification process); Type III is third party certification.

Audubon International's Green Lodging Program, formerly called Green Leaf, has 150 certified hotels at various stages of the certification process (bronze, silver, gold, or platinum) (Hasek, 2013a). Audobon's standards are geared towards a commitment to water quality; water conservation; waste minimization; resource conservation; and energy efficiency (Audubon International, 2013), which are verified by an Audubon staff member who visits the property. A property can earn Bronze, Silver, Gold, or Platinum status depending upon the level of the environmental standards (Hasek, 2013a). Audubon has partnered with the state of New York's Department of Environmental Conservation, and the state of Florida's Department of Environmental Protection to develop and manage green lodging programs for lodging companies in those states.

The Green-Key Eco-Program, is by a for-profit company based in Canada, which has roughly 1,200 certified properties in Canada, and 1,600 in the U.S.A. (Hasek, 2013b). The company confers five different levels of "keys," based on the number of practices, with 5

keys being the highest level. They conduct audits on a minimum of 20 percent of certified properties per year. Priority visits are made to those properties with either 5 keys, or those that have had complaints filed against them. Applicants must address questions related to corporate environmental management; housekeeping; conference and meeting services; food and beverage services; and, engineering (Hasek, 2013b).

Some online travel companies (OTAs) have also begun recognizing hotels for their environmental practices. On Earth Day in 2013, TripAdvisor launched its GreenLeaders Program for hotels practicing pre-determined environmentally friendly standards set by TripAdvisor in conjunction with the Environmental Protection Agency (Energy Star), the US Green Building Council, and the United Nation's Environmental Program. There are three levels of GreenLeaders – bronze, silver, gold and platinum. As of August, 2013, over 2,100 hotels and bed and breakfasts in the U.S. had signed up for the free program by completing a survey on which they are rated for the level of practices they have in place. Properties are audited randomly, or if there are guest complaints about a property's environmental claims (Hasek, 2013c). Otherwise, there is no third party verification. The basic requirements of the program include: "tracking energy on a regular basis (at least quarterly); using at least 75 percent energy-efficient light bulbs; having current and active towel and linen re-use plans in place; recycling at least two types of waste; provide staff training on green practices; and offer guest education on green practices" (Hasek, 2013c, p.1). Those properties that are practicing the seven aforementioned standards, but do not achieve a sufficiently high score, are referred to as GreenPartners, as opposed to GreenLeaders.

Lodging companies can also obtain ecolabels developed for industries beyond the lodging industry. One of them is Energy Star, which was established in 1992 by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, to help "businesses and individuals save money and protect our climate through superior energy efficiency." A representative from Energy Star

verifies how well the property meets the energy efficient requirements set by the program. Buildings that earn the label rate in the top 25 percent of energy-efficient buildings in the nation (Energy Star, 2013). To date, just fewer than 500 hotels have received the Energy Star ecolabel.

Another multi-industry ecolabel is the U.S. Green Building Council's Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) certification program. Currently, about 150 properties in the U.S. have received one of four levels of LEED certification (bronze, silver, gold, or platinum). The LEED program focuses on sustainable site development; water savings; energy efficiency; materials selection; and indoor environmental quality for buildings of all types around the world. The process is verified, and certificates awarded by LEED certified employees of the Green Building Council.

The Green Business Bureau (GBB) provides third party certification to those companies in the U.S.A. and Canada across various industries that have made a commitment to implementing environmentally friendly practices. The GBB emphasizes efficiency and optimization –“the business practices that are both environmentally responsible and commercially beneficial.” Approximately 40 hotels and bed and breakfast properties in the U.S. are members of GBB at one of three levels of certification (aware, gold, platinum).

Despite the number of hotels with ecolabel certification it is unknown how much consumers are aware of the ecolabels for lodging facilities, or how they perceive the credibility of them.

Ecolabel Credibility

Credibility refers to the extent to which an information receiver believes the information source (speaker) or the transmitted information (message). Information receivers consider a source credible, when they believe that the speaker has proper expertise or

competence, and is trustworthy (Gaziano & McGrath, 1986), while they consider a message credible, when they believe the message is accurate, factual, comprehensive, and well-organized (Hamilton, 1998; Metzger & Flanagin, in press).

For ecolabels to be effective, awareness and consumer acceptance (credibility) of them are key (Leire & Thidell, 2005). A person might like an ecolabel itself, whether or not s/he is aware of it. However, liking an ecolabel does not mean that s/he perceives it to be credible (Sirieix, et al., 2013). For instance, Nilsson, Tunçer, and Thidel (2004) analyzed 58 ecolabels for food in the E.U. and concluded that the majority of them have not established enough credibility for consumers.

Studies reported that the most critical factor for perceived credibility of ecolabels is the endorser (Teisl, et al., 2002), or the organization issuing the label. This is in line with the finding that perceived credibility of sponsors on websites affects that of online reviews (Westerwick, 2013). Furthermore, perceived credibility is higher when a label program is supported and endorsed by government or an independent third-party (Grespi & Marette 2005), rather than by private certification companies. For example, in a study of U.S. energy ecolabels, Banerjeea and Solomonb (2003) found that the determining factor for the credibility of a program was government support. This implies that multi-industry ecolabels can have higher credibility due to their wider exposure and scope, compared to lodging-specific ecolabels. Studies have also found that perceived credibility increases as consumers become more familiar with ecolabels (Banerjeea & Solomonb, 2003; Teisl et al., 2002; Sirieix, et al., 2013).

Ecolabels are instruments that suppliers use to indicate their favorable environmental qualities. Consumers use them as search attributes of a product or service for which credence attributes cannot be judged (Crespi & Marette, 2003; Karstens & Belz, 2006). Thus, it is important to understand the consumer's perceived credibility of ecolabels, because that

affects their attitudes and behavior in the marketplace (Moussa & Touzani 2008). Particularly, little empirical research has been conducted about ecolabels and their credibility in the lodging industry from the consumer's perspective.

METHOD

A national online panel of 400 adults (over 18 years old) in the U.S.A. will be contacted in April 2014 through an online survey company. The respondents will be screened to include only adult travelers who have stayed in a hotel, motel, or bed and breakfast within the last two years.

The survey includes four sections. In section one, participants will be asked to rate their level of familiarity with each of the six ecolabels (Audubon, Green Key, TripAdvisor, LEED, Energy Star, GBB) using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all familiar) to 5 (very familiar). In section two, participants will be asked about their perceived credibility of each of the six ecolabels using a scale developed by Larceneux (2001) and validated by Moussa and Touzani (2008). The scale contains six statements about ecolabel credibility measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). This scale is appropriate for this study, as we will examine how consumers perceive the credibility of the actual ecolabel, rather than credibility of hotels with the labels, or of travel intermediaries that present the labels online. Participants will be asked to indicate their level of agreement with each of the six statements. In the third section, participants will be asked about their environmental behavior using the Pro-Environmental Behavior scale (PEBS) developed and validated by Markle (2013). The scale consists of 19 items, eight of which are related to how often participants partake in certain environmentally friendly activities (e.g., turn off lights when leaving a room) (1 = rarely, 5 = always); three questions related to driving habits (e.g., carpooling); six "yes/no" questions related to other behaviors

related to the environmental issues (e.g., do you eat beef?); and two questions related to laundry-usage, and the number of miles per gallon the participant's vehicle gets. The final section of the survey will ask about demographics.

The data will be analyzed to examine the respondent's level of familiarity with, and perceived credibility of, the six ecolabels. In addition, relationships among variables will be examined –e.g.) How is the perceived credibility level associated with environmental behavior or demographics?

IMPLICATIONS

As a first empirical study on the ecolabels existent in the lodging market today, results of this study will help us better understand consumer awareness and perceptions, which will be useful for lodging managers in their decision-making about ecolabels.

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**Using Freelisting to Examine the Destination Image of China
among Australian Residents**

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ABSTRACT

This study employed freelisting, a method widely used in other disciplines but very rarely applied in tourism studies, to examine China's destination image among Australian residents. Methodologically, building upon a brief critique on the existing destination image studies approaches, this paper showcases the use of freelisting in a specific destination image study. Technical issues of using freelisting like questionnaire design, data collection and analysis are covered in the paper, which provide a useful guideline for using freelisting in tourism research. In the current study's context, it was found that *Great Wall, food, culture, crowded, busy, pollution, history, pandas, Beijing, and shopping* are the mostly frequently listed image words by Australian residents. However, these image words vary in terms of their average rank and salience in the free lists. The study contributes to the literature in both its methodological innovation and effort in identifying China's image among Australian residents.

KEYWORDS Destination image, freelisting, research method, China, Anthropic

INTRODUCTION

Destination image or perception has been one of the core concepts in travel and tourism marketing studies. It can be defined as a mental construct composed of knowledge (beliefs), feelings and overall evaluation and perception of a particular destination (Crompton, 1979; Gartner, 1986; Echtner and Ritchie, 1993). It is widely believed destination image plays an important role in tourist decision making process and subsequently affect other tourist behaviours and their choice of evaluation criteria when assessing satisfaction with the holiday (Choi, Lehto, and Morrison, 2007; Chon, 1990, 1991; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). A few streams of conceptualisation on tourist destination image could be identified from the literature (Huang & Gross, 2010). Huang and Gross (2010) identified two major frameworks of conceptualising destination image. The “three-dimension continuum” framework as initiated by Echtner and Ritchie (1991, 1993) actually classified image attributes along three continuum dimensions: attribute-holistic; function-psychological; common-unique. This framework implies that destination image is composed of multiple attributes as associated with a destination and these attributes vary in terms of both its valence and nature in both the researcher’s and the tourists’ minds. While this framework is useful to understand the psychological properties of the destination image attributes and the image structure, it is less applicable when image is studied as a construct in casual relations with other tourist behavioural constructs such as satisfaction and visit intention. However, the framework well submitted that destination image is multidimensional and could align itself with both tourists’ personal factors (motivations, cultural values, feelings etc.) and destination specific factors (e.g., landscape, weather, wildlife, etc.). This indeed corresponds to Gallarza et al.’s (2002)

view that destination image as a research construct is complex, multiple, relativistic and dynamic in nature.

Another conceptual framework as identified by Huang and Gross (2010) is the “cognitive-affective” image model. Such a conceptualisation has been more often applied in tourist behaviour studies that integrate destination image into either linear or structural causal relationships with other behavioural constructs (e.g., motivation, visitation intention, and destination choice) (e.g., Baloglu & McCleary, 1999, Lin, Morais, Derstetter, & Hou, 2007). The “cognitive-affective” image model postulates that image has both cognitive and affective features (Huang & Gross), and on the basis of attitude conceptualisation in the general consumer behaviour literature (Fishbein, 1967), mostly theorises that cognitive image evaluations affect affective image evaluations (e.g. Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Lin et al., 2007). While the cognitive-affective image model seems to provide a useful framework in examining the causal relationships involving image and its cognitive and affective components and thus be able to offer more direct marketing implications, in operationalization, a lot of image attributes, especial those in the cognitive domains, could not fit into a highly quantifiable structural causal relationship framework. For instance, in Lin et al.’s (2007) study, cognitive image as a construct in the final structural model only retained two reflective composite indicators (“natural characteristics” and “amenities”), which are at a different level from the directly measured indicators for affective image. Such a compromise in data analysis may be less revealing than the critique received on the structured survey methodologies that are usually used in these studies (Echtner and Richie, 1991; Timmermans, Heuden, and Westerveld, 1982).

Beyond the above two conceptualisations, researchers also attempted to present alternative conceptual works to understand destination image. Following a multi-faceted image assessment framework proposed by Son and Pearce (2005), Huang and Gross (2010)

examined Australia's image among Chinese tourists in cognitive, affective, as well as multisensory features. As multisensory features will be critical to understanding tourist experience in a destination considering tourism is mostly selling experiences (Pine and Gilmore, 1998) and sensory attributes could actually effectively differentiate tourist experiences (Kim and Perdue, 2013), studying multisensory image components is an invaluable input in destination image studies. However, both frameworks have yet to be further advanced and validated. On the other hand, it is not unusual to see destination image studies to be based on content analysis of travel blogs, travel websites and magazines (e.g., Choi, Lehto, and Morrison, 2007; Hsu and Song, 2014; Sun, Ryan and Pan, 2014).

In terms of methodologies as adopted by researchers to study destination image, there have been criticisms in the literature that acknowledge the weakness of the structured survey approach and value the alternative unstructured qualitative approach in studying destination image (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Huang and Gross, 2010; Ryan and Cave, 2005). As a matter of fact, an *a priori* list of destination attributes generated by the researcher based on the literature might be relatively unreliable to measure destination image in a specific context, as some important attributes may be missing (Timmermans, Heuden and Westerveld, 1982). On the other hand, Echtner and Ritchie (1991) acknowledge that unstructured methodologies through focus groups, open-ended questions and content analysis of second textual data, could be more conducive to measure the holistic components of destination image. Pike (2002) reviewed 142 destination image articles published from 1973 to 2000 and identified the majority of studies used structured quantitative techniques to operationalise the destination image, while less than half of the studies reported the use of qualitative methods.

While a structured approach in study destination image may take the risk of leaving out important image attributes specific to the research context, as important image attributes may vary from one destination to another, an unstructured qualitative approach is not always

error-free. Indeed, the researcher bias is still heavily involved in the data analysis process (Huang, 2010, 2011), maybe even more so with analysing the unstructured image data. The more the data has to go through the researcher's analytical lens, the more likely the researcher's subjectivity and selectivity would contaminate or distort the findings generated from the data. Therefore, even with the unstructured destination image study approach, there is still a need to explore more reliable techniques and methodologies. In light of this, this current study adopts free-listing as a rarely applied method in tourism studies to examine the destination image of China as held among Australian residents. The purpose of the paper is twofold. It first aims to test the applicability and use of free-listing as an alternative method of destination image studies; second, it explores the destination image features of China as perceived by Australian residents from an emic perspective.

Free listing as a research methodology

Freelisting is a well-established and commonly used methodology initiated from the disciplines of anthropology and sociology (Bernard, 2006). It is a qualitative data gathering technique used to elicit respondents' free expressions of the elements in a cultural domain (Borgatti, 1994). Despite a free-elicited emic way of data collection, freelisting data can be analysed quantitatively, thereby still providing a reliable approach of scientific inquiry (Borgatti, 1996).

Freelisting is generally used to elicit elements of a *cultural domain*, which is defined as a "set of items that are all of the same type" (Borgatti, 1994, p. 261). Cultural domains are diverse and can range from domains of knowledge, domains of evaluation, to domains of practice; coherent domains see a high degree of consensus while non-coherent domains have a low consensus among members in a cultural group (Caulkins and Hyatt, 1999). As tourism involves cross-cultural contacts and evaluations, many tourism phenomena could be studied

as cultural domains and thus can apply freelisting as a valid research methodology (Ribeiro, 2012). However, there is little evidence that freelisting have been widely applied in tourism studies (Ribeiro, 2012).

A simple manipulation of a freelisting data collection is posting a key question like “how many X’s do you know?” or “How many kinds of Y’s can you think of?” to a number of respondents, where X and Y are distinct cultural domains under study, such as farm animals (Henley, 1969). Respondents are prompted by such questions to generate a list of items. The order of the items list usually carries message representing the salience of a specific item in a respondent’s mind, which can be quantitatively analysed with numeric values. Those items that appear first in the list are thought to be more prominent than items listed last; items that are mentioned by a greater number of respondents are also more prominent than those mentioned by few people (Bernard, 2006; Borgatti, 1999).

Freelisting data analysis is straightforward and more scientific in the way that it uses a highly quantifiable ‘etic’ approach to deal with qualitative ‘emic’ data. As the data has been generated in an emic way that has eliminated researcher bias, the data analysis further allow the data to speak the truth through established analysis methods. Consequently, freelisting appears a more scientific approach in examining human knowledge and mental constructs like destination image.

In freelisting data analysis, raw data in the form of items list can be transformed into two types of matrix: respondent-by-item or item-by-item on the basis of item occurrence frequency counting (Borgatti, 1999). These matrices can further be analysed and visually presented through multi-dimensional scaling (MDS), which may be especially useful in destination studies. It is common to see frequency distribution of free list items following a long-tail pattern, that is, after some frequently mentioned items, the occurrence of the other items mentioned follow a long flattened line of distribution. To facilitate free list data

analysis, computer software such as ANTHROPAC developed by Borgatti (1996) can be very useful. Item saliency is an important term in freelisting data analysis. It can be calculated using Smith's S (Smith and Borgatti, 1998) with the formula $S = F/(N \cdot mP)$, where F is the frequency with which a given term is mentioned, N is the sample size or the number of the respondents, while mP is the mean position of an item.

While freelisting as a research methodology has been adopted in various disciplines and research fields (Ribeiro, 2012), there have been very few applications of such methodology in tourism related studies. Recently, Ribeiro (2012) applied free listing to study US college students' perceived Spring Break experience, noting that in the field of tourism research, very few studies could be found using freelisting as a method.

Specific to destination image studies, some researchers did resort to similar, if not the same, methods to freelisting. For instance, early in 1990, Reilly (1990) used free elicitation to study images of two tourist destinations in the US: the State of Montana and the Montana Mountain Ski Area. However, the method as used was mainly toward generating descriptive adjective words and only three words were allowed in large scale survey data collections. As destination image is deemed to be multi-faceted and complex in its nature, only exploring descriptive adjective words appear to be limited in disclosing destination image as a psychological construct. Moreover, Reilly's (1990) study only employed frequency analysis on the free elicitation data and the analysis was less warranted in revealing an emic view of destination image. Surprisingly, although Reilly's (1990) free elicitation approach could be further developed to better understand destination image, ever since, researchers have tended to follow either the structured or the unstructured approach as identified by Echtner and Ritchie (1991), and there has been little methodological innovation in destination studies. Freelisting remains dormant in destination image studies.

China's tourist destination image

There has been relatively less research on the destination image of developing and less-developed countries than tourism developed countries (Sönmez & Sirakaya, 2002). Little research has been conducted in examining China's destination image. In early studies, Roehl (1990) and Gartner and Shen (1992) investigated the negative impact of the Tiananmen Square Incident on China's destination image and inbound tourism. Xiao and Mair(2006) analysed the image of China as a tourist destination through 27 articles from 19 international newspapers. They claimed 'a paradox of images' of China as depicted in these articles. Such a paradox can be demonstrated through a series of contrasting images. On one hand, China was acknowledged by the media for its long history, splendid culture, tourist attractions and delicious food. On the other hand, negative features such as politics, environment, health, and transportation were frequently spotlighted. Gibson, Qi and Zhang (2008) examined the images young Americans hold of China both as a tourist destination and as the host of the 2008 Olympic Games. In general, respondents perceived China and the Beijing Olympiad positively.

In 2003, China National Tourism Administration (CNTA) produced the first national tourism promotion video 'China, Forever'. The video was intended to build China's overall brand image as a harmonious, safe and environmentally friendly tourist destination (Qian & Tan, 2003). During preparations for the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, CNTA adopted the 'China Forever' video in its campaigns to promote China's national image and elevate its inbound international tourism. To assess the impact of promotional videos on destination image change, Shani, Chen, Wang and Hua(2010) adopted 'China, Forever' in the focus group interviews to elicit participants' induced perceptions of China as a tourist destination. Influenced by the information cues in the video, the respondents identified the following specific destination image attributes: outstanding historic and cultural heritages, unique

Oriental customs and tradition, large and heavily populated, and diverse ethnic groups and cultures. Nevertheless, tourism promotion videos may project a rather reproduced or reconstructed image of a country by national tourism authorities than the image as perceived by tourists themselves. Huang (2011) interprets the ‘China Forever’ video:

...rather as a self-centred promotion work without much understanding of its audience. It presents a ‘touristic China’ which proudly owns historical and cultural wonders, world heritages, colourful ethnic cultures and a variety of natural landscape beauties. (p. 1191).

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

In this study, a structured questionnaire survey was designed to explore the perception of China as a tourist destination among Australian residents. A freelisting entry was fit into the questionnaire as a major section. The free listing question is stated as “list the first 5 words/phrases that come to your mind when you think of *China* as a *tourist destination*”, followed by five columns for respondent inputs. In addition, there is a section designated to collect respondents’ demographic information including gender, age, occupation, education and personal annual income.

The study employed street-intercept self-administered interviews to collect data. A convenient sample was taken in the downtown areas of Sydney and Adelaide. Two research coordinators were hired in Sydney and Adelaide to supervise and conduct the street intercept interviews. Visitors to Australia were screened out and only Australian residents were targeted for this study. A total of 253 usable questionnaires were returned (151 in Sydney and 102 in Adelaide) for statistical analyses. The data collection was undertaken from Feb. 10, 2011 to April 19, 2011. The survey data were first entered into SPSS and analysed using frequent analysis to count the occurrences of different image words and their frequency. Subsequently, the free lists items from the above free listing question were excerpted from

the SPSS dataset and put in ANTHROPAC 4.98 (Borgatti, 1996), a free analytical software available online (<http://www.analytictech.com/products.htm>), for further analysis.

RESULTS

Table 1 lists the respondents' demographic profile. There was roughly an even distribution of male and female respondents, with females (52.8%) slightly over-numbering their male counterparts (47.2%). Possibly due to the nature of street-intercept interview as the study's data collection method, 69.8% of the respondents were under 40 years old. The majority of the respondents (68.9%) were unmarried and students accounted for 45.8% of the sample. High school diploma was held by 41% of the respondents, and another 27.5% had a university degree. In addition to demographic information, respondents were also asked to identify their past visit experience to China as well as the language they spoke at home. Of the respondents, 82.1% had never visited China. Of those who had visited China, 46.5% had visited once, 18.6% twice, and 34.9% more than twice. The majority of the respondents (86.3%) spoke English at home.

Table 1 Profile of the Respondents

Socio-demographic characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)	
Place of Residence:			
Sydney	151	59.7	
Adelaide		102	40.3
Gender:			
Male		119	47.2
Female		133	52.8
Age (years):			
20 or younger		44	17.5
20-29		101	40.1
30-39		31	12.3
40-49		25	9.9
50-59		32	12.7
60 or older		19	7.5
Marital Status:			
Single	173	68.9	
Married		71	28.3
Not specified		7	2.8
Occupation:			

Student	115	45.8
Businessperson	28	11.2
Civil Servant	12	4.8
Teacher	14	5.6
Clerk/White-collar worker	27	10.8
Blue-collar worker	10	4.0
Retired	12	4.8
Unemployed	2	0.8
Other	31	12.4
Education:		
Primary school or below	6	2.4
High school	103	41.0
TAFE	35	13.9
University degree	69	27.5
Postgraduate or above	38	15.1
China visit experience:		
Have not visited China	207	82.1
Have visited China	45	17.9
Once	20	(46.5)
Twice	8	(18.6)
More than twice	15	(34.9)
Language spoken at home		
English	214	86.3
Non-English European language	18	7.3
Non-Chinese Asian language	52.0	
Language not listed above	11	4.4

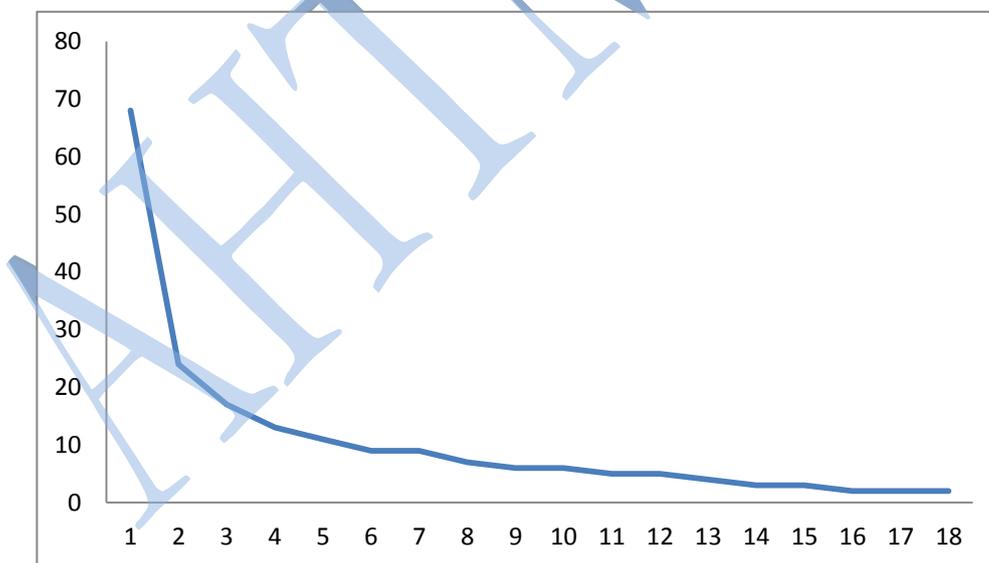


Fig. 1: 1st Words Distribution

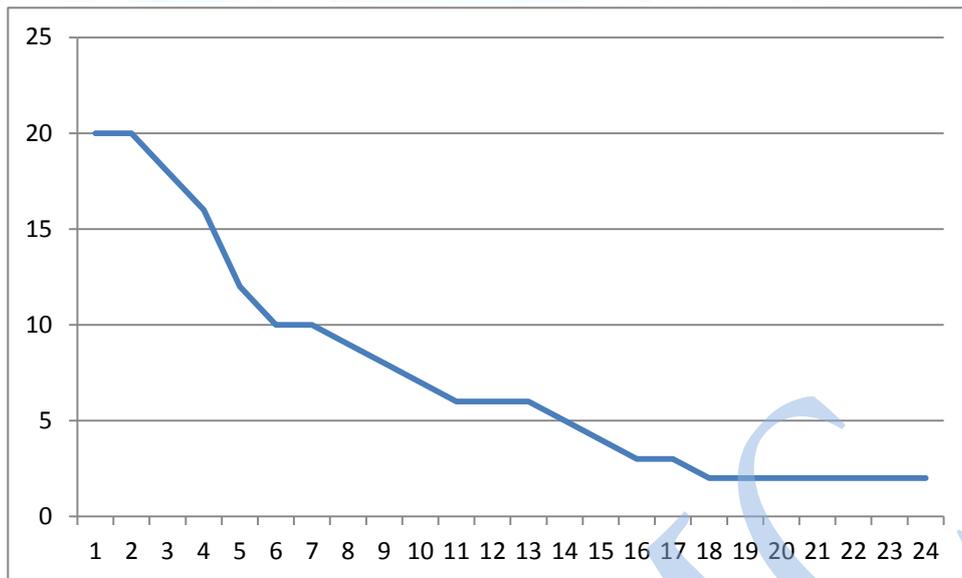


Fig. 2: 2nd Words Distribution

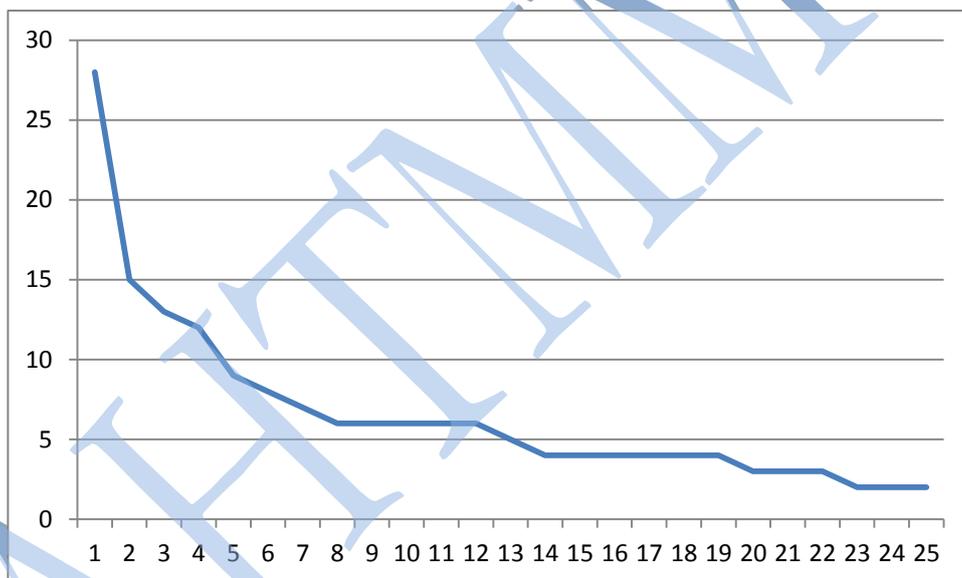


Fig. 3: 3rd Words Distribution

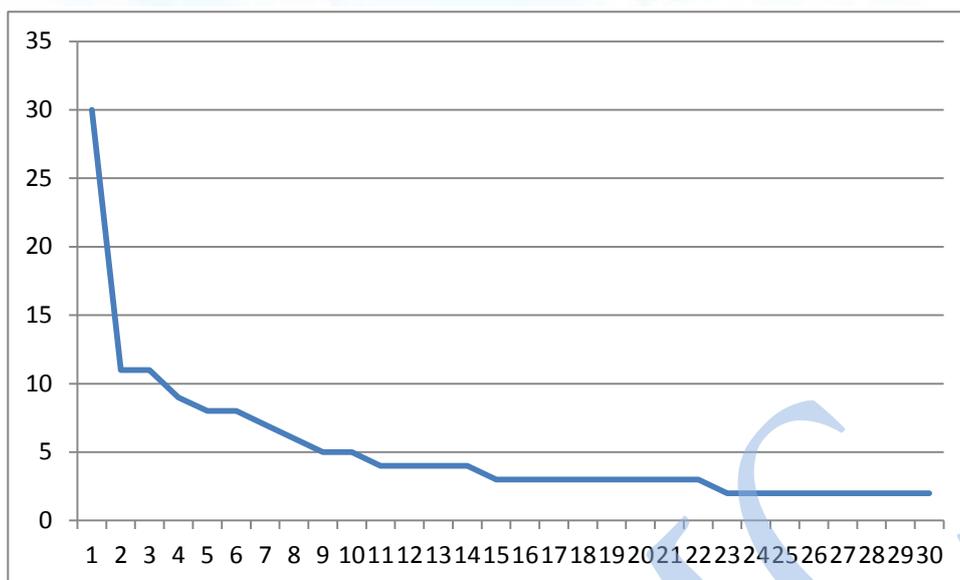


Fig. 4: 4th Words Distribution

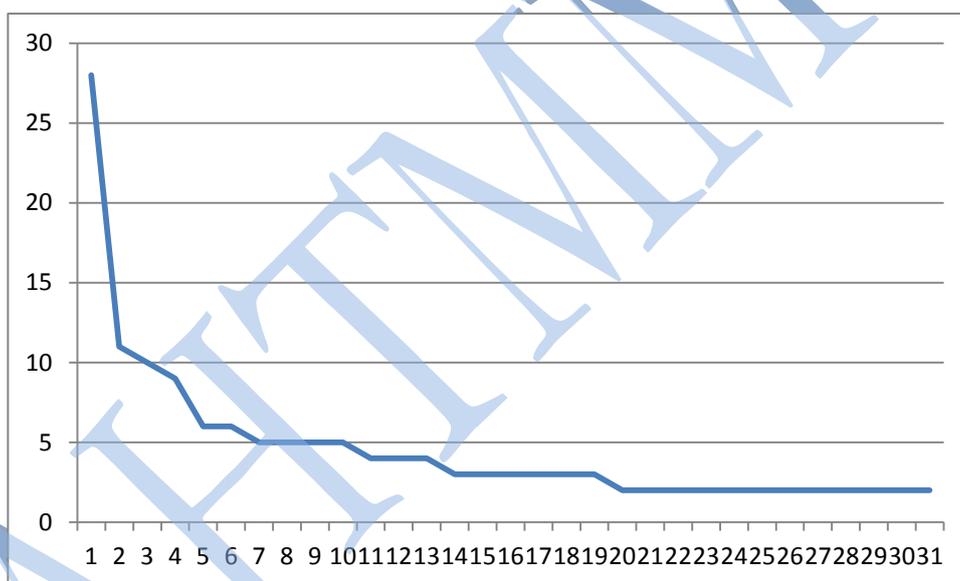


Fig. 5: 5th Words Distribution

Table 2 shows the frequency and the percentage of the words appeared in each layer/order of the lists. We only listed words that were mentioned more than one time, or mentioned by more than one respondent in each order of the lists. The long-tail distribution pattern (Borgatti, 1999) was apparent (Figures 1-5). The first-item words showed a greater concentration than the second- to- fifth-item words. The top 5 most frequently mentioned first-item words accounted for 54.5 of the first-item occurrences; in comparison, the

percentages of the top 5 words in the total occurrences were 36.5 for the second-item words, and 33.1, 30.7, and 29.7 for the 3rd, 4th, and 5th words respectively. This indicated that the first mentioned image words carried more consensus than differences among the respondents than the words that followed on the respondents freelists.

As for the distribution of the image words in the different order, as demonstrated in the figures (Figures 1-5), the distributions for the 3rd, 4th, and 5th words are more similar than the 1st and 2nd words. It seems the long tail appeared earlier with the distributions of 3rd, 4th, and 5th words. And as also shown at the bottom of the Table 2, the total responses decreased along the freelist order. While 244 1st item words were generated by the respondents (n=253), only 217 5th item words were generated.

Checking through the semantic meanings of the words, with the 1st item words, the most frequently mentioned words appeared to be: *Great Wall* (27.9%), *population* (9.8%), *big* (7.0%), *food* (5.3%), *culture* (4.5%), *busy* (3.7%), *interesting* (3.7%), *Panda* (2.9%), *ancient* (2.5%), and *pollution* (2.5%). All these words reappeared in the top 10 most mentioned words from the 2nd to 5th word mentioning (Table 2). Those included in the 2nd-5th mentioning but not in the 1st words were *history*, *beautiful*, *Communism*, *different*, *shopping*, *Beijing*, and *language* (Table 2).

Table 2: Frequency of words/phrases

No.	1 st Word	F	P	2 nd Word	F	P	3 rd Word	F	P	4 th Word	F	P	5 th Word	F	P
1	Great Wall	68	27.9	Culture	20	8.5	Food	28	12.0	Food	30	13.3	Food	28	13.0
2	Population/ people/ crowded/ populous	24	9.8	Food	20	8.5	Great Wall	15	6.4	Great Wall	11	4.9	Populous/ population	11	5.1
3	big	17	7.0	Pollution/ Smog/ Dirty	18	7.6	Pollution/ Smog/ Dirty	13	5.6	culture	11	4.9	Culture	10	4.6
4	food/ Chinese food/ Noodle	13	5.3	Great Wall	16	6.8	Culture	12	5.2	populous/ Population	9	4.0	Dirty/ pollution/ smog	9	4.2
5	Culture	11	4.5	History	12	5.1	People/ Friendly people	9	3.9	Communism	8	3.6	shopping	6	2.8
6	Busy	9	3.7	People/ populous/ population	10	4.2	Communism	8	3.4	different/ unique	8	3.6	busy	6	2.8
7	Interesting/ exciting	9	3.7	beautiful/ colour	10	4.2	Busy	7	3.0	shopping	7	3.1	different/ novel	5	2.3
8	Panda	7	2.9	crowded	9	3.8	history	6	2.6	Beijing	6	2.7	Beijing	5	2.3
9	ancient	6	2.5	Panda	8	3.4	Novel/ different	6	2.6	people/ Chinese people	5	2.2	history	5	2.3
10	pollution	6	2.5	busy	7	3.0	populous/ Population	6	2.6	history	5	2.2	language	5	2.3
11	history	5	2.0	Terracotta Warriors	6	2.5	Kungfu/ Martial Arts	6	2.6	crowded	4	1.8	poverty	4	1.8
12	shopping	5	2.0	Novel/ different	6	2.5	Crowded	6	2.6	panda	4	1.8	crowded	4	1.8
13	different	4	1.6	Beijing	6	2.5	Hong Kong	5	2.2	shanghai	4	1.8	Terracotta warriors	4	1.8
14	scenery/	3	1.2	Shopping	5	2.1	Interesting	4	1.7	technology/tec	4	1.8	temples	3	1.4

	beautiful								hnology						
15	Hong Kong	3	1.2	Language	4	1.7	Panda	4	1.7	busy	3	1.3	panda	3	1.4
16	Beijing	2	0.8	communism	3	1.3	Terracotta Warriors / Warriors	4	1.7	elegance	3	1.3	communism	3	1.4
17	Shanghai	2	0.8	technology	3	1.3	Shopping	4	1.7	Rural/ country	3	1.3	transport	3	1.4
18	Forbidden City	2	0.8	Jackie Chan	2	0.9	Beijing	4	1.7	bicycle	3	1.3	cheap	3	1.4
19				Factory stuff/ Factory	2	0.9	Language	4	1.7	Olympics	3	1.3	One-child policy	3	1.4
20				work Asia/ Asian homeware	2	0.9	Growing economy	3	1.3	Terracotta Warriors	3	1.3	Tian'anmen Square	2	0.9
21				Politics/ politically challenging	2	0.9	Forbidden City	3	1.3	Railway/ Transport	3	1.3	Shanghai	2	0.9
22				Tian'anmen Square/ Tian'anmen incident	2	0.9	Olympics	3	1.3	Human right	3	1.3	Rural/ country	2	0.9
23				Tibet	2	0.9	Technology	2	0.86	Buddhism	2	0.9	Hong Kong	2	0.9
24				Olympics	2	0.9	Politics	2	0.86	Hong Kong	2	0.9	sceneries	2	0.9
25							Dragon	2	0.86	interesting	2	0.9	Great Wall	2	0.9
26										poor	2	0.9	vibrant/ active	2	0.9
27										dirty	2	0.9	Asia	2	0.9
28										city	2	0.9	art	2	0.9
29										Dragon/ Dragon dance	2	0.9	Ancient civilisation/ Culture	2	0.9
30										ancient/ ancient	2	0.9	beautiful	2	0.9

31	civilisation														
32													chaos	2	0.9
	Subtotal	196	80.3	Subtotal	177	75	Subtotal	166	71.2	Subtotal	156	69.3	Subtotal	144	66.4
	Valid N	244		Valid N	236		Valid N	233		Valid N	225		Valid N	217	

Note: F = frequency; P = percentage

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After data were transformed and transferred into ANTHROPAC 4.9, the overall frequency, average rank and salience scores were calculated using the software. Table 3 lists the top 20 frequently mentioned image words and their associated average rank and salience scores. Not surprisingly, *Great Wall* turned out to be the mostly mentioned word, with the highest frequency and salience scores; *food*, *culture*, *crowded*, *busy*, *pollution* also appeared to be with both high frequency and high salience. However, judging from the average rank score, *food* is more likely to be mentioned as the 3rd, 4th or 5th word, not as the 1st or 2nd word. Although *population* is a word not as frequently mentioned as *food*, it had a quite high average rank (1.46). It means *population* is more likely to be mentioned as the 1st or 2nd word in a freelist. *Communism*, as China’s ideological and political system, is also frequently listed by respondents; however, the word’s average rank (3.38) and salience (0.027) indicated it is less likely to be a quickly recalled word and does not appear to be influential/salient as an image word. The same pattern can be identified with the word *poverty*. This suggests that although Australian residents could still perceive China to be with communism and poverty, such an image is not strong when regarding the country as tourist destination. Three cities, *Beijing*, *Hong Kong*, and *Shanghai*, were listed in Table 3; however, none of these cities could be regarded to represent China’s overall destination image as judging from their average rank (3.27, 2.92, 3.30), they did not appear to be the respondents’ top-mind words. Beijing, as the Capital city of China, did appear to be more salient as an image word.

Table 3 Frequency, Average Rank and Salience of image words

No.	Item	Frequency (%)	Average Rank	Salience
1	Great Wall	44.9	1.77	0.378
2	food	32.2	3.41	0.166
3	culture	22.4	2.75	0.144
4	crowded	11	2.48	0.076
5	busy	10.6	2.69	0.069
6	pollution	9.8	2.38	0.07

7	history	9.4	2.74	0.059
8	pandas	9.4	2.57	0.064
9	Beijing	9.0	3.27	0.048
10	shopping	9.0	3.00	0.053
11	people	8.2	2.65	0.054
12	Terracotta warriors	6.1	3.20	0.034
13	Population	5.3	1.46	0.048
14	Hong Kong	5.3	2.92	0.032
15	Communism	5.3	3.38	0.027
16	interesting	4.9	2.67	0.033
17	Chinese food	4.9	2.92	0.030
18	poverty	4.1	3.70	0.019
19	Different	4.1	2.90	0.024
20	Shanghai	4.1	3.30	0.022

CONCLUSION

This paper explores the use of freelisting method in the studies of destination image. Using freelisting as the major data collection method in a large scale survey, the current study examined Australian residents' perceptions of China as a tourist destination. The study found that *Great Wall, food, culture, crowded, busy, pollution, history, pandas, Beijing, and shopping* are the mostly frequently listed image words by Australian residents. These words, therefore, construct the overall mental image of China as a tourist destination among Australian residents. Taking an emic perspective, these image words could well describe China's destination image among Australian residents. In the specific study context, this study serves as a foundation for future studies that further examine China's destination image. However, as the image words identified in this study are more descriptive than explanatory, the study is limited in its capacity to generate practical marketing implications. Nevertheless, as there is little amount of scientific research devoted to examining China's overall destination image and China is forecast to be the most significant tourist destination in the world by 2020 (UNWTO, 2001), this study will pave the pathway for future studies examining China's destination image. The freelisting approach as demonstrated by this study

can be duplicated by researchers to generate destination image descriptive words at different levels of destinations with different prospective tourist markets. The image words identified by this study could serve as a useful items pool with already established measurement properties like those of average rank and salience scores to further develop a measurement of China's destination image, especially taking Australia as a source tourist market to China.

This paper contributes to the literature of destination image studies in two aspects. First, it showcases freelisting as an alternative methodology to study destination image. Freelisting, although widely adopted in other disciplines, has not been extensively used in tourism studies. This study demonstrates that freelisting can be used as an effective method in destination image studies. It can overcome the weaknesses of both the structured and unstructured approaches of destination image studies as discussed in the literature (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Ryan and Cave, 2005). While taking an emic standpoint to generate image words, freelisting can effectively avoid the researcher bias as involved in the content analysis of unstructured image studies, through the use of highly structured and well established quantitative analysis techniques. On the other hand, the freelisting approach, through allowing respondents' open-ended free expressions, can effectively circumvent any structured survey format destination image study's "not on the list" bias caused by the *a priori* list of destination image measurements (Sun et al., 2014; Timmermans et al., 1982). Second, in the area of studying China's destination image, past studies have either focussed on image features derived from secondary sources or examined China's destination image among a certain potential market (e.g., American Youth) (e.g., Gibson et al., 2008; Shani et al., 2010; Xiao & Mair, 2006); the current study utilises first hand survey data to study China's destination image among Australian residents. Both its scope and method warrant that the findings of the current study can offer more to understand China's destination image among its overseas inbound markets.

As freelisting has not been extensively used in destination studies, much has to be done in further testing its applications. Methodologically, building upon the established techniques of analysing freelisting data, more innovative ways of data analysis could be explored. For example, by dividing the target respondents into different groups, image differences could be statistically tested. Associations between image features and other tourist behavioural constructs like attitude and visit intention could also be mapped out through multi-group comparison. This paper opens the avenue of using freelisting in destination studies but definitely there is a lot more to further develop the method. Above all, as freelisting is more effective in soliciting destination features in a descriptive way, I recommend it be employed in an exploratory or early stage of a destination image study and used with other method in a mixed-method design if causal relationships are to be tested.

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Young Emiratis' Perceptions of Tourism Impacts in Dubai

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to analyze how tourism in Dubai is perceived by Emirati citizens, particularly the younger generation. The study explores the perceived social-cultural, economic, and environmental impacts of tourism on the Emirati community. Although the economic development of Dubai as a result of tourism has been well documented, little research has examined the social and cultural impacts. Moreover, despite the significant level of enquiry that has been directed to the study of tourism in Dubai, there is still a considerable lack of empirical engagement with the indigenous perspective. Thirty interviewees were conducted with 'young' Emiratis. The findings help to contextualise ways in which

‘Destination Dubai’ is locally perceived and the extent to which nationals perceive tourism to be conducive to the maintenance and long-term sustainability of their culture and society.

INTRODUCTION

Dubai has a relatively consistent high tourism growth rate compared to other destinations in the region. Dubai has promoted itself to as a luxury tourism destination, and the Emirate has initiated a range of ‘pro-tourism’ policies and initiatives in order to improve tourism growth (Sharples, 2008). Mega-initiatives and significant levels of investments have been dedicated to support the active promotion of Dubai. Tourism has been emphasised as a main component with which to diversify the economy and improve the standard of living of its residents. One of the main objectives of ‘Destination Dubai’ is to demonstrate itself as a destination of ‘hyperreality’ and Western influence, but the same time trying to maintain a sense of local and regional identity. It has been asserted that Dubai aimed to provide a secure and enjoyable environment to create a balance between the benefits that the visitors receive and the satisfaction of residents (Laws, 1995). The potential conflict between these two objectives has been documented particularly through global media outlets. Numerous studies have examined residents’ perceptions of tourism as a means of analyzing the positive and negative impacts of tourism for a destination (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2010; Besculides, Lee, & McCormick, 2002; Tyrrell, Paris, & Casson, 2010).

Although the economic development of Dubai as a result of tourism has been well documented, little research has examined the social and cultural impacts. Moreover, despite the significant level of enquiry that has been directed to the study of tourism in Dubai, there is still a considerable lack of empirical engagement with the indigenous perspective (Stephenson and Ali-Knight, 2010). This study thus aims to analyze the viewpoints (values,

attitudes and aspirations) of residents who are UAE nationals. The work will highlight and examine ways in which local conceptions of the tourism industry and the tourists themselves can contribute to a crucial understanding of how cultural norms and traditions are understood, negotiated and contested. Moreover, the work helps to contextualize ways in which ‘Destination Dubai’ is locally perceived and the extent to which nationals perceive tourism to be conducive to the maintenance and long-term sustainability of their culture and society. Accordingly, the research study is based on the employment of thirty in-depth interviews with members of Dubai’s young Emirati community, establishing a critical narrative concerning people’s perceptions; especially in relation to such issues as: tourism development in Dubai, the perceived impact of tourism on Emiratis’ quality of life, the difference in the perceived impacts of tourism on the individual vs. the impacts on Dubai as a whole, and the strategies for maximizing the benefits and minimizing the negative impacts of tourism in Dubai for the ‘local’ population.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In 1971, Dubai became one of six Emirates (Sheikhdoms) of the independent federal nation of the United Arab Emirates (UAE), including Abu Dhabi, Ajman, Fujairah, Sharjah and Umm al-Qaiwain. Ras al Khaimah joined the federation in 1972. Dubai’s economy was traditionally based on camel breeding, fishing, pearling and sea trade. Like other Arabian countries of the Gulf region, UAE’s rapid economic development and modernization from the 1970s was due to the production and exportation of oil. Since the early 1990s, however, Dubai pursued an economic diversification policy as a consequence of the gradual depletion of its oil reserves (Dubai Strategic Plan- 2015, 2007: 21). Economic modernization and financial development in the UAE led to rapid population growth. By the end of the first half of 2010, UAE had a total population of 8.26 million. Emirati nationals only represented

947,997 of the population whilst non-nationals numbered 7,316,073 (Sanbridge, 2010a). Dubai's population was estimated to be around 1.53 million in 2007 (Statistics Centre of Dubai, 2007), which increased by 8.5% each year from 2000 to 2005 (EIU, 2006), and by the first quarter of 2010 its population reached 1.8 million (Sanbridge, 2010b). However, only 168,000 were classified as nationals (Sanbridge, 2010a).

Tourism development in Dubai has also attracted considerable academic attention (see Balakrishan, 2008; Bagaeen, 2007; Govers & Go, 2005, 2009; Henderson, 2006a, 2006b; Junemo, 2004; Sharpley, 2008; Yeoman, 2008). Although many of these insights conceive Dubai as a visionary form of tourism development, some tentative problems and challenges are emerged including: prevailing environmental concerns, socially divided lifestyles and ethnic division of labour issues (Sharpley, 2008); limitations in the availability of natural and cultural heritage attractions (Henderson, 2006a, 2006b), and problems relating to the way in which 'brand Dubai' is actually being positioned, especially in terms of the limited utilization of local representations (Govers & Go, 2005, 2009). More recently, work has started to focus on concerns relating to the social impacts of tourism (Stephenson & Ali-Knight, 2010) and the political economy of tourism development (Meethan, 2011).

Tourism is one of the main enablers of economic growth; according to the 2008 Country Brand Index (CBI) the United Arab Emirates was identified as one of the top three 'rising stars', expected to become major tourist destinations (TTN, 2008a). Dubai's government has factored in tourism development as a key form of economic diversification, in-turn providing Dubai with the necessary support to become the popular destination it is today while continuing to grow at relatively high growth rate (Handerson, 2006). Dubai has a notoriety world wide as a result of the highly publicized iconic developments and tourism

infrastructure (Sharpley, 2008). Since the 1970s Dubai had a strategic plan to develop in a way that it becomes the economic and cultural focus of the Gulf Region. The city has become a meeting place for worldwide flows of capital, people, culture, and information (Junemo, 2004). As a result of this strategic planning Dubai has become the city of superlatives in which all the developments are described as the 'bigger', 'better' and 'brasher' compared to other cities in the world. These developments include: the largest shopping mall (Dubai Mall), highest building (Burj Khalifa), largest amount of prize money for a horse race (Dubai Cup), first purpose built maritime centre (Dubai Maritime City), first (informally recognized) 'seven star' hotel (Burj Al Arab), tallest hotel (Rotana Rose Tower) and the highest residential tower (the Torch). Dubai's tourism attractions have been constructed to promote Dubai as a luxury destination for high end tourists. According to Stephenson and Ali-Knight:

Developments in Dubai manifest a host of new-fangled realities in the world of contemporary tourism societies. The conceptual significance of 'retailtainment', referring to the post-modern trend of combining shopping and entertainment opportunities as a way to entice and playfully connect consumers to the shopping experience, has patented itself onto the consumer landscape of the Dubai shopping mall phenomenon (2010: 281).

Dubai is seemingly the most liberal emirate of the UAE and is aiming to reach its goal of being a 'Global Arab City'. Emirati Nationals are a main area of focus in terms of a future indigenous development pathway, regardless of the fact they comprise of a small percentage of the population. Emiratis have control over a considerable amount of assets and at the same time have high rates of unemployment (Balakrishnan, 2008). One of the most significant challenges in employing Emiratis is that the majority of the local population is under employment age. This demographic structure of the city makes Emiratization (localization of

jobs) very difficult to implement as a policy to increase the number of Emiratis in different sectors, especially the private sector (Govers & Go, 2009). The UAE's population is comprised of around 20% Emirati, but expatriates maintain around 99% of all jobs in the private sector and around 91% in the public sector (Langton, 2008). However, the move towards employing Emiratis is reinforcing a sense of balance between the demographics and at the same time the importance of culture and knowledge management for the local nation (Balakrishnan, 2008). With the rapid growth of tourism in Dubai, nationals are feeling that their culture and traditions are not being acknowledged. According to the Director of the Sheikh Mohammed Center for Cultural Understanding:

We have a unique situation in the UAE where locals are a minority the majority are expats. It is our duty as the minority to introduce our traditions to foreigners who know nothing about our life, our language, and our history (Flemming, 2011).

Despite the fact that Dubai as a destination that is growing rapidly, however it is not promoting its culture and traditions that are considered to be the main elements of the tourism experience. Tourism has a very important role in this and it should be looked at from a different perspective, perhaps perspectives from the local population. As a matter of fact, tourism has a very productive role in the society when it comes to promoting expressions of culture, regional and national identity (Park & Stephenson, 2007). Therefore, Dubai as a destination is facing an important challenge which is cultural inconsistency. The city's rapid urbanization and modernization like other cities in the Middle East is affecting its historical districts and local heritage (Orbasli, 2007).

Tourism destinations are always facing the challenge of being perceived as safe destinations, especially in terms of geopolitical stability (Sönmez, 1998). As a result of wider conflict in the region, UAE's image as a secure and stable destination continues to attract tourists at a time when the Arab world is rife with political conflict and social turmoil, particularly in light of the Arab Spring uprisings. Compounding these regional issues, Dubai has been able to continue its growth in midst of the global economic crisis. In 2010, Dubai received 7.4 million international visitors (UNWTO, 2011), which is roughly four times the number of people residing in the Emirate. The international tourists contributed \$8.4 billion directly to the local economy (UNWTO, 2011). International arrivals grew by nine percent in 2010, and tourists expenditures grew by seventeen percent. The country has maintained the positive upward trend in terms of tourist visits and hotel occupancy numbers for the first quarter of 2011. Dubai, for instance, witnessed a 7 per cent surge in passengers in the first quarter of 2011 compared to the first quarter of 2010, where 12.3 million passed through the airport compared to 11.5 million over the same period in 2010 (Jain, 2011).

Dubai received 6.9 million visitors in 2007, aiming to achieve 15 million by 2015 (TTN, 2008b:9). These figures show that Dubai is arguably the most vibrant city in the Middle East. The area has been rebuilt by partnerships between the government and the private sector. This has helped in privatizing the planning process which helped in reshaping the destination to become a hub for commercial, leisure and business activity (Hazbun, 2008). Services depend on rules and policies as much as it depends on people. Dubai is known to have the latest technological advancements and has the highest usage of internet and mobile phones in the Arab world. The government continuously benchmarks itself against other countries to maintain its global competence (Balakrishnan, 2008). The long-term sustainability of the tourism industry in Dubai is dependent upon the continued maintenance

of the balance between economic growth and socio-cultural and environmental impacts, a balance faced by many growing destinations. As a matter of fact the weaknesses of Dubai like the hot weather and desert landscape has turned to be the city's unique selling points for the modern taste of tourists (Henderson, 2006).

This study aims to explore some of these issues from the Emirati perspective, with a focus on the positive and negative impacts of the current tourism development in Dubai. The work will then seek from the findings certain recommendations concerning the future direction of tourism development in Dubai.

RESEARCH METHODS

Semi-structured (in-depth) interviews were conducted with thirteen Emirati citizens during the summer and fall of 2011. All of the individuals interviewed were in their twenties and thirties. This age group of respondents was targeted because they all have grown up during the recent modernization era of Dubai's development. To put this into perspective, the respondents were all between the age of eight and twenty-two, when the iconic Burj al Arab was completed in 1999. These individuals have generally grown up in the "new Dubai". All of the interviews were conducted by one of the members of the research team who is fluent in both English and Arabic and is non-Emirati. The notes of several of the interviews that were conducted in Arabic were translated into English prior to analysis. The interviews were not recorded, as in some cases it was not culturally appropriate.

Each interview had two main parts. During the first half, a quasi-free-listing interview method was employed. During this part, respondents were asked to verbally list things that came to mind in response to each prompt. After an initial list was compiled, the interviewer used a series of techniques to elicit even more detailed responses. This technique was used to

overcome some of the limitations resulting from the interviews not being recorded. The second part of the interviews was based on a series of questions which aimed to elicit more detailed insights relating to the responses in the first half of the interview. After the interviews were all completed the research team met to debrief. The analysis of the interviews was done through a two step process of coding and thematic analysis. Six main themes emerged. Four of these themes were based on the perceived impacts of tourism development in Dubai, including: ‘economic impacts’, ‘environmental impacts’, ‘positive socio-cultural impacts’, and ‘negative socio-cultural impacts’. Another theme that emerged was the ‘Tourist-Expat’ theme that focused on the relationship between the impacts of international tourists and those of expatriate residents living in Dubai. The final theme represents the future recommendations of the respondents for sustainable tourism development in Dubai.

RESULTS

Seven overall themes emerged from the analysis of the interviews. First, ‘environmental impacts’ and ‘economic impacts’ will be discussed. This will be followed by a discussion concerning ‘positive’ and ‘negative socio-cultural impacts’, which is the main focus of this paper.

Economic Impacts

Overall, there was a consensus that the tourism development in Dubai has brought about many positive economic impacts. The contribution of tourism to Dubai’s economy and the income generated for individuals working in tourism industry were the primarily benefits highlighted in the interviews. The success of the diversification policy of Dubai is evident in both the growth of the industry and the positive perception of this by the young Emiratis

interviewed. The positive economic impacts can outweigh the negative impacts of tourism in Dubai, as Respondent 1 claims:

In my opinion the positives are much more than the negatives. At this stage the negative impacts are not significant. Tourism generates local income and it is very important for the economy.

In addition to the increased income generated by tourism, several of the individuals particularly focused on the generation of new jobs of the tourism industry. In the near future, even more jobs can be expected to be generated for Emiratis, as the government sponsored Emiratisation of the private sector could thus result in even more opportunities for Emiratis to gain employment in the hospitality and tourism industry. Respondent 3, for instance, suggests that the entrepreneurial opportunities for Emiratis in the tourism industry are huge, stating:

I can see Emiratis revolutionizing the tourism industry in the UAE and the GCC. I am personally planning to be the biggest tour operator in the Middle East.

The tourism and hospitality industry is also perceived as one of the main forces driving the future economic development in Dubai and the increased Emiratisation. As Respondent 11 notes:

Emiratis are now encouraged by the government to enter this field. There are many institutions that are educating Emirati people about tourism. Everything is going in the direction of tourism.

Another one of the major focuses of the development of the tourism industry in Dubai has been the emphasis on large scale infrastructural developments including the recently

opened Dubai Metro, the expansion of the Dubai International Airport, the new Al Maktoum International Airport, a new cruise terminal, large scale hotel and entertainment/leisure developments, shopping malls, and the numerous iconic attractions. Another point highlighted by the interviewees was the fact that tourism has helped Dubai establish itself as a globally known city, which in turn has positively impacted other industries, such as banking or real estate.

While the overall perception was that tourism has brought significant benefits to Dubai and Emiratis, there were some potential downfalls that have also emerged or will need to be addressed in the future. One respondent referred to the potential issue of gender for the Emiratisation of the tourism and hospitality industry, as there could be potential cultural conflicts with women working in the service industries. This respondent stated that Emiratisation:

...will be a problem for Emirati women to do evening shifts or mix with other men, even if it's for work (Respondent 9).

Another negative that was noted, was the inflation of prices in Dubai. As a consequence of tourism development, land prices have increased significantly for instance. Moreover, consumer durables have also rapidly increased.

Environmental Impacts

While the interview questions were not directly targeted to elicit the views on the environmental impacts of tourism development, this theme did emerge from the two questions related to sustainable tourism in Dubai. Nearly every individual interviewed equated the term 'sustainability' to the natural environment. As a result there were several negative impacts on the environment that were seen to be the result of tourism development

in Dubai. Several individuals suggested that the large scale tourism developments, including the man-made palm, world, and Burj al Arab islands have drastically reduced the marine life off the coast of Dubai. The lack of emphasis on environmental impacts of development is simply explained by respondent 9:

Dubai is not a place for environmental concerns. Dubai is a place for big projects.

This includes a reduction the fish population and the destruction of the coral reefs due to dredging, building man-made islands, and pollution. Air pollution resulting from the increased number of automobiles on the roads was also highlighted. With regards to impact of the land, two interviewees suggested that the taming of the desert by the development of Dubai has resulted in the ‘nature of the desert’ being impacted. One individual, Respondent 10, although indicated that these negative environmental impacts are not just the result of the tourism development but actually have deeper roots, “we are not a very eco-friendly people in the UAE”. Nonetheless, the outlook for the future is very optimistic as Respondent 10 continued:

We are trying to be eco-friendly and we are trying to look into things that are considered eco-friendly.

The local heritage in Dubai has traditionally been tied to the people’s relationship with the natural environment including the Bedouins relationship with the desert, and the fisherman and pearl divers relationship with the sea. The recent development in Dubai, including tourism development, has resulted in a mantra of taming the harsh natural landscape from which the modern city of Dubai has emerged. Respondent 11 reflects on this issue:

In our everyday language, we always say that we have civilized the desert. This is not a good thing in general. In order to be perceived as a civilized country we have built over the sea and the desert, which has made us lose a lot of our identity. They [the developments] have forced the fisherman to change their places and the newly built projects have affected the lives of many people, even the younger generation.

Consequently, Dubai's economic development agenda, as well as its emphasis on tourism development as a specific diversification option, has in many ways also resulted in ranging socio-cultural benefits and negative impacts.

Negative Socio-Cultural Impacts

While there were many positive impacts of the recent development of tourism in Dubai, the respondents noted many trade-offs that have resulted. One of the main issues is the potential 'cultural clash' between international tourists and Emiratis. Respondent 1 states that:

There is a clear cultural clash. The food is not the same. The clothes are not the same. Tourism in Dubai has definitely affected our way of life.

