

## **PART VI**

# **ALTERNATIVE TOURISM**



## RURAL TOURISM IN SPAIN, FROM FORDISM TO POST-FORDISM

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### ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is twofold: from an empirical perspective, to demonstrate the qualitative importance of rural tourism in the recent development of Spanish tourism and its quantitative importance for other sectors such as agriculture; and from a conceptual perspective, to demonstrate the validity of the combination of two theoretical approaches. On the one hand, the Tourism Area Life Cycle, the most commonly used for this purpose since its publication thirty years ago and, on the other hand, the Regulation Theory, aimed at explaining the restructuring processes between different stages in specific sectors or in the whole economy.

**Key Words:** Rural Tourism, Life Cycle, Regulation Theory, Restructuring, Fordism, Post-fordism.

### INTRODUCTION

The tourism sector is undoubtedly one of the main sources of income of the Spanish economy. The country is currently the second favourite international destination in the world and the sector generates about 12% of the country's total income and jobs (INE, 2010). Historically, the sector was one of the main engines that brought about the recovery of the Spanish economy in the last fifty years and has been frequently identified with the *mass* model of *sun and sea* tourism, but the country has a vast potential to offer in other typologies, as proved in recent years with the explosive growth of urban tourism. However, among these typologies, rural tourism is perhaps one of the most unknown internationally and there is a lot to offer, especially in a country with a magnificent natural and cultural heritage associated with rural identity. Our objective is to examine how Spanish rural tourism has undergone a significant evolution from a marginal position in the *mass tourism* stage to its impressive growth in recent decades, its main impacts, and how it can meet the challenges of the new *post-fordist* paradigm. We will do all of this using the perspectives of two different theories of development: Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) and Regulation Theory.

#### *Literature review*

Literature on rural tourism in Spain is relatively recent. Although infrequent, the first publications appeared just at the moment in which rural tourism began its main period of growth in the late eighties. Their goal was initially instrumental: to understand how tourism could be a good tool for rural development (Candela, 1992; Fernández, 1990; Gómez, 1988) and, related with this, what was the behaviour of demand (Bote, 1987; García, 1995). In the following years, and in parallel with the development of the typology, new subjects received the attention of scholars, such as economic impact (Cuesta & Luis, 1996), 1996 quality of service (Hernández, Muñoz, & Santos, 2007; Martín & Vazquez Casielles, 1998), new demand analyses (Fuentes García, 1996), new political implications (Cánoves, Villarino, & Herrera, 2006) and gender issues (García-Ramón, Cánoves, & Valdovinos, 1995; Sparrer, 2008). In any case, to date, few studies (Cánoves, Villarino, Priestley, & Blanco, 2004; Gascón, 1993) have devoted attention to the study of Spanish rural tourism development in the long and medium term, and less have focused on the role of this typology in the restructuring processes of tourism and other sectors in the last years.

In this regard, and considering that obviously there have been newer interpretations about tourism development, Richard Butler's (1980) TALC has been studying these elements for years, specifically to explain the evolution in a *fordist* context. Thus, the model analyses the evolutionary phases of tourist development from the changes in the growing number of tourists visiting an area (demand) and the consequent infrastructure expansion, basically those of accommodation (supply). Special attention is given to public intervention as well as the characterisation of tourists, local stakeholders and their relationships. Since the article's publication frequent references have been made to the model, opening up new topics for discussion. Among these are those which

have debated its theoretical foundations and its operability and also the transition between *fordist* and *post-fordist* stages or paradigms (for a good summary see Lagiewski's survey (2005)). And this is precisely the point that most concerns us, as we consider rural tourism to be precisely one of the protagonists of the current sector's transformation to *post-fordism*.

TALC is still a good model to explain the evolution in a single stage or paradigm but it is sometimes restrictive (Agarwal, 2002) in its explanation of restructuring processes. And it is in the literature that addresses the processes of capitalist restructuring that we found a good explanation, so this is precisely the main issue highlighted by what is known as the Regulation Theory. This was formulated by The Regulation School, which was specially developed in France by eminent authors such as Aglietta, Boyer, and Lipietz (Boyer, 1990) and has been discussed and reviewed in recent decades (Balleisen, Moss, & Corporation, 2009; Jessop, 2001). According to Regulation theory, any accumulation regime (related to production and consumption systems) reaches a crisis point in which its former mode of regulation cannot be sustained, and society is forced to find new rules and regulations, forming a new model of regulation (new legal, political and institutional systems and new forms of competence) and allowing further development of production and consumption systems. This makes a new stage possible (and viable), which in the future eventually develops into a crisis, and so on. In short, we think that as occurs in the overall economy, in the tourist industry (and its typologies), as part of the production and consumption system, these structural crisis periods involving a decisive transformation of legal, political and institutional systems also occur.

#### *Hypotheses and Study Methods*

In relation to these suggestions, the principal hypothesis of our work is that rural tourism in Spain has experienced a great transformation in recent decades, from a marginal position in the context of *mass* tourism to a growing and influencing development in the new premises of *post-fordism*. The European agriculture crisis and also changes in the tourism demand were responded to in the nineties by public institutions through a series of legal and institutional changes that favoured this development. Rural tourism could then carry out its own restructuring process, going beyond its marginal position in the *fordist* stage, evolving in a new *post-fordist* stage with the involvement of local stakeholders, and arriving at the present stage with an impressive development. With its recent growth, and as was the intention of public managers, the activity is acting as a safety net for agriculture but, especially due to private initiative, it is also becoming a leader in innovative changes in the tourism sector. From these premises, we have used a methodology focused on detecting the principal elements that guide the dynamics of tourism; as well as others such as the dialectics between tourism, society and environment. In this regard, we have used different bibliographical and statistical sources. Obviously for the early stages of development the information comes mainly from bibliographic sources. In fact, statistical sources in rural tourism (INE, 2000-2011) are relatively recent.

### **THE ERA OF MAJOR CHANGES**

In the sixties, after decades of isolation, the Spanish economy began a period of spectacular economic growth based largely on the development of new sectors. Among those tourism was most notable. The country exploited a range of resources and capabilities that would make it one of the main international tourist destinations. Among these were its proximity to key European source markets, its low prices, and clearly its natural, cultural and climatic resources: beaches, good food and plenty of sunshine. *Sun and beach* tourism was evidently located along the coast and in the meantime, the interior rural areas remained isolated from the mainstream tourism. In any case, rural areas were the destination of much of the urban working population who returned to their places of origin during holidays (to visit their families), but it is difficult to label this group as tourist movement. Virtually no one in those days had the spectacular natural and cultural attractions of those rural areas in mind. There was just a small group of marginal and exclusive tourists who stayed at the *Casas de Labranza*, refurbished cottages to accommodate wealthy costumers. This initiative was created in 1967 by the Franco regime and responded well to its ideal tourists: bourgeois, educated and attracted by the rural from a conservative and nationalist perspective. Thus was born the rural tourism in the context of *Fordist* tourism, and it remained in a state of marginality for several years, but it was to undergo swift change in the eighties, parallel to the great social and economic transformation of the whole country's society.

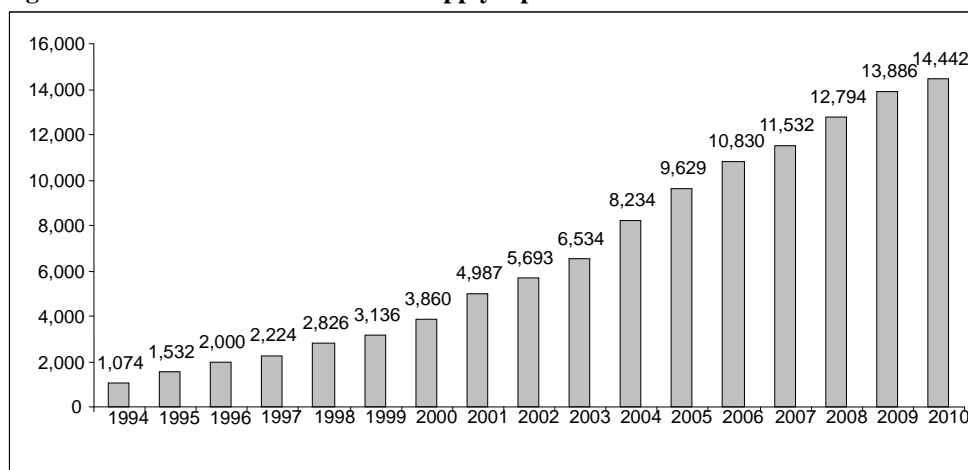
In Spain during the eighties migration from rural to urban areas was still taking place, so much later than in other developed countries in Europe. The countryside was experiencing a crisis and solutions were necessary. Moreover, in this context, Spain completed its process of democratic transition with the recovery of regional governments in the early eighties, and in 1986 it finally joined the European Economic Community. Rural tourism was seen by these institutions as a perfect instrument to sustain rural population levels and diversification in rural economies and this was to have a significant effect in the next decade. In parallel, a new kind of local tourist (an explorer in TALC terms) appeared, belonging to a generation that had not lived in the countryside and that was not sensitive towards ecology. These people had not preserved their grandparents' houses and had lost their rural roots; they wanted to experience rural life, and a set of values and experiences

that were affected by an idyllic vision of it. From the business perspective, it could therefore be said that this early phase, based almost exclusively on accommodation growth, evolved in relation to the survival strategy of small family farms. In this context, rural tourism was an entirely complementary activity that provided new income to a sector in crisis. And it is important to add that at this stage it was the female members of the family who were particularly in charge (Garcia-Ramon, et al., 1995).

During this exploration phase, throughout the decade of the eighties, rural tourism growth was slow but steady. The turning point came when the initial involvement of the private sector was finally followed by the public sector, especially by the European Union initiative. In fact, the beginning of a new stage in Spanish rural tourism coincided with the reformulation of agricultural policies at the European level. In Europe, rural development was being reinterpreted from three key premises: to match the living standards of urban and rural areas, to encourage the establishment of diversified productive activities and to slow down the depopulation of rural areas. In short, one of the biggest challenges facing public managers in those years was transforming the countryside from its original agricultural function into a multifunctional space, in which the location of infrastructures and second homes was taking on an increasing importance. It was with these premises that the European Union launched different funds (*FEDER*, *FEOGA* and *Cohesion Funds*) through various action programmes. Among these we must highlight the *Leader* programmes, for the impact they have had on the development of rural tourism.

A new concept of rural development as territorial, integrated and participatory came with the implementation of the *Leader I* (1991-1994). Among the highlights of this initiative it should be noted that it was understood that each territory had its own unique factors, which strengthened development and brought value to indigenous resources. This was a need for local actors. Fulfilling one of the objectives of the *Leader*, *Local Action Groups* (*GAL* in Spanish) were formed and were responsible for managing land development and distributing funds that were mostly aimed at the poorest areas. Due to the success of the first programme, the *Leader II* (1995-2001) continued to focus on the same strategy, although stressing aspects such as the innovative nature of the projects, the creation of networks that facilitate the exchange of experiences, the growing concern for sustainable activities and the environmental value of any initiative or project. In the same context of public intervention, a substantial specific legislation was developed by Spanish regional governments (Pérez Fernández, 2008), mainly regulating accommodations, establishing their definition, types, regulating their infrastructure and services as well as performance requirements and the complementary activities that could be offered. Its results were also positive in the promotion of rural tourism, but regional disparity in the legal treatment of both activities and accommodation types, caused problems of homogenisation and identification of the product.

**Figure 1. Evolution of rural tourism supply. Spain. 1994-2010. Number of Rural Houses.**



Source: Own creation from *Guía de Alojamientos en Casas Rurales* (1994-2000) and (INE, 2001-2010).

Following TALC and Regulation Theory ideas, transformations in the regulatory system through new programmes, institutions and legislation represented a new impulse to private involvement and provided the context for the development of rural tourism supply and demand. The arrival of European programmes really boosted rural tourism in Spain, especially through the increased supply of accommodation (Cànoves, et al., 2006). After the initial growth of the typology in the eighties (exploration), the impetus received from the private sector and public institutions (involvement) would give way in the nineties to an even more pronounced growth in the rural tourism supply, as seen in Figure 1. Pioneering entrepreneurs adapted and improved their supply, but the increase was particularly quantitative and sometimes unsustainable (Perales & María, 2002). In parallel, demand was also increasing, guided by the fact that environmental awareness was also taking on an increasingly prominent role in the motivations and preferences of the Spanish tourism consumer. Finally, in the

last years of the nineties rural tourism in Spain was going beyond the involvement phase and entering a new phase of genuine development. Growth figures (in relative terms) were not unlike those experienced in *sun and sea* tourism in the sixties. In short, the production crisis experienced in the agricultural sector and the changes in tourism demand were largely answered by changes in the regulatory system, using rural tourism as a new development tool for rural areas, and also helping it to restructure into a new stage, the *post-fordist* one. In the following paragraphs we will see how indeed this typology is currently developing and how it is finally facing new opportunities and challenges.

## TOWARDS A NEW TOURISM

In the last decade (2000-2010) rural tourism in Spain has experienced an authentic development phase, undergoing an impressive evolution but also (and once again in TALC terms) moving to a new consolidation phase related with diversification and specialisation. From a quantitative perspective, in the last decade, Spanish rural tourism has experienced spectacular growth, both as regards the supply, the size of which has increased several times (see Figure 1), and the demand captured by the activity, which have also undergone a notable development in recent years (see Table 1). In this context, while rural tourism demand in the period 2001-2009 grew at an annual rate exceeding 11 percent, the hotel tourism demand did not exceed 5 percent in the best case (INE, 2010). Furthermore, some correlations allow us to make some hypotheses about this growth. For example, in Table 2 the growth of regional demand for rural tourism in Spain has been correlated with regional economic variables. Therefore, we can observe that growth in the rural tourism demand is positive when correlated with the weight of the agricultural sector; reinforcing the complementary nature of agricultural development and rural tourism. Furthermore, we can see that the growth in demand is correlated with the decrease of agriculture. This may be more related to the fact that demand has grown in agricultural-specialised regions, which have experienced a process of decline in this sector. This finding strengthens the hypothesis that rural tourism has been acting as a regulator for regional agricultural decline. In fact, the development of rural tourism acts as a positive force in a process of convergence for Spanish regions with low incomes, because the growth of this sector is negatively related to average regional GDP per capita.

**Table 1. Evolution of rural tourism demand. 2001-2009. Tourists and Overnight Stays.**

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Tourists	1,210,89	1,370,36	1,467,53	1,754,36	1,982,90	2,425,42	2,645,23	2,626,82	2,708,58
	0	9	7	0	2	8	7	1	3
Ov.	3,660,81	4,104,68	4,476,14	5,492,51	6,306,32	7,438,38	7,938,62	7,846,07	7,901,74
Stays	6	0	0	6	9	3	3	8	5

Source: Own creation from (INE, 2001-2010)

**Table 2. Rural tourism activity indicators versus quantitative indicators. Spanish Regions. 2001-2008.**

	Growth in tourists	Growth in Overnight Stays
Average agriculture weight	+0.34	+0.41*
Average agricultural production growth	-0.40*	-0.50**
Average GDP per capita	-0.53**	-0.60**

Note: in the table, partial correlation coefficients are calculated. (\*) Indicates coefficient significant at 10% and (\*\*) at 5%. Source: Compiled using data from (INE, 2010).

Besides the differential dynamics of rural tourism demand, in the period 2001-2008, the latest contextual results would support the hypothesis that rural tourism in Spain is acting as an economic safety net, or an income reserve against the recession. In fact, if we calculate the annual growth rates by quarters since 2007 and compare them to those displayed by the traditional hotel tourism in Spain during the same period, we can observe highly positive differential behaviour. In particular, throughout the year 2009, and while the hotel tourism demand recorded significant negative growth, the rural tourism demand showed positive increases in all quarters, in the case of holidaymakers and overnight stays (INE, 2010). The demand for rural tourism, therefore, not only has a high degree of growth, but may also show a remarkable counter-cyclical character. To a large extent it appears that the regulatory effort of the nineties has been successful and the quantitative growth of Spanish rural tourism has taken its toll.

In any case, after decades of growth, the sector is currently facing a new set of challenges. On the one hand, Spanish rural tourism remains predominantly domestic, with only 10% of international demand. On the other hand, recent studies (Cánoves, et al., 2004) indicate that rural tourism remains immature, with little diversification and scarce complementary activities. Supply and demand is also concentrated in regions surrounding large urban conurbations (INE, 2001-2010). Moreover, despite the European initiative continuing to contribute to its development in recent years (with new funds and programmes such as *Leader+*), the regional legislation lacks consistency and problems of homogenisation of the product remain, thus affecting the quality

of supply and its possible internationalisation. Perhaps until the present, the rural tourism demand did not need to be more demanding and has been content to have a growing supply of rural tourism. But, as in other cases, the changes are usually very fast and it is clear that new needs and interests are emerging. The new customer has a new environmental and social awareness, which does not only consist of visiting an area with significant natural and cultural resources but also requires their preservation, improvement and respect. This is also a consumer who does most of their shopping online, as well as the fact that rural tourism is largely untapped by traditional agencies. So, the keys to the new reformulation of the sector probably lie in Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Information and Communication Technologies (ICT).

In this regard, some aspects indicate that supply is definitely leaving the stage it shared with the public initiative to start a new one in which it will take the lead. In TALC terms it could be coming to the end of development to definitely begin a new consolidation phase. Following these hypotheses, in a recent study (Garay & Font, 2011) the total population of accommodation enterprises in Catalonia (one of the regions with the highest weight in Spanish rural tourism), was asked about the implementation of CSR, its motivations and impacts. Of the final sample of 394 enterprises (about 10% of the population), nearly 56%, were rural tourism houses, a figure that could reach 70% if we consider other establishments located in rural areas such as campsites and rural hostels. Thus, we have a first significant point of the intentions of the leading sector in terms of a transformation towards CSR and sustainability. Also, in general terms, this study highlighted the fact that although the main reason to introduce CSR into these companies was altruistic, the measures went beyond the traditional “eco-savings” stage to introduce new operational and organisational practices. And more importantly, this study also demonstrated the positive impact of these measures on financial performance, most likely from the development of new competitive advantages.

Focusing only on rural houses, of a sub-sample of nearly 220 establishments, different results show the gradual transformation of the sector, although one fact persists over time: the importance of women in the management of this sector. More than 60% of the business-owners of these establishments are women. In addition, most owners are young (More than 90% are under 60 years) and well-trained (nearly 90% have more than primary education). Around 95% are family businesses and 100% have less than 5 employees. Also, it is interesting that about 30% have some form of quality certification and more than 33% believe their customers choose them for the quality provided. In terms of ICT, 70% of their customers found out about them via Internet. As regards their customers, around 82% are from the same region, stay between two and three days and are also families. Finally, it is important to consider that only 9% report a negative financial situation. In short, everything indicates that the sector is really interested in evolving and in this regard both the pro-activity of the private sector and the reorientation of public policies will be crucial in the future. We have already seen in the past that these elements have been essential to transform the development of this typology. In the present and future they will continue to play a key role, since we are once again in a moment of crisis in which new answers are needed for the transformations that are taking place.

## CONCLUSIONS

In this paper we have seen, from a conceptual standpoint, the usefulness of working with two different development theories. On the one hand, TALC is still a good framework to understand the different phases of development of a product or destination. On the other hand, the Regulation Theory has helped us to better understand the restructuring processes taking place in different sectors and their related impacts. From an empirical standpoint we have seen the qualitative importance of rural activities in the recent development of Spanish tourism, but also its quantitative importance in relation to other sectors and specific territories, such as agriculture. During mass tourism (*fordist* stage), rural tourism remained in a constant marginal state but this situation changed in the eighties when different circumstances came together. On the one hand, the emergence of a new tourism demand concerned with rural issues, and on the other hand the interest of the public sector and local stakeholders in using tourism as a tool for rural development. The materialisation of these elements in the growth of supply and demand can be understood by the development of a new *post-fordist* stage marked initially by the exploration and involvement phases during the eighties and nineties. In general terms, the changes in the regulatory system related to the restructuring of agricultural production and tourism consumption systems facilitated the restructuring of Spanish rural tourism itself. And after years of public and private involvement, in the last decade the sector began a new development phase characterised by a real supply and demand boom, sometimes evolving in an unbalanced way and with different associated problems. In any case, recent data suggest that the sector is truly interested in going a step beyond development to become fully established, and that this change should be guided by two key elements: CSR and ICT. The private sector should be alert and start the path towards innovation, but also the traditional role played by the public sector should be redirected towards promoting these elements in order to help the sector to overcome challenges and exploit opportunities presented in the current context of continuous change.

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## PROGRESS IN RURAL TOURISM RESEARCH

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### ABSTRACT

Rural tourism plays an important social and developmental role through the provision of additional income, especially in mountainous and disadvantaged areas. It contributes to the development and revitalization of rural areas, while strengthening the protection of natural resources. Consequently, in the last decades there has been much research examining the phenomenon of rural tourism, the problems faced by rural tourism businesses, etc. Although, there have been too many studies on rural tourism, they have not examined the progress of rural tourism research. Very little analysis has been conducted on the content of articles that examine this important area. The purpose of this study is to determine the progress in rural tourism research up to date by using content analysis technique on published articles in the most significant academic journals, with the aim of identifying focus areas and providing future research directions.

**Key Words:** Rural Tourism, Content Analysis, Research methods and techniques.

### INTRODUCTION

Rural tourism is suggested as an “alternative” solution for peripheral development, because it contributes to the decrease of sub employment in the rural sector, the increase of the family income and consequently to the socio-economic support and reformation of the local rural communities (Laiou-Antoniou 1985, Apostolopoulos et al., 1998, Gidarakou et al., 2000, Koutsou, 2002).

Several researchers examined rural tourism demand incentives (Putzel, 1984; Nickerson et al. 2001; Ingram, 2002; Wilson et al., 2001) and others analyzed rural tourism supply incentives (Sidali, et al., 2007; Schulze, et al., 2006; McGehee/Kim, 2004). There are studies on women partnerships and their role in rural tourism development (Iakovidou and Turner, 1995; Karasavoglou and Florou, 2006; Anthopoulou, 2010), the role of local communities (Andriotis, 2005; Erotokritakis and Adriotis, 2006), small enterprises (Kornilaki, Thomas and Font, 2006) and local authorities (Adriotis, 2002). Although the research on rural tourism is developing at a very fast rate, there are few articles about the growth of this sector and the lack of studies. Sharpley and Roberts (2004) attempt to explain the concept and the evolution of rural tourism during the decade 1994-2004.

The aim of the present study is to evaluate the progress of rural tourism research so far, to define the trends of the research over the years and also define the trends of the future research directions. In order to be successful in our study we will use content analysis. Content analysis is a quantitative method for the study of texts. It analyses texts “regarding the presence and frequency of specific terms, narratives or concepts”. It may include the counting of the number of lines or the quantity of space various issues take. In the past it has been used in psychology and communicative research. But it is often used in text analysis by the media (newspaper and magazine articles, electronic media shows, as well as in visual content).

### METHODOLOGY

General publications, textbooks, conference proceedings, and academic journals have been increased in number, because of the economic significance and rapid growth of tourism development in the past decades. Academic

journals are featuring the direction of research in a field, since academic articles are based on theory, previous work and statistical analysis in order to extend the body of knowledge. At present there are more than 140 hospitality and tourism-related journals worldwide (EBSCO Publishing, 2008), but with different quality standards and editorial policies. Consequently, a review in research progress includes an analysis of all publications in a field. Guided by journal-ranking literature (e.g. ESSEC Research Centre, 2007; The Centre for Leisure Management Research, Deakin University, 2006), 12 academic journals in the field of tourism were selected for analysis in this study. In total, 215 journal articles that were published in these 12 tourism journals for the 20-year period from 1991 to 2010 were examined. Due to the great number of articles that appeared during the keyword search “rural tourism”, the authors decided to examine only those articles that the words “rural tourism” appeared either on the title of the article, either to the abstract of the article or on the list of the article’s keywords. Only full research articles were included in the analysis. Comments, research notes, book reviews, and conference proceedings issues were not included. The journals selected were: *Annals of Tourism Research (ATR)*, *Journal of Agrarian Change (JAC)*, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management (IJCHM)*, *International Journal of Tourism Research (IJTR)*, *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research (JHTR)*, *Journal of Leisure Research (JLR)*, *Journal of Rural Studies (JRS)*, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism (JST)*, *Leisure Sciences Tourism (LST)*, *Tourism Geographies (TG)*, *Tourism Management (TM)*.

It should be noted that the selected journals differ in terms of dates of publication commencement. For example, ATR, JHTR, and TM have a publication history of more than 25 years, whereas others have been published for fewer years at the time of writing. The other journals fall within this range. For the purpose of the current study, the most contemporaneous period of the past 20 years, 1991 to 2010 inclusive, was selected to capture recent trends in tourism destination research.

This study adopted a content analysis technique by establishing categories and counting the number of instances when those categories were used in a particular item of text to produce descriptive information on previous research contents. Here the content of relevant articles in the 12 journals was analyzed in terms of the subject area, the nature of research, statistical techniques used, and regional research focus to provide information on the progress of rural tourism research for the period of investigation. The detailed steps undertaken in the content analysis follow.

First, details of each of the 215 articles were compiled in chronological order. Then each article was summarized in a table format divided into columns by year, title, journal, subject area and nature of research. On completion, a series of content analysis was conducted. The first analysis dealt with an article’s subject area, classified as one of eight areas: supply – demand and management, public policy, marketing, sustainable development, economic development, cultural studies, local impact and others. We couldn’t follow a four-category classification as in previous studies of Chon et al, 1989; Crawford-Welch and McCleary, 1992; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; and Yoo and Weber, 2005), since we believed that rural tourism field differs significantly from other tourism fields.

Second, each article was analyzed according to its nature of content, differentiating conceptual and empirical papers. Conceptual articles were defined as those that describe and discuss concepts and did not employ a statistical analysis or those that employ basic calculations based on hypothetical data (e.g. menu analysis using a spreadsheet programme). Empirical articles (qualitative or quantitative) are defined as those that employ one or more statistical analysis ranging from basic to multivariate (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). Thereafter, empirical articles were further classified according to statistical methods employed in the analysis. The subcategories used were descriptive analysis, correlation analysis, factor analysis, cluster analysis, regression analysis, analysis of variance, discriminant analysis, conjoint analysis, and others (Gallarza et al, 2002). A final analysis examined articles’ research focus in terms of geographic region, with Africa, America, Asia, Europe and Oceania representing the key subcategories. If an article was unclear as to its regional focus, it was identified as Unclassified for analysis purposes, while if an article looks for more than one destination, it was identified as MultiDestinations.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The 215 articles have been evaluated by the authors according to their judgment. Some of the articles could have been in two of the categories but the authors decided to classify the articles into the category they regard as the most representative.

In Table 1 we can observe that most of the articles have been published in the scientific journal *Tourism Management* (52, 24.2%) in *Annals of Tourism Research* (45, 20.9%), and the *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* follows (40, 18.6%). The least publications are found in *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research* (1, 0.5%). We would like to mention that we conducted a research for the *Tourism Economics* journal and the *Journal of*

Sport Management, but we did not include them in the Table because we could not find any articles on rural tourism (Abstract, Title, Keywords).

**Table 1. Subject Area by Journal**

Journal	Subject Area								Total
	Supply, Demand and Management	Public policy	Marketing	Sustainable development	Economic Development	Cultural Studies	Local Impacts	Others	
ATR	6	6	2	2	9	5	10	5	45
JAC					1		1		2 (0.9%)
IJCHM	2								2 (0.9%)
IJTR	7	1	2	3	6	2	6	2	29
JHTR							1		1 (0.5%)
JLR							1	3	4 (1.9%)
JRS	3	1		3	2			2	11
JST	12	4	2	8	4	2	4	4	40
JTR	3		2				1		6 (2.8%)
LST	1						1	2	4 (1.9%)
TG	4	2	3	1	3	1	5		19
TM	15	4	8	9	6	1	8	1	52
<b>Total</b>	<b>53 (24.7)</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>19 (8.8)</b>	<b>26 (12.1)</b>	<b>31 (14.4)</b>	<b>11 (5.1)</b>	<b>38 (17.7)</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>215</b>

As we can see in the Table, during the last two years there has been an increase in the number of articles related to rural tourism. Simultaneously, we can observe that there is a relatively high number of articles in 1994, because of the JST journal's special edition on rural tourism. Table 1 shows that most of the articles are related to supply, demand and management (53, 24.7%) while the articles about Local Impacts are second (38, 17.7%) and the articles about Economic Development follow closely (31, 14.4%). The least articles are about cultural studies (11, 5.1%) and marketing (18, 8.3%).

**Table 2: Subject Area by Year**

Year	Subject Area								Total
	Supply, Demand and Management	Public policy	Marketing	Sustainable development	Economic Development	Cultural Studies	Local Impacts	Others	
1991			1				1		2 (0.9%)
1992	1			1					2 (0.9%)
1993	1	1					1		3 (1.4%)
1994	3	1		2	1	2	1	2	12 (5.6%)
1995		1		1			1		3 (1.4%)
1996	1	1		1			2	2	7 (3.3%)
1997	3	1					0		4 (1.9%)
1998	2	1	1	1			2		7 (3.3%)
1999	4		2	1	2		3	1	13 (6.0%)
2000		3		1		1	2	2	9 (4.2%)
2001	5	1		1	1	1	5	0	14 (6.5%)
2002	4	1			1		1	1	8 (3.7%)
2003	2			1	4	1	1		9 (4.2%)
2004	4	2	2	1	4	2	1		16 (7.4%)
2005	3	1	2	2	2		2	3	15 (7.0%)
2006	5	1	1	2			1	1	11 (5.1%)
2007	6	2	4	2	2	2	2	3	23 (10.7%)
2008	5			3	6		4	0	18 (8.4%)
2009	1	1	4	2	4	1	2	1	16 (7.4%)
2010	3		2	4	4	1	6	3	23 (10.7%)
<b>Total</b>	<b>53 (24.7)</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>19 (8.8)</b>	<b>26 (12.1)</b>	<b>31 (14.4)</b>	<b>11 (5.1)</b>	<b>38 (17.7)</b>	<b>19 (8.9)</b>	<b>215 (100.0)</b>

The most productive years for articles are 2007 & 2010 (23, 10.7%) while the least productive ones are after 2003.

We can observe that the empirical studies (153, 71.2%) are almost three times more than the conceptual studies (62, 28.8%). The highest number of conceptual studies are in 1994 and 2004, while the most empirical studies are in 2007 & 2010. Through the observation of Table 3 we can ascertain that in every journal the empirical

studies are more than the conceptual ones. The JAC journal has published only conceptual studies while the IJCHM and the JHTR journals only empirical ones. The number of articles in these journals is too limited to draw specific conclusions about these journals. In Tourism Geographies journal there is the best balance between empirical-conceptual studies. There is also high analogy in Tourism Management, Journal of Rural Studies and Annals of Tourism Research.

**Table 3. Nature of Research by Journal**

Journal	Subject Area		Total
	Conceptual	Empirical	
ATR	13 (28.9)	32 (71.1)	45 (100.0)
JAC	2 (100.0)		2 (100.0)
IJCHM		2 (100.0)	2 (100.0)
IJTR	11 (37.9)	18 (62.1)	29 (100.0)
JHTR		1 (100.0)	1 (100.0)
JLR	1 (25.0)	3 (75.0)	4 (100.0)
JRS	3 (27.3)	8 (72.7)	11 (100.0)
JST	16 (40.0)	24 (60.0)	40 (100.0)
JTR	1 (16.7)	5 (83.3)	6 (100.0)
LST	1 (25.0)	3 (75.0)	4 (100.0)
TG	3 (15.8)	16 (84.2)	19 (100.0)
TM	11 (21.2)	41 (78.8)	52 (100.0)
<b>Total</b>	<b>62 (28.8%)</b>	<b>153 (71.2%)</b>	<b>215 (100.0)</b>

Most of the studies have used quantitative research (131, 60.9%) while qualitative research has been used in percentage (47, 21.9%); at the same time, in 17.2% either the method of research was not discernible or both methods had been used.

We examine which statistical methods have the various researchers employed in order to reach safe conclusions for the article they have published in one of the examined scientific journals. We should mention that the authors of the current study, in cases where there was an abundance of different methods, they decided to select one as the most representative or as the one providing the most significant results. Even though there was a large number of empirical studies and although most of them had quantitative character, we can observe that they mainly use descriptive analysis (67, 31.2%) and then follow the researches that have employed a statistical method different from the most usual ones (40, 18.6%).

**Table 4. Regional Focus by Publication (percentages in italics)**

Journal	Subject Area							Total
	Africa	America	EurAsia	Europe	Oceania	Multidestinations	Unclassified	
AT		18	11	13	3			45 (100.0)
JA	1			1				2 (100.0)
IJC				2				2 (100.0)
IJT	5	2	2	14	5	1		29 (100.0)
JH		1						1 (100.0)
JL	1	2		1				4 (100.0)
JR		3		7	1			11 (100.0)
JS	8		2	23	1		6	40 (100.0)
JT		1		3	2			6 (100.0)
LS		4						4 (100.0)
TG		4	3	9	3			19 (100.0)
T	8	12	9	19	2	2		52 (100.0)
<b>To</b>	<b>23 (10.7)</b>	<b>47 (21.9)</b>	<b>27 (12.6)</b>	<b>92 (42.8)</b>	<b>17 (7.9)</b>	<b>3 (1.4)</b>	<b>6 (2.8)</b>	<b>215 (100.0)</b>

Almost all the other statistical techniques have very low percentages. Factor analysis and Cluster Analysis (13, 6.0%) are the second most widely used statistical methods. All the rest display especially low percentages, which means that there is a great gap in research for future researchers. It is interesting that in the articles evaluated there is not even one con-joint analysis, which can be regarded as very remarkable for the analysis of the tourists' preferences.

In table 4 we can see that most of the researches are related to Europe (92, 42.8%). Second comes the continent of America (47, 21.9%) and then the continent of Asia (27, 12.6%); Africa follows with almost the same percentage (23,10.7%). Until 2000 there were only two articles about Africa and until 1998 there was not even one article about Australia. In the scientific journal *Leisure Sciences Tourism* all the articles come from America and there is not any article from any other continent. It is interesting that in *Annals of Tourism Research* there is not any article about Africa. At the same time we observe that there are 3 multidestinations mainly due to some comparative studies between countries of different continents. In six cases we could not determine whether the authors were referring to a specific country; usually because of the general character of the articles.

## CONCLUSION

The current study demonstrates a lack of research on rural tourism issues comparing to the importance of tourism development in a global context. However, in the past ten years it is apparent that the interest of the academic community in rural tourism has increased significantly.

This study has been limited to the analysis of articles in 12 leading tourism and hospitality journals, although there is an increase in the number of journals that deal with hospitality and tourism issues. However, this limitation may be a good opportunity for further research for improving the understanding of progress in rural tourism research by including a larger number of journal publications, in addition to other published materials that deal with tourism destinations such as textbooks, conference papers, and reports.