As one respondent noted, tourists often provide a bad example by "*smoking, drinking, using bad language in public.*" The development of the industry has also resulted in an increase in prostitution and access to alcohol in bars and night clubs. Some of the respondents attribute some of the clashes to the disrespect for local traditions and culture, as is the case with improper dress and public displays of affection. The increased number of tourists has also resulted in other issues, such as congestion and over-crowding, particularly during high

tourist seasons. Many of these issues are similar to those faced by local populations in tourist destinations around the world.

On a deeper level, however, the respondents also highlighted several ways in which tourism development has had a negative impact. There has been a Westernization of Dubai resulting in a change in daily life and traditions. One respondent, for example, suggested that tourism has contributed to a ‘busier’ and more ‘rushed pace of daily life’, with city life ‘dominating’. Respondent 10 gave the example that:

The family gathers on Fridays [now], when we used to gather for every meal.

There was recognition that there has been an increased emphasis on materialism, which also contributed to the ‘fakeness’ of Dubai. As Respondent 13 suggests:

It [Dubai] has become a very fake city. There is a lot of money spent in this country, but it's not used in a positive way.

The threat to Emirati identity and traditions was also noted by several individuals. Respondent 2 notes:

Emiratis are open now to other cultures. The diversity is very obvious wherever you go. However, some people now are so open [to other cultures] that they forgot their own traditions and values.

This point was even further emphasised by Respondent 7, who claims:

We are growing very fast, so our traditions are being demolished so our children in the future will not know much about our traditions and heritage.

Some felt that in the rush to cater to tourists Emiratis are often discriminated against, or even feel that they are outsiders in their own country. Respondent 11 informatively notes:

Tourism has caused cultural clashes and discrimination. We as Emiratis feel that we are not treated as well as tourist in our own country.

One example given concerned the large emphasis on Christian holidays such as Christmas or Easter, but a much lesser public emphasis on Islamic holidays like Eid. There was a worry that the overall loss of tradition will be particularly evident for the new generation of Emiratis. Importantly, it has been asserted that Dubai's history, tradition and ethnicity is significantly inferring a series of social repercussions (Stephenson and Ali-Knight, 2010). In Gover's and Go's (2005, p. 86) content analysis of photographic and textual material of 20 Dubai-based company websites, it was concluded that Dubai's image as a destination did not 'coherently reflect its true cultural identity'.

The widening generational gap between older generations and the new generation of Emiratis is particularly noticeable from the narratives of the younger generations. Respondent 12 presents a rather nostalgic narrative of earlier years:

The family life was closer, and old generations always comment that it used to be better before... The new generation prefers it [the way it is now] more. The newer generation is now less attached to the beliefs, cultures, and traditions of the UAE.

Respondent 13, a mother with young children, is particularly worried about threat to traditions caused by the increased level of development, westernization, and cosmopolitanism in Dubai. She proclaims that:

...there is a very big cultural clash. As a mother I am not very happy that there are too many cultures around. My sons are learning too many bad words at school. The attention is not given to religion and Arabic language anymore. They should teach students at school how to respect other cultures.

Despite these very valid concerns, Respondent 13 is optimistic by also relenting that:

...tourism has changed Dubai a lot. In many ways it was a positive change...I feel so proud of the country's image. I wish that everybody feels proud about Sheikh Mohammed's accomplishments. This country has given the Emiratis everything...education, health services, and entertainment so they should feel proud about their country.

Positive Socio-Cultural Impacts

Throughout the interviews there was a genuine acknowledgement that the increase development of tourism and number of international tourists visiting Dubai resulted in positive socio-cultural benefits and opportunities for Emiratis. Tourism provided a growing opportunity for cultural exchange resulting in the opportunity for Emiratis to sample new food, fashion, and entertainment. The cosmopolitanism resulting from the large percentage of expatriates and the international tourists has resulted in a more open-minded population. Additionally, some of the respondents noted that tourism has had a secondary effect of increasing Emiratis' awareness of their own culture, increased local pride in sharing their culture, religion, and language with visitors. Respondent 6 emphasises that, the consequence of tourists visiting Dubai:

...gives me pride, I feel proud that I am from this country. I feel excited that tourists are happy in my country.

He even seeks out interactions with tourists as he explains that:

...sometimes I take the camera and take pictures of the tourists on the Jumeirah beach because I feel great joy when I see tourists happy in Dubai. Sometimes I start a conversation with them to find out how they feel about Dubai.

The cross-cultural interaction has been promoted through institutions like the Sheikh Mohammad Center for Cultural Understanding as well as by individual Emiratis interacting with visitors. Tourism has also:

...increased Emiratis' cultural conscious. They try to help tourists as much as they can, you can see that when they try to speak in English to tourists to give them assistance.

Several interviewees also indicated that tourism has also, indirectly, contributed to an increased quality of life. As Dubai has developed during the last two decades the level of education, healthcare, and other local amenities has also improved. As Respondent 7 indicated “we have everything here that we need, we do not need to go anywhere.” The access to high quality education was particularly emphasized by the respondents. Additionally, Emiratis have access to a wider selection of entertainment and leisure activities and venues that have encouraged individuals to ‘enjoy Dubai more.’ Respondent 2, for instance, noted that:

In the 1990s it [life in Dubai] was very quiet, and there were a very limited number of things to do and life was simple.

‘Increased opportunities’ were also recognised as a significant change indicator that can be attributed to the development of tourism in Dubai. Respondent 11, for instance, suggests tourism:

...did change the life of Emiratis significantly. Instead of watching TV and gathering at Majlis now we are participating in tourist activities. It changed my life a lot... I started going out more and I started enjoying Dubai more.

While many of these perceived positive and negative impacts were attributed to tourists, some are more a result of the large expatriate population in Dubai. The following conceptual theme examines the tourist vs expatriate relationship further.

Tourists vs Expatriates

Throughout the interviews, several interesting threads emerged which related to the perception of international tourists and international expatriates residing in Dubai. The overall perception of tourists was mixed with some of the interviewees perceiving them extremely positively. For some, the positive perception of tourists has emerged more recently, as Respondent 4 suggests:

At some point we all hated tourists, but now we are more tolerant and it is allowing Emiratis to become more independent.

Others presented a more negative general view of tourists. The negative connotations relating to tourists particularly emerged when some of the interviewees discussed how some of their fellow citizens viewed tourists. Some even suggested that there is a level of prejudice towards international tourists, often stemming from negative interactions or perceptions relating to negative socio-cultural impacts. There is some difficulty in distinguishing tourist from expatriates. Accordingly, Respondent 9 states:

Dubai is a multicultural place and we can't really say who is a tourist and who is not.

Some of the respondents suggested that the tourists are a minimal cause of a lot of the negative impacts often attributed to them, as tourists are often here for a short period of time and spend a lot of their time in segregated areas, such as resorts. Rather, some suggested that

it is the international expatriates that are the real cause of the cultural clashes. Respondent 9 said that:

I do not have anything against tourists; actually tourists respect the rules more than the residents. The major problem is the residents.

This is related to another root cause mentioned by respondents, the rapid development of Dubai, particularly in the last twenty to thirty years. The speed of this development has resulted in heightened numbers of international expatriates migrating to Dubai. Along with the fast-paced development, some of the respondents suggested that the Westernization of the development is more to blame for the deeper socio-cultural changes than tourism itself. According to respondent 9:

The lives of Emiratis changed for the better in terms of education, healthcare, and lifestyle, but this is the impact of the West on the UAE in general and not only tourism.

CONCLUSION

Looking to the future, the respondents offered several suggestions on how destination Dubai can develop sustainably in a manner that maximises the benefits for the quality of life of Emiratis and other residents of Dubai, as well as providing a quality and authentic experience for tourists. These recommendations can be summarized as:

1. *Continue the focus on building awareness and opportunities for intercultural interactions between Emiratis and tourists.*
2. *Preserve and promote the local cultural identity both for tourist consumption and to preserve the religious, language, and cultural traditions through school programs*

3. *Re-orientate future development so that it is more environmentally friendly*
4. *Develop a program of locally theme cultural festivals and events*
5. *Provide more opportunities for local community participation in tourism planning and development*
6. *Continue the emphasis on luxury tourism, while also creating more options for more budget-minded tourists*

These six general recommendations are illustrative of the genuine positive outlook and support for the future of tourism in Dubai that emerged from the interviews with thirty young Emiratis. While there was a strong recognition of the negative impacts and potential future threats of tourism in Dubai, the forward-looking attributes of the individuals interviewed in this study are a manifestation of Dubai's recent history and visionary leadership that had allowed this small Emirate with relatively little natural resources to become a global city with a high standard of living.

This exploratory study provides some interesting insights that contribute to the growing body of literature on resident attitudes towards tourism. Future studies can expand on this study to focus on the attitudes of other populations in Dubai, the UAE, and other gulf countries. However, more qualitative interviews are indeed necessary, focusing on different generational levels within the Emirati, especially to investigate further and with more critical depth the degree to which members of the Emirati community are willing to be caught up in the seemingly infinite process of acculturation and Western influence. Although this study has concentrated on a small sample and raised some rather tentative concerns and issues concerning Emirati perceptions of tourists and tourism, it can hopefully be developed further in terms of engaging in more diverse local perspectives and attitudes towards the influx of

tourists and the expansion of the tourism industry. More importantly, however, future research should look more closely at various permutations of Emirati ethnicity and culture, which is complex and requires a more situational and contextual approach.

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An Analysis of Community Support for Tourism in Swaziland: A Case of Ezulwini Valley. (Part II)

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ABSTRACT

The study aims to assess the community residents for sustainable tourism development using latent variables of community attachment, community involvement, perceived benefits and support for sustainable tourism development and elemental data of the residents of the Ezulwini Valley. Since it was evident from various studies that community-based tourism brings more benefits for locals; more interaction is therefore needed between the locals and the government. Increased local involvement and participation will help to ensure that people are empowered and the conservation of natural resources takes place in Swaziland.

KEYWORDS Sustainable tourism, sustainable development, community support, community involvement, community participation.

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this survey was to analyse the community support for tourism in the Ezulwini Valley as well as the challenges of community-based tourism. The survey showed that, although some benefits have been identified, there remain many challenges in the Ezulwini

Valley (EV). Since it is evident from various studies that community-based tourism brings more benefits for locals; more interaction is therefore needed between the locals and the government. Increased local involvement and participation will help to ensure that people are empowered and the conservation of natural resources takes place in Swaziland.

The South African Government specifically indicated by means of the White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism that responsible tourism should contribute to the sustainable development of Southern Africa. Economic, environmental and social guidelines should direct this type of tourism development and should encourage the involvement of the local communities through community-based tourism.

The purpose of this survey was to investigate the development of rural tourism in the Ezulwini Valley, analysing the involvement of the community in tourism, as well as identify potential unexploited rural tourism opportunities in the EV.

The survey includes a literature review related to community support for tourism in the Ezulwini Valley and a questionnaire. The questionnaire used includes open- and closed-ended questions. The target population is comprised by the residents of Ezulwini Valley. The majority of respondents agreed that they would support the community involvement (particularly by women) in decision-making. They are also of the opinion that tourism is growing very fast in the Ezulwini Valley, in spite of certain inhibiting factors that require attention.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sustainable Tourism Development in the Context of Community-Based Tourism

Introduction

It was important to focus on the concept of sustainable tourism development and responsible tourism as the guiding principles for rural tourism development. It will also investigate the

importance of community-based tourism. It is necessary to provide a precise literature-based justification in order to attain the desired objectives. Thus, this paper focuses on the analysis, acceptance, rejection and combination of different literature sources, which have been used earlier in other or similar research projects. As such they provide support for the main topic of this research.

Over the years many authors have described tourism as one of the world's largest industries (Eliot, 1997; Ritchie & Adler, 2004; James, 2010). In terms of its global pace of development, tourism is also depicted as one of the fastest growing industries (Arora, 2007:1). In the South Africa context, statistics revealed that tourism has overtaken the place of gold in terms of employment rate and revenue generation (SAT, 1992). Conversely Saarinen *et al.* (2009: 32) argue that Swaziland tourism economy shows signs of downturn. According to Saarinen *et al.* (2009:32), a study conducted by Euro monitor International in 2007 revealed strong signals of stagnation and decline in tourism.

The Swazi airlines that were declared 'unsafe' have been one of the contributions of the downturn in the country's tourism economy, as has been the blacklisting by the European Union in March 2006.

The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) estimate that tourism generates some 12% of the world's total Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Binns and Nel (2002) as quoted in Saarinen *et.al* (2009: 3), point out positive impacts of tourism. According to them in many Southern African countries, tourism provides new opportunities, jobs and economic benefits for local communities, with a very high potential for tourism to continue to grow. Currently many countries in the region perceive tourism promotion as a suitable and relatively inexpensive strategy to attract direct foreign investment. However, these authors state that as

much as tourism has become a global industry, tourism has had increasing impacts on the environment, as well as regional and local development

Shaw and Williams, (2002:40) support the above view by stating that tourism is in its nature paradoxical; it creates advantages as well as disadvantages, and is often pursued due to the impacts that are perceived as positive. Countries are therefore encouraged to invest in tourism, mainly because of the economic benefits, which include a contribution to the GDP, the creation of tourism employment opportunities, links with other sectors of the local economy such as agriculture, construction and manufacturing, foreign exchange earnings, and infrastructure development (Pearce, Morris and Routledge, 1998:311).

Pender and Sharpley (2005:9), counter by stating that there are many negative consequences of tourism, including the often-cited destruction of both the environment and the traditions of local populations. According to Vellas and Becherel (quoted by Pender and Sharpley, 1995: xxii) international tourism is 'undeniably one of the most influential phenomena (possibly even the most influential) in the economic and social development of our society'. It is this paradoxical nature of tourism that necessitates the quest for tourism development that is sustainable.

Sustainable Development

Wall and Mathieson (2006:289) state that sustainable development requires a long-term perspective that works towards equity between people, and between people and other inhabitants of the planet. The authors further state that sustainability requires a long-term perspective and something that is sustained should be enduring and, ideally, exist in perpetuity. Sustainable development was initially seen as being a response to tensions between economic growth and the maintenance of environmental quality but it has since been

pointed that out that there may be dimensions other than culture that require sustenance. The importance of tourism as an agent of sustainable development is well articulated by Theobald (2002:51) who argues that tourism is a socio-economic phenomenon which acts as a driving power for both economic and social empowerment.

Santana and Fernandes, (quoted by Coriolano, 1998:24, 36) also reinforce the above argument by emphasising that development under human scale and local tourism benefit means adopting policies that can generate job and occupation for everyone. Thus development has to designate a process of overcoming social problems, leading members to a fair and legitimate society (Theobald, 2002:18).

Keyser (2002:204) similarly argues that tourism development implies an increase in the economic value of tourism, improvement in the quality of life of people, and the protection and responsible utilization of natural resources. Furthermore, the author emphasizes that there are many interest groups concerned with tourism growth and development. Those groups are known as stakeholders, and the community is part of them.

The above stated definitions of tourism development are unanimous, when arguing for the voluntary involvement of society in the process of tourism development. For the purpose of this research, the appropriate definition used would, therefore, involve a combination of socio-economic benefits and physical or infrastructure growth, as stated by Gartner (1998:8), in which tourism development is viewed as a process of physical change.

Sustainable Tourism

Weaver and Lawton (2006:343) state that the term sustainable tourism became popular following the release of the Brundtland Report. The term sustainable tourism at its most basic

represents a direct application of the sustainable development concept. More commonly, sustainable tourism is regarded as tourism managed in such a way that it does not exceed the environmental, social, cultural or economic carrying capacity of a given destination. However, Weaver and Lawton (2006:343) also suggest that the definition should incorporate the need for operators to be financially sustainable, since tourism that is not financially viable, is not likely to survive for long, no matter how viable it is from an environmental or socio-cultural perspective. The author's state that the term sustainable tourism is susceptible to appropriation by those pursuing a particular political agenda, but it is also amenable to weak and strong interpretations that adapt to different kinds of destinations.

Edgell (2006:15) states that sustainable tourism means achieving growth in a manner that does not deplete the natural and built environment, and preserves the culture, history, heritage, and arts of the local community. The key elements of tourism sustainability include meeting the needs of both visitors and host communities, and protecting and enhancing the tourism attraction for the future as part of a national economic resource. As in the wider arena of development, there has been a parallel debate about desirable forms of tourist development. Sustainable tourism has been identified as potentially one of the more important components of the tourist industry (Arora, 2007:24).

The World Tourism Organization (WTO) also places humans (i.e. tourists and hosts) at the centre of development by defining sustainable tourism as:

Tourism development that meets the needs of the present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunity for the future, (the desired outcome is that resources will be managed) in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic

needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and life support systems (Keyser, 2009: 32).

Swarbrooke (1999:13) argues in the same vein that sustainable tourism is economically viable, but does not destroy the resources on which the future of tourism depends, notably the physical environment and the social fabric of the host community. Contrary to Swarbrooke's (1999:13) definition, the report on sustainable tourism education (an ATLAS project funded by the European Union) uses the term sustainable tourism as tourism which develops as quickly as possible, taking account of current accommodation capacity, the local population, and the environment Richards and Bramwell *et al.*, 1996 (quoted by Swaarbrooke 1999:13). However the authors suggest that the development of tourism and new investment in the tourism sector should not detract from tourism itself, and those new tourism facilities should be integrated with the environment Swaarbrooke (1999: 13).

The idea of sustainability is found in all market segments and definitions of the "new" tourism. As such, all the definitions address preservation of the resource for future generations, the use of tourism to contribute to environmental protection, limiting negative socio-economic impacts, and benefiting local people economically and socially (Arora, 2007:24).

It is clear from these definitions that researchers do not necessarily agree on where to place the emphasis with regard to tourism development in general and sustainable tourism in particular. It is furthermore clear that these definitions were created for academics to understand what the concepts of tourism development and sustainable tourism mean, and they have often been formulated from different academic disciplines, such as sociology, economics and geography, and were therefore not comparable (Keyser, 2009:139).

In the light of these divergent views, it is necessary to find common ground to serve as foundation in the quest for sustainable tourism development. A conceptual approach to sustainable tourism development set forth by the World Conservation Union includes four major principles (WORLD TOURISM ORGANISATION 1993, as quoted in Arora, 2007:24), which could be used as guidelines to bring uniformity of thought:

- *Ecological sustainability*: Development that is compatible with the maintenance of essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and biological resources.
- *Cultural sustainability*: Development that increases people's control over their lives and is compatible with the culture and the values of those affected, and maintains and strengthens community identity.
- *Economic sustainability*: Development that is economically efficient and resources are managed so they can support future generations.
- *Local sustainability*: Development that is designed to benefit local communities and sustain profits for local businesses.

The above principles set forth by the World Conservation Union for Sustainable Tourism has been identified as a major component of development strategies for rural regions of Swaziland. Sustainable tourism is also seen as a means of maintaining cultural landscapes and maintaining semi-natural ecosystems associated with extensive farming, a means of valorising a way of life which is threatened by a combination of socially, politically, and economically induced changes.

However, the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT, 1996) states that although sustainability is a core element of policy and legislation both in Southern Africa and internationally, its implementation still remains weak.

Stabler (1997:78) states that there is a model of sustainable rural tourism that appears to offer solutions to some of the challenges facing rural areas, including small settlements, weak infrastructure, small establishments, local ownership, few guests, and amateur management, which makes it difficult for them to compete effectively in the face of competition from an urban based, relatively concentrated, professionally managed tourist industry, operating increasingly in international markets. This model identifies several possible solutions that can be offered to alleviate these challenges (Stabler, 1997:78).

- Capital investment in full-time. Single purpose tourism ventures are likely to be unprofitable when other forms of economic organizations such as simple commodity production can succeed.
- The possibility for environmentally friendly, culturally-sensitive, rural development initiatives based on an endogenous model of development.
- The possibility that demand-led changes may have created new opportunities which cannot readily be captured by larger scale tourism ventures.
- Traditional tourist resorts may be burdened by semi-redundant or redundant fixed capital, creating an ambience of decay. It may be easier to develop new tourism ventures in relatively undeveloped tourist destinations, rather than to revitalize the old tourist infrastructure in traditional destinations.

Characteristics of sustainable tourism

- Operation at a level which does not place unacceptable demands on the environment;
- Embedding of tourism in a wider functioning economy;
- Employment of local people in work that enhances their self esteem;
- Empowerment of local people to enable them to control their own destinies;
- Use of local products in ways that enhance a sense of place;

- Respect for local cultural traditions.

Sustainability principles and objectives

In order to understand the principles and objectives of sustainability, it is important for the researcher to determine how the term was initially coined. According to Bramwell *et al.* (quoted by Saarinen *et al.*, 2009:7) the term was introduced in the early 1980s, and launched to the forefront of the environmental debate by the release of the Brundtland Report (Our Common Future) in 1987. The Brundtland Report proposed the following definition:

Sustainable development is development which, according to Burton (1995:141), meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Sustainability, as applied in tourism, means regulating the use of tourist resources so that they are not consumed, depleted, or polluted in such a way as to be unavailable for use by future generations of tourists.

However, Labuschagne, Brent and Van Erk (2006) argue that sustainable development is still disputed, as are underlying aspects thereof, although in general the interactions of three pillars (economic, social and environmental, as are shown in table 2.1 below), collectively contribute to sustainable development. Thus, meeting the needs of the future depends on how well these interconnected economic, social and environmental objectives or needs are balanced in the current decision-making processes (World Bank, 2006, as quoted by Labuschagne, Brent and Van Erk, 2006).

TABLE 1.1: Sustainable Development

Economic Pillar	Social Pillar	Environmental Pillar
Services	Equity	Biodiversity
Household needs	Participation	Natural resources
Industrial growth	Empowerment	Carrying capacity
Tourism growth	Social mobility	Ecosystem integrity
Efficient Use of labour	Cultural preservation	Clean air and water

Source: Labuschagne, Brent & Van Erk (2006)

Departing from the premise that any form of development should occur within environmental limits, sustainable development should be guided by the following principles:

- Holistic perspective: Development and sustainability are global challenges;
- Futurity: The emphasis should be on a long term future;
- Equity: Development should be fair and equitable both within and between generations.

The overall objectives of sustainable development, then, may be seen as:

- Environmental sustainability: The conservation and effective management of resources;
- Economic sustainability: Longer term prosperity as a foundation for continuing development;
- Social sustainability: With a focus on alleviating poverty, the promotion of human rights, equal opportunity, political freedom and self-determination.

Understanding Communities

Cooke & Kothari (2001:6) state that simplistic understanding of ‘communities’ see them as homogeneous, static and harmonious units within which people share common interests and needs. This articulation of the notion of ‘community’, they argue, conceals power relations within communities and further masks biases in interests and needs based on, for example, age, class, caste, ethnicity, religion and gender. Wall & Mathieson (2006), on the other hand state that “community refers to enhancement, at the local level, of the capability to participate in the development process.”

Opportunities should be provided for local participation in tourism, both directly through investment in and employment in tourist businesses as well as in supporting activities such as agriculture and craft industries.

However, in the tourism literature ‘community’ is usually equated to the presence of a set of common social characteristics and goals held by a population residing in a local area, (Hall & Richards, 2000: 302).

Different authors demonstrate the multiplicity of definitions of community, and the conflicts that arise between the definitions. However, most definitions maintain that community is concerned primarily with people sharing the same goals held by a small population residing in a local area. From these definitions, it is clear that community involves local residents of the destination, involved in the tourism industry, sharing facilities and attractions.

Community-Based Tourism

Cleverdon and Kalisch (2000); as well as Ashley *et al.* (2001),(quoted by Saarinen *et al.*, 2009:) state that community-based tourism (CBT) seeks to increase people’s involvement and

ownership of tourism at the destination and initiates from and control stays with the local community. According to Hatton (quoted by Saarinen *et al* 2009), CBT is one type of tourism that incorporates high levels of community involvement in sustainability. The author maintains that, CBT is local tourism developed in local communities in innovative ways by various individuals and groups, small business owners, entrepreneurs, local associations and governments. CBT can also be linked to some forms of indigenous tourism. Indigenous tourism is defined as tourism activity in which indigenous people are directly involved either through control/and or having their culture serve as the essence of the attraction (Hinch and Butler 1996).

Saarinen *et al.* (2009: 2006), Scheyvens (2002), Cleverdon and Kalisch (2000); and Ashley *et.al* (2001) all concur that community tourism aims to ensure that members of the local communities, have a high degree of control or even ownership over the tourism activities, its limits and resources used. Local people should have a significant share of the economic benefits of tourism in the form of direct revenues and employment, upgraded infrastructures, environment and housing standards.

Hatton (2002) points out several goals of community-based tourism. The first is that it is socially sustainable. Tourism activities are developed and operated for the most part by local community members and participation is encouraged. The second major goal for community-based tourism is respect for local culture, heritage and traditions.

It has been suggested that community-based tourism can also reinforce or rescue local culture, heritage and traditions. In addition, respect is implied for natural heritage especially when the environment is part of the attraction.

Based on a brief survey of community-based tourism in members of the Asian Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), Hatton (2002) identifies a number of recurring themes:

- The first theme is focused on why CBT started in the various destinations. The common factor is the expectation of economic gain, which in some cases is directly related to need.
- The second theme is leadership linked to the initiative from one person, a small group, or in some cases the government.
- Cultural heritage is often one of the most important aspects of CBT and in many cases is the attraction for tourists; therefore it constitutes the third theme.
- The natural environment is the key theme for many communities where tourists are drawn to experience the environment.
- The fifth theme is that CBT is linked to the growth of employment opportunities, particularly for woman and young people and indigenous people.
- Finally in CBT there is an emerging theme where corporations and communities are starting to work together.

Mann (2000:25) proposes ten principles of community tourism and indicated in Table 1.2.

TABLE 1.2: Ten Principles for community tourism

TEN PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNITY TOURISM	
1	Community tourism should involve local people. That means that they should participate in decision-making and ownership, not just be paid a fee.
2	The local community should receive a fair share of the profits from any tourism source venture.
3	Tour operators should try to work with communities rather than individuals. Working with individuals can create divisions within a community. Where

	communities have representatives' organizations, these should be consulted if conservation projects are to work.
4	Tourism should not put extra pressure on scarce resources.
5	Tourism should support traditional cultures by showing respect for indigenous knowledge. Tourism can encourage people to value their own cultural heritage.
6	Operators should work with local people to minimize the harmful impacts of tourism.
7	Where appropriate, tour operators should keep groups small to minimize their cultural and environmental impact.
8	Tours operators or guides should brief tourists on what to expect and what is considered to be inappropriate behaviour before they arrive in a community. Such briefings should include how to dress, taking photographs and respecting privacy.
9	Local people should be allowed to participate in tourism with dignity and self respect. They should not be coerced into performing inappropriate ceremonies and such actions for tourists.
10	People have the right to say no to tourism in their community.

Source: Mann (2000:25)

Niskala (2009) states that community-based tourism in general raises questions of participation and empowerment: how to integrate local communities in tourism planning and how to ensure a sufficient level of power and control in decision-making processes over the use of natural and cultural resources in tourism development. In this respect the community-based approach implies that sustainability is, or can be, defined through a negotiation process, which indicates that the limits of growth are socially constructed.

The community-based tradition aims to empower the hosts in development discourses and practices, but in the end the constructive perspective indicates that the limits of tourism are associated with power relations within a certain context. By empowering the communities, however, the limits of growth in tourism can be defined in a more equitable way and one that is more beneficial for the local people Scheyvens, (1999-247).

Challenges in community-based tourism

Saarinen 2006 (quoted by Saarinen 1999:4 highlights the various challenges under community-based tradition, for example power issues which may define the acceptable level of use of resources (including ecological limits), which resources get sustained and by whom, or what the meanings and perceptions of sustainable tourism are for and by the local cultures. Tourism in itself entails resource, activity and community-based limits in tourism.

As the culture itself becomes the attraction, there are concerns raised over authenticity when the culture is open to tourists. Indigenous culture can be sold to tourists through cultural performances and souvenirs, which may change over time to suit tourists needs (Yamamura, 2005). Rural and indigenous peoples' environmental ethics may differ from more urban counterparts and they may view environmental controls and protection as contradictory, limiting their development to satisfy the desires of urban sophisticates (Butler, 1993).

While CBT has many positive points, the small-scale tourism operations face a number of challenges. Cleverdon and Kalisch 2000, (quoted by Saarinen *et al*, (2009: 7) suggest that one of the major challenges facing CBT is the competition and threat posed by large-scale resorts in the vicinity. With their resources and marketing techniques, the larger operations have the

potential to take business away from the small operators. Other challenges relate to the long-term viability of the CBT project and whether it becomes controlled by a few people.

Blackstock 2005 states that, from a community development perspective, CBT has three major failings:

- it seeks to ensure the long-term survival of the tourism industry, rather than addressing social injustice;
- it tends to treat the host community as a homogeneous bloc; and
- it neglects the structural constraints to local control of the tourism industry.

Wall and Mathieson (2006:307) state that great concern is usually expressed, both by residents and researchers, for maintenance of the characteristics of host communities, particularly in remote or developing areas where residents, economies, landscapes and political structures undergo changes as tourism evolves. Residents of such communities are often encouraged to take greater control of their futures by becoming involved in community planning and thereby influencing decisions about tourist developments in their home areas, and protecting desired community attributes.

Community involvement

Community involvement can take place in many different ways, such as the management of archaeological monuments and cultural sites (e.g. bushman paintings and engravings), folklore shows, handicraft production, showing the traditional rural way of life, local markets, guidance to springs and caves, scenic walking routes showing the beauty of the landscape, picnic sites, impressive erosion sites, and traditional land use (Butler, Hall & Jenkins, 1998:36).

According to Butler, Hall and Jenkins, (1998: 36) tourism is often seen by government as a mechanism to implement redistribution policy. However, residents of an area will gain unequally, if they gain at all, and some may even be harmed. Some may not want to see development of any kind. A number of issues need to be addressed in rural tourism community planning, including:

- Seasonality in visitation rates, visitor expenditures, employment and incomes.
- Development of infrastructure and tourist related services.
- Recreational needs of the local residents.
- Positive and negative economic, physical and social impacts on host communities.
- Conservation of natural and cultural heritage.
- Development of a sustainable tourist industry.

Level and extent of community participation

Reid (2003:138) states that there should be a selected individual who is able to command respect and who should be trusted by the majority of the community members to assume leadership of the tourism process on behalf of the community that the person represents.

In this regard Reid (2003:138) differs from Mann (2000:25), who is of the view that there is an unbalanced relationship, when working with individuals rather than the whole community, because it may create divisions within a community. The individual that represents the community's interests may end up being easily corrupted and place his/her own well-being first and no longer favour the community's interests.

Mowforth and Munt (2003:215) discuss *Pretty's typology of participation* to arrive at six steps of participation, namely:

- Passive participation, where people participate by being told what has already been decided.
- Participation by consultation, where people participate by being consulted or by answering questions.
- Bought participation, where people participate in return for food, cash or other material incentives.
- Functional participation, where participation is seen by external agencies as a means to achieve their goals.
- Interactive participation, including participation in joint analysis, development of action plans and formation of groups;
- Self-mobilization, where people participate by taking initiatives independently of external institutions to change systems

There is a need for community participation in the overall tourism process, not just by payment in monetary values, as referred to by Mann (2000:25), but also as decision leaders, opinion formers, managers and by pursuing the rightful ownership of local tourism-related businesses.



FIGURE 2.3: Community Development Planning Strategy

Source: Reid (2003:133)

Edgell (2006:87) states that no tourism product should be developed or marketed without the involvement and support of the local residents. Market research suggests that international visitors want to see the “real Swaziland”, referring to rural areas and people. There are many opportunities to develop tourism activities managed by communities. Rimmelzwaal (1996), states that emphasis should be put on the rural areas, but not be restricted to them: urban and peri-urban areas also have communities which can be involved in the running of tourist attractions, e.g. markets.

Communities need to be activated and guided in the development of tourism. Workshops and community meetings have to be arranged in order to familiarise communities with tourist opportunities and to assist the community with the establishment of a National Tourism Development Board with representatives of all stakeholders in the tourist industry (government, NGOs, private sector, game park/reserves management, communities, tourist markets, etc.).

The coverage should be as wide as possible and also include representatives from sectors or departments where interests may be opposite to those of the tourist industry (e.g. the road agency, manufacturing industry, plantation forestry, and agriculture). The board should also function as a forum.

Tasks of the board include the following:

- To enhance international cooperation.
- To strengthen liaison with regional and international tourist institutions.
- To promote intersectional collaboration, especially between competing government ministries and departments.
- To advise and assist communities in developing tourist opportunities.
- To coordinate management of tourist sites with all stakeholders, including communities (Rommelzwaal 1996).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Problem statement

Having justified why community tourism should be an ideal economic diversification tool for the Ezulwini Valley and the best method to facilitate the inclusion and participation of the communities in rural tourism, the research question for this dissertation therefore is: What is the state of community support and involvement of the community in tourism development in the Ezulwini Valley?

In order to adequately answer the aforementioned research question, the following sub-questions are important:

1. What are the challenges that face the community of the Ezulwini Valley, with regard to tourism development?
2. What are the recommendations and strategies that can be formulated for the involvement of the community of the Ezulwini Valley?

Study Methods and Design

Research design and data collection method

This study was based on a literature study, a structured questionnaire was designed, in order to gather information with regards to the community's role and involvement in rural tourism. The purpose of using a questionnaire was two-fold. Firstly, it helped the researcher to gather data from interested groups about the community support for tourism and involvement in the Ezulwini Valley. It should be noted that the researcher was interested in participants about the state of the development of rural tourism in the Ezulwini Valley. Secondly, the instrument was implemented as a mechanism for initiating dialogue, not simply about rural tourism in the Ezulwini Valley, but also about the involvement of the community of the area.

The aim of the study was to analyse the community support for tourism in the Ezulwini Valley. Jennings (2001:17) identifies the seven approaches to research based on information requirements as being exploratory, descriptive, explanatory, causal, comparative, evaluative and predictive. In order to answer the research question posed in the study, the approach for this research is a descriptive research approach, which is better suited than exploratory or causal research when dealing with the research topic of this nature.

Quantitative Approach

According to Jennings (2001:22) quantitative research is grounded in the positivist social

science paradigm, which primarily reflects the scientific method of the natural sciences. Such a paradigm adopts a deductive approach to the research process. As such, it commences with theories or hypotheses about a particular tourism phenomenon, gathers data from a real-world setting, and then analyses the data to support or reject the hypotheses. Lamb, Hair and McDaniel (1998), point out that there are three options available when undertaking quantitative research: experiments, observations, and surveys. De Vos *et al* (2005:75) describe the main aims of quantitative approaches as being to objectively measure the social world, to test hypotheses, and to predict and control human behaviour.

The researcher sampled 10% of the population of about 2000 residents. This specific method of data collection was chosen because it gives more insight into the way participants think, thereby providing a better understanding of the residents' perceptions and concerns about their area.

Execution of the survey

A questionnaire was hand-delivered to two hundred households in the Ezulwini Valley and collected three weeks after they had been delivered to the respondents.

Information capture and data analysis

The questionnaires were received back by collection, each questionnaire was assigned a number, and then the data was captured on an electronic spread sheet in Excel, in order to ensure that the information was:

1. accurate;
2. consistent with intent of the question and other information in the survey;
3. uniformly entered;
4. complete; and

5. arranged to simplify coding and tabulation (Cooper and Schindler, 2003:45).

RESULTS/FINDINGS

The tourism industry is growing quite quickly in the Ezulwini Valley and greatly supported, more so since the arrival of rural tourism. The study revealed that a total of 74.2% of the respondents indicated that they strongly supported limits to growth in tourism development. Environmental standards to reduce negative impacts of tourism were supported by 83.7% of the local community. The results also revealed that that, eighty five point eight percent stated that they would cooperate in –tourism planning and development and only 6.3% did not support this statement, possibly because residents are not united and supportive of each other. Cultural exchanges between local residents and visitors were strongly supported, as indicated in the table, with 87.1% stating that they support local participation in tourism planning and development, and 85.8% respondents stated that they support development of community-based tourism initiatives. However in spite of this support, it is worth noting that 1.6 % were opposed to environmental education, possibly because they felt that they know all there is to know about the environment, instead of further enhancing the knowledge they have.

CONCLUSIONS

The research study has revealed that different respondents have different views on community participation in the tourism industry of any destination. These views are based on the ways in and extent to which they are involved in the industry, the years of experience in the industry, the sector in which these respondents are employed, the educational experience that these people have, as well as the level of interest that they have in the industry. This study analysed the community support for tourism in the Ezulwini Valley in Swaziland. The results of the research study showed that there is a general consensus in many aspects that

were analyzed, namely that (1) there has been a great improvement in the development of rural tourism in the Ezulwini Valley; and (2) there is a need to develop a tourism participation strategy for communities to effectively participate in the benefits of rural tourism, as well as to ensure the sustainability of the industry. This strategy should be aimed at minimizing the negative impacts of rural tourism, while enhancing ways of ensuring high levels of community participation in the industry, as this will ensure the communities' sense of ownership of the industry, and hence they will ensure high quality standards of service delivery, better confidence of handling businesses, particularly the home stays, better packaged tourism products and the protection of tourists in the Ezulwini Valley.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations could contribute to the development of rural tourism and community involvement in the Ezulwini Valley.

- The literature review indicates that tourism in the Ezulwini Valley can only succeed if awareness is raised among the community in support of this form of tourism
- It is vital that the government of Swaziland injects more funds towards the tourism sector so that the destination can be promoted and marketed not only Ezulwini Valley but other regions as well.
- It is important for the government of Swaziland to recognise and improve the crucial areas in rural tourism that need development in the Ezulwini Valley.
- It is important that all stakeholders in the Ezulwini Valley are interested and educated in community support for tourism, and are involved in the development of tourism, as well as discussions regarding challenges that face tourism in the area.
- The local community should be involved in the whole process of community support for tourism development, from planning and decision-making to management, as well

as marketing of the operating projects at hand. This will help because the community members will be able to embrace rural tourism development goals to the overall development goals of this area.

- It is vital to formulate strategies for the involvement of the community in the development of tourism particularly rural tourism in the Ezulwini Valley and ways to sustain such strategies, are implemented.

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Testing a Model of Service Quality, Customer Satisfaction, Complain Intention and Customer Loyalty in Four Star Hotels in Mauritius.

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ABSTRACT

This research is an attempt to investigate empirically the influence among Service Quality dimensions - Reliability, Assurance, Tangibles, Empathy and Responsiveness, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and complain intention in four star hotels in Mauritius. To achieve the objectives of this study, data was collected through questionnaire from a sample of 200 tourists and individuals. These respondents were selected using convenience sampling method. The data collected from the questionnaire were analyzed using statistical tools such as mean, standard deviation and multiple regression analysis. The overall results reveal that out of the eight hypotheses, four were supported: Reliability, Tangibles and Responsiveness meaning that they have positive and significant effects on customer satisfaction, and customer satisfaction has a positive and significant effect on customer loyalty. Based on the findings of the study, the researcher forwards some recommendations for future researches and to the tourism sector.

KEYWORDS Service quality dimensions, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, complain intention

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

RATER: Reliability, Assurance, Tangibles, Empathy and Responsiveness

SD: Standard Deviation

SERVQUAL: Service Quality

INTRODUCTION

The hospitality industry is one of the top and flourishing one, but as any other industry it is fragile, diverse and complex. In the past decade, the hospitality sector in Mauritius has undergone radical changes, resulting in a market place, which is characterized by intense competition, and little growth in demand, with around 18,000 visitors in 1970. Today, the tourism sector is considered to be among the main pillars of the economy contributing to economic growth and major development in the island, with around 1 million tourists and 20 to 25 billion rupees of revenue annually.

With an increased in hotels numbers across the island, now 118 registered hotels, and in order to gain new customers and retain existing customers, hotels should be able to differentiate themselves from their competitors by providing high service quality by understanding customers' needs and then trying to meet or surpass these needs. According, Parasuraman et al. (1988), service quality is both the significant differentiator and the most aggressive weapon possessed by many leading service organizations. Zeithaml et al. (1996) discovered that leading service organizations endeavor to sustain a superior quality of service over their competitors in an effort to acquire and retain customer loyalty.

The researcher's objective of this study is to examine the relationships that the SERVQUAL dimensions - Reliability, Assurance, Tangibles, Empathy and Responsiveness have on

customer satisfaction. Furthermore, understand the impacts of customer satisfaction on customer's intention to complain and be loyal to the four star hotels in Mauritius by developing a unique theoretical framework. Understanding the influence of these variables may provide creative ideas for improving service delivery in order to gain a competitive advantage among the four star hotels in Mauritius.

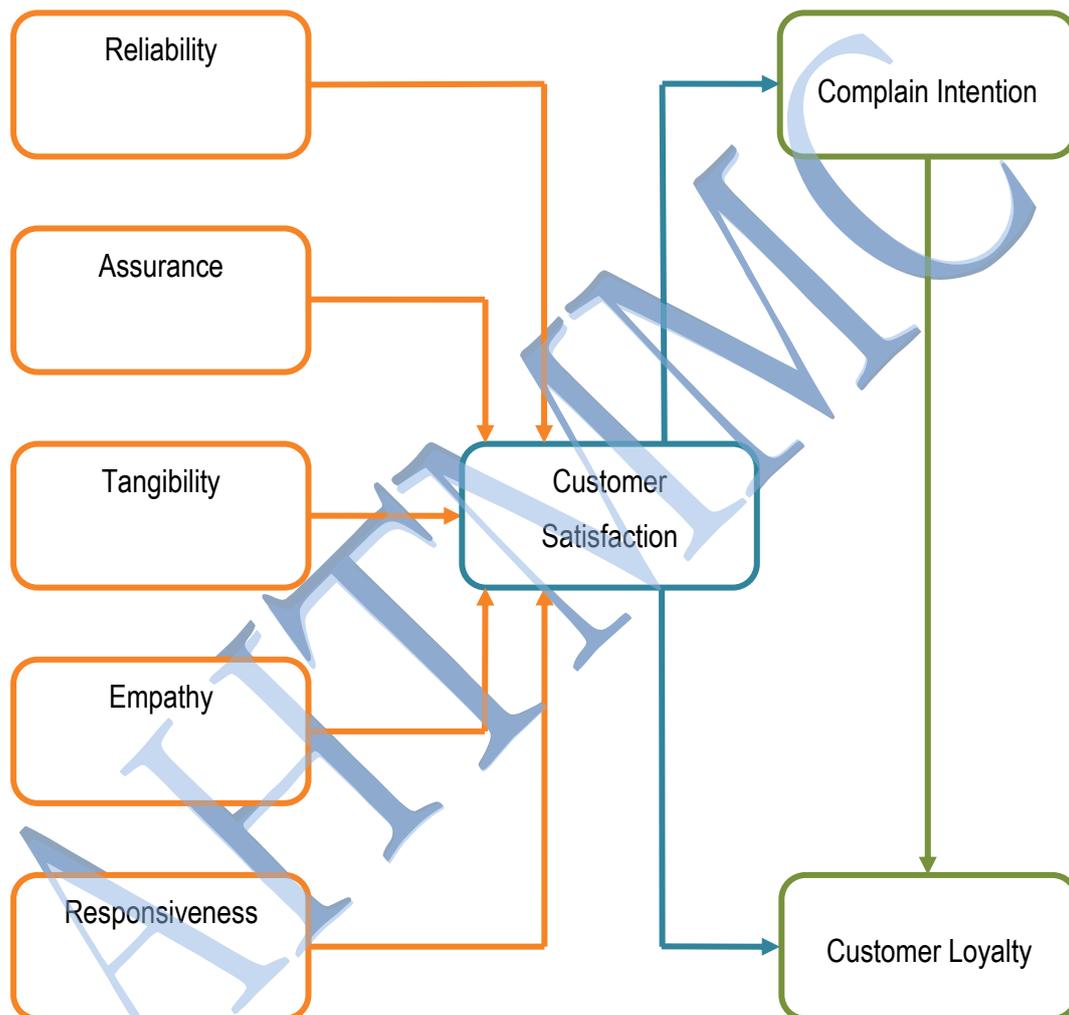


Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the research

LITERATURE REVIEW

Service Quality

Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry (1990) defined service quality as excellence and this is determined by the extent of discrepancy between customer expectations and their

perceptions. All organizations provide quality services in order to gain in competitiveness and expand their marketplace. Service quality is a vital antecedent of customer's satisfaction (Cronin and Taylor, 1992). According to Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985) customers evaluate overall service quality on five underlying dimensions: Reliability, Assurance, Tangibles, Empathy and Responsiveness. The RATER dimensions, which form part of the SERVQUAL measurement of service quality, give an indication on the level of satisfaction customers had with the service. SERVQUAL “is a concise multiple-item scale with good reliability and validity that researcher can use to better understand the service expectations and perceptions of consumers and, as a result, improve service” (Parasuraman et al., 1988).

Customer Satisfaction

Satisfaction is an overall customer attitude towards a service provider, or an emotional reaction to the difference between what customers anticipate and what they receive, regarding the fulfillment of some needs, goals or desire (Hansemark and Albinson, 2004). Thus, customer satisfaction is the measure of the extent to which a service either fails to meet, meets or surpasses customer's expectations. It is an indicator of the degree by which customers are happy with the organization's products and services. The benefits of customer satisfaction according to Zairi (2000) are that it leads to repeat purchases, loyalty and to customer retention. The key to achieve sustainable advantage lies in delivering high quality service that results in satisfied customers (Shemwell et al., 1998).

Elements of the proposed model

This research will use the SERVQUAL dimensions by Parasuraman et al. (1985) to look at their effects on customer satisfaction.

Reliability is “the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately” (Zeithaml et al., 2006), which means that the organization delivers the service right the first time and “delivering on its promises”. Likewise, Berry et al. (1990) found that service reliability is the service “core” to most customers and managers should use every opportunity to build a “do-it-right-first” attitude. Furthermore, the service offered to guests should be free from errors and delivered within the time bound. Nguyen and Leblanc (2001) consider reliability as reputation that can be the most reliable indicator of service quality which could be related to customers past experiences (Ndubisi, 2006) and considered to be an important factor to maintain the customer loyalty in the service context (Dick and Basu, 1994). Zim et al. (2010) pointed out that reliability is one of the important factors of customer satisfaction. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H₁: Reliability positively influences customer satisfaction.

Assurance is defined as “the employees’ knowledge and courtesy and the service provider’s ability to inspire trust and confidence” (Zeithaml et al., 2006). This confidence will bring along a feeling of security, where the guests will feel safe in whatever transactions made and service offered by the employees. Assurance also involves employees being knowledgeable, experienced, polite, friendly, show respect and consideration to the guests. In addition, assurance has “the strongest impact on customer satisfaction that leads to positive word of mouth outcome” (Arasli et al., 2005). Therefore:

H₂: Assurance positively influences customer satisfaction.

Tangibles are all about the physical evidence of the service. Zeithaml et al. (2006) defined tangibles as the appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel and communication materials. Also, according to them, tangibles are used by firms to convey image and signal

quality. These clues which are considered as being unique to each and every organization are very important as they are the first contact with the organization. The first hand impression will always be in the customers' memories, a lasting impression. Customers are likely to return to the same environment because of their emotional attachment to that place. Research suggests that tangibility has a positive influence on customer satisfaction (Munusamy et al., 2010). Hence:

H₃: Tangibles positively influences customer satisfaction.

According to Zeithaml et al. (2006), **empathy** means “caring, individualized attention the firm provides its customer”. It is about providing a customized service to the guests that is being able to recognize each guest by calling them by their names and knowing their needs, preferences and tastes will make the guests feel that the organization has their interests best at heart. Baumann et al. (2006) found that the effectiveness of the service provider's attitude and empathy of staffs leads to higher degree of customer satisfaction, and in return, customers recommend others to use this service. It is hypothesized that:

H₄: Empathy positively influences customer satisfaction.

Responsiveness dimension is described as “the willingness to help customers and provide prompt service” (Zeithaml et al., 2006). In other words, it is the readiness of staffs to assist guests in providing a fast service. Being attentive and prompt in answering guest's questions, requests and complaints are what the guests want to see. To be successful, companies need to look at responsiveness from the view point of the customer rather than the company's perspective (Zeithaml et al., 2006). Keeping customers informed constantly as to when the service will be performed or when the problem will be dealt will surely put the organization at a higher level, as the guests will feel that they are being taken care of. Thus, responsiveness

is likely to have an important and positive effect on customer satisfaction (Jun and Cai, 2001; Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Joseph et al., 2005). In view of that, it is hypothesized that:

H₅: Responsiveness positively influences customer satisfaction.

Complain intention

Consumer satisfaction or dissatisfaction is generally conceptualized as a positive or negative feeling (emotion), in response to, or following, a specific consumption experience (Woodruff et al., 1983). Therefore, complaint arises from dissatisfaction. Day and Landon (1977) further stated that satisfaction is important to the individual consumer because it reflect a positive outcome from the outlay of scarce resources and/or the fulfillment of unmet needs. Complaints are very significant as they provide useful information to organizations that help them improve their services. Therefore, complaint provides an opportunity for service recovery which, in turn, has the potential to educate the customer, strengthen loyalty, and induce positive word of mouth comments (Evardsson et al., 2003).

Customer loyalty

According to Oliver (1997), customer loyalty refers to a deeply held commitment to re-buy a preferred product or service in the future despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior. It is customer repeating purchase intention to some specific products or services in the future (Jones et al., 1995). Moreover, loyal customers will make the organization reduce the operating cost (Aaker, 1997), gain in revenue, market share and also according to Bowen and Shoemaker (1998) loyalty will instill customers to make business referrals, and intentionally or even unintentionally providing strong word of mouth references and publicity. Many researchers have revealed the fact that satisfied customers share their experiences with other people to the order of perhaps five or

six people. Numerous studies have pointed out that two of the more effective means of generating customer loyalty are to delight customers (Lee, Lee and Feick, 2001; Oliver, 1999) and to deliver superior value derived from excellent services and quality products (Parasuraman and Grewal, 2000). All organizations have realized the importance of service quality in this competitive world. They are giving their utmost best to deliver and manage the level of quality in whatever their doings. Likewise, Dube and Renaghan (1999) found that quality of service and quality of the hotel's personnel were critical determinants in enhancing guests' loyalty to luxury hotels. Developing and increasing loyalty is a crucial factor in companies' growth and performance (Reichheld, 1996 and, Lee and Cunningham, 2001). Customer loyalty is one of the key factors and can help a company achieve long-term success (Andres, 2007). The marketing literature has argued that customer loyalty has become the market place currency of the 21st century (Singh and Sirdeshmukh, 2000) because it costs 5 times more to acquire a new customer than to retain an existing one (Pfeifer, 2005).

Research has indicated that appropriately managing customer objection has a dramatic influence on customer retention and loyalty (Singh and Wilkes, 1996). Zeithaml et al. (1996) have discovered that leading service organizations endeavor to sustain a superior quality of service over their competitors in an effort to acquire and retain customer loyalty. Further evidence suggests that consumers who are more satisfied complain less and are more likely to repurchase. In contrast, dissatisfied customers tend to be less committed and certainly disloyal to the service and its provider (Cho et al., 2004). Furthermore, it is suggested that "employees' commitment to deliver quality services, skillfully handling of conflicts and efficient delivery of services resulted in satisfied customers for long term benefits" (Nelson and Chan, 2005). Hence, from the evidence stated above, it is hypothesized that:

H₆: Customer satisfaction negatively influences customer complain intention.

H₇: Customer satisfaction positively influences customer loyalty.

H₈: Customer complain intention negatively influences customer loyalty.

Hence, based on the literature review discussed above, the following model has been designed along with their research hypotheses. The model depicts the effects among the RATER dimensions of SERVQUAL, customer satisfaction, complain intention and loyalty.

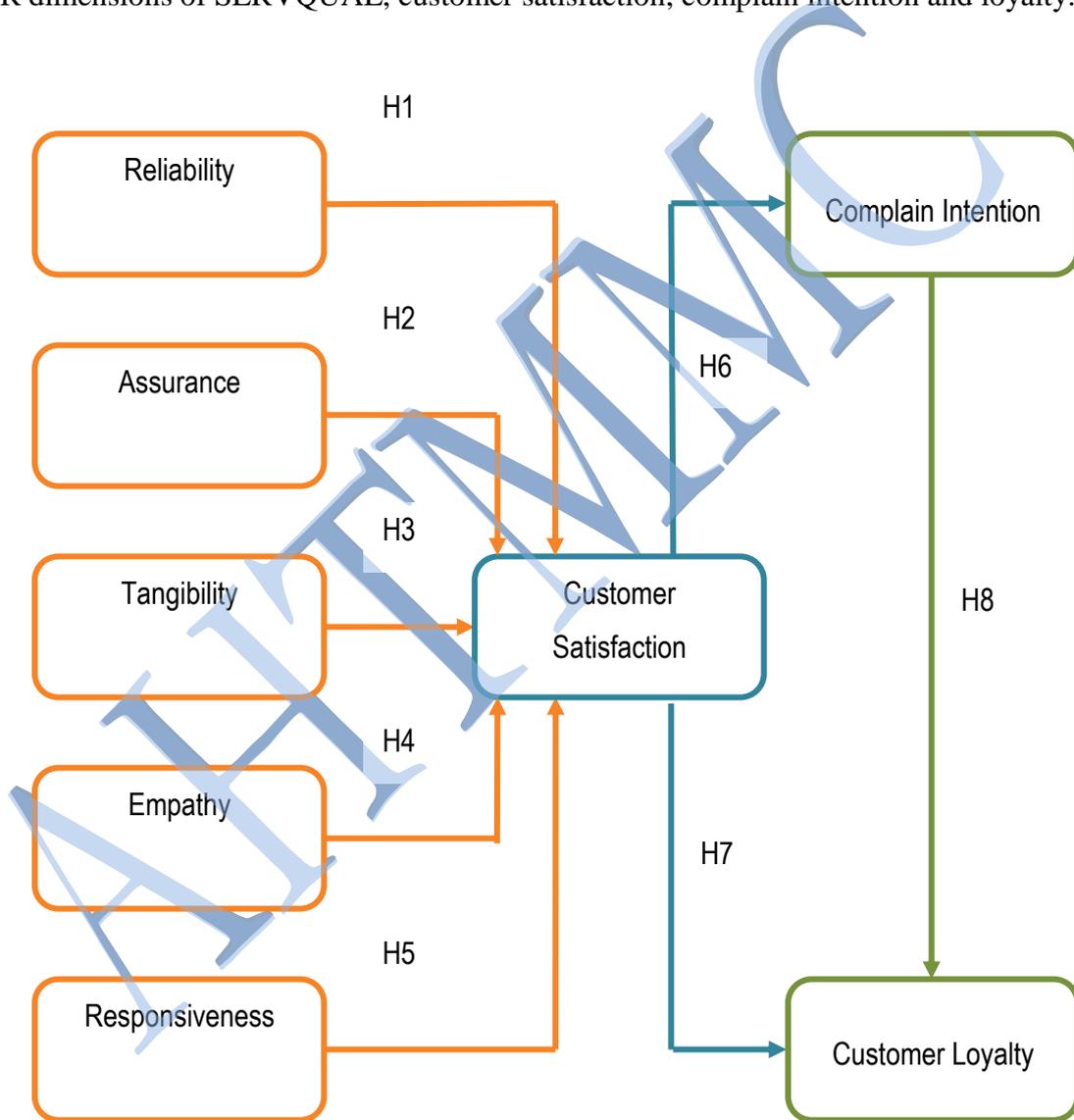


Figure 2. The conceptual model of the research with hypotheses

METHODOLOGY

The research purpose of this paper shows that it is both a descriptive and explanatory research, as the researcher's intention is to describe the domain of the research, formulate hypothesis and illustrate some conclusions from the data collected. A quantitative approach method will be used whereby a survey will be considered by using self-administered questionnaires in order to test the hypotheses generated. The primary data were collected through survey method. The technique used to gather information was through questionnaire. Secondary data sources were also used. The data was obtained through analyzing of academic journals, articles, books, internet and past research. Questionnaires have been used to gain information from people/ respondents who answer questions about themselves, their knowledge of a particular subject and their opinions (Brunt 1997). For the purpose of this research, a structured questionnaire has been designed. The first type of question used was the 5-point Likert scales. Likert-type scales use fixed choice response formats and are designed to measure attitudes or opinions (Burns and Grove, 1997). The responses ranged from the lowest point 1= Strongly Disagree to the highest point 5=Strongly Agree. Second question format used was the category questions. It enables the respondents to choose responses from a set of categories. The quantity question was the third type of question response used. The response to a quantity question is a number which gives some characteristics to collect behavior and attribute data (Saunders et al., 2003). The RATER variables' 22 items were borrowed from SERVQUAL measurement by Parasuraman et al. (1988), customer satisfaction items were adapted from a list of authors namely, Brown et al. (1993), Hausknecht (1990), Heskett et al. (1994), Jones and Sasser (1995) and Levesque and McDougall (1996). The complain intention and customer loyalty items were borrowed from Bloemer et al. (1999) and Zeithaml et al. (1996) respectively.

The sample size for this research was 200. This size was big enough to give reasonable conclusion and thus can generalize to the target population. Prior to the distribution of the questionnaires, the researcher conducted a pilot survey, 10% of the sample size that is twenty questionnaires were distributed to Mauritians who stayed in hotels. All the twenty questionnaires were returned, representing 100% response rate. There were positive feedbacks in that the questionnaires were simple and easy to understand. The sampling technique used was the convenience sampling. According to MacNealy's (1999), a convenience sample is whereby researchers acquire by going to public locations and asking passers-by to participate. The questionnaires were then distributed randomly during the period August to September to tourists who are staying and Mauritians who stayed in four star hotels in Mauritius. Those working in public offices like state owned colleges, ministries, private companies and hotels from different parts of the island were chosen, after permission was granted. Also, the tourists on beaches especially on the west coast of the island were selected. All the questionnaires were collected mid-September and then examined. Out of the 200 questionnaires, 191 were collected, representing 95.5% response rate. Sorting out the questionnaires and identifying the missing data are important as this process will ensure the accuracy and completeness of data before the coding process. There might be illogical responses to some questions or simply the respondents might have miss out questions. Only 181 questionnaires out of the 191 were valid with complete answers, which correspond to 90.5% response rate.

Multiple regression has been used to measure the extent to which independent variables act together to provide the value of a dependent variable enabling the researcher to determine the fit of her model as a whole and the relative contribution of each of the predictor variables in explaining the variance.

FINDINGS

Background Information of Respondents

Table 1

Background Information of Respondents.

Characteristics	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	85	47
Female	96	53
Total	181	100%
Age		
<=20	3	1.7
21-30	70	38.7
31-40	67	37
41-50	21	11.6
51-60	13	7.2
61+	7	3.9
Total	181	100%
Purpose of the visit		
Honeymoon	28	15.5
Business & Professionals	22	12.2
Leisure, Recreation & Holidays	107	59.1
Visit friends & Relatives	20	11

Others	4	2.2
Total	181	100%

Number of previous visits

<=1	97	53.6
2-4	70	38.7
5-7	8	4.4
8-10	3	1.7
11-13	1	0.6
14+	2	1.1
Total	181	100%

The sample includes 181 individuals who are staying and stayed in four star hotels in Mauritius. Table 1 shows that there was more females (53%) as compared to males (47%), representing a mean of 1.53. As far as age of respondents is concerned, 38.7% of the respondents are in the range 21-30, 37% are in the range 31-40, 11.6% of the respondents are in the range 41-50, and 7.2% are in the range 51-60. The main observation is that 59.1% of the respondents stayed in hotels for leisure, recreation and holidays purpose. The second purpose is for honeymoon purpose (15.5%), followed by 12.2% for business and professionals purpose, 11% to visit friends and relatives and only 2.2% stayed in hotels for other purposes. It can be seen that the 53.6% of the respondents stayed in the hotel for the first time and for some it was their second visits, 38.7% visited the same hotel 2-4 times, and 4.4% stayed in the same hotel 5-7 times.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics

Composite measures	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
Reliability	3.77	0.50	0.73
When you have a problem, the hotel shows a sincere interest in solving it.	3.93	0.56	
When the hotel promises to do something by a certain time, it does so.	3.83	0.74	
The hotel provides its service at the time it promises to do so.	3.78	0.73	
The hotel performs the service right the first time.	3.75	0.81	
The hotel insists on error free records.	3.57	0.88	
Assurance	3.96	0.60	0.76
Employees in the hotel are consistently courteous with you.	4.01	0.73	
You feel safe in your transactions with the hotel.	4.01	0.73	
Employees in the hotel have the knowledge to answer your questions.	3.95	0.80	
The behaviour of employees in the hotel instills confidence in you.	3.89	0.75	
Tangibles	4.08	0.49	0.79
The hotel's physical features are visually appealing.	4.19	0.59	
The hotel's reception desk employees are neat appearing	4.16	0.64	
Materials associated with the service (such as	4.05	0.70	

pamphlets or letters) are visually appealing at the hotel.

The hotel has modern looking equipment. 3.93 0.76

Empathy 3.70 0.60 0.71

The hotel has operating hours convenient to all its customers. 3.79 0.78

The hotel gives you individual attention. 3.71 0.81

The hotel has employees who give you personal attention. 3.68 0.87

The employees of the hotel understand your specific needs. 3.68 0.76

The hotel has your best interests at heart. 3.63 0.74

Responsiveness 3.74 0.64 0.82

Employees in the hotel are always willing to help you. 3.92 0.73

Employees in the hotel give you prompt service. 3.75 0.78

Employees in the hotel tell you exactly when the services will be performed. 3.68 0.81

Employees in the hotel are never too busy to respond to your request. 3.61 0.84

Customer Satisfaction 3.88 0.52 0.82

I am satisfied of being a customer of the hotel. 4.00 0.63

I am satisfied with the respective behaviour of the employees. 3.95 0.63

I am satisfied with the hotel professional competence. 3.95 0.61

I am satisfied with the hotel's complete range of 3.86 0.66

services.

I am satisfied with the quick service of the hotel. 3.78 0.73

I am satisfied with the performance of the employees of the hotel. 3.73 0.71

Complain Intention 4.21 0.61 0.80

I will complain to the hotel if I experience problems. 4.26 0.68

I will tell the employees of the hotel if I experience problems with the hotel. 4.15 0.77

Customer Loyalty 3.85 0.71 0.93

I am likely to recommend the hotel to others. 4.04 0.70

I would return to the hotel again. 3.68 0.80

If I have the chance I would stay in the same hotel during my next stay. 3.64 0.88

Note: N = 181.

Scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly Agree.

Table 2 illustrated shows the mean score and standard deviation for all the variables. A high standard deviation means that the responses are scattered over the mean, while a low standard deviation means that responses are concentrated towards the mean.

In general, Reliability shows a mean of 3.77 and a standard deviation of 0.50. The highest mean score of 3.93 ($SD = 0.56$) is for the sincere interest that the hotel has in solving a problem and the least mean is for the error free records which scores a mean of 3.57 ($SD = 0.88$). Assurance scores a mean of 3.96 and a standard deviation of 0.60. The highest mean is for the item hotels employees are consistently courteous with you and you feel safe in your

transactions ($M = 4.01$; $SD = 0.73$). However, customers are less satisfied with the behavior of employees who instill confidence at a mean of 3.89 and standard deviation of 0.75. The mean and standard deviation for Tangibles are 4.08 and 0.49 respectively. The highest mean score is for the visually appealing physical features like the design, décor and colors in the four star hotels ($M = 4.19$; $SD = 0.59$). The least mean is for the modern looking equipment ($M = 3.93$; $SD = 0.76$).

Likewise, Empathy shows a mean score of 3.70 and standard deviation of 0.60. The highest mean score is for the convenient operating hours ($M = 3.79$; $SD = 0.78$), followed by the individual attention provided by the hotel ($M = 3.71$; $SD = 0.81$). The item having the guests' best interests at heart gain the least mean of 3.63 ($SD = 0.74$). Responsiveness scores a mean of 3.74 and a standard deviation of 0.64. From the table, the hotel's employees willingness to help scores a high mean of 3.92 ($SD = 0.64$) and the least mean is for the item employees are never too busy to respond to guest's requests ($M = 3.61$; $SD = 0.84$).

From the group of 181 respondents, the mean score for customer satisfaction is 3.88 ($SD = 0.52$). The table indicates that the guests are satisfied of being a customer of the hotel has the highest mean value of 4.00 ($SD = 0.63$) and are less satisfied with quick service and performance of the employees of the hotel which score a mean value of 3.78 ($SD = 0.73$) and 3.73 ($SD = 0.71$) respectively. Furthermore, the table also illustrates a mean score of 4.21 and standard deviation of 0.61 for complain intention. Complaining to the hotel shows a higher mean value of 4.26 ($SD = 0.68$) and telling the hotel employees if experience problems scores a lower mean value of 4.15 ($SD = 0.77$). Customer loyalty scores a mean of 3.85 and standard deviation of 0.71. Recommending the hotel to others scores the highest mean ($M = 4.04$; $SD =$

0.70), followed by returning to the hotel again ($M = 3.68$; $SD = 0.80$) and staying in the same hotel during the next stay ($M = 3.64$; $SD = 0.88$).

The results of this study indicate that the guests were most satisfied with the Tangibles ($M = 4.08$) SERVQUAL dimensions. This figure shows that almost all respondents were satisfied with the physical appearance of the facility and personnel, the materials and equipments of the four star hotels. Assurance is in the second place with a mean of 3.96. However, the guests are less satisfied with Reliability ($M = 3.77$), Responsiveness ($M = 3.74$) and Empathy ($M = 3.70$) dimensions of SERVQUAL.

The Cronbach's alpha test is a measure of internal consistency (reliability) and it ranges from zero to one with zero indicating complete unreliability and the value of one indicating perfect reliability. In general, alpha values about 0.7 to 0.8 or higher are good (Field, 2009). The above tables illustrate that all the results are beyond the suggested threshold of 0.70. Thus, the questionnaire is reckoned to have excellent strength and consistency.

Multiple regression

Multiple regression analysis was employed to test the model fit by testing and modeling the independent variables.

Here it is used to examine the effects of:

- ❖ SERVQUAL dimensions on customer satisfaction
- ❖ Customer satisfaction on complain intention and customer loyalty.
- ❖ Complain intention on customer loyalty.

Table 3

Multiple Regression Results

Models	Standardize	T-value	Multicollinearity		Model Fit
	d Beta (β)		VIF	Tolerance	
Model 1: Predicting					
Customer Satisfaction (CS)					
R → CS	0.18	2.72*	1.76	0.57	R ² = 0.55
A → CS	0.06	0.87(n.s)	1.82	0.55	Adj. R ² = 0.54
T → CS	0.12	1.97**	1.35	0.74	F-value =
E → CS	-0.14	-1.59*	2.93	0.34	43.47****
R → CS	0.66	7.65****	2.90	0.35	
Model 2: Predicting					
Complain Intention (CI)					
CS → CI					
	-0.07	-0.87(n.s)	1.00	1.00	R ² = 0.004 Adj. R ² = -0.001 F-value = 0.75(n.s)
(Model Rejected)					
Model 3: Predicting					
Customer Loyalty (CL)					
CS → CL					
	0.44	6.45****	1.00	1.00	R ² = 0.19 Adj. R ² = 0.18 F-value = 20.87****
CI → CL					
	0.00	0.01(n.s)	1.00	1.00	

Note: * $p < 0.10$; ** $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.01$; **** $p < 0.001$; n.s: not significant.

Model 1 predicted customer satisfaction from the five different independent variables: Reliability, Assurance, Tangibles, Empathy and Responsiveness. The above results show a good model ($F\text{-value} = 43.47; p < 0.001$). In overall, the results revealed that all independent variables accounted for 55% of the variance in customer satisfaction ($R^2 = 0.55$). Thus, the model predicting customer satisfaction was theoretically and statistically valid.

Hypothesis 1

H_{01} : Reliability does not influence customer satisfaction.

H_{a1} : Reliability positively influences customer satisfaction.

Table 3 shows that the standardized coefficient beta and t-value of reliability were positive and significant ($\beta = 0.18; t\text{-value} = 2.72; p < 0.001$). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected and it is accepted that, reliability has a positive and significant effect on customer satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2

H_{02} : Assurance does not influence customer satisfaction.

H_{a2} : Assurance positively influences customer satisfaction.

Findings from the table indicate that assurance did not significantly influence customer satisfaction ($\beta = 0.06; t\text{-value} = 0.87; p > 0.10$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted and concluded that assurance has an insignificant effect on customer satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3

H_{03} : Tangibles does not influence customer satisfaction.

H_{a3} : Tangibles positively influences customer satisfaction.

The table reveal that tangibles have a positive and significant effect on customer satisfaction ($\beta = 0.12$, $t\text{-value} = 1.97$, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, at 95% confidence level, the null hypothesis is rejected and it is accepted that, tangibles have positive and significant effect on customer satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4

Ho₄: Empathy does not influence customer satisfaction.

Ha₄: Empathy positively influences customer satisfaction.

Statistics indicate that the standardized beta and t-value of empathy were negative ($\beta = -0.14$; $t\text{-value} = -1.59$, $p < 0.10$). As a result, the null hypothesis is accepted. So, empathy does not have an influence on customer satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5

Ho₅: Responsiveness does not influence customer satisfaction.

Ha₅: Responsiveness positively influences customer satisfaction.

Table 3 further shows that, responsiveness has a positive and significant effect on customer satisfaction ($\beta = 0.66$; $t\text{-value} = 7.65$, $p < 0.001$). At 99.9% confidence level, the null hypothesis is rejected and concluded that responsiveness has a positive and significant effect on customer satisfaction.

Results from model 2 which predicted complain intention from customer satisfaction indicate that the model was insignificant ($F\text{-value} = 0.75$; $\rho > 0.05$). It can be deduced that the data does not fit the model well. Therefore, the model was rejected.

Hypothesis 6

Ho₆: Customer satisfaction does not influence customer complain intention.

Ha₆: Customer satisfaction negatively influences customer complain intention.

The table illustrates that the standardized coefficient beta and t-value of customer satisfaction were negative and not significant ($\beta = -0.07$; $t\text{-value} = -0.87$). Thus, the null hypothesis was accepted and concluded that, customer satisfaction has an insignificant effect on complain intention.

Hypothesis 7

Ho₇: Customer satisfaction does not influence customer loyalty.

Ha₇: Customer satisfaction positively influences customer loyalty.

The standardized coefficient beta and t-value of customer satisfaction were positive and significant ($\beta = 0.45$; $t\text{-value} = 6.45$, $p < 0.001$). The t-value of 6.45 indicates a strong relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty. Therefore, the hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis 8

Ho₈: Customer complain intention does not influence customer loyalty.

Ha₈: Customer complain intention negatively influences customer loyalty.

Results from table 3 indicate that complain intention does not significantly influence customer loyalty ($\beta = 0.00$; $t\text{-value} = 0.01$; $p > 0.05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted and concluded that complain intention has an insignificant effect on customer loyalty.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The regression analysis indicates that Reliability has a positive and significant effect on customer satisfaction. This result is supported by Al-Hawary et al., (2011) reported that

reliability has a positive and significant effect on customer satisfaction. Furthermore, this finding is supported by Malik et al., (2011), who also found that reliability has a significant and positive effect on customer satisfaction. The data shows that the guests are satisfied with the services provided by the four star hotels as promised and handling (speed) of solving the problem. On the other hand, Munusamy et al., (2010) reported that reliability has a negative and insignificant effect on customer satisfaction. This negative result could be explained by the fact that the organization does not deliver on its promises.

Statistics show that assurance has an insignificant influence on customer satisfaction. Surprisingly, this result is contrary to the prior findings; Malik et al. and Al-Hawary et al., (2011) who found that assurance has a positive and significant effect on customer satisfaction. In addition, Lai (2004) and Kumar et al. (2010) who pointed out that assurance is one of the important factors for customer satisfaction, was not supported here. This can be explained by the employees' behaviours towards the guests and low competence meaning to say that the guests do not feel that the employees can be trusted, are unfriendly and impolite or even handling the guests in an unprofessional and incompetent way.

The result of this study indicates that tangibles positively and significantly influence customer satisfaction. This finding is supported by Munusamy et al., (2010) and Al-Hawary et al., (2011), who found that tangibles have a positive and significant effect on customer satisfaction. The possible explanation to this finding is that guests can assess the premises of the hotels and the appearance of the hotel's employees, meaning to say that the guests often look to any tangibles indications which may be used as indicators of service quality. On the contrary, Malik et al., (2011) reported that tangibles have no contribution to customer

satisfaction. One reason could be that the organization has old, unclean and outdated equipment.

The finding of this study further indicates that empathy has a negative influence on customer satisfaction. This result is supported by Munusamy et al. (2010), who found that empathy has a negative effect on customer satisfaction. On the contrary, literature which suggested that empathy of staffs leads to higher degree of customer satisfaction (Baumann et al., 2006) and who discovered and Ladhari (2009) who claimed that empathy is the strongest predictor of customer satisfaction were not supported by the statistics. In addition, Ndubisi (2006) stated that customer satisfaction can be achieved by offering personalized, flexible and adjustable services to suit the needs of customers. Therefore, this negative result could be explained by the bad or low interactions between the employees and guests and by the employees' inabilities to provide personalized service and meeting the expectations of the guests.

Results from this study shows that responsiveness has a positive and significant influence on customer satisfaction. This finding is supported by researchers who found an important and positive effect on customer satisfaction (Jun and Cai, 2001; Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Joseph et al., 2005). Also, study by Al-Hawary et al., (2011) reported that responsiveness has a positive and significant effect on customer satisfaction. Reasons for this positive influence is that guests in the four star hotels found the employees always willing to help and reactive to their requests and complaints. Glaveli et al. (2006) highlighted the speed of service delivery enhanced perception of service quality while Joseph et al. (2005) indicated that "no waiting time" raised customers' satisfaction level.

From the results, it is concluded that customer satisfaction has an insignificant influence on complain intention and that complain intention also insignificantly influence customer loyalty. This is the inverse of what other researchers have found, that is, consumers who are more satisfied complain less and are more likely to repurchase, that is, complaint strengthen loyalty (Evardsson et al., 2003). From the literature, it has been proven that dissatisfied customers tend to be less committed and certainly disloyal to the service and its provider (Cho et al., 2004). The reason could be that the guests' intentions to complain are very low, that is, they prefer to take private action like warning their relatives and friends about the bad service and decide not to stay in that hotel again (Customer Complaint Behavior model of Day and Landon (1977) and Exit, voice and loyalty theory by Hirschman(1970)).

Lastly, the findings suggest that customer satisfaction positively and significantly influences customer loyalty. This positive result was supported by Kandampully and Suhartanto (2000). Also, Bowen and Chen (2001) pointed out that a small increase of customer satisfaction leads customer loyalty dramatically. Literature also proves that customer satisfaction leads to repeat purchases, loyalty and to customer retention (Zairi, 2000).

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The study was conducted to test a model of SERVQUAL dimensions, customer satisfaction, complain intention and customer loyalty in four star hotels in Mauritius. Based on the literature review, eight research hypotheses were developed and the results are as follows. The results show support for only four hypotheses that is for Ha₁, Ha₃, Ha₅ and Ha₇. The hypotheses Ha₁, Ha₃ and Ha₅ indicate that they positively and significantly influence customer satisfaction. In addition, Ha₇ indicates that customer satisfaction positively and significantly influences customer loyalty.

These findings can be theoretically and practically implemented on other service industries like airlines, banking, transportation, health and telecommunication, and apart from that to businesses which give due importance to relational marketing. Also, managers of these firms must be able to understand those four concepts - service quality, customer satisfaction, complain intention and loyalty for the success and growth of their businesses. Their focal point should not only be on the hotel's objective of maximizing profits, but the managers must also look into the needs of the customers as well and this can be achieved by highlighting all the SERVQUAL dimensions in maintaining and improving the quality of service they offer.

Responsiveness and reliability dimensions were considered as the most important factors influencing customer satisfaction. Managerial implication is that hotel managers should recommend effective recruitment and extensive customer-relations training programs for all the employees as they are the ones who have direct contact with the guests. Therefore, managers should ensure that employees offer professional and personalized services to the guests and pay more attention to their needs. By doing this, the hotel's core competency in customer satisfaction will strengthen. Another important aspect to look at is employee motivation as according to Albrecht (1985) satisfied employees have all the means to make customers happy by offering superior quality service and thus reducing the occurrence of complaints substantially.

Moreover, customer satisfaction was seen as a good predictor for customer loyalty, meaning that satisfied customers are more likely to be loyal to the hotel. Jones and Sasser (1995) pointed out that there is a huge difference between merely satisfied and completely satisfied

customers. Thus, managers should focus on the absolute customer satisfaction. Loyal programs can be used as a tool to retain customer. The main objective should be to retain the existing customers by developing a long-term relationship. The researcher also recommends hotel managers to review their guest's satisfaction surveys and include the similar items displayed on the questionnaires as they are precise and reliable scales. New technologies and innovative equipments could also be incorporated as an aspect to assess service quality in future researches. Therefore, the key success for any hotels is their loyal customers. The customers, who stay in a particular hotel, consider switching hotel as a threat. The hotel must be able to understand the guests' needs as they are becoming more and more educated and knowledgeable and their demand is also on an increasing trend and constantly changing. This will in turn make them become more devoted to the organization. In summary, considering the relationships among the SERVQUAL dimensions, customer satisfaction and customer loyalty will help managers make decisions and plan their strategies in this competitive environment.

For the first model which predicted customer satisfaction, there was 55% of the variance explained and the other unexplored variables (45%) could be used for future research. Future researches, may consider more factors, like SERVQUAL attributes by Sasser, Olsen and Wyckoff (1978), corporate image, location, price, staff attitude and other variables which influence customer satisfaction. The second model which predicted customer complain intention was rejected due to insignificant F-value. In order to understand more the relationship customer satisfaction and complain intention, other variables should be included. Concerning the third model which predicted customer loyalty, 19% of the variance has been explained. The other variables (81%) that have not been accounted for in this study could be included in future studies. Such variables may include moderator factors and looking forward

to indirect or direct relationship towards customer loyalty. These factors could be considered for better prediction of the model. Several issues, associated with the limitations in this study, require further research considerations. Future research should concentrate on a bigger sample size to find out more about service quality, customer satisfaction, complain intention and customer loyalty in Mauritius. Moreover, socio-demographics variables such as education have not been taken into consideration. Caruana (2002) stated that education and age are found to be salient segmentation variables.

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Analyzing Sustainable Tourism Practices for the Hotel Industry of Mauritius

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ABSTRACT

Introduction – It has been outlined by many researchers, scholars, and professionals of the tourism industry that it is crucial to promote sustainable tourism practices in hotels. The various sectorial issues namely energy consumption, water consumption, climate change, biodiversity conservation and social integration are being taken into consideration to promote the concept of sustainable tourism in island economies.

Purpose - The purpose of this study is to identify the factors contributing towards sustainable tourism concept and to explore employees' perceptions on energy saving, water conservation and resource management practices of hotels on Mauritius.

Design/Methodology/Approach – This paper reports upon the empirical findings of an employee survey through the survey method. The survey instruments have been administered to the hotel staff of three hotels, namely, Five Star Business, Five Star Luxury and Five Star Hotels.

Findings – Empirical results have demonstrated that the majority of respondents have shared favourable views about sustainable tourism practices of the three categories of hotels. There is also enough empirical evidence in the research demonstrating that hotels are adopting efficient energy saving, water conservation and resource management practices in Mauritius.

Practical Implications – This research provides significant information on the various sustainable tourism practices that need to be highlighted in the emerging and booming tourism sector of island economies. The research provides valuable insights on employees' perception about sustainable tourism practices and strategies to better appeal to customers and other stakeholders in future.

Originality/Value – The paper aims to fill up significant gap in the literature on sustainable tourism in the context of developing countries like Mauritius. The study remains one of few research works designed to address sustainable tourism practices and the research on

sustainable tourism represents a new crossroad for tourism practitioners in developing nations.

KEYWORDS Sustainable Tourism, Practices, Employees' Perception, Mauritius

INTRODUCTION

International Tourism increasingly affects every corner of the globe, while its growth is significant in Western Europe and other developed countries; international tourism growth in developing countries such as Mauritius, Seychelles, Maldives amongst others is even more impressive. The industry's deleterious effects to the environment, economy and society were inevitable especially in those countries where tourism activities were most rapidly expanding. UNWTO has determined that tourism is a primary source of foreign exchange earnings (UNWTO, 2007c; UNDP 2005). According to Hall and Coles (2008a, b), tourism has the potential to lift people out of poverty through the provision of employment and entrepreneurial opportunities and the recognition of tourism's role in environmental, economic and societal well-being has made it a substantial contribution to the achievement of the United Nation's Millennium Development Goals (UNWTO 2007c). Additionally, International competition and customer demands are forcing radical changes to occur in the tourism industry. As a result, hotels and resorts worldwide that are realizing the importance of being part of the global market are searching for innovative methods and measures to increase their competitive power since it is the 'survival of the fittest' that prevails. Terms such as environment policy, energy efficiency and recycling, energy management, water consumption, management of social and cultural issues, ecosystem and biodiversity conservation, green purchasing amongst others have emerged. In order to reinforce the concept of sustainable tourism, based on Agenda 21, the Hotel Catering and Institutional

Management Association (HCIMA) and the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) have established initiatives in their concern for the triple bottom line. Various Sustainable Tourism practices have been developed worldwide. Hence, the paper aims at investigating the contribution of sustainable tourism practices and it further explores employees' perceptions on the extent to which hotels are adopting energy saving, water conservation and efficient resource management practices in Mauritius. This paper contributes to the empirical scarce literature on sustainable tourism by providing meaningful insights into the adoption of sustainable tourism practices of hotels in for the booming and emerging tourism sector of Mauritius.

Objectives of the Study

The primary objective of the research aims to explore sustainable tourism practices for hotels in Mauritius. The main objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To explore the factors that contribute towards sustainable tourism practices for the hotel sector of Mauritius.
2. To examine the extent to which hotels adopt green marketing and purchasing practices
3. To determine the degree to which hotels adopt energy, water conservation and efficient resource management practices in Mauritius.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Outset of Sustainable Tourism Practices and Contributing Factors

Our Common Future, also known as the Bruntland Report was published by the World Commission on the Environment and Development (WCED) in 1987. This report

solemnized the concept of sustainability as a global issue. According to various studies, sustainability has become an important topic and concept in relation to the tourism industry (Inskeep 1991; Southgate and Sharpley 2002; Bramwell and Yuksel 1999). Gunn (1994) has mentioned that there is no other form of development “that has so many far reaching tentacles as does tourism”. Choi and Sikara (2006) have supplemented this idea by pointing forward that if development was planned improperly it could destroy the very resources that are the foundation of tourism in a community. In the late 1980s, the governments of most countries as well as the United Nations observed the increase in global tourism and the industry’s lethal effects towards the environment and the society of those countries in which it was expanding rapidly. It thus becomes of utmost importance to have the engagement of various stakeholders of the tourism industry.

Stakeholder Engagement and Rationale behind Sustainable Tourism

According to Gunn (1994), one of the main key to the success and implementation of sustainable tourism development in community is the support of stakeholders (e.g. citizens, entrepreneurs, and community leaders). Tourism has as main priority the aim to become a feasible ecological activity, breeding a change in the mentality, practices and ethics that tourists’ destinations have in order to foster a beneficial management of the triple bottom line. This can be done by working in close collaboration with all the stakeholders whilst ensuring sustainability along the tourism supply chain. Hotels alone have been shown to have the highest negative influence on the environment of all commercial buildings (Bohdanowicz *et al.* 2004) and thus require much consideration so that hotel construction, design and development is carried out with the minimal depletion of natural resources hence preserving biodiversity, land as well as the natural environment. According to Lee (2003), from a societal horizon, sustainable tourism is the main prospect to alleviate poverty in

developing nations, with the potential to make a major contribution to sustainable development in general. Sustainable tourism thus contributes to the community well-being while also considering the economic development of the nations. Lee (2003) further added that businesses that embrace the sustainability agenda are dramatically enhancing the way they raise environmental awareness, economical, ethical and social issues, not just among staff, but among suppliers, guests, visitors and the local community. Additionally, in the business community, sustainability is coined as the triple bottom line expressing that industry has to expand the traditional economy, has to include environmental and social dimensions so as to create a more sustainable business.

The Concept of Sustainable Tourism

The concept of sustainable tourism has become a key ingredient in the nation's tourism strategy (Joanne Connel et al, 2009, p 867) but in some countries the concept is being wrongly used. According to Bramwell (2004) and Stabler (1997), Government, at all level, has been criticized for hijacking or even abusing the term "sustainable" to legitimize tourism development and for using it as a political slogan. As such, government policies and plans for sustainable tourism development have been described as little more than statements of platitudes and rhetoric, backed by glossy images (Berke & Manta Conroy, 2000; Pforr, 2001) and thus making sustainable tourism a marketing tool or even for branding the industry. However, according to Carrigan and De Pelsmacker (2009, p. 683): "*Those firms who treat sustainability as an opportunity, rather than a costly add on, are most likely to reap the rewards long term by exploiting the opportunity*" it brings to differentiate them from competitors. A mitigation strategy suggested to overcome this problem was to legislate professional standards for the tourism industry.

Sustainability Program and Sustainable Tourism Indicators

Sustainability programs vary greatly on target, conceptualization, measurement and aggregation. These programs all divide sustainability or greenness into categories or components, as the one point that is in universal agreement is that tourism sustainability is a concept comprising multiple dimensions (Bowman, 2011). The various programs include the Costa Rican CST program, Australia's Nature and Ecotourism Accreditation Program, ISO 26000: 2010 (Guidance on Social Responsibility), ISO 14001:2004 (Environment Management System), ISO 22000:2005 (Food Safety Management System) amongst others. Literature indicates that there is also a tendency by researchers to equate environmental sustainability with sustainable tourism development, so that socio cultural, political and to a lesser extent, the economic and management dimensions of sustainability are peripheralized. As such it became important to set indicators. Indicators will help to summarise or simplify relevant information, make visible or perceptible phenomenon of interest and thus quantify, assess, monitor, measure and communicate relevant information (Gallopín, 1997; Wight, 1998). After much perused, some authors have brought forward that sustainable tourism certification systems do encompass some lacuna. Criticism of Sustainable Tourism certification programme maintains both gradated and dichotomous dimensions which add an additional challenge the concept of sustainable Tourism. The majority of certification programmes in place do not account for both dimensions. Some sustainable tourism programmes are dichotomous such as Green Globe (Bowman 2011). According to Bowman (2011), a company should absolutely meet all of the benchmarks to receive the sustainable certification logo or they do not. Bowman (2011) thus put forward that there is no theoretical fidelity to the sustainable Tourism certification programme.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In line with this study's main objective of demonstrating whether sustainable tourism certification is necessary to demonstrate sustainable tourism practices for hotels in Mauritius, the survey method was adopted and a structured questionnaire comprising of several sections was developed. The pretesting of the questionnaire was carried out among 10 employees of the three hotels who were chosen randomly resulting in some minor modifications of the wordings of some survey items. Internal consistency and reliability of the scale was measured by the use of Cronbach's Alpha (Hair *et al.*, 2000).

Sampling plan

Given that the main purpose of the paper is to demonstrate whether sustainable tourism certification is necessary to demonstrate sustainable tourism practices for hotels in Mauritius, the target population consists of hotel employees of hotels.. However, the target group for this study has consisted of hotel staffs of three hotels, namely, Five Star Business, Five Star Luxury and Five Star Hotels. Hotel A (Five Star Business Hotel) consists of 328 staffs, Hotel B (Five Star Luxury Hotel) consists of 465 staffs and Hotel C (Five Star Hotel) consists of 270 staffs. Staff of each hotel has been split to 4 categories:

1. Managerial
2. Supervisory
3. Front liner
4. Operational Level

The staffs are further divided into departments namely Front Office, Housekeeping, Food & Beverages, Maintenance, Administrative & Others. Others includes department such as Spa, Recreational & Entertainment, Accounting & Auditing, Information Technology.

For the purpose of this study, staffs from Managerial, supervisory and Front liner were targeted. Hotels A and C have an environment team which consists of managers, supervisors and Front liners, representing each department. The team is responsible for sustainability issues of the business. Thus, this stratified sample method is being considered as the population to calculate the sample size. Hotel B has no environment team; however the same technique was adopted to calculate the sample size. The population for Hotel B consisted of employees forming part of managerial, supervisory level and front liners from each department. As Hotel staffs belong to three different categories and form part of different departments, a stratified random sampling was found appropriate. It is worth noting that gender as a demographic variable was also taken into consideration while determining the sample size. Owing to the need for a relatively large sample size while at the same time keeping the research costs down, the sample size of this study amounted to 110 hotel staff through the random sampling technique and the response rate amounted to 98.2%. Below is a summary table used to determine the sample size:

Hotels	Confidence Level (%)	Population Size	Sample size for finite population, n	Confidence Interval of +/-10
A Five Star Business Hotel	95	45		31
B Five Star Luxury Hotel	95	53		34
C Five Star Hotel	95	85		45
TOTAL		178		110

Internal Consistency of the Questionnaire

The Cronbach's alpha value for the entire questionnaire was 0.810 and such a high figure designates that the questionnaire is a good indicator of what the researcher wants to investigate. According to Hair *et al.* (1995), a coefficient of less than 0.6 indicates marginal to low internal consistency and a value of 0.60 or more indicates satisfactory internal consistency (Churchill, 1979).

Hypothesis Development

Hypothesis 1 - Increase in Environment Consciousness and Sustainable Tourism Practices.

According to Bohdanowicz *et al.* (2004), hotels alone have been shown to have the highest negative influence on the environment of all commercial buildings and thus require much consideration so that hotel construction, design & development as well as service provision is carried out with the minimal depletion of natural resources hence preserving biodiversity, land, natural environment and climate change while making efficient use of energy & water. Based on the above literature, Hypothesis 1 has been developed:

H₀: There is no significant relationship between an increase in environment consciousness and sustainable tourism practices.

H₁: There is a significant relationship between an increase in environment consciousness and sustainable tourism practices.

Hypothesis 2 - Community/Social Integration Practices and Sustainable Tourism Practices

According to Lee (2003), from a societal horizon, sustainable tourism is the main prospect to alleviate poverty in developing nations, like Mauritius, with the potential to make a major

contribution to sustainable development in general. Sustainable tourism thus contributes to the community well-being while also considering the economic development of the nations. It addresses programs which help local communities to thrive, contribute to the good of the society while enhancing economic development as well as employees' talent and knowledge development. The aspects of green marketing and green purchasing amongst others also contribute to the societal development of the tourism industry. Built on this literature, Hypothesis 2 was developed.

H₀: There is no significant relationship between community/social integration practices and sustainable tourism practices.

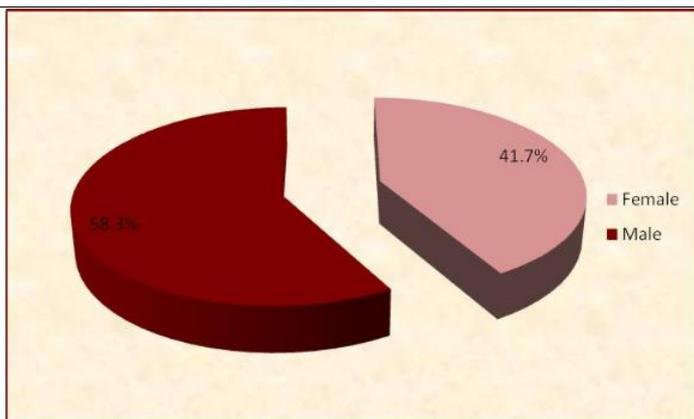
H₁: There is a significant relationship between community/social integration practices and sustainable tourism practices.

DATA ANALYSIS

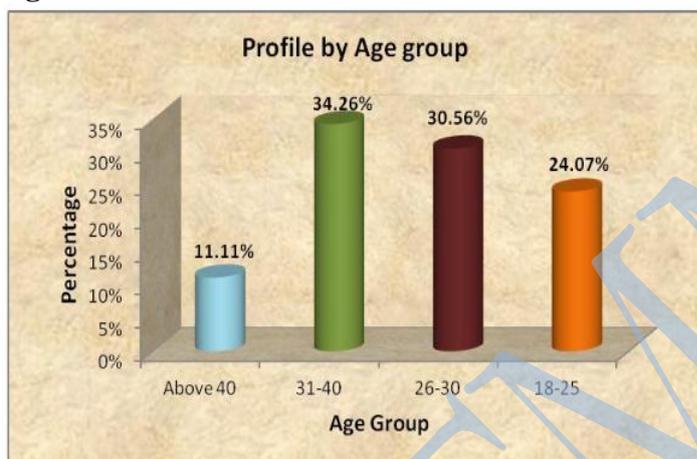
Graphical illustrations were used to analyse the demographic profile of the respondents and a series of cross tabulations were drawn to further analyse the data collected from the three hotels. Graphical illustrations such as bar charts and pie charts were used to provide an illustration of the adoption of sustainable practices for the three hotels. The Pearson correlation analysis, Chi square test and Spearman correlation test were performed to test the associations of relationships between the variables related to sustainable tourism.

Demographic Analysis

Gender	<i>41.67 % were female and 58.33% were male.</i>
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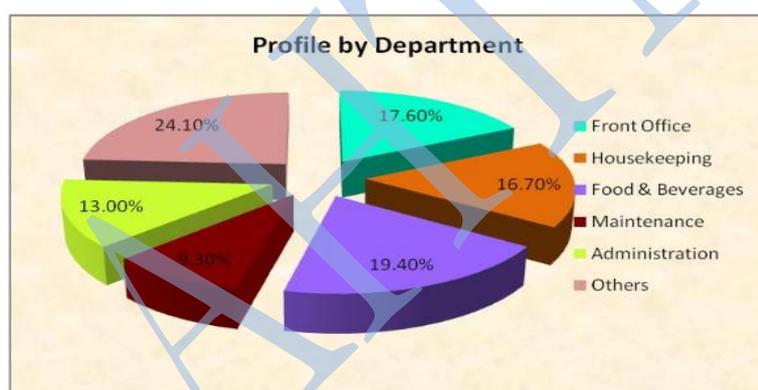


Age



34.26 % of the respondents are aged between 31 to 40 years, 30.56% are between 26 to 30 years, 24.07% are between 18 to 25 years and only 11.11% are above 40 years old.

Profile by Department



17.6% of the respondents were from the Front Office, 16.7% were from Housekeeping, 19.4% were from F&B, 9.3% were from Maintenance, 13% from Administration. The remaining 24.1% of respondents are from Spa, Recreational & Entertainment, Accounting & Auditing, and Information Technology..

Profile by position of respondent in the Hotel

13.89% of the respondents have less than 1 year experience, 23.15% have between 10 to 19 years of service, only 0.93% has above 20 years of experience while the big majority has between 1 to 9 years of experience.

<p>Profile by position of respondent in the Hotel</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Position</th> <th>Percentage</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Managerial</td> <td>34.26%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Supervisory</td> <td>37.96%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Front Liner</td> <td>27.78%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Position	Percentage	Managerial	34.26%	Supervisory	37.96%	Front Liner	27.78%			
Position	Percentage										
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<p>Profile by years of Experience</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Experience Level</th> <th>Percentage</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Above 20 years</td> <td>0.93%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10 to 19 years</td> <td>23.15%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>1 to 9 years</td> <td>62.04%</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Less than 1 year</td> <td>13.89%</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Experience Level	Percentage	Above 20 years	0.93%	10 to 19 years	23.15%	1 to 9 years	62.04%	Less than 1 year	13.89%	<p><i>13.89% of the respondents have less than 1 year experience, 23.15% have between 10 to 19 years of service, only 0.93% has above 20 years of experience while the big majority has between 1 to 9 years of experience.</i></p>
Experience Level	Percentage										
Above 20 years	0.93%										
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1 to 9 years	62.04%										
Less than 1 year	13.89%										

Part B: Empirical Survey Findings

Employee Perceptions on Corporate Social Responsibility Plan and an Environmental Plan

<p>The Hotel has a Corporate Social Responsibility Plan and an Environmental Plan. * The Hotel is categorized as: 1. 5 star Business hotel, 2. 5 Star luxury Hotel, 3. 5 Star Hotel Crosstabulation</p>		
	<p>The Hotel is categorized as: 1. 5 star Business hotel, 2. 5 Star luxury Hotel, 3. 5 Star Hotel</p>	<p>Total</p>

		5 Star Business Hotel	5 Star luxury Hotel	5 Star Hotel	
The Hotel has a Corporate Social Responsibility Plan and an Environmental Plan.	Strongly Agree	26.2%	14.0%	15.0%	55.1%
	Agree	13.1%	10.3%	15.0%	38.3%
	Neutral	0.0%	4.7%	0.9%	5.6%
	Disagree	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	0.9%
Total		39.3%	29.9%	30.8%	100.0%

Cross Tabulation: Hotel Category and Hotel has a Corporate Social Responsibility Plan and an Environmental Plan

Empirical findings have shown that on an average 39.3% of respondents from 5 Star Business Hotel, 24.3% of respondents from 5 star Luxury Hotel and 30% of respondents from 5 Star Hotel respectively have stated that the hotel has a CSR plan and an Environmental. It is worth noting that a well written CSR & Environmental policy will define and clearly communicate the Hotels' goals and objectives as they relate to the business' environmental, socio-cultural, and economic performance. The primary purpose of the CSR & Environment plan is to guide decision-making, management, and the daily operations of the Hotel in a sustainable manner.

Monitoring of Customer Satisfaction

The Hotel has a mechanism in place to measure its level of customer satisfaction. * The Hotel is categorized as: 1. 5 star Business hotel, 2. 5 Star luxury Hotel, 3. 5 Star Hotel				
Crosstabulation				
The Hotel is categorized as:				Total
5 Star Business Hotel	5 Star luxury Hotel	5 Star Hotel		

The Hotel has a mechanism in place to measure its level of customer satisfaction	Strongly Agree	25.5%	23.6%	19.8%	68.9%
	Agree	12.3%	5.7%	10.4%	28.3%
	Disagree	1.9%	0.9%	0.0%	2.8%
Total		39.6%	30.2%	30.2%	100%

Cross Tabulation: Hotel Category and Hotel has a mechanism in place to measure its level of customer satisfaction

The above table has shown that the majority of respondents from 5 Star Business Hotel, 5 Star Luxury Hotel and 5 Star Hotel have stated that the hotel has a mechanism in place to measure customer satisfaction. Hence, irrespective of the category of Hotel, customer satisfaction is given due consideration. However, the empirical estimates have shown that the 5 Star Business Hotel pays more attention to customer satisfaction measurement showing that hotels acknowledge that customer perception and expectation is of great importance to the business. During the visit at the 3 Hotels, opportunity was given to have a look at the customer feedback form. One section was allocated on the views of customers on sustainable tourism. Thus, if properly given due consideration, Hotels will be able to take customers' suggestions into consideration so as to better embrace the concept of sustainable tourism.

Consideration of Customer Feedback/Suggestions in the Hotels

Customer feedbacks/ suggestions are given due consideration at the Hotel. * The Hotel is categorized as: 1. 5 star Business hotel, 2. 5 Star luxury Hotel, 3. 5 Star Hotel				
Crosstabulation				
	The Hotel is categorized as:			Total
	5 Star Business Hotel	5 Star luxury Hotel	5 Star Hotel	

Customer feedbacks/ suggestions are given due consideration at the Hotel.	Strongly Agree	27.6%	21.9%	21.0%	70.5%
	Agree	11.4%	7.6%	8.6%	27.6%
	Neutral	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.0%
	Disagree	0.0%	1.0%	0.0%	1.0%
Total		40.0%	30.5%	29.5%	100.0%

Cross Tabulation: Hotel Category and Customer feedbacks/ suggestions are given due consideration at the Hotel

We can deduce from the above table that, on average, 40% from 5 Star Business Hotel, 29.5% (21.9%+ 7.6%) from 5 Star luxury Hotel and 29.5% from 5 Star Hotel are agreeable to the fact that customer feedback/suggestion are given due consideration in the hotels. It be concluded that customers' satisfaction are eagerly sought in order to foment continued travel to a destination through return visits and word of mouth communication.

Additionally, the customer provides a unique vantage point on the business' operations that the management and business employees may not be able to provide. The customer satisfaction measurement tool used to monitor customers' satisfaction with internal operations; relations with the community and other stakeholders, and the effectiveness of sustainable programs enable the Hotel to make improvements on a regular basis.

Provision of accurate information on the promotion going on through the use of eco-friendly means such as websites and usage of recycled paper for advertising brochure

The Hotel provides accurate information on the promotion going on through the use of eco- friendly means such as websites and usage of recycled paper for advertising brochure. * The Hotel is categorized as: Crosstabulation		
	The Hotel is categorized as:	Total

		5 Star Business hotel	5 Star luxury Hotel	5 Star Hotel	
The Hotel provides accurate information on the promotion going on through the use of eco- friendly means such as websites and usage of recycled paper for advertising brochure.	Strongly Agree	10.2%	3.7%	13.9%	27.8%
	Agree	25.9%	21.3%	15.7%	63.0%
	Neutral	2.8%	4.6%	1.9%	9.3%
Total		38.9%	29.6%	31.5%	100.0%

Cross Tabulation: Hotel Category and provision of accurate information on the promotion going on through the use of eco- friendly means such as websites and usage of recycled paper for advertising brochure

The analysis has demonstrated that the majority of respondents have positive views on the provision of accurate information pertaining to the promotion going on through the use of eco- friendly means such as websites and usage of recycled paper for advertising brochure and in turn, the survey findings reflect the responsible and sustainable strategies that the 3 Hotels have undertaken as part of their marketing strategies.

Communication Platform For Business Goals, Mission Statement, Environment Policy, Quality Policy & Customer Charter

The Hotel has a communication platform to communicate well on its business goals, Mission Statement, Environment Policy, Quality Policy & Customer Charter. * The Hotel is categorized as: Crosstabulation					
		The Hotel is categorized as:			
		5 Star Business Hotel	5 Star luxury Hotel	5 Star Hotel	Total

The Hotel has a communication platform to communicate well on its business goals, mission statement, environment policy, quality policy & customer charter.	Strongly Agree	19.4%	9.3%	13.9%	42.6%
	Agree	18.5%	18.5%	16.7%	53.7%
	Neutral	0.9%	1.9%	0.9%	3.7%
Total		38.9%	29.6%	31.5%	100.0%

Cross Tabulation: Hotel Category and a communication platform to communicate well on its business goals, Mission Statement, Environment Policy, Quality Policy & Customer Charter

From the data gathered, it has been found that the majority of respondents from 5 Star Business Hotel, 5 Star luxury Hotel and 5 Star Hotel have stated that the hotel have a communication platform to communicate well on its business goals, mission statement, environment policy, quality policy and customer charter. Therefore, the hotels have a well written Communications Strategy. It is important that all stakeholders including management, employees, customers and the local community understand the business' goals and objectives, why they are important, and how they can positively contribute to the hotels' efforts in each of their individual roles.

Adoption of Sound Community Integration Practices

The Hotel adopts sound community integration practices such as employing the neighborhood, placement opportunities to local community, provision of academic scholarship for community development and financing social events in the locality * The Hotel is categorized as: Crosstabulation				
			The Hotel is categorized as:	
			5 star Business hotel	5 Star luxury Hotel
			5 Star Hotel	Total

The Hotel adopts sound community integration practices such as employing the neighborhood, placement opportunities to local community, provision of academic scholarship for community development and financing social events in the locality	Strongly Agree	6.5%	6.5%	9.3%	22.2%
	Agree	21.3%	20.4%	19.4%	61.1%
	Neutral	10.2%	2.8%	2.8%	15.7%
	Disagree	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%
Total		38.9%	29.6%	31.5%	100.0%

Cross Tabulation: Hotel Category and Adoption of sound community integration practices

The findings have revealed that the majority of respondents have stated that the hotel adopts sound community integration practices such as employing the neighborhood, placement opportunities to local community, provision of academic scholarship for community development and financing social events in the locality. In this respect, the hotels have undertaken opportunities on a regular basis to provide resources, education, training, financial assistance, or in-kind support for initiatives in accordance with community priorities to improve the local livelihoods, thereby engendering community support for operations and creating a better customer experience. Local hiring and training shows that the Hotels are maximizing community economic benefit and fostering community involvement as well as integration with the business. In addition, by providing jobs at all levels of management, the 3 Hotels are ensuring that the local population does not feel disenfranchised and can provide a sufficient dialogue between the business' ownership and the community. Adherence to employment of student of the locality, above 18 years, ensures their education, enabling them to be future productive members of their community and enhances their quality of life.

Adoption of relevant measures to mitigate the impact of activities on the local neighbourhood

The Hotel is categorized as: 1. 5 star Business hotel, 2. 5 Star luxury Hotel, 3. 5 Star Hotel * The Hotel adopts relevant measures to mitigate the impact of its activities on the local neighborhood with respect to sanitation, access to beaches, water & energy availability. Crosstabulation						
		The Hotel adopts relevant measures to mitigate the impact of its activities on the local neighbourhood with respect to sanitation, access to beaches, water & energy availability.				Total
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	
The Hotel is categorized as:	5 Star Business Hotel	3.8%	20.8%	14.2%	0.9%	39.6%
	5 Star luxury Hotel	4.7%	18.9%	5.7%	0.0%	29.2%
	5 Star Hotel	4.7%	20.8%	5.7%	0.0%	31.1%
Total		13.2%	60.4%	25.5%	0.9%	100.0%

Cross Tabulation: Hotel Category and Adoption of relevant measures to mitigate the impact of activities on the local neighborhood

Empirical findings have shown that the majority of respondents, that is, 73.6 % (13.2%+60.4) of the respondents are of the opinion that the hotel adopts relevant measures to mitigate the impact of its activities on the local neighborhood with respect to sanitation, access to beaches, water & energy availability. In most cases, Tourism businesses alter, disrupt or strain community infrastructure and basic services, adversely impacting local users and communities. In some cases, service providers, such as utility suppliers may favor businesses over local populations. However, during a visit carried out at the individual hotel it has been found that each of them have engaged themselves in regular communication with local communities so as to ensure that normal business operations enhance the socioeconomic and environmental character of the destination, do not reduce services available to the

community or increase their cost. This is communicated through the speech of managers and CEO whenever social events are organised with the locality or during any CSR events.

Adoption of Ethical Recruitment Practices in Hotels

The Hotel adopts ethical recruitment practices with respect to gender, ethnicity and physically disabled. * The Hotel is categorized as: Cross tabulation					
		The Hotel is categorized as:			Total
		5 star Business hotel	5 Star luxury Hotel	5 Star Hotel	
The Hotel adopts ethical recruitment practices with respect to gender, ethnicity and physically disabled.	Strongly Agree	3.7%	11.1%	8.3%	23.1%
	Agree	22.2%	16.7%	17.6%	56.5%
	Neutral	11.1%	1.9%	5.6%	18.5%
	Disagree	1.9%	0.0%	0.0%	1.9%
Total		38.9%	29.6%	31.5%	100.0%

Cross Tabulation: Hotel Category and Hotel adopts ethical recruitment practices with respect to gender, ethnicity and physically disabled

From the above table, 23.1% of the respondents strongly agree, 56.5% agree, 18.5% are neutral while 1.9% disagrees that the hotel adopts ethical recruitment practices with respect to gender, ethnicity and physically disabled. The above data show to us that the 3 hotels have adopted equality in hiring policies which encourage an equitable distribution of wealth and closes income gaps along gender and ethnic lines.

Adoption of green purchasing measures and Usage of recyclable fax and printing paper

The Hotel is categorized as: 1. 5 star Business hotel, 2. 5 Star luxury Hotel, 3. 5 Star Hotel * The Hotel adopts green purchasing measures by supporting local entrepreneur and encouraging usage of recyclable fax and printing paper. Crosstabulation					
		The Hotel adopts green purchasing measures by supporting local entrepreneur and encouraging usage of recyclable fax and printing paper.			Total
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	
The Hotel is categorized as:	5 star Business hotel	25.7%	12.4%	1.9%	40.0%
	5 Star luxury Hotel	11.4%	16.2%	1.9%	29.5%
	5 Star Hotel	9.5%	19.0%	1.9%	30.5%
Total		46.7%	47.6%	5.7%	100.0%

Cross Tabulation: Hotel Category and adoption of green purchasing measures by supporting local entrepreneur and encouraging usage of recyclable fax and printing paper

Findings have demonstrated that the majority of respondents from 5 Star Business Hotel, 5 Star luxury Hotel and 5 Star Hotel have stated that the hotel adopts green purchasing measures by supporting local entrepreneur and encouraging usage of recyclable fax and printing paper. Therefore, it can be deduced that the hotels offer the means for local small entrepreneurs to develop and sell sustainable products that are based on the area's nature, history, and culture (including food and drink, crafts, performance arts, agricultural products, etc.). Additionally, this promote exposure of customers to the local culture and encourage the purchase of local crafts, goods and services which in turn help increase positive economic benefits to the community while engendering a sense of pride in cultural heritage. Working with local small entrepreneurs also helps diversify the product, thus increasing spending and length of stay. In some cases this can include designating a specific area on the premises for use by local entrepreneurs or promoting local cultural activities that are open to the public.

Adoption of Energy Conservation Practices

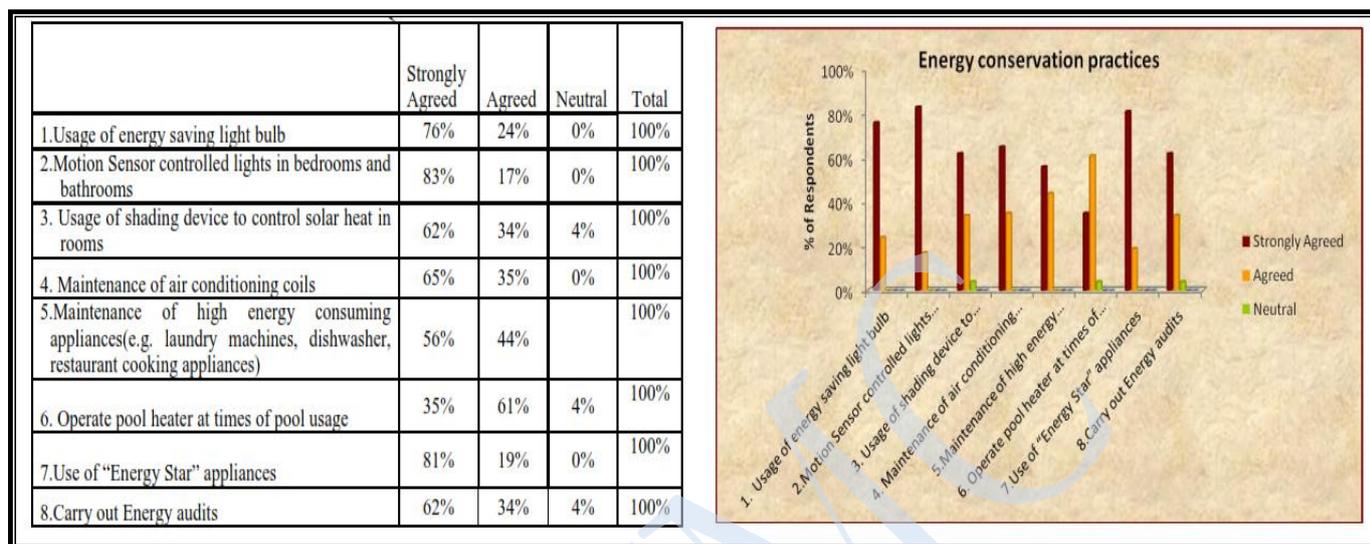


Table: Adoption of Energy Conservation Practices

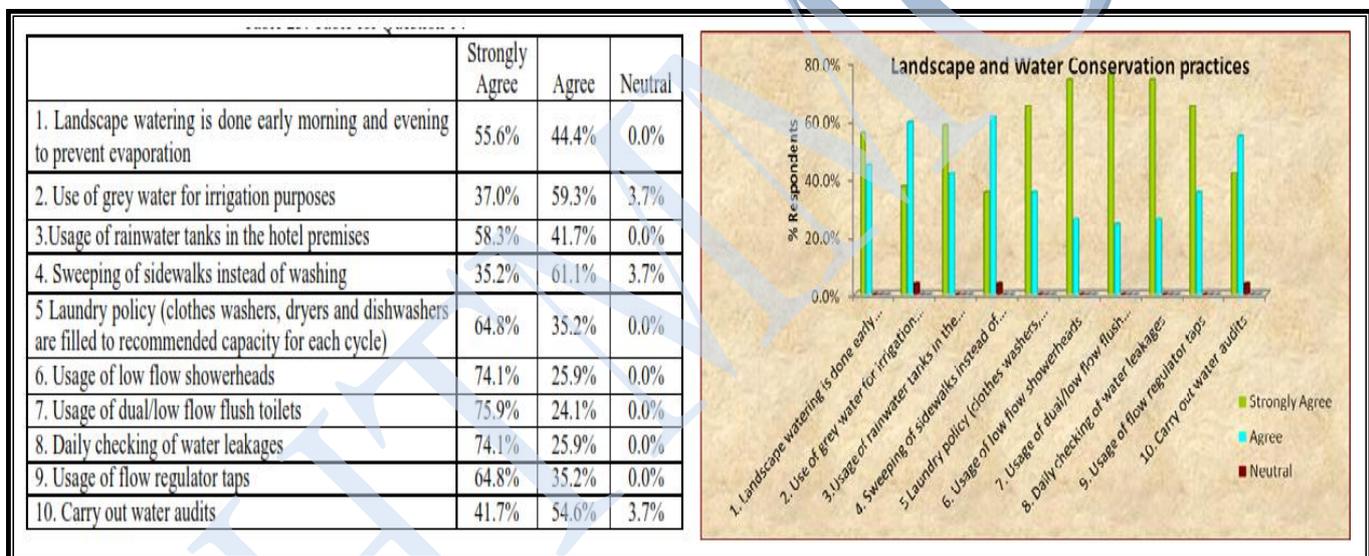
Empirical survey findings have shown that the majority of respondents share favorable views on energy conservation practices of hotels. In this respect, it can be further deduced that the hotels are applying energy efficient practices in their daily operations. Similarly, the hotels are investing in new energy technologies in order to conserve natural resources, promote energy independence and reduce greenhouse gas emissions.

Moreover, it has been found that there is a strong positive relationship between the adoption of energy conservation practices and landscape and conservation practices of the hotels ($r = 0.679, p < 0.01$). Thus, it can be said that the 3 hotels have adopted appropriate measures in areas such as putting in place a laundry policy whereby clothes washers, dryers and dishwashers are filled to recommended capacity for each cycle. Additionally, it can also be argued that water consuming appliances in Food & Beverages department such as dishwashers, which form part of high energy consuming appliances, are being maintained at regular interval thus ensuring that energy is being consumed efficiently. Furthermore, the

maintenance department is effectively controlling the use the pool heater so as to ensure that the latter is being used only at time of pool usage hence ensuring that energy is being consumed effectively.

On the other hand, the Housekeeping department is most favoring sweeping of sidewalks instead of washing the latter. Thus usage of energy consuming appliances such as pressure washer is being avoided.

Adoption of Landscape and Water Conservation Practices

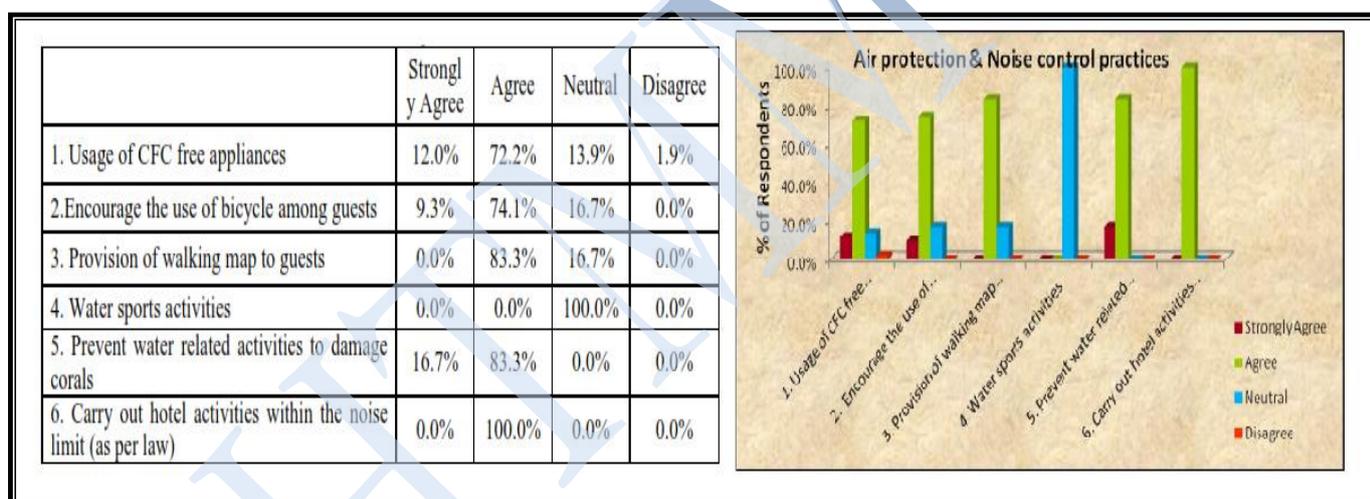


It is also interesting to note that the three hotels have reduced their overall water consumption to the minimum possible level necessary for adequate operations. Reducing water consumption through the above practices has also financial and environmental benefits for tourism businesses. It can also be deduced that a minority of respondents have neutral views on landscape and water conservation practices.

In addition, it has been found that there is a positive linear relation between **the adoption of energy conservation practices and efficient resource management practices ($r = 0.512$,**

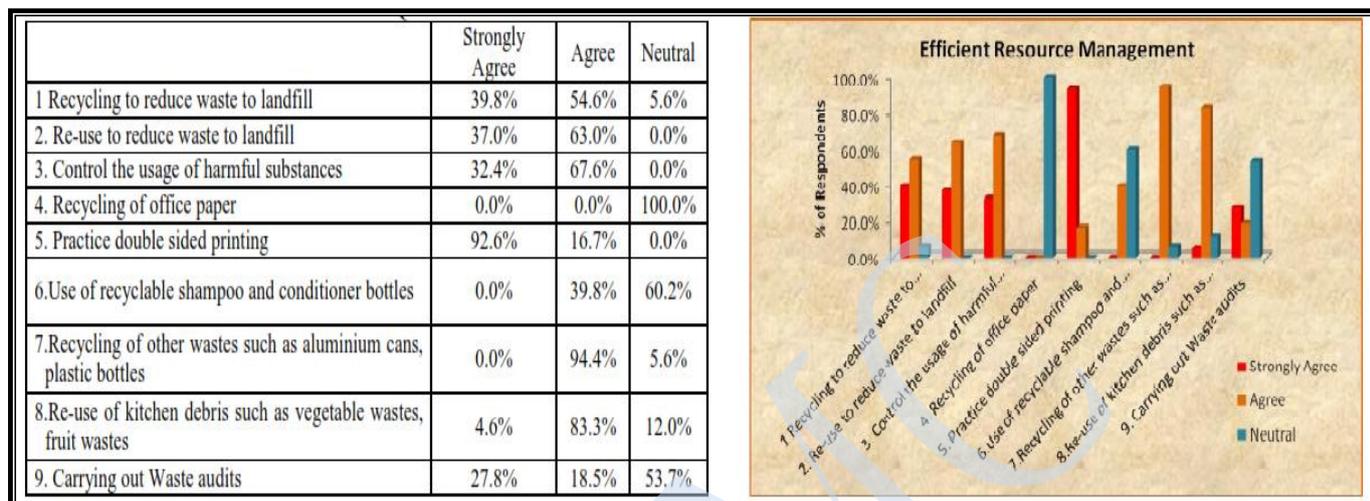
$p < 0.01$). Findings have shown that the 3 hotels are adopting efficient use of resources so as to decrease the use of water footprint. This can be associated with departments such as Housekeeping whereby there is a control over the use of harmful substances which in turn prevent discharge of the latter in form of grey water. This water then become safer for irrigation and hence helps in decreasing blue water footprint. During a visit at the hotels, it was observed that since grey water is free from effluent discharge, the latter is being used in toilet flush which helped the 3 hotels to decrease their blue water footprint drastically.

Adoption of Practices to Protect Air Quality and Ensure Noise Control



Survey findings have demonstrated that the majority of respondents share favorable views on the protection of air quality and noise control practices. The empirical estimates also provide a deep insight of the various practices being adopted to control air quality. That is, except for air transport, most of these emissions have been directly reduced by concrete actions from the hotels. It should also be noted that although each hotel has its own management practices, yet proper emission management practices help to reduce global warming, promote energy independence from foreign non-renewable sources, and may substantially reduce operational costs of the hotels.

Adoption of Efficient Resource Management Practices



Empirical findings have shown that the majority of the respondents share favourable views on the adoption of efficient resource management practices by hotels. Yet, it has been found that recycling of office paper, usage of recyclable shampoo conditioner bottles and waste audits appear to be a new concept in among the hotels.