By this research information into subject areas, research methods and regional focus of articles that are published in 12 leading academic tourism and hospitality journals for a 20-year period are provided. Across all journals, throughout the period of assessment, supply –demand and management was found to be the most frequently researched area. Although different research interests preoccupy researchers today, the scope of research should be further expanded, considering the rapid changes in the market environment. For example, there is a need for more studies evaluating political, economic, social, cultural, environmental and technological impacts of rural tourism development.

Throughout this research it is evident that the number of empirical articles has increased rapidly comparing to the conceptual ones. This may happen because of editorial policies, or because researchers' interest dealt with testing, exploring and developing the application of numerous ideas in the development of rural tourism development. However, it is suggested that a more balanced approach is thoughtful in order to produce more methodologically sound research articles using the appropriate statistical techniques based on strong theoretical frameworks to further advance rural tourism development, planning and management as a recognized field of study.

Finally, the current study noted a predominant research focus on European and American destinations. Future contributors may wish to broaden their research scope by investigating other growing international markets to create an awareness of the state of the tourism industry in other parts of the world.

In summary, this study can be used as a useful reference guide for those researchers who intend to research further neglected areas of great interest for the academic and business community and identify the best applicable research methods. Hopefully, the lack of research that has been recognized throughout this study can draw further interest to this promising area of research.

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# LOCAL COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: THE CASE OF KASTAMONU, TURKEY

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## ABSTRACT

This paper is a part of research which aims to develop a framework for the assessment of the potential for sustainable rural tourism development in a given area. The purpose of this paper is to investigate the potential of local stakeholders in developing a rural tourism product. For this purpose, a traditional harvest day event was initiated by the researchers and set up by the local stakeholders in Kastamonu. The results of participant observations of the event and interviews were used to identify the factors that facilitate involvement of the local community in rural tourism product development.

**Key Words:** sustainable tourism, rural tourism, local stakeholders, Kastamonu, Turkey

## INTRODUCTION

Rural tourism has attracted increased attention from governments, non-governmental organizations, as a panacea of some of the pressing current problems of rural communities. Change in agricultural technology and globalization have significantly changed the rural economic and social landscape. Increased input costs combined with international competition has decreased the income from traditional farming activities and supported diversification into non-farming activities. Rural tourism, which is a variant of eco-tourism, has emerged as an important means of addressing the complex socio-economic challenges of the rural communities following the decline of traditional agricultural economy (Sharpley and Voss, 2006). On the other hand, booming natural food market, an increased longing for countryside as a result of the pressures of modern urban life and a desire to conserve traditional rural life have been among the factors that generated a demand for rural tourism. Consequently, rural tourism has become an important component of the tourism industry in many different countries, however, taking on different forms in different contexts.

The development of rural tourism activity has also attracted the attention of scholars. The definitions of rural tourism have proliferated together with the increased research interest on the topic. Overtime, the scope of rural tourism has also expanded. In spite of the multiple definitions and expanded scope of rural tourism, a consensus seems to be achieved on its objective that it should be sustainable. However, scholarly work on the dimensions of and criteria for its sustainable tourism seems scarce (Saarinen, 2006). Although rural tourism is implicitly considered as a means of sustainable development, however there is some evidence that it can also become a source of conflict over control over natural capital and land use, distribution of income and profits from tourism among its stakeholders and potential displacement of local communities. Thus, rural tourism has the potential eventually to harm the environment and to have adverse impacts on the local communities unless carefully planned and managed (Cawley and Gillmor, 2007). Hence, the issue of sustainable rural tourism development deserves more scholarly attention and evidence from different parts of the world, with different contextual characteristics.

This paper is a part of research which aims to develop a framework for the assessment of the potential for sustainable rural tourism development in a given area. The purpose of this paper is to investigate the potential of local stakeholders in developing a rural tourism product. With this purpose, a traditional harvest day event was initiated by the researchers and set up by local stakeholders and community members. The behavior of local stakeholders is observed during the planning, organization and management of this event and interviews are conducted with participants of the event in order to identify their attitudes towards rural tourism and determine the factors that facilitate the involvement of the local community in rural tourism development. Participant observations and interview results are expected to provide insights for the assessment of the potential for sustainable tourism in a given area.



## LITERATURE ON SUSTAINABLE RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Rural tourism utilizes a wide array of publicly and privately owned resources and involves a broad range of stakeholders and inherently includes the potential for harming the natural, cultural and social resources that it builds upon (Cawley and Gillmor, 2008). Thus, the issues of sustainability become important and attract increased attention in the literature on rural tourism development. The literature on sustainable rural tourism development focuses on the appropriate policies and strategies that would ensure the realization of the benefits associated with rural tourism while limiting its adverse impacts especially on the natural environment and the local culture. It is built on sustainable tourism development concept which includes different approaches with respect to the treatment of different dimensions of sustainability. There are approaches which concentrate either on a single, individual dimension of sustainability, such as environmental, economic and social sustainability, or on a combination of dimensions (Augustyn, 1998). Studies that consider sustainability in a multidimensional manner are recently increasing. These studies advocate that the nature and complexity of rural tourism necessitate the adoption of holistic approach which takes into account the diversity of the resources utilized and the stakeholders involved.

Adopting a multidimensional approach to sustainability, Augustyn (1998) uses the Action Strategy for Sustainable Tourism Development model of Inskip (1991) in order to evaluate the rural tourism development strategies in Poland. In this study, he identifies the following elements of rural tourism strategy at the national level that will contribute to multidimensional sustainability objective: Involvement of national authorities responsible for environmental protection in strategy formulation; identification of tourism activities that preserve the environmental and cultural heritage; support for local levels of government to develop their own strategies in line with the national strategy; inclusion of tourism in land use planning; involvement of various stakeholders and local communities in decision making on rural tourism development; inclusion of impact analysis; establishment of development of environmental accounting systems, assessment, monitoring and auditing schemes; including representatives of indigenous people on rural tourism advisory boards; and developing educational and awareness programs.

Cawley and Gillmor (2008) contribute to the literature by developing a model of integrated rural tourism development which takes into account all the different types of the resources used and the stakeholders involved and apply this model to rural tourism development in western Ireland over the years 1992-2002. They use the concept of strategic fit from strategic management literature in order to assess the effectiveness of the integrated tourism in contributing to the local value added in terms of all the social, cultural, environmental and economic resources utilized. Their findings outline the features that contribute to the local value added. They emphasize the need for a regional, multidimensional sustainability strategy that is supported by all the stakeholders of rural tourism. Additionally, they suggest that the types of resources used and their form of use should be in line with the strategy. Appropriate resource use should be supported with planning, management and control of the resource use. Finally, networking between stakeholders and embeddedness in local systems are found to be instrumental for achieving sustainability and contributing to local development. Although their research findings outline the basic principles of integrated rural tourism development, the issues relating to implementation are left for future studies. How to achieve broad stakeholder involvement in defining the strategy for sustainability in a given area, how to manage the resource use among different stakeholders in a way to comply with the sustainability strategy and how to promote networking among stakeholders and embeddedness in local systems are major issues seem to be the major challenges in promoting sustainability in tourism and contributing to rural development.

In their study which aims to identify the factors that lead to success in rural tourism development, Wilson et al. (2001) claim that widespread participation and contribution of rural tourism entrepreneurs are critical for successful rural tourism development. According to the focus group results on six “successful” and “unsuccessful” communities in Illinois, the most important factors for successful rural tourism development are “a complete tourism package, good community leadership, support and participation of local government, strategic planning, coordination and cooperation between businesspersons and local leadership, coordination and cooperation between rural tourism entrepreneurs, information and technical assistance for tourism development and promotion, good convention and visitor bureaus and widespread community support for tourism” (Wilson et al., 2001:134). The authors use these results as a support for the community-based approach in rural tourism development; however admit the difficulty and the complexity of creating intercommunity cooperation and collaboration and state the need for more research in these areas.

Rural tourism, which involves a wide range of community owned resources and different stakeholders with different interest, is a complex and intricate issue. In the literature, there seems to be a consensus that rural tourism development should be community based and involve a multidimensional sustainability strategy which is widely supported by all the stakeholders for ensuring sustainability and rural development. However, research on how to achieve cooperation and collaboration between and among different stakeholders is scarce.

Moreover, definition of sustainability and the means and methods used for achieving it are context dependent (Cawley and Gillmor, 2008).

## CONTEXT

Rural tourism development is in its initial stages of development in Turkey (Karabati et al., 2009). There is a widespread recognition of the need to diversify the tourism product and develop alternative forms of tourism. Furthermore, massive migration from rural to urban areas, economic and social changes in rural areas as a result of the significant decline in the share of agricultural output and employment in total economy and inequality in income distribution have generated an interest in rural development. Various government agencies, such as the State Planning Organization, Ministry of Culture and Tourism, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs and Ministry of Environment and Forestry, refer to rural tourism development among their priority aims in the coming years. A number of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and private initiatives are working to create recognition of ecological values and to develop pilot projects. However, these efforts seem to be uncoordinated and loosely related to each other. Although rural tourism is stated among major means for rural development, it currently lacks a comprehensive strategy and an action plan at the national level, which are supported by the pertinent stakeholders. Over the last decade, sporadic rural tourism projects are observed in different areas, some of which have not been able to continue to the present.

In the “Turkish Tourism Strategy, 2023” (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2007), Kastamonu, is one of the designated areas of rural tourism development. The provinces of Kastamonu have various natural attractions and the area is in the protection list of World Wildlife Forum (WWF). The economic activity in the villages is forestry and small-scale agriculture. Traditional lifestyle and methods of production have been mostly preserved in the villages. The population growth rate in 2009 is negative due to the decline in income from traditional agricultural activities and resulting migration to big cities. According to the results of the Addressed Based Population Registration System (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2010), 524,596 people which are registered in Kastamonu live in Istanbul. According to the same source, the number of people living in the province center of Kastamonu is 195,059, while 166,163 people live in its towns and villages in 2010. The number of people living in the towns and villages of Kastamonu has decreased in 2010 from 169,839 in 2009. There are a number of attempts to develop rural tourism in the area, in the form of eco-tourism and organic agri-tourism. Stakeholders differ widely with respect to both the meaning and the means to develop rural tourism. Existing and potential rural tourism entrepreneurs, as well as local communities, are not involved in the planning and management of rural tourism.

## METHODOLOGY

Following from the literature review, involvement of rural communities in the design and implementation of the strategy. Local communities should be willing to develop their own projects and cooperate with other stakeholders for the development of rural tourism in a given area. Planning, management and control methods of resource use should be consistent with the existing social structures. Therefore, assessment of the potential of the local community in developing a rural tourism product is one of the cornerstones of the general assessment of the potential of a given area for rural tourism development. In this study, an event organization is undertaken for the assessment of the potential of local stakeholders. A harvest day, including the use of threshing sledge, is selected as the event to be undertaken since it is complementary to local economic activity and involves endogenously owned resources. Local stakeholders were observed during the planning, organization and management of the event. Additionally, interviews were conducted with the participants of the event in order to identify their attitudes toward rural tourism development in Kastamonu. In order to initiate the event, a field trip was made to the area by the researchers on July 9-11, 2010. In this trip, various different channels were used in order to identify villages that still use or that can generate a set-up of a traditional harvest day. Planning and organization of the event were left to local stakeholders and another field trip was made to the area on July 31-August 2, 2010 with a small group of researchers in order to participate the harvest day on August 1 and to conduct the interviews.

The organization of the harvest day included local government representatives, local businessmen, prominent local community leaders, village heads (mukhtar) and the villagers of three villages. These three villages, which were previously identified among the villages that continued to use traditional agriculture methods, were Eymür, Talipler and Gölcügez. Harvest day event took place in Eymür, which is 28 km. away from the province center of Kastamonu. It is 23 households and its population is about 200 people. Eymür got electricity in 1978 and its first tractor in 1975. Mukhtar of Eymür is Hüseyin Mahmutoglu and he has bought the first tractor in 1975 and used it also to pull a wagon of villagers to and from the market in Kastamonu, which would be a four hour walk instead. Talipler is a village which is 15 km away from the province center of Kastamonu and its population is about 180 people. There is a large mansion in the village which dates back to Ottoman period and is being developed as a hotel. Original features of the mansion are preserved and it includes a private “hamam”. Its

mukhtar is İrfan Pehlivanoglu. Gölcügez is 40 km away from the province center of Kastamonu and it is about 150 people. There are flint mines in the village, which were the major source of the stones used in threshing sledges until 1980s, when modern equipment replaced threshing sledges. Local communities in these three villages participated in the planning and organization of the harvest day event held at August 1, 2010 in Eymür village. Interviews were conducted with the local participants in the event both before and during the event.

## FINDINGS

Prior to the first field trip, the event was introduced to various stakeholders in Kastamonu in order to identify different communities that have the resources and the willingness to work through the event. Out of the various channels used, official channels were less effective in identifying local rural communities. Local businessmen and prominent community leaders were willing to contribute to the project. These two groups were able to identify the right contacts in the rural communities and to effectively utilize them. Furthermore, they had a strong influence; the local rural communities respected their ideas and readily accepted their leadership in the initiation of the project. These two groups were able to stimulate the local communities in organizing the resources for undertaking the event. Representatives of the central government, senior officials of the local government, representatives of NGOs working for rural tourism development in the area and entrepreneurs involved in organic tourism were the less effective stakeholders in identifying potential rural communities and stimulating them for undertaking the rural tourism product development activity.

The interviews conducted with each of these groups during the first field trip in the area reveal a number of characteristic that relate to the effective stakeholder groups. Both of the groups share a genuine interest in rural development in the area. They are actively taking part and act as leaders in community projects in diverse areas, such as health care, transportation and restoration of historic buildings. Consequently, they have access to different networks. They have significant personal investment in the area. They believe that tourism can complement the economic activity and contribute to rural development in the region. They also stress the importance of and the need for a multidimensional approach to sustainability in rural tourism. They share a concern and state that the benefits of tourism activity should accrue to the rural community and its scale and form should be in line with social, cultural and environmental sustainability. On the other hand, the less effective stakeholder groups do not have significant personal investments in the area. Furthermore, they typically concentrate on single or a couple of dimensions of sustainability in relation to rural tourism development. Some of these ineffective stakeholders tend to perceive rural tourism as building modern tourism facilities and infrastructure in the rural area. These common characteristics of the effective and the ineffective stakeholder groups offer some guidelines for the methodologies that can be developed for the assessment of the potential of rural communities in developing a rural tourism product. The findings indicate that the presence of local stakeholders with a genuine interest in local development, a significant personal investment in the area and diverse networking channels seems to stimulate the rural communities to participate in the rural tourism activity and to facilitate their involvement in the planning, organization and management of the resources in the implementation stage.

A group of five researchers, including two scholars from the U.S., participated in the harvest day event organized in the village of Eymür on August 1, 2010. The village was identified and contacted by a local businessman and a prominent community leader and three villages participated in the organization and management of the resources for the event. The village headmen (mukhtars) of these three villages were the key persons in setting up the event and organizing the resources. The local businessman, the prominent community leader and the mukhtar of Talipler village also joined in the group of researchers. The event was carried out on the harvest floor on the field owned by a family in the village. This family owned a traditional threshing sledge and two oxen which are used to pull the sledge. Owning the oxen was critical for performing the event in the traditional manner. The cut grain was piles in a haystack on the harvest floor, then the stack was pulled down with a long hooked wooden stick and scattered evenly on the floor by the farmer and his sons. The wife of the farmer brought the oxen and set up the sledge and started threshing the grain. The threshing event was the event of the day for the village. At one point, a group of young men from the village drove up to the harvest area in a truck and several women came in and out to see and participate in the event. Children of the village were encouraged to ride the threshing sledge by the older folk who wanted them to see how it had been in the old days. Lunch and refreshments were organized by the mukhtar. The local people were very enthusiastic to interact with the group of researchers and show them all the resources that they thought would be of interest to the outside group. Although the wind was not good enough they also showed winnowing. The mukhtar demonstrated the use of wooden winnowing forks and explained how it was necessary to turn it at the top of the throw, spreading the grain for the breeze to work. They also made a demonstration using the mechanical thresher in the adjacent field.

The interviews conducted with the local community members participating in the harvest day event were coded with respect to their attitude toward rural tourism development in their area and their willingness and their

ability to contribute its planning and organization. The results indicate an overall positive attitude toward rural tourism development in their village. Participants also stated that they would be interested in working through similar projects that could lead to development of rural tourism products with commercial value. Most of the participants complained about the decrease in agricultural output and incomes and stated tourism development can solve problems. Some also mentioned that development of rural tourism would give them a chance to preserve the social fabric in the country side as youngsters who went to work in the big cities would return back. However, there was a consensus on the fact that they lacked the entrepreneurial skills and the means to start their own ventures or develop tourism related products. Some admitted that they did not know what would be of interests to tourists. A woman made a remark after the event that “we wouldn’t throw away our threshing sledges if we knew Americans would be interested in seeing them”. A number of respondents mentioned other activities and attractions that could be built into the rural tourism product, such as riding horses, weaving basket, making of small agricultural equipment and tools. Women seemed to be more willing to work in rural tourism development projects.

With respect to their experiences relating to the event, they said they enjoyed the event themselves and interacting with the outsiders. They worked under the leadership of the mukhtars. Mukhtars identified the resources used in the event and they used their relatives in order to identify the resources. They communicated solely through cell phones. Mukhtars coordinated the event and actually worked through all the stages of it along with the other participants. All the three mukhtars stated that they could coordinate home-stays and any other farm activity in their village. Participant observations both before and during the event indicate rural community members are enthusiastic about rural tourism development, they cooperate with other communities and successfully work together in the development of a local tourism product under the coordination of the mukhtars. Additionally, local businessmen and prominent community leaders seem to facilitate the involvement of mukhtars in these events. In this event study, a genuine interest on rural development in the area and a preference for a multidimensional approach to sustainability were among the common characteristics of these two groups of stakeholders who facilitated the involvement of the local community in the production of a rural tourism product, a set-up harvest day event in this case.

## CONCLUSIONS

This paper is a part of research which aims to develop a framework for the assessment of the potential for sustainable rural tourism development in a given area. Rural tourism, which involves a wide range of community owned resources and different stakeholders with different interest, is a complex and intricate issue. The literature on sustainable tourism development indicates that community based approaches are more effective in ensuring sustainability and rural development. However, research on how to achieve broad stakeholder and community involvement in the planning, organization and implementation seems to be scarce. This study aims to contribute to the literature by identifying the factors that facilitate the participation of local stakeholders and community members in rural tourism product development. Willingness and the ability of the local stakeholders and community members in participating tourism product development were investigated by initiating a set-up event that would be carried out by the local stakeholders. The findings indicate that the presence of local stakeholders with a genuine interest in local development, a significant personal investment in the area and diverse networking channels seems to stimulate the rural communities to participate in the rural tourism activity and to facilitate their involvement in the planning, organization and management of the resources in the implementation stage. These local stakeholders operate through local community leaders, in this case the mukhtars, which create cooperation and collaboration within the community.

The results of this study are expected to provide insights for developing frameworks relating to the assessment of the potential for sustainable tourism in a given area. Assessment of the potential of the local community members in participating rural tourism development is an important component of the overall sustainability of a given area. However, further studies are needed to determine the factors facilitating cooperation and collaboration between local rural communities and other stakeholders of rural tourism.

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## DEVELOPMENT OF TOURIST ECO FARMS IN PROTECTED NATURAL AREAS IN SLOVENIA

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### ABSTRACT

Slovenia plans to increase protected areas from 12 to 30%, providing an ideal opportunity for the development of organic agriculture. Based on our survey of eco-tourist farms, most already extant in protected areas, it is suggested that designation of geographical origin and quality of products along with increases in organic supply are necessary to establish Slovenia as an organic or sustainable tourism destination. Farmers not involved in eco-tourism or organic farming can be encouraged by business plans proven successful for other farmers and non-refundable European Commission grants.

**Key Words:** Organic tourist farms, eco-tourism, organic farming, sustainable tourism, protected natural areas, tourism offer

### INTRODUCTION

Research demonstrates a growing demand for tourist visits to environmentally responsible destinations. This indicates the increasing use of the internet for the purpose of finding information about destinations and purchasing travel services and environmental awareness of the population in EU member states, especially in central and northern Europe. This confirms the importance of a human value system that includes such intangibles as the cultural, spiritual and aesthetic (Putney, 2003). It should be noted that economic, political and demographic changes have a significant impact on the tourism market (recession or inflation, war or terrorism, or epidemic diseases, human intolerance and racism). The results of these changes adversely affect the number of trips and the average period of stay, consumption of tourists at each destination and the reputation of tourist destinations (UNWTO, 2010). As the destinations in the 'Third World' are considered less desirable, closer destinations to western and central Europe, more easily accessible, not requiring air transport but still within reach of public transport, are gaining importance. Due to unavoidable climate changes questions in connection with the natural environment and tourism have arisen again. Eco-tourism in protected areas and conservation of nature is a true answer to the ascending demand for environmentally friendly tourism products.

In the field of environmental management in Slovenian tourism the situation is as follows: according to the Statistical Office for 2005 (June 2005) there were 164 hotels in Slovenia (SURS, 2005), only 3 of them with eco-certificates by now (these are EU eco-label or Green globe), while the environmental management system (ISO 14001) has been introduced in only two hotel companies. Among the 48 beaches, which provide monitoring of bathing water, 6 had the blue flag (sign indicating that all the highest standards are met) and 2 marinas out of 3 in the year had it in 2009 (Jurinčič & Bojnec 2009, SURS, 2010, Poje, 2010).

### PROTECTED AREAS AND NATURA 2000 AREAS IN SLOVENIA

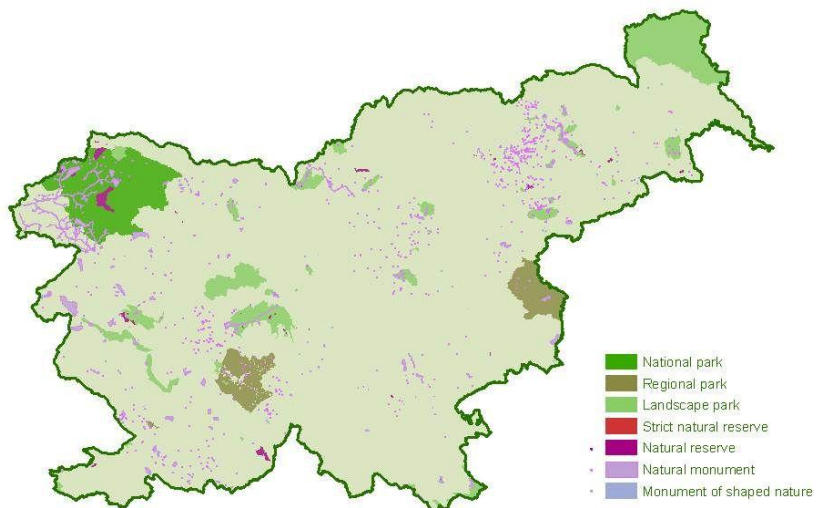
Currently in Slovenia 12% of the territory is protected (ARSO, 2010). With the implementation of the Strategy of Territorial Development of Slovenia since July 2004, the protected areas have been envisaged to cover 33% of its territory. Out of this, Triglav's National Park represents 4.1% of the Slovenian territory. Moreover, 3 regional parks, 40 landscape parks, 49 natural reserves and 623 natural monuments are protected. However, there are still some shortcomings in implementation of the proposed protected areas, which is due to a shortage of qualified labour, lack of finance and appropriate expertise, lack of interest on the part of municipalities and lack of political support, as well as the reorganization of the state at the local governance levels and almost non-existent inter-sectoral mutual interest and cooperation (Jurinčič & Bojnec 2009).

In April 2004, Slovenia endorsed and thus confirmed the proposal of the Natura 2000 areas. Slovenia has the greatest degree of biological diversity in the EU. 286 areas are identified as important natural zones, out of which 260 are identified on the basis of regulation on habitats (25% of the Slovenian territory) and 26 on the

basis of regulation on birds (32% of the Slovenian territory) (Figure 2). Of course, there is often overlap between these geographical areas because birds are protected in various protected habitats. Most protected areas are forested, though a significant proportion of protected areas are rocky land without vegetation; 9% of protected areas are situated above the forest line, and a significant proportion is covered by grassland. At any rate, 25% of the territory is included in Natura 2000 areas.

Figure 1

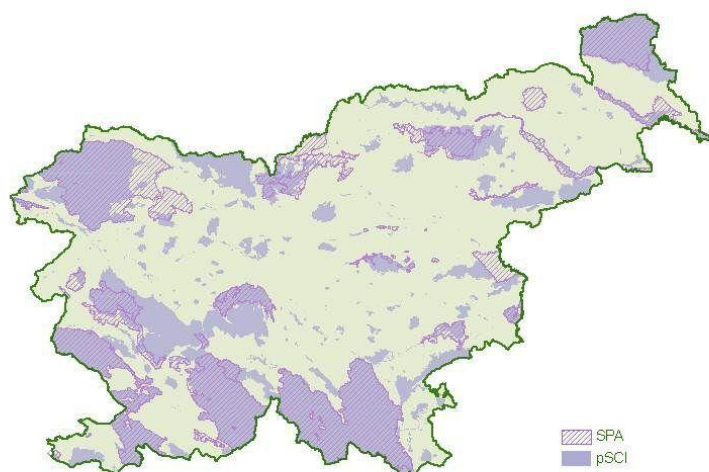
Protected areas.



Source: ARSO, 2010

Figure 2

Natura 2000 areas by regulation on birds (SPA) and habitats (pSCI) in Slovenia.



Source: ARSO, 2010

## DEVELOPMENT OF ECOLOGICAL TOURISM IN PROTECTED AREAS OF NATURE

Slovenia provides several different regimes of management of protected areas. In addition to the most prevalent forms of governance through the public, the administrator can also be a non-governmental organization such as an association for the observation and study of birds, a private company, or, through the mechanism of contractual protection, where administrators are landowners, farmers. Among these are best examples of good implementation of eco-tourism in Slovenia the privately run nature park Logarska dolina and Sečovelje solina nature park. Eco-tourism is the most developed precisely in such areas because the local population is involved in providing and implementing the tourist offer. The advantage represents the recognition that the local population sees ecological tourism as a comparative advantage and opportunity rather than an obstacle to economic development. Planning in conservation and protected areas is required in at least two areas (Fennel, 2008). Boundary areas are often sacrificed for the construction of tourist and other infrastructure necessary for housing and economic development, while much of the remaining natural areas are designed for visits either on foot or by bicycle or other non-motorized forms of transport.

Ecological tourism is a response to modern global trends in tourism demand. Synonyms often used are eco-tourism and green tourism, both devoting particular attention to nature (Fennel, 2008).

Eco-tourism:

1. covers all forms of tourism that are based on nature and for which the principal motive of tourist visits is observation and admiration of nature and traditional cultures in their natural environment,
2. involves education and interpretation of tourism resources for visitors,
3. in general, but not always, is aimed at small organized groups of visitors that are led by special small local businesses, sometimes foreign companies of different sizes that usually work for small groups of tourists
4. the systematic management of natural areas provide economic benefits without jeopardizing the natural and socio-cultural environment.

Most definitions of tourism focusing on nature include at least three essential components of ecotourism: 1) is derived from nature, 2) focuses on learning, 3) focuses on conservation and protection (Nowaczek & Smale, 2010), (the focus of tourism experiences is oriented toward nature, but sometimes includes the cultural environment) (Weaver, 2006). Learning about nature and how to behave toward and in it are expected outcomes of the interaction between tourists and the environment. Ecotourism's objectives in this context take into account economic, socio-cultural and environmental sustainability (Perkins & Grace, 2009).

Figure 3

Example of organic tourist farm Pri Plajerju in Trenta.



Source: Photo by Ana Horvat

The demand for tourist products that offer time in a natural environment is constantly growing and the range of such a supply is among the fastest growing tourism products. Eco-tourism currently holds at least 30% of tourist



interest. The product range extends from the observation and study of nature reserves to engagement in recreation in nature, when it is only a kind of backdrop (Jurinčič, 2009). Protected and preserved natural areas can provide significant opportunities for development of ecological tourism, with ecological tourism farms that offer quality food and accommodation in an authentic natural, if inhabited, environment are among leading recent developments.

In 2009 the 2096 organic farms in Slovenia represented 2.6% of all agricultural holdings. The total area of organic arable land amounted to 29,388 hectares, representing 6.2% of all agricultural land in use (MKGP, 2011). Of these 2096 organic farms, only 46 tourist farms of 195 (Vaskrsić & Kosi, 2009) also offered accommodation, representing 2.2 percent of all organic farms. An example of such a farm is Pri Plajerju (Figure 3). Based on a survey which was conducted regarding 30 organic farms, we found out that the largest segments of guests are the following: families, couples without children, youths and seniors. Their demands were sports activities in nature, visits to cultural and natural heritage sites and enjoying peace and relaxation. The ratio between foreign and domestic visitors was almost equal: 52.8% foreign, 47.2% domestic. Foreign guests come mostly from Germany, 31.4%, Italy 24.3%, Britain 20%, the Netherlands 10%, Croatia 8.5% and Austria 5.7% (Horvat 2010).

## **RECOMMENDATIONS AND MEASURES FOR DEVELOPMENT AND PROMOTION OF ECOLOGICAL TOURISM IN PROTECTED AREAS IN SLOVENIA**

The state has begun to encourage organic agriculture and tourism in protected areas of nature. In 2008 the first provisions were made for extra scoring for projects in the field of tourism with state grant calls and EU support in the field of tourism (Podjetniški sklad RS) introducing environmental management and hence the supply of organic agricultural products. Also in 2008 for the first time calls for Rural Development (Agencija RS za kmetijske trge in razvoj podeželja) implemented a system of scoring that supported organic farms (integrated production, quality brand agricultural products or with protection of geographical origin). This is particularly important to vulnerable natural areas (nature parks and Natura 2000 protected areas) and vulnerable areas such as the karst and certain hilly areas and those prone to erosion, floods, etc.

Competent designated institutions could facilitate the scientific monitoring of farms using up to date information to identify any of their problems. On this basis appropriate advice could be given for further development. Organic agriculture and tourism would thus gain greater financial support both public and private and take advantage of its location, which though often a limiting factor can also be a development opportunity (Bojnec et al, 2007; Jurinčič et al, 2007). There is a necessity to promote the direct sales of organic products, where the marketing is based on the geographical origin and distinctive destination brand products. It is also important that providers take eco-tourism education courses in environmental awareness, information technology and marketing. A comprehensive approach to managing organic-rich and exclusive destinations means bringing together providers in promotion and marketing to contribute to the realization of the concept of sustainable tourism in practice. Organic farming with its environmentally friendly products is one of the most important pillars of eco-tourism in Slovenia.

## **CONCLUSION**

The significance of environmental factors and natural environments in regard to tourist demand has increased. This demand pattern has encouraged tourist enterprises to consider the importance of sustainable tourism development including at the micro business level. The sustainable tourism development in the case of organic farms in Slovenia, which is considered one of the EU countries with the greatest degree of successful implementation of organic and environmentally responsible tourism was investigated. Of all the providers of tourist services in promoting eco-tourism the most prominent are farmhouses. Of 195 registered tourist farms in Slovenia, 46, 23.6% are organic. On the other hand only 3 hotels in Slovenia are eco-certificated, 1.8% of a total of 164.

By analyzing the supply of organic farms in Slovenia, better insight obtained into the state of ecological tourism on Slovenian organic farms. Many similarities among the offer on individual farms exist; therefore they should put more emphasis in specialization and integration of supply and thus complement the tourist offer and image with new products in the tourist regions. Better organization and more detailed collection of data would yield a clearer picture of the actual state of tourism on farms. More detailed collection of data would be helpful to the institutions that could facilitate the scientific monitoring of the farm, identify their problems and advise them as to how to solve them. The survey was also used to determine the developmental orientation of some farms and indicated that there is a great need for capital and grants from the European Union, for which the operators correctly note that this takes a lot of knowledge, time and administration. Great potential for development of

tourism in Slovenia is reflected in nature-friendly tourism, which is becoming more and more popular with modern tourists. Despite the identified shortcomings, Slovenian eco-tourism on farms is relatively well developed and deserves better promotion in foreign markets.

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# THE ROLE OF CULTURE REGENERATION IN IRAN'S SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT OF RURAL TOURISM

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## ABSTRACT

The tourism industry is one of the important factors causing alleviation of poverty, job- creation and social interaction, and is included among low cost and pure activities in the countries. Despite these important aspects of this industry, countries still need to get good understanding and have comprehensive plans for the tourism market. Whereas, Iran's civilizations dates back to 7000 years ago, in order to reach tourists having preferences for the historical, cultural and natural resources there may be a need for cultural regeneration. For this reason, in this paper, a deliberate discussion of the sustainable cultural tourism and relative events is provided and used to benchmark with Iran's rural areas. Also the deliberate positive and negative points in the sustainable tourism field, which has been seen as one new phenomenon on countries with cultural plans developed in recent decades, may lead us to the cultural sustainable development of the rural field.

**Key Words:** cultural regeneration, sustainable development, Iran's rural tourism management

## GENDERED STRATEGIES TOWARDS A LADIES' MARKET IN GOLF

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### ABSTRACT:

Golf started as a “man’s game” and is still perceived as a bastion of male exclusivity. Yet, women are willing to play: considering they outlive men, are known as better consumers and are presently more attracted to open air activities, women may contribute to the economic development of this industry. Through a qualitative analysis of Portuguese women’s perceptions about gender inequities in golf, this paper highlights a number of facilitators and constraints to their participation, which mostly relies on golf facilities. The factors presented are of utmost importance to define strategies to reduce gender-based discriminatory practices/behaviours on the golf courses.

**Keywords:** gender, golf-course policy, facilitator /constraint factors.

### INTRODUCTION

Originally considered very elitist, golf started as a “man’s game” (Maas & Haasbrook, 2001), and is still perceived as one of the last bastions of male exclusivity (Chambers, 1995). “Older males retire to the golf course and take their more traditional values with them” (McGinnis et al., 2009:32). Well-known golf clubs neither admitted the entrance of women nor accepted any female memberships, and some of them still persist in this exclusion. For centuries, golf was played mostly by men. Nevertheless, since the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, famous women have excelled in this sport and made their way through this male dominated activity. From an upper-class sport (Flannery & Leech, 2004; Tinkler, 2004), golf evolved into leisure tourism. Recent research by Haig-Muir (2000), Kaczynski & Henderson (2007), Lloyd & Little (2010), McGinnis et al. (2003; 2005; 2009), McGinnis & Gentry (2006), Miller & Brown (2005), Parry & Shinew (2004), Roster (2007) and Shaw (1994), asserts that profound social and psychological barriers and constrains continue, inducing behaviour differences rooted on cultural, traditional and social values; female golfers had and still have to overcome prejudice in order to be accepted (Crane 1991; Kahn 1996; Tinkler 2004). However, the persistent growth of women’s participation clearly indicates that women are willing to play golf, despite the gender-based policies still prevailing in this activity. Having realized the importance of this potential market, golf marketers and stakeholders are engaging in several women-friendly practices that welcome women to the golf courses. The present research, carried out in Portugal, intends to highlight these changes and advance strategies that may help create a better environment to enhance the women participation.