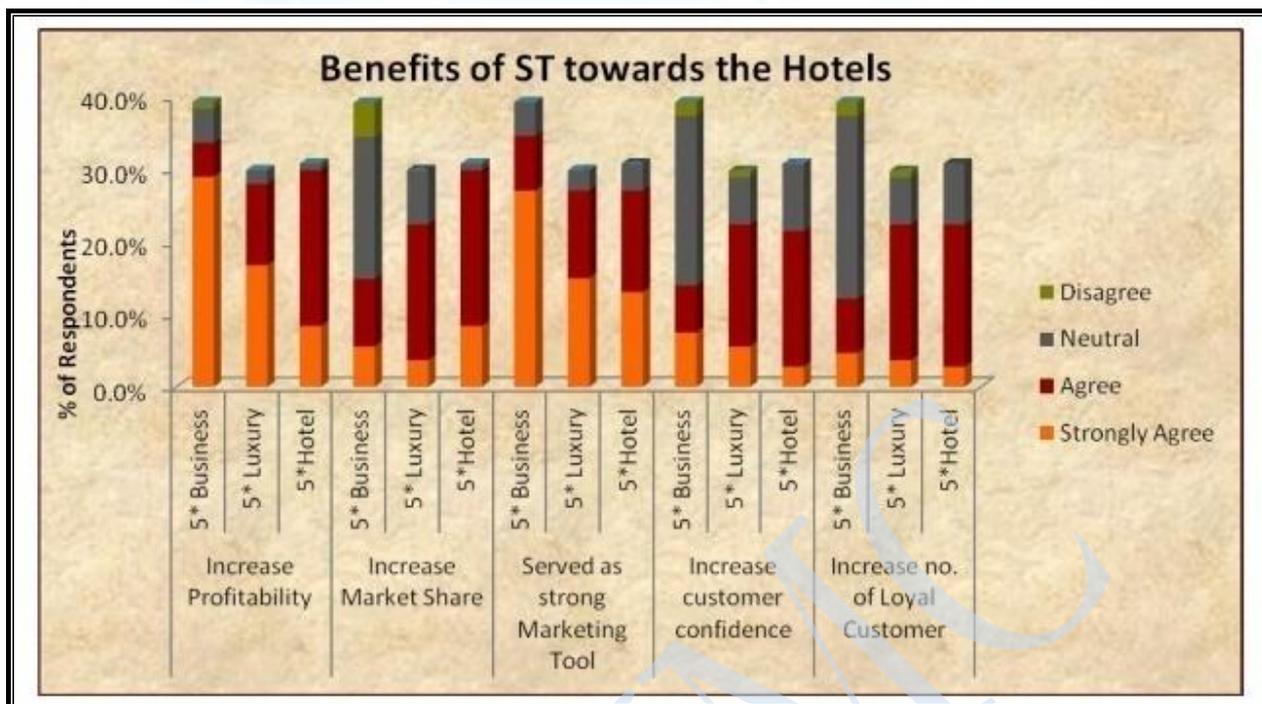
	Category of Hotel
The Hotel adopts energy conservation practices.	$(r = -0.013, p < 0.01)$
The hotel shows landscape and water conservation practices.	$(r = -0.007, p < 0.01)$
The hotel adopts the efficient resource management practices.	$(r = 0.272, p < 0.01)$

The correlation analysis has revealed that there is a weak negative correlation between category of hotel and adoption of energy conservation practices, landscape and water conservation practices and efficient resource management practices. However, there exists a weak positive linear relationship between efficient resource management and the category of hotel. This is because, irrespective of the category of hotel, that is, 5 star business, 5 Star

Luxury or a 5 Star Hotel, they all have their own unique measures being adopted to contribute to energy conservation, water conservation and efficient resource management. This is the case since strategies vary from one Hotel to another and these also depend on the room capacity of the hotels, average length of stay of customers etc. For example, the 5 Star Hotel has more room capacity followed by the 5 Star Business Hotel. Additionally, customers demand also contribute to the varying strategy, a percentage Star Business Hotel will have a higher Energy consumption rate due to excessive use of laptop, video conference equipment amongst others. The varying strategies justifies the weak correlation between these pairs of questions.

Significance/Benefits of Sustainable Tourism Practices for 5 Star Business, 4 Star Luxury and 5 Star Hotels

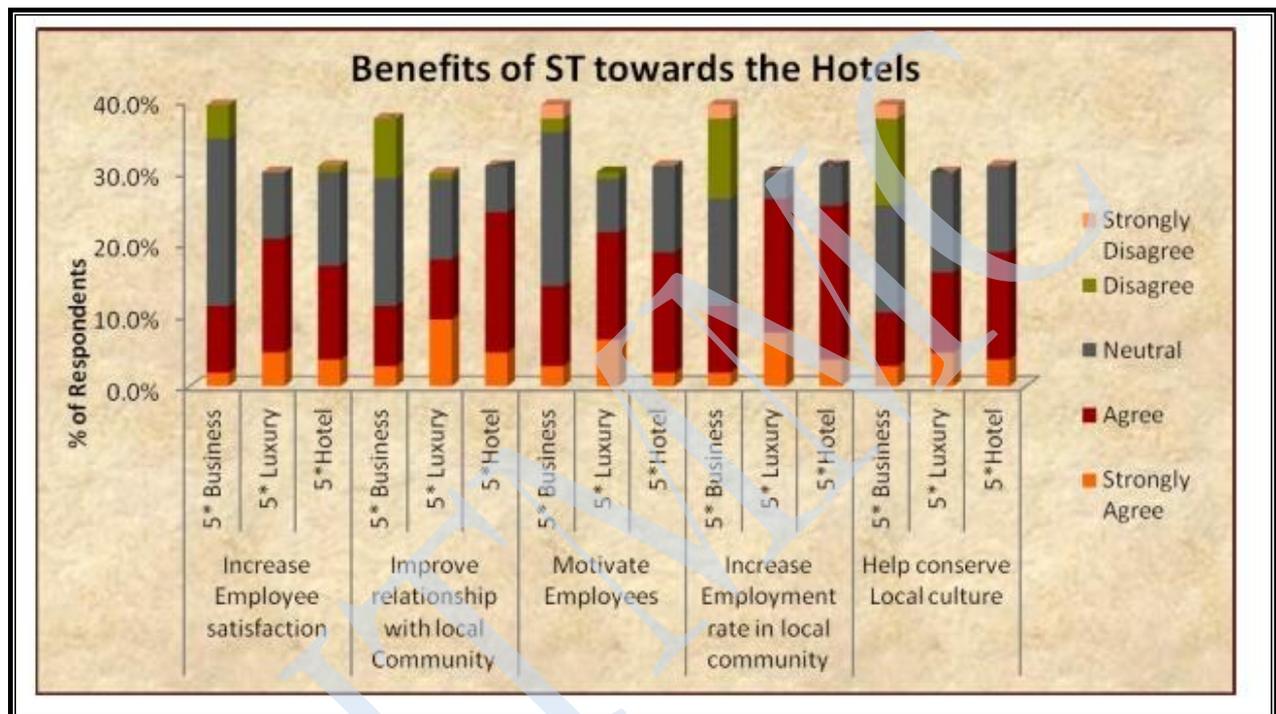
The survey findings have also revealed a comparative analysis of the significance of sustainable tourism practices for 5 Star Business, 5 Star Luxury and 5 Star Hotels. It is important to note that employees of the three hotels have stated that sustainable tourism has contributed positively towards the hotels as illustrated in the above chart.



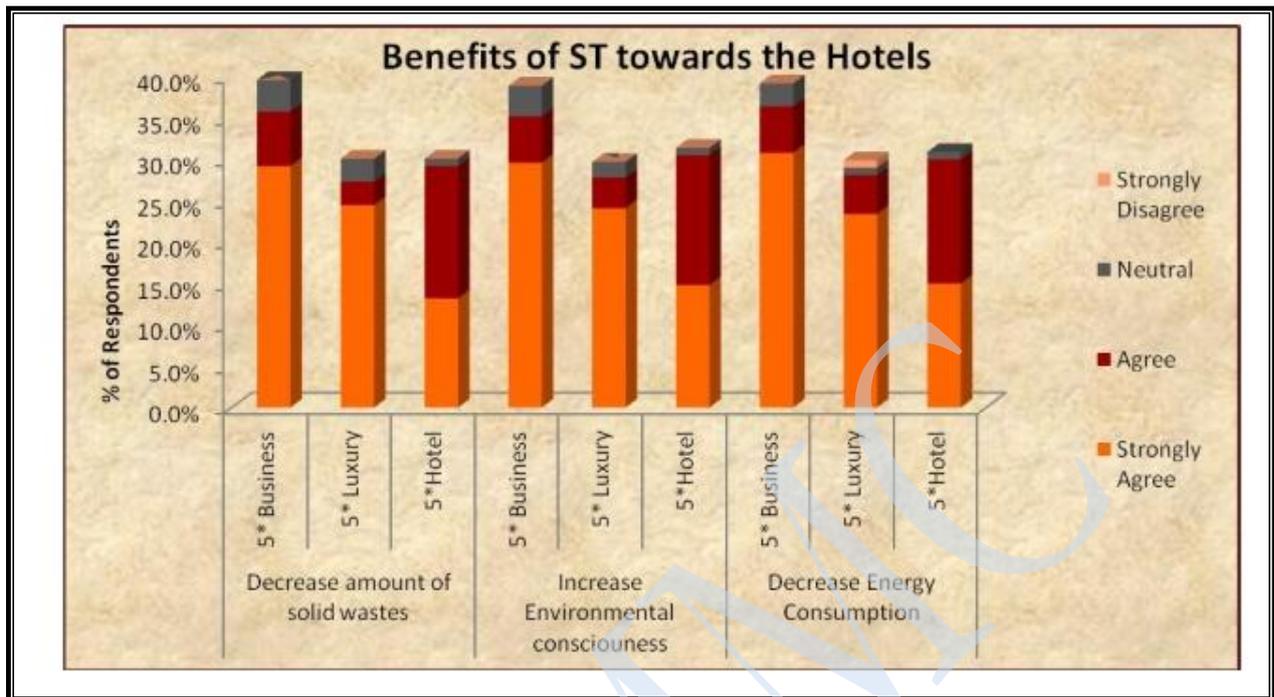
The majority of respondents from 5 Star Business Hotel and 5 Star Luxury Hotel strongly agree whilst only some respondents from 5 Star Hotel strongly agree that sustainable tourism practices have helped to increase the profitability of the business. As far as market share is concerned the majority of respondents from 5 Star Luxury and 5 Star Hotel are agreeable that ST practices have helped to increase same while those from 5 Star Business Hotel are fairly neutral to this statement and a little percentage disagree that ST has helped to increase market share of hotels. The reason behind might be that, Hotel C is the only 5 Star Business Hotel in the country and hence no visible change in market share is observed despite adopting ST practices whereas the other two categories of Hotel have fierce competitors in the industry. However, greater part of respondents agree to the fact that ST practices serve as a good marketing tool for the industry.

As far as increasing customer confidence and customer loyalty is concerned, the survey findings have shown that respondents from 5 Star Luxury Hotel and 5 Star Hotel agree that

ST practices have helped to get repeated customer and increase the confidence of their customers. However, respondents from 5 Star Business Hotel are almost neutral to these statements since most of their customers are one off and most of them hardly spend time in the Hotel but rather in business meeting.



Coming to the social integration part, it has been found from the above chart that Hotel C, 5 Star Business Hotel is almost neutral with respect to ST practices in increasing Employee satisfaction, Improving relationship with local community, Motivating employees, Increasing employment rate in local community and helping in conserving local culture whereas respondents from 5 Star Luxury hotel and 5 Star Hotel agree that ST practices have benefited the Hotel. The rationale behind is that 5 Star Business Hotel does not operate in the same environment and their customers profile differs from Luxury or other categories of Hotels. During the visit carried out at Hotel C, it was discovered that employees of 5 Star business Hotel have a different set of motivators which might open door for further research.



From an environmental point of view, it has been highlighted that respondents from the 3 categories of Hotel are agreeable that sustainable tourism practices have helped the Hotels to decrease the amount of wastes, Increase environmental consciousness while decreasing energy consumption in the Hotels. Despite not being ISO 14001: 2004 certified, as compared to Hotel B & C, Hotel A has also shown good sustainable practices as far as the environment is concerned.

Hypothesis Testing 1:

H₀: There is no significant relationship between an increase in environment consciousness and sustainable tourism practices.

H₁: There is a significant relationship between an increase in environment consciousness and sustainable tourism practices.

Empirical estimates have demonstrated that there is a relationship between an increase in environment consciousness and sustainable tourism practices with respect to the categorization of the hotel as a 5 Star Business Hotel, a 5 Star Hotel, and a 5 star Luxury Hotel ($X^2 = 17.091, p < 0.01$). Likewise, Spearman correlation has shown a positive linear relationship between the hotel benefiting from a sustainable tourism practices with respect to increase environmental consciousness and the categorization of the hotel as a 5 Star Business Hotel, a 5 Star Hotel, and a 5 star Luxury Hotel ($r = 0.208, p < 0.01$). Moreover, a decrease in energy consumption would point towards a decrease in greenhouse effect thereby decreasing the effect on climate change. Therefore, there exists a positive linear relationship between decrease in energy consumption and sustainable tourism practices which in turn further confirm that there is a relationship between an increase in environment consciousness and sustainable tourism practices ($r = 0.220, p < 0.01$). Hence, **H_1 is accepted.**

Hypothesis 2

H_0 : There is no significant relationship between community/social integration practices and sustainable tourism practices.

H_1 : There is a significant relationship between community/social integration practices and sustainable tourism practices.

The survey findings have also shown that there is a relationship between community/social integration practices and sustainable tourism practices ($X^2 = 8.872, p < 0.01$). The findings demonstrate the importance of community/social integration through green purchasing measures such as supporting local entrepreneurs the business offers the means for local small entrepreneurs to develop and sell their products which in turn help increase positive economic benefits to the community while engendering a sense of pride in cultural heritage.

Supporting local entrepreneurs in purchasing goods and services enhance the level of locality employment. The Spearman Correlation also showed a positive linear relationship between the Hotel benefiting from a sustainable tourism practices with respect to the hotel adopting green purchasing measures by supporting local entrepreneur and encouraging usage of recyclable fax and printing paper and the categorisation of the hotel as a 5 Star Business Hotel, a 5 Star Hotel, and a 5 star Luxury Hotel ($r = 0.256, p < 0.01$). Hence, **H_1 is accepted**

RECOMMENDATIONS AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

Survey findings have shown that the majority of respondents have favorable attitudes on sustainable tourism practices for the hotels of Mauritius. The present study has outlined various implications for tourism practitioners of the hotel sector of Mauritius. Empirical estimates have demonstrated that the majority of the respondents share positive views that the three hotels have both a CSR and Environment plan. Indeed, 96.3% of the respondents are of the opinion that the hotels have a communication platform to communicate the plans, mission statements, business goals, environmental policy amongst others. 27.8% of the respondents strongly agree while 63% of the respondents agree that the Hotels use eco – friendly means to provide accurate information on promotion and make use of recycle paper for printing and fax to communicate information found in documents. Hence, it is recommended that an outreach brochure be developed, explaining to tourism business owners how the concept of sustainable tourism practices affect their business and provides a checklist for planning for such practices impacts while also encouraging guests to adopt sustainable measures. Moreover, hotels should create public awareness on the benefits being eco–friendly and sustainable, including information on incentives/deterrents and rights/obligations for consumers. Several hotels use their websites, advertising and sales materials to communicate with current and prospective guests about water and other conservation efforts to the public.

Furthermore, hotels can also make use of extranet to allow controlled access to external stakeholders. In turn, this will enable stakeholders to continuously have access the hotels relevant data and information in a more eco- friendly way. It is also recommended that stakeholders be surveyed to discover about their perceptions on the current corporate communication levels. The survey should tap stakeholders' perceptions on the environmental responsibility programs of the hotels.

As highlighted by Lee (2003) from a societal horizon, sustainable tourism is the main prospect to alleviate poverty in developing nations, like Mauritius, with the potential to make a major contribution to sustainable development. Therefore, sustainable tourism both contributes to the community well-being and considers the economic development of the nations. It addresses programs which help local communities to thrive, contribute to the good of the society while enhancing economic development as well as employees' talent and knowledge development. The aspects of green marketing and green purchasing, employment of local community, ethical recruitment practices, protection of community infrastructure amongst others also contribute to the societal development of the tourism industry.

The research findings have shown that 84.2 % of the respondents share favorable views towards concept of community integration. Furthermore, 73.6 % of the sample population have stated that the hotels adopt relevant measures to decrease the impact of their activities on community infrastructure. As far as ethical recruitment, adoption of green purchasing measures and support of the local community is concerned; the respondents have positive views on the aspects related to sustainable practices of hotels. Therefore, another important implication relates to skill development of local resident in order to cater more for community integration and economic development. That is, measures should be undertaken

to increase access of local resident to work in tourism enterprises through skills development. Indeed, the relationship between tourism enterprises and the employment of local people is symbiotic, in that both sides stand to benefit considerably. Thus, the local resident, especially school leavers, should be given adequate training and opportunity to develop their own skills; by allowing for the possibility of a large number of people to benefit directly; and raising the standards of service. It is important that the provision of education and training is strengthened so that local residents are able to select a career path and at the same time this will increase opportunities, and any social or cultural barriers are removed thereby generating a positive image of the tourism industry in the mind of local residents.

According to the Hotel Energy Solutions (2011), tourism industry contributes to approximately 5 % of greenhouse gas due to the high rate of energy being used by this industry. Additionally, tourism is also responsible for 5% of the world's carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions, out of which hotels and other types of accommodation account for 1%. Likewise, it has been pointed out that hotels alone have the highest negative influence on the environment of all commercial buildings (Bohdanowicz *et al.* 2004) and thus require much consideration so that energy consumption in hotel and other development is carried out with the minimal depletion of natural resources and the environment. Empirical estimates from the research have shown that the majority of respondents share favorable views that the hotels have appropriate energy conservation practices. In addition, the majority of respondents (69.2 %) have shared positive views that ST practices have enabled the hotels to decrease the overall energy consumption within the hotels. Hence, there are various implications pertaining to the proper use of air conditioning and heating systems of the hotels. It has been found that thermostats work best on AUTO and extreme variations of temperature, or turning the air conditioning/ heating system ON and OFF will not make tourists feel more

comfortable any faster and it leads to unnecessary wastage of energy. Therefore, it is recommended that hotels should maintain the temperature between 24 and 26°C in the summer and at 21°C in the winter in order to save the energy consumption of the hotels.

Moreover, the hotel should promote landscape and water conservation by reducing supply chain water footprint and customer water footprint. For instance, hotels can reduce their supply chain water footprint by making supply agreements including certain standards with their suppliers or by simply changing to another supplier. Similarly, hotels can also aim to reduce the consumer water footprint that is inherent to the use of their product. When consumers use soap, shampoo, cleaning chemical or paint, it is likely that they will flush it through the drain. When the water is not treated or when the chemical is such that it is not or only partly removed, this will give a grey water footprint that could have been avoided if the hotels had used substances that are less toxic, less harmful and more easily degradable. The survey findings have depicted that 96.3 % of respondents have stated that water is being used for irrigation purpose. Likewise, hotels should reduce the green/blue/grey water footprint in landscape maintenance and lawn growth. In order to further reduce the water footprint with respect to landscape maintenance and lawn growth, a number of actions can be undertaken by the hotels which are as follows:

- Mulching of the soil, grey water is being used for irrigation thus reducing evaporation from the soil surface and this will in turn reduce green water footprint
- Improve the irrigation schedule by optimizing timing and volumes of application. It is recommended to carry out irrigation during the night so as to prevent evaporation and at the same time reducing blue water footprint.

- Apply less or no chemicals (artificial fertilizers, pesticides), for example, use organic cleaning chemicals so as to decrease grey water foot print.
- Apply fertilizers or compost in a form that allows easy uptake, so that leaching and run-off are reduced thereby again decreasing the grey water foot print.

It has been estimated that 75% of all environmental impacts created by the hotel industry can be attributed to the operational phase and the inefficient use of resources (APAT, 2002). The analysis has shown that the 3 Hotels are adopting efficient resource management practices yet it can be seen that all the respondents have neutral views on the use of recycling office paper. Additionally, only 39.8% of the respondents have stated that the hotels are using recyclable shampoo and conditioner bottles and the majority of the sample population share positive views concerning the recycling and re-use of wastes including kitchen debris.

Thus, it is recommended that the 3 R strategies of waste management, that is, Reduce, Re-use and Recycle be used with respect to other components of the hotels. In other words, promoting the concept of recycling can help to save energy. The recycling of one aluminum can saves enough energy to keep a 100-watt light bulb burning for almost 4 hours or to run the television for 3 hours thus making energy use sustainable. Hence, hotel can consider the following resource management practices which are as follows

- Reduce the amount of waste being produced by keeping a good inventory level and by buying only what the hotel need to use. Then, instead of throwing something away, reuse or recycle it.
- For events, reusable plates, cups, silverware, tablecloths, and napkins instead of disposable ones can be used. Disposable tableware creates mountains of waste and releases contaminants into the environment as it breaks down in landfills.

- Compost organic waste. Peels, skins, and trimmings from fruits and vegetables; coffee grounds; egg shells; tea bags; and lots of other kitchen waste can be combined to make compost, which you can use as natural, organic fertilizer on your lawn and garden
- Recycling white paper in your office for 1 year can save almost 26 gallons of oil, 273 kilowatt hours of energy, 467 gallons of water, and more than 1 tree. Hotels can also prevent 4 pounds of air pollution from entering the atmosphere.

CONCLUSION

It has been found that the hotels display sustainable tourism practices in the context of Mauritius despite the fact that the hotels have or may not have a certification system. Significant progress has been made by the tourism industry over the past 5 years with respect to sustainable tourism practices. The wide range of stakeholders that have been involved in the development of these initiatives, those individuals and organizations that have developed and promoted them, and those businesses that have invested in them, have played a significant role in taking some of the necessary steps towards a more sustainable tourism industry. Sustainable tourism is currently a vision, rather than a reality. It is a vision that has varying components for the many stakeholders involved in tourism development. The far-reaching nature of many of the recommendations will not be easy to address within a business context. Considerable difficulties lie in mobilizing businesses, whose primary motivation is often returning a profit for shareholders. However, by addressing these issues, they will be able to ensure that they stay in business, and that the destinations in which they operate will also prosper in the long term. The analysis has shown that the majority of the respondents share favorable views that ST practices has enabled hotels to decrease energy consumption and increase environmental consciousness in the context of the three hotels in

Mauritius. Moreover, the findings have demonstrated that ST practices have improved relationship with local community and the three hotels have also adopted sound community integration as part of their sustainable tourism practices. In addition, ST certification is a powerful tool for international branding and marketing for developing countries, like Mauritius, that identifies sustainable tourism as an important component in their development strategy.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Sustainable tourism is considered to be the 6th wave of innovation and is new emerging concept. Therefore, the existing literature review on the topic of ST is quite limited. The present survey has been restricted only to three hotels in the context of Mauritius and was mainly a quantitative research from a management perspective. Moreover, the utilities bills for the hotels were available only over a period of 4 years thus generating a short period trend analysis. Statistical data for the Tourism industry with respect to Energy, Water, and Wastes were not easily available for the past 5 consecutive years. Furthermore, the technicality issues of energy and water consumption and waste minimization has not been explored from an engineering and technical background.

DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The 3 selected hotels do not have a sustainable tourism certification and it is proposed that a ST certified hotel can be used as point of reference to compare the measures and practices of the hotel with a non ST certified for developing a guideline for ST practices within hotels. The existing research was from a management and quality perspective and it is proposed that knowledge of an energy, water and waste expert be sought so that in depth research can be carried out and the findings of the present research could be further validated.

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Hitting Turbulence, Privately Owned Airlines in South Africa: A Literature Review

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ABSTRACT

The aviation industry in South Africa has grown since deregulation in the 1990s as new private airlines have entered the aviation industry. The state owned South African Airways has played a prominent role in the aviation industry, whilst the state owned Airports Company of South Africa has a monopoly on the provision of airport facilities in South Africa. Increased capacity has been brought about by the entry of low cost carriers such as kulula.com, 1Time and Mango. The intense competition for customers, low volumes during the financial crisis and the high price of oil have all had a detrimental impact on the success of airlines. The liquidation of two low cost carriers in 2012, namely Velvet Sky and 1Time has decreased capacity and this will increase the market share of the legacy airlines and drive up the cost of aviation. In addition, the more than 100% increase in airport charges has impacted strongly on the profitability and financial sustainability of airlines. The customers where the biggest winners of increased competition and they will be the biggest losers as competition dwindles and prices increase. The various bailouts given to SAA that has year to year losses has been met with opposition and suggestions for the airline to be privatised. The

aviation industry remains to play a greater role in the economy of the country by facilitating faster transport network.

KEYWORDS Tourism, aviation, competition, South Africa, liquidation, low cost carrier

Aviation: The development of aviation in South Africa is explained with reference to private airlines in competition to the state owned, South African Airways

Competition: the competition policies of aviation limit foreign ownership that limits competition in South Africa

Liquidation: this is the buzzword in South African aviation, as many airlines have been liquidated

INTRODUCTION

'Domestic air transport was deregulated by the Air Services Licensing Act of 1990 and the Aviation Amendment Act of 1992. Other airlines started to compete with SAA, with a resultant growth in domestic air travel'' according to PEW Centre on Global Climate Change (2000:25). The *Airlift Strategy 2006* sought to increase the liberalisation of international travel in South Africa by increasing the freedoms that South Africa will grant as part of bilateral agreements. According to Oxford (2011) airlines registered in South Africa carry 18 million passengers and 209,000 tonnes of freight a year to and from and within South Africa. 'Aviation is indispensable for tourism, which is a major engine for economic growth, particularly in developing economies. Globally, 51% of international tourists travel by air'' ATAG (2012). Aviation has a strong (Whitelegg, 2003) growth dynamic and is one of the few industries that can show growth rates of 7% per annum. Air transportation has been a

major beneficiary of technological innovations stemming from research and developments into the military and aerospace industry. Air transport has experienced rapid expansion since the Second World War as the global economy has grown and the technology of air transport has developed to its present state (Commission on Sustainable Development, 2001). The aviation sector is crucial for the tourism industry to flourish because it leads to increased access for a destination area. The emergence of low cost carriers (LCCs) in South Africa has led to mode switching to air travel and increasing the volume of air travel and thereby having a positive impact on tourism.

Comair/British Airways and kulula.com

Kulula.com launched by Comair/British Airways was the pioneered LCC in South Africa. According to Diggins (2004) kulula.com tickets were available for sale on 5 July 2000, the inaugural flight from Johannesburg to Cape Town on 1 August 2001 which was an instant success like the Johannesburg to Durban route. Kulula.com shared the entire infrastructure with Comair/British Airways and gained success due to innovative advertising that caught the eye and attention of the public. Comair/British Airways and kulula.com had a joint CEO which further strengthened the cooperation in the company. The use of the internet as a primary ticket distribution tool reduced the costs of the new low cost airline. Fares bought over the internet were priced lower than those over the call centre, a carrot to use the internet, because people respond to incentives. The reaction of SAA as noted by Diggins (2004) was to compete with kulula.com by operating low cost seats on the existing airlines and routes by not creating a separate low cost entity. According to Mills & Swantner, (2008) kulula.com operates at 6 US cents per available seat kilometer margin, around the low-cost airline benchmarks in Europe and in the United States. This lean business strategy ensures the continued success of kulula.com, however, the challenges of damped consumer demand, high

fuel prices, high landing fees and general negative economic climate globally are threatening the LCC business model. After the demise of 1Time, according to Parker (2012) Comair released a statement on its facebook page to 1Time employees to send their curriculum vitae (CV) to published contact details. Other airlines such as Mango, also indicated the desire to extend recruitment to 1Time staff members. According to Comair (2012), Comair Limited which operates Comair/British Airways and kulula.com initiated a pay freeze on its entire staff as a means of arresting costs. The management of costs in the unpredictable aviation environment is imperative to ensure the sustainability of any airline. Kulula.com according to Linden (2013) celebrated its inaugural landing on 02 March 2013 at East London from OR Tambo International Airport. The route was not serviced by an LCC after the demise of 1Time, and would service the route with 13 flights per week using its 189 seater Boeing 737-800. According to Smith (2013a) the share price of Comair had risen by 81% since the beginning of 2013 whilst BusinessReport (2012) notes that the price of Comair shares rose by 6% on and after the demise of 1Time.

Nationwide Airline

Nationwide Airlines when it ceased operations was awarded the most punctual airline in 2007 between London and Johannesburg according to Wikipedia (2012a). Nationwide was a competitor to SAA and Comair/British Airways and has long suffered from the anti-competitive conduct of SAA. According to Urbach (2012:1) ‘‘the problem with SOEs is that they lack an economic incentive to be profitable and many of them have a monopoly on the services that they provide’’. When the South African Civil Aviation Authority (SACAA) grounded all Nationwide Airlines planes for non-compliance after one of its planes lost an engine before liftoff just before the December holidays in 2007 according to Wikipedia (2012a). The negative publicity resulted in low demand, and an inability by Nationwide

Airlines to meet obligations and subsequent liquidation. The high airport taxes had forced British Airways/Comair to suspend flights on the Johannesburg-Maputo route, after 1Time had already done that. The biggest loser in this case is definitely the tourism industry in Mozambique. This once again proves that the competitiveness of a destination can be impacted by factors outside of its control such as the high airport taxes in South Africa deterring flight for the benefit of Mozambique. Nationwide after its demise is pursuing damages against SAA, after (Jenkins *et al.*,2009) the Competition Tribunal fined SAA R45million for market abuse in 2005, the highest fine under the Competition Act of 1998. Moneyweb (2012) noted that the liquidated Nationwide Airlines is claiming R155 million in damages from SAA, for market abuse. According to the Mail & Guardian (2012) Nationwide Airline was placed under provisional liquidation in April 2008, after announcing in February 2008 that it intends selling majority stake to black investors that will assist the company in fleet renewal.

1Time Holdings

1time in addition to Comair/British Airways were the only two airlines that were listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE). Comair is listed on the main board of the JSE, whilst 1Time was initially listed on the JSE Alternative Exchange (ALTx) and later moved to the main board of the JSE. The success of kulula.com gave impetus to the introduction of new competition in the launch of rival LCCs, with 1Time the first to be launched. According to George (2007) 1Time Airlines' first scheduled flight took place on 26 February 2004 with three return flights on the Johannesburg/Cape Town route. The terrorist events using aviation of 11th September 2001, presented the opportunity for the emergence of a new airline in South Africa, as aircraft prices plummeted and the South African Rand had strengthened against major currencies to allow for bargain buying. 1Time was formed when the former

Financial Director of Comair, Glenn Orsmond teamed up with partners that owned an aircraft maintenance company, together with an IT entrepreneur and a black economic empowerment investor, Mogwele.

The entry of 1Time was welcomed by a price war that ensued for the benefit of customers as variety and choice was associated with lower fares. 1Time is a true LCC in that it's the main business of 1Time Holdings, when compared to the kulula.com (British Airways/Comair) and Mango (SAA) that are subsidiaries of full service airlines. In the tough trading environment due to increases in operating costs and dampened demand, 1Time (Ntingi, 2012) sought to raise R120 million to recapitalize its operations and purchase more fuel efficient planes. 2012 was also a mixed year for 1Time in that it had to seek business rescue avenues for some of its subsidiaries. According to the Commercial Aviation Association of Southern Africa (2007) 1Time has 11% of the domestic market and has grown by 20% since the arrival of LCC owned by SAA, Mango. According to Magwaza & Speckman (2012) the first sign of trouble with 1Time was that the airline reported a loss of R 43.5 million in 2012 compared with R33.9 million the previous year in 2011. The airline has been trying to institute business rescue as a result of failed attempts to find a resolution to the debt of around R320 million that 1Time had to repay. From August 2012, the company was forced to seek protection from creditors after six months of negotiating with its creditors failed. The airline had made a loss of R43.5 million as the costs of doing business had gone up, and the price of jet fuel was the biggest influence on the loss. In November, 2, 2012 1Time applied for liquidation when it failed in its attempt to bring in an overseas investor in the airline. Fastjet finally shelved its plans of launching in South Africa after it secured bilateral air service agreements from the Tanzania government to South Africa, Rwanda and Zambia according to Smith (2013b) from its base in Tanzania According to Weavind (2013) permission granted to Fastjet by

Tanzanian authorities to fly between South Africa, Zambia and Rwanda can be regarded as the Holy Grail of African aviation. The application for business rescue that failed and the liquidation of 1Time was under the leadership of CEO Blacky Komani, who was part of black economic empowerment (BEE) consortium that was funded by the Industrial Development Corporation (IDC).

Velvet Sky

LCC newcomer Velvet Sky has been liquidated after it failed to meet its obligations. According to Ntigi (2012) it came with the wrong business model using old airplanes that are expensive to fly and maintain as they consume between 50% to 60% more fuel than modern aircraft. Velvet Sky entry into the market was wrong as not only were fuel prices higher, additional costs went as a result of landing tariffs were lower, when compared to the double figure increase proposed by ACSA to the outrage of the entire tourism value chain. Velvet Sky was liquidated as it could not honour its creditors, namely its fuel supplier British Petroleum (BP) and Umzamo Transport Services. Velvet Sky took to the skies in March 2011. Velvet Sky operated on the golden triangle, the Johannesburg-Durban route and the Johannesburg-Cape Town route, which remain over-saturated with low margins. The Durban-Port Elizabeth-Cape Town route was launched that would benefit the Port Elizabeth as it was not serviced non-low cost airlines. The expansion of operations included operating from OR Tambo International Airport to Polokwane International Airport where Velvet Sky was offered concessions such as not paying passenger service charge (amounting to R150) as an incentive to operate on the route according to Resse (2012).

The concession were possible because the Polokwane airport is not ACSA run but operated by Gateway Airport Authority Limited (GAAL) a provincial departmental airport agency.

Velvet Sky would introduce eight new flights on the route with a special target being government business between Polokwane and Pretoria according to Velvet Sky (2011). The relationship was short lived as the agreement was as Velvet started operating from 30 September 2011 ended abruptly in January 2012. Airlink, was not involved in this concession agreement and indicated its displeasure by seeking access to the agreement between Velvet Sky and GAAL. BP Southern Africa applied for liquidation of Velvet Sky for non-payment for fuel supplies and the liquidation finalised on 21 June 2012. The relationship that Velvet Sky enjoyed with its supplier was the downfall of the airline as it failed in honouring payment for services rendered from fuel by BP Southern Africa, SAA Technical for technical support and ground handling service provided Menzies Aviation. Had Velvet Sky honoured its suppliers and had competent management it would be certainly a BEE and LCC success story but it is a dream deferred. It however, provides a lot of compelling lessons for SANTACO Airways that is yet to be launched, on how suppliers are imperative for business success.

SANTACO Airways

The minibus taxi industry in South Africa according to Van Zyl & Labuschagne (2008) carries 65% of all public transport passengers in South Africa. This means it's an integral part of the public transport system. Czegledy (2004) notes that minibus taxis are infamous for speeding, poor customer service and general disregard for the laws of the road. In addition, the taxi drivers, who are mostly wage labour instead of owners, are under the most non-conducive working condition and long and irregular hours of work with little or no employment benefits. The representative body for minibus taxis in South Africa is the South African National Taxi Council (SANTACO) which has been consulted by government when changes to the public transport landscape are designed, such as the bus rapid transport systems (BRT). SANTACO announced that they will be entering the aviation market, a

diversification from the minibus taxi industry. SANTACO as a transport operator encouraged its members to fund the airline and they shall become shareholders and according to Hawkrige (2011) R 100 million has been used to set up SANTACO Airways. The funding for the airline will be attained from selling shares to SANTACO members which will be the taxi owners. The shareholding by taxi drivers, the wage labour for the taxi industry is not well presented, as SANTACO represents the interests of the taxi drivers as opposed to the taxi drivers, who are employees in this industry. SANTACO would seek to gain market share by operating from the secondary airport, Lanseria International Airport just outside (Ramela, 2011) to Bhishe airport, in the Eastern Cape. Minibus taxis would transport customers straight from their doors steps to the respective airports, where they would catch the flight. There was little detail on how this will unfold considering that the taxi drivers have a job to perform, not related to SANTACO Airways. It is quite clear that SANTACO Airways will use a cost-leadership strategy to undercut the existing aviation operators to the Eastern Cape. Child (2011) noted that the projected ticket for a one-way ticket to the Eastern Cape would be more than R800 and definitely less than R2,600 which is charged by other airlines. Safety has been an issue that had been raised because of the notorious driving manners of taxi drivers. SANTACO has been at length explaining that it would not be taxi-drivers that will be operating the "taxis onto the runway".

On the 16th September 2011, SANTACO Airways took to the sky on a maiden voyage as plans were still in place to launch it commercially. The test flight was a great milestone in the metamorphosis of the taxi-industry and it gained lots of media attention, a great rags-to-riches story. "The first flight was overbooked, on board being President Zuma, Gauteng MEC for Roads and Transport Ismail Vadi, Transport Minister S'bu Ndebele, Eastern Cape Premier Noxolo Kiviet, other Members of Parliament and SANTACO bosses" Cole (2011:1). This

was a milestone, even though largely symbolic for an industry associated with lawlessness and lack of compliance to operate in an industry that sought the direct opposite. The tourism industry was still challenged by lack of compliance to Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) legislation as the (Naledi, 2003) beneficiaries of tourism are a concentrated group of monopolies. When it was launched, it was the fifth LCC after Velvet Sky (has since been liquidated), 1Time, kulula.com, Mango. The maiden flight took off with people singing ‘*Shosholoza*’, a traditional African song that has become commonplace in rugby games according to Tshetlo (2011). The test flight was able to raise the awareness of the airline, potentially preparing the company for the commercial launch and most importantly it was a successful public relations exercise that got SANTACO Airways a lot of press coverage. SANTACO noting it does not possess have aviation experience decided to work with AirQuarius, which works with other domestic airlines as project managers for the test flights and going forward with the begin of business operations by SANTACO Airways according to Ramela (2011). AirQuarius will project manage SANTACO Airlines until they have build enough capacity and institutional knowledge until SANTACO can takeover operations. However, the launch of SANTACO Airways has been characterised by a series of delays and it is yet to operate. SANTACO Airways seems to be a dream deferred as the financial equity to start the operation may be higher than envisaged. The competitive nature of the aviation industry in addition to the high associated costs makes entering the industry unattractive. The ever changing regulatory costs associated with aviation, are a further deterrent to competing in the aviation industry. If SANTACO Airways eventually takes off, it would be a great transformation project for the aviation industry and change the face of aviation in South Africa forever. It would be a great business diversification for the taxi industry to operate in another sector of the transportation industry. The lack of progress and lack of information in the launch of SANTACO Airways would be similar to the promises made by SunAir

Holdings, an unlisted share peddler company that has been selling unlisted shares to the public with the promise of listing on the JSE and launching operations. Unlisted companies usually exhibit low levels of corporate governance because they are not listed and people are usually advised not to invest in unlisted companies as they show little to no regard for shareholders and corporate governance principles.

CONCLUSION

Public transport systems in South Africa user profiles, show a stark race and class character, which add to the low integration between the various means of transport in South Africa. Behrens (2004) notes the dualistic provision of transport, with the first segment, non-affording private vehicle ownership and subjected to public transport and the second segment, with higher incomes, use private car, with a plethora of choices of transport modes available to them. Aviation like most other economic sectors is challenged by high concentration levels, with its accompanying effect, market abuse by monopoly companies. The demise of both Nationwide, Velvet Sky and 1Time have decreased capacity and competition on South African commercial aviation. Aviation is not a luxury good and this misconception has been shattered by the emergence of LCCs that have led to mode switching towards aviation. Increased aviation impacts positively on the economy, and has a social benefit, connecting people in an increasing connected world. This means that using LCCs can decrease the travel costs of a company, especially small, and medium enterprises (SME). The proliferation of affordable air travel leads to a great increase in air arrivals, increasing the volume of traffic that airports have to cater for. With regard to Australia, Whyte (2007) noted that air travel achieved strong growth after the introduction of LCCs, there has been a corresponding increase in domestic tourism. The increase volume of passengers would have spinoff for tourism destinations that are connected by air and make these destinations

increasingly reliant on air transport for their tourism success. The increased energy costs are threatening the viability of the LCCs in addition to regulatory expenses such as airport taxation. 1Time has already applied for business rescue measures for some of its subsidiary companies. The business environment for the aviation industry remains hostile and these unstable environmental factors may have deterred the entry of SANTACO Airways. The operation of an aviation business requires deep pockets in addition to high skills and with margins under constant pressure, it less attractive under high energy costs.

The dilemma faced by government is that regrettably SAA is a liability and listing its shares on the JSE would not be attractive right now. However, of concern is the continuous delay in the launch of SANTACO Airways which might resemble the unlisted share peddlers that siphoned investors money in a yet to be launched and listed SunAir Holdings. Christie & Crompton (2001) noted that because African aviation markets are small and dispersed, this leads to high costs, and low margins. However, what is almost certain is that aviation will continue to play an important role in the world economy. It is one industry whose growth prospects are negatively affected because of increased regulation, which is an opportunity cost. The transformation and empowerment of black people in the tourism industry is imperative, as BEE has become a business imperative in South Africa. The worrying trend is that BEE has become a disinvestment strategy to sell companies that are in distress. Nationwide was liquidated just two months of reporting to the media that it will have a new majority shareholder in the form of a BEE buyout, and then it was liquidated, whilst 1Time sold to a stake to a BEE group and was later liquidated in a few months. BEE in the aviation industry is used as a means of fleet recapitalisation, instead of economic empowerment and this trend has serious implications for the future of BEE deals. BEE deals must be done with sustainability in mind instead of circumventing BEE to achieve ulterior motives as in the case

of Nationwide and 1Time. The fact that most black people are ‘capitalist without capital’ means that these BEE deals are funded by state funding institutions that seek to change the BEE objectives in the commanding heights of the economy.

The future of aviation in South Africa depends in its success, on the conduct of government. Government can either, improve the business environment for aviation growth, which would increase personal and business mobility, and have a positive impact on the economy, or continue in its strategy of being referee and player. SAA as a state owned airline has an important part to play in sourcing new markets, especially in developing markets, where the demand can at times be low, and overtime can be cultivated, to break even and even show profit. The fact that SAA now complies with the provisions of the Companies Act, that is not an end in itself, as there is a need for SAA to privatise SAA partly or in full. The full privatisation of SAA will be the best strategy, potentially through a BEE public subscription of the SAA to qualifying black South Africans. Once that is achieved, SAA would be in public hands, and be affected by the same market conditions such as other airlines, and operate to achieve profit, instead of operating inefficiently depending on endless bailouts from the National Treasury. Government will focus on regulating the aviation industry, and acting in the best interest of the aviation industry by allowing competition and most important reviewing the Acts that limit foreign ownership in domestic airlines operating in South Africa. Aviation will stimulate domestic tourism, in addition to mobility, opening up destinations through secondary airports and attract greater levels of entrepreneurship.

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**Perceptions about Safety and Security in Tshwane: The Case of Open Day Attendees at
the Tshwane University of Technology, Pretoria West Learning Site in 2012**

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ABSTRACT

The paper focus on students as day visitors experiences of a tourism destination. Tshwane is one of the regions that attract day visitors in Universities like Tshwane University of Technology. The safety and security perceptions of students as patrons, is imperative as concerns about personal safety and security can limit tourism consumption. Self completion questionnaires were distributed amongst the students that attended the Tshwane University of Technology Open Day, at the Pretoria West learning site. One hundred percent of the questionnaires were returned and data analyses were performed by means of the statistical analyses. The paper further made recommendations and conclusions based on the findings.

KEYWORDS Safety, security, tourism, development, poverty, Tshwane

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is one of the world most important industries and almost all countries are promoting tourism for a variety of reasons. Some countries may target tourism as a means of diversifying their economy in cases where they may be an over-reliance of extraction industries such as oil in Saudi Arabia. Other countries target tourism because it has continuous growth and bring about potential economic benefits. Because tourism is an export product that is consumed on the destination area, most of the value-adding can be done at the destination area. Accessibility and the transportation sector is responsible to bring to the destination and return to their homes/countries. This means that the tourism industry also involves other industries in producing the tourism experience. Especially for developing countries and peripheral regions, tourism can acts as catalyst for other industries such as agriculture, and construction industry. The nature and character of the tourism product offering is affected by fixed location, which means that the tourists must travel to the tourism destination to consume the tourism product offering. At the destination Van Winkle & MacKay (2008) notes that tourists increase spending in an area. This expenditure links to form backward linkages with the broader economy as tourists catalyse other industries such as agriculture and construction. The tourism industry is an export product that is consumed at the destination area, which attracts foreign exchange in addition to bringing tourists. The fact that tourists consume at the destination area, increases the value adding benefit from tourists, compared to other industries where the value can happen in other countries after mineral extraction.

According to Dieke (2003) many less-developed countries (LDCs) perceive tourism as a panacea for their fragile economies where there is scarcity of finance and expertise. Because of the fragmented nature of the tourism industry, it provides scope for the existence of many small, medium enterprises (SME) that can offer various services and products to tourists. The demand to consume tourism products can be truly global, encompassing local, regional and international tourists. As noted by Sindiga (2002) tourism in Africa is dominated and well developed only in a few countries namely Tunisia, South Africa, Kenya, Botswana and Egypt. The political instability around the Arab Spring uprising in North Africa had a negative dent on tourism to the North African arrivals. "Tourists usually travel to cities with good impression. Safety is a big issue to affect impression" Chiu & Lin (2011:2745) The safety of tourists at the tourism destination is a pre-requisite for tourists when they consider visiting one destination in comparison for another destination. Tourists will turn their backs on destinations that are affected by conflict, strife, and violence at the destination, and tourist will specifically shun destinations where tourists are attacked, mugged and where they become victims of crime and kidnapping.

Tourists are easy targets for terrorists because (Salazar, 2006) they are viewed as ambassadors for their countries. Because of this challenge special measures must be put in place to ensure that tourists are safe, and to ensure that the tourism industry is safeguarded. To show that tourism is really indispensable for many destinations, former sites of tragedy, and conflict can also become regarded either as sites for dark tourism or justice tourism. Salazar, (2006) noted that war can be a great stimulus for tourism, especially after the conflict through nostalgia, memorabilia, and reunions. According to George (2003:575) "despite the steady increase the popularity with the international community, South Africa has developed a reputation for being an unsafe place to visit. This is not surprising as South Africa has

extraordinary high levels of violent crime’’. In the lead up to the FIFA 2010 Soccer World Cup™ safety and security was one of the highlighted challenges that the country faced, even in the bidding process. Kruys (2007) noted that the crime during the Soccer World Cup would jeopardised the chances of a successful World Cup being hosted in South Africa. South Africa lost the chance to host the 2004 Olympic Games in Cape Town, with the crime situation playing a role in the International Olympic Committee deciding against Cape Town according to Ferreira & Harmse (2000). The aftermath of the terrorist attacks on the 11 September 2001 in the United States afforded according to Binns & Nel (2002) South Africa, a ‘safe destination’ status which led to an increase in tourism to South Africa. It can be noted that the image of a destination can be detrimentally impacted by high crime levels and terrorist events.

Crime can be mitigated, and a dedicated “tourist police” and special measures being created in the criminal justice system for the quick and efficient conclusion of cases involving tourists. In other words, the infrastructure provisions put in place for the use of tourists can be to the benefit of local people, and vice versa. The tourism industry is an example of an industry that can increase safety, security and the efficient operation of the criminal justice system. “The most conventional way to interpret the relationship between tourism and peace is to assert that the cross-cultural encounter of international tourism fosters more harmonious relations” Higgins-Desbiolles (2008: 348). According to George (2003:575) “despite the steady increase the popularity with the international community, South Africa has developed a reputation for being an unsafe place to visit. This is not surprising as South Africa has extraordinary high levels of violent crime’’. Developing countries are at a disadvantage when compared to the developed countries as they may lack the resources to mitigate the negative impact of crisis and re-open the industry to business again. The Arab Spring uprising in North

Africa has impacted negatively on the number of tourists that would seek to visit the region and either choose other destinations or delay their arrival.

Closer to home, the associated violence in Zimbabwe led to a dwindling of tourist numbers. The Rwanda genocide, the Tiananmen Square massacre, and the terrorist attack in India are all examples of events that affected safety and security. The terrorist attack on the US on 11 September 2001, are by far the worst terrorist attack that had a negative effect on tourism. According to the Institute for Economics & Peace (2008) the tourism industry in Kenya saw \$1 billion in losses as a result of the bloody turmoil after the disputed election results in 2008. As noted by Upadhyaya *et al.*, (2011) tourism, conflict and peace exist in a reciprocal triangular relationship in which each impacts on the other. Therefore, peace is a precondition for the development and sustained growth of tourism. According to Dewar (2004) crime and grime were identified as issues that needed to be addressed as the City of Cape Town sought to reclaim the central business district as declining levels of personal safety and security deter visitors and investors alike. A public-private partnership was set up in the form of a city improvement district that resulted in regulating street vending, increasing security personnel and bringing back the tourists into the central business district. Kim *et al.*, (2007) attributed tourism as one of the contributors to peace on the Korean peninsula

“Tourism plays a major role in international relations and world peace. It has long been recognised as a people-to-people diplomacy for fostering better understanding and friendship among people of different culture and political belief” Yu & Chung (2001:537). It is quiet ironic that the tourism industry is one industry that requires peace as a pre-requisite for growth and in the absence of peace, the tourism demand dries up. The absence of war does not necessarily mean the existence of peace. “Absence of war is an essential condition of

peace, but it is not all sufficient for any people to feel peaceful. The peacefulness of a destination would be evaluated against other destinations before a destination choice is made. Tourism is the single most peaceful movement of people and (Salazar, 2006) notes that tourism contributes to knowledge of foreign places, empathy with other people and tolerance that stems from seeing the place of one's own society in the world. Tourists will shy away from destinations that do not have high levels of safety and tourists vote with their feet to safe destinations. Therefore, tourists seek a reward from the destination and since any form of internal instability or lack of safety, the tourists will see other destinations. The indirect (Hendrie, 2009) pressure generated by tourist expectations has ushered in an era of deathless coups and regime changes in tourism-dependent countries such as Fiji in 2006. The developmental nature of tourism results in countries putting up make-up to seem safer, or put in concerted plans to be safer destinations for both tourists and citizens. Being safe is not enough, but a concerted effort to ensure that there is a perception of safety exists at the destination area.

As noted by Mlambo (2006) perceptions of crime do not always coincide with the reality on the ground. To show that tourism is really indispensable for many destinations, former sites of tragedy, and conflict can also become regarded either as sites for dark tourism or justice tourism. Salazar, (2006) noted that war can be a great stimulus for tourism, especially after the conflict through nostalgia, memorabilia, and reunions. Tourists are easy targets for terrorists because (Salazar, 2006) they are viewed as ambassadors for their countries. Because of this challenge special measures must be put in place to ensure that tourists are safe, and to ensure that the tourism industry is safeguarded. This may result in there being a dedicated "tourist police" and special measures being created in the criminal justice system for the quick and efficient conclusion of cases involving tourists. In other words, the infrastructure

provisions put in place for the use of tourists can be to the benefit of local people, and vice versa. Therefore the tourism industry because peace and security and pre-requisites for growth, there would be concerted steps made to increase police visibility and security for the dual benefit of tourists and locals. The 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ was a great African success and the tournament planning led to the police and the armed forces getting better training, equipment and therefore heightened security. Satani (2004) noted that tourism encourages civic pride as locals become aware of the value of their attractions and may result in locals preserving their cultures. Place marketing is an integral part of tourism market where localities would present their destinations as sites of tourism consumption. For the tourism industry to succeed there is a need to ensure that the local citizens support the tourism industry as they are part of the service delivery system of tourism. According to Ferreira & Visser (2007) civic pride is directly linked to place identity which is created, packaged and then sold to tourists as a product that can be consumed at a specific destination.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

The number of students in South African Universities was more than 64,000 as at 2008 (Higher Education in Context, 2010:24) and 66, 600 in 2009 Van Wyk (2009). Both figures reflect that the learner's influx in South African cities is of a considerable number which means a need to explore the host cities will be inevitable hence the need to examine students' experience of a tourism destination like Tshwane area in South Africa. Open Days are imperative as they allow for interface between the higher education institutions with potential students accompanies at times by parents and/or guardians. The Open Day plays an important role in marketing the institution, in addition to displaying the various academic programs that are on offer, as various academic departments would market their offering whilst providing information and answering question that patrons may have. The success of the Open Day can

be affected by perceptions that patrons may have about personal safety and security at the Pretoria Learning site where the TUT Open Day is held, for the purposes of this research.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The research question will be discussed as follows:

The primary research question

What are the day visitor's experience of safety and security at the Open Day held by TUT, at the Pretoria West learning site?

THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Below are discussions of the research design for the study.

Population

Jennings, (2001:136) describes population as the entire study subject. In this case, population refers to the day visitors in the Tshwane area.

Sample size

According to Plowright, (2011:36), sample size is the total numbers of selected individuals that will be privileged to partake in a study. The sample size is however considered as a fraction of the entire population. The sample size will be selected with the aid of non-probability sampling that will be discussed later under sampling method. About 130 students were provided with questionnaires. The 130 sample figure is considered to be an acceptable sample size upon which generalization of findings could be made (Jennings, 2001:148).

Data collection

The instrument for collecting data for this study was questionnaires. These questionnaires were distributed by means of self administered interviewer-completed questionnaires. The intercept survey was employed. (Intercept where the researcher approached visitors in public area and distributed the questionnaires for them to complete). The study is based on a field research where 200 questionnaires were administered to day visitors visiting Tshwane, at the Pretoria West learning site of TUT. The survey took the form of a 15-item self-completion questionnaire. The questionnaires were design using the following:

- Structured questions to obtain demographics information about of the respondents and
- 5 point Likert scales questions to assess foreign technology experimentation.

Data analysis

In consideration of the nature of this study, data was analysed using statistics based on tables, figures, graphs, percentages and frequency distribution. The quantitative research requires numerical analysis to be used (Jennings 2001: 283).

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PROPOSED RESEARCH

The findings of the study will add to the current bidy of literature on safety and security of tourism destinations in South Africa. The body of knowledge seeks to add to a paucity of such information concerning the city of Tshwane, which is a significant urban tourism destination. The outcome of this research will provide the basis and meaningful recommendations for the:

- Implementing policies that will ensure that a tourism destination recognises the importance day visitors;

- Encouraging the destination and stakeholders to view and accept day visitors as a viable tourism ingredients for generating additional revenues to boost Tshwane economy;

RESEARCH RESULTS

From the research results, Table 1, indicates the age of the respondent that respondent. There were 120 respondents, and the majority of respondents were aged 18 years, represented by 53% of the respondents. The minority of respondents, who were represented by 1% of the respondents, were at the age of 29 years.

AGE OF RESPONDENTS	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
17	14	11%
18	64	53%
19	16	13%
20	14	11%
21	4	4%
22	2	2%
23	2	2%
26	3	3%
29	1	1%
TOTAL	120	100%

Table 1: Respondent age during the TUT Open Day, 2012 at the Pretoria West learning site.

Of the research results, the majority of respondents, represented by 78% of the respondents, were male, whilst female attendees, were represented by 22% of the respondents.

	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Male	94	78%
Female	26	22%
TOTAL	120	100%

Table 2: Respondents gender during the TUT Open Day, 2012 at the Pretoria West learning site.

Of the respondents, the majority of respondents, representing 51% of responses, indicated that there were between six and 16 people in the traveling party that attended the TUT Open Day. There was a joint minority of both 15% of respondents, representing the joint minority comprised of 01-05 people in the travelling party and a travelling party that comprised of the people with 50 people and above.

NUMBER OF PEOPLE IN TRAVELLING PARTY TO ATTEND THE TUT OPEN DAY, 2012	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
01-05 people	18	15%
06-15 people	61	51%
16-49 people	23	19%
50 and above people	18	15%
TOTAL	120	100%

Table 3: Number of people in the traveling party to attend the TUT Open Day, 2012 at the Pretoria West learning site.

	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
YES, Sufficient safety & security	106	88%

No, Insufficient safety & security	14	12%
TOTAL	120	100%

Table 4: Safety and security at the Open Day, 2012 at the Pretoria West learning site.

The research results in Table 4 indicate that the majority of the attendees are satisfied with the safety and security features organised for the event. Of the 120 respondents, 88% were satisfied with the safety and security measures employed at the venue, whilst 12% representing 14 respondents, were not satisfied with the security measures at the event.

	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Satisfaction with the general event organisation	106	88%
Dissatisfied with the general event organisation	14	12%
TOTAL	120	100%

Table 5: Satisfaction with the general event organisation of the Open Day, 2012 at the Pretoria West learning site.

Of the respondents, the majority of respondents (88%) were satisfied with the general organisation of the event. It was only 12% of respondents that indicated that they were not satisfied with the organisation of the TUT Open Day.

	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Willingness to attend again and/or recommend attendance to attendees	108	90%
Not willing to attend again and/or recommend attendance to attendees	12	10%

TOTAL	120	100%
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Table 6: Propensity to re-visit the event and/or recommend the Open Day to other people to attend

Of the respondents, the majority of respondents, representing 90% of respondents, indicated that they willing to attend the event and/or recommend the Open Day to other people to attend.

	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Gauteng	58	49%
Mpumalanga	36	30%
North-West	18	15%
Limpopo	8	6%
TOTAL	120	100%

Table 7: Province of origin for Open Day attendees

Table 7, presents the findings of the provinces of origin for TUT Open Day attendees. The majority of respondents, representing 49% are from the Gauteng province, the province within which the Pretoria West learning site is located within. The second majority of respondents, are from the province of Mpumalanga (30%), followed by attendees from the North-West (15%) , representing 15% of respondents. The Limpopo Province, had the least attendees to the Open Day, represented by 6% of research respondents.

	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
R10-R50	35	29%

R60-R100	74	61%
R110-R200	8	7%
Above R300	3	3%
TOTAL	120	100%

Table 8: Financial expenditure by Open Day attendees during the journey to attend the Open Day

With reference to Table 8, the majority of research respondents, with 61% of research respondents, had a financial expenditure of between R60-R100 for the duration of the journey to arrive at the TUT Open Day. The lowest journey expenditure to attend the TUT Open Day is represented by 3% of the research respondents.

	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Satisfied with the information provided	101	84%
Dissatisfied with the information provided	19	16%
TOTAL	120	100%

Table 6: Satisfaction about the information provided during the Open Day

With reference to Table 6, the majority of research respondents were satisfied with the information provided with the Open Day, represented by 84% of the research respondents. Dissatisfaction with the levels of information provided during the Open Day, was confirmed by the majority of respondents, representing 16%

RECOMMENDATIONS

In this section, the recommendation emanating from the research results will be presented. The purpose of research recommendation is to indicate possible strategies, and recommendations. The majority of respondents that attended the Open Day are young people, aged 18 years. There is a definite need to find out the specific needs of this age category of visitors so that the institution and tourism practitioners can know what they can do, to appeal to this market. The fact that the majority of these respondents presents an opportunity to market the attractions of the City of Tshwane to the attendees. The city has a range of low costs entry attractions that can be consumed by the Open Day attendees as part of recreational activities during spare leisure time after attending the Open Day. The Open Day is an excellent opportunity for TUT to market itself a higher education institution, in the market for the best students in competition to other higher education institutions. In addition, the City of Tshwane's tourism officials and city based entrepreneurs can use the opportunity presented by the TUT Open Day to market the city's attractions, events and '101 things to do in Tshwane'. The experience that day visitors to Tshwane will attain after consuming tourism product offerings after visiting the TUT Open Day will be greatly enriched.

There is a research gap that exists, as to find out why there are so few older attendees of the TUT Open Day. 1% of the Open Day attendees, the minority in the age category are attendees that reflected that their age is 29 years. The fact that there are low numbers of this age category that visits the Open Day is a worry considering that there is a need to achieve lifelong learning in South Africa amongst the population. People at that age category would be expected to be undertaking postgraduate studies, at the level of a Bachelors, Masters and Doctoral degrees. The needs of much elder people is necessary to investigate so that their particular needs are addressed during the next TUT Open Day. Its therefore imperative that there is a separation of the TUT Open Day to cater for undergraduate students and

postgraduate students. The communication and marketing will be different and cater for the special needs of these different interest groups. This differentiation should be internalised at TUT, in the application, registration and student services that will be catering for undergraduate and postgraduate students.

The majority of research respondents when gender is considered were males, which was interesting. The reasons for the lack of female attendees to the TUT Open Day must be investigated in detail. The fact that the majority of Open Day attendees are comfortable about the safety and security measures put in place is commendable for the event. The fact that South Africa is a violent society with high levels of crime has resulted not just in personal safety and security being highly considered by potential tourists to a destination area. There is a need to investigate the reasons that the 12% of the research respondents can be they were not satisfied about the safety and security measured administered at the event. The majority of attendees to TUT Open Day were from within the Gauteng province, followed by the provinces of Mpumalanga and North West. Therefore, the residents of Gauteng must be marketed to ensure that they consume tourism offering by investigating the media avenues that will appeal and reach their attentions.

CONCLUSIONS

Stone (2006) noted that the high levels of crime in the country are usually noted as constraint to growth. Therefore, the fact that TUT is a higher education institution, the fact that a safe environment existed during the Open Day, should be regarded within the broader image of Pretoria, as a tourism destination. Its therefore in the best interest of Tshwane to ensure that the conditions exist for what Leong (2008) defines as positive peace, which is characterised by ‘peacelessness’ with harmony, equity and justice. The destination management

professionals must investigate the potential risks also including terrorism that may face the broader destination, so that mitigation strategies are initiated. High investments are necessary by the Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, at the local government level, in addition by other state bodies at provincial and national government, in safety and security measures.

This includes (Stone, 2006) investment on law enforcement, crime prevention and administration of justice. Visible policing and the existence of security guards on the TUT Pretoria West learning site can improve the perspectives of personal safety and security. There is a need that the Open Day is categorised into two sections: a section that will cater for undergraduate studies and then a section that will focus on post-graduate studies. This would also extend to the holding of these events separately to cater well for the different needs of the various interest groups. The postgraduate students will usually be employed and afford to pay to consume tourism product offerings. By specifically appealing to the needs of postgraduate students, the city of Tshwane can increase the tourism rands that it attracts due to the greater spending ability of the employed postgraduate students.

Disaster management plans must be developed and co-ordinate with the local government to ensure that the TUT Open Day is well planned, and executed. McFarlane (2003) notes that disaster management in South Africa is largely in the hands of municipalities, and other local authorities, mainly utilising fire, ambulance and police services. Unfortunate events happen from time to time and its imperative that destinations are well prepared to cater should unfortunate accidents and incidents occur. Tourism practitioners and businesses in the Tshwane area should take advantage of the event to ensure that the attendees spend more money within the local economy and secondly extend their length of stay. The *Domestic*

Tourism Survey 2012 (StatsSA, 2013) notes that the majority of trips in South Africa are for purposes of visiting friends and relatives, followed by shopping.

The TUT Open Day can be a great opportunity to increase the expenditure of students and their entourage that visit the Tshwane area by marketing the various areas where shopping can be consumed as a tourism activity. The Tshwane area has some of the largest malls in South Africa, which create ample opportunities for shopping experiences. The expenditure by Open Day attendees remains relatively low in general terms, and much must be done to ensure that the attendees increase their expenditure and length of stay. The research results indicate that the majority of attendees are satisfied with the personal safety and security at the TUT Open Day, held at the Pretoria West learning site. However, there is 12% that we not satisfied with the standards and levels of personal safety and security. Further research must be undertaken to investigate the reasons that the 12% were not satisfied, as a strategy for mitigating potential challenges associated with safety and security.

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AHTMMC

Some Legislations to Health and Safety Measures in the Context of Sexual Offences

&Hiv/Aids to Improve Tourism in First Class Tourist Destinations

The Mauritian Case Study-

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ABSTRACT

In an empirical research, this research reflects to what extent the HIV/AIDS pandemic disease might be a danger in an emerging sector like the tourism sector in Mauritius, its negative impact worldwide and on our in five stars hotels. Indeed, to attract tourism from abroad they must feel secure in Mauritius. Indeed, we found that in the past recent years despite that Mauritius remains a safe tourist destination très prisée nevertheless tourists have been subject of sexual harassment, rape, theft and even murder in five starts hotels. Over and above there are more and more tourists who are contaminated with HIV/AIDS and they might be a potential danger to Mauritius. The liability of the employer is very often in dispute and the law related to both civil and criminal liabilities is borrowed from French and English law. In our survey, apart from an overview of the literature review, we will also rely on primary and secondary datas to prove our statistics we gathered. However, the objectives of this paper is two-fold: this study shall demonstrate to what extent our legislations shall be improved to

counter crimes such as human trafficking ,prostitution and the impact of HIV/AIDS and other offences to awake public consciousness as to the importance of the tourism sector as one of the pillars in the socio-economic development of Mauritius especially at a time where the sugar industry has collapsed after a drastic cut in our importation to Europe and finally how tourism and hospitality management and foreign legislations may be implemented in our legal system so that Mauritius becomes even more a better and safer tourism destination.

KEYWORDS Sex and prostitution, the tourism industry, legislations, HIV/AIDS and diseases

INTRODUCTION.

How to protect paradise Mauritius against the transmission of the HIV/AIDS disease? There are relevant legislations on this disease but do they really provide for?The HIV/AIDS disease does not great chaos and havocs among the population alone.Indeed, it finds its way through various means (rape, sodomy, negligence, lack of counseling, drug peddling) and is a common scourge among travellers and tourists.If Mauritius expects to have some two millions tourist annually in the near future (2015) the government must ensure that all guarantees and precautions are taken that any tourist feels safe in Mauritius as a first class tourist destination despite the fact that there are some tourists who have been raped or murdered coupled with other vices such as violence, robbery, drug peddling and alcoholism in hotels as they are centres for mass tourism.If Mauritius also represents sun, sand and sea there is also sex tourism. After the manufacturing sector and the agriculture, the tourism industry is on the pillars of the Mauritian economy with an average annual rate of 9% with a corresponding increase of about 21% in tourism receipts contributing to 14% of the Mauritian GDP. This study reflects to what extent legislations are important to fight against prostitution, protect

sex workers and HIV/AIDS in Mauritius as they may affect the tourism industry to flourish coupled with local legislations and other health and safety measures (and policies in five starts hotels to attract tourists from abroad). And sometimes the liability of the worker, employee or employer is very often in dispute in a country where UK common law and French law still prevail. In our survey, apart from an overview of literature review, we will rely on primary datas (questionnaires and fieldwork) and secondary datas (CSO, UNCTAD) to prove our statistics on some criminal offences based on SPSS. Actually, facts and figures on tourism on sexual offences are alarming despite legislations which are more and more stringent but over and above there are human trafficking, child prostitution, HIV/AIDs among prostitutes and their clients and the situation seems more alarming than ever. Despite that there is an abundant literature review on tourism in Mauritius linked with its different factors and indicators (tourism policy, tourist economy, impact of tourism on the socio-economic development) there is nevertheless an inexistent literature review on sex workers and their impact on the tourism sector coupled with various offences in a legal and human rights perspectives. There are three areas which have identified which may provoke chaos and disorder in the development of the tourism sector in Mauritius: the proliferation of diseases such like the HIV/AIDS among sex workers, sexual offences especially among the juveniles and offences (rape and other sexual offences) which have been committed against tourists on the island and who may eventually spread the diseases between themselves and local inhabitants. In a contextualized approach, our research is based on relevant legislations on sex workers, their rights to privacy and HIV/AIDS. In a legal approach we have cited facts and figures borrowed from the Central Statistics Office (CSO) and what shall come out of this study could be in the form of a message to inform the population of the danger of such activities among juveniles, sex workers in hotels and massage parlours and other call-girls. It is therefore crucial to make a study on sex workers in hotels, massage parlours and to what

extent they must be protected against sexual offences such as sexual assaults and other offences. Therefore, with relevant legislations (HIV/AIDS Act, OSHA 2005, Employment Rights Act 2008) on the subject-matter coupled with facts and figures whenever they are available are borrowed from secondary datas (Central Statistics Office) the authors try to explain the sudden expansion of this new scourge in the tourism sector worldwide capable of destroying the tourism environment which prevails for so long in Mauritius. Cleanliness, health, safety, ventilation, fencing machinery and hygiene are not only very important on the workplace but they also prevent workers/employees to be injured or to prevent injured for loss of income. Despite that the legislature has passed some important legislations with a view to protect all citizens irrespective they are tourists or local citizens there are issues related to some human rights on the workplace (protection from victimization and discrimination, and rights to privacy for victims of HIV/AIDS).

With a view to explain the danger of sexual offences and the transmission of HIV/AIDS among the population and what the law provides for the structure of this paper is divided into parts. After an introduction (I), the problem statement and the literature review (II), the author reveals some important legal aspects on human trafficking and sex workers (III), right to privacy and jurisprudence related to HIV/AIDS and medical testing (IV), the paper will close with a conclusion and recommendations (V) and some references on this field of the tourism sector (VI).

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND LITERATURE REVIEW

How to improve the tourism sector in Mauritius? Tourism destinations are more and more competitive in the Indian Ocean. If there are various facilities (direct flights, cheap hotels and accommodation) few countries in these regions might however, not be securing health safety as Mauritius where despite HIV/AIDS rate is low crimes and various sexual offences are on

the rise. Consequently, the health security of local citizens, tourists and other foreigners are jeopardised by the transmission of diseases such as the HIV/AIDS. In this research paper, we consider that there strong linkages between legislations on health and safety precautions and HIV/AIDS and second how the Mauritian legislator has passed relevant legislations (*Occupational Safety and Health Act 2005* and the *HIV/AIDS Act*) and has ratified international legal instruments and other protocols to fight against this new scourge. People visit Mauritius either with their relatives, partners or children (Forsythe, Hasbun and Butler de Lister). Whether in Mauritius or elsewhere studies throughout the world have reflected that there are common links between HIV/AIDS and tourism (Broring 1996) such that alcohol consumption has an important impact on the sexual behaviour of tourists (Conway and al. 1990; Ford 1991). As an illustration, in Sweden up to one-quarter of female charter tourists and interall travellers from Sweden experienced one sexual contact with a previously unknown partner (Arvidson 1995). We found that sexual offences are also very high in Mauritius. Alcohol and drugs consumptions may account for this. It is also found that people make friends and meet tourists to build relationships which are to a considerable degree unsafe (Ford 1991). People travel in Mauritius to have sex with sex workers in hotels and massage parlours which they have do not share with their male or female counterpart, to enjoy romance and intimacy. Consequently, unaccompanied travellers to Mauritius or elsewhere have sex with tourists and other local population and are very frequent on holidays (Conway and al. 1990). Despite, there are sexual contacts the use of condom with tourists and the local population is far from consistent (Ford 1991). A study in the United Kingdom revealed that men were more likely to have sexual intercourse while on holidays, while women on vacation were less likely to use condoms when they are engage in sex (Daniels 1992). However, whether the actual or the perceived prevalence of HIV in a country where there is HIV/AIDS does not affect at all the travel plans of tourists (Bennett 1990).

HUMAN TRAFFICKING, SEX WORKERS AND PROSTITUTION

Unlike other countries where there are sex workers and prostitution in massage parlours and which indeed attract tourists the situation is still not alarming in Mauritius or at least for the time being. Despite that there no official figures to human trafficking in Mauritius the situation is alarming worldwide. Children worldwide have been kidnapped to serve as prostitutes in massage parlour and as call-girls other luxurious hotels. Similarly, sex workers are tempted to settle in Mauritius as there is easy money to obtain from rich clients in most hotels in Mauritius. Again, there are no official figures (see figure below) maybe with a view not to discourage tourist arrivals in Mauritius. Article 3 of the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and children, Supplementing the UN Convention Against Transnational Organised Crime defined counter-trafficking as: “the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of threat, use of force or other means of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the receiving or giving of payment to a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation”.

REPUBLIC OF MAURITIUS
STATISTICS RELATING TO NOTIFICATION OF HIV / AIDS CASES AND DEATHS 1987 - 2012

PERIOD	NEW CASES OF HIV / AIDS NOTIFIED [@]									DEATHS REGISTERED AMONG HIV / AIDS CASES (MAURITIAN) ^{##}			of which HIV as underlying cause of death
	MAURITIAN			NON-MAURITIAN			TOTAL			MALE	FEMALE	BOTH SEXES	
	MALE	FEMALE	BOTH SEXES	MALE	FEMALE	BOTH SEXES	MALE	FEMALE	BOTH SEXES				
1987-1999	113	58	171	49	10	59	162	68	230	38	13	51	...
2000	32	18	50	3	4	7	35	22	57	10	3	13	...
2001	34	21	55	12	2	14	46	23	69	5	3	8	...
2002	59	39	98	3	1	4	62	40	102	9	4	13	...
2003	167	58	225	12	3	15	179	61	240	11	8	19	...
2004	464	61	525	8	2	10	472	63	535	16	6	22	...
2005	815	106	921	5	2	7	820	108	928	38	6	44	19
2006	455	87	542	9	4	13	464	91	555	35	9	44	31

2007	452	94	546	16	6	22	468	100	568	56	13	69	60
2008	402	136	538	12	7	19	414	143	557	55	7	62	50
2009	436	112	548	6	1	7	442	113	555	35	4	39	33
2010	433	135	568	8	4	12	441	139	580	78	15	93	70
2011	298	103	401	10	6	16	308	109	417	79	13	92	58
2012	215	105	320	6	1	7	221	106	327	97	8	105	76
TOTAL	4375	1133	5508	159	53	212	4534	1186	5720	562	112	674	

Since 2005 information obtained from the Civil Status Office are used to adjust figures related to death

STATISTICS RELATING TO HIV TESTS CARRIED OUT 2010 - 2012®

CATEGORY	2010			2011			2012		
	Number of tests	number	Rate per 100 tests	Number of tests	number	Rate per 100 tests	Number of tests	number	Rate per 100 tests
Blood donors - Island of Mauritius	43,471	15	0.03	44,286	12	0.03	46,250	9	0.02
Blood donors - Island of Rodrigues	829	-	-	838	-	-	943	-	-
Persons of high risk groups*	8,929	318	3.56	8,735	259	2.97	8,107	194	2.39
Migrant workers (incoming foreigners)	7,318	12	0.16	8,467	16	0.19	7,837	8	0.10
Request for visa purposes (outgoing Mauritians)	225	-	-	33	-	-	23	-	-
Cardiac and renal patients (including dialysis) undergoing surgery and their blood donors	3,391	-	-	3,300	-	-	3,314	-	-
Screening on target groups (prison inmates, sailors & TB patients)	4,733	195	4.12	5,238	100	1.91	4,778	75	1.57
Voluntary testing	656	2	0.30	900	-	-	638	2	0.31
Antenatal cases screened \$ - Island of Mauritius	13,512	37	0.27	12,763	30	0.24	12,333	38	0.31
Antenatal cases screened \$ - Island of Rodrigues	836	1	0.12	729	-	-	557	-	-
Others#	532	-	-	569	-	-	1,248	1	0.08
TOTAL TESTS£	84,432	580	0.69	85,858	417	0.49	86,028	327	0.38

* Commercial Sex workers, Injecting drug users, Homo/bisexual, patients/contact tracing, S.H.C. and Syphilis positive patients including at NDCCI

Other outreach activities/Drug addicts Rehabilitation Centres/Post Mortems/insurance/survey

@ refers to Republic of Mauritius

\$ excluding known HIV/AIDS cases (31 in 2010 and 28 in 2011 and 45 in 2012)

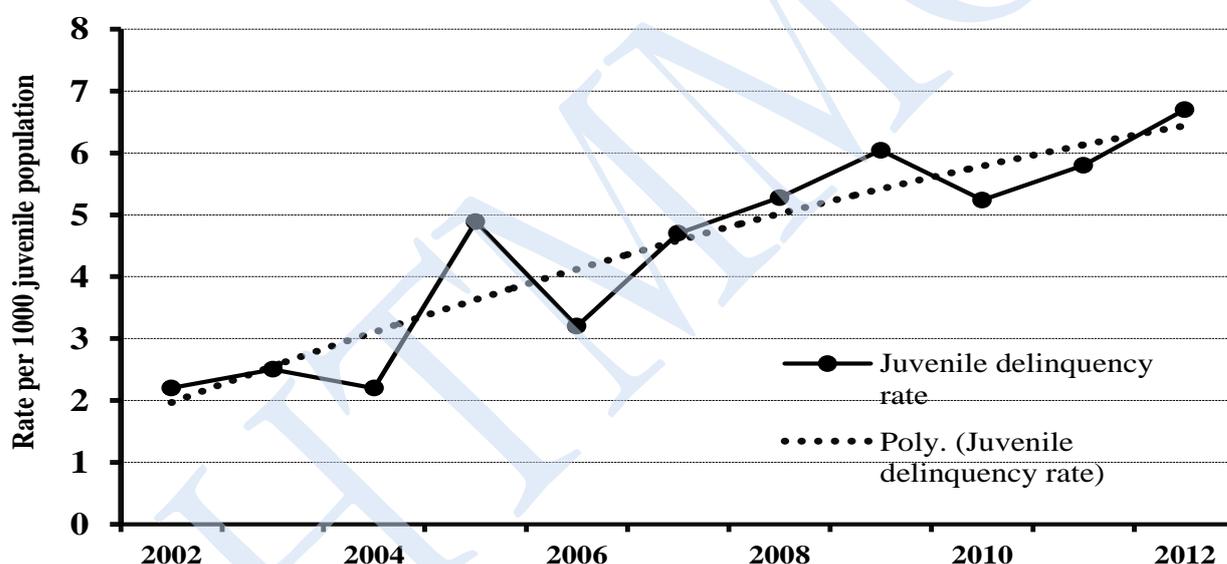
£ excl BB/Apheresis and repeats

(Source : Ministry of Health and Quality of Life 2012)

The HIV/AIDS disease expands through sex trafficking and other sexual offences (Figure 4.1 illustrates the juvenile delinquency rate). Sex trafficking, which forms part and parcel of human trafficking, is a crime but unfortunately it is more and more common around the world especially in poor and developing countries (Thailand, Cambodia, Mauritius) where predators (traffickers) may find easy preys and tender victims like children (most of them are abandoned children, orphans or just left on the street) to force them to prostitution. Even parents (very often drug-addicted persons) and relatives may force their children to prostitution but the worse to come is that (poor) children are subject to sex trafficking in

exchange of food, money and shelter. To combat against this scourge the Mauritian government also demonstrated increased anti-trafficking law enforcement efforts with the promulgation of the Combating of Trafficking in Persons Act 2009 and with very severe penalties (infra) to convicted offenders.

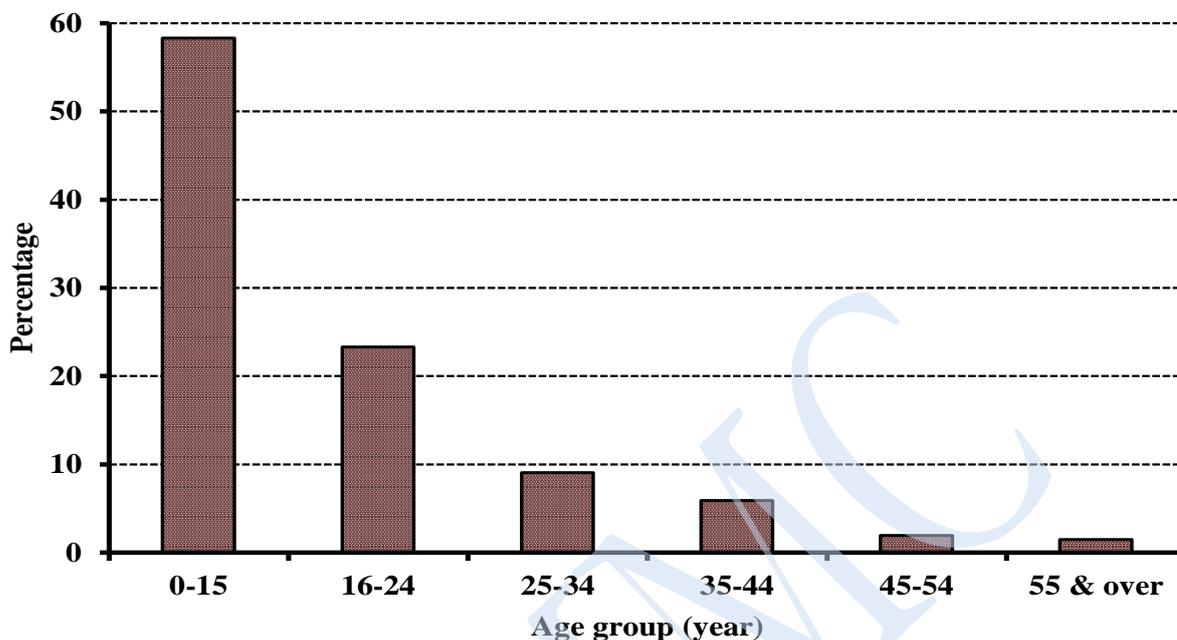
Figure 4.1 - Juvenile delinquency rate (excluding contraventions), Republic of Mauritius, 2002 - 2012



(Source : Crime, Justice and Security Statistics, 2012
(Police, Judiciary, Prisons and Probation))

It is an important piece of legislation as it deals, inter alia, with sexual exploitation, forced marriage, forced labour, illegal removal of body organs, intimidation, trafficking and slavery (Figure 1.9 illustrates victims of sexual offences in Mauritius).

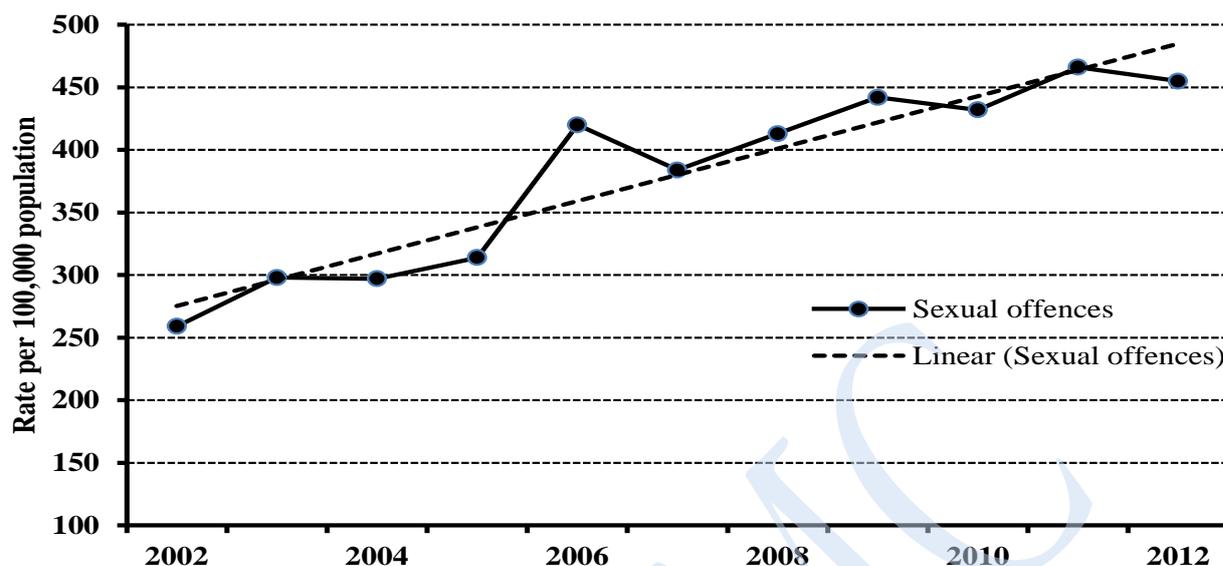
Figure 1.9 - Victims of sexual offences by age group, Island of Mauritius, 2012



(Source : Crime, Justice and Security Statistics, 2012
(Police, Judiciary, Prisons and Probation))

Up to now there are one or two important cases which deal with sexual exploitation in Mauritius: the first case is related to a grandmother who allegedly forced her granddaughter into prostitution (2007) and the case of a male massage parlour owner who was suspected of pimping a 16 year old girl to a male client (2010). Both cases have been referred to the DPP by the police (Minors Brigade). According to an ILO Report, Mauritius is among the country which has the lowest economically active children aged between 10-14. Figure 1.8 illustrates the total sexual offences in the Republic of Mauritius during the period 2002-2012.

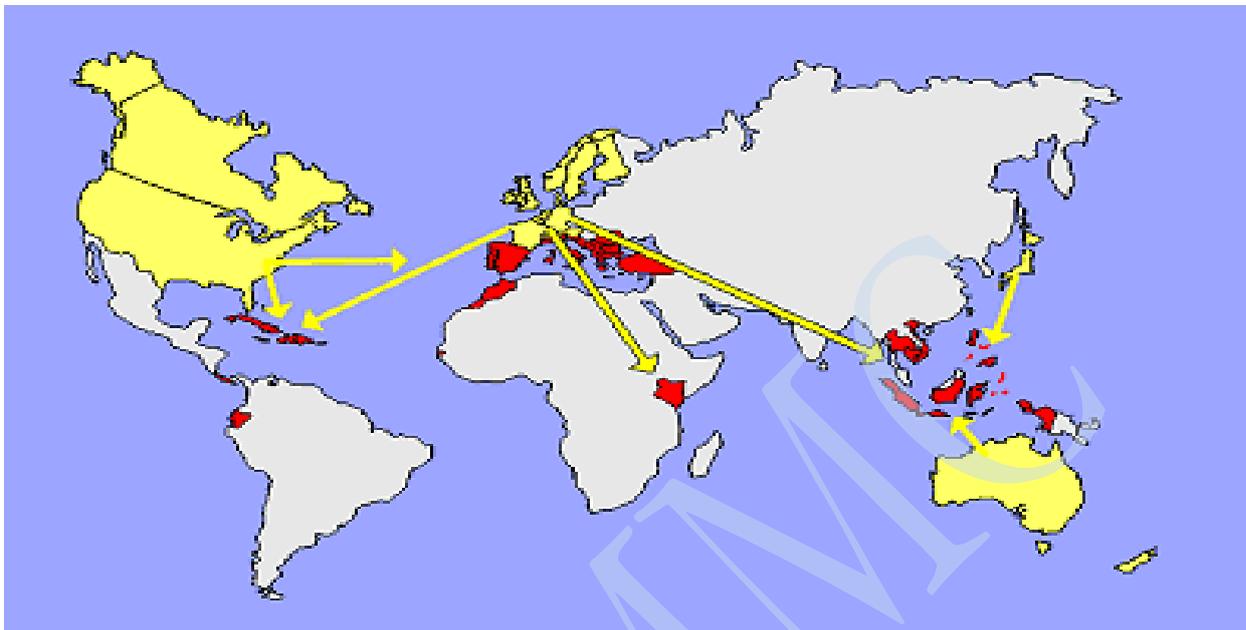
Figure 1.8 - Total sexual offences, Republic of Mauritius, 2002 - 2012



(Source : Crime, Justice and Security Statistics, 2012
(Police, Judiciary, Prisons and Probation))

The United States published the Trafficking in Persons Report annually. One of its reports reveals that two Malagasy nationals were convicted in 2009 of holding a small number of foreign workers (and among them some Mauritians) in condition of forced labour. It prohibits all forms of trafficking for adults and children and prescribes penalties of up to 15 years' imprisonment for convicted offenders. Section 2 of the Combating of Trafficking in Persons Act 2009 enacts that: "exploitation includes (a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, including forced marriage; (b) sexual exploitation; (c) forced labour; and (d) the illegal removal of body organs". Section 2 of the Combating of Trafficking in Persons Act 2009 also provides that "forced labour" means labour or services obtained or maintained through threats, the use of force, intimidation or other forms of coercion, or physical restraint". In Vishal Jeet v Union of India, the Court held that the term expression 'traffic in human beings' is evidently a very wide expression including the prohibition or traffic in women for immoral or other purposes. Similarly, section 13A of the Child Protection Act

1994 prohibits all forms of child trafficking and prescribes punishment of up to 15 years' imprisonment for convicted offenders.



(Destination Map of Female Sex Tourism. Source Wikipedia)

However, the Judicial Provisions Act 2009 (Act 9 of 1999) provides for more severe penalties as it increased the maximum prescribed punishment for child trafficking offenses to 30 years' imprisonment. In Mauritius, there are good and strong institutions like the Ombudsperson for Children's Office, the Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare, The Ministry of Labour's Special Migrant Unit, Amnesty International, the Police Force of course, local NGOs, International Organization for Migration (IOM) in Mauritius and even the Passport and Immigration Office to fight against child prostitution. In addition to these Acts of Parliament children's rights are guaranteed in the Civil Code (infra) and the Criminal Code child labour is also protected under section 12 of the Employment Rights Act 2008. The two following figures give an idea of persons who have been prosecuted according to UN classification during the period 2011-2012.

Table 1.8 - Persons prosecuted according to UN classifications of offences, Republic of Mauritius, 2011 & 2012

Offences¹	2011	2012
Homicide and related offences	121	160
<i>of which intentional homicide(committed)</i>	33	34
Assault and related offences	4,862	4,204
<i>of which simple assault</i>	4,733	4,054
Sexual Offences	266	252
<i>of which rape</i>	21	21
Property offences	4,650	3,793
<i>of which theft</i>	3,584	2,712
Drug offences	1,770	1,404
Other offences	3,446	3,463
Total	15,115	13,276

¹ Exclude contraventions

(Source : Crime, Justice and Security Statistics, 2012
(Police, Judiciary, Prisons and Probation))

Table 2.3 - Convictions at the Judiciary according to UN classification of offences, Republic of Mauritius, 2011 & 2012

Offences	Number	
	2011	2012
Homicide and related offences	79	82
<i>of which intentional homicide (committed)</i>	6	6
<i>manslaughter</i>	-	4
Assault	3,755	3,760
Sexual offences	155	190
<i>of which Attempt upon chastity</i>	22	38
<i>Sexual intercourse with minor under 16</i>	59	96
Property offences	6,033	5,552
Fraud and dishonesty	894	813
Embezzlement	167	162
Theft (excluding automobile theft)	3,811	3,447
Other property offences	1,161	1,130
Drug offences	2,656	2,394
Road traffic contraventions	73,073	88,217
Other contraventions	312	303
Other offences	11,715	13,197
Total	97,778	113,695

Traffic in persons especially women to prostitution is incompatible to their dignity. It is estimated that 2 million people world-wide are trafficked each and every year! Unlike other countries our Constitution does not provide for 'traffic'. It is dealt with under special legislations such as the Combating of Trafficking in Persons Act 2009. In India, the Constitution in its section 23(1) provides for the term 'traffic in human being' which is prohibited. The term 'traffic in human beings' includes selling and buying of women and children for immoral or other purposes since the case of Raj Bahadur v. Legal Remembrance and Basudev v Mittal . Any contravention of it is an offence punishable in accordance with law coupled with the Indian Penal Code which provides punishment for procurement of a minor girl from part of India to another , importation of a girl under the age of 21 year is also punishable and section 374 provide punishment for compelling a person to labour against the will of a person. However, the State may impose, without discrimination, compulsory service for 'public purposes'. In addition to the Indian Constitution and the Indian Penal Code there are the Suppression of Immoral of Traffic in Women and Girls Act 1956 and Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act 1987 to reinforce the Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitutions of Others 1972, to which India is a State Party (signed and ratified). In the case of Orisa Patita Uddhar Samiti v. State of Orissa the Orissa High Court found that since sex workers have no facilities such as water, electricity and health care and that they are victims of sexual exploitation. Under the League of Nations, several international legal instruments were adopted with a view to combat traffic in persons especially women and children but which were consolidated by the United Nations in 1949. These international instruments are:

1. International Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in women and Children 1921
2. International Convention for the Supression of the Traffic in Women of Full age 1933

3. Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others 1949

RIGHT TO PRIVACY AND JURISPRUDENCE RELATED TO HIV/AIDS AND MEDICAL TESTING.

Irrespective they are tourists or not any person has a right to privacy. This issue is important and there are leading cases where the Court stated that a person has a right to privacy as to his HIV/AIDS status (*infra*). The right to privacy is not guaranteed in the Indian Constitution (*supra*). However, in *People's Union for Civil Liberties v Union of India*³ the Indian Supreme Court stated that the right to life and personal liberty includes the right to privacy and right to privacy includes telephone conversation in the privacy at home or office and thus telephone tapping being a serious invasion of an individual's right to privacy and eventually violates Article 21. In the local case of *MBC vLui Fai*⁴ (*supra*), the Supreme Court held that no employer may open the letter addressed to an employee. In *X v Commission of the European Communities*⁵, it was held that an employer cannot require a worker to be a subject of medical testing, unless the worker gives his consent. Right to privacy includes the right to privacy to health especially when a worker or employee is sick because of a notorious disease such as the HIV/AIDS. In fact, workers and employees who have HIV/AIDS have also a right to privacy about their health including, in particular, their HIV status. A person's HIV status is judicial notice and knowing that, *inter alia*, a friend or a colleague at work is HIV positive immediately exposes him/her to prejudice, stigma, marginalization and discriminatory treatment especially at the workplace. The following extract from the *International Guidelines on HIV/AIDS and Human Rights*⁶ provides a succinct explanation of

³People's Union for Civil Liberties v. Union of India AIR 1997 Supreme Court

⁴ MBC v. Lui Fai 001993 SCJ 304

⁵ X v. Commission of the European Communities 1994 ECR 1-4737

⁶ The International Guidelines were published jointly by the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights and UN AIDS in February 1998 and have since been used by Governments, human rights institutions, UN agencies and bodies, non-governmental organizations,

the importance of protecting privacy in this context, and of the relationship between protecting privacy and protecting public health:

“The individual’s interest in his/her privacy is particularly compelling in the context of HIV/AIDS, firstly in view of the invasive character of the mandatory HIV test and, secondly by reason of the stigma and discrimination attached to the loss of privacy and confidentiality if HIV status is disclosed. The community has an interest in maintaining privacy, so that people will feel safe and comfortable in using public health measures, such as HIV/AIDS prevention and care services”.

In *X v. Commission of the European Communities*⁷, the European Court had to construe the meaning of Article 8(1) of the European Convention on Human Rights 1950 which is similar to Article 12 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. This Article provides that: “Everyone has the right to respect for his private and family life, his home and his correspondence.” This case is interesting. X refused to undergo an HIV test prior to his application for employment with the European Commission and that his informed consent was required in order for the T4/T8 test by the medical examiner. X was not asked to undergo HIV testing but rather HIV testing was proposed and when he refused, unlawfully substituted testing program. Whatsoever, he argued that without consent, the T4/T8 test amounted to an unauthorized surrogate test for HIV in violation of his right to privacy but the European Commission denied that his informed consent was not required for the T4/T8 test and that his tacite consent had been given when he submitted to the medical examination. In rebuttal, the European Commission stated clearly in its defence that:

“the fact of being an asymptomatic carrier of HIV is not itself a cause of unfitness since there is no risk of transmission in normal working relations and, as such, HIV tests were only undertaken when considered necessary on the basis of expert medical opinion and, even then, only on the basis of informed consent”.

and people living with HIV/AIDS as a tool for HIV/AIDS and human rights training, policy formation, developing HIV/AIDS related legislation and advocacy

⁷ X v. Commission of the European Communities 1994 ECR I-4737 5 October 1994, para. 17

The European Court of Human Rights held that “*respect for private life includes in particular a person’s right to keep his state of health secret*”. Though the European Court acknowledged the legitimacy of pre-recruitment medical examination in the following terms:

“the pre-recruitment examination serves a legitimate interest of the Community institutions, which must be in a position to fulfill the tasks required of them. If the person concerned, after being properly informed, withholds his consent to a test which the medical officer considers necessary in order to evaluate his suitability for the post for which he has applied, the institutions cannot be obliged to take the risk of recruiting him”

Nevertheless it agreed with X, and annulled the European Commission’s decision to refuse to engage him on the grounds that he was physically unfit. What can be understood and retained in the case of *X v. Commission of the European Communities (supra)*, and *A v Commission of the European Communities*⁸, is that a requirement for HIV testing in the employment context will be considered justified on the basis of knowledgeable medical opinion in order for an employer to be in a situation to assess properly the physical and mental capacity of an employee or applicant for employment. In the same line the case of *Mr X. Hospital Z*⁹ where the Indian Supreme Court held that the right to privacy is an essential component of right to life envisaged by Article 21. The Supreme Court added that the right is not absolute and may be lawfully restricted for the prevention of crime, disorder or protection of health or morals or protection of rights and freedoms of others. It was held by the Supreme Court that by disclosing that the appellant was suffering from HIV/AIDS the medical practitioner has not violated the right to privacy. In practically the same line the case of *Sharda v Dharmpal*¹⁰ and *Zahida Begum v MustaqueAhamed*¹¹. In the leading case of *Smith and Grady v The United Kingdom*¹² and *Lustig-Prean and Beckett v The United Kingdom*¹³, the applicants, who were former members of the Royal Air Force and Royal Navy complained that investigations into

⁸ A v. Commission of the European Communities

⁹ Mr X. . Hospital Z AIR 1999 Supreme Court

¹⁰ Sharda v. Dharmpal AIR 2003 Indian Supreme Court

¹¹ Zahida Begum v. MustaqueAhamed AIR 2006 Karnata

¹² Smith and Grady v. The United Kingdom Application and O.S 33985/96 and 33986/96, ECHR, 27 Sept. 1999

¹³ Lustig-Prean and Beckett v. The United Kingdom, application and O.S 31417/96 and 32377/96, ECHR, 27 Sept. 1999

their homosexuality and their discharge on that basis constituted a violation of their privacy rights under Article 8 of the European Court of Human Rights. In rebuttal, the Government defended its position on the ground for *“the maintenance of the morale of service personnel and, consequently, of the fighting power and operational effectiveness of the Armed Forces”*. The ECHR, however, found in favour of the applicants concluding that the Government’s actions amounted to a violations of the applicants’ rights to privacy that could not be justified as *“necessary in a democratic society”*. It was held that:

“These attitudes, even if sincerely felt by those expressed the, ranged from stereotypical expression of hostility to those of homosexual orientation, to vague expression of unease. To the extent that they represent a predisposed bias, these negative attitudes cannot, of themselves, be considered by the Court to amount sufficient justification for the interferences with the applicants’ rights outlined above any more than similar negative attitudes toward those of a different race, origin or colour. When the relevant restrictions concern a most intimate part of an individual’s private life, there must exist particularly serious reasons before such interferences can satisfy the requirements of Article 8(2) of the ECHR. It is open to the State to impose restrictions on an individual’s rights to respect for his private life where there is a real threat to the armed forces’ operational effectiveness, as the proper functioning of an army is hardly imaginable without legal rules designed to prevent service personnel from undermining it. However, the national authorities cannot rely on such rule to frustrate the exercise by individual members of the armed forces of their right to respect for their private lives, which right applies to service personnel as it does to others within the jurisprudence of the State”.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Mauritius is a first class tourist destination. The policy of the government is to attract more than 2 million tourists in the next couple of years. However, criminality rate is on the rise. Sexual offences have taken a different dimension actually and the sex industry is also alarming. It provides for easy money attracting tourists worldwide and local fellow countrymen as well. There is a high risk of contamination among sex workers, prostitutes, call-girl and homosexuals both local and abroad and women who are not protected against HIV/AIDS. There is a strong need for the government, academics and other researchers in this field to conduct research, encourage condom promotion and

distribution, voluntary counseling and testing just to name a few in order to fight against the proliferation of the HIV/AIDS.

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AHTMMC

Medical Tourists in Mauritius:

Where does the Right to Privacy on HIV/AIDS Status stands?

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ABSTRACT

Despite Mauritius is a tourist destination, there is not yet a proper legislation on medical tourists and/or there is no reliable data or surveys, in contrast to UK, about how many medical tourists come to Mauritius annually or how much money tourists spend in Mauritius prior to their departure? However, if some tourists have been victims of criminal offences and despite that there are strong and reliable precedents of the Supreme Court there is still no reliable research in this area on how many medical tourists have been subject to medical negligence under civil law and torts in Mauritius, who would pay for damages if any and there is still no local judgment on this issue *per se*. However, Mauritian law is a mixed system or *droit mixte* and since our Courts are following French civil cases on this issue and on this area of the law the aim of this paper is to rely on foreign precedents cases demonstrating to what extent they might enlighten our own local decisions to come up with the proper *ratio decidendi* and right and reliable *stare decisis*. What shall come out of this paper would inevitably be of *d'origine prétorienne* motivating the legislator to come up with a legislation to cater for medical tourist and medical negligence in Mauritius.

KEYWORDS Medical negligence, medical tourist, HIV/AIDS and right to privacy

INTRODUCTION

People travel around the globe for business, sea, sex and fun. Actually, there are medical tourists who are travellers in search of the best medicine, the best massage parlour or the best clinics to be cured because these are facilities which are either not available in their country, are too expensive or they are efficient and reliable. Developed countries have the most recent apparatus and medical facilities to afford the best treatment to their patients irrespective they are local citizens or people coming from abroad but this statement is not always true. Indeed, developed countries have their medical tourists as well and they moved to countries like India or Mauritius to have local treatment (herbs, massage, meditation, minerals) they do not enjoy in their country. Medical tourism, by definition, is a new phenomenon whereby more and more people and travellers are moving abroad more or less for a short period to be cured and to have access to foreign medical treatment. Patients need treatment and they commonly travel abroad for different types of treatment ranging from fertility to surgery treatment. The development of medical tourist may also one of the next pillars in the socio-economic development of Mauritius. In fact Mauritius has all the necessary infrastructures, administrative buildings, hotels, beaches and lagoons to encourage medical tourism. If there are around 900,000 tourists who visit the country annually however there is no accurate survey to identify who among them are classified as medical tourists. If they eventually spend money in Mauritius and pay fees for treatment it is implied that it is an additional revenue for the welfare of the economy of the island. However, there are various risks and perils. For instance, who is liable in case of medical negligence? Patients have also a right to privacy and their HIV/AIDS status may also be in dispute. What happens if a medical tourist is either contaminated with HIV/AIDS or got contaminated during an operation? What happens if a medical tourist refuses to reveal his HIV/AIDS status to a local medical practitioner and then die after an operation? So, there are many legal issues in case of malpractice, medical

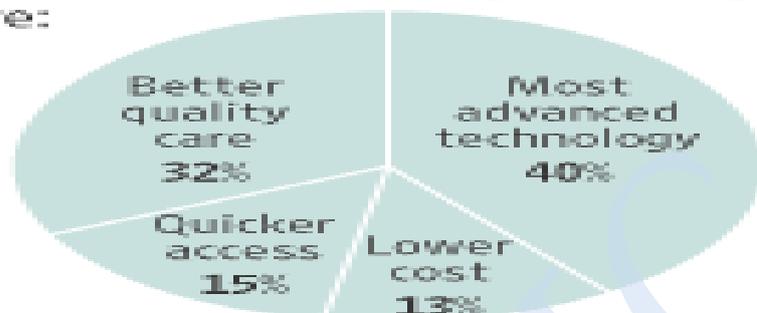
negligence, damages and torts, insurance cover coupled with ethical issues such as illegal purchase of organs (30/31) and tissues for transplantation (28). However, this contextualised paper is more focused on HIV/AIDS status of medical tourists and their right to privacy. After an introduction (I), this paper is structured on the problem statement and a literature review (II), medical tourist: Human rights and protection from discrimination and HIV/AIDS (III), medical Tourist and Right to privacy (IV) and a conclusion and some recommendations will close the paper (V) followed by some references (VI).

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Medical tourist is not a new phenomenon. Thousands of years ago Greeks travelled from all over the Mediterranean to the small territory in the Saronic Gulf. Nothing has changed in recent years and countries like Argentina, Brunei, Cuba, Colombia, Costa Rica, Hong Kong, Hungary, and India are popular destinations among medical tourist (4). In some countries some treatments (dental tourism and fertility tourism) are not legalised (plastic surgery 11) encouraging patients to travel abroad (3) and irrespective of the cost provided patients are properly treated.

Hospital Travel

Most of those who travel for medical care are seeking better care, not lower costs. Reasons cited by nearly 50,000 patients world-wide who sought foreign care:

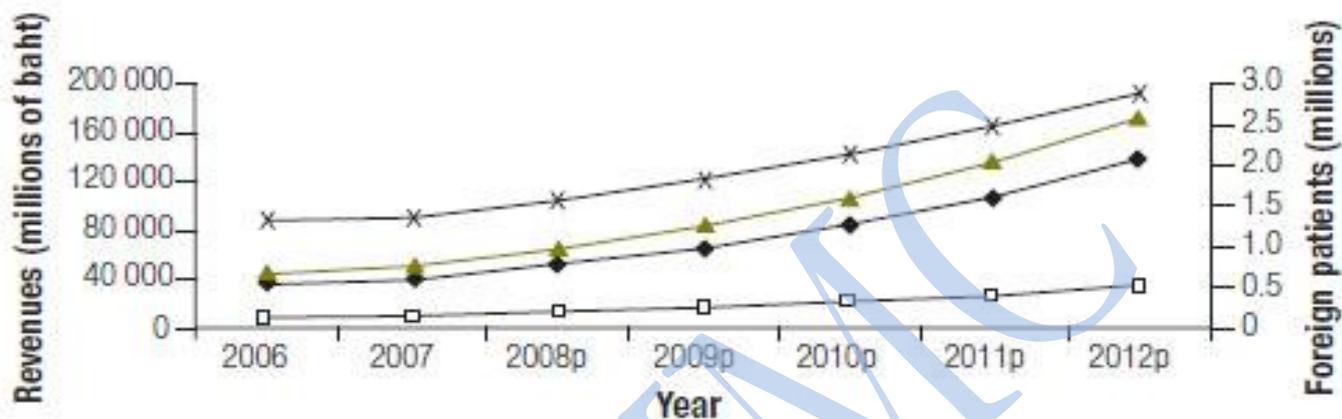


Source: McKinsey & Co.

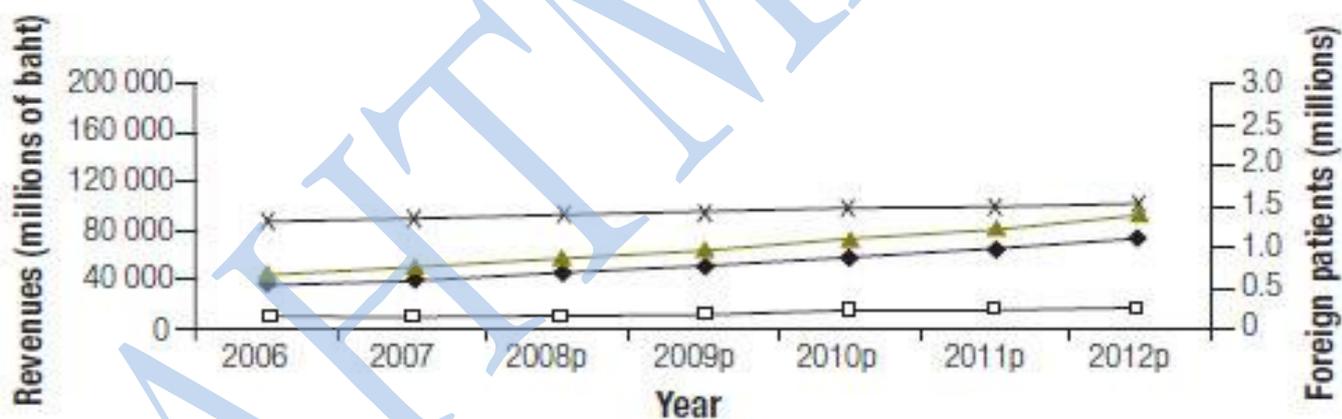
People travel to highly developed countries for medical treatment that is unavailable in their own country (1 and 2). There are other factors medical tourists take into consideration such as the ease and affordability of international travel, and improvements in both technology and standards of care in many countries (5). There is no settled list of treatments. They range from tuberculosis, thrombosis, mental and genetic disorders, liver disorders and bronchitis (4). These diseases are very often treated with care and speed (7 and 8). Costs for treatment are also in an important factor (6) but medical tourists may also move from the rich and developed countries to have treatment outside their own country and it is estimated that more than 1.5 million Americans would go abroad to seek health care outside the USA (9).

Fig. 1. Projected revenue generated by foreign patients: high- and low-growth scenarios, Thailand, 2008–2012

High-growth scenario^a



Low-growth scenario^b

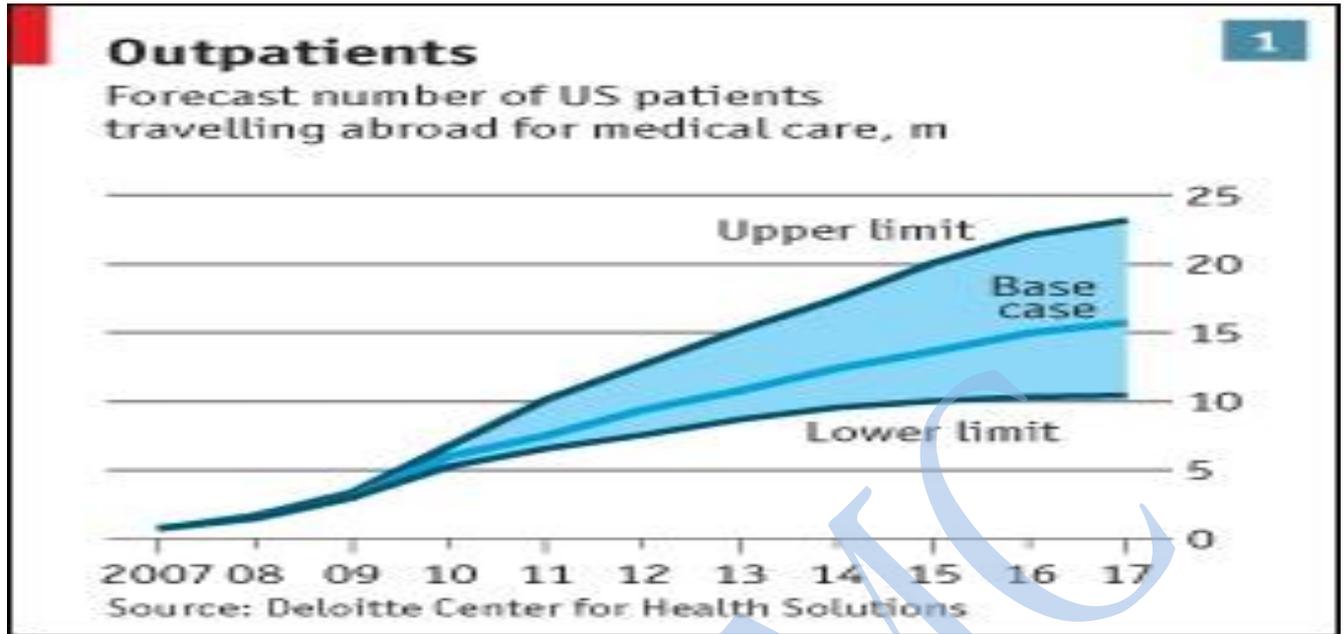


- ◆ Projected medical services revenue
- Projected accommodation and tourism revenue
- ▲ Projected total revenue from international patients and their companions
- × Number of international patients

p, projected.

^a Scenario in which the number of foreign patients in Thailand is assumed to grow at a faster rate than at present (16% per year).

^b Scenario in which the number of foreign patients in Thailand is assumed to grow at half the average annual rate of 2.5% seen in 2005–2007 (possible reasons: greater competition, the establishment of hospitals overseas, or new government regulations).



There are new destinations as well where medical tourists travel abroad for surrogacy, assisted pregnancy and in-vitro fertilisation (12).

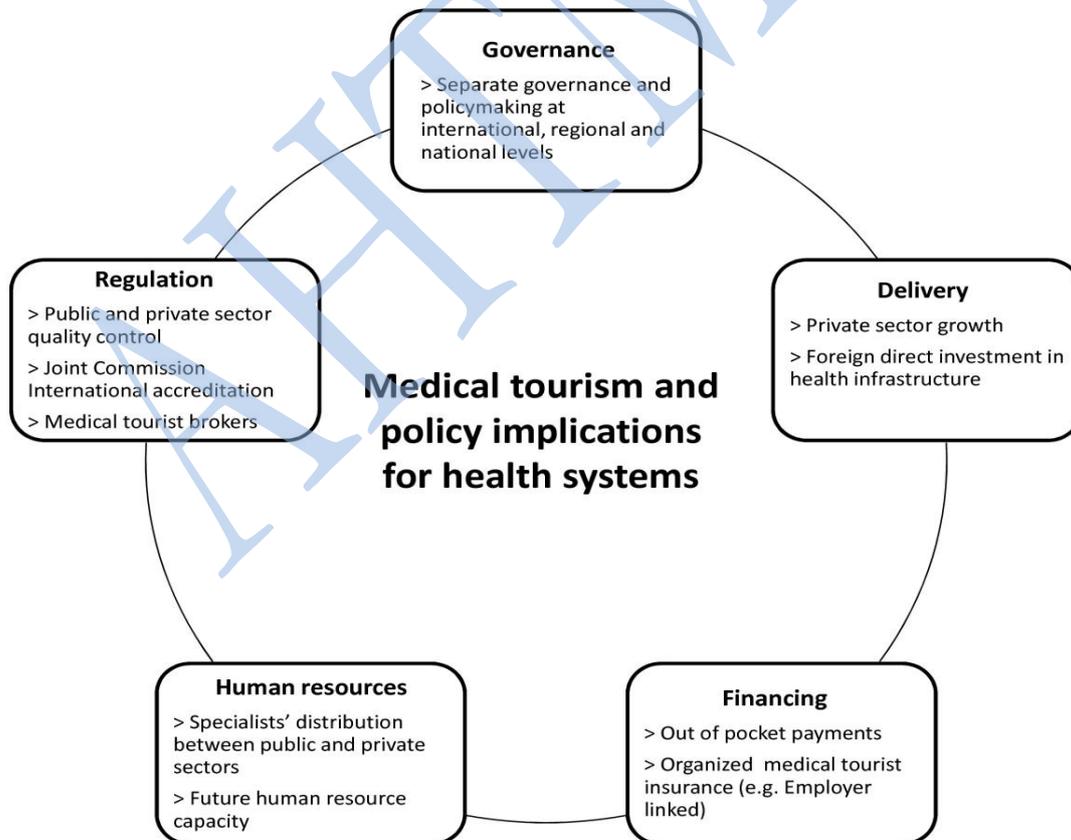


Table 3. Projected demand^a for physicians by Thai patients, Thailand, 2003–2015

Year	Estimated visits per patient per year		Population (million)	Outpatient equivalent visits (million)	Demand for physicians by Thai patients
	Outpatients	Inpatients			
2001	2.87	0.066	NA	NA	NA
2002	2.84	0.076	62.0	198.65–208.07	NA
2003p	3.62	0.086	63.3	247.50–258.39	2443–2795
2005p	3.87	0.092	64.5	270.18–282.07	1134–1315
2007p	4.29	0.099	65.7	302.10–315.15	1596–1838
2009p	4.77	0.106	67.0	338.40–352.65	1815–2083
2011p	5.16	0.113	68.2	371.17–386.66	1639–1889
2013p	5.59	0.120	69.4	407.78–424.55	1830–2105
2015p	6.03	0.127	70.7	445.59–463.70	1891–2175

NA, not applicable; p, projected.

^a Under the assumptions that only 70% of outpatients need to see a physician and that each physician can attend 18 000 to 20 000 Thai outpatients (or 900 to 1000 inpatients) per year, equivalent to approximately 72 to 80 outpatient visits a day.

Source: Pachanee & Wibulpolprasert.¹⁰

MEDICAL TOURIST: HUMAN RIGHTS AND PROTECTION FROM DISCRIMINATION AND HIV/AIDS

Human rights and human rights instruments provide protection for the individual at work. Most of these rights; such as right to remuneration, right to private life, right to a fair trial, right to tried before an impartial court ; are also applicable in labour and employment law. The issue here is whether workers and employees are excluded from service on the basis of their HIV status or HIV disease progression? At its meeting on 17th July 2000, the Security Council focused specifically on HIV/AIDS in United Nations peacekeeping operations. Its Resolution 1308¹⁴ expressed:

“concern at the potential damaging impact of HIV/AIDS on the health of international peacekeeping personnel, including support personnel and among, other things encouraged UNAIDS to continue to strengthen its cooperation with interested Member States to further

¹⁴ S/RES/1308 (2000) 17th July 2000, OP 1 and 5

develop its country profiles in order to reflect best practise and country's' policies on HIV/AIDS prevention, education, testing, counselling and treatment''.

Age group (Years)	Male	Female	TOTAL
<5	17	12	29
5 -14	5	7	12
15 - 19	76	107	183
20 - 24	531	236	767
25 - 29	924	228	1,152
30 - 34	833	181	1,014
35 - 39	651	137	788
40 - 44	605	104	709
45 - 49	400	56	456
50 & above	333	65	398
TOTAL	4,375	1,133	5,508

(Distribution of HIV/AIDS cases # by sex and age * group (1987 – 2012). Source : Ministry of Health and quality of Life 2012)

Right to privacy in the Mauritian Constitution.

An employee/worker in Mauritius enjoys a right to respect for his private life. Section 9 (Protection for privacy of home and other property) of the Constitution provides that:

“(1) Except with his own consent, no person shall be subjected to the search of his person or his property or the entry by others on his premises.

(2) Nothing contained in or done under the authority of any law shall be held to be inconsistent with or in contravention of this section to the extent that the law in question makes provision –

(a) in the interests of defence, public safety, public order, public morality, public health, town and country planning, the development or utilisation of mineral resources or the development or utilisation of any other property in such a manner as to promote the public benefit;

(b) for the purpose of protecting the rights or freedoms of other persons;

(c) to enable an officer or agent of the Government or a local authority, or a body corporate established by law for a public purpose, to enter on the premises of any person in order to value those premises for the purpose of any tax, rate or due, or in order to carry out work connected with any property that is lawfully on those premises and that belongs to the Government, the local authority or that body corporate, as the case may be; or

(d)to authorise, for the purpose of enforcing the judgment or order of a court in any civil proceedings, the search of any person or property by order of a court or the entry upon any premises by such order, except so far as that provision or, as the case may be, the thing done under its authority is shown not to be reasonably justifiable in a democratic society”.

HIV and AIDS Act 2006

The HIV and AIDS Act 2006 were passed by the Mauritius legislator and assented by the President of the Republic of Mauritius but in the absence of any precedent case in Mauritius reference will be based on foreign cases. In Mauritius, very strangely enough HIV status falls into the definition of harassment. Section 2 of the Employment Rights Act 2008 enacts that:

“harassment means any unwanted conduct, verbal, non-verbal, visual, psychological or physical, based on age, disability, HIV status, domestic circumstances, sexual orientation, race, colour, language, religion, political, trade union or other opinion or belief, national or social origin, association with a minority, birth or other status, that a reasonable person would have foreseen that a worker would be affected negatively in his dignity”.

The main objective of the HIV and AIDS Act 2006 is to protect the worker or employee against discrimination thus improving the right to equal treatment to one and all though in practice these goals are hard to achieve. Non-discrimination is a core principle of human rights law. Since our domestic law does not provide for any definition of discrimination for the UN Human Rights Committee the term ‘discrimination’ has been broadly defined to include:“Any distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference which is based on any of the grounds listed, and which has the purpose of effect of nullifying or impairing the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by all persons, on an equal footing, of all rights and freedoms”.Section 3(1) (HIV or AIDS not a disability) of the HIV and AIDS Act 2006enacts that:

“(1) Any person who is HIV-positive or has AIDS shall not be considered as having a disability or incapacity by virtue of any enactment and his status or presumed status shall not be used as a ground to discriminate against that person”.

Section 4(1) (HIV testing facilities) of the same Act enacts that:

“(1) No institution or non-governmental organisation shall carry out HIV testing unless it is registered with the Permanent Secretary”.

And Section 6 (Prohibited testing) of the same Act provides that:

“(1) No person shall induce or cause another person to undergo an HIV test -

(a) as a condition for employment, continued employment benefits and promotion or continued employment of the other person;

(b) as a condition for procurement or offer of goods and services from the other person.

(2) Nothing under subsection (1) shall prevent the requirement of an HIV test in connection with any application relating to immigration, citizenship, defence or public safety”.

The aims and objectives of the HIV and AIDS Act 2006 are in line with a number of international human rights instruments in particular the United Nations Charter. Article 55 of the UN charter provides that the UN shall promote “universal respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion”. For example, according to Articles 2, 7 and 23(1) of the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (UDHR) 1948:

“2. Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedom set forth in this Declaration, without any distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status

7. All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of this Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination

23(1). Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment”.

Right to privacy under the UDHR and ECHR.

Article 12 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948 established the right to privacy in the following terms:

“No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks”.