The Ecological Systems Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; 1992), and the three dimensional Factors (interpersonal, intrapersonal and structural) advanced by Crawford & Godbey (1987), sustained by the Constraints/Facilitators paradigm (Jackson, 1997; Raymore, 2002) build the adequate theoretical framework for the present research. By identifying a set of factors that motivate or inhibit Portuguese women to participate in golf, this study aims to understand their option for the game and to offer suggestions that can be adopted for changing some of the golf courses’ organizational policies. The study is supported by interpretative analysis of 22 in-depth interviews. The findings will result in guidelines which will contribute to reduce gender-based discriminatory practices and behaviours in the golf courses.

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The present study is embedded on the Ecological Systems Theory (henceforth EST) by Bronfenbrenner, (1979; 1992), and the three dimensional Factors (interpersonal, intrapersonal and structural) advanced by Crawford & Godbey (1987), sustained by the Constraints/Facilitators paradigm (Jackson, 1997; Raymore, 2002).

The EST suggests that “one can only understand the individual by understanding his or her environment”. An ecological perspective of human development relates to the contexts in which individuals exist, and reflects the

influence of several environmental systems; of these, micro and macro systems are the most significant. The micro system incorporates the living context of the individual (i) – intrapersonal - and the interactions between individuals (ii) – interpersonal. The macro system enfolds the social structures of the society in which individuals live (iii) - structural. The (i) intrapersonal factors concern the inner self of the individuals and consist of their characteristics, fears and beliefs. Some of the intrapersonal factors identified by the literature are: one's childhood, personality traits, or particular life experiences, past experiences and personal performance (Raymore 2002). The (ii) interpersonal factors are related to social interactions established among individuals and comprise family, groups of reference, strangers and opinion leaderships/market mavens (Raymore 2002). The (iii) structural factors are external factors that inhibit participation, such as institutions, infra-structures, socio-economic status, social background, money, gender and race (Raymore 2002). The 3D factors (i, ii, iii) relate, interconnect and influence each other, specially the intra and interpersonal dimensions. They all function as constraints or/and facilitators for the decision to participate in leisure, consequently, in golf. In fact, Raymore proposes a new formulation of the definition of "facilitator" using a direct adaptation of Jackson's (1997) definition of constraints: "Facilitators to leisure are factors that are assumed by researchers and perceived or experienced by individuals to enable or promote the formation of leisure preferences and to encourage or enhance participation" (2002:39). Simply put, facilitators to leisure promote the formation of leisure preferences and encourage participation. Moreover, Raymore advances that "constraints and facilitators are not always polar opposites, (...) suggesting that the absence of constraints does not necessarily facilitate participation" (2002:40). Many researchers applied the facilitators/constraints proposal to leisure preferences and sports, broadening the understanding of women's leisure choices: Callan & Thomas, (2006); Carroll & Alexandris, (1997); Gilbert & Hudson, (2000); Haig-Muir, (2000); Kaczynski & Henderson, (2007); Lloyd & Little, (2010); McGinnis et al., (2009); McGinnis & Gentry, (2006); Miller & Brown, (2005); Parry & Shinew, (2004); Roster, (2007); Shaw, (1994), to name just a few.

Aiming to understand to what extent and in what way Portuguese women golfers are aware or perceive the influence of such factors, and drawing from the studies cited above, the present investigation mapped out 3 sets of factors to establish the necessary guidelines to build the interview script.

## Facilitators and Constraints

In order to motivate women to the practice of golf, marketers and managers need to be better informed about what factors are responsible for "keeping women away from the greens" and what can be done to change this status quo. Several authors (Gilbert & Hudson, 2000; Haig-Muir (2000); Kaczynski & Henderson, 2007; McGinnis & Gentry, 2006; Miller & Brown, 2005) identified *motivation, past experiences* and *knowledge/ability – self-esteem* as the most prevalent intrapersonal factors. Depending on women's background, these factors may function as facilitators or constrains to leisure in general or the practice of golf in particular. The most recurrent interpersonal factors these authors highlighted were powerful constraints: *Gender norms* and "**the ethics of care**" (the traditional role of women taking care of others before attending to their own needs) (Gillian, 1982). These practices are so enrooted on tradition that they have become almost "invisible forces". Conversely, also as interpersonal factors, *family and friends' support* function as facilitators that may induce regular practice and good achievement results. However, the literature reveals that the structural factors are among the strongest and more frequent inhibitors to women's participation: a traditional society may persist in the exclusion of women, or take the subtler shape of: (a) *cultural/social attitude* – e.g. men showing their dislike of women's presence on the course, exposing that they do not like to be beaten by women; men's tendency to give unsolicited advice to women playing, making them feel uncomfortable; men complaining that women slow down the game (see McGinnis & Gentry, 2006). (b) *money* is still perceived as a strong constraint (golf is still an expensive game); (c) *time* is a factor that clearly penalizes women more than men: golf is very time consuming and women do not feel entitled to leisure time as comfortably as men do; (d) *proximity* – although Kaczynski & Henderson, (2007) state that the concept of proximity needs to be better defined (as it can be measured in distance and/or time *from-to*), for some women, mainly if they have children, the geographic location of home/work place and proximity to the golf courses is quite important; These following factors were widely studied by researchers, and can be found from USA (see McGinnis & Gentry, 2006) to Australia (Haig-Muir, 2000): (e) *course policies and conduciveness* (women are not allowed to play during the busiest times), (f) *on-course interactions* (personnel attending women differently) or (g) *merchandise discrepancies* (highly male-orientated), to name just a few.

## METHODS

The structural factors are the most pertinent for the present study. The in-depth interviews intended to confirm whether women players in Portugal identify these factors as constraints and also to understand how women perceive the enabling factors. The present study examines 22 in-depth interviews and lays on a theoretical sampling approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; McCracken, 1988; Ragin, 1994; Woodside, MacDonald, &

Burford, 2005). The sampling strategy used is not to offer representativeness, but to focus on exploring and describing facilitators and constraints that a specific group of Portuguese female golfers acknowledged. In-depth interviews are the most appropriate technique to get a holistic interpretation of the interviewees, their past and present contexts, and their decision to participate in golf. The interviews were conducted in Portuguese at the clubhouses or at a location suggested by the interviewees. Duration of the interviews ranged from 1h30 to 5 hours and they were all recorded and transcribed. The participants are all women, from 14 to 67 years old; married (14) and single (8); with children (11) and without children (11); students (3), employed (14) and retired (5); golf experience ranges from no-handicap (“I joined the game because my husband likes it very much”) to the Professional and Amateur national champions. Out of the 110 Professionals in Portugal, 4 are women and they were also interviewed.

Table 1  
Sampling Stratification

Age	Marital status	Children	Golf experience
14-67	14 - Married	11 – With children	<b>Ranging from:</b> 2 - National Champions (Pro + Am)
	8 - Single/ Divorced	11 – Without children	4 - Golf Professionals 16 – from HC 2.5 to Without handicap

## FINDINGS

The previously mentioned intrapersonal and interpersonal factors advanced by the literature were present in all interviews but for this paper, and bearing in mind the relevance of understanding how Portuguese women perceive what facilitates or inhibits their choice for golf, the structural factors become of the utmost importance. Interviewees were asked to speak freely about their participation. Findings reveal that many respondents seem to be unaware of subtle gender asymmetries but during the conversation they confirmed that golf is still a very male-orientated sport. The (a) **cultural/social attitude** can be translated in attitudes like the *men’s tendency to give unsolicited advice to women playing*, making them feel uncomfortable. Some respondents referred that they feel very upset when men do that but others considered that “men try to help, they are not offensive”. Regarding the remark *women slow down the game*, interviewees said that it is not true, as women are more precise and they may be better in the short game. The respondents’ attitudes also diverged: some women admit get distressed: “I hate rushing my game but sometimes I do it, just to avoid their comments” and others behave differently: “I place myself in position very quickly so men do not complain...”.

Finally, *non acceptance of men to be beaten by women* was mostly pointed out by the 2 Champions during the interviews.

MO said:

*Men don’t like me to start from the front tees...*

But JO admitted:

*I think I should start from their tees, since I play much better than many of them... and I am very tall and hit the ball very, very far...*

One of the Professionals remembers when she started coaching:

*They looked at me and didn’t like the idea of being coached by a woman; even knowing I had been the national champion for some years. Only after seeing my drive, they started showing more respect.*

A woman (handicap 15.3) laughs when she says:

*For a while I played in a “week-end” group that joined men and women of different ages and after two or three times, an older gentleman asked the organization to change him from my group because, he said, “I don’t like to be systematically beaten by the same young lady...”*

Furthermore, the interviews also reveal that:

(b) **Money**: the majority of respondents believe that, even though golf is still an expensive sport, it is “an option we either make or not make” and things are changing with the introduction of “special agreements”. (c) **Time** is perceived as a strong constraint, especially by women with young children or adolescents. (d) **Proximity** is mostly important for this range of respondents, as others find it very challenging to play in different courses, some quite distant from their homes. (e) **On-course interactions** (personnel attending women differently) were not a clear issue for the respondents, but Claudia (a Professional who owns a Golf Academy and works with her father) states:

*I don't like to teach couples in the same class, because many husbands tend to “teach” their wives in front of me and sometimes not even correctly, as they are also learning how to play. When I hear a husband telling her wife off, I try to put them in separate classes, because I realized wives tend to stagnate their evolution and lose interest. But I am not sure that my male colleagues would react in the same way, for most of the times they don't understand the problem...*

(f) **Course policies and conduciveness** (women are not allowed to play on any of the busiest times) differs very much according to the areas where golf courses are situated: Lisbon and Oporto areas function on a membership system, while the Algarve depends mainly on tourism, i.e. groups of foreigners that are allocated the best starting times.

(g) **Merchandise discrepancies**: some club pro-shops still display a reduced number of female products, e.g. just gloves and t-shirts. In the Algarve, that reality is changing rapidly and both diversity and shop display are now quite women-friendly. One of the interviewees, who is a commercial director of three golf courses, summarized:

*Women buy more clothes and accessories to match, while men are keener on equipment, latest clubs/items that will improve their performance.*

## DISCUSSION

Data from respondents confirm the examples found in the literature such as: “For women, options like child-minding facilities, more nine-hole competitions, and holding some serious events on weekends, or late afternoons in summer offer substantial benefits and flexibility to groups of golfers whose needs are not met by the present system” (Haig-Muir, 2000:76). Other suggestions were put forward in the interviews, such as: not only children but “family” supportive environment in the clubhouses (leisure areas, facilities for grand-parents and children) or even a nearby/adjacent sports-complex offering tennis or swimming-pool premises. Men may argue that this is not the “spirit” of golf, but more and more women are deciding the family leisure times. In addition, the service providers (restaurant/bars/ shops) that are often explored separately will experience business increase. Practical proposals like toilette facilities along the course (every six holes) are already being implemented in some recently built golf courses. A Swedish lady living in Portugal recalls: “washing the balls is part of the rules of etiquette but only the men's tees have these features, so many women don't even learn this”. Almost all women happily offered ideas for expanding merchandize products: “make up, perfume, accessories like watches, bracelets, bags and even sun lotion, we hardly ever think of that...”

## CONCLUSION

This paper is only the beginning of a much larger study that should be carried out about the Portuguese women who participate in golf, as many solutions can be found in order to increase their participation. Golf marketers and managers could benefit from these analyses and follow suggestions to motivate women to this practice. The findings of this first attempted research indicate considerable similarities to previous studies presented in literature, showing that the structural factors are strong inhibitors of women's participation in golf. By asking women how this status quo can be altered, this study points out some trends that may be adopted by golf marketers and club managers.

Whereas the results of this study are significant, limitations should be recognized and potential future research directions outlined. First, the qualitative nature of the research, even if providing greater meaning to the results and evidence of gender-based practices makes it difficult to attribute findings to women outside of the study sample. Thus further research will be needed.

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## ELDERLY LEISURE TRAVEL BARRIERS: EXAMPLE OF DENIZLI

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### ABSTRACT

Elderly traveling (on vacation) contains more constraints than the other adult persons. The aim of the research is to find out barriers that affect travel decision and travel risks of seniors. Data were obtained by questionnaire from individuals who living in villages, towns, and center at Denizli. Elderly travel barriers are measured by the answers to Likert type sentences. The answers to sentences are based on a 5 degree scale between “definitely agree” and “definitely disagree”. 307 elderly people constitute the sampling population of the research that reside these regions. Factor analysis was performed to reduce the number of variables, regression was performed to find out of factors that effect on the travel risks too. As a result of the inquiry, physical barriers were found as only factor that effect travel risks.

**Key Words:** Elderly, travel barriers, travel constraints, travel risks, consumer behavior, tourism.

### INTRODUCTION

55 years age and older consumers is a growing segment of tourism for the last two decades. According to the population projections in 2034 26% of Europe’s population will be over 60 years old. It is estimated that more than two-thirds of the increase of senior population will be in developed countries (Aydın and Gursahbaz, 2001). Turkiye is one of the countries that have rapidly growing population. It is known that Turkiye has a faster population growth than all European countries. In spite of this an important part of population of Turkiye is composed of elders like other countries. Although there have been a younger generation in Turkiye according to western industrialized countries, still 5.5% of population is over 65 years old. This proportion ranged from 15% to 20% of general population in developed western countries (Pakdil, 2001). Many of these mature adults are retired, equipped with freedom and financial means of travel (Gladwell and Bedini, 2004). Cause their children are not tied to them and investment on family and children has finished (Anderson and Langmeyer, 1992; Chon and Singh, 1995). Thus seniors compose an important segment of tourism market with expanding leisure time and household income (Fleischer and Pizam, 2002). Increasing travel ability maintains seniors to reach farther distances. Having further potential increases their travel ability. These travels maintain sustainable social relation (Urry, 2003). Situation is far more different than Europe in Turkiye. Increasing economic difficulties, financial losses makes life even more difficult by getting older. Great majority of retired women looks after her grandchildren in terms of economic difficulties of younger. Men often look for a second job to sustain life. Many factors may be considered to form barriers with physiological losses brought by old age for holiday.

Travel and tourism is an important factor that connects seniors to social life that suffered a loss of status. Aging population of countries, especially developed countries, importance to the investigation of travel constraints put forth once again. Understanding constraints of this market segment is vitally important for establishments in this sector for their satisfaction. Therefore it is necessary to understand and overcome the constraints of the seniors on holidays and help them overcome.

### LITERATURE

In developed countries, after 55 years age constraints vary in different directions. Increasing income until to retirement age, having retirement compensation, children leaving home and holiday payment increases travel ability. In retirement while leisure time increases, health status acts just contrary. Previous researches show many constraints for seniors to join tourism activities. Timelessness, inactive financial resources, bad health status, etc. Researches show that constraints are not only these. These are; external resources: (lack of information, over planning, ineffective use of money, not convenient transportation), time factor: (lack of travel time, need of work, being busy with other things), confirmation (lack of family and friends confirmation, feeling

guilty because of travel, being afraid of inappropriate holiday place), social: (spouses travel enjoyment, not having an accompaniment, not having a travel interest); physical function: (lack of energy, bad health status, being too old for travel or disabled)(McGuire, 1984). Mayo and Jarvis (1985), Mc Guire, Dottavio and O'leary (1986), and Blazey (1987) define constraints as physical and emotional cost, lack of information, health status and perceived inability. In a research by Hong, Kim and Lee (1999), it is determined that economic factors like income after tax and race, education status and marital status are effective on joining travel. At the same time there is increase on expenditure budget with increasing age.

A research by Romsa and Blenman (1989) on older Germans put out age as an important constraint. They have determined age and holiday period inversely proportional. They have determined socio-economic, physical and psychological constraints, older tourists' behaviour as important factors. Getting on holiday and recreational experiences decrease by the age. More precise physical structure of seniors has impact on choice of resort and holiday activity. Another research on travel and seniors by Teaff and Turpin (1996) has put forward that older American tourist's often travel long distances and trust in travel agents more than younger age groups. They determined that retired tourists are constraint because of age perception, loss of ability and health status. Another research about age and travel is belongs to Paez (2009). He investigates the affect of age and travel distance by different modes of transportation on decision making. Results seem to support previous findings. It is determined that car driving older shorten travel distances as getting older.

Smeltzer (1997) investigates constraints on urban travel experience by the elderly. It is determined that the majority of seniors rely on taxis to meet their transportation and seniors who live in retirement homes need for the assistant of someone. It is recommended that seniors use taxi at a subsidized rate thus need of seniors for public transportation would be less.

Fleischer and Pizam (2002) in the research that aim to determine the factors that affect Israeli seniors on deciding different holiday period, determined that travel duration of seniors vary according to age. Between the age of 55 to 65 expanding leisure time and increased household income cause an increase in the number of vacation days taken. In the older age group (65+) declining incomes and deterioration of health cause a decrease in the number of vacation days taken. Gladwell and Bedini (2004) investigate the impact of care giving on the leisure travel behaviours of family caregivers and their care recipients. The results determined that emotional barriers, especially concern of unknown causes deep stress on care givers and decreases vacation plan on some occasions. As a result of analysis three main barriers determined for holiday. These barriers are physical (leisure travel included accessibility of facilities and services, time to prepare, mobility, and energy), social (financial, familial personal service support) and emotional (fear of the unknown, loss of freedom, and loss of spontaneity). Nimrod (2008) examines central themes in travelling retirees' perceptions of tourism and travel and put out five different subjects. One of them is travel constraints. Health problem, need of care giving, limited income and lack of travel spouse are determined as travel constraints.

Kattiyapornpong and Miller (2009) investigates the effect of socio-demographic constraints on dimension of travel choice. They determined that age, income and life stage have significant differential and interactive effects on travel behaviour. They also determined that socio-demographic variables act in different ways to constrain/free different types of travel behaviour. However there are significant levels of travel by even the most constrained groups as well as significant amounts of non-travel by the least constrained sectors of society.

Ipingbemi (2010) investigates the travel characteristic and mobility crisis of the elderly in Ibadan Metropolis in Nigeria. He determined significant differences in terms of travel time and travel cost in three different zones. Vehicle design, long access and waiting time as well as poor facilities at the terminals were identified as constraints to the effective mobility of the elderly.

Allegre, Mateo and Pou (2010) examine the importance of households' budget constraints as a barrier to participation in tourism. They analyse Spanish household for this purpose. The results of the analysis demonstrate that budget constraints on tourist travel are important affect. The results also show that this type of constraint is not only conditioned by the level of income, but by a more complex appraisal that also includes other financial variables, such as households' saving capacity or the unemployment status of its members. Furthermore, non-financial variables, such as the level of education, age, and barriers associated with poor health status, all help to determine the degree of importance with which households perceive their budget constraints.

As seen in literature review there is many factors that affect on seniors leisure travel. But most of these are researches of developed countries. There hasn't been any study about seniors in Turkiye about this subject. It is tried to be tested if the constraints of developed countries are same for Turkish seniors. The objective of this study is to determine the factors affect Turkish (Denizli) seniors in deciding to go on vacations.

## METHOD

### Sampling

In order to keep the light on the communication problems experienced by the elderly, the number of residents in the province of Denizli is 488.768 (<http://www.denizli.gov.tr/denizli/genelbilgiler.htm>). The number of 55 years old and over seniors is not known. Sampling size is determined as 384 with a 5% sampling error (Yazicioglu & Erdogan; Ural & Kilic, 2005). Random sampling method was used. Surveys were distributed according to data taken from reeve. As a result of application, some of the surveys omitted due to lack of data in preparation to analysis, and some of them omitted after data entry as a result of extreme value analysis. 307 surveys were suitable for analysis. Data were collected in 2009. Time and financial constraints cause narrow sampling.

### Data Collection Tools

Data was obtained by survey that is prepared by researchers based on literature. Pamukkale University Denizli Vocational School students have been used as as pollster. Surveys were applied face to face with visit to houses. Survey consists of two parts. First part consists of 18 questions to find out demographic structure of seniors. Second part is consists of 31 attitude sentences to determine travel constraints of seniors and these sentences evaluated by 5 likert scale. This scale is from 5 (I definitely agree) to 1 (I definitely disagree).

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Senior Tourists

Demographic characteristics	Sayı	%
Age		
55-64	142	46.3
65-74	97	31.6
75 +	68	22.1
Gender		
Male	132	43.0
Female	175	57.0
Marital Status		
Married	198	64.5
Never married	7	2.3
Divorced	13	4.2
Widowed	89	29.0
Total monthly income		
-500	142	46.3
500-1.999	97	31.6
2000+	68	22.1
Education		
Illiteratel	72	23.5
Primary school	152	49.5
Secondary school	39	12.7
High school	27	8.8
Bachelors	17	5.5
Working status		
Retired	171	55.7
Working	22	7.2
Never worked	114	37.1
Neediness of care		
Yes	42	13.7
No	264	86.3
Whom lived at the moment		
Alone	81	26.4
Together with spouse	140	45.8
Together with spouse and children	66	21.6
With relatives	19	6.2

## Data Analysis

Data was analyzed by SPSS 11.0. To test the reliability of scale, item-total correlation (cronbach's alpha) was calculated and reliability coefficient was found as 0.77. This rate shows that scale has a high reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). For the content validity of scale expert opinion consulted. To measure sampling adequacy of research, sample adequacy was found as 0,873 as a result of KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measuring of sampling adequacy) test, this shows that research sampling is a good criterion. In literature Kaiser value closer to the 1 is excellent, below 0.50 is not acceptable (0,90 excellent, 0,80 very good, 0,70 and 0,60 fair, 0,50 bad) (Tavsancil, 2005). In factor analysis, distribution of universe is expected to be normal. This is examined by Bartlett test. Bartlett test of significance value was found as 0,00. All factors variance explanation rate must be over 60%. These results show that data is suitable for factor analysis. Factor analysis was done to reduce the number of variables and regression analysis was done to determine the elements preventing seniors to go on a journey. Demographic information of seniors were evaluated by frequency analysis.

As seen in table 1 seniors consists of , 46.3% between 55-64 years old, 31.6% between 65-74 years old, 22.1% 75 years old and older. 43% of seniors are male, 57% are woman. 64.5% of seniors are married and 35.5% lives alone for different reasons. Their incomes are as follows; 46.3% less than 500TL, 31.6% 500-1999TL, 22.1% is 2000TL and more. 23.5% of seniors are not literate. 49.5% are primary school graduate, 12.7% are secondary school graduates, 8.8% high school graduates and 5.5% have bachelor's degree. 55.7% of seniors are retired, 7.2% of them are still working, and 37.1% of seniors have never worked. 86.3% of seniors are not dependent and 23.7% needs care. While 73.6% of seniors are living with someone, 26.4% are living alone.

## FINDINGS

Table 2: Factors

Factors	Factor loadings	eigenvalue	Defined percentage difference
<b>Factor 1: Bureaucratic obstacle</b>		5.260	26.300
T16: If I had wider opportunity, I would like to participate in tourism and travel	0.757		
T17: I very much like to travel around the world	0.762		
T20: I would like to travel various places in case someone will come along me	0.691		
T21: I would like to travel abroad if there is not any bureaucratic difficulties such as language, passport, visa.	0.806		
T22: I would like to see where my relatives live in the country or abroad.	0.806		
T23: I would like to go places that I have never seen and know in the country or abroad.	0.766		
T25: I have the habit of travelling since youngster.	0.672		
<b>Factor 2: Environment obstacle</b>		3.356	16.782
T13: I feel insecure outside of my region	0.509		
T19: After a certain age there is no need to travel, people should stay in.	0.684		
T24: I don't like long-term journey, I miss home.	0.697		
T30: I prefer to leave my children and Grand children inherit instead of spending on journey	0.684		
T31: I prefer not to travel because of negative reactions around me.	0.697		
<b>Factor 3: Health obstacle</b>		1.593	7.966
T4: My physical strength prevents travel	0.773		
T6: I can't travel due to continuous medical care	0.794		
T7: I can not deal with problems encountered in travel.	0.693		
T9: I think to participate in travelling If necessary precautions are taken for my health	0.498		
<b>Factor 4: Safety obstacle</b>		1.181	5.904
T13: I feel insecure outside of my region	0.462		
T15: I only travel to close areas (within same province)	0.659		
T28: I prefer to travel less crowded places.	0.726		
<b>Faktör 5: Lonliness obstacle</b>		1.001	5.004
T2: My family can not do without me. I can not leave them and go anywhere.	0.677		
T5: I don't like going somewhere alone.	0.798		

Total explained variance: 0.62 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling value 0.873

As seen in the table factor loadings differ between 0.46 and 0.81. Factor loadings for 150 and more observations must be 0.45 and above. If it is above 0.50, it is considered to be quite good (hair et al., 2006). Thus statements that factor loadings are 0.45 and below were not evaluated. Disclosure of the total variance in bureaucratic

obstacle factor is 26.300, environment obstacle factor is 16.782, health obstacle factor is 7.966, safety obstacle factor is 5.904, loneliness obstacle factor is 5.004.

Regression analysis was used to examine affects of independent variable on dependent variables. As dependent variables in regression analysis “travelling is a risk” statement was taken. As independent variable bureaucratic obstacle, environment obstacle, health obstacle, safety obstacle and loneliness obstacle was taken as a result of factor analysis.

Table 3: Regression Analysis of Travel Obstacle Factors

variables	T 8: Travelling is a risk		
	Beta	t	Sig
(Fixed)		1.485	.139
Faktör1: bureaucratic obstacle	.008	.169	.866
Faktör 2: environment obstacle	.080	1.344	.180
Faktör 3: health obstacle	<b>.517</b>	<b>9.953</b>	<b>.000</b>
Faktör 4: safety obstacle	.079	1.350	.178
Faktör 5: loneliness obstacle	-.003	-.070	.945

R Square = 0.340

Regression analysis revealed that importance of independent variable on dependent variables is 0.34 (R Square =0.329)

For “Travelling is a risk” statement, F value=30.887 and p=0.000 importance level and shows that model is fully significant. As a result of the analysis health obstacle is found as the only factor that prevents to go on vacation (b=0.517, t=9.953, p=0.00).

## CONCLUSION

It is always controversial in Turkiye that retirees cover their needs with pensions from social security institutions. There are many people who are not included in such a social security system. Therefore post-retirement working rate is high. Hence, retirees in our country can not participate in domestic tourism (Ozdipciner, 2004). Most of the retirees in Turkiye are at middle-income level, 3.aged tourism can be dealt as social tourism (Kucukaltan, 1991). In this situation public camps can be used. Because they don't have the possibility of having vacation on a luxurious tourism establishment with their current income. In addition they don't have physical designing's and activities for seniors. A holiday like this does not have any contribution to tourism. In terms of international tourism, a great majority involves in faith tourism. In this context, the presidency of religious affairs of the republic of Turkiye could be seen as the biggest tour operator. In this case factors that are barriers to their travel must be identified. In the study bureaucracy, environment, health status, security and loneliness are determined as travel constraints of seniors in Denizli as a result of factor analysis. Health status is determined as basic factor that affect their travel as a result of regression analysis. Seniors put forth barriers for travel like lack of physical strength, need of continuous medical supervision, inability to face challenges and they stated that they can get to holiday in case medical measures are taken for their health.

In case of the companies in Turkiye responds the needs of this segment, they have the probability of being in a bigger market. Because this study is restricted with Denizli, it is not likely to tell that health is the only barrier. Later studies with larger population, travel constraints of seniors in Turkiye can be determined more clearly.

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# A SURVEY OF BUDDHISM BASED TOURISM: A CASE OF PRA NANGPRAYA AMULETS AND RELICS OF PHITSANULOK PROVINCE.

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to study the history and importance of Phra Nangpraya amulets and Buddhist relics in Phitsanulok, examine the tourists' interest and ways of visiting these, and develop a tourist manual both in Thai and English. It was found that Phra Nangpraya amulets were first discovered at Wat Nangpraya. These Phra Nangpraya amulets were famous nationwide as one of the five amulets "Benchaphakree". They were created twice. First, they were created by Prawisutikasat, King Pramahathummaracha's queen who was a King Nareasuan's mother. Then, they were created by King Nareasuan the Great. The two types of Phra Nangpraya were in a triangle-shape. The big model were the bending-knee model, the straight-knee model and the big-chest model. The small type were the small-chest model, the god-shape model and the sangkhati model. In relation to their impacts, it is believed that they give the holders charms, protection, happiness and wealth. The study also indicated that the Buddha relics had been found inside the main Chedi at Wat Ratchaburan and Wat Senat. These relics were thought to have brought by Pramahalailai. The study suggested 3 routing of visitors: Wat Nangpraya to study the history of Phra Nangpraya amulet, Wat Ratchaburana to worship the Buddha relics, and Wat Senat to water-worship the relics. Finally, it was found that many tourists were interested in Buddhist-based tourism and most of them knew Phra Nangpraya amulets and the Buddha relics through advertisement and would like to learn about these by guided tour and tourist manual.

**Key Words:** Buddhism-based tourism, Phra Nangpraya amulets, Buddha relics, Phitsanulok Province.

## INTRODUCTION

Tourism industry in Thailand is considered important by the government. It is the main strategy to bring income for the economic system quickly. The government prioritized tourism industry in the national development plan and aimed at promoting Thailand the tourism capital of Asia in 2008 because of its quality tourism destination.

Phitsanulok is a province in the lower north of Thailand which has potential in tourism. Therefore, the province's vision and strategy focus on tourism. For example, there is a plan to develop the province to become Indo-China intersection and the center of conferences in the lower north of Thailand focusing on providing tourism services. In addition, the government sectors of the province now promote cultural tourism.

Buddhist amulets are interesting cultural artifacts because there are a variety of amulets around Thailand such as "Benchaphakhee" amulets. They are sacred objects in among Buddhists. They are miniatures created to represent Lord Buddha. They can be produced in a large number because they are very small. In the past they were produced to put inside a chedi or stupa to commemorate Lord Buddha. It is believed that when Buddhism becomes worse in the future, people still can see these representative models of Lord Buddha. In the past, Thai people also used these sacred amulets to protect themselves when they went into wars. Nowadays, they wear them with a necklace everyday to protect themselves.

Besides the amulets and other historical sites of Phitsanulok, there are Buddhist relics with a thousand-year history. A study of these and tourism can be a way to transfer knowledge of Buddhism, which is the main Thai religion, to many other Thai people and foreign tourists. Because of the lack of promotion of Buddhism tourism and good management, few tourists know about these interesting attractions of the province.

Because of the lack of promotion of Buddhism tourism and good management, few tourists know about these interesting attractions of the province. The researchers would like to study the history of these and find a new tourism route for Phitsanulok focusing on suggesting models for interested people to visit Phitsanulok to see Buddhist amulets and relics, and then develop manuals to guide them to visit these interesting places. Eventually, it is hoped that these places will be renovated to be sustainable tourism attractions of the province.

## Objectives

1. To study the history and importance of Phra Nangphraya and Buddhist relics of Phitsanulok
2. To survey new route and ways of visiting Phra Nangphraya and Buddhist relics of Phitsanulok
3. To examine the Thai and foreign tourists' interests in these two attractions
4. To develop a tourist manual

## Research methods

This study was a survey and qualitative research. The data were collected by documentary research, a questionnaire, and in-depth interview. The questionnaire was administered with 400 tourists visiting Phitsanulok selected by accidental sampling. These tourists visited the province from January to September which was the high season. In 1997 there were 316,905 tourists visiting Phitsanulok (Thai Tourism Statistics Division, 1997). The data were analyzed by percentage and descriptive analysis. The in-depth interviews were conducted with monks, abbots, scholars in amulets, amulets salespersons, government officials, tourism agencies and related organizations. The data of the interviews were checked by data triangulation and content analysis.

## Results

The history study found that Phitsanulok is historically important because Phra Nangphraya amulets were discovered at Wat Nangphraya in this province. They were unique cultural objects. It is believed that they were created twice. First, they were created by Phrawisuthikasat, King Phramahathammara's queen, who was King Naresuan's mother. Then, they were created by King Naresuan the Great. According to a legend, a hermit in white clothes volunteered to create small Buddha images to give to soldiers going to the battle. Phra Nangphraya amulets are believed to be able to offer charms, protection, good lucks, and wealth (Kritsanadilok, 2002). Now they are well-known nationwide as one of the five "Benchaphakhee." They are in a triangle shape. They can be grouped into 2 types: big and small. The big type has 3 models: bending-knee, straight-knee and big-chest. The 3 small type models are small-chest, god-shape and Sangkhati.

Table 1  
Style of Pranangpraya Amulets

Types	Models		
Big	Bending-knee	Straight-knee	Big-chest
Small	Sangkhati	God-shape	Small-chest

Adapted from [www.benjamulet.com](http://www.benjamulet.com)

Phra Nangphraya amulets were made of soil. The making of these is a local wisdom. To make these, there were sacred rites. They have been considered valuable in business especially the bending-knee model. This model is the most expensive, sometimes more than a 29 thousand US dollars. Therefore, the amulets are not only for the people to commemorate Lord Buddha and to protect themselves, but they are also expensive goods in the market. People usually watch these amulets in three aspects: the perfection of the whole amulet, the material, and the unique sign.

The Buddha relics were small parts of Lord Buddha such as hair, nails, teeth, skin and blood which are different from common people's parts. They look like pebbles or gem stones. They were discovered inside the main Chedi of Wat Rachaburana and Wat Senat in Phitsanulok.

The tour site for seeing Phra Nangphraya amulets is Wat Nangphraya, which is the place where Phra Nangphraya amulets were first discovered. This temple is opposite Wat Phrasirattanamahathat Woramahawiharn in the middle of the city. In this temple precincts, there are other interesting old constructions to visit. The first one is called "vihara." It is a brick building in Sukhothai architecture. Another one is a chedi used to keep Phra Nangphraya amulets and another smaller chedi which is believed to be built during the end of Ayuthaya dynasty or the beginning of Rattanakosin dynasty. There is also a Phra Nangphraya amulet market where interested people or amulet collectors can come to talk and share their experiences. They can buy and sell their amulets here. The price of the amulets depends on their satisfaction.

The research results suggest the two main tourist routes which are Wat Ratchaburana to worship the Buddha relics, and Wat Senat to water-worship the relics there. Wat Ratchaburana is located on Buddhachua Road in the middle of Phitsanulok city. It is believed that it was built during Sukhothai dynasty more six hundred years ago. It may have been the same temple as Wat Nangphraya because Phra Nangphraya amulets were also found

inside the chedi of this temple. The name of this wat or temple may be from King Lithai of Sukhothai who renovated this temple at that time.

There are several interesting things to visit in this place. First, inside the temple there are mural paintings telling a legend called “Ramayana.” Second, the main vihara is now used as a museum. Third, the main chedi was built in Ayuthaya architecture which is believed to keep Buddha relics. Fourth, silver and gold stairs are for people who believe that they can be lucky and wealthy and happy if they walk up the stairs. Fifth, the boat for Rama V, is for people who believe that they can have good health if they walk under this boat. Finally, herbal spa is for people who want to have good health and beautiful skin.