Article 8 of the European Convention on Human Rights 1953 also recognizes the Right to Privacy. This Article provides that:

“(i) Everyone has the right to respect private and family life, his home and his correspondence;
(ii) there shall be no interference by a public authority with the exercise of his right except such as in accordance with the law and in the interest of national security, public safety, or the well-being of the country, for the prevention of disorder or crime, for the protection of health and morals or for the protection of the rights and freedoms of others.”

The right to privacy is also enshrined in the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. Article 17, Para(1) provides that no one shall be subjected to arbitrary or unlawful interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to unlawful attacks on his honour and reputation.

Right to privacy in the USA.

In the United States jurisprudence, the right to privacy is protected by the Fourth Amendment, which states that:

“The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and persons or things to be seized”.

Right to privacy and right to arrest.

According to section 13F (Power of arrest) of the *Police Act 1974*¹⁵:

“(1) Any police officer who has reason to suspect that any person has committed or is about to commit an offence which will endanger public safety or public order, may arrest that person and use such force as may be necessary for that purpose.

(2) Any person arrested under subsection (1) shall be brought within 48 hours of his arrest before a Court”.

According to the same Act, section 14¹⁶(Search warrants and medical examination):

“(1)Where, in a case of urgency, communication with a Magistrate would cause delay that would defeat the ends of justice, a police officer, not below the rank of Assistant Superintendent, may

(a) on sworn information that a person has unlawfully in his possession any dangerous drugs, any property obtained by means of an offence, or any article used or likely to be used in the commission of an offence, issue a warrant to search for the dangerous drugs, property or article;

(b) call upon a Government medical officer, or other medical practitioner, to make such examination of the person of an alleged offender as the circumstances of the case require.

¹⁵ POLICE ACT AUGUST 1, 1974

¹⁶ Amended 3/87

(2) For the purposes of subsection (1), a police officer, not below the rank of Assistant Superintendent, may administer oaths.

(3) A police officer, who acts under subsection (1) shall –

(a) report to the Commissioner the circumstances in which he issued a search warrant, or asked for the medical examination of an alleged offender, and the result of the search or examination; and

(b) forward to the appropriate District Court within the shortest possible delay the warrant endorsed with the result of the search’.

MEDICAL TOURIST AND RIGHT TO PRIVACY

A right to privacy

Any individual has a right to privacy. A worker too has a right to private life at work. There are two leading cases which are important to mention here. The first one is related to an insulting letter sent to a judge and the District Court in Munich had issued a warrant to search a lawyer’s office in attempt to identify a third party who might be responsible for sending the letter and the European Court of Human Rights held that the applicant’s private life was violated- *Niemetz v Germany* . In the second case is related to telephone tapping. In *Halford v UK* , a former assistant chief constable had her private calls from work intercepted by the UK police force. Judgment was given in favour of applicant because the UK government failed to convince the court that since the calls were made from Halford’s workplace they were not covered by Article 8 of the ECHR. In the absence/presence of the workers employers have recourse to phone tapping, e-mail of the worker or employee, private letters sent to the worker or employee just to name and the issue is whether there is a breach of the fundamental rights of the worker’s right to privacy? Workers, employees and employers have a right to privacy both on the workplace and at home. What is meant by ‘right to privacy’ or how should it be construed before a court of law? It could be the right to live one’s own life but with a minimum degree of interference (*R.R. Gopal and another v. State of Tamil Nadu and others*). Right to privacy is absent in the Indian’s Constitution? Justice Ayyangar of the

Indian Supreme Court in the case of *Kharack Singh v State of U.P* observed that the “‘domiciliary visits’ is an infringement of the right to privacy and is violative of the citizen’s fundamental right of personal liberty guaranteed under Article 21 of the Indian Constitution”. In the same line the case of *Kharak Singh v State of U.P.* and *Maharashtra and another v Madhukar Narayan Mardikar*. Justice Subba Rao of the Indian Supreme Court added, in the same case, that an individual has a right to be free from restrictions or encroachment on his persons, whether they are directly imposed or indirectly brought about by calculated measures. Nonetheless, this decision is hotly contested in India because the Indian Constitution does not provide for right to privacy and that only domiciliary visit was considered as unconstitutional. The Indian Supreme Court responded in the case of *Govind v. State of Madya Pradesh* that the right to privacy was assumed to be a part of personal liberty guaranteed by Article 21 of the Indian Constitution by stating that although the right to privacy is not explicitly provided in the Constitution, it is ingrained in the fundamental rights of life and personal liberty.

There are international and regional treaties and local legal instruments which contain provisions for the protection of human rights when infringement to right of privacy is in issue. It is important to know the content of these legal instruments and then to study some precedents to understand the subject matter. Once more, the provisions of section 9 of the Constitution and other related legal international instruments must be interpreted in wider terms such that rights to privacy cover a very wide range such as HIV/AIDS, homosexuality and discrimination on the workplace and must not be restricted to privacy at home or his premises. In the leading case of *X v. Commissioner of the European Communities*¹⁷ an applicant for employment, for a post in the Commission of European Communities, with the Commission had refused an AIDS test and was required to take a general blood test. The test

¹⁷X v. Commissioner of the European Communities 1995

proved that he was contaminated with HIV/AIDs and consequently he was refused the job he was applying for. The European Court of Human Rights, however, found in his favour on the ground that the right to a private life is a fundamental right protected by the legal order of the Community and ‘includes in particular a person’s right to keep his state of health secret’. The right to privacy and the right not to disclose information and particulars of one’s health are not absolute. There are case where the European Court of Human rights took a different approach and found that the disclosure to prison staff of a prisoner’s HIV status was justified in the interests of his health- in *TV v. Finland 1993*¹⁸ whereas in *MS v. Sweden 1997*¹⁹ the ECHR the applicant had an injury and asked for compensation but the hospital had disclosed medical records of the applicant to a social insurance office. The ECHR held that there was an inference to her right to privacy.

Private rights and Public Policy

True is it that medical expert opinion if admissible before a court of law but there is also a question of public policy. This raises, once more, the issue of the balancing nature of private rights over public policy and State interests and which is important to deal in this section. Reference can be made to *Glover v Eastern Nebraska Community Office of Retardation (United States)*²⁰ where private rights override governmental interests. In this leading authority on this issue of privacy rights, employees of an agency was providing health services to developmentally disabled persons challenged the legality of a mandatory HIV and Hepatitis B testing policy introduced by their employer. The employees argued that the policy violated their privacy rights whilst, in rebuttal the agency stated purpose for the policy was to protect the safety of its clients from HIV and Hepatitis B transmission since they some of them had aggressive behaviours (biting and scratching) as a consequence of their conditions.

¹⁸TV v. Finland 1993

¹⁹MS v. Sweden 1997

²⁰ Glover v. Eastern Nebraska Community Office of Retardation (United States) 867 F. 2d 861 8th Cir. 1989

Would the policy be in favour of the employer or was it unreasonable? The Court assessed the reasonableness of the policy by balancing the nature and quality of the intrusion upon employees' privacy rights against the importance of the governmental interest at stake. It ruled the policy was unreasonable because:

“the risk of disease transmission has been shown to be negligible in the service environment, the agency's articulated interest in requiring testing does not constitutionally justify requiring employees to submit to a test for the purpose of protecting the clients from an infected employee”.

The Court added that:

“The medical evidence is undisputed that the disease is not contracted by casual contact and furthermore, there is absolutely no evidence of drug use or needle sharing at the agency, nor is there a problem of sexual abuse of clients by staff. And that there is little, if any, effect in preventing the spread of AIDS or in protecting the clients”.

By contrast refer to the case of *Anonymous Fireman v. The City of Willoughby et al.*²¹ where the plaintiff, a fireman, challenged the city of Willoughby's decision to require mandatory HIV testing of its firefighters and paramedics as part of its annual physical examination for fitness to eye. According to plaintiff, the mandatory HIV testing was a violation of his rights to privacy. On rebuttal before the Ohio District Court the City of Willoughby defended its policy on the grounds that it was necessary to protect the public from HIV transmission from firefighters and paramedics. The Ohio District Court found in favour of defendant and explained that the “...protection of the public from contraction and transmission of AIDS by firefighters and paramedics is a compelling governmental interest”. The Ohio District Court held that:

“This is a very limited decision and only stands for the proposition that mandatory testing may be ordered for high-risk government employees such as firefighters and paramedics. A high risk government employee is one who has a high risk of contracting AIDS or transmitting AIDS.”

²¹Anonymous Fireman v. The City of Willoughby et al. (United States) 779 F. Supp. 402 (US Dist.Ct.Ohio; 13 Dec. 1991)

Before a court of law evidence is important to prove the facts stated. In *X v. Commission of the European Communities*²²(*supra*), X was seeking employment as a typist for a six month period but evidence demonstrated that the pre-recruitment medical examination disclosed abnormalities in his anamnesis which prompted the examination medical officer to suggest the HIV test in order to enhance the reliability of his expert medical opinion. In support to the case of *X v. Commission of the European Communities*²³, and *A v. Commission of the European Communities*²⁴ (*supra*) refer to *Chandler v. Miller*²⁵, a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, which is a leading authority on the criteria to be met by the US government in defence of a mandatory testing program. Chandler's case is also interesting because if the State of Georgia required all candidates who wish to be designated State officers must submit to drug testing for illicit drugs as mandatory but three candidates prior to their application for employment as State officers challenged the statute on the grounds that it was an infringement of their rights to privacy. However, although unsuccessful, the challenge ultimately succeeded before the Supreme Court of the United States. In rebuttal, the defense suggested that such program was in the public or State interest but this required the Court to “undertake a context-specific inquiry, examining closely the competing private against public interests”. The Supreme Court of the United States held that:

“the proffered special need for drug testing must be substantial , important enough to override the individual's acknowledged privacy interest, sufficiently vital to suppress the normal requirement of individualized suspicion”.

In closing, the Supreme Court of United States in *Chandler v Miller*²⁶(*supra*) emphasized that the testing was merely ‘symbolic’ and as such did not justify violation of the candidates’ right to privacy and refer to *Treasury Employees v Van Raab*²⁷ where, in contrast, a mandatory drug testing program has been upheld simply because the evidence established that it was not

²² X v. Commission of the European Communities

²³ X v. Commission of the European Communities

²⁴ A v. Commission of the European Communities

²⁵ Chandler v. Miller (United States 520 US 305 15th April 1997)

²⁶ Chandler v. Miller

²⁷ Treasury Employees v. Van Raab 489 US 656

feasible to address the drug use problem in another way. The Supreme Court of the US held that: “*However, well-meant, the candidate drug test Georgia has devised diminishes personal privacy for a symbol’s sake. The Constitution shields society against the State action*”. In the same rationale the decision reached by the Court in *The Committee for GI Rights v Callaway (United States)*²⁸ where a group of soldiers challenged a class action to challenge certain aspects of a drug abuse prevention and control program introduced by the US Army on the ground that it violated the soldiers’ rights to privacy but the Court concluded that those components of the program under challenge did not violate soldiers’ rights to privacy.

If the employer imposes a policy that all employee, as plaintiff, must abide to mandatory HIV testing at work or on the workplace the burden of proof is on the employer, as defendant, to prove that mandatory testing is necessary and that other precautions against the transmission and contraction of AIDS will not be effective-in *Anonymous Fireman v. The City of Willoughby et al. (supra)*. In this case the court was following the decision reached in *Firemanwas local 1812, American Federation of Government Employees v. US Department of State et al.*²⁹ where the US Department of State’s decision to subject all prospective and current Foreign Service employees to a mandatory HIV testing and to make employment decisions based on those test results. The mandatory HIV testing was challenged by an union representing some Foreign Service Workers to prevent implementation of the mandatory testing program but the preliminary challenge failed. It was not pursued further on the merits of interest as the Department has very recently terminated its mandatory HIV testing programme for Foreign Service Workers.

Because of public policy, prejudice, stigma, marginalization, intimidation, fear to be ‘fired’, trial by the press just to name a few there are few reported cases in which these issues,

²⁸ The Committee for GI Rgihts v. Callaway (United States) 518 F. 2d 466 2nd Sept. 1975

²⁹ Firemanwas local 1812 , American Federation of Government Employees v. US Department of State et al. (United States): 662 F. Supp.50 (DDC 1987)

principally discrimination at work, have been dealt with. In the case of *N. v. Minister of Defence*, a Namibian case, the issue was the ability of the Namibian Defence Force to refuse to enlist an applicant for service on the basis of his HIV positive status alone. The service applicant's challenge before the Labour Court of Namibia succeeded. In *Hoffman v. South African Airways*, the case was the ability of South African airways to refuse to employ HIV positive recruit as a cabin attendant solely on the basis of his HIV status. The applicant's challenge failed initially, but succeeded on appeal to the Constitution Court of South Africa. Although this case did not arise in the military setting, it is included because the rationales advanced by the South African airways in support of its position were similar to arguments that have been put forward in the military setting. Justice Ngcobo expressed serious concern with respect to protecting people from HIV/AIDS from discrimination in their employment. It was held that:

“People who are living with HIV constitute a minority. Society has responded to their plight with intense prejudice. They have been subjected to systemic disadvantaged and discrimination. They have been stigmatised and marginalised. As the present case demonstrates, they have been denied employment because of their HIV positive status without regard to their ability to perform the duties of the position from which they have been excluded. Society's response to them has forced many of them not to reveal their HIV status for fear and prejudice. This in turn has deprived them of the help they would otherwise have received. People who are living with HIV/ AIDs are one of the most vulnerable groups in our society. Notwithstanding the availability of compelling medical evidence as to how this disease is transmitted, the prejudices and stereotypes against HIV positive people still persist. In view of the prevailing prejudice against HIV positive people, any discrimination against them can, to my mind, be interpreted as a fresh instance of stigmatisation and I consider this to be an assault on their dignity. The impact of discrimination on HIV positive people is devastating. It is even more so when it occurs in the context of employment. It denies them the right to earn a living. For this reason, they enjoy protection in our law. People who are living with HIV must be treated with compassion and understanding. We must show ubuntu towards them. They must not be condemned to ‘economic death’ by the denial of equal opportunity in employment. This is particularly true in our country, where the incidence of HIV infection is said to be disturbingly high”.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Mauritius is becoming a centre for medical tourist. Clinics must be accredited like Thailand, France, Turkey, United Kingdom and India just to name a few so that medical tourists enjoy the same facilities in terms of fees and accommodation like local citizens. The liability of medical practitioners are still unsolved as there is a vacuum in our legislation despite the fact that in case of disputes *le droit commun (obligation de sécurité de résultat)* is still applicable inspired from French doctrine and precedents.

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Soft Infrastructure in Tourism Development

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ABSTRACT

This study aims primarily at investigating the importance of soft infrastructure in tourism development for the case of an island economy namely Mauritius. The study in the first place assesses the level of perceived and actual satisfaction of the present state of the different types of soft tourism infrastructure and the allied services provided by tourism stakeholders in Mauritius and address the identified gaps. In order to address the study objectives, a rigorous survey analysis among 1741 international tourists at the departure lounge of the Sir Seewoosagur International Airport of Mauritius was carried out. The respondents placed significant emphasis on the different elements of the soft infrastructure dimension, where many of the elements falling under this dimension were rated with a high mean score. In particular the visitors rated communication, both internet and telephone services, and security to be most important. Significant gap has been found in the categories of 'Health' and 'Security'. This indicates that the tourists ascribe high importance to the soft infrastructure dimension. The link between the respondent profile and the key variables which influence the

tourist choice of the island as a destination are found to be equally important for most of the international tourists. However, these were deemed to be more critical for tourists travelling with family members. Although the survey instrument attempted to measure any gap between on the one hand, the importance of the infrastructure dimension and on the other hand, the level of satisfaction with the infrastructure dimension, overall the results do not show any statistically significant gap among the different elements of the infrastructural dimension. The study dwells into further analysis by engaging into an econometric framework related to a Probit Model, using the data collected, to gauge the effect of soft infrastructure on tourist intention to repeat or recommend the destination. The results confirm that soft infrastructure is found to be sensible to tourists, although relatively less sensitive as compared to tourism and transport and hotel infrastructure.

KEYWORDS Tourism development, soft infrastructure, Mauritius

BACKGROUND

A number of researchers, including Gunn (1988) and Inskip (1991), have cited the infrastructure base of a country as a potential determinant (in addition to classical ones such as income in origin country, cost of travel and distance among others) of the attractiveness of a tourism destination. It is a fact that tourist attractions form a powerful component of the supply side of tourism—enticing, luring and stimulating interest in travel—however, it should be highlighted that they constitute only one component of the necessary tourism infrastructure. Investment in supporting businesses (e.g., hotels, transportation companies), soft infrastructure (e.g., local community colleges, universities, and trade and professional associations) and hard infrastructure (e.g., roads, airports, marinas, water and sewer lines, and telecommunications) definitely play key roles in developing a successful tourism destination.

Their interdependence dictates a need for a strategic wide-angle approach to tourism infrastructure development.

Thus, infrastructure in the wider sense forms an integral part of the tourism package for instance road infrastructure enhances accessibility of tourists to different parts of the destination country while sound airport infrastructure ensures that tourists experience a comfortable transition from the plane into the borders of the destination country and vice versa. As such communication infrastructure allows quick and cheap communication between the origin and destination country as well as providing maximum information about the destination thereby reducing uncertainty, fear and asymmetric information. Other infrastructure related to security, medical, waste water and energy among others are also believed to result in more reliable services and thus enhancing the attractiveness of the destination.

The tourism sector is one of the most important economic pillars of the Mauritian economy (approx 18% of GDP). After the EPZ sector, the tourism sector has been an important contributor to the development of the economy with tourists' earnings reaching around Rs 4.5 billion in the year 2013³⁰. Tourist arrival for the year 2013 was 1,294,387 and total passenger arrival is essentially by air (96.2%) by air and 3.8% by sea.³¹ Indeed, in addition to hard infrastructure, the authorities in Mauritius have long recognised the importance of sound infrastructure in promoting tourism development in the island, especially given the fact that majority of our tourism is high end tourism and more than 65% of the island tourist is from Europe, psychologically used to decent level of infrastructure support. The island's networks of roads and communication together with the waste water and energy infrastructure among

³⁰CSO Mauritius (2013), Economic and Social Indicators on International Travel and Tourism.

³¹CSO Mauritius, Digest of International Travel and Tourism 2010.

others have been subjected to massive investment and expansion since the mid 80s. The development of tourism in Mauritius relies on the development of appropriate infrastructure, which services a tourist's needs and encourages investment by the private sector in competitive tourism product. This is particularly true as tourism is expected to take a very important place in the Mauritian economy. To confirm this objective, the Government has decided to reach 2 million tourist arrivals per annum by 2020 and a new strategy of development has been defined namely related to opening of the sky; marketing action plan to develop new markets; ambitious programme of building with the increase in the number of rooms and the launching of numerous Integrated Resort Scheme; and the organization of international cultural events. It is believed that in addition government should also not oversee the potential role of support infrastructure and services which is believed to be crucial as well, especially in the attraction of high end tourism and in the promotion of the green tourism.

However, this study is primarily designed to investigate the importance of soft infrastructure in tourism development, an infrastructure type largely ignored in the literature. The study also assesses the perceived satisfaction of the actual state of these infrastructure and the services they provide and the perceived gap is subsequently discussed.

Univariate descriptive statistics is used to profile the respondents in terms of their socio-demographic variables. Given the nature of the data, mainly non-parametric tests are used to address the research objectives. These include cross tabulations, Pearson chi-square test, Mann - Whitney tests, Kruskal – Wallis tests and factor analysis, a data reduction techniques to group the number of variables used to measure the soft infrastructural dimension. Given that the questionnaire is designed in such a way to capture the importance and satisfaction level of the tourist, a gap analysis is also used to measure if there are any significance differences among the variables of interest. The study further uses an econometric approach

based on a Probit framework to model if SOFT infrastructure is a likely predictor of the probability of repeat and recommended tourism.

The rest of this research is structured as follows: section 2 discusses the theoretical underpinnings and empirical works related to the infrastructure-tourist nexus, section 3 presents the research methodology and analyses the results and section 4 concludes and provides useful recommendations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism is a rapidly growing phenomenon and has become one of the largest industries in the world. It is one of the vital drivers of development and an important source of job creation for a number of countries. Mauritius is one of the best examples to be cited whereby, over the past decade, the tourism sector has become one of the most important economic pillars. Tourism represents also a promoter for diversifying economies, as new tourism infrastructure development lead to the establishment of other industries (Beer, Maude and Pritchard, 2003). While tourists attraction is one of the important components which lure tourists to travel, the presence of primary tourists facilities (accommodations, hotels and restaurants), secondary tourists facilities (Shopping and recreation areas, entertainment facilities) and tertiary facilities (health services & care, safety & emergency services) also play an important role in attracting tourists to a destination.

Key Players in the Tourism Industry

While there is no doubt about the importance of investing in infrastructure to expand tourism activities, there are certainly different perspectives on how this can effectively be accomplished. The role of both the public sector and the private sectors need to be defined in

order to cater for a sustainable tourism. Investment in infrastructures is often influenced by political constraints and incentives, market characteristics (visitors' taste and preferences), the ability of the destination to promote itself and political stability. Developing countries, such as Mauritius, need to understand the role of investment in tourism infrastructure and how to ensure that national policies can support the sustainable development of tourism infrastructure. Often, this requires the elimination of institutional and financial obstacles that impede investment and make them counterproductive.

The expansion of tourism anywhere is strongly related to the development of suitable infrastructures ranging from public to private infrastructure and tourism related infrastructures. It has been agreed that a country's infrastructure is one of the underpinnings for economic activities. Delmon (2006) states that "Poor infrastructure impedes a nation's economic growth and international competitiveness".³² Tourism is in fact dependent on infrastructure and the absence of it will critically undermine the marketability of the tourism product. Infrastructure like accommodation, restaurants, attractions and tours are primary provided by the private investor while others such as power, water, transport, health, and telecommunications, which represent basic services, are supplied by the government. The provision of infrastructure by the public sector, in the long term, is mainly for the following two reasons: firstly to provide adequate, convenient, safe facilities and services at competitive price to meet the basic needs of the population and secondly to provide support facilities for the productive sectors and act as catalyst for development in desired areas.

Gunn (1988) denotes the tourism product as a complex consumptive experience that results from a process where tourists use multiple of services (information, relative prices,

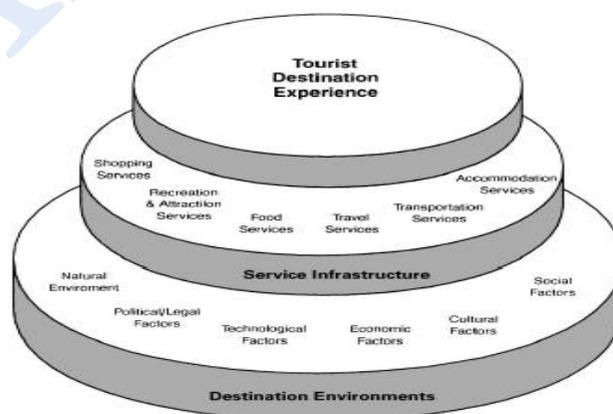
³²The World Bank (2006).

transportation, accommodation, and attraction services) during the course of their visit. Other economic and political conditions and structural features are also important factor shaping many tourist experiences and contribute to the nature of the destination product. Murphy et al (2000) related this type of product to supply and a demand analysis and described how various components of the destination interact with travelers during their trip.

Smith (1994) was among the first to acknowledge the role of service infrastructure in creating a product experience. He argued that ‘service infrastructure is housed within the larger macro-environment or physical plant of the destination’. He stressed on the fact that the level, use, or lack of infrastructure and technology in a destination (for example transportation in general, water and power supply, use of computer technology and communications among others) are also visible and determining features that can enhanced the visitors' trip experience. They posited that tourists’ overall impression develops their image of a destination after their visitation and that infrastructure may play an important role in that respect.

Crouch and Ritchie (2000) interestingly summarised (refer to figure below) the various factors that together make a tourist destination experience attractive. They highlighted the importance the service infrastructure layer in tourist destination experience.

Figure 1: The Tourist Destination Experience



Source: Crouch and Ritchie (2000)

The tourist destination product is also better understood in the context of comparative and competitive advantage. Refer to figure 1, adapted from Crouch and Ritchie (2000), which depicts a global picture of the determinants of a destination's competitiveness. The authors argued that factor conditions are important determinants of attractiveness as tourists travel to a destination to receive the destination experience. Every element has been categorised under core attraction and supporting elements. We focus on the supporting factors and resources component. The destination's general infrastructure services in this category in fact represent one of the most important factors. The tourism phenomenon relies heavily on public utilities and infrastructural support. Tourism planning and development would not be possible without roads, airports, harbors, electricity, sewage, and potable water. The infrastructural dimension is thus a necessary element for tourism development and the above factors are all basic elements for attracting visitors to a destination. Generally, infrastructure has not been included in empirical works as they are expected to be available at a destination and has not promoted as an attraction factor (see Smith, 1994 and Crouch and Ritchie 2000).

Tourism Infrastructure Development

It becomes imperative for a country to invest in for sustainable tourism development. This requires investment in the development of amenities and basic infrastructures along with all tourist infrastructures by both the public and private sector. The Australian Travel and Tourism Forum (ATTF)'s 2007 study emphasises that tourism related infrastructure and products attract and encourage tourism to Australian destinations. Consumption by visitors generates major economic activities external to tourism infrastructure. Infrastructures can be in terms of airport, road, tourism related infrastructure, tourist site infrastructure, utility infrastructure and soft infrastructure.

Soft infrastructure

Soft infrastructure is an important aspect in promoting a destination. In effect, soft infrastructures which include health, banking and security services are termed as tertiary tourist facilities and services. The existence of hospitals, clinics, trained doctors, and security aspects in terms of police stations help towards increasing tourism by reducing the risks of travel. Security remains the most critical aspect as small levels of banditry, violent conflict, or a history of attacks on tourists will severely deter tourism. Health infrastructure is especially important for groups travelling with children, the elderly, or the disabled.

Specialised medical services included in health infrastructure offer health guarantee to the tourists in the country. It is a fact that international clinics around the country, as well as doctors' offices in hotels, provide tourists a guarantee of safety and health during their visit. While certain tourists visit destination just for pleasure, others often visit for medical reasons. One such example is India which invested in its health infrastructure leading to a boom in the health tourism of the country. Furthermore, countries like Malaysia have been investing a lot in the soft infrastructure with the aim to promote medical tourism. In fact several studies like Gauci et al. (2002) and Cleverdon (2002) highlighted the importance of health services in nurturing and promoting the tourism sector. In today's era of globalisation, tourists believe more in banking facilities than carrying cash on him. Hence developed banking system is a factor which definitely impacts upon choosing a destination. Investment in this particular field could help to trigger an increase in the number of tourists' arrival in the country. A study by the Rajasthan Tourism Development Corporation (2005) in the districts of Rajasthan in India showed that all major destination places are equipped with nationalised and private banks offering 24 hour ATM facility and money transfer facility to provide convenience to

tourists and general public as well. This was one of the reasons why tourists were more interested in visiting that particular place.

Importance of Soft Infrastructure

While Inskeep (1991) have recognised the importance of infrastructure as a major attractiveness of a tourism destination, Alegre and Cladera (2006), Crompton (2003); Bigné et al. (2001), Yoon and Uysal (2005) have pinpointed the relevance of infrastructure as a determinant factor for the tourists' satisfaction. Furthermore, Mistilis (1999) put forward the vital role of public infrastructure and other components of the supply side of tourism such as development of airline and accommodation facilities for the growth of the tourism industry. This section outlines studies pertaining to the importance of infrastructure, in particular soft infrastructure, to the tourism sector.

Situational conditions are grouped mainly under destination location and security & safety. Mckercher (1998) noted that the destination location which is distant assuming same product is offered is more likely to be less competitive than those which are more proximate. Moreover, the safety and security within a destination is a qualifying element of a country's tourism sector. Crotts (1996) underlined the elements of safety and security as: political instability, probability of terrorism, crime rates, transportation safety, corruption, quality of sanitation, prevalence of disease, quality of medical services, and availability of medication. Sonmez and Graefe (1998) revealed that future risk and safety anxiety are stronger forecasters of not choosing one or more destinations.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The data for this study was collected as part of a comprehensive survey³³ to investigate the importance of infrastructural dimensions in tourism development, taking into account different tourist originating countries. The study goes on in also assessing the perceived satisfaction of the actual state of these infrastructure and the services they provide and the perceived gap is subsequently discussed.

In identifying the importance of infrastructure in a destination selection, we employed rigorous survey analysis. The survey is meant to assess both the importance and actual level of satisfaction with respect to a highly disaggregate form of infrastructure (as compared to the econometric analysis which discusses rather the *aggregate* level of infrastructure). The study goes further in assessing the perceived satisfaction of the actual state of these infrastructure and services they provide and the perceived gap. An assessment of such infrastructural gaps would yield interesting policy implications. Data for this study was covered during the months of February 2012 and March 2012. An “Importance-Satisfaction” model was used for the requirement of this particular study.

Both the literature review and in depth interview with stakeholders in tourism have given greater insights into the role and importance of infrastructure in the tourism sector of Mauritius. Consequently, the researcher was equipped to begin the survey of the Mauritian population.

Thus a study with “Importance-Satisfaction” questions relevant to the tourism sector was used for this purpose. With the view to reach out tourists coming from different parts of the world, the questionnaires were set out in two languages namely: English and French. The self-administered questionnaire has mainly two sections: the first one assesses the level of importance that tourists assign to different infrastructure while the second part assesses the level of satisfaction with the existing tourism infrastructures. Within each category of the

³³MRC funded study on “Does Infrastructure matter in Tourism Development”, 2012

facility listed, there were several components related to the tourism infrastructure. Variables investigated in the questionnaire were as follows:

1. General Information-Factors influencing your choice of Destination
2. Airport Infrastructure(waiting areas, airport administration, airlines cargo, duty free shops, rental car services)
3. Road Infrastructure (road quality, road security, public transport)
4. Hotel infrastructure (service quality, shopping malls, restaurants, casinos)
5. Tourism Infrastructure (heritage sites, museums, wild life)
6. Utility Infrastructure (telephone, internet, water and electricity system)
7. Soft Infrastructure (health and banking)

Tourists were asked about each facility/component of infrastructure to rate it on the scale of 1 to 5, for both “importance” of infrastructure and that on the level of “satisfaction” as per their assessment of the facility/component. Besides questions on “Importance-Satisfaction”, data on general background information of the tourists - demographic as well as profile of tourist being interviewed was collected. The variables collected were as follows:

- Gender
- Age
- Nationality
- No. of people accompanying you on this trip
- Length of stay
- Number of times you have visited Mauritius before
- Place of residence during trip
- Country of origin and nationality

The study is based on an “Importance-Satisfaction” model. Tourists will state their opinions on both the level of importance of the types of infrastructure and their relative satisfaction.

From the difference between the level of importance and satisfaction of the existing infrastructures and services, an “Importance-Satisfaction gap” will be generated to model the gaps in the infrastructures and services which will be needed to enhance the destination attractiveness of Mauritius to its tourists and at the same time contribute positively to its tourism sector.

In choosing the tourist sample at the SSR International airport, the following were taken into consideration:

- Male and Female profile
- The country of origin of the tourists
- The language spoken
- Collections of data were extended over afternoons and evenings during the months of February and March 2013
- The different mix of tourism
- Tapping different days of the week

Based on the tourist arrival population size (the last 5 years from 2007-2012 tourist arrival trends in Mauritius) ranging from 850,000 to 975,000 a sample size of 1721 tourists was taken so that meaningful results can be achieved. Krejcie & Morgan (1970) further reports in their research paper that most researchers suggest that a margin error of 5% along with a confidence interval of 95% should suffice. A Non-probability sampling method was chosen as some elements of the population under study had no chance of being approached: given only French and English questionnaires were designed, some tourists were therefore left out of the targeted population

Prior to the survey, permission to access the departure waiting lounge from the end of February 2012 to end of March 2012 were obtained from the Civil Aviation Department based at the SSR International Airport and the Ministry of Tourism and Leisure in

Mauritius. A team of 7 persons made up of 5 students of the University of Mauritius and 2 Research Assistants were selected to carry out the survey. Members of the team were all able to fluently communicate in English and French *with the international tourists at the SSR International Airport.*

There were a total of 1721 questionnaires which were filled in by the tourists. All the filled in questionnaires were first received at the Project Supervisor's office. They were then classified in batches according to the survey days. After their thorough scrutiny, they were inputted in the SPSS 17.0 software. The data were validated before tabulated.

DATA ANALYSIS

Descriptive Analysis

This part of the analysis deals with the profile of the interviewed tourists. The foreign visitors were asked a series of questions about their level of satisfaction about the country, how they got to know the island and whether they will recommend Mauritius as a tourist destination to their families among others. Thus part of the analysis will therefore give an insightful picture of the various infrastructural attributes and dimensions which; given the particular profile of the tourist, affect satisfaction and choice of destination.

The table 1 below shows background characteristics of tourists.

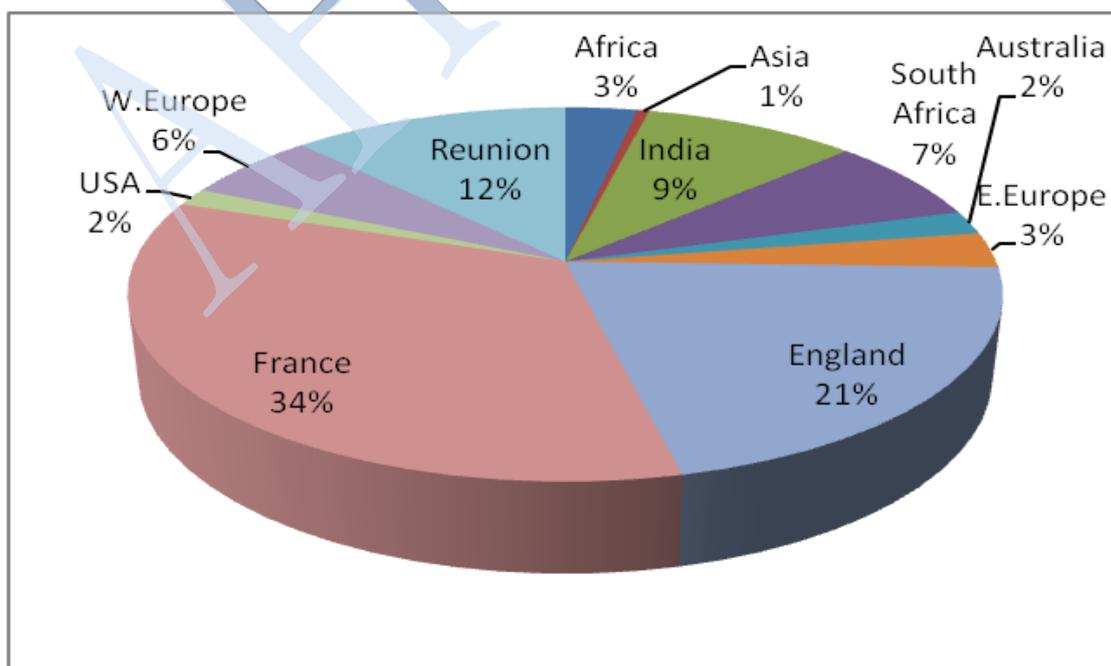
Table 2: Percentage distribution of foreign tourists by background characteristics

Background Characteristics	Percent	Background Characteristics	Percent
1. Age Group		2. Length of Stay	
<18	4.0	Less than 1 week	21.6
19-30	32.7	1-2 weeks	66.7
31-40	29.3	2-3 weeks	6.2
41-60	23.4	>3 weeks	5.3
>60	10.6	5. Place of residence during your trip	
3. First Visit	57.2	Hotel	56.7

4. Source of Information		Bungalow	29.1
Internet	20.9	Friend or relative place	8.3
Electronic Media	9.5	Other	5.5
Word of Mouth	33.4	6. Gender	
Travel Agency	21.4	Male	49.2
Other	14.3	Female	50.8
Total number of tourists interviewed = 1721			

From table 1, we can conclude that the majority of tourists were mainly between the age group of 19-30. Above 50% of the tourists were at their first visit and 66.7 % stayed on the island for 1-2 weeks. Furthermore, most of the tourists learnt about Mauritius through the word-of-mouth communications and most of the tourists interviewed were residing in beach hotels of Mauritius. From Figure 11, it can be concluded that most of the tourists interviewed were mainly from France with 34%, 21% were from England, 12% from Reunion Island and the remaining 33% were from USA, Australia, India and South Africa amongst others. Furthermore it can be seen that both genders were more or less equally interviewed.

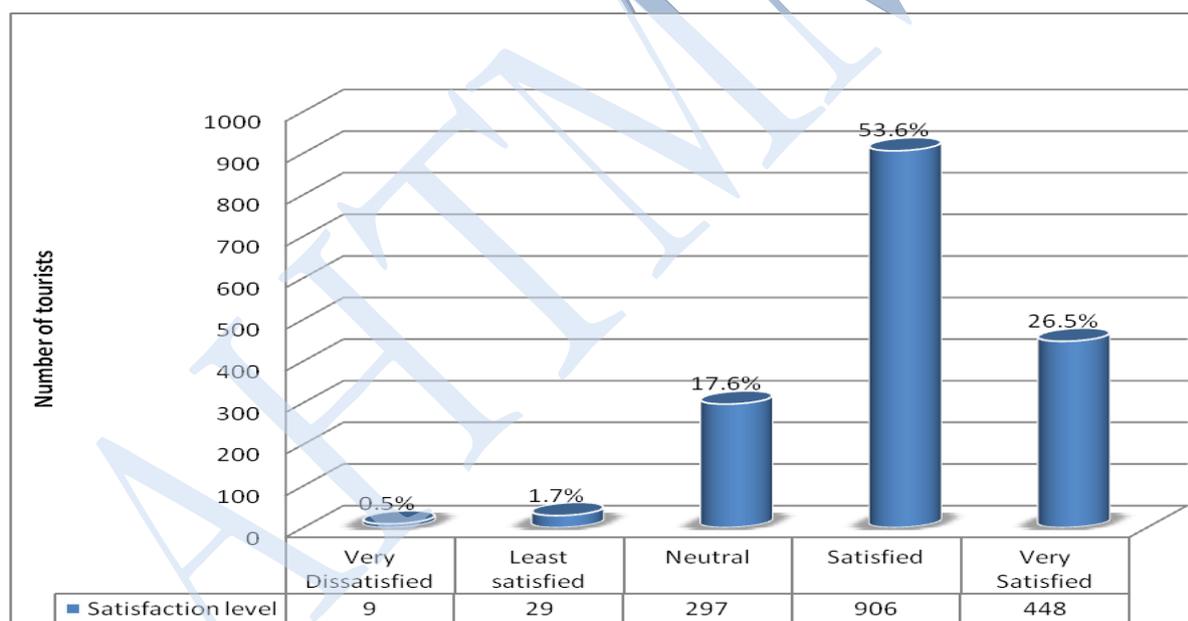
Figure 2: Percentage distribution of foreign tourists by country of residence



Overall level of Satisfaction

From the data collected, the overall level of satisfaction level of the interviewed tourists with Mauritius as a visitor destination was assessed. Figure 2 provides a pictorial display of the different outputs. It is found that 53.6 % and 26.5% tourists are ‘satisfied’ and ‘very satisfied’ respectively with Mauritius as a visitor destination, with nearly 80% of the visitors having recorded a positive note. Very few tourists are unsatisfied with their stay on the island. This means that, as a tourist destination, Mauritius is able to satisfy the requirement of the tourists to a very large extent.

Figure 3: Level of Satisfaction



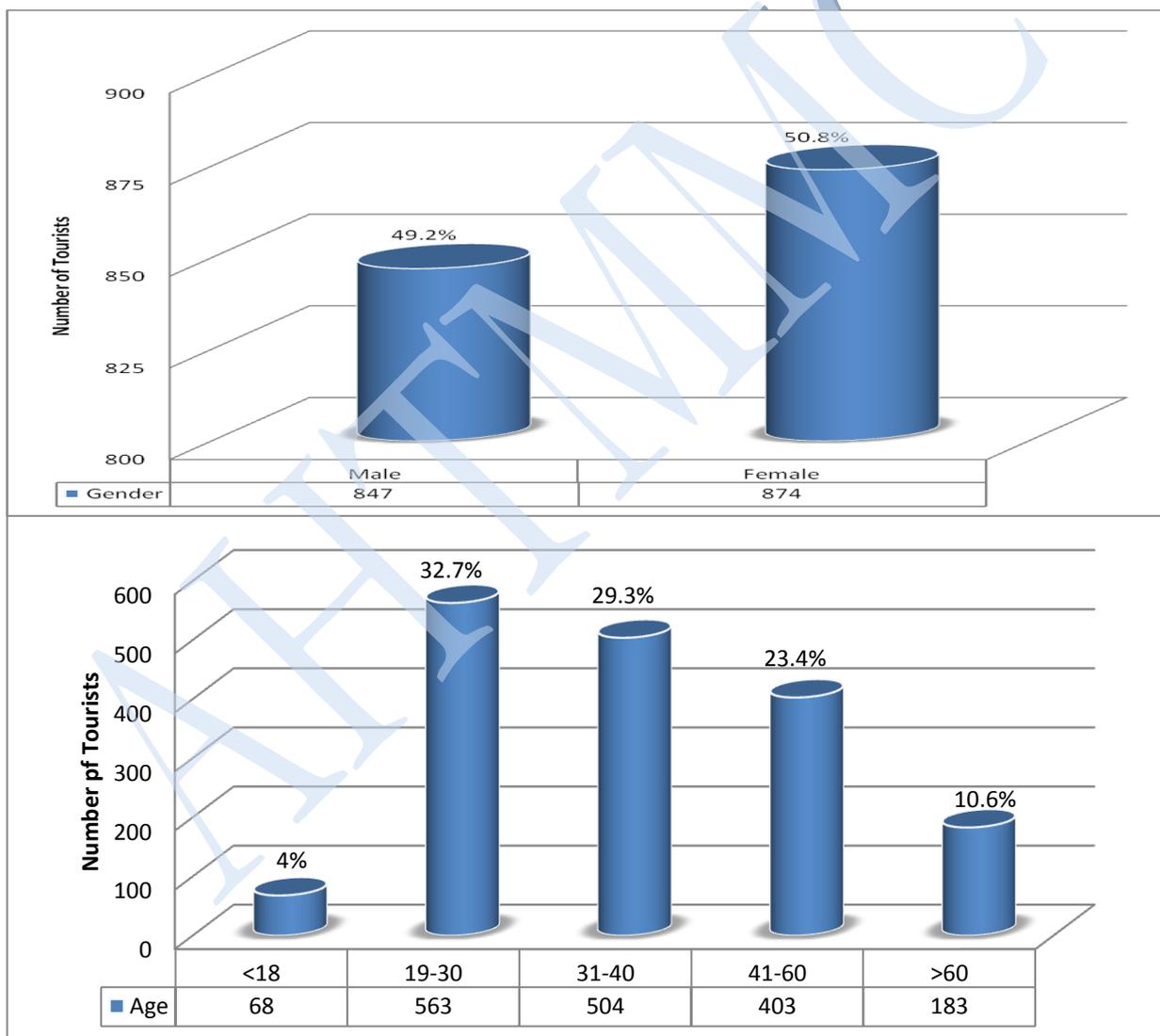
*Total number of respondents = 1689 out of 1721 (representing 98.1% of the sample)

Age group and Gender

For a survey to be successful it should encapsulate both types of gender and also the age group should be roughly well distributed. The result shows that both male and female equality are achieved - this is illustrated in Figure 3. Similarly, when analysing the age group

of the respondents, it is found that most of the foreign visitors are aged between 19 and 60 years: yet tourists between the age group of 19-30 are higher as compared to the other age groups. It can be seen from Figure 3 that the age groups below 18 and above 60 years are underrepresented – this may indicate that retirees and families prefer to choose other destinations than Mauritius for vacation purposes.

Figure 4: Age and Gender



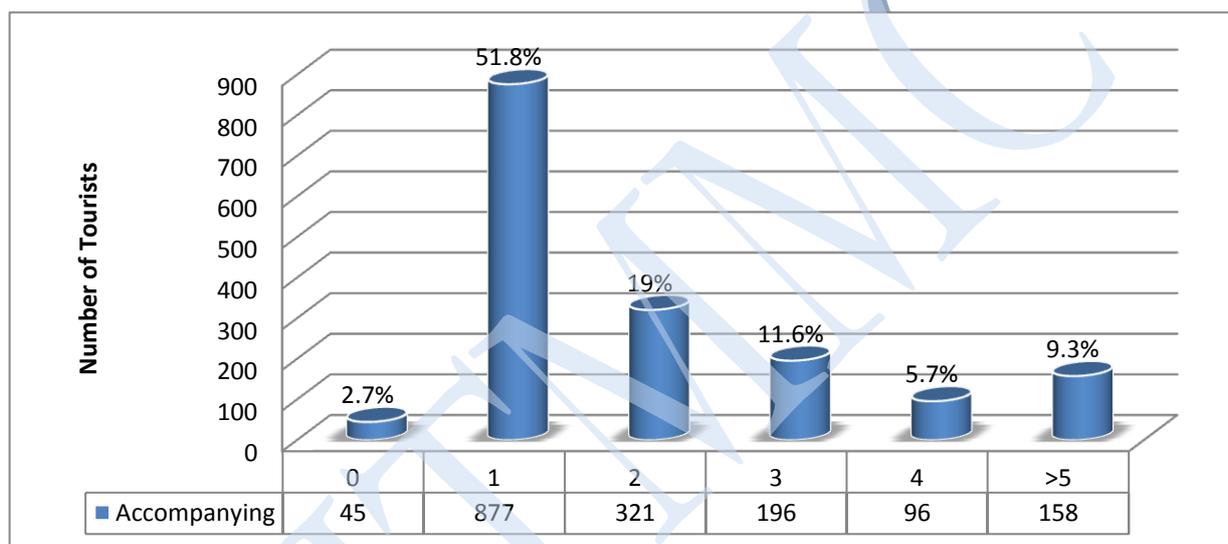
*Total number of respondents = 1721 out of 1721 (representing 100% of the sample) for the variable "Gender".

*Total number of respondents = 1721 out of 1721 (representing 100% of the sample) for the variable "Age".

Number of people accompanying

According to the data collected, most of the respondents are accompanied by only one person, representing 51.8% of the total respondents. From the survey, it can be observed that mainly couples visited the island of Mauritius. Only 2.6 % of visiting tourists are single, essentially because the main purpose of their visit is business-related.

Figure 3: Number of tourists accompanying

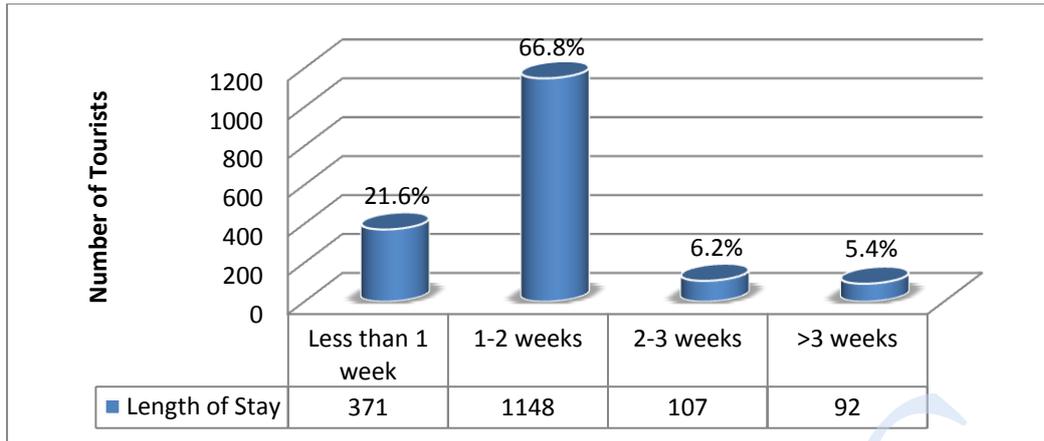


**Total number of respondents = 1693 out of 1721 (representing 98.4% of the sample)*

Length of Stay

About 66.8% and 22% of the interviewed tourists are on the island for a period of 1 to 2 weeks and less than 1 week respectively. Few of them stay on the island for a period of more than two weeks – one can conclude that most of the respondents came for holidaying.

Figure 4: Length of Stay

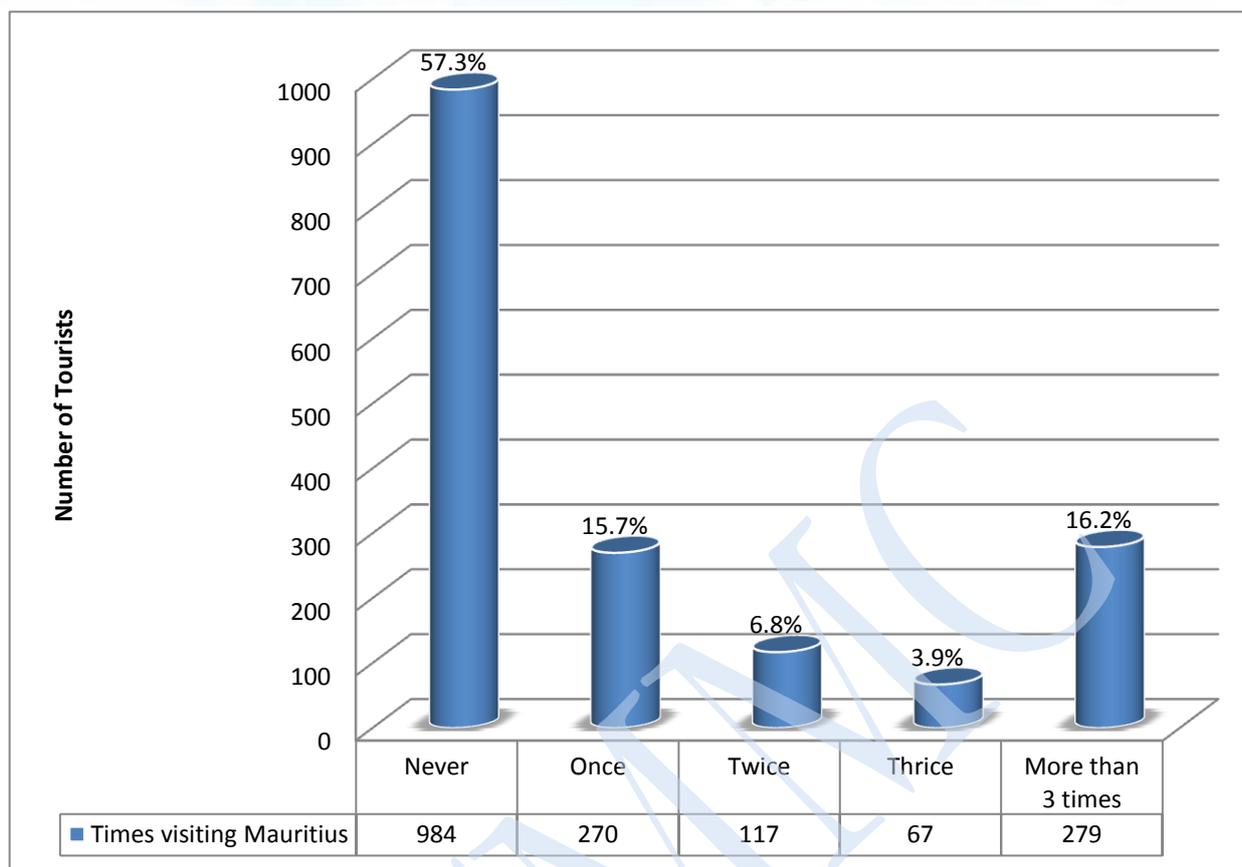


*Total number of respondents = 1718 out of 1721 (representing 99.8% of the sample)

Number of Visits

Figure 4 shows that 57.3% of the tourists visited Mauritius for the first time and 42.7% are at least here once before. This means that Mauritius is able to attract repeated tourists through good publicity, be it from word of mouth or through intensive marketing campaign. Given that Mauritius is viewed as a destination of frequent visits for certain tourists, the main concern of the authority must be oriented towards converting those first time comers into repeat or frequent visitors. In fact, the phenomenon of repeat tourism is undeniably a subset of appropriate factors: good infrastructure; tourism facilities and services among others. Good quality infrastructure is likely to attract tourists more often although John *et al.* (2000) revealed that repeat tourists were influenced mostly by regular visit to friends or family and ease of travel.

Figure 5: Number of Visits



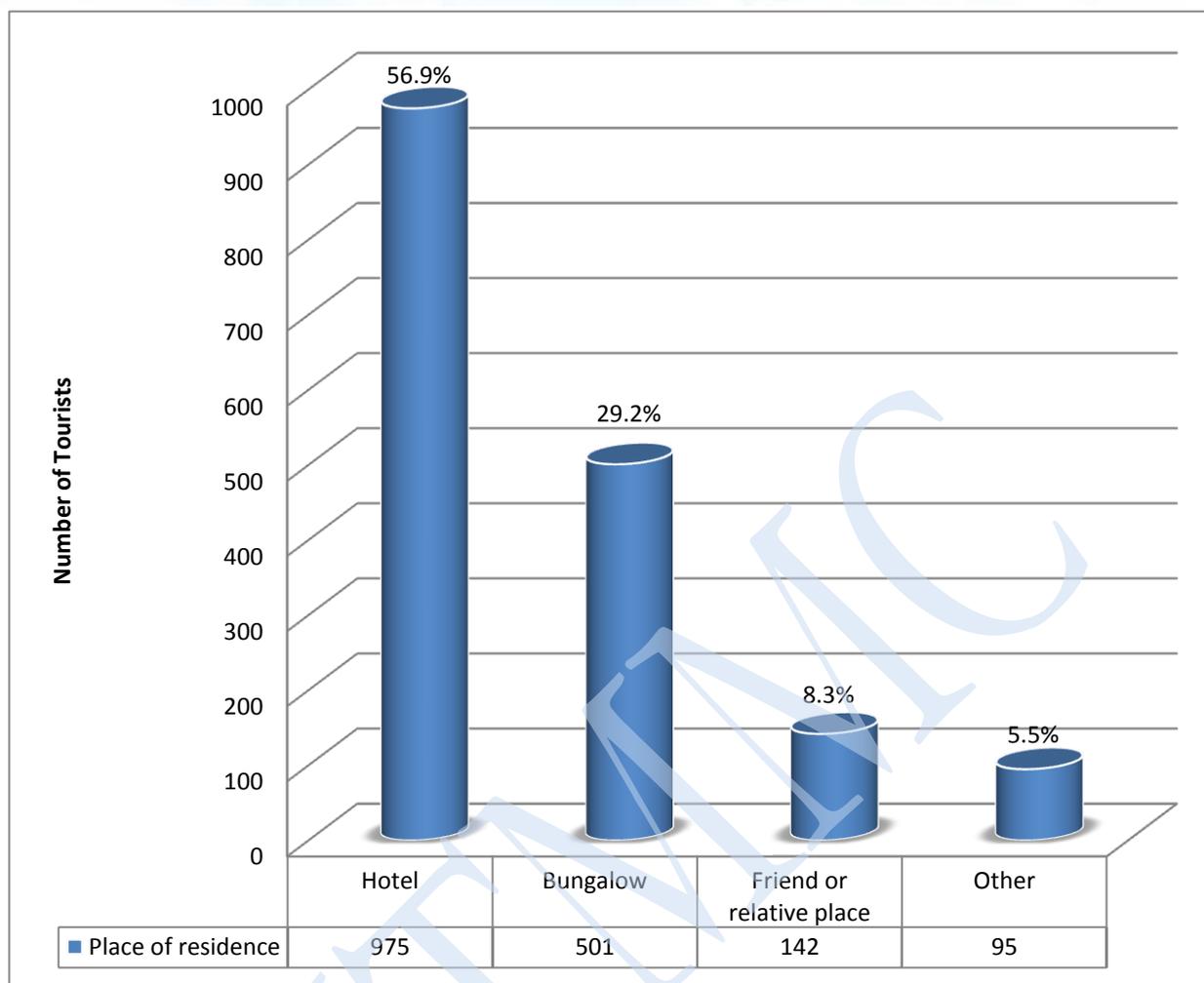
*Total number of respondents = 1717 out of 1721 (representing 99.8 % of the sample)

Place of residence during stay

As might be expected, foreign visitors prefer beach hotels to other types of accommodation: 56.9% of the tourists choose hotels as residence during their stay on the island compared to 29% who favour a bungalow; the rest find it more convenient to stay at their friends/relatives place or in some other types of lodging. According to the Ministry of Tourism, Leisure & External Communications, the % of tourists choosing hotels as accommodation since 1998 to 2009 for example has always been above 75%³⁴.

Figure 5: Place of Residence

³⁴Source: “Handbook of Statistical Data on Tourism 2008” and “Survey of Outgoing Tourists 2009”, Ministry of Tourism, Leisure & External Communications.



**Total number of respondents = 1713 out of 1721 (representing 99.5% of the sample)*

Country of Origin and Nationality

Based on the survey results, most of the respondents are from France and Great Britain representing 33.4% and 20.5% respectively. These two countries are followed by Reunion Island with only 11.9%. It is also observed that the Indian market is a promising one representing a share of nearly 10%. On the other hand, the African continent as a whole corresponds to 10% of the market share given a 7.2% to South Africa alone. In fact according to statistics from the Ministry of Tourism, the main tourist market of Mauritius has always been dominated by Great Britain, France and Reunion Island. Conversely by examining the Nationality it is found that most of the interviewed tourists are of French nationality - this is

true since tourists from the Réunion Island are of French nationality. Secondly, most of the tourists are British while tourists of Asian nationality are really low as compared to the others.

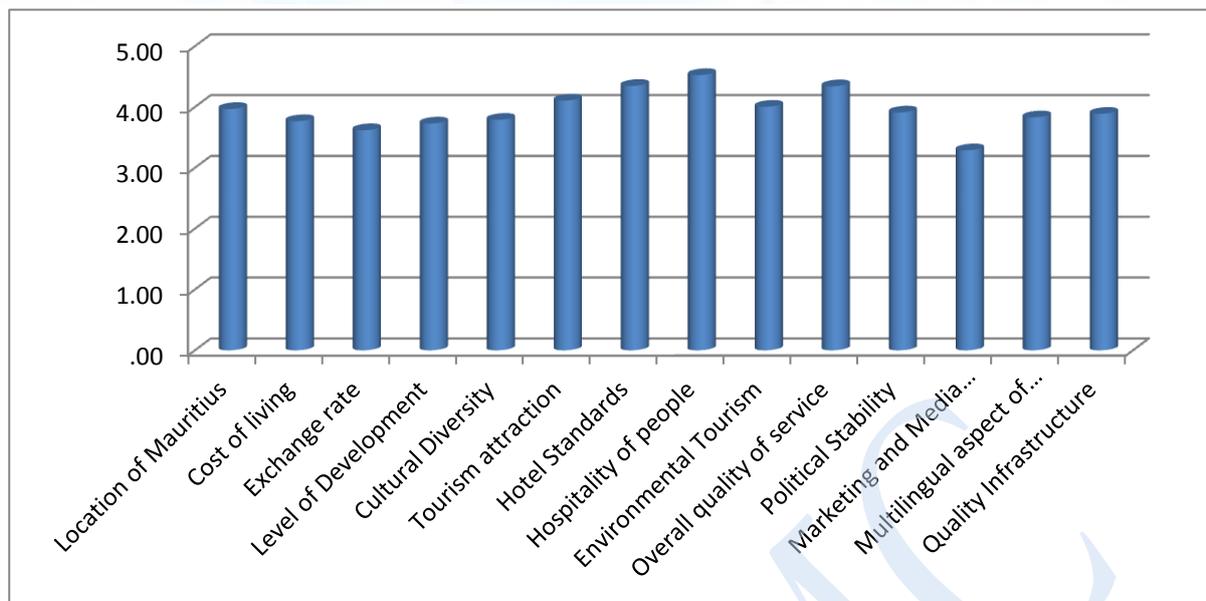
Importance-satisfaction gaps in tourism infrastructure

All the 1721 respondents were asked to assign scores on the scale of 1 to 5 on the degree of 'importance' they attach to the different components of proposed utilities. Moreover they were asked to assign scores to the existing current level of 'satisfaction' with the utilities.

This part of the analysis discusses the degree of gaps which currently exist between the "importance-satisfaction" scales of different components of each utility. The main idea behind this kind of analysis is that the components having large gaps between "importance" and "satisfaction" needs to be identified so that by improving them, the level of tourist satisfaction can be increased to make their visit more satisfying and also may help to increase the flow of tourists in future.