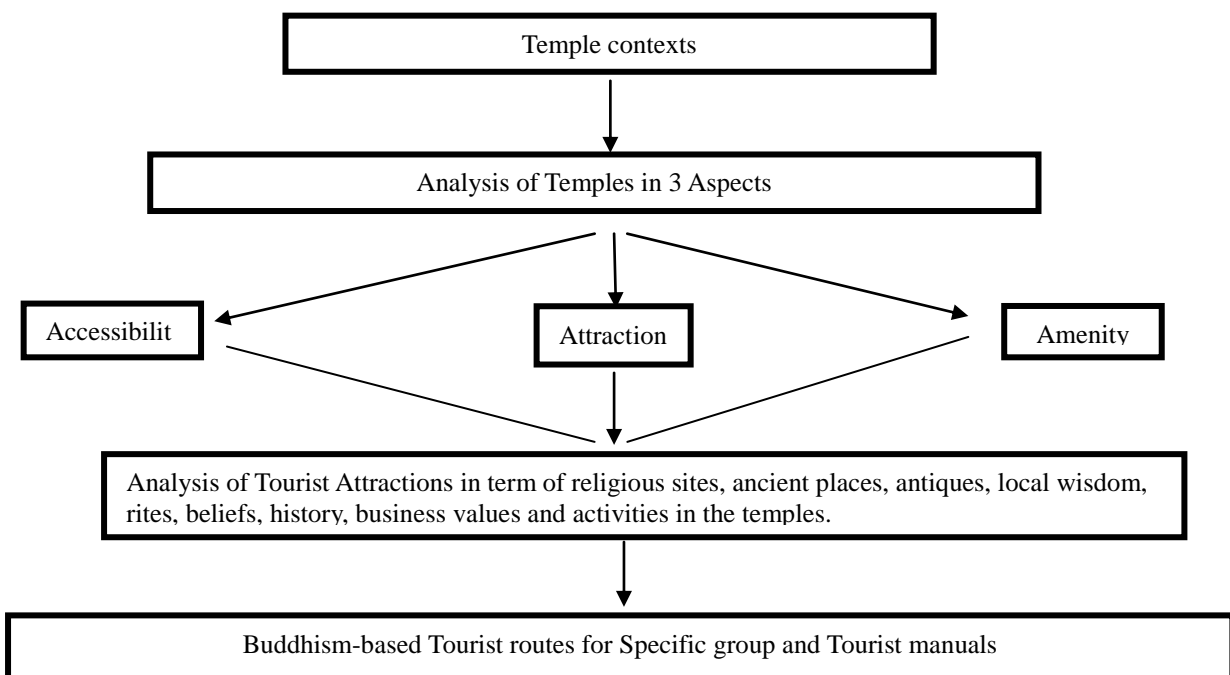
The second route is Wat Senat, which is located Tambon Tha-ngam, Amphoe Watbot, which is 20 kilometers from downtown Phitsanulok. The building time of this temple is not known. It is said that Phramahathenlailai brought 650 relics from Sri Lanka and then put them in different places. Thirty-six of them were kept in the main chedi of Wat Senat. Therefore, this temple may have been built more than a thousand years ago. Nowadays, there is a royal water-worship to the relics every year.

These data show the different levels of interests of the tourists in Phra Nangphraya amulets and Buddha relics in Phitsanulok about history of amulets and relics 90.1 %, the miracle of amulets and relics 63.8%, Local wisdom for making the amulets and relics 63.8 %, how to see the amulets 29.3%, value of amulets and relics 23.5%, amulets and relics’ picture 19.4% and tour guide 53.3%.

In addition, the researchers analyzed the opinions of 20 groups of related people and found that they thought that the three temples lack tourist facilities and advertisement of the information of the history of the places. They argued that the tourists should appreciate and understand Thai culture better when they visited the temples.

They also gave recommendation on Buddhism-based tourism management focusing on advertisement, awareness and ethic development, and tourist attraction conservation. The temples should be improved and prepared to serve the increasing number of Thai and foreign tourists. This recommendation is correspond to Burkart and Medlink (1981) who argued that the main factors of cultural tourism consist of attractions, accessibility, and amenity.

Figure 1  
Buddhism based Tourism Model



In conclusion, this model of tourism is interesting for people who are interested and appreciate Phra Nangphraya amulets and Buddha relics. Furthermore, tourism management should cooperate with every stakeholder in Buddhism-based tourism industry such as monks and other people who gain income from this industry. The amulet salespersons should work together to set up the provincial market. These temples can be tourist attractions because the tourists who come to visit the temples can also see the amulets, which leads to the

knowledge society of amulet history of the amulet sellers and buyers. These tourist attractions can increase a new number of tourists (niche market) throughout the country.

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Akaradej, K. (2002). *Pranangpaya Amulet*. Aksara Printing. Bangkok.

# AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON TOURISTS' PERCEPTIONS OF ABORIGINAL TOURISM

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine how motivational pull and push factors have effects on an individual's choice of aboriginal tours. An improved understanding of tourists' travel motivations explains their willingness to make aboriginal tours, which would help comprehend whether the information of the aboriginal cultures and the design of performances introduced in the theme park are able to make tourists impressive, and significantly influence their cognition of aboriginal cultures and then realize historical value and meaning.

## INTRODUCTION

After declaring martial law ended in 1980s, the Taiwan Government has been instilling multi-cultural development and an ethnic salad bowl as perspectives into the society. The Austronesian aborigines are the most long-standing tribes with languages and a cultural diversity which is fairly differentiable in Taiwan.

An improved understanding of tourists' travel motivations indicates their willingness to make aboriginal tours, which would help tourism marketers segment the markets and thereby allow them to allocate tourist resources more efficiently. As the most recognizable theory of 'push-pull factor' was introduced by Tolman (1959) and later by Dann (1977), the segmentation technique based on tourists' motivations would benefit this study because it could provide marketers with insights into the development and promotion of the aboriginal tours. The study explains push-pull theory by a marketing viewpoint; producers supply a push effect like merchandise or information to the consumers. Simultaneously, when consumers require merchandise or information offered by producers, a pull effect is able to hold an attraction for them as well, and it is connected with external stimulation. To speak more specifically, push factors are indicated that consumers need the products, and producers deliver them through an authentic or an imaginary way. On the other hand, pull factors are defined as communication among producers and consumers.

The contents of this study will put an emphasis on ethnicism, which is meant to understand the cultures and customs among every other. Through this way, the public can impressively experience the historical background of the other ethnic communities and relish the cultural heritage passed down by the ancestors, who had ever lived in the same land. After they evaluate the historical value and meaning (Rogler, Cooney & Ortiz, 1980; Pan, 2007), their cognition would motivate them to visit aboriginal cultures.

Previous studies have revealed that national holidays for certain ethnic communities not only celebrate their traditional cultures and commemorate the land with a sense of identification (de Bres & Davis, 2001), but also descend customs and demonstrate their innate uniqueness to the society. Because of these chances, it enables tourists, who are from a different cultural background, to go native and to experience the atmosphere of the original tradition throughout interaction with local inhabitants (Getz, 1989). Furthermore, festivals also offer the general public opportunities to realize and to learn different cultures, customs, tradition, and lifestyle of natives. These activities also reach the goal in understanding multi-culture and an ethnic salad bowl (Hall, 1993; Douglas *et al.*, 2001), and enhance inherence and recurrence of ethnic tradition. According to the references above, it is much confirmable to highlight the importance of advocating aboriginal heritage. Moreover, by way of intercommunication with aborigines, tourists conceive ethnicism and the model of cultures. Thus, the promotion of aboriginal cultures is a good opportunity for tourists to adjust their ethnicism and identification of cultures (Hsieh, 1994; Chang, 2004), and it also a fine moment for aborigines to pass down their tradition from one generation to another.

In accordance with the study purpose and the previous literatures on the main dimensions of presentation of aboriginal cultural activities, tourists' cognition of aboriginal cultures, and their participation in aboriginal cultural activities

This study creates three hypotheses as follows:

1. The differences of travelers' visiting purpose significantly influence their cognition of aboriginal culture.
2. The differences of travelers' cognition of aboriginal cultures significantly influence their willingness to revisit the destination.
3. The differences of travelers' participation in the event of aboriginal culture amusement park significantly influence their willingness to revisit the destination.

## **METHODOLOGY**

### **Development of the Survey Instrument**

The main purpose of this study is to examine how motivational pull and push factors affect an individual's choice of aboriginal tours. Development of the survey instrument for this study will follow the procedures recommended by Churchill (1979) for developing a standardized survey instrument.

In order to understand whether the information of the aboriginal cultures and the design of performances introduced in the theme park are able to make tourists impressive, and whether their visiting experiences will influence them to revisit or to recommend their friends and family (Lo, Huang, & Wang, 2003). This study will use self-administered survey instrument to the tourists who visit a famous theme park located in the central part of Taiwan and called Formosan Aboriginal Culture Village. The survey questions are related to the previous literatures on the main dimensions of "presentation of aboriginal cultural activities", "tourists' cognition", and "their participation", and then give suggestions after retrieving the results. Thus we hope the study is able to provide a niche marketing strategy for managers and a reference for the government to support aboriginal cultures eternally.

## **RESULT**

### **Subject**

The subjects of this study are aimed at the tourists, who visit Formosan Aboriginal Culture Village. The main reason for adopting subjects of the study lies in that this destination is based on the cultural specialties of every aboriginal tribe and is constructed as a theme park. It is also one of popular sightseeing areas that tourists are able to learn from aboriginal cultures, performances, and events. Consequently, these tourists are the crucial subjects to this study, and their intention and cognition are representatives of aboriginal cultural tourism, which match the core questions of this study directly.

The respondents include 77 (42.2%) males and 109 (58.60%) females; the educational background of more respondents is College, occupying 51.05%, which indicates that the tourists' education is pretty high; most of respondents' ages are beneath 21 to 29 year-old, occupying 40.32%, which explains younger generation is the major group to visit Formosan Aboriginal Culture Village; most of respondents' occupation are students, occupying 45.70%; most of respondents' monthly income are under NTD 20,000 (1 USD = 30 NTD), occupying 43.01%; and most of respondents are not aborigines, occupying 70.97%.

### **Tourists' Intention to the Destination**

In this study indicates that tourists' motivation, intention, and mass media are factors to motivate them to make aboriginal cultural tours. The result is shown that 43.55% of respondents are the first time to visit Formosan Aboriginal Culture Village; most of their accompanists are family (34.41%), colleagues/classmates (28.49%), and friends (19.89%), which are listed in order; most respondents receive the information of the destination based on recommendation of their family and friends, which indicates that tourists' satisfaction degree will significantly influence whether they suggest their family and friends after they visit the destination; most respondents' purpose for this trip is obvious for relaxation by outdoor recreation, occupying 78.49%; The main reason that attracts tourists to revisit are Recreational Facilities.

### **Analysis of Hypotheses**

H1: The differences of travelers' visiting purpose significantly influence their cognition of aboriginal culture. The result of the visiting purpose shows that the relaxation by outdoor recreation has a mean of 3.89 ( $SD = 0.53$ ), and the interest in aboriginal cultures has a mean of 3.83 ( $SD = 0.60$ ). It reveals a statistically significant result,  $F(1, 184) = .631, p = .428$ . The follow-up procedure uses Levene's Test to examine that the differences of visiting purpose do not significantly influence their cognition of aboriginal culture.

H2: The differences of travelers' cognition of aboriginal cultures significantly influence their willingness to revisit the destination.

The result shows that H2 is supported. The respondents with lower satisfaction of relaxation by outdoor recreation of Sr. high school have a mean of 3.41 ( $SD = 1.00$ ), another respondents of college have a mean of

3.46 ( $SD = 0.76$ ), and the other respondents of master and doctor have a mean of 3.58 ( $SD = 0.79$ ). The respondents with higher relaxation by outdoor recreation of Sr. high school have a mean of 4.21 ( $SD = 0.42$ ), another respondents of college have a mean of 4.16 ( $SD = 0.59$ ), and the other respondents of master and doctor have a mean of 4.19 ( $SD = 0.54$ ). The respondents with lower satisfaction of interest in aboriginal cultures of Sr. high school have a mean of 3.14 ( $SD = 1.06$ ), another respondents of college have a mean of 3.80 ( $SD = 0.44$ ), and the other respondents of master and doctor have a mean of 3.33 ( $SD = 1.00$ ). The respondents with higher satisfaction of interest in aboriginal cultures of Sr. high school have a mean of 4.25 ( $SD = 0.50$ ), another respondents of college have a mean of 4.50 ( $SD = 0.53$ ), and the other respondents of master and doctor have a mean of 4.71 ( $SD = 0.49$ ).

H3: The differences of travelers' participation in the event of aboriginal culture amusement park significantly influence their willingness to revisit the destination.

The result of travelers' participation in the event shows that their willingness to revisit the destination has a mean of 3.90 ( $SD = 0.80$ ). It reveals a statistically significant result,  $F(4, 181) = 8.33, p = .000$ . The follow-up procedure uses Levene's Test to examine the differences of travelers' participation in the event of aboriginal culture amusement park significantly influence their willingness to revisit the destination.

## CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

Recently, the development of a multicultural society is one of the hottest issues among international researchers. The field of cultural economy has been especially of interest to domestic and overseas scholars in recent years. Additionally, the Taiwanese government promotes multiculturalism, so a lot of aboriginal tribes have developed indigenous sightseeing and provided their communities with motivation to sustain aboriginal cultures and tradition through traditional events. These developments not only reinforce the aborigines' identification of their tribes and land, but also offer tourists an opportunity to get immersed in a local atmosphere. Because it's a quickly growing and relatively unstudied field that has the potential to impact aboriginal cultures immensely, this study is going to focus on Formosan Aboriginal Culture Village, which is a leading destination of aboriginal cultural tourism in Taiwan. After analyzing statistical data on tourists' perceptions of the interaction between cognition of seeking aboriginal cultural tourism and their visiting purpose, this study provides suggestions for future strategic development.

According to the survey, we find from the result of these analyses that the tourists with higher cognition of aboriginal cultural tourism tend to be interested in aboriginal cultures. Learning more about aborigines is their visiting purpose. Others with lower cognition tend to relax their mind through outdoor recreation. Furthermore, the results indicate that most tourists require information or recommendations for Formosan Aboriginal Cultural Village from their family and friends before visiting the destination, which exactly matches the background research of this study.

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## MUSEUMS AS A 'PLAYFUL' VENUE: LEARNING WITH FUN

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### ABSTRACT:

Museums facilitate arenas which include particular consumption activities that both visitors and designers are engaged in. Based on the analysis of quantitative data, the study presents motivation as main driver of engagement and its influence on level of engagement during an actual visit, which can be useful to studies of museum visitors' behaviour.

**Key Words:** cultural tourism, motivation, museums, engagement, learning, enjoyment

### INTRODUCTION:

The concept of engagement can be identified throughout a number of literatures spanning the disciplines of consumer psychology, education, leisure, tourism and the arts, with multiple, though related, definitions. Meaning is construed as variously the involvement (Higgins, 2006), commitment (Mollen & Wilson, 2010) or emotional connection (Rappaport, 2007) a consumer has with a product, process or brand; meaningful interaction resulting in learning (Kearsley & Schneiderman, 1998); the interchange and exchange between art exhibits and consumers (Edmonds, Muller, & Connell, 2006) and the ways in which consumers use museums to create images of themselves (Welsh, 2005).

Writing on creative tourism, Pattakos (2010) highlights the salient role of meaningful engagement in tourists' satisfaction with their experiences. Similarly museums strive to retain visitor attention and increase satisfaction levels by engaging visitors with innovative presentation and interpretation techniques. Indeed engagement has come to be regarded as the key to both the education and entertainment roles of the museum (Welsh, 2005). A substantial body of literature has resulted, examining supply side influences on museum visitors' consumption patterns and stressing the importance of the museum environment, in particular the physical environment on visitors' willingness to engage and interact with it (inter alia Falk & Dierking, 1992; Piscitelli & Weier, 2002). A number of authors have proposed the case for different types and levels of visitor engagement, associated with particular, personal preferences, and subject to visitor characteristics. The earliest tourist typologies distinguish between psychocentric and allocentric tourists, the former preferring the familiar, the latter being at least partially motivated by the challenge of engaging with an unfamiliar host environment (Plog, 1973). A more recent distinction by Moscardo (1996) discriminates between mindful and mindless visitors at heritage sites, arguing that the mindful tourist experiences greater learning and understanding, as well as higher levels of satisfaction than mindless visitors, who exercise weak levels of real engagement. Pattakos (2010), meanwhile, contends that tourist levels of engagement can be considered to lie on a continuum with those at the highest level being pro-actively engaged in the co-creation of their tourism experience. Within the museum sector, level of engagement has also been classified, with particular reference to art works. Cornock and Edmonds (1973) identify four core categories of interaction between visitors and artworks, namely static, dynamic-passive, dynamic-interactive and dynamic-interactive (varying). At the highest level of interaction, *Dynamic-interactive* (varying) relationships between the visitor and the artwork occur when the experience is influenced by both players and changes over time as a direct result of the history of interactions. Thus general agreement appears to exist within the literature that level of visitor engagement varies and that higher levels of engagement bring superior rewards, but that not all consumers aspire to this. At the same time, greater levels of interactivity are not necessarily correlated with enhanced outcomes for all visitor segments. However, there is a distinct lack of empirical work, and therefore clarity, surrounding the motivation to actual engagement, which would allow researchers and managers to predict the level and nature of engagement associated with different visitor types. The paper seeks to shed some light on this.

Motivation is a further prominent pre-visit factor in tourism consumption and studies and reviews of motivation within the leisure and tourism literature have been extensive (inter alia Bansal & Eiselt, 2004; Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Prentice, 2004). The prevalent, dichotomous view of tourist motivation distinguishes between push and pull factors. The latter are the attractive features of a tourist site which stimulate visitation, the former represent the intrinsic, socio-psychological motives specific to individuals, and with which this paper is concerned (Baloglu & Uysal 1996; Crompton & McKay, 1997). As pull factors are specific to a tourist site or

activity, they can be expected to vary significantly across different tourism products. Indeed, Fodness (1994) and Funk and Bruun (2007) note that researchers have struggled to identify a core set of motivating factors that can be applied across the spectrum. By contrast, push factors arguably have more commonality across leisure, recreation and tourism activities and a number of attempts to create tourist typologies based on socio-psychological variables can be drawn on to explain patterns of behaviour (e.g. Cohen 1979; Gnoth 1997). Psychological needs are identified as distinct from physiological needs (Maslow, 1943; Moutinho, 1989; Pearce, 1993) and argued to be of particular importance in the understanding of tourist behaviour, though potentially difficult to implement on a practical level and lacking rigorous empirical testing (Poria, Reichel, & Biran, 2006). Psychological motives can be usefully partitioned on the basis of whether they are driven by intrinsic (behaviour for its own sake) or extrinsic (behaviour for external rewards) forces (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Malone, 1981; Pearce, 1993). Recent studies of cultural tourism motivation define it as a series of interconnected interests in culture, history and heritage (Hutchinson, Lai, & Wang, 2009). However, whilst claiming to treat cultural motivation as internal push elements, Kolar and Zabkar (2010) arguably measure the construct as a mixture of push and pull elements, for example by including the item 'visit cultural attractions/events' in their motivation scale. This does not reflect thinking on the role of intrinsic motivation and rewards in cultural consumption, whereby intrinsic motivation has been identified as particularly distinctive in explaining cultural tourism behaviour (Moscardo, 1996; Poria, et al., 2006). Cultural consumers arguably consume cultural places, not because there are extrinsic rewards or separable consequences involved, but because personal and social benefits such as achievement, the acquisition of specialist knowledge, membership of a specialist world, identity formation and the desire for long term benefits, drive them forward (Stebbins, 2009). In addition, There are two distinct dimensions in the literature, motivation being summarised in terms of long term benefits to an individual, including the level of learning, personal meaning and degree of challenge experienced (Falk & Dierking, 2000; Goulding, 2000; Screven, 1986) but also short term benefits, i.e. the fact of enjoying the activity to the extent that the experience becomes its own reward (Csikszentmihalyi & Robison, 1990). The importance of intrinsic motivation has equally been comprehensively reported within the museums literature. For example, Prentice (2001) argues that the central motivations for visiting art galleries and museums are the broadening of knowledge, enjoyment and interaction with cultural objects. Intrinsic rewards from museum visitation are thus measured, for the purpose of the research, using items from Gould, Moore, McGuire and Stebbins (2008) Serious Leisure Inventory Measure as arguably the most comprehensive measure of intrinsic motivation in the leisure and tourism fields.

As discussed earlier in the paper, Moscardo's (1996) research found that mindful visitors to heritage sites experienced greater learning and understanding through stronger levels of engagement with the attraction. Mindfulness signifies a willingness and motivation to mobilise and apply knowledge and skill to a situation (O'Neil & Drillings, 1994). Csikszentmihalyi's (1992, 2008) work on *flow* has highlighted this strong link between the goals for undertaking an activity, active engagement with the activity, and positive outcomes for the participant. Csikszentmihalyi and Hermanson's (1995) study of motivation for learning in museums established that interest and level of engagement were prerequisites for an intrinsically rewarding flow experience. Where the flow state of mind occurs, the individual is absorbed in an activity to the extent that they lose their sense of time and self (Csikszentmihalyi & Hermanson, 1995), representing a high level of engagement. By the same token, museum visitor studies have repeatedly shown that, where intrinsic motivation is absent, museum visitors fail to engage with cultural objects within a museum (inter alia Falk & Dierking, 2002; Goulding, 2000; Hein & Alexander, 1998; Hooper-Greenhill, 2007; Miles, 1986; Packer, 2008; Prince, 1990). Thus, a link between motivation and level of engagement with leisure and cultural tourism activities is established, which can be employed within the museums context. By contrast, few researchers have addressed the question whether long or short term motivation has the stronger relationship with engagement, though there is some evidence to suggest that visitors motivated by entertainment display longer, though not necessarily deeper, engagement with museum exhibits (Falk, Moussouri, & Coulson, 1998). Thus the following hypotheses are proposed: **H<sub>1</sub>**: Short term motivation is positively related to level of engagement; **H<sub>2</sub>**: Long term motivation is positively related to level of engagement.

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Data was collected by means of a questionnaire survey at Kelvingrove museum and Art Gallery, Scotland's most visited tourist attraction and the sixth most visited museum in the UK (Kelvingrove, 2009). Criteria for selecting the location was that entry should be free of charge, and that it should attract a diversity of visitor types and contain a wide selection of types of exhibits, offering the possibility for different types of engagement and interaction. Non-probability sampling was employed due to the lack of a sampling frame. Information on visitors profile and numbers were used as a basis for quota sampling, in order to achieve a representative sample of visitors to Kelvingrove. A sample of 535 visitors was obtained over a period of 3 months between December 2009 and February 2010. Partial least squares (PLS) was chosen as the most suitable method of analysis for this study. PLS is suitable for predictive applications and theory building (Chin, 2010). It uses bootstrapping as a

test of statistical significance for virtually any estimated parameter, regardless of the characteristics of the underlying data distributions from which the parameter is being estimated. 500 sub-samples were randomly generated. Thus, structural models can be tested which contain both formative and reflective latent variables. In addition, PLS can deal with small sample sizes and different levels of data (Camarero, Garrido, & Vicente, 2010; Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009). SmartPLS (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005) was used to undertake the analysis. As regards the measurement techniques, we measured one of the measures in the model formatively and one reflectively. For the purpose of the research, engagement is measured as a formative construct comprised of the full range of indicators representing engagement and interaction with museum exhibits. Where a latent construct is specified as formative, the researcher must be concerned with including in the measurement scale an exhaustive list of indicators which does not allow for any part of the construct to be omitted (Diamantopoulos, Riefler, & Roth, 2008). The indicators were thus drawn from a review of the relevant literature on engagement and interaction with museum exhibits (inter alia Edmonds, et al., 2006; Welsh, 2005) and further developed by means of 25 in-depth interviews, with museum visitors undertaken over a six month period in 2009/10, as well as a participant observation exercise at the museum where the fieldwork was undertaken. Twelve items were initially included in the scale but, following the pilot test, one was dropped as it appeared to be redundant. The engagement construct is an aggregate of these eleven items. Intrinsic motivation was measured as an eight item reflective scale adapted from Gould, Moore, McGuire and Stebbins (2008) studies of motivation for serious leisure activities. Principal component analysis was undertaken for the purpose of scale development. The alpha value of 0.84 suggests internal reliability. No items had an inter item correlation of less than 0.5 so all items were retained. Oblique rotation was used to account for correlation between the factors (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). The scale was found not to be unidimensional, but to contain two dimensions, which were interpreted as relating to short and long term motivation.

The measurement model was estimated to assess the constructs and the properties of the scales are reported in **Table 1**. In the case of the reflective scales (long and short term motivation) alpha values, average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability ( $\rho_{cr}$ ) all appear to support the reliability of the scales. Reliability of the formative scale is assessed by the variance inflation factors (VIF). Thus, all measurement scales appear to meet reliability conditions

Table 1:  
Measurement Model

Path	Scales	Weights/Loadings	Reliability <sup>a</sup>	Mean (SD)	Std. error
MOT → Personal enrichment	Short Motivation (Reflective)	0.700**	$\alpha = .79$ AVE = .60 $\rho_{cr} = .86$	5.23(1.00)	0.043
MOT → satisfaction		0.767**		5.55(0.86)	0.047
MOT → self enjoyment		0.777**		5.68(0.86)	0.037
MOT → recreation		0.848**		5.01(1.06)	0.070
MOT → self actualisation	Long Motivation (Reflective)	0.740**	$\alpha = .80$ AVE = .61 $\rho_{cr} = .86$	4.95(1.05)	0.066
MOT → self express		0.790**		5.00(0.94)	0.041
MOT → self image		0.784**		5.18(0.88)	0.038
MOT → group attraction		0.802**		3.96(1.06)	0.046
ENG1 → Engagement	Engagement (Formative)	-0.251**	1.60	3.83(1.82)	0.083
ENG2 → Engagement		0.101**	1.66	3.97(2.08)	0.090
ENG3 → Engagement		0.165**	1.58	5.34(1.20)	0.052
ENG4 → Engagement		0.163*	2.57	3.23(2.02)	0.087
ENG5 → Engagement		0.095**	1.97	3.47(1.88)	0.081
ENG6 → Engagement		0.223**	1.09	5.34(1.11)	0.068
ENG7 → Engagement		0.336**	2.11	3.51(1.83)	0.084

ENG8→ Engagement		0.139**	1.29	3.84(2.21)	0.096
ENG9→ Engagement		0.450**	1.47	3.49(1.98)	0.087
ENG10→ Engagement		0.129*	2.00	3.52(1.91)	0.083
ENG12→ Engagement		0.505*	1.19	3.23(2.00)	0.087

Non-standardized coefficients; (\*) p< 0.10; (\*\*) p<0.05; (\*\*\*) p< 0.01. n.a. Not applicable.

<sup>a</sup> Internal reliability assessed by alpha value higher than 0.7 and by composite reliability ( $\rho_{cr}$ ) higher than 0.7. Convergent validity assessed by factor loadings greater than 0.7 and AVE no less than 0.5 (Chin, 1998b; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hutchinson, et al., 2009). Multicollinearity for formative measures assessed by VIF which should not exceed a value of 5 (Hair, et al., 2010; Ruiz, Gremler, Washburn, & Carrion, 2010)

In order to examine the hypotheses proposed above, the structural model was simultaneously tested within SmartPLS. Path loadings and R<sup>2</sup> values, used to assess the strength of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable, are shown in **Table 2**. The influence of both long term and short term motivation on engagement was found to be significant at the .05 level, so that H<sub>1</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> were accepted. As regards effect size, the model has good predictive power, with an R<sup>2</sup> of .58, denoting 58% of the variance in engagement explained by the independent variables. The results of the structural model are summarised in **Table 2**.

Table 2:  
Structural Model

Paths	Coefficients	Hypothesis
Short term motivation → Engagement	.491**	Accepted
Long term motivation → Engagement	.229**	Accepted

(\*\*) p<0.05; (\*\*\*) p< 0.01

The study used a structural modelling approach to identify predictors of engagement with museum exhibits, using a sample of 535 museum visitors. It was proposed that engagement is predicted by motivation to learn or be entertained (long and short term motivation). The dependent variables account for 42% of engagement, and should therefore usefully be included in a predictive model of engagement. The R<sup>2</sup> values of the path mode are satisfactory to good, based on Chin's (1998a) values. The research explored the link between intrinsic motivation and engagement, differentiating between long term motivation (learning and personal meaning) and short term motivation (enjoyment). Long term motivation was found to have a significant influence on level of engagement. This confirms previous literature, particularly within the museums field, expounds links between motivation, engagement and learning (Black, 2009; Falk & Dierking, 2000, 2002; Falk, et al., 1998) and the items measuring learning and personal growth loaded on the long term motivation factor. Thus the desire for personal learning and development as a motivation for visiting museums appear to influence museum visitors' interaction with exhibits. Short term motivation also was found to be directly related to level of engagement. Visitor motivation to enjoy and recreate thus influences the extent to which they engage with museum exhibits. Rather than Hein and Alexander (Hein & Alexander, 1998) place of learning, it might therefore be argued that the engaging museum is a place of fun because coefficient in short motivation is larger than the long motivation. The visitors' experience helps to improve museum exhibition and programs with the purpose of making museum visits more rewarding. The value of research lies in collecting solid information to inform the producers' choices and making connection with visitors with help of museums facilities and recalling visitors' previous knowledge as a platform for meaningful interaction that, decisions museum managers have to make.

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# HERITAGE TOURISM: THE GREAT IMPACT OF THE TURKISH – MACEDONIAN RELATIONS ON THE TOURISM IN MACEDONIA

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## ABSTRACT

This study provides an insight into the great impact of the Turkish-Macedonian relations on the tourism in Macedonia, tourism referred as heritage tourism, due to the historical and cultural mutuality that passes from one generation to the next as well as the human bonds between the two countries.

The aim of the study is to show the consistency of the incoming tourists from Turkey to Macedonia for heritage tourism. It is based on data collected by the State Statistical Office of Republic of Macedonia from Jan. 2008 - Dec. 2010, as well as on the two surveys on tourists traveling from Turkey to Macedonia conducted in 2009 and 2010 that shows impressive numbers that refer to heritage tourism.

The study results overall show that incoming tourists from Turkey to Macedonia have consistent number of travels due to the heritage tourism as primary reason of travel, in comparison to tourists from other countries to Macedonia, which show no obvious pattern or consistency and are influenced by the economy conditions in a certain period as well as other different motives for traveling e.g. sports travel, business travel, etc.

The findings of this study could contribute to the creation of a successful marketing strategy and the main line of the marketing strategy would be promotion of the Turkish – Macedonian historical and cultural background. This consequently would result with sustainability of heritage tourism especially in success and continuous consistency in the number of incoming travels for heritage tourism from Turkey to Macedonia and further the good relations between the two countries. In the same time the model can be used for promotion of Macedonia's impressive but unknown history for the rest of the world.

**Key Words:** heritage tourism, Turkish- Macedonian relations, Macedonia, marketing strategy

## INTRODUCTION

Prior to focus on the impact of the Turkish-Macedonian relations on the tourism in Macedonia in course of the Heritage Tourism, there should be provided an overview of Heritage Tourism in general as a type of tourism. First, there is a need to refine the definition of Heritage tourism as well as to see the difference and to differentiate the heritage tourists from the others in order to understand the importance of this type of tourism and its broader impacts. Then, we will be able to show the concept of Heritage tourism of a certain nation and its impact on the specific/Macedonian tourism and economy.

What is Heritage tourism? Definitions of Heritage tourism are far from consistent. Silberberg (1995, p. 361) uses a definition from the Economic Planning Group of Canada for cultural tourism: “visits by persons from outside the host community motivated wholly or in part by interest in the historical, artistic, scientific or lifestyle/heritage offerings of a community, region, group or institution”. For Yale (1991, p. 21): concept of “heritage tourism” really means nothing more than tourism centered on what we have inherited, which can mean anything from historic buildings, to art works, to beautiful scenery.

Most researches generally agree that it includes tourism related to what we have inherited. This may mean interest in our connections to anything from history, art, architecture, region, population or institution that we regard as part of our collective lineage. Here we can include the sub-segment of the heritage tourism that consists of tourists who have a personal connection with their heritage beyond a general relationship of collective ancestry. This segment is also included in this study and is usually more closely defined as legacy tourism. Legacy tourists are those that travel to engage in genealogical endeavors, to search for information or to simply feel connected to ancestors and ancestral roots (Gary McCain, Nina M. Ray 2003 p. 713–717). Nevertheless legacy tourism will be included in this study under the general term of Heritage tourism whose sub-segment it is.

The purpose of the study is to show the consistency of the incoming tourists from Turkey to Macedonia for heritage tourism. It also shows comparison to tourists from other countries to Macedonia, which show no obvious pattern or consistency and are influenced by the economy conditions in a certain period as well as other different motives for traveling e.g. sports travel, business travel, etc.

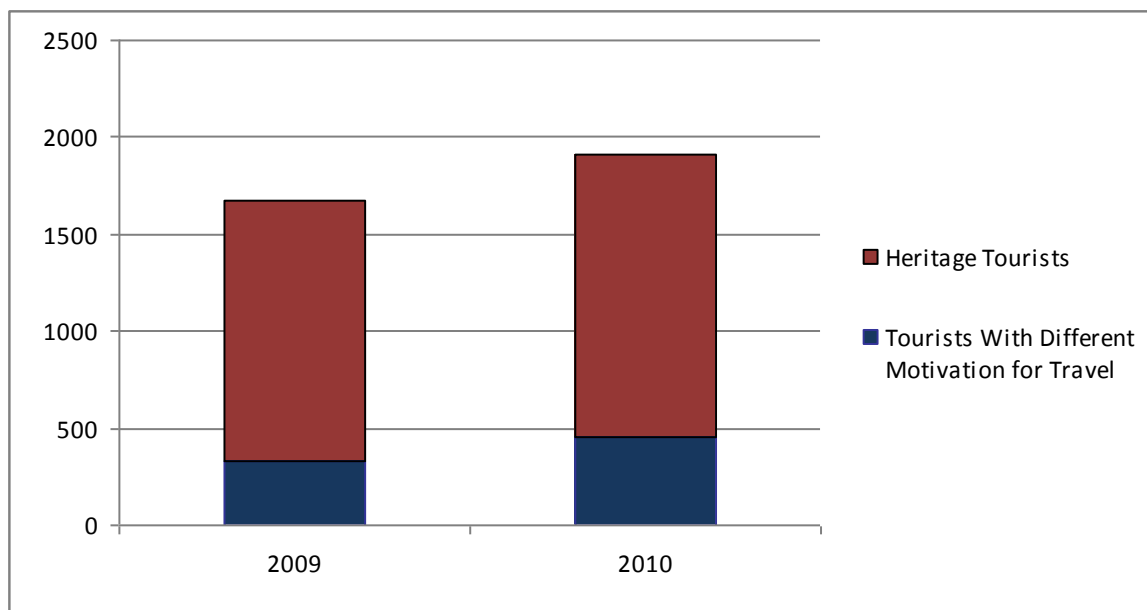


## METHOD AND RESULTS

A number of 3583 adult tourists (hotel visitors) from Turkey were subjects in the first part of the study. A survey was conducted to determine primary motivation for visiting Macedonia without dividing the tourists by gender, age or the time of the visit. The only criteria was the country of origin, in this case Turkey. The survey was arranged by submitting a questionnaire to the groups and individual tourists. The number of respondents and answered questions was very high and results were satisfactory in course of supporting the main aim of the research. The main aim was to identify the number of those that we call ‘Heritage tourists’.