First and foremost, among the proposed "General Factors" that influence tourists' decision, the score of 'Hospitality of people' is the highest at an average of 4.53 followed by 'Hotels standard' and 'Overall quality of service' at an average of 4.35 and 4.34 respectively. This means that most tourists find the hospitality of people to be a very important variable in choosing their travel destination. The study also confirms the important role of tourism attraction in the tourism equation with a reported score of above 4. Furthermore from the analysis, it can be seen that most of the components proposed under this category are considered to be important since all the mean score are above 3.

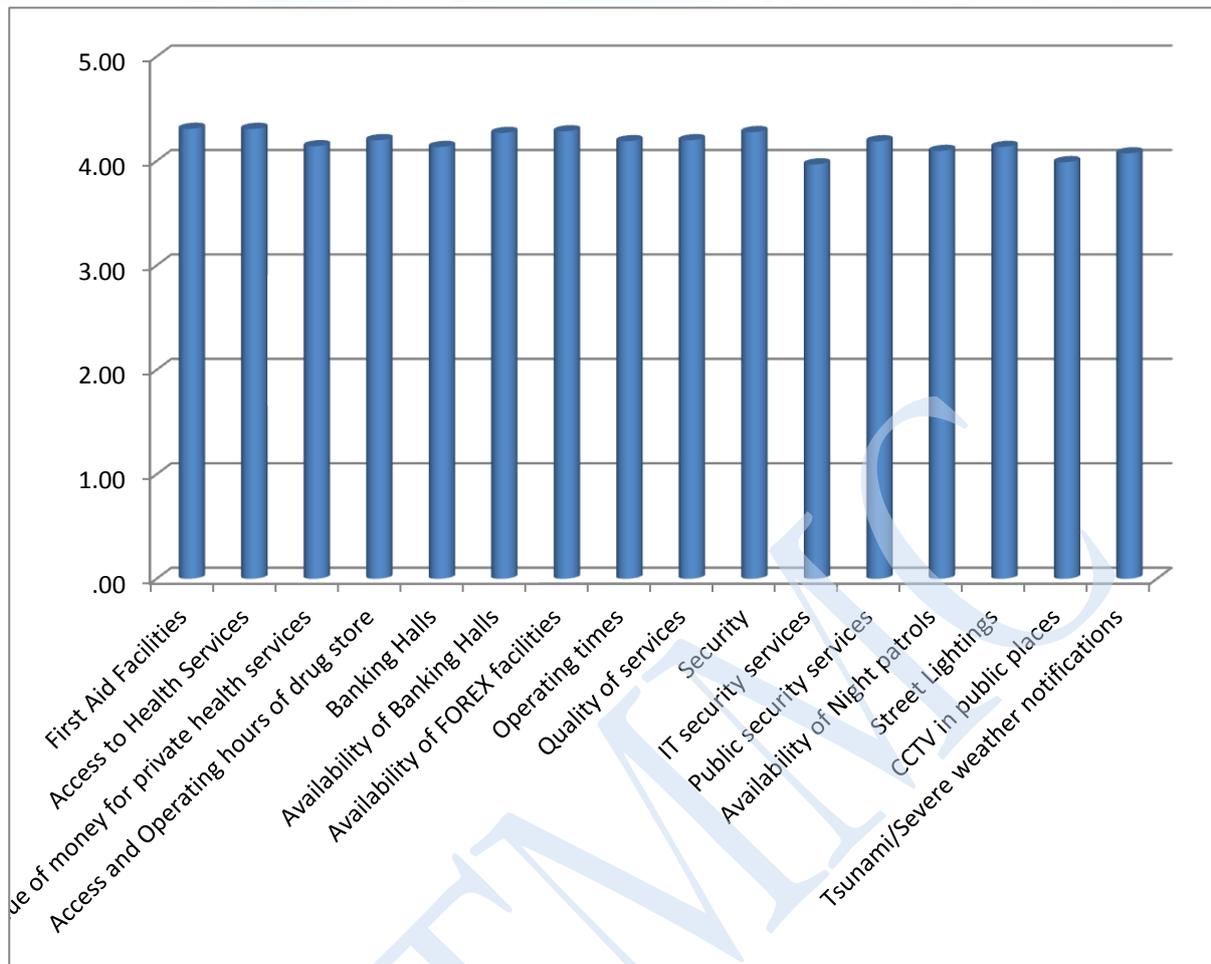
Figure 6: Importance Mean Scores – General Factors



The first category of infrastructure proposed is the “*Transport Infrastructure*” which includes both airport and road infrastructure as the principal transport infrastructure. Among the components proposed under the airport infrastructure, ‘*Security*’ and ‘*Rest room/Toilet*’ are found to be the highly important with an average score of 4.29 and 4.20. It is important to highlight the usefulness of ‘*Signage/Information Centre*’ at the same time

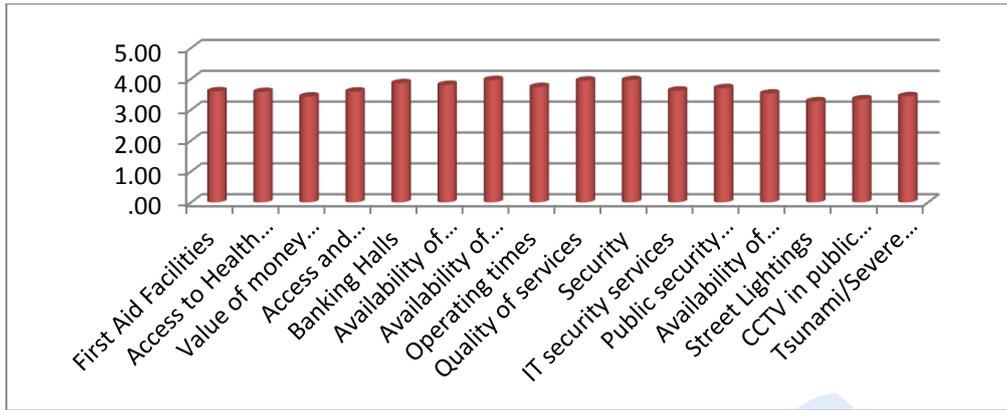
Soft Infrastructure

Figure7: Importance Mean Scores – Soft infrastructure



Conversely, Figure 7 produces the different mean values under the ‘Soft Infrastructure’ category. Most of the ‘Banking facilities/services’ have recorded a good score as compared to factors like: ‘Street Lightings’, ‘CCTV in public places’ and ‘Value of money for private health’.

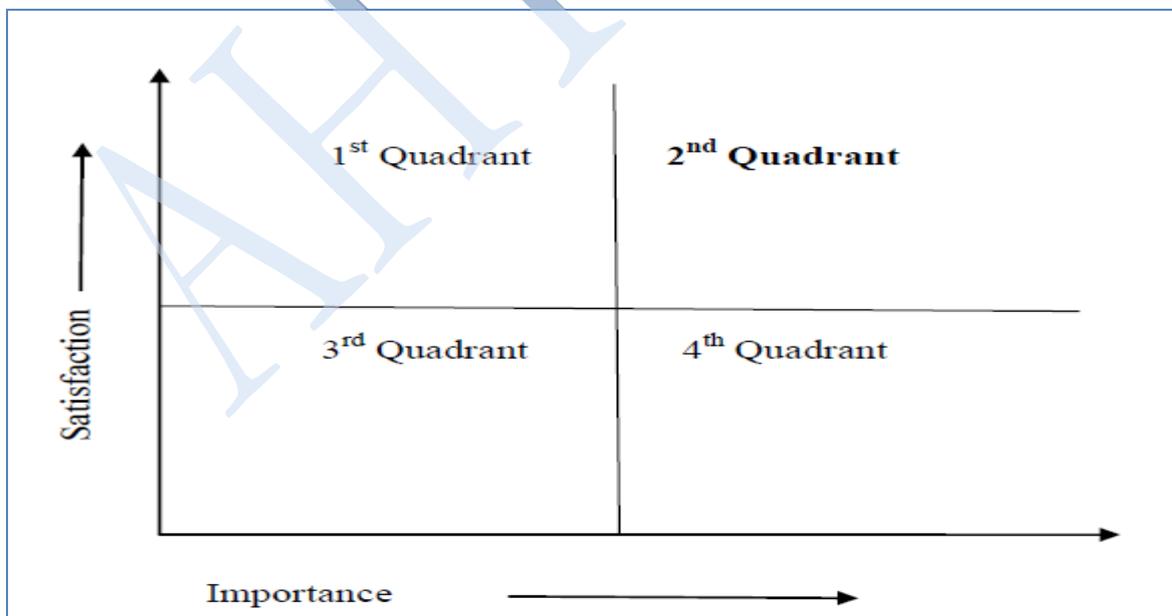
Figure 8: Satisfaction Mean Scores – Soft Infrastructure



Importance – Satisfaction gap

The Importance – Satisfaction gap is derived from the difference between Importance and Satisfaction average ranks (*Importance mean scores – Satisfaction mean scores*). Figure 9 below depicts the different scenarios that may crop up, but the results of the mean scores derived for all components eventually lie in the 2nd quadrant (*high importance – high satisfaction*) with a mean scores of above 2.5 for both sets of data.

Figure9: Importance – Satisfaction chart



Note: 1st Quadrant = Low Importance & High Satisfaction

2nd Quadrant = High Importance & High Satisfaction

3rd Quadrant = Low Importance & Low Satisfaction

4th Quadrant = High Importance & Low Satisfaction

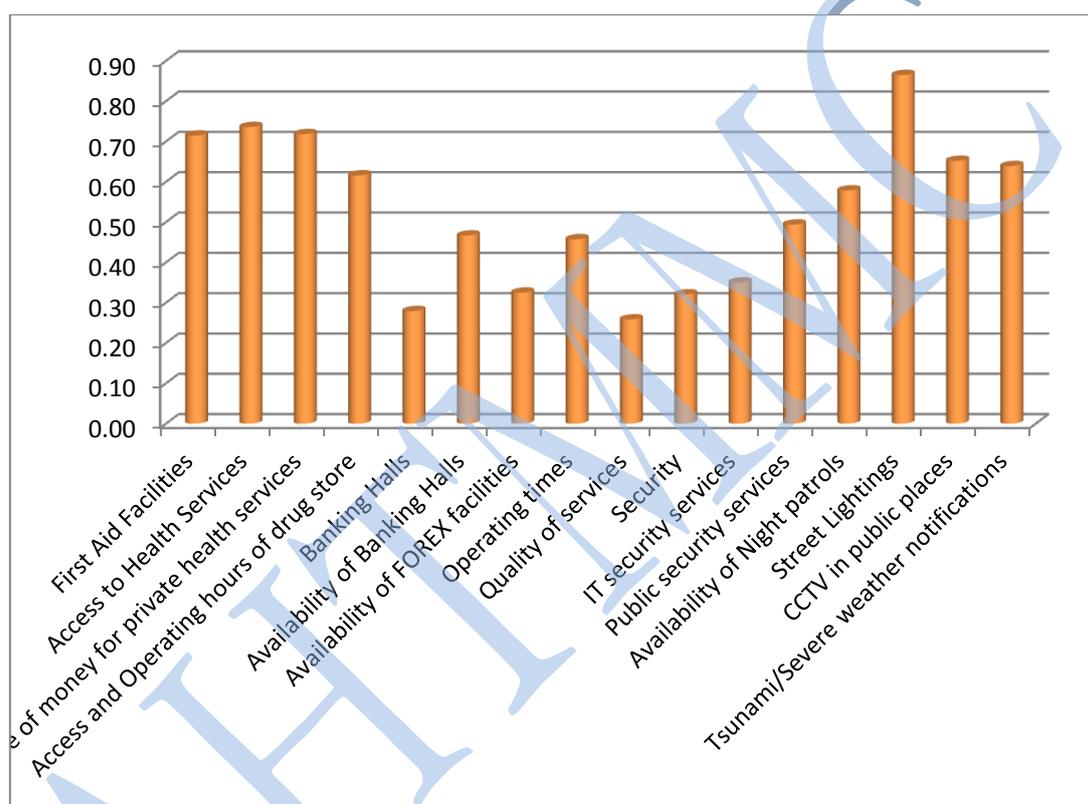
The difference between the mean score is less than 1 for all the components - in fact one will not expect a large gap difference when the variables are located in the 2nd quadrant. As such, a difference gap of less than 1 also suggests that the mean level of importance nearly portrays the level of satisfaction assigned by the tourists. A negative difference value simply underscores that the satisfaction value is greater than the importance one whilst a positive sign shows that the tourists have ranked a higher value for the importance than the satisfaction variables. The higher the positive sign, the more emphasis is to be laid on the particular infrastructural/services elements.

Although the *importance-satisfaction gap* is rather small (that is less than 0.5) for the general factors, some important conclusion can be drawn. Firstly from Figure 9, it can be seen that six factors (*'Location of Mauritius', 'Cultural Diversity', 'Hospitality of People', 'Political Stability', 'Marketing & Media Promotions' and 'Multilingual Aspect of Country'*) have negative loadings: which suggests that satisfaction scores are greater than importance attributed by tourists. In fact, it is true that the country enjoys political stability as compared to many of its African's counterparts and that in terms of cultural diversity and multilingual aspect of country, Mauritius enjoys a well founded reputation. Conversely, the remaining variables have an above horizontal axis value (where difference is not more than 0.4). *Cost of living* was perceived as the highest gap in this category: as a result the authorities should pay particular emphasis on this component as there are competing countries where cost of living is more pleasant and attractive.

As far as the last category of infrastructure is concerned, all the variables (*first aid facilities, access to health services, value for money and access for and operating hours of drug store*) falling under '*Health*' are poorly rated, resulting in a gap value of greater than 0.5. Security services is deemed to be very important in the visitors' eyes and this tend to multiply when

going in a foreign country – ‘street lightings’, ‘CCTV in public roads’, ‘availability of night patrols’ and ‘alert systems’ have all experienced a significant gap value as shown in the survey results. These bottlenecks need to be tackled so as to make the tourists feel more secure during their stay in Mauritius.

Figure10: Importance-Satisfaction Gap Mean Scores – Soft Infrastructure



The main focus of our study is to assess the importance attached to the soft infrastructure. Along this line, the questionnaire contains a number of statements (measured on a 5 point Likert scale with anchored 5 for ‘very important’ and 1 for ‘not important at all’) to obtain the respondents’ views on the overall status of the country’s soft infrastructure. They encompass availability of health services, banking services and security services including Tsunami Alert system. The mean score (Table 2) for the 16 statements ranges from 3.97 to 4.31, which indicates that the tourists equally ascribe high importance to the soft

infrastructure. The availability and quality of health service is very important in their decision to choose Mauritius as a destination and they also attach equal importance to their security.

Table 2: Mean Score

Importance	Satisfaction	Importance - Satisfaction gap	
<u>Soft Infrastructure</u>			
<i>Health</i>			
First Aid Facilities	4.31	3.59	0.71
Access to Health Services	4.31	3.57	0.74
Value of money for private health services	4.14	3.42	0.72
Access and Operating hours of drug store	4.20	3.58	0.62
<i>Banking</i>			
Banking Halls	4.14	3.86	0.28
Availability of Banking Halls	4.27	3.80	0.47
Availability of FOREX facilities	4.29	3.96	0.33
Operating times	4.19	3.73	0.46
Quality of services	4.20	3.94	0.26
Security	4.28	3.96	0.32
<i>Security Services</i>			
IT security services	3.97	3.62	0.35
Public security services	4.19	3.70	0.49
Availability of Night patrols	4.10	3.52	0.58
Street Lightings	4.14	3.27	0.86
CCTV in public places	3.99	3.34	0.65
Tsunami/Severe weather notifications	4.07	3.43	0.64

Factor analysis was used in an exploratory manner to analyse and summarise the interrelationships among variables (commonly cited in the literature) which influence a tourist's decision in choosing a destination. An initial factor analysis was run with all the 14 variables, giving three factors. Some of the variables loading onto a particular factor were low and also did not make theoretical sense. These were eliminated in the final factor analysis. Therefore, the 14 variables with loading greater than .50 on the original three factors were analysed separately in a second factor analysis. The reason was to remove some of the 'noise' added by variation due to extraneous variables. A final factor analysis was completed using the resulting 9 variables. All the assumptions of the PCA model were satisfied (Hair *et*

al., 1998). The results were rotated, using the varimax rotation to isolate more meaningful dimensions. After Varimax rotation three factors (those with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were retained and used to identify groupings of items which influence a tourist’s decision in choosing Mauritius as a destination. Variables with high loadings (greater than .50) were considered to be representative of the characteristic reflected by that factor, indicating that convergent validity is adequate.

Table 3: Rotated component matrix of respondents’- Soft Infrastructure

Infrastructural Elements/Services	Component		
	<i>Banking Services</i>	<i>Security Services</i>	<i>Health Services</i>
Banking Halls	.735		
Availability of Banking Halls	.685		
Availability of FOREX facilities	.810		
Operating times	.816		
Quality of services	.814		
Security	.710		
IT security services		.673	
Public security services		.762	
Availability of Night patrols		.791	
Street Lightings		.761	
CCIV in public places		.797	
Tsunami/Severe weather notifications		.754	
First Aid Facilities			.792
Access to Health Services			.869
Value of money for private health services			.768
Access and Operating hours of drug store			.774
<i>Eigenvalue</i>	4.120	4.026	3.058
<i>% of Variance explained</i>	25.75	25.16	19.11
<i>Cronbach’s Alpha</i>	.935	.931	.907

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Total Variance explained: 70.02%

Barlett’s Test of Sphericity: 5595.579 (.000)

KMO = Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.926

For each variable, missing values are replaced with the variable mean

Along the same line as for the previous dimensions of infrastructure (ROAD, HOTEL and UTILITY), these variables were grouped into distinct components using the PCA. After varimax rotation three components were identified as showed in *Table 3*. They were labelled as Banking Services, Health Services and Security Services. The consistency of the items falling under each component was verified using the Cronbach's Alpha reliability test and the values obtained are satisfactory. Initial statistics (showed below the table) suggested that the variables would factor well.

Differences due to Respondents' Profile - Soft Infrastructure

A Mann Whitney test was performed to test for any significant difference between the respondent's gender and the provision of different soft infrastructure. The result shows that the mean value for women are higher compared to that of their male counterparts. In particular 'First Aid facilities' and 'Access and Operating Hours of Drug Store' were statistically significant. This implies that women are more concerned about the provision of first aid facilities as they are more of a caring nature than their counterparts.

Further analysis was done to assess whether there is significant relation with the length of stay on the island, the number of people accompanying the visitors, the age group and the nationality profile on the proposed infrastructures. According to the K-W tests, there are no statistically significant difference for most of the proposed infrastructure based on the length of stay, the number of people accompanying the visitors and the age group. However most of the variables under the named infrastructure element/services (except first aid facilities, availability of ATMs and Tsunami Alert system) reported a statistical significant difference with the visitors' nationality.

Econometric Framework

To complement the survey analysis, we further assess the importance of soft infrastructure in tourism using an econometrical framework, using selected data from our tourism survey, more particularly on tourist satisfaction (rating score of the actual satisfaction on a number of dimensions and including elements that proxy for soft infrastructure). Our dependent variable is repeat/recommended tourism which was also recorded from the 1721 tourists surveyed. We posit that satisfaction with respect to a number of ‘ingredients’ (our independent variables in this case) is related to the probability of repeat tourism.

Central to our econometric modelling is the construct of a measure for soft infrastructure. Such a proxy was built by aggregating the satisfaction scores of the various elements and dimensions pertaining to soft infrastructure (banking, health and security) summarised below (table 4).

Table 4: Dimensions of soft infrastructure

<i>Health</i>
First Aid Facilities Access to Health Services Value of money for private health services Access and Operating hours of drug store
<i>Banking</i>
Banking Halls Availability of Banking Halls Availability of FOREX facilities Operating times Quality of services Security
<i>Security Services</i>
IT security services Public security services Availability of Night patrols Street Lightings CCTV in public places Tsunami/Severe weather notifications

To control for other factors that may affect the decision of tourists to recommend Mauritius as a destination or to engage in repeat tourism, we extracted scores on other major potential determinants of tourism decision (well documented in the literature, see Witt and Witt, 1995, Naudee and Saayman, 2004 among others), including cost of living (COST), level of development of the destination (DEV), Promotion of the destinations (PROMO) and other infrastructural components related to Hotel Infrastructure (HOTEL), Transport infrastructure (TRANS), Tourism attractions (TOURISM) and Utility Infrastructure (UTILITY). It is noteworthy that infrastructural development's role on tourism, mostly related to transport and communication has received some empirical treatment recently (see Seetanah 2007) and in some ways our work can be construed as being disaggregating aggregate infrastructure into its different types, but focus on an analysis of soft infrastructure, an element largely ignored in the literature. We have included the other different components of infrastructure (refer to table below for their definition in this study) for more comparative insights.

Table 5: Infrastructure Components

Airport Infrastructure (waiting areas, airport administration, airlines cargo, duty free shops, rental car services)
Road Infrastructure (road quality, road security, public transport)
Hotel infrastructure (service quality, shopping malls, restaurants, casinos)
Tourism Infrastructure (heritage sites, museums, wild life)
Utility Infrastructure (telephone, internet, water and electricity system)

Thus our proposed empirical model is specified as:

$$RT_i = (COST_i, DEV_i, PROMO_i, HOTEL_i, TRANS_i, TOURISM_i, UTILITY_i, SOFT_i)$$

Subscript i denotes each tourist, RT refers to the response of coming back to or recommend Mauritius. In fact, from the survey, it takes the value of 1 if the tourist answered yes to question (that if he is coming back or would recommend the destination) and 0 if answered

no. COST, DEV, PROMO, HOTEL, TRANS, TOURIST, UTILITY and SOFT, defined here above, are the determinants of repeat tourism.

Since we are dealing with around more than 1721 respondents at a particularly point of time and given that the dependent variable is a binary one (0 if tourist signifies his intention not to come back or will not recommend the destination and 1 if the tourism signifies his intention to come back and to recommend the destination), the preferred methodological approach is that of 'limited dependent variable regression' (Greene, 1997) as the dependent variable was dichotomous in nature, taking the value 1 or 0. We thus define a binary variable $P_i = 1$ and $p_i = 0$ otherwise where z is the case if the tourist responded his willingness to repeat or recommend. So the binary variable basically measures whether a tourist will repeat or recommend the destination. The probability that a tourist repeat or recommend the destination r is $P = \text{Prob}[y/z < 1 \mid x] = \text{Prob}[\varepsilon < 1 - \beta \mid x] = F(1 - \beta)$, where F is the cumulative density function specified for the error term in the levels regression, x the matrix of explanatory variables (household characteristics), $[\beta]$ is a vector of coefficients, e , is an error term, and F is the cumulative density function applied to that error term. When a normal distribution is chosen for F , a Probit model results; when a logistic distribution is used, a Logit model is estimated.

In fact, though Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) could have been used to compute the estimates for the binary choice models, certain assumptions of the classical regression model are violated. These include non-normality of the disturbances, heteroscedastic variances of the disturbances and questionable value of R as the measure of goodness of fit. Moreover, OLS imposes constant parameters over the entire distribution and these may lead to bias estimates (Grootaert, 1997). Linear probability models (LPM) have also been alternatives, but Probit and Logit models are recommended to overcome the problems associated with Linear

Probability Models (LPM). The former models use Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) procedures. A multinomial Probit is used since probit models are more flexible than Logit models and that it plays an important role in applied econometrics (Heckman, 1981). More specifically multinomial logit choice models assume that all the decisions are considered simultaneously and are independent. However Probit model allows for the existence of possible correlated disturbances between two decisions. Finally, Probit models also permits the testing of the existence and significance of the interdependence of these joint decisions.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results from the multinomial Probit, based on data extracted from the satisfactionsurvey, is presented in Table 6 below:

Table 6: Probit Model Estimates

(Dependent variable RT= probability of repeat/recommended tourism)

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Probit model estimates</i>
<i>Constant</i>	0.06 (4.23)***
<i>COST</i>	0.012 (1.11)
<i>DEV</i>	0.07 (2.32)**
<i>PROMO</i>	0.049 (2.14)**
<i>HOTEL</i>	0.078 (2.17)**
<i>TRANS</i>	0.043 (2.36)***
<i>TOURIST</i>	0.058 (1.91)*
<i>UTILITY</i>	0.036 (2.21)**
<i>SOFT</i>	0.053 (2.05)*
<i>R²</i>	0.64
<i>Number of observations</i>	1721
<i>Prob > chi2</i>	0.002
<i>LR chi2(9)</i>	1434.64

*significant at 10%, ** significant at 5%, ***significant at 1%

The small letters denotes variables in natural logarithmic and t values are in parentheses.

The likelihood ratio chi-square of all the models has a p-value of 0.003 which serve to confirm that our model as a whole fits significantly better than an empty model.

The reported coefficients represent the level of correlation between the independent variable and the dependent variable. Of interest to us is SOFT which is reported to be a statistically significant predictor of the probability of repeat and recommended tourism. In fact, the coefficient of SOFT is 0.053 suggesting that each point of increase in satisfaction related to SOFT (soft infrastructure) results in a 0.053 standard deviation increase in the predicted Probit index, that is in the probability of repeat or recommended tourism. Thus soft infrastructure related to tourism is seen to be an important precursor to a tourist's choice for a destination and an important element in a destination's competitiveness and attractiveness framework. This piece of results validates the general theoretical and empirical argument that infrastructure is an important dimension on tourism development, especially for the case of island economies. The present result interestingly focuses on soft infrastructure, an element which received scant attention.

Interestingly, there is evidence that the other types of infrastructure also matter in the decision of tourist, although to different extent. As a matter of fact tourist appears relatively more sensitive to transport and hotel infrastructure amongst all infrastructure, as witnessed by the relative size of the coefficient.

In addition, the other explanatory variables were also found to be significantly correlated, with the expected signs, with the independent variable. Interestingly cost of living (COST) appears to be not significant in predicting repeat/recommended tourism. This could be

explained by the fact the country of origin of most of our tourists are developed nations with the cost of living in their country being much higher than in Mauritius. Such results are to a large extent consistent with recent previous econometric works investigating the determinants of tourism development on the island

CONCLUSIONS

Analysis from the survey reveals that 80% of the visitors are satisfied with Mauritius as a tourist destination. The majority of the tourists are either couples or partners while the retirees and family are underrepresented. Slightly above 40% of the tourist have visited the island before, which indicates that the island is able to attract repeat tourist. In line with the national statistics, France, Great Britain and Reunion make up the majority of the tourist. The African continent represents only 10%, with South African having the lion share. The survey results also reveal that the majority would like to return for a second holiday and would also recommend the destination to relatives and friends.

Among the proposed "**General Factors**" that influence tourists' decision, the hospitality of people and the hotels standard are found to be very important in choosing their travel destination. Equally '*Security of transport including Taxi safety*' are rated as very important with an average score of 4.29. On the other hand, tourist travelling with family members attached high importance to first aid facilities and access to health services.

Although the **importance-satisfaction gap** is rather small (that is less than 0.5) for the general factors and tourist site infrastructure, the quality and security of our roads more precisely the width of the roads, the road signs, the markings of the roads, security patrol and footpaths need particular attention since the level of satisfaction generated by foreign visitors does not match the importance assigned by them. Also, the adverse state of the public transport and the congestion dilemma has been highlighted. The gap difference is more pronounced in the

utility and soft infrastructure/services category: internet facilities and availability and quality of water supply; health and security services.

The mean score for the case of soft infrastructure were relatively high side which indicating that the tourists equally ascribe high importance to the soft infrastructure. The availability and quality of health service was very important in their decision to choose Mauritius as a destination and they also attach equal importance to their security. The phenomenon of repeat tourism is undeniably a subset of appropriate factors: good infrastructure; tourism facilities and services among others. Good quality infrastructure is likely to attract tourists more often although John *et al.* (2000) revealed that repeat tourists were influenced mostly by regular visit to friends or family and ease of travel.

In terms of soft infrastructure, tourists rated communication, both internet and telephone services, and security to be most important. Significant gap has been found in the categories of 'Health' and 'Security'. All the components assessed under the category of Soft infrastructure are critical to the tourism industry with mean score ranging in a bandwidth of 3.97 and 4.31. It has been found in the survey findings that tourists attribute a high level of importance to health. In fact, first Aid facilities and access to health services are a real concern to these visitors among all the proposed utilities under the Soft Infrastructure. Government should emphasise on the continuous improvement and provision of these basic health care services which are of utmost importance to the tourists.

External factors having a major impact on Africa's tourism potential are the continent's perceived poor track record in areas such as safety, security and health. Interviews conducted with tourism opinion leaders and major tour operators to Africa have confirmed the acute importance of these factors on tourism performance and sustainability. In fact there are several proposed solutions to remedy the tourism situation in Africa. One such recommendation is to encourage and assist African countries' effort to address security,

hospitality management, infrastructure and environmental constraints to tourism development through tourism training programmes.

The econometric approach focusing on a Probit framework to model repeat/recommended tourism confirmed that SOFT infrastructure is a statistically significant predictor of the probability of repeat and recommended tourism and such result confirm the theoretical links between such infrastructure and tourism. Furthermore, the other explanatory variables were also found to be significantly correlated, with the expected signs, with the independent variable with the exception of cost of living (COST) which was found not to be significant predictors of repeat/recommended tourism.

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APPENDIX

Table A1: Some key figures about the Mauritian Tourism Sector

	1980	1990	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Population ('000)	1060	1080	1125.1	1140	1151.1	1163.9	1174	1186.4	1215.6	1223.1	1231	1237.3	1243.1	1250.4
No. Hotels	43	75	90	92	95	95	95	97	110	97	102	102	112	109
Hotel Rooms	2101	4603	6809	7267	8255	8657	9024	9647	10233	10857	11488	11456	12075	11925
Tourist arrival ('000)	115	291.5	558.1	578	656.5	660.3	681.6	702	810	907	930.5	871.4	934.8	964.6
Tourism Receipt (million)	7500	9207	11890	14668	14234	18166	18238	19397	21865	40687	41213	35693	39456	42845
Tourism Receipts (% of GDP)	6%	10%	13%	13%	14%	15%	16%	17%	20%	17%	15%	13%	13%	13%

Source (Statistics Mauritius, 2011)

Figure A2: % distribution of tourist arrivals by country of residence, 2001 – 2011

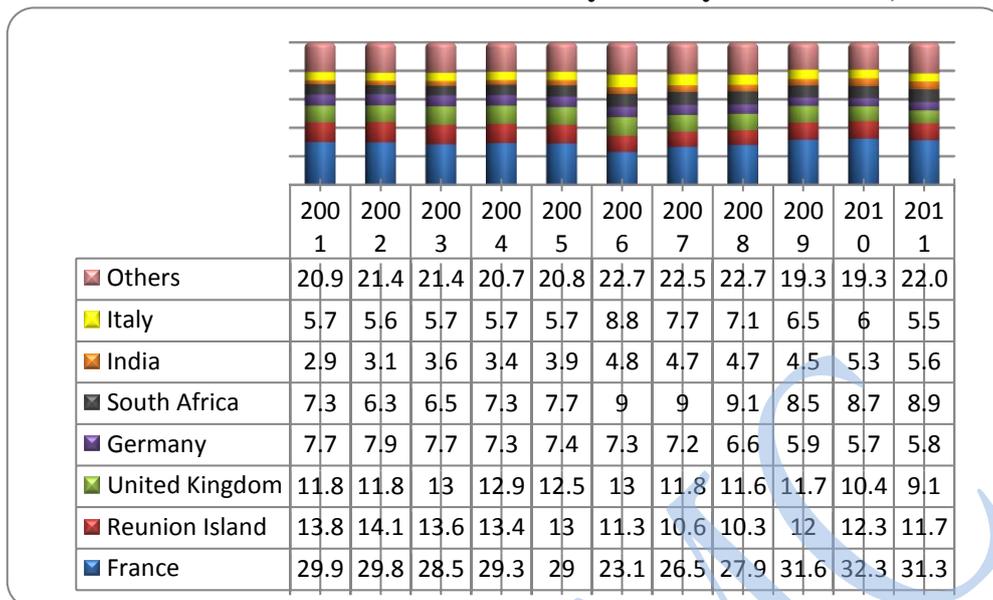
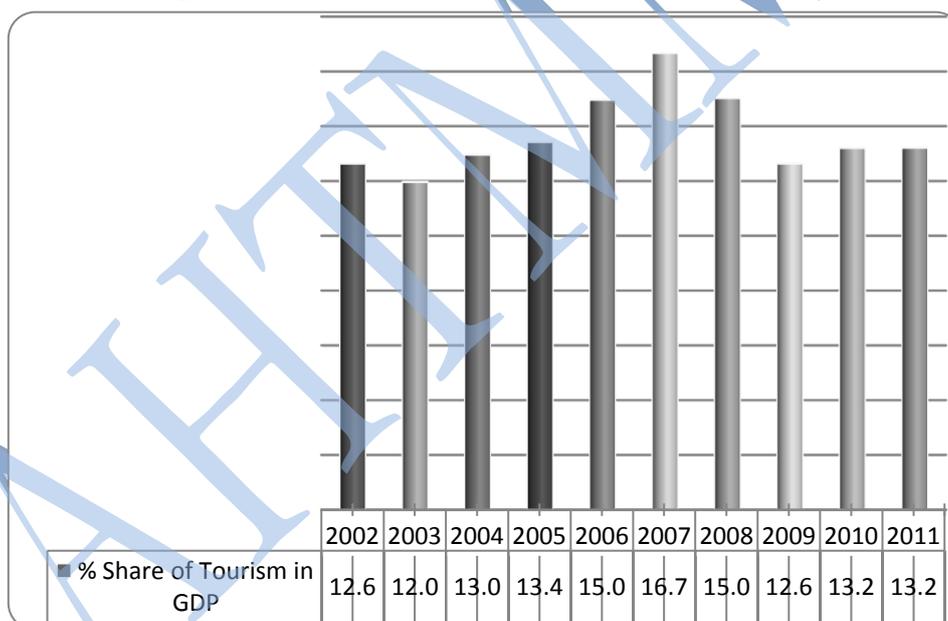


Figure A3: % Share of tourism in GDP, 2002 - 2011



$\% \text{ Share of Tourism in GDP} = (\text{Tourist Earnings} / \text{GDP at Market prices}) * 100$

Source: Bank of Mauritius Statistics

Challenges and Opportunities for Unlocking the Potential of Tourism Sector in Zambia

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Abbreviations

CSO	Central statistical office
PMRC	Policy Monitoring and Research centre
ZAWA	Zambia Wild life Authority
ZTB	Zambia tourism Board
NAC	National Arts council
PF	Patriotic Front
FNDP	Fifth national Development Plan
GRZ	Government Republic of Zambia
SNDP	Sixth National Development plan
MoFNP	Ministry of Finance and national Planning
PMRC	Policy Monitoring and Research centre
TCZ	Tourism council of Zambia

Executive summary

Zambia's abundant natural beauty, warm friendly people and resource wealth exists alongside extreme poverty, especially in rural areas where the poverty level is estimated to be above 67% (CSO, 2012). The tourism sector possesses significant potential to support economic diversification, broad-based wealth and income generation, but it has not been utilized as a wealth creating and value adding industry. Instead this sector is characterized by multiple and sometimes conflicting policy, legal and institutional framework. it lacks an up-to-date and coherent tourism development policy. This is compounded by policy implementation responsibility being split into numerous institutions with minimal coordination. While seen as a policy dilemma, this is an opportunity for Zambian government to reform the sector and

unlock its potential to deliver the much needed decent jobs, trade expansion and income generation opportunities (PMRC, 2013)

The paper will reveal the enormous potential that exists for the sector and explores options on how it can be socially and economically tapped towards creating resource rich and wealthy people in Zambia.

The structure of the paper

The paper is research and empirical evidence based and takes the following structure:

- Untapped potential of Zambia's tourism, sector: trends and future prospects
- Natural tourism assets in Zambia
- budget performance
- Under-explored opportunities in Tourism sector in Zambia
- How the tourism sector is performing in Zambia
- What would it take for tourism industry to achieve its potential
- The enabling environmental
- Reform Recommendations

UNTAPPED POTENTIAL OF ZAMBIA'S TOURISM SECTOR: TRENDS AND FUTURE PROSPECTS.

Zambia's abundant natural resource wealth is capable of supporting sustained social and economic development. Zambia is blessed with:

- 20 National parks
- 34 Game management Areas(GMAs)
- 4 major rivers
- 16 major waterfalls

- Rich natural forests
- 8 fresh water lakes
- Fertile soil
- Diverse wild life
- Over 779 birds species
- Favorable climate throughout the year
- Warm and friendly people

Zambia must capitalize on its competitive advantages to develop a vibrant tourism sector. The tourism sector in Zambia is capable of supporting economic diversification, strengthening the investment climate for foreign and domestic investments and effectively contributing to trade expansion and pro-poor employment creation (ZDA, 2013). The tourism sector is an economic and pro-poor sector, as it is labour intensive compared to other sectors. Additionally, it has a high female and youth employment ratio and is not necessarily import intensive (CSO, 2011). The sector has low barriers to entry and consists of a range of enterprises that provide opportunities and for economic linkages in the local economy (EAZ, 2010).

Natural Tourism assets in Zambia

Some of the tourism assets that Zambia possess include

Awesome and magnificent waterfalls

Zambia is endowed with more than 20 magnificent waterfalls which are located in different parts of the country. These natural wonders have particular importance to the country in attracting tourists from all parts of the world. The following are some of the natural tourism assets:

Victoria falls- one of the Seven Wonders of the World. The Victoria Falls, which is one of the Seven Natural Wonders of the world is a “must see” tourist attraction in Zambia. At the peak, the falls plunge into Zambezi River at about 550 cubic metres, per second. The impact is so intense that the falling water raises a cloud of vapour that can be seen more than 30 kilometers away. It is because of this that the falls have become known for centuries as Mosi-oa-Tunya, meaning ‘The smoke that Thunders’. The falls, which lie in the country’s tourist capital of Livingstone in the south of Zambia, was declared a world Heritage site for its unique geographical and geomorphologic significance. The Victoria Falls area is rich in biodiversity. There is eight gorges as fascinating as the falls, as well as the “look-out tree” – an enormous Zambezi valley baobab tree in which a platform has been built for an excellent view of the falls. This tourism asset provides an opportunity for high tourists’ attraction.

The kalambo Falls

The kalambo falls are the second most significant water falls in Zambia providing opportunities for tourist attraction. Located on the Kalambo River some 33 kilometers to the north of Mbala town in Northern Province of Zambia, the kalambo falls are nearly twice as high as the Victoria Falls and are the second highest uninterrupted falls on the African continent at 235 metres high. Other water falls include Ntumba chushi falls in Luapula province of Zambia, Lumangwe falls, and Ngonye falls on the Zambezi, chipembe falls and the chishimba falls located in Northern Province of Zambia. Musonda falls on the Kalungwishi River in Northern Province of Zambia.

These untapped water falls lie in areas of scenic landscape providing potential visitors with rich areas for development of tourism.

Lakes and Rivers

Zambia hosts 35 percent of Southern Africa's water resources (ZDA, 2013). The country has lakes, Rivers and Swamps. There are five major Rivers and four major lakes. The Zambezi River is African's fourth largest River and the country's longest spanning a total distance of 2 700 kilometers. It is on this River that the mighty Victoria Falls and the world's largest man-made lake, Kariba lies. In the southern part of the country is the Kafue River which spills into Zambezi River and in the Eastern Zambia is Luangwa River. The Northern part of the country is endowed with two rivers bordering it namely the Chambeshi and Luapula rivers, and the three lakes that is Tanganyika, Mweru and Bangweulu. These water resources, provide opportunities for fishing, whitewater rafting, boat-cruises, canoeing River boarding, Jet boating and gorge wing.

National parks

Zambia's wild life protected area occupies about 10% of the country's total are. There are a total of 20 National Parks; 34 game management areas and 23 million hectares of land devoted to the conservation of spectacular variety of animals (National Heritage Conservation commission, 2010). The major parks:

Kafue National park

Kafue National park is Zambia's oldest park and by far the largest. It was proclaimed in 1950 and is spread over 22 400 square kilometers. The park is still a raw and divers slice of African wilderness with excellent game viewing, bird watching and fishing opportunities. Opportunities for investment tourism within are available.

South Luangwa national Park

The south Luangwa national park, located in the Luangwa valley in Eastern Province of Zambia has one of the largest concentrations of wild life in the world (TBZ, 2009). A unique feature about the Luangwa valley is its game viewing walks and drives which vary from one (1) to eight (8) days with bush camps along the way. The southern Luangwa national park with an area of 9 050 KM² has probably the largest variety of animals and bird life in Africa. Its view lagoons host large populations of hippopotamus and the plains are roamed by giraffe, buffalo, Zebra and numerous varieties of antelopes. Other animals are the elephants, lions, and leopards. Visitors interested in flora and fauna will be delighted at the numerous and exotic species of flowering trees and blooms, which grow above and below the heads and hooves of Zambia's wild life.

Mosi-oa-Tunya national park

The Mosi-oa-Tunya national Park is home to the mighty and spectacular Victoria Falls in Zambia's tourist capital of Livingstone. This park is home to a variety wild life and spread over an area of 66 000 KM². This natural based tourism asset provides opportunities for tourism development.

Lower Zambezi National Park

The lower Zambezi national park is located in south Zambia and is mainly accessible by road and air. The park is endowed with both terrestrial and aquatic ecosystem and associated fauna and flora. It has a large population of elephants, buffalos, waterbucks and Zebra.

Other animal species include roan, eland, Kudu and sable antelopes, lions, leopards, cheetah, African wild dog, hyena etc.

Owing to its location and endowments, lower Zambezi National Park is a very popular tourist destination. The tourist attractions include an abundant wild life, mosaic of vegetation types

ranging from the flood plain seasonally water logged types to the mixed woodlands up on the plateau and the scenic escarpment provides important added attractions. The park offers the offers the most spectacular canoeing experience than any other national park in Zambia. Tiger fishing takes place in the area and visitors enjoy viewing the sunset on the Zambezi River is itself a spectacle and is the name scale of this pristine wilderness. Along its 2 700 km course, the Zambezi fertilizes the Barotse flood plains, plunges over the Victoria Falls and replenishes the massive lake Kariba before reaching lower Zambezi. Here a myriad of islands have formed, creating a home and feeding ground for an incredible amount of diverse wild life. Thus together creates one of the diverse and interesting ecosystems on the planet, providing the opportunity to explore these habitants in an unmatched of safari activities.

Museums

Museums preset another source of entertainment and adventure for tourists giving than an opportunity to acquaint themselves with some aspects of the country's history, culture and art. There are four national museums in the country that is Livingstone museum in Livingstone, Copperbelt museum in Ndola, Lusaka museum in the capital Lusaka and Moto Moto museum in Mbala. The museums play a significant role in interpreting the country's heritage through their research, collections, preservations and exhibitions. Investors are invited to set up hotels and other support services near the museums to take advantage of the flow tourists.

Environment and climate

Despite its location in the tropical zone, Zambia has a temperate climate that makes it pleasant to visit all year round. As it is not as commercialized as many safari destination, there are a variety of a spoilt wilderness environment.

All these natural tourism assets provides potential opportunities for developing tourism sector.

The tourism sector has low barriers to entry and consists of a range of enterprises that provide opportunities for economic linkages in the local communities (Kaunda and Chaunga, 2013). Despite the numerous tourism attributes that Zambia possesses, the tourism industry continues to be plagued by low employment, minimal GDP contribution and nominal tourists' arrivals. The sector's potential continues to be largely untapped.

Figure 2:1 Budget performance

Year	Budget allocation US dollars	Budget released in US dollars	Employment levels	% GDP	Tourism Earnings in USA	Tourist arrivals
2006	8 140 000	3 202 000	21 204	2.40	177 000 000	668 862
2007	34 740 000	21 740 000	22 204	2.00	188 000 000	756 860
2008	24 640 000	13 616 000	22 756	2.40	200 000 000	897 413
2009	15 520 000		24 308	2.70	212 000 000	811 775
2010	43 980 000	13 260 000	25 860	2.30	224 000 000	811 987
2011	7 120 000	6 320 000	31 900		216 000 00	906 417
2012	10 520 00					
2013	12 760 000					

SOURCE: Annual progress report 2013:MoF

UNDER-EXPLORED OPPORTUNITIES IN ZAMBIA'S TOURISM MARKETS

Eco-tourism and adventure activities

Eco-tourism is still under-explored in Zambia. With abundant nature and wilderness, this tourism market segment offers exciting investment opportunities. Opportunities exist in safaris, makoroeng/canoeing game drivers, natural walks, Bungi jumping, micro flights, sports fishing, rock-climbing and orienteering (TBZ, 2013)

Cultural Tourism

Zambia's population is predominantly rural with only about 40% of the population being in urban areas while the remaining 60% live in the rural parts of the country (CSO, 2010). The population is quite diverse with total of 73 languages (Department of culture, GRZ, 2009). However, the major and most commonly spoken languages are Bemba, Lozi, Nyanja, Tonga, Lunda, and Luvale. Each is distinguished from the other by unique and colourful traditional customs and life styles. Of greatest significance among the local customs and must visit are the several cultural festivals or traditional ceremonies held annually to celebrate various events and seasons. Of these, there are six major ones namely Kulamba (Eastern province), Kuomboka (Western province), Umutombok (Luapula province), Likumbi Lya Mize (North Western province), Shimunenga (Southern province) and Ukusefya PaNg-wena(Northern province) ceremonies

Movie tourism

Investment opportunities also exist in movie tourism

The global tourism market

Opportunities for Zambia's Tourism industry offered in the global market is enormous. African's tourism industry is expected to continue growing at a rate above world average (WTO, 2011). While visitors arrivals in the region fell following the global financial crisis by 4.3 percent in 2009, arrivals to Africa increased by 3 percent in the same year (UNCTAD, 2010). The demand patters in both African countries and international source markets suggest that demand for the type of tourism products has to offer is not a limiting factor in the medium term.

Zambia's central 'cross roads'

Position offers opportunities for stronger regional linkages and potential for self-drive tours. Bordered by eight other countries, Zambia is positioned at the heart of the region in particular, the town of Livingstone-which as well as being located next to the Victoria fall , is close to the borders of Zimbabwe, Botswana and Namibia-offers significant potential for regional tourism circuits and joint marketing. Significant numbers of self-drive visitors tour Namibia and could perhaps be encouraged to extend their journey to Livingstone and other parts of Zambia. The geographical location of the capital city, Lusaka, mid-way between the established airlines hubs of Nairobi and Johannesburg could help Zambia benefit from established regional tourist circuits.

Given the growing global demand and attractive supply of tourism assets, there is a strong opportunity to expand Zambia's tourism industry. Assuming other conditions are right, Zambia can capitalize on its tourism assets and take advantage of favourable market conditions. In this way, Zambia's tourism industry can expand. A scenario analysis helps to illustrate the medium –term potential of boosting the competitiveness of the tourism industry.

There are three main ways to increase the revenue from tourists:

- Increase the number of tourists
- Increase the length of time tourists stay in the country
- Increase the amount of money tourists spend during their stay

Table 3.5 presents estimated of revenue that Zambia's tourism industry could generate in three scenarios: low, medium and high if Zambia could:

- Attract 1.8 million visitors by 2015(up from 812 000 in 2008)
- Raise the average length of stay from 6 days in 2009 to 7.5 days in 2015
- Raise the average expenditure per tourist per day from US\$35.70 in 2013 to US\$83.50 in 2015

Then the industry could reach US\$1.1 billion and the industry could employ 600 000 formal sector (and even more if the informal sector is included). With the economic multiplier effects estimated at approximately double the direct effects, the overall economic impact would be significant.

Table 3.5 a more competitive tourism industry offers substantial rewards

		2009(actual)	2015 projected			source
			Low	medium	high	
Visitors per year millions	A	0.8	1.3	1.4	1.8	Pope 2009
Average length of stay (days)	B	6	6	7	7.5	World bank 2009
Expenditure per days(US\$)	C	35.7	35.7	35.7	83.5	Pope 2009
Revenue (US million per year)	D	174	275	358	1 148	AxBxC

Source: Ministry of finance , 2013

Note: The above numbers relate to visitors overall. It is important to bear in mind that rates of growth in visitor numbers, length of stay and expenditure per day can vary significantly between different types of visitors. For example, while for natural-based tourism the average length of stay is around 6.9 days business visitors are likely to spend much less time(perhaps an average of 3 days). In Zambia, similarly those visiting friends and relatives and/or visiting from neighboring countries for the purpose of cross-border trade are likely to spend close to US\$50 dollars against the US\$1 100 or so expenditure of nature tourists.

Table 3.6 how the industry is performing

Key performance indicators	Baseline 2009	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
Visitors arrivals internationally	709 948	810 000	920 000	1 030 000	1 140 00	1 250 000
Annual direct earnings US dollars million	200	216	260	312	374	449
Employment levels	27 412	29 000	31 000	36 000	41 000	45 000
Bed space in hospitality sector	19 000	20 140	22 150	23 370	24 806	25 500
Length of stay	7	7	10	10	14	14
Occupancy rates	60	62	65	68	71	75
Number of arts and cultural practioners	500	500	750	1 000	1 250	1 500

Source: ministry of Tourism and Art(2013)

WHAT WOULD IT TAKE FOR THE TOURISM INDUSTRY TO ACHIEVE ITS POTENTIAL IN ZAMBIA?

By achieving some or all of the following results, Zambia's tourism industry could come closer to reaching its potential, through increased investment (both domestic and foreign), visitor numbers, length of stay and expenditure. This could provide more jobs and contribute to increased prosperity. These results address:

- Supply side-by influencing businesses' decisions on whether and where to invest
- The demand side-by enhancing Zambia's appeal to tourists and travel agents
- The enabling environment by enhancing the regulatory and authorizing environments within which the industry operates.

A short description of each result, ordered by the supply-side; demand-side and enhancing environment is provided.

Supply-side

- **A lower cost supplies could reduce the cost of establishing and operating tourist facilities.**

In Zambia, a large proportion of the tourism industry's supply requirements are met through imports, mainly from South Africa, with roughly half of the purchases being locally produced. Zambian operators pay high premiums (largely related to customs and excise duties) from imports over what the goods cost in South Africa. This puts the operators at a competitive disadvantage and the situation for small and rural operators, which are faced with additional transportation costs and unable to buy in bulk, is even worse. As an example, one of the major cost components for tourism investor is construction, and the price of cement in Zambia is 80 percent higher than in Kenya, mainly due to lack of competition (World Bank, 2010). Similarly, many luxury items demanded by high-end foreign tourist must be imported

and face high excise duties. For example, there is 125 percent duty on wine and spirits imported to Zambia, which is significantly higher than that in other countries in the region (COMESA, 2012).

One means of reducing the cost of inputs is through local sourcing of items for which capacity exists or can be developed to supply high quality and reasonably priced goods and service. Developing greater backward linkages in this way could not only reduce costs to operators but also benefit local producers. Lower costs of key inputs such as food and beverages may also translate into lower prices and improved value-for-money for tourists, thereby influencing the demand side of the equation as well.

- **Improve labour productivity could contribute to lowering operating costs**

As a humane resource-intensive industry, labour is a major component of the costs of operating tourism enterprises. The ultimate “costs” of labour to the employer can be thought of in terms of the cost per completed task. Cost is thus a function of the financial remuneration paid to an employee in terms of basic wages and additional allowances as well as an employee’s efficiency/productivity in getting tasks done; on average, basic wages on their own are reasonable compared to those in other countries in the region in the region. However, higher allowances and benefits remove the cost advantages that low basic wages might otherwise provide. At 9 percent, non-wage costs in Zambia are among the highest in the regions. Only Tanzania, has a higher share(16 percent), while it is 4 percent or lower in Kenya, South Africa , Botswana, Namibia, Zimbabwe and Malawi(World bank, 2012). Higher remunerations costs are further compounded by low productivity, particularly for small operators. Labour productivity in Zambia as whole lags the best international standards but is reasonable compared to other countries in the region. There is a vast productivity gap between large and small businesses, however, with MSMEs much less productive. A lack of

motivation caused by an inadequate link between pay and performance, and weak skills due to a lack of both training and exposure to international service standards, are the two key factors underlying poor productivity

- **Ease access and lower costs of finance could facilitate greater investment in and growth of the tourism industry**

For Zambia non-agricultural firms, including those in the tourism industry, access to banking services is associated with 44 percent higher productivity. Yet while large businesses have near-universal access to banking services and nearly half use finance credit, MSMEs (particularly those that are locally owned) rarely have such access. Without credit, small enterprises, must instead grow at slower pace supported by cash flow from operations and this limits the growth of the sector. In relation to finance, tourism faces a number of problems including high interest rates, high collateral requirements, lack of long term finance that would facilitate the large upfront capital investments in facilities that have a long payback periods and bank's limited understanding of the industry.

Demand side

- **More extensive and more effective destination marketing could increase awareness and demand**

While the opportunity for tourism especially in Africa is large, global and regional competition is strong and accelerating. Hence, unless Zambia can create a compelling brand and a much greater awareness, it will have difficulty competing with other, better known destinations in the region. Despite this, the government expenditure on tourism marketing has traditionally been lower to other countries in the region. In 2008, the government spent US\$3.2 million annually on destination marketing, just a quarter of the next lowest regional

competitor (Namibia) and one twelfth of Tanzania's investment. Although the government budget allocation to tourism marketing has recently experienced a tenfold increase, the absolute amount remains low relative to other countries. Hence the private sector undertakes much of the marketing itself. The efficacy of marketing is as important as the level of spending: the quality of marketing materials and campaigns is vital to achieving a return on the marketing investment. Zambia's existing tourism brand-" Zambia let's explore" unveiled in June 2011 Tourism Board of Zambia, the new logo and slogan of Zambia's tourism beckons tourists, investors and general visitors to not only explore this amazing beauty but is meant to attract investments and create an environment that ensures an equitable balance between development needs of the country and tourist attraction. In addition, Zambia does not know enough about its existing and potential tourism source markets to support effective marketing and sector growth, and its products and unique selling points are not well-defined. This suggests a need for more market research on the tourist customer and on tour agent behavior. The latter is particularly important as accessing international tourist source markets depends heavily on general sales agents and foreign tour operators

- **Upgrading and diversifying Zambia's attractions and locations could help attract more tourists and extend their length of stay**

In order to penetrate new markets, attract more returning customers and increasing tourists' length of stay, Zambia will need a sufficiently diverse and appealing tourism product base. This will mean broadening the range of attraction Zambia offers, with an emphasis on moving beyond natural based tourism, as well as diversifying the geographical locations with Zambia that tourists can visit. The latter will be particularly important in bring the economic benefits of tourism to new, rural parts of the country. Although Zambia has high-quality nature offerings and a world-class site in Victoria Falls, several other countries in the region

have National Parks and safari options of comparative quality to Zambia's and Victoria Falls is shared with Zimbabwe while Zambia has potential tourism assets outside of the well-developed Victoria falls/Livingstone area, these have not been developed sufficiently(TBZ, 2012). Offerings that build off Zambia's cultural and non-cultural will life assets in outlying areas can help diversifying both the type and the location of tourism, but will require investment in building a critical mass of supply and ensuring the availability of sufficient infrastructure and facilities to meet tourists' needs.

- **Travel to and within Zambia could be made cheaper and more convenient, thereby increasing demand**

Domestic transportation accounts for a substantial share of tourists in country expenditures (18 percent for natural tourists) (UK aid, 2012). Inadequate and inconvenient travel options constrain tourists' choices of itineraries and long travel times reduce the time spent seeing sights and sites or participating in activities. Therefore, in order for tourists to be enticed to stay longer to outlying areas of the country, improvements in the affordability and convenience of domestic travel (both air and road) are crucial. Domestic air fares in Zambia are more expensive than in several other countries in the region estimated at double these in Kenya and Botswana (UK, aid 2102). Zambia has only few domestic airlines (preflight, EasyJet, and Mahogany) and therefore no competitive pressures on price and a limited number of routes and flights adversely impacting convenience. High cost of jet fuel, the use of small aircraft and the lack of economies of scale (both due to limited demand also contribute to higher domestic airfares. However, domestic travel faces a "chicken-egg" problem: with a lack of competition contributing to high fares, tourists are discouraged. At the same time, the number of tourists may not, at this point in time, justifying a need for an additional domestic airlines.

For long-haul tourist, the cost and convenience of international flights to Zambia is also important. A sample of pricing data suggests that international airfares to Zambia are mid-range in the region but consistently higher than those of Kenya, Tanzania and South Africa (which compete with Zambia as safari destinations (COMESA, 2012). To improve convenience, tourism operators would like to see more direct international flights options from key source markets in the United States and Europe. The poor quality of domestic roads also constraints both supply and demand, particularly in remote facilities in many areas (World Bank, 2010). As a result, the period in which operators can earn revenues can be significantly less than twelve months (for some areas, as little as six months). This has a negative impact on profitability and may result in price that are higher than they would otherwise be (to allow operators to cover their fixed costs over a shorter seasonal operating period). While neighboring countries such as South Africa and Namibia enjoy a significant volume of self-drive tourists (both domestic and international), Zambia's poor road infrastructure severely limits its attractions to self-drive tourists

The use of social media in marketing of destinations could help Zambia reach a global market

There is need to make use of the social media to market both the tourist sites and locally produced arts and crafts. The tourism industry can utilize current advance in information and communication technology technology (ICT) such as virtual reality (VR), web-based technologies and mobile devices, to engage tourists and gain a competitive advantage. These technologies are capable of informing tourists' decisions on a global scale.

- **6 As of sustainable tourism development for competitiveness**

- Accessibility-air and ground access get to the destination the destination and to get the attractions as quickly as possible, the cheaper the better
- Attractions –both manmade and natural
- Amenities-Necessary facilities for visitors including sporting, banking, insurance, and mega events amenities
- Accommodation-quality, comfort, quantity and price are important factors
- Activities-adds value to the destination experience and determine how long visitors stay. The longer the length of stay the better
- Advertising-this is basically market. Using ICT is now an important component and has provided greater opportunities for global tourism markets.

The 6 As are influenced by both private and government especially policy makers

ENABLING ENVIRONMENT

- **A more stable and predictable regularly environment could reduce risks for investors and operators**

Substantial investments in land, equipment and facilities and the time taken to generate demand and revenues, tourism investments tend to have long pay-back periods. At the same time, prices to international tour operators are set and reservations are made well in advance of a tourists' actual arrival. Sudden changes can have a large impact on operations because many tourism businesses cannot easily adjust their prices accordingly. Similarly, changes not anticipated at the time an investment was made, but which occur during the long period before which the operations starts to yield a positive return, can damage profitability. Such changes have been problematic for tourism operators in Zambia in recent years. For example, introduction of SI 33 and 55 in 2013 by the minister of finance, which burred the use of Us dollars and allow Bank of Zambia to monitor foreign exchange inflows and outflows,

substantially affected tourism sector in Zambia in a number of ways. Frequent regulatory changes may in part be due to lack of coordination among the multiple governing agencies whose regulations impact the tourism industry. The government has embarked on the business licensing reform programmes, which is designed to reduce compliance costs for licensing businesses and encourage the regulatory-as opposed to the revenue generation function.

The tourism and hospitality act is also being revised as part of this process, thereby creating an opportunity for improvement to the legal and regulatory environment

- **Greater competition in tourism and supporting industries could generate innovation, improve productivity and reduce costs and prices**

Lack of competition contributes significantly to Zambia's high cost base and therefore, the prices ultimately paid by tourists. Dominant market positions and monopolies exist in key support industries such as domestic air travel, cement manufacturing as well as in certain subsectors of tourism industry itself (e.g. only a few-high end lodges operate in lower Zambezi National Park). Lack of competition in the domestic airline and cement industries is thought to add a significant premium to prices faced by tourism operations and tourist in Zambia. Political economy factors and rent-seeking suppress the political will and public pressure for increased competition. While competition legislation is in place, it has not achieved the desired outcome of improving the quality, coverage and cost of goods and services in Zambia (PMRC, 2012). In Zambia, many large companies possess a share of the market larger than their productivity would warrant (World Bank 2008) and the lack of competition stifles innovation, price reductions and quality improvements that might otherwise enhance Zambia's tourism product.