More precisely, a number of 1677 adult tourists from Turkey in 2009 and 1906 adult tourists from Turkey in 2010 were survey participants. During their accommodation in Macedonian hotels each of them was asked to complete a questionnaire. The main finding was that for 1342 out of 1677 participants in 2009 and for 1448 out of 1906 participants in 2010 Heritage tourism was a main reason for traveling (Figure 1).

Figure 1  
Figure Comparison of Numbers of Heritage Tourists and Tourists with Different Motivation for Travel



The surveys confirm that an exceptional 80,02% of the tourists from Turkey are Heritage travelers in 2009 and 75,97% of them in 2010. The questionnaire analysis revealed no significant differences between participants with different age or gender. Only 19,98% in 2009 and 24,03% in 2010 traveled with different motivation than Heritage Tourism. Their main reason for traveling was business but they expressed a wish to visit sights where Turkish tourist attractions are as rich marks in Macedonian architecture and life in general. Consequently we could find sights of heritage tourism in the business traveling from Turkey as well.

After defining Heritage Tourism as primary reason for travel a research was made on by extracting data collected by the State Statistical Office of Republic of Macedonia from Jan. 2008 - Dec. 2010.

It clearly shows that all the others foreign tourists that travel to Macedonia have large oscillation and show no obvious pattern in the movement. Of course if the summer season is not taken into the consideration, since the three month season period usually shows good results in any country promoting summer holidays (Figure 2, 3 and 4)

The number of Heritage tourists traveling from Turkey to Macedonia, shows a constant in the visits without large oscillation during the months within one year as shown in Figures 2,3 and 4, but clearly shows consistency in the visits and an upward trend through the years (Figure 6 shows the upwards trend from 2008-2010)

Just for comparison: The first largest group of incoming tourists from Serbia by origin, has different motivations for the travel that are mainly the same as of the most foreign tourists in Macedonia: business, leisure, sport, etc.

According to the data collected by the State Statistical Office of Republic of Macedonia from Jan-Dec2008, the tourists from Serbia follow the trends of foreign travelers in Macedonia other than those that are from Turkey by origin (Figure 5) Consequently these tourists as all other foreign tourists (except the Turkey Heritage tourists) show no consistency show large oscillations in the visits trough the year.

Figure 2

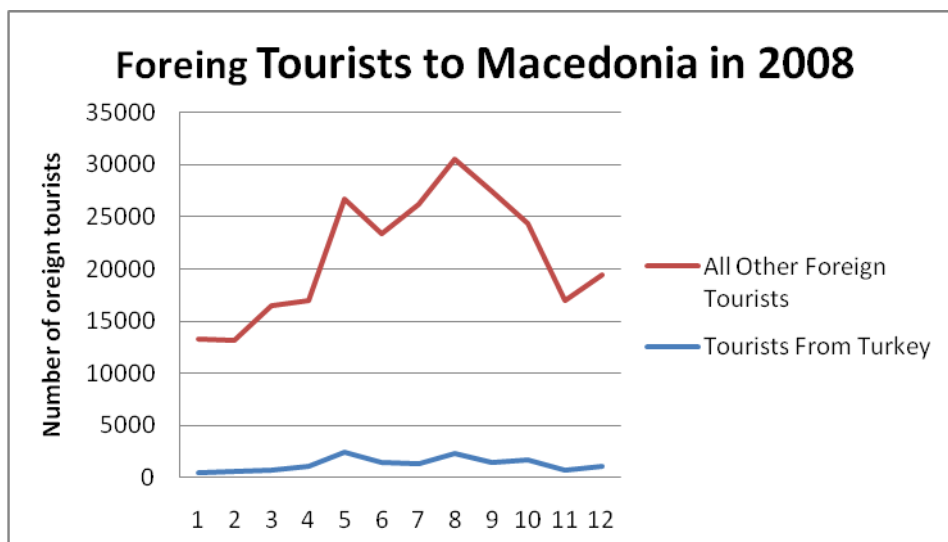


Figure 3

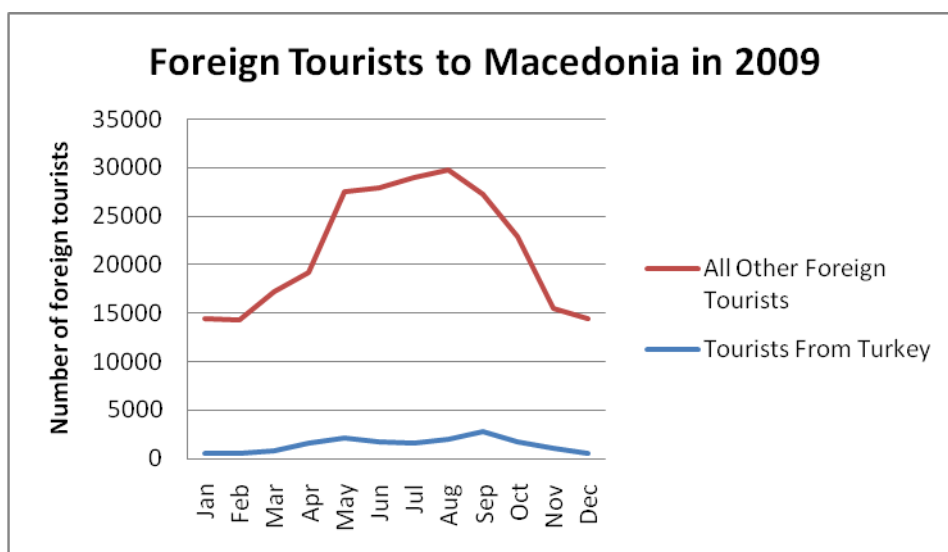


Figure 4

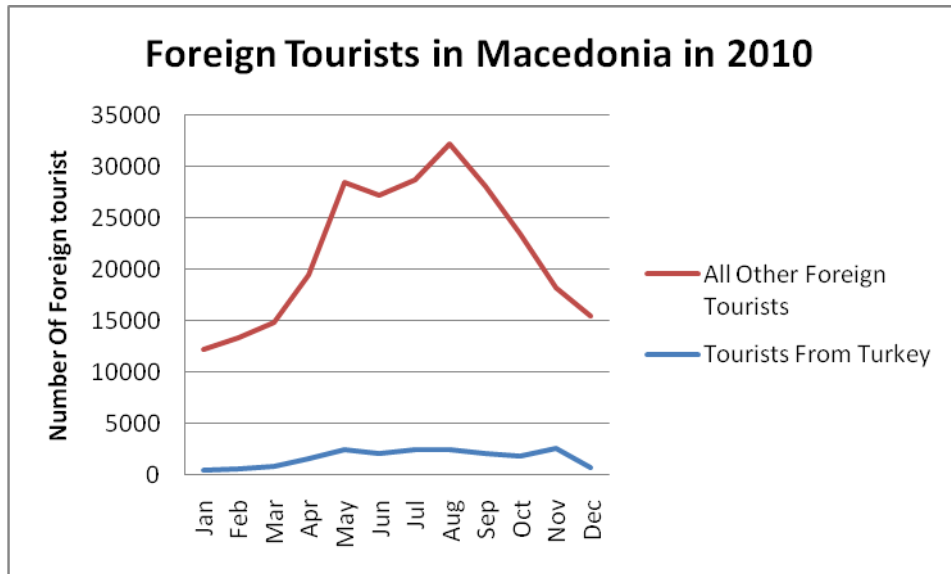
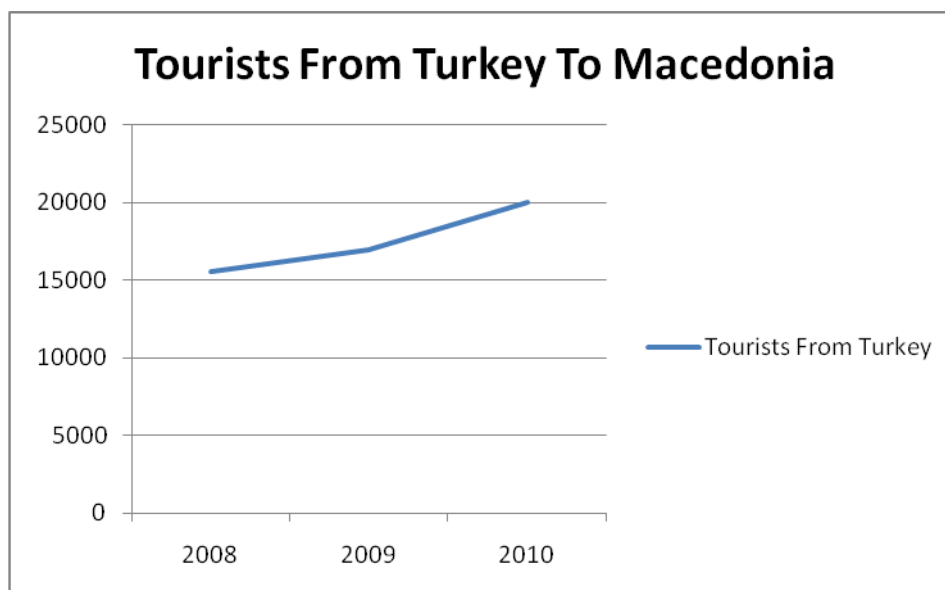


Figure 5



Figure 6



## CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONES

Heritage tourism was a main reason for incoming tourists from Turkey to Macedonia. This tourism shows a constant without large oscillation during the months within a year as well as upward trend from year to year. Even in the business travelers from Turkey we could find signs of heritage tourisms. All the other tourists (except the Turkey Heritage tourists) show no consistency in the reason and number of traveling during one year.

All this should show importance to marketers to use these sources of information in promotion of heritage tourism to Turkey and help travelers to plan and organize their travels.

Marketing strategy should involve a promotion of both the residents as well as of the incoming tourists.

Macedonian residents as well as the incoming tourists from Turkey should have relevant information regarding the benefits from the heritage tourism development.

The conclusions should be used by relevant entities for the continuing bond between the two countries, to ensure growing of the positive economic impact of tourism as well as increasing the guest satisfaction from Heritage tourism experience. Also 'tourism planners and policy makers need to ensure that proposed tourism development will create more benefits than costs for the community and the environment'. (Yoon, Gursoy, Chen2001)

As previously said the findings of this study could contribute to the creation of a successful marketing strategy and the main line of the marketing strategy would be promotion of the Turkish – Macedonian historical and cultural background. This consequently would result with sustainability of heritage tourism especially in success and continuous consistency in the number of incoming travels for heritage tourism from Turkey to Macedonia and further the good relations between the two countries. In the same time the model can be used for promotion of Macedonia's impressive but unknown history for the rest of the world.

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# INCREASING IMPORTANCE OF CULTURAL TOURISM: TREASURES OF TROY AND JEWELRY AS A TOURISM PRODUCT

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## ABSTRACT

Tourism is foremost a form of economic development which has cultural resources at its foundations. One of the global sustainable tourism criteria is, the business uses elements of local art, architecture, or cultural heritage while respecting the intellectual property rights of local communities. Handicrafts often form an important dimension of a region's cultural tourism experience. In this paper, it is emphasized the importance of preserving and promotion of cultural heritage. As the case study, the treasure of Troy is examined from two different perspectives. And, some proposals are made to promote jewelry as a cultural and touristic product in Canakkale.

**Keywords:** Cultural Heritage, Cultural Tourism, Treasure of Troy, Jewelry, Tourism Trends, Handicrafts

## INTRODUCTION

Tourism is an important vehicle for economic and social development. The tourism industry has the potential to generate foreign exchange earnings, create employment, promote development in various parts of the country, reduce income and employment disparities among regions, strengthen linkages among many sectors of the national economy and help to alleviate poverty (ESCAP, 2001). In its forecast *Tourism: 2020 Vision*, the World Tourism Organization (WTO) predicts that cultural tourism will be one of the five key tourism market segments in the future, and notes that growth in this area will present an increasing challenge in terms of managing visitor flows to cultural sites (NWHO, 1999).

WHA (2011) The World Heritage Alliance Principles, define sustainable tourism as *tourism that sustains or enhances the geographical character of a place—its environment, culture, aesthetics, heritage, and the well-being of its residents*. The World Heritage Alliance seeks to promote tourism that helps preserve both the environmental integrity of World Heritage sites as well as the cultural heritage of surrounding communities. To make tourism industry sustainable, the World Bank (2010) suggests that private investors, public authorities, and local community groups need to work on several fronts:

- forge an investment climate of policies, frameworks, and public infrastructure that conserve heritage assets and tourist sites;
- help local communities develop attractions and businesses; and
- build business linkages between investors and local producers and services.

## Cultural Heritage and Tourism

Tourists have been amongst the first to recognize the diversity of cultures along with cultural heritage. The desire to encounter and experience different cultures and their material and immaterial expressions is one of the key motivations for tourists and lies at the very heart of many tour operators' business. Harnessing the cultural creativity of communities is a significant strategy in encouraging greater participation in the tourism development process and can assist in spreading the benefits of tourism throughout society (Robinson and Picard, 2006). The World Bank (2010) emphasizes that "Sustainable tourism relies on the authenticity of a heritage area and the "living culture" to attract tourists interested in participating in uniquely cultural experiences. There is huge potential to positively impact residents' economic and social well-being since cultural tourism is not a small niche of tourism but is sustained by a large global market. Such a large market can ensure sustainable backward linkages, a range of products and services which can be produced by the host community and beyond without high import content to support cultural tourism thus contributing to long lasting economic development".

World Heritage sites are places around the world that have been internationally recognized for their outstanding value as natural and cultural treasures. They are one of the most important assets for a country and play very important roles in developing of tourism industry. There are currently 851 World Heritage sites (660 cultural, 166 natural and 25 mixed properties) in 141 countries. All sites are protected by the 1972 World Heritage Convention (WHA, 2011). Troy in Canakkale, Turkey is one of the World Heritage sites.

## **Cultural Heritage - Handcrafts**

Handicraft has existed from the beginning of the human being depending on the environment conditions. It has given its first samples for protecting, covering human beings and providing with the necessities of them. The handicrafts, which has later improved and changed according to the environment conditions, has gained traditional character by becoming an art which reflects the artistic sense of taste and cultural characteristics of the community (TBB, 2010). One of the Principles of the Cultural Tourism Charter ICOMOS (2002) is the promotion, distribution and sale of local crafts and other products should provide a reasonable social and economic return to the host community, while ensuring that their cultural integrity is not degraded. In the Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity UNESCO (2001) declares “In the face of present-day economic and technological change, opening up vast prospects for creation and innovation, particular attention must be paid to the diversity of the supply of creative work, to due recognition of the rights of authors and artists and to the specificity of cultural goods and services which, as vectors of identity, values and meaning, must not be treated as mere commodities or consumer goods”.

### **Purpose of the study**

In this paper, first of all, it is tried to emphasize the importance of preserving and promotion of cultural heritage on sustainable cultural tourism development. Secondly, as the case study, The treasure of Troy will be examined from two different perspectives. On one hand, efforts related to the return of the Treasure of Troy homeland is searched. On the other hand, one survey is being held among jewelers in Canakkale and it is tried to expose, if it is profitable to produce and sell “The treasure of Troy” styled and designed jewelry items to tourists as a cultural tourism product. And finally, some proposals are made to promote jewelry as a cultural and touristic product by searching successful cases like Dubai Mall’s Gold Souk and Tari project in Naples.

### **Troy from Myth to Reality**

We first come across the name of Troy in Homer’s epic poem *Iliad*. This poet of the VIII century B.C. recounts to us the events which took place four centuries before his time. A war between the Trojans and the Achaeans – proved by archeological finds – took place about 1200 B.C. (Aksit, 1995). Every student knows of the story of Troy, the tale told by Homer in the *Iliad* thousands of years ago. For centuries, it was believed that it was just that, a story, while the city of Troy lay buried beneath the sands of Turkey and the mythology of the past. Furthermore, for two thousand years, education in Europe and then in the United States centered on the study of Latin and Virgil. Thus, every schoolboy knew about the Trojan War and how the exiled Trojans led by Aeneas went to Italy, where their descendents founded the Roman Empire. Rome became the eventual seat of the Catholic Church and the center of developing European civilization. Ruling families in England and Europe claimed descent from Aeneas. Thus there were continuous links from the Trojan War to European history (Thompson, 2004). When the nineteenth-century German entrepreneur-turned-archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann unearthed the first traces of the Bronze Age city of Troy in an eroded mound at Hisarlik in northwestern Turkey, he brought to life the world of Homer’s eighth-century B.C. epic, the *Iliad*, previously considered by many experts to be legendary (Acar, 2001; The Columbia Electronic Encyclopedia, 2004). For many people, the “Great Treasure” proved that Troy, or Ilium – King Priam’s city – was not mythological fiction but historical reality (Alexander, 1996). Troy’s story sprawls across cultures, time and geography. Few places on Earth have so much held in the human imagination (Fleischman, 1992).

### **Wealth of Troy**

Long before the era of Helen, Troy was already a place to be reckoned with. The recent reappearance of the treasures from the second city of Troy is vivid testimony to its centrality during the early Bronze Age, that is during the third millennium B.C.E. Troy’s continuing development throughout the Middle and Late Bronze ages bears witness to the importance of this settlement. Troy’s position in the World of Bronze Age was clearly important (Wright, 1998). As Professor Korfman has eloquently demonstrated (1986) during the entire Bronze age, Troy was a gatekeeper between the Aegean and the Black Sea. No traffic could make its way without calling at its port. And thus it secured its wealth and power.

Treister has argued that Troy was “one of the leading centers of jewelry making in western Asia Minor and Aegean during the middle to the third quarter of the 3rd millennium B.C.”, and Troy was a source for finished metal goods for the circumponitic region and central Anatolia. Troy was a source of acquiring tin is strong when consideration is taken of the extent to which a tin – bronze industry was early established (Wright, 1998). Troy was often destroyed and rebuilt, subject as it was to raids and wars, due to its important – and accessible –

coastal position controlling the straits between the Aegean and the Black seas, which probably allowed it to grow very rich from trade. So, though we speak of one Trojan War, there were actually many. And though we speak of Troy as a single entity, there were actually several settlements, each superimposed a top another (Reilly, 2004). Hisarlik is not a natural hill. It is, as Schliemann discovered, a mound of dead citadels, a layer cake of Troys. Considering that nine separate 'cities' of altogether 46 settlement-layers were found on the same spot. They are numbered from Troy I, a substantial Early Bronze Age settlement built around 3000 B.C. The layer closest to the surface is Troy IX, site of the elegant Roman city that lasted until the sixth century A.D. (Fleischman, 1992; Fields 2004).

### **Exploration of Troy**

Many travelers and savants came to Troy and the province of Troad before Schieman. Although, the Englishman Frank Calvert is known as the first man who explored Troy (Aksit, 1995; Heimlich, 2002; Wood, 2005). He began to excavate in 1865 at Hisarlik and immediately uncovered remains of the Athena temple and the wall of Lysimachus, the beautifully built classical city wall whose remains were to be swept away by Schliemann (Wood, 2005). It was because of this that when Schieman landed at Canakkale in 1868, he was in need of Calvert's guidance. But Shliemann never admitted getting key information on Troy's whereabouts from Frank Calvert (Schatz, 1997; Heimlich, 2002).

Hisarlik, nicknamed "mountain of fate for archeology", has held the greatest fascination since Schliemann unearthed it in 1871. Schliemann excavated at Hisarlik on and off for twenty years – 1870-73, 1878-79, 1882, 1890. Systematic excavations of Troy continued after Schliemann's death in 1890 and were conducted by Wilhelm Dorpfeld (1890-94), Carl Blegen (1932-38), Manfred Korfmann (1988- 2005) and, Ernst Pernicka (2005- ) (Easton, 1996; Krystek, 1999). In the intervening years, archeology has undergone radical changes, not just technologically but in terms of ethics and attitude (Schatz, 1997)

### **The Treasures of Troy**

With Homer's Iliad as his guide, Heinrich Schliemann went hunting for ancient Troy in 1870. In 1871 he claimed to have found Homer's Troy carrying a spade in one hand and the *Iliad* in the other. Schliemann's main aim was sensation. Two years later he discovered a cache of gold artifacts that he promptly named "Priam's Treasure" (after the king of Homer's Troy), though this hoard could not have belonged to a Late Bronze Age king; the Trojan War is often dated to about 1200 B.C., but most of the pieces date to a thousand years earlier. Even worse, it now seems certain that Priam's Treasure was not a single hoard but a collection of pieces from different time periods and find-spots that Schliemann passed off as a single find (Ebert, 1995; Alexander, 1996; Lemonick, 1996; Heimlich, 2002).

Lemonick (1996), and Abrams (1996) emphasize that Schliemann unearthed one of the richest archaeological troves ever found. The marvelous ancient artifacts known as the "Gold of Troy," or "Priam's Treasure," are among the most important antiquities in existence. The 'treasure', comprised copper salvers and cauldrons inside which were cups in gold, silver, electrum and bronze, a gold "sauceboat", vases, thirteen copper lance heads, and, most beautiful of all, a mass of several thousand small gold rings and decorative pieces, with gold bracelets, a gold headband, four beautiful earrings, and two splendid gold diadems, one of which comprised over 16,000 tiny pieces of gold threaded on gold wire. This last, which became known as the "Jewel of Helen" (Krystek, 1999; Wood, 2005).

Schliemann's original dig was done without a permit from the Ottoman (now Turkish) government. He concealed the find from Turkish authorities and smuggled it out of Turkey to Athens, had published a now-famous photograph of his young Greek wife, Sophia, modeling the "Jewels of Helen," that was one of the most famous images of the nineteenth century, exhibited the treasure in London for three years. And then, after flogging it to European museums, finally donated it to the Ethnological Museum in Berlin and it was moved to a flak tower for safe-keeping during World War II. Despite this precaution at some point during the chaotic final days of World War II, the treasure vanished in 1945, swept away to parts unknown by the chaos of war. Rumors abounded about its fate – it had been melted down, it was in the vaults of a Texas oil baron, it had been seized by the Russians (Alexander, 1996; Lemonick, 1996; Holoka, 2005; Avril, 2010).

### **The Treasure and the Site Today**

In August of 1993, the Pushkin State Museum of Fine Arts in Moscow announced that the gold of Troy had long been hidden in its vaults, taken as booty by the Red Army during its occupation of Berlin. The more valuable objects are in the Pushkin Museum in Moscow, the less valuable in the Hermitage Museum in St. Petersburg. Russia, Germany and Turkey are all voicing their claims to ownership. A treaty now exists between Russia and Germany under which cultural goods which have gone astray should be returned. Russia favors a 'quid pro quo' approach; Germany, with less available to return, favors an absolute interpretation. Turkey, too, wants the treasures back, arguing that they are illicitly exported cultural property and should be returned in line with the

UNESCO Convention of 1970. The case will keep lawyers and politicians busy for years (Alexander, 1996; Easton, 1996).

The *Iliad* has made Troy one of the most tangible mythological events in the world and few can resist the chance to tread among its remains (Fields, 2004). Archaeological Site of Troy has been added to the World Heritage List of cultural and natural sites, in UNESCO's World Heritage Convention in Kyoto, Japan in December 2, 1998. Troy itself does not possess a museum. However, objects coming from the various settlement-layers of Troy are well displayed and arranged chronologically in the Archaeological Museum of Canakkale (Fields, 2004). A few of the Troy Treasures were stated by Schliemann with the Turkish State (Ottoman that time) and are in the Archaeological Museum in Istanbul. The Turks would like to gather the Troy artifacts from Russia, Germany and the other countries where they have been dispersed and display them in a museum near the actual site (Easton, 1996; Lemonick, 1996). A new museum will be built at Troy. A competition has been announced for the project of Troy Museum in December 2010 (Gezen, 2010). Lessing (2000), and many others think that a large and well planned Troy Museum is very important, and he adds "History will repeat itself as Troy once again becomes the meeting place for East and West and a symbol of the fruitful interaction between economy, archaeology, and ecology. What would Homer make of it all"?

### **Jewelry as a Tourism Product**

Jewelry is one of the most popular holiday gifts, and jewelry is accepted as the traditional gift of love, romance and sentiment. A survey was conducted among jewelry stores in Canakkale to expose, if Troy treasure design jewelry is known and sold as a tourism product. A survey sheet was prepared, and face to face interview was held with owners, partners or managers of jewelry stores in Canakkale. There are 28 jewelry stores in Canakkale, and all of them was included in this survey.

Following datum were obtained:

- 50 % of jewelry stores do not make any sale to tourists. Total sales volume consists of only 1,5 % , for foreign tourists, and 5,3 % for Turkish tourists. There are two reasons of this low sales volume, firstly; tourists do not come for shopping 85,7 % , and secondly; tour operators do not bring tourists 14,2 % .
- It is asked, if they have any knowledge about "The Treasure of Troy". 35,7 % does not have any knowledge, 46,4 % has very few knowledge, and 17,8 % has few knowledge.
- It is asked, if customers ask for "The Treasure of Troy" design jewelry. 57,1 % never asked, 35,7 % rarely asked, and 7,1 % sometimes asked.
- It is asked, if they sell "The Treasure of Troy" design jewelry. 14,2 % of stores sell, 85,7 % does not sell
- It is asked, sale frequency of "The Treasure of Troy" design items. 82,1 % answered as never sold, 17,8 % answered as rarely sold.

It can be said that, in Canakkale, jewelry and particularly "The Treasure of Troy" design items are not tourism products yet. And jewelry store owners and managers are not aware of "The Treasure of Troy" neither as a cultural heritage nor tourism product.

On the other side; the importance of jewelry as a tourism product increases over time. For example; in November 2008 the Dubai Mall located in Dubai, United Arab Emirates opened to be the world's largest shopping mall with 1,200 stores of which 220 make up Dubai Mall's Gold Souk, a wall to wall display of gold and jewelry outlets. The Dubai Mall, one of 40 other shopping malls in Dubai, has a mall version of the gold souk found in the street market. To spark tourism in 1996, The Dubai Shopping Festival was initiated and it takes place every year for approximately a month (jewelrytourism.com, 2010).

European Commission (2010) gives the following case; Neapolitan jewelers launched an idea to create space for expansion of the Naples goldsmiths' quarter. At Caserta, just outside Naples, one of Italy's most important centres for the jewelry trade has been built. Some 190 jewelry companies created a consortium and launched the 'Tari' project (Tari was an ancient Neapolitan gold coin). The idea was to create a versatile centre plus permanent exhibition areas and make Tari a crossroads in the European jewelry business. The centre soon included wholesale operations, training and research facilities. To preserve the age-old traditions in the old goldsmiths' quarter, the consortium members kept their shops there. The investment makes it one of the most important in the Mezzogiorno by the private sector for years. The consortium's initiative accounts for about 40% of the jewelry trade in the province of Naples and 30% of regional activity. Sector employment grew from 500 in 1982 to some 1,500 in 1996 as a result of the project.

Istanbul is an important destination of jewelry production and trade too. In 2005 Istanbul Jewelry Show, marketing consultant Rick Bannerot stated that "Turkey's commitment to building and reinforcing its role in



worldwide jewelry design and production is not only enlightened but refreshing. Dating jewelry production back to 700 B.C. Turkey actively draws upon its inspiration as the very cradle of Western Civilization and its location at the very heart of the cross roads of where East meets West”.

## CONCLUSION

Statistical datum shows that the tourism industry is one of the biggest industries in the world. As international tourism continues to expand, trends also changes. The natural and cultural heritage, diversities and living cultures are major tourism attractions. Tourism is foremost a form of economic development which has cultural resources at its foundations. Cultural tourism has close relationship with sustainable tourism. One of the global sustainable tourism criteria is, the business uses elements of local art, architecture, or cultural heritage in its operations, design, decoration, food, or shops; while respecting the intellectual property rights of local communities. Cultural tourism also attracts quality tourists who spend more money per day, and are more interested in cultural attractions.

Archeological Site of Troy in Canakkale, Turkey is on the World Heritage List of cultural and natural sites. In 1873, German entrepreneur-turned-archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann discovered the Royal Treasury of ancient Troy, and called as the "Treasure of Priam". Schliemann's research at Hisarlik represented the archaeological discovery of a Homeric civilization, previously considered by many experts to be legendary. But he smuggled the items out of Turkey. Today, nearly every student knows of the story of Troy, the tale told by Homer in the Iliad thousands of years ago. There are dozens of computer games, and even slot machines inspired by Treasure of Troy.

Handicrafts often form an important dimension of a region's cultural tourism experience. New or renovated attractions raise tourist numbers and location popularity. Refurbishing museums, visitors' centers, and cultural heritage in general gives more for the tourist to see and raises their willingness to pay for it. More and quality tourists mean greater turnover and better business. Jewelry is a special souvenir, full of passion, love, culture, and history. For the tourist this gives an incredible ambiance of not just jewelry shopping but combines with it a feel for Troy, Helen of Paris. It is estimated that jewelry, particularly "the Treasure of Troy" design items can be an important tourism product of Canakkale in the near future, in spite of jewelers are not aware of "the Treasure of Troy" and they do not make an effort to sell to tourists today.

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# THE INTANGIBLE HERITAGE AND HERITAGE TOURISM IN THE SULTANATE OF OMAN

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## ABSTRACT

According to the UNESCO's 2003 Convention the Intangible Cultural Heritage (ICH) means 'the practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills – as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts and cultural spaces associated therewith – that communities, groups and, in some cases, individuals recognize as part of their cultural heritage'. Today, the ICH is considered one of the main valuable tourism resources in any destination around the world. Therefore, Oman, as a developing tourism destination, is in the process of safeguarding and developing the use of ICH elements in tourism products, especially those relating to performing arts, traditional craftsmanship and knowledge and special practices. This has been sorted by the establishment of such governmental institutions as the Oman Centre for Traditional Music and Public Authority for Crafts Industry. Despite these efforts, there are different critical issues needs to be clearly discussed and wisely resolved collaboratively among all stakeholders in order to benefit from the ICH without threatening its sustainability.

**Key Words:** tangible heritage, intangible heritage, heritage tourism

## INTRODUCTIO N

According to McKercher and du Cros (2002: 83), the intangible heritage is '*the totality of tradition-based creations of a cultural community, expressed by a group or individuals and recognized as reflecting the expectations of a community in so far as they reflect its cultural and social identity*'. A wider recognized definition is provided by the Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage (UNESCO 2003: Article 2.1) which includes that the intangible heritage means:

*“The practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills – as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts and cultural spaces associated therewith – that communities, groups and, in some cases, individuals recognize as part of their cultural heritage. This intangible cultural heritage, transmitted from generation to generation, is constantly recreated by communities and groups in response to their environment, their interaction with nature and their history, and provides them with a sense of identity and continuity, thus promoting respect for cultural diversity and human creativity.”*

According to the Convention (UNESCO 2003: Article 2.2), five major types of intangible heritage can be identified which are: (a) oral traditions and expressions, including language as a vehicle of the intangible cultural heritage; (b) performing arts; (c) social practices, rituals and festive events; (d) knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe; (e) traditional craftsmanship (see Figure 1 for examples from the Omani intangible heritage).

Figure 1  
Examples for the Five Listed Types of Intangible Heritage in the Sultanate of Oman.

<b>Types</b>	<b>Examples</b>
oral traditions and expressions	<i>Greeting: nose touch and idiom 'ooloom', Ma Shai Akba Ma Shai Oloom</i>
performing arts	<i>el-Razhah, el-Haboot, el-Ayalah, el-Bakit, Nadbat el-Shuhoo</i>
social practices, rituals and festive events	<i>El-Maalid, el-Ttana, el-khatmaa, el-Shiwaa, el-Habttah, el-aranqashoo, el-tahloolah, bullfight</i>
knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe	<i>Aflaj System (solar system), Frankincense burning</i>
traditional craftsmanship	<i>Khanjar, Omani Halwa (sweet), Rose Water</i>

Some of the major important elements that the Convention (UNESCO 2003) included are:

- The establishment of a Representative List of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity (Article 16);
- The establishment of a List of Intangible Cultural Heritage in Need of Urgent Safeguarding (Article 17);
- Encouragement of international cooperation to safeguard the intangible cultural heritage (Article 19);
- The establishment of a “Fund for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage” (Article 25).

### **Linking the Tangible and Intangible Heritage**

The linkage between tangible and intangible heritage resources is inseparable; they complement one another. In fact, without intangible values attached to tangible materials, they cannot be described as 'heritage'. In this sense, the tangible resources are the aarent product of various intangible elements, i.e. oral traditions, social practices, and knowledge. In contrast, communicating the different universal values of intangible heritage resources should be made through tangible media to enhance visitors' experience. This is important, especially, if the visitors are unfamiliar with the context which they might encounter for the first time. This has been recognized by those who are involved in heritage resources management, heritage industry and heritage tourism, either natural or cultural. Principal 1 of the International Cultural Tourism Charter (ICOMOS 1999)

In regard to archaeological sites, for example, the Charter for the Protection and Management of the Archaeological Heritage (ICOMOS 1990) referred to the fact that the intangible heritage or ‘the living traditions of indigenous peoples’ are essential components in interpreting archaeological and historical resources. It is essential to convey heritage universal values to the public. This is vital in creating the sense of continuity and interrelationships between people, events and places through time and transmitting this to visitors (Taylor and Altenburg 2006). Also, the ICOMOS Charter for the Interpretation of Cultural Heritage, Ename Charter, (ICOMOS 2007: Principle 3) referred to the importance of safeguarding both the tangible and intangible values of cultural heritage sites in their natural and cultural settings, as well as their social contexts. This is to emphasize that heritage interpretation should ‘integrate resources elements by the shaping of core product’ where the intangible ideas and feelings, such as nostalgia and pleasures, are communicated through the tangible elements such as historic sites (Tunbridge and Ashworth 1996: 8).

### **An overview for the Management of the Intangible Heritage in the Sultanate of Oman**

The Cultural landscape in the Sultanate of Oman can be described as an open-air living heritage museum. Generally speaking, heritage resources, tangible and intangible, in Oman represent major tourism attractions. Some of the visited heritage sites are of outstanding universal values where there are four groups of sites which are inscribed on the World Heritage List: frankincense sites, Bahla oasis, Bat cemetery, and five examples for the ancient irrigation system, *aflaj*. These sites are some of the top visited attractions in Oman, especially those located in active tourism areas such as Bahla in the Interior region and al-Baleed in Dhofar region. In Bahla, for example, visitors can experience living heritage, observe social practices and learn about traditional craftsmanship during their visit to the old *suq* district located to the west of Bahla Fort.

Beside these sites, there are other tourism areas which are famous for providing unique experience and taste of the living traditional heritage. Take Nizwa – in the Interior region- as an example, where visitors like to visit Jabal Akhdar, Harat el-Seebani, Bait Rudaidah, Falj al-Khatmeen, Nizwa old market, Nizwa Fort, and *al-halqah*, early morning market for selling and buying goats and cattle. In regard to Jabal al-Akhdar, in particular, it is famous for its exceptional climate in Oman and marvelous natural and cultural heritage resources. Some of the intangible heritage that visitors might experience is the local knowledge about how to practice agriculture and grazing in mountainous area and the manufacturing of rose water. Other heritage attractions that tourists enjoy visiting to experience intangible heritage in Oman are desert areas - e.g. the Empty Quarter and al-Sharqiyah Sand- where there is the oortunity to learn about the Bedouin culture. Also, there are the rural peripheral areas which are famous for their palm-trees farms and *aflaj* system- oasis culture – as it is the case in the Interior region. Also, in mountainous regions, such as in Jabal Shams and Musandam in the north and in Dhofar region in the south, tourists have the oortunity to enjoy sensible experience about the herdsmen culture. Each of these different local culture is attached to their context-based intangible heritage which is certainly needs to be safeguarded, documented, and developed to be utilized and presented in responsible way.