- **Stronger support from government and the wider population could make it easier to do businesses in Zambia's tourism industry.**

While government has identified tourism as one of the four industries essential to economic development in Zambia, the level of actual investment (in kwacha terms) and support (as measured by legislation and actions that would ease the process of starting and growing a tourism business) have been low. Perceived by some as an exploitative industry dominated by white foreigners, tourism has yet to be embraced in a substantive manner, the general population does not fully appreciate the potential benefits that the industry offers. The perceived economic impact of industry seems to be significantly less than the actual impact and the extent of leakages also tend to be overestimated (PMRC, 2013). As a consequence, actions are taken or not taken that undermine the potential of the industry to grow and flourish. An example, of such an action is the short termism associated with the 2008 major increase in visa fees, introducing with little notice and later reversed (UK AID, 2010). Since tourism industry is highly competitive, low levels of support translate into low arrivals and revenues as evident from regional comparisons. Once government and the population recognize that the industry's potential economic and social contributions far outweigh the perceived costs (as has been proven in Mauritius, Namibia and elsewhere) they will enhance environment.

REFORM RECOMMENDATIONS

There is need to align all legislation to the vision and mission of the ministry which is influenced by the overall agenda of the nation. These recommendations should result in a clear focus of all objectives, robust M&E, framework and SMART KPI for the sector to enhance accountability, efficiency and effectiveness in the ministry.

Review and upgrade of tourism legislation review should be undertaken to facilitate the development of a diversified, sustainable and globally competitive tourism industry.

This will promote a quality environment and sustainable utilization of heritage and natural resources. There is lies an opportunity to respond to changing trends in tourism business environment and make Zambia a prime destination in Africa. The aim is to have an updated legislation that promotes growth based on increased tourism, which is environmentally sustainable and should be accessible to future operations. For the legislation highlighted to be effective stakeholders (government and private sector) have to engage in consultative meetings to include and substitute particular elements of the legislation. This should be done with a clear strategic focus on the overall objectives and goals of the tourism sector.

Coordination of all tourism auxiliary bodies

Zambia Tourist Board (ZTB), Zambia Wild life Authority (ZAWA), Natural Arts Council and natural Heritage conservation commission are the four (4) major institutional bodies that guide the Zambia tourism sector. The tourism council of Zambia (TCZ) should coordinate its operations with the ministry of tourism and Arts, and realize the targets of the sector. The tourism sector has not contributed to its potential and there is need to revise mandates, overall targets, KPIs and monitoring and Evaluation framework (M &E). The institutional linkages must be structured in a more inclusive manner. All stakeholders must be engage and allowed to contribute into operations at local level. This will ensure that the average Zambia enjoys the benefits of tourism. For NAC, Arts and culture should focus on the provision of requisite infrastructure and skills for the promotion of creative industries for socio-economic development and preservation of Zambia's cultural heritage.

Extensive branding, marketing and promotion of Zambia Tourism

Tourism products, sites and heritage, must be audited and compiled into a database. Zambia Tourism must be branded beyond the new ZTB theme” Zambia Its explore”. Zambia is endowed with numerous breath taking tourist attractions but the reality is that it is not attracting the potential tourist numbers. Zambia Tourism board must target the economic power of the locals as tourists as well. There should be extensive education to the locals on the network of communication that would help to foster increased tourist arrivals in Zambia. The private sector must be engaged to enhance the marketing of the sector locally and internationally. Citizens in diaspora should be engaged to intensity the marketing in their country of directly. Zambia celebrities could be engaged to brand and market Zambia, as this has been a common celebrities and personalities as tourism ambassadors, who would capture a wider audience.

Upgrade of tourism infrastructure

Accessibility to tourism sites and poor infrastructure are the major hindrances that need urgent attractions. Promotion of well-targeted government investment in infrastructure and opening up new tourist sites should be priority. Collaborations between government and private sector to introduce economic routes by road and air viable tourists’ destinations should be on the reform agenda. Access to tourist attractions should by all means be easy and affordable. A sure way is to promote competition among tour operators and internal airlines. This will ensure that there is no monopoly in transport service and thus the cost attraction would be reduced. The end result will more tourists visiting Zambia sites thereby massively increasing the earnings from tourism sector and thus the cost and prices of accessing the tourists’ attraction would be reduced. The end result will be more tourists visiting Zambian sites thereby massively increasing the earnings from the tourism sector.

Uphold and reserve our culture

The tourism sector should not, just be seen as a source to revenue from the tourists that come to visit Zambia's tourist sites, instead it should also be seen as platform for conserving and upholding our rich Zambia culture. The role of heritage in our culture must be upheld as service of self and as way of protecting our identity as Zambians. The national Heritage conservation commission Act of 1990 which provides for the conservation of ancient, cultural and natural heritages must be enforced to carry out its stated aims of which concerning culture is one of them. The tourism ministry on the other had must commit itself to supporting the major a annual traditional ceremonies that are held in Zambia. Showing casing of our ceremonies will uplift our culture and this is a viable strategy of attracting tourists to come and watch our traditional ceremonies. This should also be an introduction of festivals that celebrate rich cultural heritage

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**Human Resource Development Strategies as Advocates of Customer Service Quality:
A Study in the Mauritian Hotel Sector**

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ABSTRACT

Increasingly, customers are keeping higher expectations from the services that are being offered to them as they anticipate value for money in terms of excellent services. Customers expect flawless performance being offered to them irrespective of the sector they are buying services from. Simultaneously, global competition has heightened customer demands within the various industry sectors, including the Tourism sector. Hotels spend massively on human capital in view of developing a more skilful workforce to meet the continuously increasing demands of the customers. Organisations which trust its human resources to be inimitable asset contributing to organisational success will invest in its human resources. Training and development initiatives taken by senior management teams in Hotels have fostered a culture

of customer service within their working environment. Much research so far has been conducted on HRD strategies in the hospitality sector, but, not none has focussed on how HRD strategies lead to higher customer services. Though Mauritius might be small in size as compared to other countries, the richness that it represents in terms of intellectual capital has led to several top awards winning consecutively over years. As such, in spite of being a small emerging island state, much can be learned and observed from the hospitality practices of Mauritius. This paper seeks to identify how the HRD strategies support competencies development that leads to higher customer service. This study is vital for three main reasons; Firstly, the Tourism sector is highly revenue generating among the main pillars of the economy. It is a blooming industry and understanding factors and supporters for its survival and growth is imperative. Simultaneously, it represents high employment rates and household dependence of many Mauritians. Secondly, this research identifies HRD strategies that help foster customer service in the hotels which will in turn reinforcing the brand image of Mauritian Tourism. Lastly, most researches have focused on HRD practices in hospitality sector. Our study adds a different dimension by looking at HRD strategies that promotes customer service by focussing on a small island state, Mauritius.

In view of identifying the training and development strategies adopted by hotels, this study has made use of qualitative data where respondents have elicited their professional realities within the subject. Unstructured questionnaires have been used as a means of capturing qualitative data which has later been analysed and developed as the findings. So far ten world-standard hotels have been approached with the sample size distributed as follows; five HR Managers/Directors, four Assistant HR Managers, five HR Officers and seven Operational Leaders.

Findings explored so far indicates that employees have develop job-related skills and behavioural skills that support better service delivery towards clients. Formal training,

informal training, on-the-job coaching contributes to the fine-tuning of skills. Employees develop interpersonal, communication, teamwork and customer relationship competencies that foster empathy towards the customer which is an important ingredient for excellent customer service delivery. Other competencies developed through HRD promoting customer service include self-directed working teams, information sharing, delegation and empowerment. It is worth mentioning that this paper is currently work in progress and that findings are in way of development for final submission.

KEYWORDS HRD, Mauritian Tourism, customer service

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is one of the most international of industries, with both the public and the private sectors increasingly concerned with issues of international competition and benchmarking (Wahab and Cooper, 2000). Increasingly, benchmarking is being seen as necessary for survival. Competitive pressures to improve customer service, time to market and financial performance are driving managers to study recognized industry leaders, learn their secrets and adapt these ideas to their own organizations. Similarly, human resources are often seen as one of the most important assets for tourism and hospitality organisations. Few people would reject the proposition that the human element in tourism and hospitality organisations is critical for service quality, customer satisfaction and loyalty, competitive advantage and organisational performance. This is further supported by theories, models and empirical studies in the strategy, service and tourism management literatures that stress the critical role of human resource based theory (Barney 1991, Grant 1991) and its variants – dynamic capacity building theory (Eisenhardt and Martin 2000), competency based theory (Grant 1996), organisational social capital theory (Leana and Van Buren, 1999) and intellectual

capital theory (Edwinsson and Malone, 1997) posit that firm specific resources, assets, capabilities that are valuable, rare and non-substitutable or imperfectly imitable can be an important source of sustainable competitive advantage and performance differential among firms within the hospitality industry. As such, human capital or intellectual capital including employees' competencies, knowledge, skills and aptitudes, experience, social ties are essential in creating firm-specific advantage, inimitable human capital and sustained competitive edge (S. Kusluvan, Z. Kusluvan, Ilhan and Buyruk, 2010).

Hovering the Mauritian Tourism Industry

With more than 150 kilometers of white sandy beaches and bluish transparent lagoon, Mauritius is the heavenly holiday destination. The lagoon is protected from the open sea by the world's largest coral reef surrounding the 1,860 square kilometers island. The population, a mosaic of different race, cultural diversity and racial harmony of the island make of Mauritius a unique place. Scooping numerous awards annually the Mauritian Tourism Industry is worldwide acclaimed not only for its beautiful beaches but also for the good customer service that guests experience.

Tourism, one of the strongest pillars of the Mauritian economy contributes significantly to economic growth and has been a key factor in the overall development of Mauritius. During the first quarter of 2014 (January to April), 351, 697 tourists have visited the island with topmost 205, 504 tourist from Europe followed by 84, 943 from Africa and 50,203 from Asia. In the past two decades tourist arrivals increased at an average annual rate of 9 % with a corresponding increase of about 21% in tourism receipts. As such the sector is growing and represents an important contribution to the gross domestic product.

Rational of the study

Traditionally, Mauritius has been attracting tourists that are looking for seaside resorts, sub-tropical flora and fauna and cultural heritage. Tourism assets have been the main strength especially as our hotels are well-designed reliable with latest services and technologies. The hosts are being seen as product and the "hospitality atmosphere" and more and more as the nucleus of the tourism as it has been receiving increasing attention. To be able to set up the "hospitality atmosphere" it is important that human resources possess the necessary skills and competencies to be able to deliver to the standards of the publicity and image being projected of the island. Building, architecture, technology and best beaches will always exist, but the uniqueness of good customer service can be offered solely by talented human resources. The development of human resources is core for the survival of a highly-human intensive and competitive industry as the Mauritian Tourism sector. Investment on appropriate training and development programme in line to customer service are essential as part of improving customer service. As such programs in line with the development of skills and competencies for better customer service are essential in the hospitality sector. When investigating the service quality gaps, Zeithaml and Bitner (2000) identified human resource issues as a major cause of the provider Gap 3 which referred to the company employees not delivering to the developed customer-driven service standards. Hence, they coined the Human Resources Strategy Wheel framework which represents a complex combination of HR strategies required to improve service employees' willingness and ability to deliver quality services as well as remaining customer service oriented. Thus, HRM strategies that should be customer service oriented, form part of four core HR strategies namely hiring the right people, develop the people to deliver service quality, provide needed support systems and retain the best people. Therefore, the HR practice of training and development in the hotel industry is expected to be aligned with the above mentioned core HR strategy of developing people to

deliver service quality and its sub-strategies (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000; Kusluvan et al, 2010).

As such, this research will be focussing on the training and development strategies directly linked with improving customer service that have been adopted by hotels in Mauritius. The paper seeks to identify and probe such practices through the three sub-clusters train for technical and interactive skills of the HR Wheel Strategy, empower employees and promote teamwork within international resorts and top rated hotel. The identification of such practices will help the organisations to reinforce their best practices and introduce new ones leading to the development of good customer service delivery.

THE LITERATURE

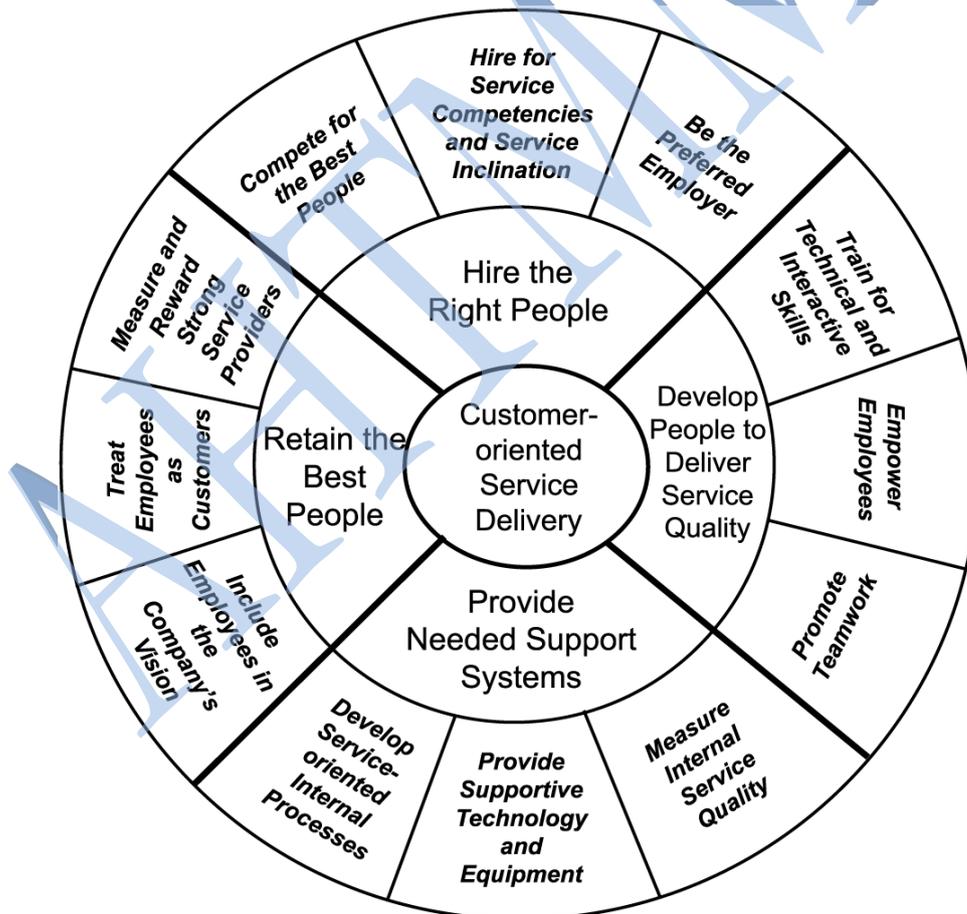
Human capital which is directly influenced by management policies, practices, systems, capabilities and organisational culture and climate “contribute to sustained competitive advantage through facilitating the development of competencies that are specific, produce complex relationships and generate knowledge (Lado and Wilson, 1994, 699). As such the development of human capital represents imperative importance for the survival of organisations in the cut-throat hospitality business environment. As the chief output of tourism and hospitality organisation is services, researchers have investigated the features of services that are most critically driven by human resources. The result is a familiar litany; services are intangible; they are produced and consumed simultaneously, usually at the service providers’ location; and customers are present or participating in the service, usually with interpersonal interaction between customers and service providers. Owing to these features, services are made tangible in the personality appearance attitudes and behaviour of the service provider; thus, employees become part of the product, represent the organisation,

and help to form the image of the organisation (Bitner, Booms and Tetreault, 1990, Hartline and Jones 1996). For these reasons, employees and how they are managed are key determinants of service quality, customer satisfaction and loyalty, competitive advantage, organisational performance and business success (Bitner, Booms and Tetreault 1990, Nickson et al 2002, Schneider 2003). Schneider and Bowen (1993) supported that for service organisations superior HRM practices can be a key to competitive advantage. Key HRM practices such as recruitment and selection, training and development, performance management and reward systems have been identified as significant to customer service excellence and service quality (Browning 1998, Tsaur and Lin 2004). Hoque (2000) investigated HRM practices to be adopted by the hotel industry based on the high commitment management, high performance work systems and identified a bundle of HR practices for hotels covering the following issues terms and conditions of employment, recruitment and selection training, job design, quality management, communication and consultation and pay system aligned with organisational objectives; and compensation programmes reflecting the organisational values and linking pay to performance.

In “the age of service competition” (Gronroos, 1994, p.5) that is depicted by international hospitality and tourism, the customer is supreme. Gronroos (1994) states that internal development of the personnel and reinforcement of its commitment to the organisation’s goals and strategies are prerequisites for the organisation’s success. To remain competitive therefore, hospitality and tourism providers must continue to meet if not exceed customer expectations that are themselves dynamic (Atkinson, 2000). In the UK hospitality and tourism industry for one, with its dubious records on quality, improving quality service is a must (Maxwell et al, 2000). Keep (1989, p.111) levels unequivocally that “training and development should be regarded as central to anything that can be sensibly termed as HRM”.

In service organisations and hospitality and tourism companies are no exception, this centrality is clearly important, basically as “people are the only organisational resources that can shape and create the ways in which all other business resources are used” (Torraco and Swanson, 1995, p.18). Thus quality service depends heavily on employees, particularly those at the front-line of customer contact (Maxwell, Watson and Quail, 2003).

Though all these theories for the development of human resource has been developed, the Zeithaml and Bitner (2000) model of HR Wheel Strategy depicts the various aspects on which HRM should focus to support the delivery of customer service within the service sector. The figure below depicts the clusters and sub-clusters of the HR Wheel.



(Source: Karl J. Mayer, 2002)

Figure 1: The HR Strategy Wheel

The HR Wheel is comprised of four clusters; hire the right people, develop people to deliver quality service, provide needed support systems, retain the best people. Each cluster constitute of three additional sub-clusters that supports the HR practices of the HR Wheel Strategy. Due to the unique and seasonal nature of the tourism and hospitality business, managers need to devise proper HRM strategies so that they can survive competition and stay in business. With the purpose of developing and maintaining human capital that are customer oriented and focused on delivering quality, an organisation is supposed to build up its employees to deliver service quality. As the organisation hires the employees, the latter's competencies are expected to be constantly expected to be fine-tuned and upgraded to meet the ever changing demands of the customer and external environmental forces. As stated by Qirici *et al* (2012), In order for enterprises to be responsive to customer needs and take responsibility for their own. Effective employment strategies normally leads to happily motivated and ready to train employees. Accordingly, customer needs are addressed faster and service issues are addressed and resolved further efficiently (Qirici *et al*, 2012).

Vencatachellum *et al*, (2012) states that training through job rotation and knowledge sharing via seminars, can also facilitate career development opportunities and thus be viewed as a long term investment in the organisation's key asset. They furthermore state that empowering employees would mean to give employees the desire, skills, tools and authority to engage in customer service. Human capital intensive industry, like the hospitality sector, must be given the authority to resolve all customer issues with the managers getting involved only in extreme cases and providing feedback 1-1 to employee at a later time. As such, they should be provided with training so that they are able to handle difficult clients. They must be made aware that they hold the authority for problem solving. Empowerment initiatives on the other hand could include self-esteem and communications training, open door policies, self-

directed work teams, cross training, task forces, management by walking around, employee surveys, sensing groups, information sharing, delegation strategies, involving employees in identifying causes of poor service quality, encouraging and rewarding employees for suggestions and innovative ideas and empowering to respond to customer needs (Vencatachellum *et al*, (2012). Teamwork on the other hand promotes the social network at work. Team-work promotes trust, inter-reliance and support among colleagues and indirectly leads to team sharing and learning. Vencatachellum *et al* (2012) went further stating that employees working in teams will enhance customer satisfaction, since employees will feel better supported, reducing the stress and strains of service jobs. This will maintain their enthusiasm, through camaraderie and support, improving their inclination to provide service quality. The promotion of teamwork may require a restructuring of people around clusters of customers, where the work for the majority of employees is organised around team work on specific customer segment. The dominant mode of structuring work becomes self-managed teams and team working which will encourage better decision-making and facilitate creative problem solving.

METHODOLOGY

In view of identifying the strategies and practices adopted by organisation to develop their human resources in line with customer service, qualitative and in-depth interviews have been used where participants have elicited their professional realities within the subject. Unstructured questionnaires have been used as a means of capturing qualitative data which has later been mostly four star and five star hotels or international resorts, where there was the possibility of learning from diverse backgrounds of highly rated hotels. The unstructured interview investigated numerous themes, evolving around the research aim of identifying the training and development strategies that would fine-tune the customer service delivery skills.

The transcription were analysed thematically, and the key patterns emerging from the responses were identified, to be used in the elaboration of the main survey instrument. A total of 10 hotels have been reached and representing a total of 21 respondents ranging from HR Managers/Directors to Technical Managers and HR Officers. We found it important to consider the Technical Managers/Team Leaders within the survey so that we could also have non HR responses. As the employees work closer with the Technical Managers and that the latter are the ones directly exposed to managing customer service, we considered it important to have their valuable participation in the survey. The sample size is detailed in Table 1 below.

	Star Rating	Number of participants and respective designation	Region/Coastal
1	Four star	1 HR Manager	Central
2	Five star	5 Operational Team Leaders 1 Assistant HR Manager	West
3	Five star	1 HR Manager	North
4	Four star	1 Operational Team Leaders 1 Assistant HR Manager	West
5	Four star	1 Operational Team Leader 1 HR Officer	North
6	Five star	1 HR Director	East
7	Five star	1 HR Manager 3 HR Officers	West
8	Four star	1 HR Manager	South
9	Four star	1 Assistant HR Manager 1 HR Officer	South
10	Five star	1 Assistant HR Manager	East

Table 1: Respondent's profile

The Table shows the star rating of the hotels that have been approached as well as the participant's respondents. We have also included the location of the hotels and most of them are mostly beach resorts rather than business hotels of the Central region of Mauritius.

FINDINGS

Exploring the participants' narrations has been the most enriching experience in listening to the testimonies of the participants as to how training and development opportunities at their workplace were leading to the delivery of better services to customers. Some organisations within the hospitality sector have embedded strong learning and development culture, others innovative approach to learning to meet the cut-throat competitive needs while some still lag behind with the same traditional method for developing their human capital. The paragraphs that follow shed some more light on the strategies adopted by the hotels coupled with their contribution into elevating the level of customer service. Part of the paragraphs relates excerpts from the narrations of the respondents and we deemed these testimonies as enriching to be included through the findings as it revealed the true expressions of the participants' feelings concerning customer service delivery. The findings have been developed and categorised in line with the three sub clusters of "develop people to deliver service quality".

- ***Train for Technical and Interactive skills***

Through one of the narrations, an HR Manager mentioned that it is imperative to fine-tune human capital in highly competitive business environment as part of providing excellent customer service. Technical trainings contribute to the development of technical skills that supports better customer service delivery. As part of developing technical skills employees undergo training on specific SAP modules which are linked to production, operations and supply chain through SAP softwares. Some organisations use tailor made softwares that would help them understand the technicalities of their job and hence better serve the client. Additionally, as part of interactive skills development, employees undergo training on self-management, self –confidence and emotional intelligence that reinforce the existing skills of the human capital and simultaneously strengthen and develop skills that contributes to better

service delivery. Through such trainings employees learn and develop the ability to shift from a cannot-do to a can-do attitude. As such, they can easily please hostile customers with calmness and patience as appreciative advocates of the agency. One of the Managers we interviewed mentioned that our employees' best assets are their smile;

“The most beautiful asset we have is our smile that can turn an annoyed customer to a very patient one. It is all in the way we deliver. Customers always share their views by saying that they find it difficult to understand how Mauritian keeps smiling and resolve the issues so calmly. No wonder sugar is made here in Mauritius.”

The pleasure of our staff is to serve the customer with a smile and cater for their needs. The trainers ensure that they inculcate a culture of customer service delivery within employees through interactive and customer service delivery trainings. As such competencies possessed by staffs who have been trained on interactive skills adds a competitive advantage to all other resorts who might not be spending on training and development.

Another strategy adopted by some hotels is to ensure that employees benefit from objective oriented training by developing a Strategic Capacity Building Calendar and Strategic Training Needs Analysis Framework considering the organisation's vision and mission over a period of 5 years. The strategic training programme is set with different milestones that have to be achieved on a yearly basis so that the strategic objective can be achieved in the long run. The Training Calendar designed by the HR Director through consultations with the Technical Managers. As such, through the Strategic Training Needs Analysis organisational training needs are identified, developed and holistically embedded within the organisation. Individual, tasks needs are also identified that has a directly linked to the improvement of the individual's performance impacting directly on customer service.

A five star hotel Manager points out that staff development is at the heart of business existence and survival. As learning and development is a continuous within their institution, the instinct for quest of knowledge is deciphered at the very first stage of interview. The culture prevailing on that particular five star hotel is to entrust self-learning and self-

development within the hotel's human asset. As such, the organisation constantly upgrades the hotel's knowledge centre and e-learning system to meet the requirements of the external environmental factors and guests' requirements. Decision making is made through a concept called "Traffic Lights". The general manager notes and discusses everything that happens in the hotel to his employees through a meeting. Action plan to improve skills and competencies are taken in accordance to guests comments. Progress is discussed with Managers in the monthly through the "Traffic and Lights" meeting.

The Supervisor of the HR department of another four star hotel states that they invest massively on training and developing their human capital as they recruit staff who are not very highly qualified and experienced but, rather, would require all employees to undergo a rigorous induction session and job related training session so that they develop the skills necessary to deliver good customer service. As such, their belief is more on developing and shaping human capital according to the hotel's requirements rather than recruiting experienced staff from the external market. This gives the employees the opportunities to better understand the culture of the hotel and the client's needs to be able to deliver better services. The hotel's culture allows growth and development prospects and thus employees can better serve customers. The Supervisor believes that multi-tasking is important to better help the employee understand the various needs of the customers.

In his words; *"the hotel provides them opportunities to adapt to various working situations. For example; there is cross exposure sessions where employees from different departments get the chance to work into other departments of the hotel. We believe as such, various exposures support the development and understanding of the customer needs from a more holistic point of view."*

Similar practices are supported by a four star hotel in the South-East of the island where the Manager states that they invest massively on training and development of staff as they do not recruit highly qualified staffs. Thus, they spend more on developing "Training Academies"

where employees' trainings are tailor-made and focussed on the hotel's needs and requirements.

A five star hotel in the East coast of the island develops employees to ensure that service performance is met through technical and interactive skills training. As such, they offer training on the company's culture of service quality, leadership skills and executive coaching, people management skills, problem solving skills, listening skills, team-working and customer relationship management skills. All employees are trained on how to use the e-learning platform as most training sessions happen online. Training through job rotation, knowledge sharing through seminars also facilitates career development opportunities of the hotel's human capital towards the delivery of better customer service.

Through the interview the HR Manager of a five star hotel in the Southern coast of the island states that they have invested 12.5 million of rupees in the implementation of a knowledge centre together. They have also been the first one to implement an online platform called Lobster Ink for training and development of human resources. Lobster Ink is a hospitality education system that educates staff and management within the hospitality industry worldwide, using the most detailed, high-definition courses on international skills, international standards and product knowledge. Within the tailored standards component of the Lobster Ink system, it becomes a platform for education of the hotel's staff that creates uniqueness to the brand and the service that the employees provide. Once these standards are identified and incorporated into the Lobster Ink platform, these tailored standards are brought to life, transporting, inspiring and engaging employees from various learning styles and generation. The hotel provides training for each department through this highly innovating platform. After the success of the system by this five star hotel, many other hotels have adopted the software for learning and development of their staff. With Lobster Ink employees have better knowledge about what they are expected to do and are better trained to be

professionals in their field. The platform acts as a knowledge centre and provides a virtual library where employees can access books to resource and refine their skills.

The Managers of one of the world's largest hotel chains mentioned that they have an online virtual university. Team members manage their own training at their own pace through the virtual university platform. All organisational level trainings are compulsory and employees have to undergo these training within a specific time frame. On the other hand individual and task related training whether technical or interactive are posted through personal profiles and the employees are allowed a specific time to complete the trainings. An employee would have approximately twenty five trainings to complete over a year on the virtual university system and are sometimes linked to the training programmes of other countries. In some occasions they are also sent for overseas training and assignments especially if they are dealing with clients of that country. Managers agree that hand on experience and working close with head-office, learning and sharing with colleagues of other branches within the same chain of hotels provide better developmental opportunities and reinforce networks that develop social ties and trust within international working context.

Most hotels would undergo induction trainings for new joiners. One of the Senior HR officer interviewed mentioned that the induction session within their organisation last over three days to ensure that all new recruits know all about the history of the international chain of hotels. New joiners are exposed to training methods such as simulations, case studies, action learning and learning by doing. On the last day of the induction programme, Technical Managers are included in the induction sessions and they cover sessions about client's portfolio, expected level of service, service level agreements set by each client. Simultaneously, the last day of the induction Technical Managers acts as an ice-breaker between the Managers and the new joiners. The managers try to breach the gap, create and foster synergy thus preventing alienation within new joiners. A 90 day buddy system is set up

for new joiners to work closely with senior staffs and allowed to assist meetings with clients as part of their development. The hotel's practice is to treat customers as internal guests.

- ***Empower Employees***

Mentorship programs have been successful in the development of competencies within the hospitality sector. One of the Managers stated that developing mentors has been a challenge but the benefits were seen through the transmission of competencies from mentors to mentees when they were dealing with customers. An HR Manager of a four trident hotel on the West coast of the island states that;

“Empowerment enables employees to be responsive to customer requirements by ensuring that the necessary rules of order within the organisation do not interfere with the performance of a task which the customer requires.”

He went further stating that managers in his organisation believe in empowerment as an invincible tool for the development of human capital. He mentioned that that their motto has been defined as *“Where happiness means the world.”* The culture within this organisation is to empower employees so as to make them feel that they are given consideration and trusted. Thus, employees are given the chance to stand on their own and develop self-efficacy and self-confidence to better deliver to customers. On the other hand, managers are have more time to focus on strategic aspect of the work by decentralising decision making to tactical level and operational level staff. Employees are thus encouraged to foster creativity, self-reliance to better serve customers. Simultaneously, employees develop the sense of independence and are more able to work autonomously. Empowered employees are satisfied, committed and trustworthy and contribute to better customer service. Managers states that employees skills can be enhanced through empowerment as it develop competencies for understanding the customers' needs, providing individualised attention, clear communication, listening to customers, promptness, courtesy, politeness and respect. It also enhances skills

such as customisation of services and the willingness to adjust the service to meet the needs of the customer.

On the other hand a top 5 star hotel of the East coast believes in celebrating, applauding and rewarding top scorers from training and development sessions. Such initiatives include development of self-confidence and autonomous team work. The employees have to undergo rigorous trainings and pass the exams which are linked to the performance appraisal process. High-flyers are rewarded for their hard work and dedication and those completing the training with good top scores are rewarded. The same participant mentioned that employees are willing to continuously learn and develop their skills as they feel the direct benefit that it brings to customer service. Within another hotel the Manager mentions that the employees have the right to make a mistake once then allow chance to improve and rectify errors. Decision making is made through a concept called "Traffic Lights". The general manager notes and discusses everything that happens in the hotel to his employees through a meeting. Traffic light is a way of measuring the Customer Satisfaction Index. The concept consists of the three colours of traffic lights that are red, amber and green. Things that have caused trouble to the hotels are noted in red, amber for neither well nor bad and green when there has been no issue. With the concept of traffic lights, customers have a better idea about things that they should do and what they should not be done, since a calendar is provided to each employee with all activities listed in each colour. Employees are empowered to assume their actions and decisions based on the colour codes.

Another hotel on the western coast of the island states that employees are empowered according to the International Empowerment guidelines. The hotel forms part of an international chain of hotel and empowerment forms part of their culture. Employees are allowed to take their own decisions without management consultation. A case explained to us by the participant, the HR Manager of the hotel, is that a bartender can take decisions to give

guests a complementary drink without approval from senior management. He went further stating that;

“They have green light to take their own decision as long as the customer is happy and the hotel’s image and prestige is not hurt. Staff at Hilton cannot do enough for you-our cleaner went above and beyond what you would normally expect – even cleaning clients’ sea shoes”

- ***Promote Teamwork***

The last sub-cluster of the “develop people to deliver service quality” is to promote teamwork. Most participants have mentioned that they have wide varieties of activities that are being organised by the hotels as part of team building. The very first factor that Managers find important to develop is “trust” within team mates. As mentioned by the HR Manager of a five star hotel of the East Coast, investment in team building will not be fruitful if trust does not exist within team members. Teams can be reinforced and team mates can be brought closer when trust exists between them. The Manager states that to create a trustworthy working team, the concept of “trust” must be embedded within the organisational culture. As such, “trust” forms part of their core values. From there, new joiners and employees are explained the importance of “trust” between team mates, manager-employee relationships, inter-team support and client relationships. Much emphasis is put on same during the induction sessions. On the other hand, some organisations would be doing more outdoors team-building than others. The HR Manager of a five star hotel of the East Coast, member of the an international resort, states that team synergy is developed and promoted through team building activities such as nature trail, outdoor activities, big game fishing contest and adventure parks. Another a four star hotel on the northern coast of the island and member of an international chain of hotel mentioned providing six sports activities per months for the staff. Such activities can be held indoors or outdoors. Simultaneously the Food and Beverages department organises culinary competitions where employees are encouraged to participate in teams. To better support team formation, to bring closeness between managers

and staffs and to encourage communication between employees and managers, top management also participate in such team building activities. Managers believe that for a team to function properly, the following characteristics are important; mutual assistance, positive place, generation of new ideas and respect of new ideas, open working environment, self-starter and taking ownership and responsibilities for solving customer issues. Their belief is that teamwork at all levels of the organisation is important to encourage innovation, radical improvement and foster teamwork and trust among team mates.

DISCUSSION

The findings show that even the upper class of four and five stars hotel have been considered for the survey, not all the hotels would apply the same practices even if they would be rated very closely. Findings show that some hotels still very much practice the traditional way of classroom teaching or teamwork activities. Very few hotels have been very innovative in their learning and development approach and team building exercises. Some hotels cannot tailor-made training and development programs and cannot to suit programs to the local context as they have to follow the head-office pace and capacity building calendar.

It has also been seen that some hotels would use the latest technology and support available to provide learning and development of their staffs. Most of the organisations still use the traditional methods of teaching such as classrooms set-up within the learning centre of the organisations. Some would use on the job and simulation or case studies. However, not many have their online e-learning system or virtual university or even cooking contests which makes learning and development easier. To a second stand-point, investing in systems like SAP or Lobster-Ink would be too farfetched for these organisations so they prefer to invest in less expensive means as long as they are able to achieve the training and development needs of the organisation and the individual. On the other hand, hotels delivering training and development through technology mentioned to have good return on investment specially with

Lobster-Ink system. The online platform acts as a virtual repository for all consultations at any point in time. Furthermore the online learning systems deem to be very practical in use as updated documents can be loaded easily and older ones restored minimising storage space and simultaneously promoting greener environmental practices.

Actually, each hotel has designed their specific training style. As such some would use the “Traffic lights” method, others would inculcate very high level of trust within organisations and some would develop mentorship programmes, or training academies or even intensive induction sessions. As to what can be concluded is that each hotel have devised, adopted and inculcated their own training methods that best suit maybe the learners, or the trainers, or even the culture of the organisation. Maybe, through various nuances and styles, training and development is very much existent within the hospitality industry. As part of interactive skills, most hotels provide training on the basics such as communication, team-work, self-development and self-reliance that would help develop better customer service skills competencies. However, it has been seen that some organisations are also training on new concepts such as emotional intelligence and relationship management which is directly linked to managing customers. Emotional intelligence coupled with relationship management can be very useful specially if the employee has to handle situations where clients maybe annoyed or are in situations of difficulty.

Though training and development programs exist, not all hotels mentioned about having a Strategic Capacity Building Calendar and Strategic Training Needs Analysis Framework. Having a strategic vision for the development of training programmes is essential so as capital is invested in the right direction. Though one of the hotels mentioned about having a proper structure of carrying out training needs analysis and from there devising training plans no such practice has been mentioned for the case of the other hotels. Strategic congruence is met as and when the programme is developed and cohesion to the overall organisational

objectives are mapped through systematic implementation rather than strategic and holistic integration with the organisational objectives.

The commonest recruitment practice across hotels is to attract candidates who are not very highly qualified and to groom them to the stage where they can deliver to the expectations of the hotels. As such hotels invest massively on tailor-made training programmes rather than buying on the shelves-training packages. The only one hotel that has been using Lobster-Ink mentioned that training modules are tailor-made on the system according to what they expect the employees to learn. On the other hand most of the hotels own their own training academies or institute. This clearly demonstrates that there is a culture of training and development towards customer service delivery within hotels in Mauritius. As part of promoting training and development within hotels, managers are giving due importance to team bonding and social ties that will help foster team trust and dependence whilst simultaneously promoting self-development and self-efficacy of each team member. On the other side the employee's self dependence helps to fuel, maintain and resource the team synergy and competencies all together that leads to better team output.

FURTHER RESEARCH AND IMPLICATIONS

The sample size that has been reached for this survey is mainly concentrated on four star and five star hotel around the island. This maybe the reason as to why the training and development programmes for each one was unique yet rich, innovative and creative to the other. Normally high rated hotels would have already established and tested training and development practices. However, to a lesser extent, lower-starred hotels might not have the possibility of investing in massive training programmes. It would be interesting to investigate the same research aim but in lower-starred hotels and to identify if training and development programs exist and, if they do exist, what are the practices adopted specially if they have

smaller budgets for training and development. Further research underpinning lower-starred hotels can be conducted so as to identify how they are investing in their human resources through limited budget.

Simultaneously, this research has surveyed mainly top rated stars in the hospitality sector. The hospitality sector is not only composed of hotels but also of other stakeholders such as travel agencies, restauration, car rentals, tour operators and airlines. A more holistic survey can be done considering the various stakeholders of the sector to assess if training and development happens across the various players within the industry.

One salient point that has been observed throughout the interviews carried out with the respondents is that none of them mentioned about measuring the return on investment on the training and development programmes. Indeed, they did have an evaluation part of the training programmes that was to assess the relevance of the training subject and the trainers potential, but none of the respondents mentioned about having a longitudinal assessment of measuring the return on investment after training of each employee. It has been assumed that after training and development programmes trainees behaviours are expected to change, a change that increases performance of the individual that holistically adds to higher profitability of the organisation as a whole and also helps in benchmarking and competitive edge. All respondents seems to be very much aware that investing in human capital brings competitive edge, but none of them have so far mentioned as to how they measure if there is really an increase in productivity. So the major question remains; in-spite of investing massively in training and development programmes are organisations able to measure the likely contribution that each employee is making to the profitability of organisations. With this major gap, we identity the last focus for further research for both academics and practitioners; to identity how return on investment can be measured.

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The Legal Implications for Mauritius to Develop the Medical Tourism Sector.

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ABSTRACT

Medical tourism is an activity which is gaining much popularity throughout the world. It involves people leaving their home countries and going to other countries in order to receive medical treatment. The Mauritian medical sector is a very attractive sector whereby public health services are free of charge and much effort is being placed to provide high quality services to patients. These benefits of the Mauritian health sector have gained a regional and even international recognition, whereby people from different countries are coming to Mauritius to receive medical treatment in relation to cardio-vascular diseases or diabetes. However, what is unclear in Mauritius is the legal framework that addresses the issue of medical tourism in the country. Therefore, the aim of this paper will be to provide for an analysis of the legal implications of enhancing medical tourism for Mauritius. The paper will focus on the law that shall be applicable to the medical contract. Who will be sued in case of medical negligence and what law will be applicable. Then attention will be placed on the enforcement of decision given by the court and the legal implications for a doctor to be revoked from his duties. Finally, the paper will analyse the extent to which a medical tourism act should be created to cater for the needs of medical tourists. The approach used to write the paper will be a 'black letter' approach whereby attention will be laid on the present laws which cater for medical treatments in Mauritius. Moreover, the same approach will be used in

recommending the creation of a medical tourism act which will help medical tourists as well as doctors to know their obligations and liabilities towards each other.

INTRODUCTION

Gone are the days during which people sought medical treatment within the boundaries of their home countries. Today, we are witnessing a massive movement of people from their country of origin to other countries in search of health care services. This movement of people seeking medical care abroad has been defined by the Medical Tourism Association as medical tourism whereby people move from their country of origin to other countries in order 'to receive medical, dental or surgery care' in the host country.³⁵

In 2006, J. Connell carried out a study to analyse the main region which was recognized as a key player for medical tourism and the outcome of his study described Asia as the key region for medical tourism.³⁶ Thailand, Malaysia, Singapore and even India are among the main destinations for medical tourists. The reason to this can be linked to the fact that these countries were able to enhance their comparative advantages. For instance, the price in the medical services offered there is relatively low compared to the medical services offered in many western countries. For example, in India the price of an open surgery varies between \$3000 to \$10,000 whereas in the United States, the price of the same surgery can reach the sum of \$ 150,000 and in the United Kingdom it can cost \$ 70,000.³⁷

In addition to this, in order to be ranked among the most chosen destinations, these countries were able to upgrade their technology in terms of the health services offered, employ qualified doctors, regardless of whether they are local citizens or foreigners, attract foreign

³⁵ Medical Tourism Association < <http://www.medicaltourismassociation.com/en/medical-tourism-faq-s.html> > [Accessed 22 March 2014]

³⁶ John Connell (2006) 'Medical Tourism Sea, sun, sand... and surgery' *Tourism Management* 27, 1093-1100.

³⁷ *ibid*

investors and finally adhere to international conventions related to health services.³⁸

Furthermore, statistics are showing that more and more people are willing to move abroad in order to receive these health care services. For instance, in 2007, a study carried out by Deloitte Consulting Company estimated that '750 000 Americans travelled abroad for health services and they forecasted that this number would increase to 1.6 million by 2012.'³⁹

With an increase in the number of people going to foreign countries to receive health care services, a new niche has been created in the international trade arena. With the movement of people from their country of origin to other countries in search of health services, there is also the movement of health service providers who seek for new business opportunities. For example, along with the movement of patients, there is also the movement of service providers such as doctors or specialized institutions which are being implemented in different countries in order to cater for the needs of those health tourists. Thus, actors from the trading sphere and those from the medical area should find a level playing field in order to cater for their mutual interests.

Hence, the aim of this paper will be to analyse the international regulation which caters for the protection of the interests of both service providers and service receivers in the context of medical tourism. The first part of this paper will provide for an analysis of the General Agreements on Trade in Services (GATS) which is an international agreement that regulates the trade in services worldwide. The analysis will be based on the extent to which the GATS is able to satisfy the interests of both service providers and health tourists. Moreover, there will be an analysis of the extent to which Mauritius can use its membership of the GATS to improve the tourism medical sector in the country. The second part of the paper will focus on the legal implications for Mauritius to enhance medical tourism. An analysis will be carried

³⁸ List of countries forming part of the World Health Organisation < <http://www.who.int/countries/en/>> [Last accessed 22 March 2014]

³⁹ *Consumers in search of value*. Washington: Deloitte; 2008.

out with regards to the degree to which the Mauritian legal framework caters for the rights and obligations of medical tourists.

THE GENERAL AGREEMENT ON TRADE IN SERVICES (GATS)

In 1995, the World Trade Organisation (WTO) was created with the aim to regulate not only trade in goods but also trade in services and trade related aspects of intellectual property rights. The agreement designed to regulate trade in services is known as the General Agreement on Trade in Services, or simply put, the GATS. The aim behind the creation of the GATS was to put on the same level all WTO members' regulations in relation to the trade in services.⁴⁰ The main purposes for the creation of the GATS were to:

- '(a) ensure increased transparency and predictability of relevant rules and regulations,
 - (b) provide a common framework of disciplines governing international transactions, and
 - (c) promote progressive liberalization through successive rounds of negotiations.'
- ⁴¹

The structure of the GATS is divided into three main pillars. Firstly, the GATS sets out the general obligations and disciplines that each member of the WTO should follow in relation to trade in services. Secondly, there is a list of schedules of commitments that members have to abide to and which is subject of progressive liberalization. Finally, there are eight annexes which set out specific provisions for different services sectors.⁴² For example, there are annexes related to financial services, telecommunications, negotiations on maritime transports and so forth.⁴³

While analyzing the General Agreement on Trade in Services, it is surprising to note that the Agreement does not provide any definition for the word 'services'. Instead, services are being described in relation to the way that they are being supplied. The GATS provides for four

⁴⁰ Pr Surya P. Subedi (2012) Textbook International Trade and business law, *People's Public Publishing House*.

⁴¹ < http://www.wto.org/english/tratop_e/serv_e/gsintr_e.pdf > [Accessed 22 March 2014]

⁴² <http://www.wto.org/english/docs_e/legal_e/ursum_e.htm#Agreement > [Accessed 28/04/2014]

⁴³ < http://www.wto.org/english/docs_e/legal_e/26-gats.pdf > [Accessed 28/04/2014]

modes of supply which are: Cross-Border Supply, Consumption Abroad, Commercial Presence and Temporary Movement of Natural Persons.

Cross-Border Supply

According to Article I (2) (a) of the GATS, Cross-Border supply refers to the *'supply of a service: (a) from the territory of one Member into the territory of any other Member;'* Simply put, Cross-Border supply refers to the supply of a particular service, from one country to another, without the physical movement of either the service provider or the service receiver. One example to illustrate this type of service is telemarketing. In this particular case, the service provider is located in a particular country, for instance country A, and offer services and products to a consumer in country B while neither the service provider nor the service consumer has to leave their respective countries.

Consumption Abroad

As per Article I (2) (b) of the GATS Consumption Abroad refers to the *'supply of a service: (b) in the territory of one Member to the service consumer of any other Member;'*. In this particular type of service, the service provider stays in the country where it is located and it is the service consumer who has to move in order to benefit from the services offered. Tourism illustrates consumption abroad as people move from their country of origin in order to benefit from the services offered in other countries.

Commercial Presence

It is the mode of supply whereby the service provider moves and implements itself in the territory of the service consumer. Examples of commercial presence involve the process whereby a company implements itself in a particular country in order to offer its services to

the citizens of that country. Examples involve banks, hotels or health institutions that implement themselves in various countries in order to allow local residents to benefit from their services.

Temporary Movement of Natural Persons.

Article I (2) (d) describes the temporary movement of natural persons as ' *the supply of a service: (d) by a service supplier of one Member, through presence of natural persons of a Member in the territory of any other Member.* ' Here, the service provider, who is a natural person, moves from his or her country of origin in order to provide for a service to consumers in a particular country. Examples of temporary movement of natural persons involve the movement of professionals for examples doctors, lawyers or academics from their country of origin in order to supply for a service in another country.

THE GENERAL AGREEMENT ON TRADE IN SERVICES AND MEDICAL TOURISM

Throughout the world, many countries are competing against each other in order to become the number one service provider in terms of medical tourism. The four modes of services supply provided by the GATS is a good catalyst in helping countries to develop or enhance their medical tourism sector. With the application of the GATS, trade in the medical tourism sector is no more restricted to the movement of patients from one country to another but allows the service provider to stay in his country while his service is being supplied worldwide.

Olivier Cattaneo in his policy research working paper, has depicted how the four modes of services supply given by the GATS embody trade in the health sector.⁴⁴ Table 1 illustrates this.

Table 1. What do we mean when we talk about trade in the health sector?’⁴⁵

Applying the four modes of services supply of the GATS to enhance trade in the medical tourism sector can bring many advantages for a country. With services provided through cross-border supply, commercial presence, consumption abroad and temporary movement of natural persons, studies have shown that there is an increase in the economic development of

	Trade in health services	Trade in ancillary services	Trade in goods associated with
Mode 1 Cross-border Supply	- Tele-medicine, including diagnostics, radiology	- Distance medical education and training - Medical transcription, back office - Medical research tools and databases - Medical insurance	- Health care equipment - Drugs - Medical waste - Prosthesis
Mode 2 Consumption Abroad	- “Medical tourism”, i.e. voluntary trip to receive medical treatment abroad - Medically-assisted residence for retirees - Expatriates seeking care in country of residence - Emergency cases	- All activities associated with health tourism (e.g. transport, hotel, restaurant, paramedical, local purchases, etc.) - Local medical education and training of foreign nationals	
Mode 3 Commercial Presence	- Foreign participation or ownership of hospital/clinic or medical facilities (e.g. capital investments, technology tie-ups, collaborative ventures)	- Foreign-sponsored education or training centers - Foreign-sponsored medical research facilities	
Mode 4 Presence of natural persons	- Movement of doctors and health personnel for the purpose of commercial medical practice	- Movement of doctors and health personnel for other purposes (e.g. education or training)	

many countries. In a study carried out by Ronald Labonte *et al* in 2010, they have noticed that the developments made in the medical tourism sector in various countries such as

⁴⁴ Olivier Cattaneo (2009) ‘Trade in Health Services: *What’s in it for developing countries?*’ Policy Research Working Paper, 5115, p3..

⁴⁵ *ibid.*

Thailand, Indonesia and India, brought along an increase in foreign direct investments in those countries.⁴⁶ With the setting up of proper medical infrastructures and a reduction in the prices of the medical services offered, many health patients are willing to travel to these countries in order to benefit from the medical services offered there. In addition to this, service providers such as private clinics or other health institutions which implement themselves in those countries are being given facilities such as land, transport and labour which enable them to develop that sector in the country. With this inflow of patients as well as health service providers, there is an increase in the rate of foreign direct investment in these countries.⁴⁷

Moreover, along with the increase in foreign direct investment, economic development is also being boosted through the creation of jobs for local citizens and an increase in the inflow of medical tourists in the country. By allowing medical institutions to implement themselves in a particular country, this will allow for the creation of jobs for many local citizens. Moreover, instead of having an outflow of local patients going abroad for medical purposes, the advantages of commercial presence and temporary movement of natural persons in relation to medical tourism allow for local patients to stay in their country and benefit from medical services provided locally. Furthermore, while having internationally recognized medical institutions being implemented in a particular country, this will allow patients from the surrounding countries to come and benefit from the medical services being offered by this institution. For example, according to Lautier many medical tourists going to Tunisia come from neighbouring countries such as Lybia, Algeria, some African Francophone countries and Europe.⁴⁸ Therefore, with the development made in the medical tourism sector, there will

⁴⁶ Ronald Labonte et al (2010) Medical Tourism Today: What is the state of existing knowledge?. *Journal of Public Health Policy* 31 (2), 185-198.

⁴⁷ Ibid.

⁴⁸ Marc Lautier (2008) Export of health services from developing countries: The case of Tunisia. *Social Science & Medicine*, 67 (1), 101-110.

be an increase in the inflow of medical tourists within a particular country and a decrease in the outflow of local citizens to other countries for medical purposes.

The development made in the medical tourism sector has not always attracted positive comments. On the other side of the coin, various commentators have criticized the disparities created by the development made in that sector. With the commercial presence of various internationally recognized private medical institutions, the fees that these institutions tend to charge to their patients are quite expensive. Foreign patients are better able to pay and profit from services offered by those private institutions compared to local citizens who find it difficult to afford the same service.⁴⁹ Thus, there is a disparity in the access of the services offered by these institutions.

With the GATS providing for the temporary movement of natural persons, there has been the development of the phenomenon known as ‘brain drain’ which offered in many developing countries. On an international level, many medical practitioners from developed countries are moving to countries such as Thailand, Malaysia or Indonesia and work for private medical institutions there as the salary and clientele are more attractive in these countries rather than in their local countries. On a national level, local medical practitioners choose to work for private medical institutions rather than servicing in the public sector.⁵⁰ As a consequence of this migration from public to private medical sector, there has been a shortage in the number of medical practitioners in the public sector. For instance in Thailand there has been political discussions in relation to this shortage of medical practitioners in Bangkok who prefer working in private medical institutions due to better wages.⁵¹

⁴⁹ Nicola S Pocock and Kai Hong Phua, (2011) Medical Tourism and Policy Implications for health systems: a conceptual framework from a comparative study of Thailand, Singapore and Malaysia. *Globalisation and Health*.

7 (12).

⁵⁰ Lamk Al-Lamki, (2011) Medical Tourism Benefice or Malfaisance?. *Sultan Quaboos University Medical Journal* 11(4), 444-447.

⁵¹ *ibid.*

The GATS provides for the necessary tools for the expansion or development of the medical tourism sector for member states of the World Trade Organisation. The four modes of services supply elaborated by the GATS can act as a guide for many countries in order to develop a new pillar of their economy.

APPLICATION OF THE GATS IN THE MEDICAL TOURISM SECTOR OF MAURITIUS

Mauritius has been a signatory of the GATS since its creation in 1995. In order to be as competitive as Thailand, Malaysia, India or even Singapore, Mauritius has been able to implement the four modes of supply provided by the GATS in order to attract investors. This implementation has given and will continue to give rise to much business opportunities for medical tourism in Mauritius.

This part of the paper provide for an analysis of how Mauritius can improve its comparative advantages in relation to the modes of supply of the GATS in order to enhance business opportunities in Mauritius for medical tourism.

Mode 1: Cross-Border Supply.

Cross-border supply refers to services that are traded across borders without the physical movement of either the service provider or the service receiver.⁵² An example of cross-border supply in relation to medical tourism is telemedicine.

Telemedicine refers to the use of telecommunication in order to provide clinical health care, in terms of advice and counseling, at a distance.⁵³ Telemedicine is an underdeveloped sector in Mauritius. However, if this sector is developed in the country, it will be an advantage for many medical investors. Compared to other countries in the region, Mauritius has the

⁵² Article I (2) (a) of the GATS: 'from the territory of one Member into the territory of any other Member (Mode 1 - Cross-border trade)'

⁵³ See Table1.

advantage of providing for cheap and skilled labour. The comparative advantage that the Mauritian labour has over the one of neighbouring countries is that the people here are fluent in different languages and some do already have some knowledge of the medical field.

Therefore, with the proper training, people working in telemedicine would be able to attract foreign clients and also expand the scope of the service provider's market.

Mode 2: Consumption Abroad.

Mauritius has all the necessary assets to attract tourists. Concerning health tourists, investors in Mauritius should be able to use the landscape of the country as well as its socio-economic stability to encourage foreigners to come and benefit from the health services offered in the country.

For instance, along with the main services offered, for example after a surgery, the health tourist could be offered packages such as 'recuperation and rejuvenating packages' which will cater for his or her post-operative experiences.⁵⁴

In order to enhance consumption abroad, ie, inviting foreigners to come to Mauritius for health purposes, service providers should be able to exploit the resources of the country in a sustainable way so that the service providers, as well as the country, are being able to benefit from the consumption of the medical tourists.

Mode 3: Commercial Presence.

Commercial presence is beneficial to the local economy. For instance, foreign investment in the country through the implementation of clinics and other health care providers will foster competition among service providers. This will have as end result the rise in standard and

⁵⁴ See (n10)

quality of service offered and even lower prices which will benefit the local as well as foreign service consumers.

With the commercial presence of these institutions, there will be: the creation of jobs for local citizens, sharing of knowledge and transfer of technology and local patients won't need to travel abroad to receive medical treatment.

Mode 4: Temporary movement of natural persons

This aspect of the GATS allows for expertise to travel and be shared with the local community. If the health care service provider, who is implemented in Mauritius, frequently invites renown medical practitioners to come to the country to practice their art, this will attract patients from abroad to come to the country for medical purposes.

The GATS, which is an international agreement, can be described as the backbone for the development of the medical tourism sector. Through the GATS, Mauritius is being able to develop this sector and derive benefits from it. As it has been analysed, since Mauritius is following the conditions set out in this international agreement, the country is being able to explore and expand on the medical tourism sector. Investors should be assured that since Mauritius is following international standards and conditions in developing the medical tourism sector, a degree of predictability and transparency is being achieved.⁵⁵

MEDICAL TOURISM: LIABILITY AND JURISDICTION

Another important aspect of medical tourism can be linked to the issue of liability in cases of medical malpractice and what will be the appropriate law applicable in such a situation. For instance, an Indian service provider has set up a medical institution in Mauritius. A patient

⁵⁵ Article III of the GATS: Each Member is required to publish promptly 'all relevant measures of general application' that affect operation of the Agreement.

from Australia comes for medical treatment in that institution. The doctor who is taking care of the patient is German. There is a medical malpractice and now the patient wants to sue. The question that arises is which law should apply. Since the patient is from Australia, he can request the Australian law to apply. The doctor can ask for the application of German law to govern the case. Or the Indian service provider can request Indian law to apply. This type of situation often arises in cases of medical tourism and proper legislative structures need to be implemented in order to sort out the issues of jurisdiction in such situations.

Two theories can be applied in such a situation. First, there can be the application of the 'Jurisdiction over foreign physicians based on their transacting business within the forum state' theory and secondly there can be the application of the continuing tort theory.⁵⁶

The first theory lays emphasis on the fact that the medical tourist, who has been a victim of a medical malpractice, can bring a legal action against the service provider in the country where the latter is carrying out its business activity. In our above illustration, the Australian patient can bring an action against the Indian service provider by the use of Mauritian law. The legal remedies available in cases of medical malpractice for a medical tourist in Mauritius, can be found in the Mauritian Civil Code. If the patient has signed a contract with a doctor or medical institution and if there is a medical malpractice, the patient can bring an action for breach of contract and seek for damages against the institution or doctor.⁵⁷ If there are no contract between the patient and the service provider, the former can bring an action in tort against the latter. Article 1382 of the Mauritian Civil Code provides that: "*Tout fait quelconque de l'homme, qui cause à autrui un dommage, oblige celui par la faute duquel il est arrivé, à le réparer.*" Hence, the remedy available in tort states that if there is any medical

⁵⁶ Philip Mirrer-Singer(2007) 'Medical malpractice overseas: The legal uncertainty surrounding medical tourism. *Law and Contemporary problems*, 70, 211.

⁵⁷ Article 1147 of the Mauritian Civil Code: 'Le débiteur est condamné s'il y a lieu, au paiement de dommages et intérêts, soit à raison de l'inexécution de l'obligation, soit à raison du retard dans l'exécution, toutes les fois qu'il ne justifie pas que l'inexécution provient d'une cause étrangère qui ne peut lui être imputée, encore qu'il n'y ait aucune mauvaise foi de sa part.'

malpractice on behalf of the service provider, he or she has the obligation to remedy for any prejudice caused to the patient.

The second theory, which is the application of the continuing tort theory, suggests that a medical tourist who has been victim of a malpractice by a service provider in a foreign state, can bring an action against the service provider in his own state. As Philip Mirrer-Singer underlines it in his article, ‘Under this theory, a plaintiff’s home state court can exercise jurisdiction over a nonresident physician whenever the effects of the physician’s tortious act continues to be felt by the plaintiff upon returning to her home state.’⁵⁸ This means that the victim of the malpractice can bring an action against his foreign service provider in his home state. The advantage of this theory for the patient is that he or she does not have to stay or travel to the foreign state while the case is being tried. In his home state, the patient will not only have the emotional and psychological support from friends and relatives during the trial of the case but he will also be able to have a better knowledge of the local laws related to the case.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In order to enhance the competitiveness of Mauritius worldwide as a medical tourism hub, some recommendations are being proposed in order to strengthen the medical tourism sector locally.

First, there is a need to improve domestic legislations concerning medical tourism. In all cases of medical tourism, most of the stakeholders are from different jurisdictions and hence, there should be some legal provisions which should be implemented in order to cater for the needs of all the stake holders. Therefore, one recommendation would be that Mauritius

⁵⁸ See (n 22) p 214.

should implement laws which state that if any medical malpractice happens in Mauritius, it is the law of the country where the incident happened that should be applied, ie, the Mauritian law. This will clarify the issue of jurisdiction in cases of medical malpractice related to medical tourism.

The second recommendation would be that instead of having recourse to courts, which can be very time consuming and expensive, there should be the setting up of mediation and arbitration facilities to help resolve the dispute in a quick and inexpensive way.

In addition to these, international patients should be made aware of their rights and obligations prior to their medical treatment here in Mauritius. First of all, persons coming to the country to receive medical treatment should be designed as medical tourists on their arrival and should be made aware of their rights and obligations through informative booklets.

Finally, in order to be the most competitive country in the region, Mauritius should specialize itself in a particular field. For example, Malta has specialised itself in catering for health services, like hip or knee replacement, where there are long waiting lists for these kind of intervention in other European countries. Thanks to this specialization, Malta has been able to enhance its comparative advantage in this field and thus attract more patients from Europe. Mauritius should follow the example of Malta, where it specializes in a particular field and hence benefit from this.⁵⁹

CONCLUSION

Medical tourism is an emerging sector that has to be handled with care. At the heart of any agreement regarding trade in this sector, should be placed the well-being of the patients. All the development made in this sector should be done in line with the international conventions

⁵⁹ See (n10)

regarding health and trade. The General Agreement on Trade in Services, through its four modes of supply, provides every country with the opportunity to implement the medical tourism sector in their trading activities. Being a signatory of the GATS, Mauritius is being able to develop this sector. However, on a national level, amendments in our regulations need to be carried out in order to enable Mauritius to become one of the main destinations for medical tourism in the years to come.

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