To preserve the intangible heritage, the Omani government has been working collaboratively with other involved institutions and individuals, at national and international level. At national level, the Omani intangible heritage is protected by several legislations and policies as early as the 1974 under the Omani Penal Code 1974 (Royal Decree 7/1974).

Also, the National Heritage Protection Law 1980 (Royal Decree 6/1980) stated the importance of protecting and preserving the wider context in which heritage resources are located (Article 4). The Basic Statute of the State 1996 (Royal Decree 101/1996) in Principle 13 also stated that: *'The State fosters and preserves the national heritage, encourages the sciences, arts, literature, scientific research and assists in their propagation'*. Another importance Omani legislation is the Law on the Protection of Copyrights and Neighboring Rights 2000 (Royal Decree 37/2000) where Article 1 of the law defines the term 'folklore' as:

*"Literary, artistic or scientific works created in Oman by popular groups expressing their cultural identity, which are transferred from generation to generation and represent a fundamental element in the national popular traditional heritage."*

The same Article includes that *'the competent authority shall exercise the author's rights in works of folklore to object to any mutilation, modification or unlawful commercial exploitation'*. At the international level, in 1972, Oman became a member of UNESCO and in 1981 it became one of the State Parties and was accepted as a party in the 1972 UNESCO Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (Royal Decree 69/1981). Also, in 2007, Oman ratified the Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions 2005 (Al-Busaidi 2010b).

A very important step in regard to the protection of Omani intangible heritage was when the Omani government ratified the Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage 2003 in 2005. According to Article 11.a of the convention (UNESCO 2003, each State Party shall *'take the necessary measures to ensure the safeguarding of the intangible cultural heritage present in its territory'*. In regard to this, since the mid 1970s, the Omani government has been developing the administrative structures and responsible institutions which are capable of documenting, preserving, and promoting and raising the awareness of intangible heritage values. To give an example, through different research projects and documentary programs, the Ministry of Heritage and Culture has been working collaboratively- at international and national level- with governmental and non-governmental institutions to sustain part of the intangible heritage. To give an example, based on its main mission, the Ministry of Heritage and Culture (2005)<sup>1</sup> has established the Folklore Arts Department Based on the fact that *'folklore arts and incorporeal/intangible cultural heritage gain special importance as they demonstrate various economic, social, cultural and intellectual aspects of the Omani society'*. The Department started field collection project for the Omani incorporeal cultural heritage covering customs and traditions, old dialects, narrated history, popular anecdote, traditional music and songs, dances, artistic shows, traditional poetry, proverbs, games and medicine. This is beside the documentation of old vocations such as agriculture, fishing, pasturage and traditional trade and crafts (Ministry of Heritage and Culture 2005). Next to this Department, there is the Department of Museums at the Ministry of Heritage which is responsible for the management and showcasing various aspects of the Omani intangible heritage at different museums in Muscat, Sohar and Salalah. Beside these museums there are also other museums and exhibitions in Oman owned by individuals such as Bait Zubair in Muscat which presents parts of the intangible heritage to visitors.

In addition to the Ministry of Heritage and Culture, there is the Oman Centre for Traditional Music (OCTM)<sup>2</sup> which was established in 1984 at the Ministry of Information. This was based on the directives of His Majesty Sultan Qaboos bin Said that *'the country's musical heritage should be collected and documented in order to ensure that it was preserved for future generations'* (OCTM 2010). Taking into consideration the wider context of the gathered materials by using a comprehensive approach to documentation, today, the Centre has gathered more than 80% of Oman's musical traditions, including more than 23,000 photographs, 580 audiovisual media and a large number of sound recordings. For an easy access, the gathered database has been digitized. Since its inception more than 130 different types of Omani traditional music were identified and classified into four main traditional expressions which are: sea shanties and fishing songs, celebration songs, Bedouin traditional music and traditional mountain music (OCTM 2010).

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<sup>1</sup>See the Ministry of Heritage and Culture : [http://www.mhc.gov.om/english/arts\\_intro.asp](http://www.mhc.gov.om/english/arts_intro.asp)

<sup>2</sup>See <http://www.octm-folk.gov.om/>

One of the most integral resources of the intangible heritage in the Sultanate of Oman is the traditional craftsmanship which has been playing a vital role at various levels; e.g. cultural, economic, intellectual and social. Therefore, much attention has been dedicated to craft industries which were among the issues that received attention from His Majesty Sultan Qaboos bin Said. Therefore, to activate the role of craft industries and revive them in the present, both socially and economically, in order to protect them from extinction, His Majesty issued the Royal Decree No. 24/2003 on 3/3/2003 establishing the Public Authority for Craft Industries (2010)<sup>3</sup>.

To achieve these objectives, the Authority has conducted several field studies and inventory projects, participated in national and international exhibitions, developed several awareness programs especially during the festivals such as Muscat Festival and *el-Khareef* Festival, established craft training programs and centers such as the Center for Training and Pottery and Crockery Production in Bahla, and marketed craft products through different outlets such as the Omani Craftsman's House in Muscat and in Sultan Qaboos Port outlet. In cooperation with other governmental institutions such as the Ministry of Heritage and Culture, Ministry of Tourism and Ministry of Commerce and Industry, several traditional crafts and their knowledge have been preserved and protected through policies and special criteria from being negatively altered; e.g. *Omani dishdashah, kummah, khanjar*.

Also, the Ministry of Tourism has been playing a major role in preserving the Omani intangible heritage through its interpretive projects and promotional programs at national and international level; e.g. travel exhibitions, festivals. Also, through the Department of Site Development, the Ministry preserves the intangible heritage of each tourism sites; e.g. the Omani Craft House and museum in Nizwa Fort and the museum and craft house in Khasab Castle (Ministry of Tourism).

Another effort to preserve the intangible heritage is carried out by the Ministry of Sport Affairs where there is a special committee for the Omani traditional sports and games. Suorted by His Majesty, the Sultan, the Ministry is plying an interesting role in promoting some of the Omani traditional games at national and international level<sup>4</sup>. In addition to the above-mentioned institutions, there are other governmental and private institutions which work collaboratively for the preservation and utilization of the Omani intangible heritage values such as the Ministry of Information, the Ministry of *Awqaf*, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Royal Court Affairs, the Ministry of Regional Municipalities, Muscat Municipality (Muscat Festival) and Dhofar Municipality (*al-Khareef* Festival), Ministry of Education, Sultan Qaboos University, the Ministry of Interiors, and the Ministry of Social Development<sup>5</sup>, PDO and others.

### **Intangible Heritage and Tourism in the Sultanate of Oman**

Despite the fact that at different levels there are continuous efforts to safeguard, develop and promote the Omani intangible heritage resources, yet in regard to tourism in particular, there are still some issues need to be collaboratively and wisely addressed so the Omani intangible heritage resources can be preserved and their values can be utilized properly and responsibly (see also Al-Busaidi 2010a). Five issues are presented in the following lines.

#### **1- Insufficient Information and Research**

A critical issue is the limit of information and in-depth research about the available intangible heritage resources, such as those relative to major heritage attractions, especially the World Heritage Sites. This is critical as without understanding the different components of the tourism attractions, it is not possible to establish a holistic perspective and presentation to tourists. Currently, most of the research projects relative to heritage sites, e.g. historic monuments, rock arts, are mainly focused on the tangible physical elements.

#### **2- Omani Intangible Heritage in Museum**

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<sup>3</sup> See the official website for the Authority: [http://www.paci.gov.om/English/About\\_en.aspx](http://www.paci.gov.om/English/About_en.aspx)

<sup>4</sup> See [www.mosa.gov.om/arabic/cmspage.asp?cmspagecldone=2064&parnt=22](http://www.mosa.gov.om/arabic/cmspage.asp?cmspagecldone=2064&parnt=22).

<sup>5</sup> For instance, Women Development Centers.

Based on the International Code of Ethics for Museums, the museum has an important duty to 'provide opportunities for the appreciation, understanding and promotion of the natural and cultural heritage' (ICOM 2006: 8). In regard to the presentation of the Omani intangible heritage in museums in Oman there is a lack of appropriate presentation and interpretation of intangible heritage where interpretive practices and approaches are underdeveloped or unavailable at some major tourism sites; e.g. Bat, Sharqiyah Sand, historic quarters. A main reason for this due to managerial realities where there is limited available funding and Omani expertise. Another issue is that instead of heuristic constructivist approaches for the intangible heritage, presently, museums in Oman depend mostly on positivistic informative approaches. For instance, the focus is on the final products of a particular craft rather than the process and context. Another relative issue to this is that a good presentation needs to be themed (Ham 1992) and 'organized in a way that visitors can both access it and follow it' (Moscardo 1998: 10).

### **3- Lack of Omani Interpreters of Intangible Heritage**

There is a limited number of trained Omani interpreters specialized in intangible heritage, especially from the locals, who are considered as the first guardians responsible for the safeguarding and development their intangible heritage, either within site attractions or at museums. A major reason for this is the shortcoming of in-country educational institutions and focused training programs in Oman.

### **4- Intangible Heritage Promotion and Marketing**

There is insufficient promotion for intangible heritage resources and products at national and international level, either by the public or private sectors. For instance, the report of the *Sixth Five-Year Development Plan, 2001-2005*, (Ministry of National Economy 2001: 127) included that

*"No leading role was evident for the private sector in promoting heritage except that some companies allocated some pages in their brochures to provide information about castles, forts, museums and archaeological sites. The private sector is still directing its attention and investments toward the production sector that generate fast profits."*

### **5- Public Education**

In general, there is a lack of knowledge and experience about the intangible heritage resources among the public, especially the young generation. The problem of shortcomings in teaching skills to communicate and integrate intangible heritage in the education system seems to be basic general issues in Oman. Because school students are tomorrow's constituency, knowledge about intangible heritage is critical and part of the responsibility that the education sector needs to pay more attention for.

### **Future Considerations**

There is a need for a holistic integrative approach to safeguarding and developing a responsible use for the intangible heritage resources in the Sultanate of Oman. Both tangible and intangible heritage elements should be considered when developing a tourism plan for heritage attractions. This is because neither tangible resources, nor their intangible universal values exist in a vacuum, they complement one another. In order to accomplish this, there are several aspects to be considered including: 1- Professionalism Development in Intangible Heritage Interpretation; 2- National Registry and Archive for the Omani Intangible Heritage; 3- The Development of National Legislation for the Safeguarding of the Omani Intangible Heritage; 4- National and Local Museums for Intangible Heritage of Oman; and 5- Public Awareness of Intangible Heritage Values and Community Participation

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## FACTORS AFFECTING THE TOURISM ATTRACTION OF THE DOME OF SOLTANIEH

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### ABSTRACT

The importance of tourism in creating positive economic effects in the world has been increasingly enhanced, and in all countries these activities are considered as a major cause of creating employment, increasing foreign exchange earnings and improvement of balance of payments. The Dome of Soltanieh is the world's largest brick dome and the third dome-shaped building and also one of the most important historical monuments of Zanjan province which has been registered as a World Heritage by UNESCO. Therefore in this paper we want to analyze the strengths and weaknesses, opportunities and threats of this site to achieve the enhancement and improvement of the tourism function. Methods used in this study are descriptive - analytical survey using SWOT Analysis, and data collection methods are documents (library) and questionnaire. 375 national and foreign tourists were chosen as the sample using the simple random method. Sample size is estimated through Lamsdon formula. Research results show that the tourists entering the city, tend to have short-term tarriance. Also studies related to travel objectives show that one third of tourists come to Soltanieh only because they are interested in visiting the Dome of Soltanieh and other urban heritage sites. But due to the lack of proper infrastructures, the length of stay and consequently the tourist expenditure is very low. Generally because of attractiveness of the Dome a desirable mental image of the destination is caused for tourists and there is very high possibility of revisiting the city. The same factor shows the need for attention and investment in the tourist area.

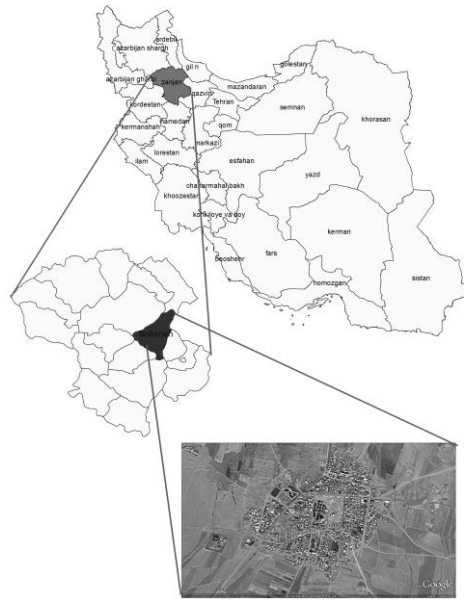
**Key Words:** tourist attractions, SWOT analysis, tourism facilities, urban infrastructure, the Dome of Soltanieh.

### INTRODUCTION

In recent years tourism is becoming more respected as an income generation industry (Mohalati, 2004). Because of the religious and traditional nature of spaces and the existence of tourism interest places in Iran, this section has a tendency towards historical- cultural attractions including the content of Islamic architecture and religious aspects (Dinari, 2005). Hence Zanjan Province that has several historical monuments can be one of the country's tourist poles. But although the majestic building of Dome of Soltanieh is a registered monument and one of the masterpieces of world architecture, so far it has not been successful in attracting tourists. Thus in this paper we will try to analysis the current state of tourism in Soltanieh with emphasis on the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats.

The city of Soltanieh was built 800 years ago and lies in the East Zanjan province. Its name translates as "the Imperial". Figure 1 shows the position of Soltanieh City. The most important characteristic of the city of Soltanieh is, regardless of the issues related to the historical values, the Soltanieh famous meadow (Sobouti, 1999). This meadow, which in the period of "Ilkhanian" government (800 years ago) was used as a summer resort, caused the current city to be construct as the capital city (Hatam, 2007). According to Assyrian writings in the eighth century BC, Sakarty people have been living in the plain of Soltanieh and the name of this place during the Madian state government was Arybad (Ganjavi, 1972).

**Figure 1**  
**Position of Soltanieh City**



The city is characterized by a specific form of buildings, open green spaces and diagonal streets, which are harmonious with the local natural environment. It also contains historical monuments, such as Molla Hassan tomb, Chalabi Oughloo, a royal citadel and the dome of Soltanieh.

Acknowledging these remarkable cultural assets, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) designated Soltanieh historical city as a World Heritage Site in 2005 (UNESCO, 2011). The dome of Soltanieh is chosen for analysis partly because it has become a benchmark as many historical sites in Zanjan develop urban heritage tourism, and partly because it is the world's largest brick dome and the third dome-shaped building. Furthermore it is one of the most important historical monuments of the Zanjan province.

## **METHODOLOGY**

Methods used in this study are descriptive - analytical survey using SWOT Analysis. Data collection methods are documents (library) and questionnaire. The first method involves the use of library, books, newspapers, magazines, Internet sites and uses statistical reports. The second includes observations and surveys. The tool for gathering information from the tourists was a questionnaire including of 45 questions that was designed using "Likert" scaling and after being approved for its validity, it was distributed among tourists. Also methods used in analyzing the data include description method using SWOT analysis. This approach actually seeks to clarify ambiguous issues. The status quo has set the basis for organizing and developing strategies and ultimately will lead to adjust plans and operational projects.

The population includes all tourists that entered the Dome in the year according to statistics (June 2010) and the statistical sample is 375 people of national tourists who have been selected using the simple random method. To determine the sample size a formula given by Lamsdon was used (Lamsdon, 2002). Because the number of tourists that entered into Soltanieh in 2010 has been 83,743 people, according to this formula sample size is approximately 375 people.

**Table 1**  
**Calculating sample size for 95%**

<b>people</b>	<b>required Sample size</b>
100	80
200	132
500	217
1000	278
2000	322
5000	357
10000	370
100000	383

**Origin of tourists entering the dome**

Tehran Province with 28.26 percent of tourists, has the highest number of tourists in Iran. Zanzan Province with 17.33 percent is placed in the next rank. Third place with 5.86 percent is owned by East Azarbayjan province.

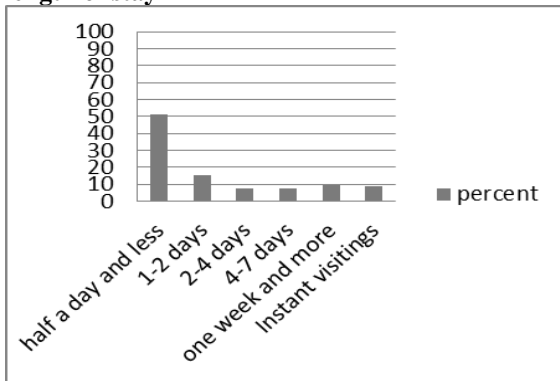
**Table 2**  
**Origin of tourists entered the dome of Soltanieh**

<b>Origin of Tourists(Province)</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Tehran	106	28.26
Zanzan	65	17.33
East Azarbayjan	23	6.13
Hamedan	22	5.86
West Azarbayjan	19	5.06
Khozestan	15	4
Qazvin	15	4
Guilan	15	4
Isfahan	14	3.37
Kermanshah	13	3.64
Qom	11	2.93
Boushehr	10	2.66
Golestan	10	2.66
Fars	10	2.66
Markazi	9	2.4
Hormozgan	9	2.4
Yazd	9	2.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>375</b>	<b>100</b>

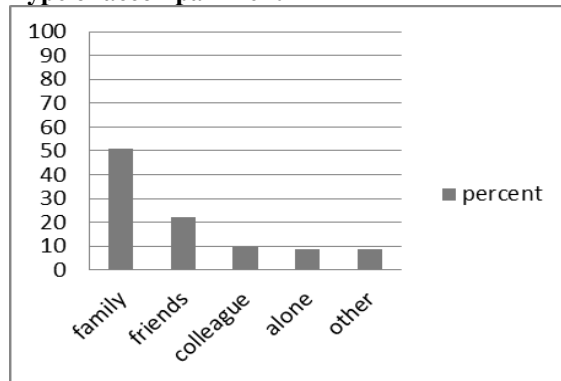
**Resident status in Soltanieh**

Research data shows that tourists that enter the city have tendency to a short-term stay. Proof of this claim is the finding of half days and fewer as the length of stay for 50.93 percent of the respondents. It means that just over half of the tourists are stopping in the target less than half a day. If urgent visits are also added to the figures, a total of nearly 60 percent of tourists visit this town immediately, on a sort term basis. Results also show that most tourists, (28.53 percent) prefer using travel tents and stay for free. Due to short-term stay most costs are for food and 31.2 percent of tourists spend less than 10 dollars in days.

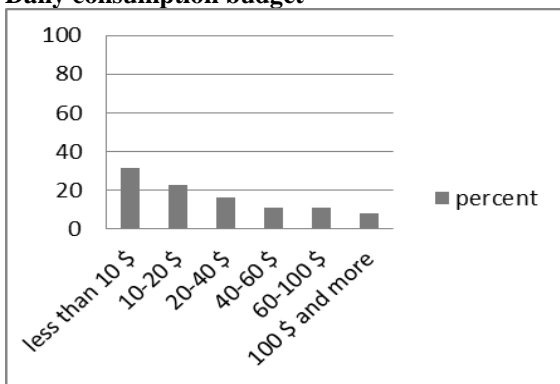
**Figure 1**  
**length of stay**



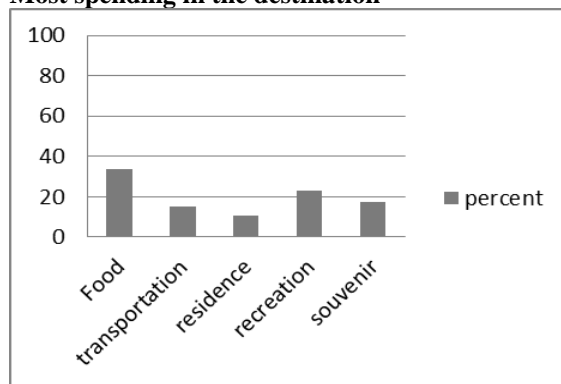
**Figure 2**  
**Type of accompaniment**



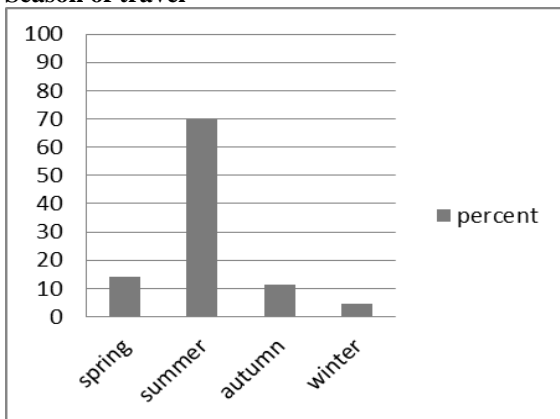
**Figure 3**  
**Daily consumption budget**



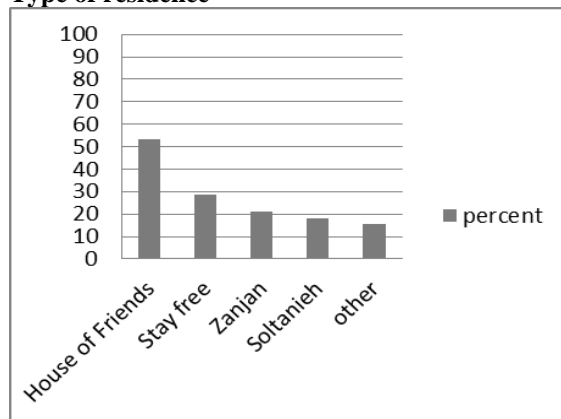
**Figure 4**  
**Most spending in the destination**



**Figure 5**  
**Season of travel**



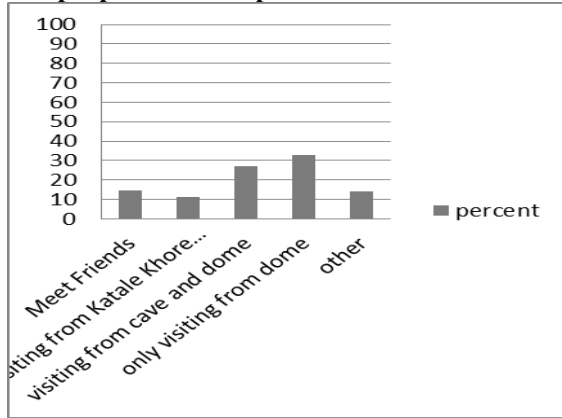
**Figure 6**  
**Type of residence**



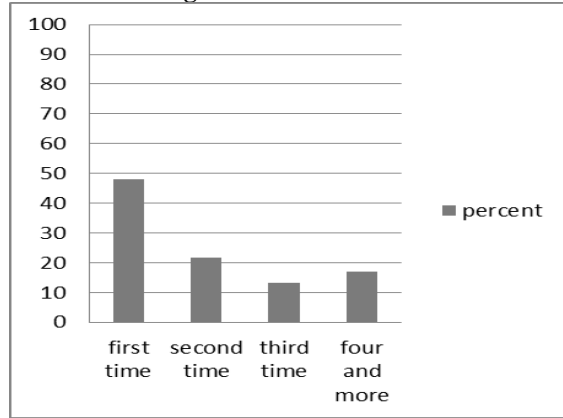
**Evaluation of attractiveness**

The study of travel-related objectives show that only about one-third of tourists comes to the Dome for visiting the Soltanieh historical city. The most important tourist destination in Soltanieh is located over its way, the Katala Khore cave. Overall 74.39 percent of tourists come to the Soltanieh just to visit this urban heritage. Thus the hypothesis that Soltanieh is a transition tourist destination to visit other destinations should be rejected. But this issue over time will reduce the attraction of the dome, if it fails to increase the number of tourists.

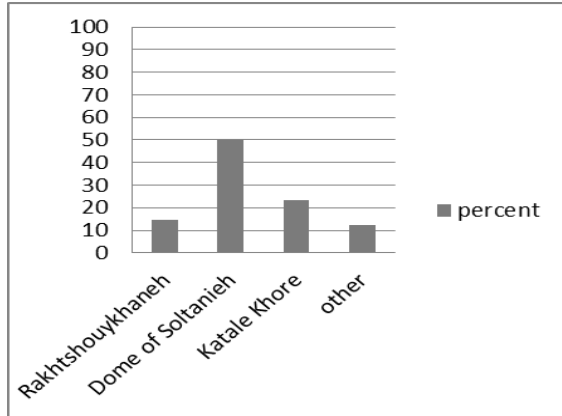
**Figure 7**  
**The purpose of the trip**



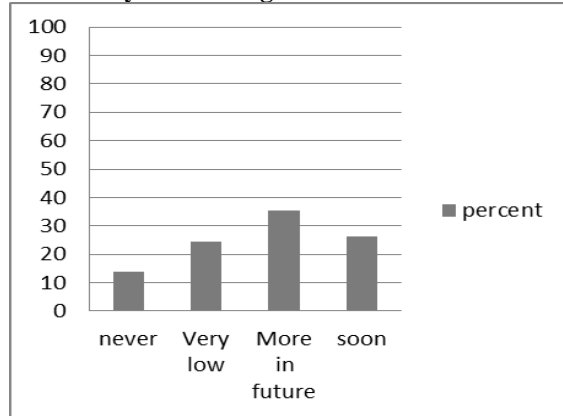
**Figure 8**  
**Times of visiting the dome**



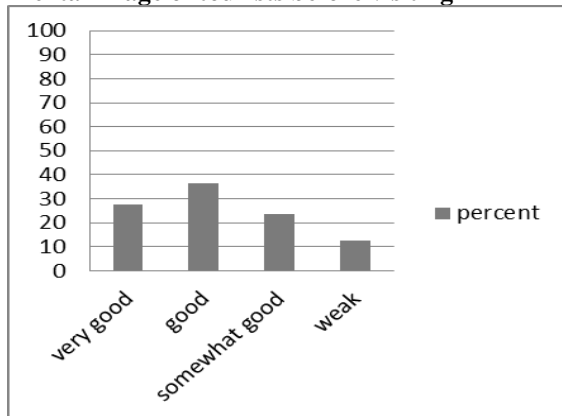
**Figure 9**  
**Attractive rates**



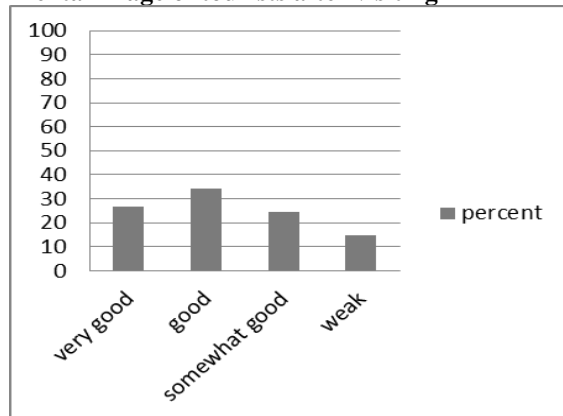
**Figure 10**  
**Probability to travel again**



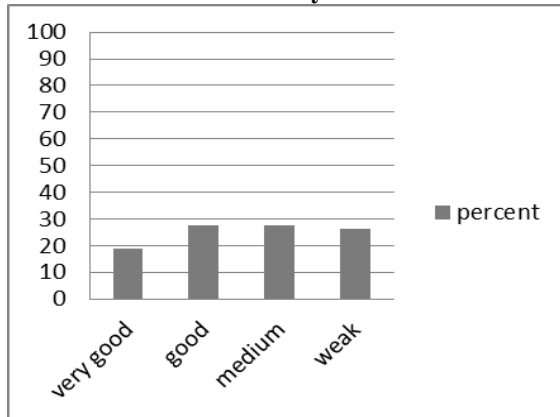
**Figure 11**  
**Mental image of tourists before visiting**



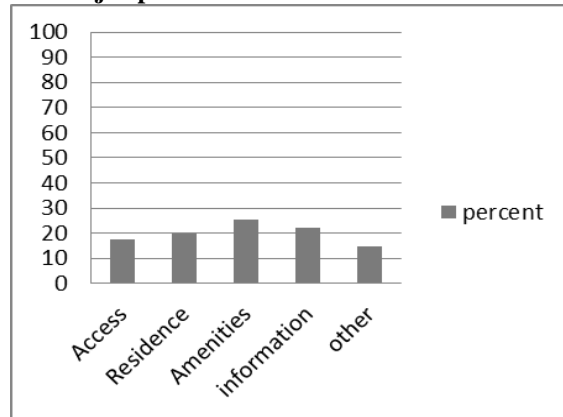
**Figure 12**  
**Mental image of tourists after visiting**



**Figure 13**  
Satisfaction with the facility



**Figure 14**  
The major problem with travel



### Features of Soltanieh tourist market

Soltanieh tourist market is a market with competitive market features and a particular type of tourists (25 to 50 year old) with families traveling to the city. Families often in groups of 3 to 5 people come to this city; less than half a day is spent in this city and less than 10 dollars a day is spent. Most of these costs are spent on buying food. The majority of tourists low income. Thus they are spending too little in the city.

Soltanieh tourism product is in the transition from stage of introduction to stage of development. This factor will increase the number of tourists from remote provinces, especially from the South and East of country.

Soltanieh tourist market is highly seasonal. The number of tourists has significant relationship with the months of the year, weather condition of region and important events. The first month of spring vacation, summer vacation and important events are most of the times when the greatest number of tourists are attracted to the city. Because of being a seasonal market and including short-term accommodation, private-sector incentives to invest in tourist infrastructure facilities have decreased. On the other hand due to low advertising of Soltanieh Dome in distant provinces, a small number of tourists are visiting the dome from this provinces. This characteristic is the main weaknesses of this tourist attraction. Factory of advertising and its relationship with the distance variable in this respect is very important. Generally due to the above features, the city's tourist market is highly sensitive to price fluctuations and events and therefore, the probability is very vulnerable.

Table 3  
Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats

Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
Global reputation of the building	Short-term accommodation	Early stages of tourist attractions	Emergence of typical shops instead of shops with souvenirs and crafts changing Soltanieh into a transition destination
Particularly attractive	It is very small for a long time stay	Development of domestic tourism	
Specific geographic location of the city of Soltanieh	Shortages and lack of guides and translators	Possible to attract tourists 18 to 25 years	Low number of tourists with a higher education degree
Rich history and culture	Weak and ineffective advertising	Possible to attract local tourists (from Zanzan province)	The low spending of tourists in the city
Visiting tourist with their family	Seasonal tourist market		There are a large number of tourists with very low or middle income
Places of cultural conferences and seminars	Lack of amenities and recreational facilities		Increase in the number of rival attractions of tourism (Katalekhore cave)
Archaeology			
Create an ideal mental image of the destinations for tourists	Weak nights accommodation centers		
	Scattered and unpredictable accommodation		
	Inappropriate access to the city via the highway		
	Health is rarely respected by the people		

## CONCLUSION

Today travel that is done with the aim of visiting historical and cultural places is on the rise. Research findings made clear that Soltanieh tourist attractions are in relation to other tourist destinations in Zanzan province. These data also while identifying the features of Soltanieh tourist market, showed that the most important Soltanieh tourist market supply is Tehran. Furthermore the findings determine that the only way to achieve high income and improvement of tourism in the region of Soltanieh is to have more advertisements in all provinces, marketing studies and to provide infrastructure facilities. The infrastructure is a vital component of the tourism industry. Moreover, the main weaknesses of the tourist attractions are seasonality, short-term stay, and lower the cost spent by tourists.

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## CODES AS INTERCEPTORS OF MARKETING HEALTH TOURISM

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### ABSTRACT

Based on the health tourism, the cornerstone is the foreigner tourist who receives the facilities of health in another country. Hence legal issues about treatment should be considered between related countries. One of the most important issues in marketing is clarification in accordance with the package of the journey, which in relation to health tourism, must be conducted in full clearance due to the sensitivities as regards the patient. The principal guideline might be taking full responsibility by a private company, which demands the full cooperation of the governmental sector to ease the process.

**Key Words:** marketing, health tourism, tourist, codes.

### INTRODUCTION

Today with properly planning, medical capabilities of a country can be introduced as tourist attraction. The different definitions of health tourism include its integrity during a trip to another country to access treatment, recovery, or prevention.

Its various divisions are as follows: Health Tourism, Medical Tourism, Wellness Tourism, and Curative Tourism. Stimulating of health tourism market, as regards the demand side (mainly developed countries) and supply side (mainly developing countries) are as follows:

Table1:  
Stimulating the Supply and Demand Side of Health Tourism

<b>Stimulating the supply side market</b>	<b>Stimulating market of demand side</b>
Globalization and trade liberalization in the field of health services	High cost of treatment in the country of origin
Growth of airlines and the Internet	Growing demand and long lines for treatment
Asian financial crisis	Lack of insurance cover, many operations
Exchange Rates	Strict rules and do some surgery to be illegal
Quick upgrade medical equipment	Need not inform relatives

The term globalization, which means the displacement of labor and technology in international borders, today with trade liberalization in the field of health care in tourism has been established and is one of the major development of this branch (Rahmani, 2009).

With the number of medical tourist visits to many countries, swelling by 20 to 30 per cent a year, medical tourism is growing rapidly. The industry in Asia is projected to generate more than US \$4.4 billion by 2012 (Takungpao, 2006). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), it is a growing trend with enormous economic implications (Bookman, 2007).

With human relations become more complex, the need is of relationships between individuals appeared and legal rules first came into existence. Tourists are considered one of the examples of foreigner citizens legally. In all legal systems



their rights and duties are considered. However, these rights are various in different territories (Zakerian, 2009). In many countries, the law protect the tourists have set to protect tourists against the responsible company for mismanagement (Ranjbarian, 2000).

In complex and multi-stage process such as health tourism, unexpected occurrence of events which cause unwanted financial and legal conflict is not unexpected (Rangpour,2009).Health tourism is often based on a trip to another country and is based on leisure time that an individual tourist expects that in this period does not face any problems. In fact, in addition to the need for careful planning before travel, he/she needs security and peace measures during the trip, which can be managed by preparing a guarantee letter provided to tourists. Among the various tourism, perhaps health tourism demands the highest legal clarification, because in addition to the issues and dangers that there are in other types of tourism, the health and medical tourism, has also raised individual physical health and the need for complete transparency is obligatory in its marketing.

Perspective of international law in relation to tourists has two modes

1. Theory to restrict accepting of foreigners
2. Theory of unconditional freedom for tourists

In some countries where negligence and consumer protection laws are well established, the traveler may be well protected; in other countries, he/she may not (Simons, 1987). Tourists are concerned on finding solutions to the legal problems in from of common code of international law, which will protect carriers, hoteliers, travel agents, and their clients (Same, 1987).

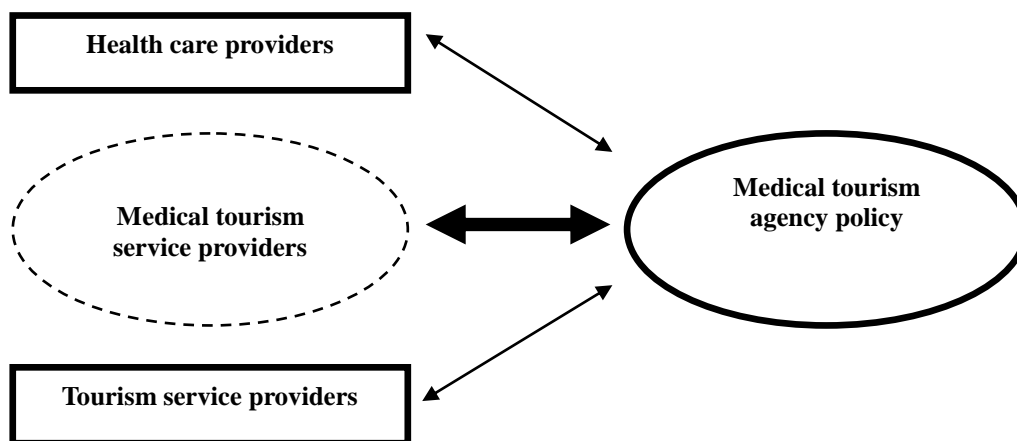
Having in mind all these cases, assessment, review laws, collects information and programming is important for the development of health tourism (Iranpour, 2009). Transparency in the rules in this area, will embrace success in the design of integrated marketing, enterprise management, and tourist satisfaction.

## METHODOLOGY

### Medical tourism service providers

Recognizing indicators of factors affecting on health tourism development, related legal issues could be realized properly. The indicators in the model "factors affecting health tourism" are the following set of three main factors, where the institutions policy and legislation are at the head of it. (Jabbari, 2008)

Figure 1: Model of relation between affecting factors of health tourism



Harriet Hoostan and Susan Kartyr have classified legal problems raised in the health tourism domain as follows:

1. Lack of insurance portability to other countries;
2. Failure to provide certificates from accredited international hospitals;
3. Lack the ability to track patients after their return
4. Lack of legal resources to protect in cases of foreign patient mistreatment;
5. Lack of scientific evidence taken by human resources in hospitals (Raha, 2010)

In another classification laws related to health tourism have been divided into two sections: (ahmadi, 2009)

- Laws relating to rights and obligations health tourists
- specific laws and treatment in the field of health and treatment

With this classification in mind, and other studies, the legal issues raised in the health tourism based on the executive chart was designed by the authors, is presented here. This chart as a health tourism package is composed of four courses each of which encompasses with legal issues.

1 – Before the trip:

- Global standardization of health and treatment
- Package transparency and patient awareness of services and destination country laws

2 – Journey to Action:

- Easy visa conditions

3 – Treatment and convalescence:

- Various insurance policies and their transfer between countries
- Standards of medical care and patient comfort
- Medical liability law
- organ transplantation to external patients

4 – Back after recovering period:

- Protection laws in cases of foreign patient mistreatment
- Institutional rules to deal with possible complaints

Based on this classification, the important legal issues at every stage were detected and among these cases, legal barriers related to health tourism were diagnosed. It should be noted that some of the problems in all these four stages are, for example, "rules governing the supplier companies, " which using the package offered known to be responsible in all areas.

Eventually analyzing these barriers lead to high performance solutions to these problems, the solution to the health tourism market could be designed with full transparency and no issue.

## RESULTS

Legal cases in the process of marketing and tourism management to make health prevented, in fact are the laws that in one country are recognized and contain ease and security in medical and leisure trends of the country. Nevertheless, due to conflict of law rules among states, they are not recognized in other countries.

Conversion process to the economic value of medical technology and design a business model, leads to legal problems, which according to classification implemented in this paper, supply side and demand side stages are faced with problems that can be in the form of insurance, security, financial, etc.

Firstly, patients choose their destination and attempted to identify given the competition in this market, the destination will be successful with country specific laws and medical advice. Certainly, the case along with other cases is effective, including security, having international standards and transparency of economic conditions for tourists.

Secondly, visa for entry into many countries is problematic, and despite being equipped with tools needed to health tourism, the visa crackdown could lead to stagnation and lack of tourists interested in obtaining a visa.

Next step considered the most contentious stage, posses many legal obstacles. The more barriers are related to medical tourism, barriers, and problems raised at this stage; sometimes for people resident in the country is problematic. Tourists, in addition to the legal issues that must be respected for their travel, will face with medical legal problems as well. Problems at this stage similar to other steps, will be both for the demand side and supply side, but due to the presence of the more colorful part of treatment at this stage, the legal barriers would be more annoying for them.

The final stage of division in this paper that includes the problems related to patient dissatisfaction with treatment after returning to his country, there are the legal challenges regarding how to pursue individual complaints as well as external supply side, problems of medical insurance protection at the international level.

With a closer look, we realize that the legal problems related to the politics of nations, economic conditions and the type of managing of each country and the tax laws would affect in making health tourism package. These obstacles if any exist at all stages will affect on marketing of supply and demand.

## DISCUSSION

Although today with the approach of develop, countries try to create regulations on tourism and health strategy, but government restrictions adopted in some cases are disincentive. For example, In Iran patients with Council authorization for medical treatment are sent abroad, are not considered passengers, and exempt from paying the amount out of the country. (Ghanami, 2008)However, get this license for tourists without the disease and treatments are simply out of the country is impossible. Profit businesses and tourist satisfaction depends on the legislative side of government which is supportive (Ranjbarian, 2009).

Before the trip, deciding to choose the destination path is crucial. The product introduction and marketing in case of having international standards will be successful and hospitality operators must comply with a variety of health codes and regulations that govern many aspects of their business (Barth, 2006), for example:

1 – Having certification by internationally accredited hospitals SOFIHA (International Health Services Accreditation Community)

2. MTA (Medical Tourism Association)

3-Implementation of the rule of Health and safety work act (HASAWA 1974) (anonymous, 2010) that has 4 instructions and their conduction at the work place is obligatory, besides it guaranty the work safety of individuals.

4-The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) is responsible for ensuring the proper labeling of food and the safety of food (Barth,2006).

With synchronization and continuous control law to implement these guidelines by countries, health tourism marketing full transparency is possible. For example, Iran's Ministry of Health, adopted health regulation rules under which each workplace should observe individual health, state buildings, and equipments according to these regulations (Ghanami, 2008).Having this certification and their implementation, allows transparency package and patient awareness of services and with the destination country laws. Success in marketing will depend on law transparency, and this process would encompass mental safety, decisiveness in making decision and inhibition of problems (Amin, 2009). When transparency is possible that the package offered certificates have international laws and implement them.

In the second stage, understanding tourist motivation and needs assessment is very important. This makes understanding the marketing mix needed to provide tourists desires. Middleton Travel incentive model banners and other marketing methods are considered as communication channels (Ranjbarian, 2009) .Respond to the needs of tourists, even if there are facilities, depends on administrative rules related to country of origin and destination. Today, many countries have to create conditions so that tourists can get medical visa at the least time. For example, seven-day visa at the airport or extend visa at the hotel, hospital, or clinic.

In next step the lake of portability of covering insurance to other countries is the main problem today. In most countries, insurance cover is valid only in the country of origin, and despite claims of some insurance companies to pay expenses in other countries; no cost from the insurers will pay. In this regard, insurance clients include patients, corporations, and physicians. Insurance experts believe that the process from start to finish tourism requires health insurance coverage, which is a combination of different types, and because of insurance spatial differences of countries, an insurance system in accordance with the international standards and approved by authentic insurance companies, should be established (Ranjpour,138). Bamrangrad Hospital in Thailand suggests insurance for medical travel that is designed specifically for the needs of people traveling abroad for medical treatment and it makes them not to be worry about their concerns (Anonymous, 2011).

Providing international certification standards for medical care indicates the standards of medical services and brings comfort to the patient. Nevertheless, in relation to medical errors, staff and doctors are supported by the country, while foreign patients complain not support (Raha, 2010).

To resolve legal problems and obstacles related to the fourth stage, the best way is to entrust the affairs to an organization or agency of health tourism with coordinating role between various organizations and having the responsibility at all stages. This creates the sense of security with tourists, maintaining safe working conditions and coordination at all stages of legislation.

In a study, tourism marketing strategy health indicator, as one indicator of the health affecting on tourism development ranked 7 among the 25 other indices (Haghighi, 2010). Before designing integrated marketing rules, the lack of recognition of laws and neglecting it, provides a barrier to a successful marketing strategy and achieving its ultimate goal needs proper planning.

Guun considers the "Government and regulation" as one important factors in site design influencers (Guun, 2002).

Legal problems in health tourism will result to the recession and to remove legal obstacles in meeting the health tourism affairs under different scales, implementing the following affairs would be of basic importance:

- An international scale, to monitor legislative and standardization;
- National-scale, coordinated public sector as facilitator and the private sector as a performer and an institution to coordinate the tow.
- Scale Tourism Organization, to consider the legal conditions for running the country of origin and destination of all tourists affairs work from beginning to end.

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# THE INFLUENCES OF PERSONALITY AND PERCEIVED MEDICAL TOURISM RISK ON PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF MEDICAL TOURISM DESTINATION ATTRIBUTES AND PURCHASE INTENTION

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**Key Words:** medical tourism, personality, perceived medical tourism risk, medical tourism destination attributes

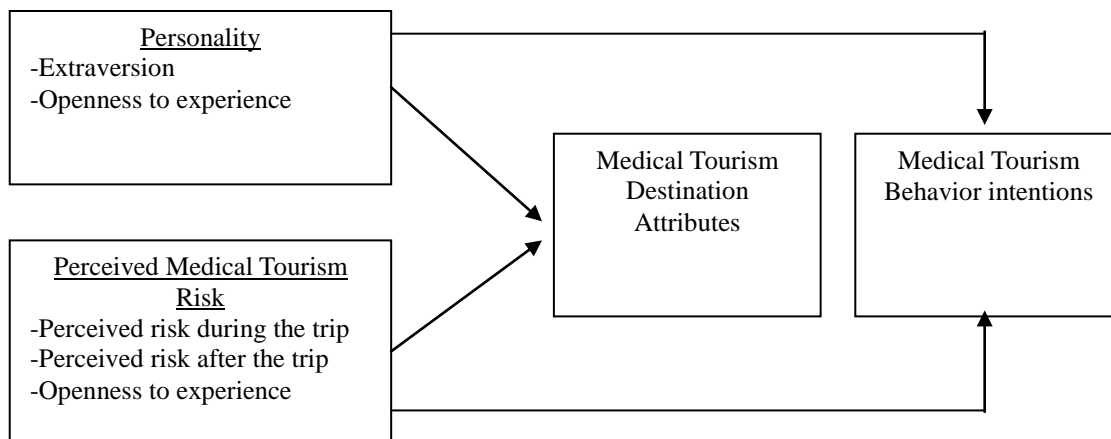
## INTRODUCTION

Nowadays tourism represents one of the most significant industries in the global economy, which is expected to continue into the future (Didaskalou, Nastos, & Matzarakis, 2004; Trunfio, Petruzzellis, & Nigro, 2006). As the tourism consumption patterns diversify, as a result of the continuously increasing importance of tourism in the global economy, the growth of “special interest tourism” (SIT) is gaining practitioners’ and scholars’ interests more than ever (Trauer, 2006). Hence, understanding the travel attitudes and destination selection considerations of different market segments has become imperative for practitioners in today’s travel and tourism industry (Hallab, 2006). Medical tourism, broadly defined as people traveling from their places of residence to a foreign country for health reasons, is one of the fastest growing segments of SIT (Escalera, 2007; García-Altés, 2005; Lapitskaya, 2005; Sherwood, 2006; Woodman, 2007). Although emerging studies pertaining to the rapid growth phenomenon of medical tourism proliferate, quantitative research of this topic remains scarce (Borman, 2004; Hunter-Jones, 2005).

The major purposes of the proposed study are threefold. First, the influences of personality on perceived importance of medical tourism destination attributes and purchase intention were investigated. Second, the influences of perceived risk of medical tourism on perceived importance of medical tourism destination attributes and purchase intention were also evaluated. Third, the mediator role of perceived importance of medical tourism destination attributes was tested (Figure 1).

## METHOD

A convenient sample of 800 Mainland Chinese tourists visiting Taipei, Taiwan was approached, among them 485 agreed to participate in the survey, resulting in a response rate of 60.63%. Following a brief introduction, the purpose and contents of the survey were explained to the prospective respondents. To increase the response rate, a mall gift was given to Mainland Chinese tourists who consented to participate in the survey. All of the responses were voluntary and precautions were adopted to maintain anonymity and confidentiality.



Questionnaire development was based on an extensive literature review. The initial instrument was then pretested with a pilot sample (n = 200) within the population of interest and refined with respect to clarity and formatting before fielding the actual survey. Some modifications on perceived medical tourism risk scale and demographic items were done according to the results of the pretest. The survey instrument consisted of questions assessing: (a) perceived of medical tourism; (b) personality; (c) perceived importance of medical tourism destination attributes; (d) medical tourism purchase intentions; and (e) demographic information.

Based on assorted previous studies (Connell, 2006; Goodrich & Goodrich, 1987; Kivela, Reece, & Inbakaran, 1999; Seth, 2006) and the in-depth interviews, perceived risk of medical tourism items consisted of 17 questions. On a seven-point scale (where 1 = “extremely disagree”, and 7 = “extremely agree”), respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement. Respondents’ personalities were assessed with 14 items derived from research (Costa and McCrae, 1992): extraversion, and openness to experience. On a seven-point scale, respondents were asked to evaluate their personality, where 1 = “extremely disagree” to 4 = “extremely agree”. Based on past research (Sun, 2008) 34 items were used to assess the perceived importance of medical tourism destination attributes: medical-related attributes, travel-related attributes, and overall environment. On a seven-point scale, respondents were asked to evaluate their perceived importance, where 1 = “extremely unimportant” to 7 = “extremely important.” Demographic information collected include gender, age, education, marital status, profession, average household income, and foreign travel experience.

Statistical analyses used SPSS 18.0 software. The present study calculated Cronbach’s alphas and inter-item correlations to determine the internal consistency of the scales regarding the measures of personality, of perceived medical tourism risk, of medical tourism destination attributes, and of behavior intentions. Factor analyses served as the basis for validity examinations. As proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986), mediation analysis requires regression of the dependent variable on the independent variable, regression of the mediator on the independent variable, and then regression of the dependent variable on both the independent variable and the mediator. The present study, therefore, constructs path diagrams after performing hierarchical regression analyses: first, regression of medical tourism destination attributes on personality and perceived medical tourism risk; second, regression of behavioral intentions on personality and perceived medical tourism risk, and finally, regression of behavioral intentions on personality, perceived medical tourism risk and medical tourism destination attributes.

## RESULTS

### *Demographic Profile of Respondents*

The majority of the respondents were male (52%). Seventy-eight percent of the respondents were between the ages of 20 and 49. Most of the respondents were married (69%) and had at least college education (77%). Most of the respondents (57%) reported their average household income to be CNY 4000 to CNY11,999. Only 16% had visited Taiwan more than once. Most (70%) of their foreign travel experience is more than one.

Table 1 summarizes the results of hierarchical regression equations. Personality factors and perceived medical tourism risk factors were entered in the first step, contributing a significant amount of variance to the predictions of medical tourism destination attributes factors, ranging from 17% to 25%. In each of the first six equations, *extraversion personality* was statistically and significantly associated with all medical tourism destination attributes factors. In addition, *perceived medical tourism risk during the trip* was significantly associated with all medical tourism destination attributes factors, except *hospital security & insurance*. Furthermore, *perceived medical tourism risk after the trip* was also statistically and significantly associated with *hospital security and insurance*, *internationally recognized medical quality*, *hotel-like facilities and WOM*, and *language and feasibilities*, while *openness personality* was not significantly associated with any of the medical tourism destination attributes factors.

In addition, the seventh equation, modeling medical tourism behavioral intentions as a function of the two personality factors, two perceived medical tourism risk factors and six medical tourism destination attributes factors, appeared to be free of multicollinearity as measured by tolerance estimates or by variance inflation factors (Fox, 1991). In the first step, adding two personality factors and two perceived medical tourism risk factors resulted in 0.10 increases in  $R^2$ . *Extraversion personality* and *perceived medical tourism risk after the trip* were statistically associated with medical tourism behavioral intentions. Finally, in the second step, the addition of six medical tourism destination attributes factors to two personality factors and two perceived medical tourism risk factors in predicting behavioral intentions resulted in a 3% increase in  $R^2$  for medical tourism behavioral intentions, predicting a total of 12% of the variance in medical tourism behavioral intention. At this stage, only *extraversion personality*, *perceived medical tourism risk after the trip*, and *hotel-like facilities & WOM* could significantly predict medical tourism behavioral intentions, indicating partial mediation of *hotel-like facilities & WOM* between extraversion personality and perceived medical tourism risk after the trip and medical tourism behavioral intentions.

## **CONCLUSION**

The primary goal of this study was to examine whether personality and perceived medical tourism risk would affect individual's medical tourism behavioral intentions. Specifically, whether or not this effect on medical tourism behavioral intentions would be mediated by medical tourism destination attributes was investigated. The results show the need to consider individuals' personality and perceived medical tourism risk when trying to rigorously explain how individuals form their medical tourism behavioral intentions. Also, in need of consideration is the role of medical tourism destination attributes if the goal is to optimize individuals' medical tourism behavioral intentions.

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Table 1 Summary of results for hierarchical regression analyses testing the mediation of medical tourism destination attributes when predicting medical tourism behavior intentions

Independent	Medical Tourism Destination Attributes						Behavior Intentions	
	MTD1	MTD2	MTD3	MTD4	MTD5	MTD6	1	2
1. Personality & Perceived Risk								
Extraversion	.26***	.19**	.21***	.20**	.19**	.15**	.25***	.22**
Openness to experience	.08	.10+	.04	.05	.06	.05	.01	-.00
Perceived MD risk after trip	.18**	-.03	.34***	.11+	.20**	.23***	.21**	.15*
Perceived MD risk during trip	.08	.30***	.09	.31***	.13+	.20**	-.11	-.13
2. Medical Tourism Destination Attributes								
Professional travel service (MTD1)								-.04
Hospital security & insurance (MTD2)								.02
Value & payment methods (MTD3)								.07
Internationally reorganized medical quality (MTD4)								-.06
Hotel-like facilities & WOM (MTD5)								.13*
Language & feasibilities (MTD6)								.08
R <sup>2</sup>	.17	.17	.25	.23	.17	.21	.10	.12
ΔR <sup>2</sup>	.17	.17	.25	.23	.17	.21	.10	.03
F	24.90	23.80	40.00	36.08	24.20	32.12	12.36	14.63
ΔF	24.90***	23.80***	40.00***	36.08***	24.20***	32.12***	12.36***	2.27*

Note. Personality and perceived medical tourism risk are measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 = extremely disagree to 7 = extremely agree. Medical tourism destination attributes are measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 = extremely unimportant to 7 = extremely important. Medical tourism behavior intentions are measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 = extremely unwillingness to 7 = extremely willingness.

+  $p < 0.1$ . \*  $p < 0.05$ . \*\*  $p < 0.01$ . \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .



# MARITIME TOURISM POTENTIAL IN THE AEGEAN: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF YACHTING DEVELOPMENT IN GREEK ISLANDS AND TURKISH COASTLINE

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## ABSTRACT

This study is spatial one and examines the factors that determine the potential of maritime tourism development in the Aegean Sea by analyzing the evaluations of experts from Greece and Turkey. The main question set by the research is to reveal the differences in the significance of the criteria pointed by the experts from these two countries. The methodology used is the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) which is a flexible and functional tool of resolution of multi-criteria problems. The case study is the comparative evaluation of yachting development criteria between the Greek islands of the Dodecanese, Chios, Lesvos on one hand and the Aegean coastal regions of Turkey on the other. Results of the research expose that yacht tourism experts from two countries have different evaluations on the factors of concerning the natural environment and the level of the existed infrastructure for yachting development.

**Key Words:** maritime tourism, yachting, analytic hierarchy process, expert choice, Aegean Sea, Greece, Turkey.

## INTRODUCTION

Maritime tourism includes the total of tourist, recreational and leisure activities connected with the sea, like maritime excursions, coastal and maritime eco-tourism, cruises, swimming, fishing and diving, which take place in the marine environment. Besides accommodation, alimentation, and shopping, any kind of infrastructure and superstructure works necessary for tourist development such as marinas, enterprises and equipment, are included in the Maritime Tourism concept (Miller M., and Auyong, 1991). Maritime tourism is one of the world's largest industries of contemporary tourism, with a significant participation in the tourist economies of the countries which have developed it (Hall, 2001), and with a tendency for continuous and fast rates of development (Pollard, 1995; Kim & Kim, 1996; Orams, 1999).

The major forms of the organized market of maritime tourism are cruising, yachting and the coastal leisure shiing which includes daily cruises between insular and coastal destinations. As one of the maritime tourism market, yachting tend to be either *bareboat charters*, where the boat is hired – without crew - and can be sailed to any chosen destination, or *flotilla*, where all boats in the flotilla follow a pre-planned route (Caribbean Tourism Organization-CTO, 2008).

Maritime tourism in the wider region of Mediterranean Sea has evolved at rapid paces since the 60s up to recent years. The area of development is located in the northern coasts, from Gibraltar to the Aegean Sea, with the centre being placed in the south European coasts of Spain, France and Italy. These countries structure to a great degree the market, so much from the supply as from the demand side, followed by the countries of Adriatic, Ionian and Aegean seas (Croatia, Greece and Turkey). Developing markets of Maritime Tourism are considered Cyprus, Malta and coastal regions of northern Africa and Middle East.

Greece with 15,000 km of coastline and 112 inhabited islands, hundreds of uninhabited isles, its geographical position and the favorable climatic conditions, along with the rich history and ancient Greek civilization (Buhalis & Diamantis, 2001; Chiotis & Coccossis, 1992) has shown rapid development of tourism since the mid of 20<sup>th</sup> century and noteworthy maritime tourism activity. Greece is one of the leaders in maritime tourism for a large number of yacht management, chartering and consultant companies giving the country a primary role in the yachting sector worldwide.

In Greece there are 53 marinas at the stage of layout, 24 shelters of tourists' ships and 4 hotel marinas. The 53 marinas have total capacity of 15.300 places of mooring. However only 20 of these are in function today and offer a capacity of roughly 7,400 mooring posts, while 25 are under construction and the remainder in the stage of auctioning. Moreover, roughly 1,400 posts are offered in the shelters of tourists' ships and roughly 90 more in hotel ports. An additional 3,000 boats can be accommodated in commercial ports throughout the country (Diakomihalis, 2007). When comparing the western Mediterranean countries, Greece falls short, not so much in the number of mooring spots but in the quality of the services provided (Diakomihalis and Lagos, 2008: 872).

With over 8.333 km of coastline along the four seas, Turkey is a treasure chest of coves, inlets, bays and beaches at which yachtsmen can choose a different and private anchorage each night. The Southern coast of Turkey was slowly becoming known to the sailing set in the 1960s, albeit, mostly as an extension of the much better explored and advertized Greek Isles (Isen, 2005; 49). Today with the new built and qualified marinas Turkey is potential yachting market for enriched Middle East countries, Russia and Europe (Atlay Işık, 2011).

There are two categorized marinas in Turkey; certified and uncertified marinas. Certified marinas cover both administration and investment certificated marinas by Republic of Turkey Ministry of Culture and Tourism. Although Turkish marina tourism was started by Turban Tourism Corporation in 1970 with limited capacity, today, there are 56 marinas and yacht ports along the coastline of Turkey and their capacity is 17.084 boats totally (Atlay Isik, 2011; Republic of Turkey Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2010). Among the quality dimensions of Turkish yacht tourism suly are the existing situation of required infrastructure and superstructure for yacht tourism (Tandogan, 1996).

## **A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF YACHTING DEVELOPMENT IN GREEK ISLANDS AND TURKISH COASTLINE**

### **Aim of the study**

From the above synoptic report of maritime tourism activity in both countries the inference of further infrastructure and superstructure development for maritime tourism is obvious. Therefore the research focuses on the identification of the factors that may contribute to maritime tourism development in the market of the Aegean Sea. The area of this research includes the analysis of the factors that contribute to the development of yachting in insular and coastal areas of the Aegean Sea.

The study aims at revealing what factors - criteria are fundamental in facilitating yachting progress towards a sustainable development in the Greek islands and the Turkish coastal regions. The selection of this case is based mainly on the common geographical position and morphology of both areas, along with their similar tourist product, which are distinguished mainly in their governance by different state since they belong to different countries.

### **Methodology and data collection process of the study**

This study is spatial one based on previous mix research methods. These research methods cover both qualitative and quantitative researches such as; literature review, questionnaire development, field research and data elaboration and the calculation of the importance of each factor.

For this study, it is determined to develop a questionnaire to collect data. According to results of previous quantitative research analysis which is based on a sample of data that have been collected via the use of Delphi technique and the use of a questionnaire that has been answered by a selected sample of key experts and stakeholders, several factors (that in the context of the present paper have taken the form of criteria and sub-criteria) were obtained. Also these factors are determined after the review of the limited literature and experts' and academics brainstorming sessions and are considered as criteria that affect the achievement of the desired goal.

There are totally 6 criteria as; mooring availability for yachts, sailers & tourist vessels, port basin characteristics, mooring positions' characteristics, facilitations on the land zone, port equipment, port & refueling costs and totally 20 sub-criteria under each main criteria.

The research methodology used is the "Analytic Hierarch Process", a flexible and useful tool of multiple criteria decision-making (MCDM) that allows the determination, the evaluation of criteria as to the degree they participate in the development of the specific tourist product and the hierarchy of criteria by the involving experts.

The Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) uses hierarchical decision models that have a mathematical basis. AHP is a multi-criteria method developed by Saaty (1980, 1999) for decision making and priorities ranking. This method combines subjective and objective estimations or perceptions, in an integrated framework which is based on scale ratios from pair comparisons (Saaty, 1980). The judgments from the pair comparisons are made by experts or decision makers and in combination with the use of the AHP algorithm are producing the final outcome. AHP method has the ability to structure complex, multi-person, multi-attribute, and multi-period problem hierarchically. Pairwise comparisons of the element (usually, alternatives and attributes) can be established using a scale indicating the strength with which one element dominates another with respect to a higher-level element. This scaling process can then be translated into priority weights - scores (Yusuff *et al.*, 2001: 421).

In the port industry the AHP has been used mostly for assessing port selection criteria (Lirn, Thanopoulou *et al* 2004; Guy and Urli, 2006; Ugboma *et al*, 2006), carrier selection criteria (Wong *et al*, 2008) and benefits distribution from port services (Vaggelas 2007).

Aiming to identify the experts' opinions, questionnaires are completed in which the criteria and sub-criteria of each criterion in couples are prioritized. These can determine the impact of the choice of each separate activity for the development of yachting in the Greek islands and the Turkish coastline of the Aegean Sea.

### **Case study: Sailing to the Aegean Sea**

The case study is the development of maritime tourism in the Aegean Sea, including the Greek islands of Lesbos Chios and Dodecanese, along with the Turkish coastal regions of Izmir, Aydin and Mugla cities.

The Greek islands constitute important tourist destinations. For these island societies, the role of tourism as a source of income and development is especially significant. However, a number of small islands is exposed to the negative impacts of mass tourism while some islands present difficulties at all, due to the existing coastal sailing network on one hand and due to limitations presented by the small size and the existing port infrastructure (Lekakou, and Tzannatos, 2000).

The importance of Turkish Marine tourism is demonstrated by the 25% of Maritime Tourism to the tourism economy revenue (Turkish Chamber of Sailing, 2010). The Gullet Tourism, other than bareboat concept, is a travel and vacation type that is derived from Blue Voyage tradition and peculiar to Turkey, which can be considered fully Turkish style. In Turkey, yachting activities are most concentrated between Izmir and Antalya. Besides, this coastline has the network of modern marinas of world-class standard, and capacities of these marinas represent totally about 70-80 % of whole mooring capacity in Turkey.

The present study analyzes the factors pointing out the alterations and their causes that may influence the development of yachting in the Greek islands and the Turkish coastline of the Aegean Sea.

In the determination of the participants from Greece and Turkey, it was laid emphasis on the representation of decision makers and professionals of yacht tourism industry in both countries. So experts from Chamber of Sailing (in Turkey), marina managers and personnel, officers of local municipalities, managers of yachting companies, coastguards and yachtsmen were involved. At the beginning 100 questionnaires for Greece and 50 questionnaires for Turkey were developed and carried out with via face-to-face, e-mail, telephone and fax between November 2010 to January 2011 in Turkey and August to November 2010 in Greece. In this way totally 86 valid questionnaires were obtained from both countries.

### **Yachting development criteria**

The results of the AHP reveal different views and priorities among the experts. This is due to the difference of the morphology and the features of natural or built ports or marinas and on the other hand due to the different approach and priorities given by the experts, according to their status, the job position and the knowledge and the experience.

As it has been recognized, infrastructure in ports is a predominant condition for yachting development. The condition of port infrastructure in the coastal regions of the Aegean is considered insufficient.

The groups of criteria and the criteria, which are estimated to have an impact on yachting development, are afterwards elaborated on.

Based on the previous review and the expertise, port infrastructure (at tourist ports and marinas) is a primary precondition for yachting development and consequently all the factors characterizing it will become criteria groups or will be integrated into a group

Another significant feature (inseparable from port infrastructure) for yachting development is the port equipment and facilities. The connection of the port with the land zone, where the facilities offered to the users are concerned, is another category of preconditions for yachting development. Finally, the competition observed in the yachting market, on a global scale as well as in the wider region of the Mediterranean, is affected by the level of infrastructures and services and also by the costs for them. Consequently, a group of criteria pertaining to the major costs paid by leisure level charterers is necessarily included in the criteria.

The determination of groups was done with the cooperation of the field's experts. For their final selection the opinions of business officials and local authorities and organizations were co-evaluated because they are aware of the particular characteristics of the region under research.

The hierarchic structure of the levels of criteria as well as the number of criteria on each level, are quite significant in the implementation of AH For this reason, the structure of the present research is relatively simple, with data present of two levels and a total number of 42 questions (comparisons per couples).

The selection of the characteristics for each criteria group was also a result of synthesis of opinions and estimations by field experts and by individuals who apart from their knowledge and experience are well aware of the special conditions prevailing in the specific area.

### Results of the study

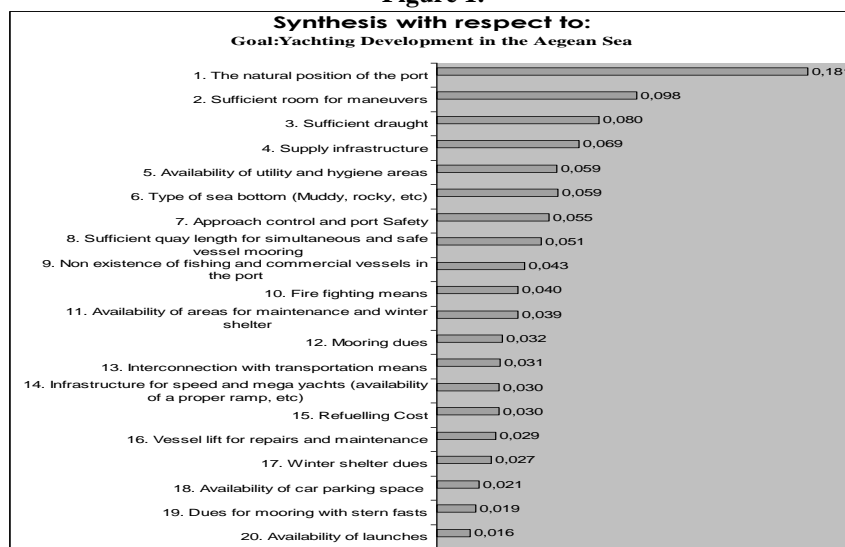
Table 1 presents in which levels of the objective, the groups of Criteria, the sub-criteria and the alternative solutions are depicted, so much for each area individually as for the total of the Aegean Sea.

**Table 1: The Diagram of The Modal**

Goal: YACHTING DEVELOPMENT IN THE AEGEAN SEA GRAVITY OF CRITERIA AND SUB-CRITERIA	GREEK ISLANDS		TURKISH COASTLINE		TOTAL OF THE AEGEAN SEA	
	LOCAL	GLOBAL	LOCAL	GLOBAL	LOCAL	GLOBAL
<b>Mooring availability for yachts, sailers &amp; tourist vessels</b>	<b>0,157</b>	<b>0,157</b>	<b>0,398</b>	<b>0,398</b>	<b>0,224</b>	<b>0,224</b>
The natural position of the port (Entrance, weather conditions)	0,802	0,126	0,813	0,324	0,808	0,181
Non existence of fishing and commercial vessels in the port	0,198	0,031	0,187	0,074	0,192	0,043
<b>Port basin characteristics</b>	<b>0,134</b>	<b>0,134</b>	<b>0,218</b>	<b>0,218</b>	<b>0,157</b>	<b>0,157</b>
Sufficient room for manoeuvres	0,678	0,091	0,537	0,117	0,623	0,098
Type of sea bottom (Muddy, rocky, etc)	0,322	0,043	0,463	0,101	0,377	0,059
<b>Mooring positions' characteristics</b>	<b>0,177</b>	<b>0,177</b>	<b>0,118</b>	<b>0,118</b>	<b>0,161</b>	<b>0,161</b>
Sufficient draught	0,451	0,080	0,663	0,078	0,494	0,080
Sufficient quay length for simultaneous and safe vessel mooring	0,327	0,058	0,277	0,033	0,317	0,051
Infrastructure for speed and mega yachts (availability of a proper ramp, etc)	0,223	0,040	0,060	0,007	0,189	0,030
<b>Facilitations on the land zone</b>	<b>0,181</b>	<b>0,181</b>	<b>0,069</b>	<b>0,069</b>	<b>0,150</b>	<b>0,150</b>
Availability of utility and hygiene areas	0,404	0,073	0,300	0,021	0,391	0,059
Availability of car parking space	0,150	0,027	0,061	0,004	0,138	0,021
Interconnection with transportation means	0,212	0,038	0,175	0,012	0,207	0,031
Availability of areas for maintenance and winter shelter	0,234	0,042	0,464	0,032	0,263	0,039
<b>Port equipment</b>	<b>0,267</b>	<b>0,267</b>	<b>0,059</b>	<b>0,059</b>	<b>0,209</b>	<b>0,209</b>
Supply infrastructure (water-fuel)	0,334	0,089	0,311	0,018	0,332	0,069
Availability of launches	0,080	0,022	0,036	0,002	0,077	0,016
Fire fighting means	0,174	0,046	0,397	0,023	0,191	0,040
Vessel lift for repairs and maintenance	0,145	0,039	0,057	0,003	0,138	0,029
Approach control and port Safety	0,268	0,072	0,199	0,012	0,263	0,055
<b>Port &amp; Refuelling Costs</b>	<b>0,096</b>	<b>0,096</b>	<b>0,138</b>	<b>0,138</b>	<b>0,108</b>	<b>0,108</b>
Mooring dues	0,197	0,019	0,472	0,065	0,295	0,032
Dues for mooring with stern fasts	0,218	0,021	0,101	0,014	0,176	0,019
Winter shelter dues	0,310	0,030	0,138	0,019	0,248	0,027
Refuelling Cost	0,275	0,026	0,289	0,040	0,280	0,030

Following Figure 1, shows a Synthesis with respect to Research's Goal, including all the Sub-Criteria sorter by priority.

Figure 1.



## CONCLUSION

The results (gravities) from the AHP analysis of the research with the questionnaires clearly demonstrate the common and the different priorities required for yachting development in the Greek islands and the Turkish coastline of the Aegean Sea.

“Port equipment” is valued with the higher significance of criteria for the Greek Islands, followed by “facilitations on the land zone” in second place, “mooring positions’ characteristics” in third place, “mooring availability for yachts” in the fourth place, “port basin characteristics” in the fifth, and “port and refuelling costs” in the last. Comparing with the correspondent criteria for the Turkish coastline, “mooring availability for yachts” comes in the first place, with 2.5 times greater significance than that for the Greek islands, followed by “port basin characteristics” in the second, with 1.6 times greater significance than that for the Greek islands “port and refuelling costs” in the third, with 1.4 times greater significance than that for the Greek islands “mooring positions’ characteristics” in fourth place, with 0.67 of the corresponding significance for the Greek islands “facilitations on the land zone” in the fifth place, with 0.38 of the corresponding significance for the Greek islands and “port equipment” is valued as the least significant criterion, with 0.22 of the corresponding significance for the Greek islands.

The determination of these differences reveals the disparities concerning the natural environment and the level of the existed infrastructure for yachting development in the two areas. The highest the significance of a criterion the more indispensable the factor is. For example, the least significance of “port and refuelling costs” for the Greek islands, signifies that matters related to cost are either not so crucial and the necessity for the other factors required is much greater. Unavoidably, differences exist in the sub-criteria significance. “The natural position of the port” is evaluated as the most significant sub-criterion for both areas, but with 2.6 times more for the Turkish Coasts. In the most significant sub-criteria for the Greek Islands are included by rank “sufficient room for maneuvers”, “suly infrastructure”, “sufficient draught”, “availability of utility and hygiene areas”. Accordingly, in the most significant sub-criteria for the Turkish coastline are included by rank “sufficient room for maneuvers”, “type of sea bottom”, “sufficient draught” and “mooring dues”. The picture of the least significant sub-criteria is analogous to that of the criteria, with three sub-criteria belonging to the costs criterion being among them for the Greek islands. The first four out of the total six least significant sub-Criteria for the Turkish Coastline, are evaluated below 0.01, while the other two show a significance of 0.012.

A general conclusion concerning the Greek islands and the Turkish Coastline is the lack of serious infrastructure for the development of yacht tourism in both studied areas. At the same time, a satisfactory tourist activity is observed despite the lack of proper infrastructure, a fact depicting the attractiveness of the areas offering yacht tourism. It is concluded that the promotion of yacht tourism should possibly bring significant benefits to the development of the Aegean Sea and provide that it constitutes common resultant of state and local societies, can turn out to be the central axis of developmental process that will ensure both the social and cultural harmony of insular and coastal regions, despite their belonging in different countries.

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# WHAT IS THE “ATTRACTIVENESS OF LOCAL CUISINE”? BASING ON CHINESE DOMESTIC TOURISTS’ VIEWPOINTS

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## ABSTRACT

This paper explores the underlying attributes of the local cuisine that could be further used to evaluate the attractiveness of the local cuisine, as part of the standard approach of measuring the attractiveness. The exploratory study utilized in-depth interviews of Chinese domestic tourists. Thirty-one attributes were identified and further classified into nine groups. These nine groups are sensory evaluation, health of local cuisine, culture of local cuisine, novelty of local cuisine, ingredient, popularity of local cuisine, packaging, service and environment, and reasonable price.

**Key Words:** attractiveness, local cuisine, Chinese domestic tourist, China tourism

## INTRODUCTION

Eating food is a basic need of every human and is particularly important to the tourist. Nearly all tourists eat and dine out at their destinations. With an increasing interest in eating unique and indigenous foods, food products and cuisines, more and more people are specifically traveling for experiencing the local cuisines or tasting the dishes of its ‘celebrity chef’ (Mitchell & Hall, 2003). The importance of local cuisine in tourists’ dining experience and in tourists’ destination decision-making has been noted by academics and industry practitioners. Many papers have been dedicated to concept of local food as an attraction in differentiating destinations (Cohen and Avieli, 2004). However, previous studies mainly concentrated on the discussions of the importance of local cuisine in tourism. Additionally, the role, meaning and characteristics of local cuisine have not been touched upon in the sociological literature (Cohen and Avieli, 2004). Limited studies have specifically depicted the local cuisine, and its composite attributes. In order to bridge the research gap, this study explored the underlying attributes of the local cuisine, specifically the attributes emphasized by Chinese domestic tourists. These attributes shed light on the direction of how to improve the quality of the destination’s local cuisine, as well as which attributes need to be highlighted on the promotion brochures to appeal the potential tourists efficiently.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Dining in the destination

Several studies investigated the relationships between tourists and restaurants in the destination from different perspectives. Sparks et al. (2003) explored Australian domestic tourists’ motivations for dining out when on a holiday, and the influence of information source and restaurant factors on tourists’ selection of a restaurant. Instead of domestic tourists, Batra (2008) investigated foreign tourists’ dining out motivation and utilization of information sources and preference of ethnic restaurant characteristics in Thailand. Law et al. (2008) specifically investigated Chinese tourists’ perception of Hong Kong restaurants. Among eighteen attributes of restaurants, tourists emphasized the service speed, servers’ attitude, value for money and hygiene/cleanliness of restaurants.

Notably, most studies concentrated on tourists’ perception of the restaurant at the destination instead of the food of the destination. Possibly, for tourists, restaurants are the main venues where they dine. However, the previous studies over emphasized the focus on the restaurants in the destination, and ignored the local cuisine characteristics. Investigating tourists’ perceptions of a destination’s local cuisine other than restaurants, the attributes emphasized by tourists might be different, although some similar attributes might emerge.

### The Evaluation of Attractiveness

The concept of attractiveness was adopted to evaluate the appeal of local cuisine. Researchers have regarded attractiveness as where the goods’ characteristics meet tourist benefits (Chhetri, 2006). The way attractiveness was defined indicates that it is necessary to identify the attributes of local cuisine from the perspective of



tourists and to see which attributes of local cuisine are expected by the tourists, in order to investigate the attractiveness of local cuisine in the tourism context. Gearing, Swart & Var (1974) developed a set of determinant attributes to assess the attractiveness of multiple destinations in Turkey. As an early work, they opened up a new approach to look into the attractiveness of destination. Many successive studies followed this approach. Using Quebec as a case study, Ritchie & Zins (1978) extended the method of Gearing et al and finally got the relative importance of eight general and twelve social and cultural attraction categories. Moreover, the attributes of destinations could be added and removed according to the different nature of destinations.

## METHODOLOGY

### Data Collection

Two destinations, Chengdu and Xuyi, in Mainland China were selected as the field investigation venues. Chengdu is recognized as the city of gastronomy by the United Nations educational, scientific and cultural organization; and Xuyi is a city famous for its crayfish. The in-depth interviews were conducted on May 1-3, and May 21-23, 2010, respectively. The purposive sampling technique was utilized. An individual was interrupted and asked whether she/he is a tourist to Chengdu/Xuyi and had she/he had some experience of Chengdu/Xuyi local cuisine on the current trip. If the individual confirmed positively, the researcher solicited whether the individual has time and willingness to do an interview. Finally, fourteen and six Chinese domestic tourists from Chengdu and Xuyi respectively, were interviewed. They were chosen randomly at transportation stations, tourist attractions and food streets of two destinations. The number of interviewees satisfies the requirement of sample size, since it was determined that additional interviewees would not add more new information (Calder, 1977).

The responses of the interviews were recorded with a digital-recorder. The digital records were transcribed and in order to ensure the trustworthiness of the results, a colleague of the researcher was invited to read the transcripts to see if he came away with the same overall meaning of the data. Since the interviews were conducted in Chinese, researchers initially translated the themes into English. Additionally, another colleague of the researcher who was fluent in both Chinese and English, translated these themes back into Chinese. Three fundamental techniques, namely coding, memoing, and sorting, assisted the transformation of the raw data into themes (Glaser, 1998).

## FINDINGS

### Description of the interviewees

Table 1 shows the overview of the characteristics of interviewees. Most interviewees were females, well-educated and relatively young whose ages range from 20-40s. The interviewees also have different levels of interests in experiencing the local cuisine.

Table 1  
The Profile of Interviewees

No	Gender	Age	Education	No	Gender	Age	Education
1	F	Late 20s	College	11	F	Late 40s	Junior High School
2	F	Late 50s	High School	12	F	Late 30s	Technology secondary school
3	F	Late 50s	Junior High School	13	M	Late 30s	Technology secondary school
4	F	Early 20s	College	14	F	Mid 30s	College
5	M	Early 20s	College	15	F	Mid 50s	Technology secondary school
6	F	Mid 30s	College	16	F	Early 20s	College
7	F	Early 20s	Junior High School	17	M	Early 50s	High School
8	M	Over 60	Technology Secondary School	18	F	Late 40s	Technology secondary school
9	M	Early 30s	Post-graduate	19	M	Early 30s	Post-graduate
10	F	Mid 20s	College	20	F	Late 20s	Post-graduate

### The Findings of In-depth Interviews

Totally thirty one attributes were revealed by the content analysis based on the data obtained from the in-depth interviews.

**Sensory Evaluation.** The first category refers to the characteristics of local cuisine that are perceived by the

senses of vision, smell, taste, touch and hearing (Sidel & Stone, 1985). These characteristics consisted of smell, taste and flavor of food, and visual appearance, which included the color, shape and presentation of food. *Individuals are easily appealed by the delicious food* (I13: Interviewee 13) and *ingredients cooked with special flavor* (I13). *The small stimulated tourists' appetite* (I10). *For someone, the appearance of food is even more important than the taste* (I1).

**Health of local cuisine.** Health issues with local cuisine were mentioned by interviewees included hygiene and nutrition. Hygiene is the attribute that several interviewees emphasized. The concern with the risk of getting sick caused by eating unsanitary food makes hygiene be one of the most important factors. Further, some interviewees stated that even on the holiday, they still prefer a healthy diet. An interviewee mentioned she would *avoid excessive partaking of greasy and spicy food* (I11). Interestingly, this viewpoint of a healthy diet is emphasized by both Chinese and Western nutrition theories. Western nutrition theory suggests limiting the intake of greasy food. and the Chinese philosophy of balance signified by yin (“cool”) and yang (“hot”) (Civitello, 2004) stresses that the over partaking of spicy food breaks the balance of yin and yang.

**Novelty of local cuisine.** When on a holiday or trip, novelty seeking is an important motive of tourists to try local cuisine. Some interviewees indicated that they avoided partaking of similar foods to those they would eat at home, and instead look for food with novel ingredients, special recipes, special cooking styles and those related to special eating customs. In addition, if a cuisine can only be eaten in a certain place, it seems that tourists would take the opportunity to try that specific food. On the other hand, some tourists are not interested in unique food and would prefer to eat food familiar to them when traveling. Actually, some interviewees stated that they prefer home cooking style dishes when on the trip. Moreover, one interviewee said that *he expected that the foodservice industry of the destination could offer various choices of dishes*. He further explained that *if there are various dishes in the destination, the destination might not only offer novel food but also food that he was familiar with* (I18). This finding is quite different from the findings of previous studies, which suggested that the preference of novelty or diversity of food is the motive driving tourists to seek variety of food selections (Chang, 2007).

**Ingredients of Local Cuisine.** Fresh and natural ingredients are popular among the tourists. This demand might associate with tourists' pursuit of healthy food. In this sense, the best way to partake of fresh food is traveling to the origin. Hence, fresh and natural food has the capability to appeal to tourists traveling. Further, tourists who are novelty-seekers would like to try unique and different ingredients. However, the unique and different ingredients only have the attractiveness, when they are edible. If a novel ingredient is considered as an inedible food to a certain group of consumers, it might not appeal to them. The attractiveness of a novel ingredient is only exists when it is considered an edible food.

**Culture of local cuisine.** Since cooking culture is recognized as an representation of the culture of a community, eating local cuisine becomes a way for tourists to appreciate the local culture. In Chinese food culture, first of all, the cultural meaning of the local cuisine is embodied by the nomenclature of dishes. Second, some interviewees emphasized that only the authentic, traditional and representative dishes can symbolize the food culture of a community. Finally, cuisine that has a meaningful history behind it is appreciated by the tourists. The history related to the origin of a dish or the connection between celebrities and a dish can add cultural meaning to the dish, and increase the cultural competitiveness of the dish.

**Popularity of local cuisine.** Given a choice between a cuisine which is well regarded and one that consumers know nothing about, most will opt to choose the more well-known cuisine. Good reputations increase credibility, making consumers more confident that they'll really get what providers promised. Hence, the reputation of local cuisine is crucial to tourists. Further, if a cuisine or dish was mentioned in classical literature, the popularity of the dish would be enhanced. The dishes described in the literature are better known by the public and might be more popular based on the popularity of the literature.

**Packaging and Convenience.** One interviewee mention, the attribute “convenience of eating” , which was unexpected. First, tourists tend to bring some prepared foods with them for leisure or emergencies on the trips. Second, packaged foods are popular as souvenirs. In this case, the interviewee preferred convenient, packaged local cuisine, because he wanted to spend more time on sightseeing. The convenient packaging of local cuisine that he is able to take with him saved him time of from seeking and then eating in a local cuisine restaurant.

**Service and Activities.** Interestingly, when the interviewees were asked what factors affect their evaluation of local cuisine, were not only concerned with the food, they also cared about the features of the restaurants. Possibly, when on the journey, the restaurants of the destination are the main venues where tourists experience the local cuisine. They'd like to select a reputable restaurant that stands for the quality of food and service. Second, the surroundings and atmosphere of restaurants have a strong impact on customers' perception of service experience (Bitner, 1990) and their restaurant choice decision (Sparks et al, 2003; Batra, 2008). Once the

tourists made the decision of the restaurant, the service offered by the restaurant becomes important. Further, interviewees emphasized that restaurants could provide programs of entertainment, such as singing, dancing, and magic show, etc., during the meal time, as well as *some participatory activities (I19)*.

At the destination level, interviewee number 1 pointed out the advantage of having a food street that is concentrated with food stalls, restaurants, and other food shops. Chengdu has several food streets locating in different areas. *Although the quality of the food sold in the food street was just so-so, and the price of the food was not very reasonable, however the food street still has its advantage in that tourists could experience all kinds of local food at one time (I1)*. Hence, the food street is particularly useful to tourists who are not familiar with the destination.

**Reasonable price.** A reasonable price is quite an important factor in tourists' consideration of eating in the destination, especially to those price sensitive tourists. However, the reasonable price is not necessary a low price. For some interviewees, the expenses cost on food should be cost-effective.

## CONCLUSION AND LIMITATION

### Conclusion

Table 2 displays all attributes obtained from the in-depth interviews. In addition to the physical attributes of local cuisine, the attributes related to the cultural meaning, popularity and uniqueness of local cuisine stand out. The interviewees detailed their requirements of cultural meaning, popularity and uniqueness of local cuisine. These findings empirically offer evidence for the arguments that experiencing the culture and novelty are the important motivations of travel, and consumptions of local cuisine is one of the good ways to experience the culture and uniqueness of the destination. Further, the popularity of the local cuisine can enhance tourists' desire of the local cuisine.

Table 2  
Attributes identified for the evaluation of local cuisine

Category	Attribute
Sensory evaluation	Tastes good, Special flavor, Smells good, Attractive appearance, looks delicious
Health	Hygiene, Cuisine can benefit a persons' physical health
Culture of local cuisine	Dishes with attractive names, Representative dishes, Traditional food, Authentic food, Local cuisine with tale, The local cuisine was mentioned in classical literature
Novelty of local cuisine	Local cuisine with special cooking styles, Varsity of dishes, Secret recipe, The cuisine only can be tasted in the destination, Familiar food, Special custom of eating
Reputation	Reputation of local cuisine
Ingredient	Special/novelty ingredients, Fresh and indigenous ingredients
Packaging	Convenience of eating, such as taking out food
Service and activities	Distinctive surrounding and Good atmosphere of the restaurant, Well-know restaurant, Good service offered by the restaurant/eatery, Food street, Entertainment during the meal, Participating in the processing of preparation
Price	Reasonable price

Learning the attributes is the crucial step to further examine the attractiveness of local cuisine. Lancaster (1966) noted that not the goods, but the characteristics possessed by goods give utility to the consumers. Therefore, the attributes indentified in current study could be utilized for further evaluation of the attractiveness of local cuisine. For the industry, each specific attribute could be utilized by the restaurant operator and the destination administrator to assess the local cuisine of the destination, and further improve it. The attribute 'food street' could be a good example. Tourists appreciated the food street of the destination, especially the food street near the tourist area. It does offer a convenient way to experience the local cuisine for tourists, who might have limited ideas or limited time to find the local cuisine. This attribute reminds the destination administrator that in order to promote the local cuisine to tourists, it would be better to design and develop one or more food streets at the destination.

### Limitations and Future study

However, this study has some limitations. First, the trustworthiness of qualitative study requires a combination of methods to collect the information, while in this study, in-depth interview is the only approach employed to get the tourists' opinions. Second, since the in-depth interviews were conducted in the Chinese, back translation

was applied; therefore translation inaccuracies might still exist. The current analysis was primarily on the basis of Chinese domestic tourists' perception of Chinese cuisine. In the future, the study could be duplicated in different contexts, for instance the cross culture context. Also, the qualitative approach employed in current study only can unveil the attributes. The issues of importance weights of these attributes and the generalization of these attributes need to be addressed by a further quantitative study.

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# THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE LOCAL CUISINE IN THE PROCESS OF DESTINATION BRANDING: A CASE STUDY IN URALSK AREA

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## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to determine the level of Kazakhstan tourism industry in the process of being a brand. In order to attract talents and resources, cities in Kazakhstan need to factor in various marketing techniques in their administrative practices and governing philosophies. For this purpose, one of the Kazakhstan's cities as Uralsk has chosen as application area. The reason of Uralsk choosing as destination is tourism potential developing of this area. And also, the main reason of this study, the value of tourism industry is going to increase with the process of being a brand. More importantly, food has been recognized as an effective promotional and positioning tool of a destination. For example, France, Italy and Turkey have been known for their cuisine. That is why there could be an opportunity for developing Kazakhstan's cuisine as the destination. Similarly, with increasing interest in local cuisine, more destinations are focusing on food as their core tourism product.

The image of today's Kazakhstan is obscure. To the Western world, Kazakhstan is one of the –stan countries somewhere in the backyard of Europe. It is difficult to find a well-informed westerner who can explain the difference between Afghanistan, Pakistan, Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan and Turkmenistan. The task of building brand Kazakhstan is, however, complex, as there are distinctive cities in Kazakhstan with their distinctive identities. There is an opportunity for cities of Kazakhstan to develop their own brands and market their cities globally.

For this study, firstly brand concept analysis, destination, destination branding, destination marketing, tourism destination and etc. had explained. In the second chapter the branding process in local cuisine in the marketing of Kazakhstan as the tourism destination. In the last chapter an empirical study has made survey with 20 restaurants (all the restaurants of this destination) to determine Uralsk's level of being a destination brand.

Key Words: brand, branding, destination, tourist destination, destination marketing, local cuisine

## INTRODUCTION

Today, every country, city and region on earth must compete with every other for its share of the world's commercial, political, social and cultural transactions in what is virtually a single market. For the travel and tourism industry, national image is fundamentally important. The tourist board needs to 'sell the country' to a vast international audience of ordinary consumers as well as a highly informed professional cadre of tour operators and other influencers, and the background reputation of the country ultimately determines whether that 'selling' process is easy or difficult, expensive or cheap, simple or complex – and whether it gets gradually easier and more efficient over time, or whether it remains forever a struggle. A country's reputation determines whether its messages are welcomed, and whether they are believed.

This is the reason why the concept of destination branding has become so important. The idea of 'brand equity' sums up the idea that if a place, product or service acquires a positive, powerful and solid reputation, this becomes an asset of enormous value – probably more valuable, in fact, than all its tangible assets, because it represents the ability of the place or organization to continue to trade at a healthy margin for as long as its brand image stays intact (Anholt, 2009:ix).

The focal point of the enterprises in marketing and advertising activities that influencing and shaping the consumer and the consumer's purchase decision process, especially in a case of tangible products that separates the brand. The branding importance has highlighted by the marketing policies by the majority of consumers

identify the product, advertising, applications, communication with the consumer and the product. The brand is expressed as a feature that allows among other products to be in this direction (Demirdögen, 2009, 3).

In addition to these businesses in the marketing activities brand creation and positioning, creating differences in the characteristics that required to use an optimum level. Accordingly, the brand's relationship with the concept of difference and positioning will be a correct approach. Brand difference as well as branding is an important element in the process. Customers for learning more about the product should be aware of it. When the consumers make the choice between two preferences only one of it they should be preferred (Temeloğlu, 2006, 15).

Generally positioning strategy, one product and its the most important components of brands is expressed in the form of targeted applications of consumers and competitors to get a specific place according to the consumer's mind. Brand management is very important to place the positioning strategies (Kırdar, 2004, 241).

To define branding seems to be simple but actually branding is quite complicated. Because it is not only consists of a name or symbol, the brand is composed of different elements (Eymen, 2007, 16). All of these items and developments in the various impressions of consumers in shaping memories and more influenced by the values of some consumers. In order to create an image or a number of people on an integrated concept of emotional and physical features, the brand is a specific affinity among consumers (Çiğerdelen, 2007, 217).

### **Brand Identity**

From the consumers' point of view for one product primarily how much they buy the product, wishes and needs and compliance solutions of credibility is very important. According to another statement, a brand identity is heart and soul of the brand, and the same time the brand's owner is occupied how to define a correlation between values and brand identity. Identity, values and these values should reflect the staff and be known by other units in the frame of the observed relationship (Eymen, 2007, 20).

### **The importance of brand**

Nowadays, brand has become an important concept for businesses. Some product or services strives to be a brand but it could be a large part of being a part of the brand. To become a brand, the brand it to be persistence in mind, be recognized by more consumers to be chosen, purchased and used, as well as to prevent competitors and therefore more sales for businesses that produce products or services (Çiğerdelen, 2007, 217).

Today many countries, regions, urban and revenues from the tourism there will be able to provide development in tourism, for creating differences in the importance of specific applications. Changing consumer demands and needs of so-called destination in the country, region, city, location etc, according to the new trends in tourism fields requires the realization of the marketing and promotion activities (İlban, 2007, 4).

A destination is a town, city or a place which has one or more attractions for tourists. These attractions may be in the form of scenic sights, culture, leisure activities, shopping rebates, food, and excursion. Those attractions are used to accruing revenues from tourists. A tourist has some pre conceived notions about a destination which he might have heard from his surroundings sources like ads, internet and word of mouth from a friend or family member or may be read in a travel book. A destination image can be positive or negative and is considered an important part of the decision making process of consumers when they consider their destination alternatives. As many of the researcher has explained destination image as is an important determinant and also plays an important role in destination selection process (Jayswel, 2008:252).

Destination marketing, the goal of obtaining a tourist destination in accordance with the highest earnings, the tourist destinations of products produced in the target markets in order to ensure a good to get a place in tourist destinations. Taking into account the characteristics of tourism demand generated by tourism product-related research, and at the same time forecasting and selection will be aiming to make decisions about these issues and defined as a management philosophy (Özer, 2009, 939).

According to Avcikurt (2005, 24) tourist destinations or a destination image, an individual or group has all the objective information about a particular place, impressions, prejudices, dreams, and can be defined as an expression of emotional ideas.

In other words, the image of tourist destinations people have beliefs about a destination, the sum of ideas and impressions. Destination image, multi-dimensional and consists of both symbolic and tangible features.

The the study was conducted in the restaurants of Uralsk region. Reason for the selection of Uralsk region, place of residence of the researcher, the data can easily reach the number of restaurants offering local cuisine and the region is too. The area of the study is 22 restaurants of the Uralsk region. In the destination branding process in

order to determine the effects of restaurant offering local cuisine restaurant the sample consists of 20 pieces of restaurants. The data of the study was done in November 2010. The reason is the capacity to increase the number of people that coming from another countries and regions for education, business and convention purposes.

Table 1  
Application Variables to the People

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Frequency(N)</b>	<b>100 worth (%)</b>
<b>Management status</b>		
Owner	2	10
General Manager	4	20
Bookkeeper	14	70
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Work experience</b>		
1-5 year	9	45
6-10 year	8	40
11 year and more	3	15
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100</b>

**Note:** The percentages have been taken as the nearest value

Application of the restaurants is 2 (10%) Luxury Restaurant, 15'si (75%) 1 st Class Restaurant, 3 (15%) Specialty restaurants. Premier status is determined in accordance with Kazakhstan standards. The modality of the servise is 14 (70%) A'la Carte service, 5 (25%) Table'd Hote, 1 (5%) Buffet. The stuff number is 1 (5%) 1-9 people, 17 (85%) 10-49 people, 2 (10%) 50-250 people.

Table 2  
Application Variables for Amenities

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Freque ncy(N)</b>	<b>100 worth (%)</b>
<b>Management status</b>		
Luxury Restaurant	2	10
1. Class Restaurant	15	75
Special Restaurant	3	15
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Servise Modality</b>		
A la Carte	14	70
Table'd Hote	5	25
Buffet	1	5
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Stuff Number</b>		
1-9 people	1	5
10-49 people	17	85
50-250 people	2	10
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>100</b>

**Note:** The percentages have been taken as the nearest value

Uralsk Region the food and beverage enterprises in the made application of 6 (30%) indicated the amblem or symbol, and 14 (70%) stated that they are not in use.

Table 3  
Amblem or Symbol Using Status

	<b>Frequency(N)</b>	<b>100 worth (%)</b>
Yes	6	30
No	14	70
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>100</b>

**Note:** The percentages have been taken as the nearest value

This question was to determine whether the restaurants have not done marketing research. Uralsk Region of the food and beverage enterprises in the application of 10 (50%) indicated their brand to be benefited from external sources, while 10 (50%) expressed as not efficacy.

Table 4  
The External Resource of Utility Situation

	<i>Frequency(N)</i>	<i>100 worth (%)</i>
Yes	10	50
No	10	50
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>20</b>	100

**Note:** The percentages have been taken as the nearest value

The main variable in the analysis, the process of branding the most one (1.70) participation in the Uralsk region successfully managed brand communication, brand equity region is emerging as a factor. Creating a positive idea for a destination in Uralsk region strong, consistent, and noticeably different marketing activities, the foundation of a brand image is at least (1.45) followed by participation.

During the selling process; Uralsk region to market as destination and destination attractiveness is very important and the highest demand (1.40) seems to participation. The lowest (1.30) urbanization in Uralsk where people live, work, do shopping, contributing for the places development that are important to a power factor.

In the part of general structure of restaurants, the meals quality the highest demand (1.20) is an ideal service of Kazakh Cuisine dishes are available. In the lowest (1.05) and decorating the restaurant meals unique situation existing, Kazakh cuisine menu variety and richness in the foreground, it is essential to capture the continuity of Kazakh cuisine dishes in production standards. Service quality, the highest participation (1.25) is based on quick service of the restaurant. In the lowest (1.05) knowledgeable about the restaurant kitchen staff, the restaurant is important to shape of the service, the restaurant staff need to be monitored professionally. In the part of ambiance of the restaurants the customers' looking the highest (1.25) participation is observed. The lowest (1.00) participation of the restaurant is cleaning production sought, as well as external appearance of the restaurant. In the part of Comfort in the restaurant coupons and promotion practices the highest participation is (1.80). The lowest (1.10) participation as an important factor the easy parking is chosen.

In the variable analysis of place marketing and branding of Uralsk Region's restaurants the highest (2.25) participation Uralsk followed by food and wine region. The lowest (1.20) participation in general is that Uralsk's restaurants are easy to come.

## CONCLUSION

In recent years the concept has begun to be extended to destinations or places – countries, regions, cities. This reflects the fact that destinations are increasingly at risk to the challenges posed by global, political and technological changes, and are finding themselves competing against a plethora of alternatives, some of which are priced very aggressively. To face these challenges, destinations need to establish a strategic vision and establish a market-orientated strategic planning process, adopting a market perspective toward their product and consumers. Destination branding helps define a place and create a unique identity with clear and strong values, appealing to both our rational and emotional motivations. However, as with any other brand, destinations need to be backed up by product, service delivery and quality, plus an appeal to that sometimes elusive emotional side of the human psyche. If the infrastructure, economic base, level of service and attitudes are not there on the ground, the brand promise will quickly be undermined and wither.

As globalisation gathers pace in the 21st century, no destination is assured of immunity from external and internal pressures. Destination branding, supported by appropriate support programmes and investment can help a place respond to these challenges, distinguish itself from the competition, and guarantee a better chance for survival and long-term prosperity.



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# UNDERSTANDING WESTERN CONSUMER BEHAVIOR TOWARD EATING DOG MEAT IN KOREA: APPLICATION OF THE EXTENDED THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR

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## ABSTRACT

An extended theory of planned behavior was employed to investigate the western consumers' behavioral intentions toward eating dog meat in Korea. The constructs in the extended theory of planned behavior model included intention being predicted by attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, past behavior, and propensity for risk-taking behavior. Results showed that attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, past behavior, and propensity for risk-taking behavior had a significant effect on intention to experience the dog meat. Theoretical and practical implications are further discussed.

**Key Words:** dog meat, western consumer behavior, theory of planned behavior

## INTRODUCTION

Even though the eating of dog meat has been considered and practiced as part of Korean food culture in a traditional society, it is viewed as a shameful and uncivilized food habit in a contemporary society by western people and even some Koreans. Western people and societies for animal rights have urged to stop eating dog meat in Korea, which can be considered as a barbarian food habit and must be destroyed in a modern food culture.

To the best of our knowledge, none of previous studies have attempted to investigate western consumers' attitudes and behaviors related to eating dog meat in the academic research. In addition, it might be interesting to investigate if western people's attitudes and behavior towards eating dog meat could change for those who are accustomed to the Korean food culture after living in Korea for a while. While the theory of planned behavior model has received substantial attention in the United States, there is little empirical evidence to support its validity in other cultural settings. The theory of planned behavior would not be as effective in understanding or predicting behavioral intentions and/or consumer behavior in an Eastern European culture characterized by a strong group orientation (Sheppard et al., 1988). Understanding the consumer behavior with regard to the diverse cultures has been increasingly important especially in the hospitality and tourism industries because of globalization. Therefore, the present study intends to bridge these research gaps.

The purpose of this study was to examine the western consumers' behavioral intentions toward eating dog meat in Korea. To accomplish the objectives of this study, the extended theory of planned behavior was used as a theoretical base in this study to examine the relationships among attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, past behavior, propensity for risk-taking behavior, and behavioral intentions to experience dog meat.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Food taboos & Dog meat

It is a very distinct point that food taboos exist in human diets. Food taboos are quite different from the food avoidance which is simple concept derived from the empirical experience in food habits (Fieldhouse, 1996). Food taboos are more complicated concept which is related to both culture and society. Food taboos are composed of various factors. Fieldhouse (1996) listed reasons for food taboos and avoidance as follows: disgust-fear of contamination; unfamiliarity; intimate familiarity; fear of infertility; condition of flesh-decayed, diseased; hygiene-

health; to restrict slaughter of useful animals; sympathetic magic; transmigration of souls; totemism; sacredness of animal; religious sanctions; and cultural identity.

In history various food taboos have been existed in societies. Because food taboos are much related to society and their culture, they have been consistently changed over time. Harris contended that food taboos could be changed with infrastructural change (Harris, 1987). Fieldhouse (1996) contended that food taboos could be used for social groupings and assigning people's place in their society. Eating dog meat is one of the good examples of infrastructural change and social groupings in food taboos in ancient western societies, Egypt, Greece and Rome. Documents show that dog meat was eaten in ancient western societies, Egypt, Greece, and Rome but gradually there were other abundant meat sources such as sheep, goat and pig available to humans. Therefore, they didn't have to consume dog meat anymore and even considered establishing dog meat as a low-class food habit later (Dalby, 1996, p 45-58). In western societies dogs have performed other roles, such as protecting other domestic animals and property, serving as a companion to humans, and have even been regarded as family members. For these reasons the consumption of dog meat was increasingly diminished. Even though the ancient Egyptians, Greek and Romans ate dog meat, western people gradually perceived that eating dog meat was not acceptable.

As mentioned before, food taboos can be changed by culture and societies. Based on this assumption, it might be interesting to investigate if western people who experience different food culture in Korea, change their perceptions towards dog meat. If so, what can be some of factors influencing their perception change, and if not, what can be some of factors preventing the perception change with respect to dog meat? To address this curious predicament relating to food taboos on dog meat, the extended theory of planned behavior was used as a theoretical framework to understand the western consumers' behavioral intention towards experiencing dog meat in Korea.

### **Theory of Planned Behavior**

The theory of planned behavior, which is an extended version of theory of reasoned action, has received significant attention recently in diverse research areas to understand the predictors of an individual's specific behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Canniere, Pelsmacker, & Geuens, 2009; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Lee & Back, 2008; Nysveen, Pedersen, & Thorbjornsen, 2005). The basic paradigm of the theory of planned behavior (TPB) posits that a central determinant of most human behavior is an individual's intention to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Behavioral intention, in turn, is directly determined by attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. The attitude toward the behavior refers to the affective and instrumental evaluations of performing the behavior, while the subjective norm refers to perceived social pressure to perform a behavior or not. The perceived behavioral control means the perception that the individual has about the ease or difficulty of performing the behavior.

Lam and Hsu (2006) tested the applicability of the theory of planned behavior model using its core variables (i.e., attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control) in addition to past behavior variable on behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination using Taiwanese travelers to Hong Kong. The results found that attitude, perceived behavioral control, and past behavior were significant predictors of behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination. Canniere, Pelsmacker, and Geuens (2009) compared the Relationship Quality and the theory of planned behavior models using real-life purchase behavior data of apparel and survey information. Attitude towards the buying behavior, the subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control were found to be significant determinants of behavioral intentions in the theory of planned behavior model. Based on the discussions above, the following hypotheses were proposed.

Hypothesis 1: Attitude is a significant predictor of behavioral intention.

Hypothesis 2: Subjective norm is a significant predictor of behavioral intention.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived behavioral control is a significant predictor of behavioral intention.

### **Past Behavior**

The previous literature has suggested the specific role of past behavior in theory of planned behavior model (Ajzen, 1991; Canniere, Pelsmacker, & Geuens, 2009; Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; Ouellette & Wood, 1998; Ryu & Han, 2010; Ryu & Jang, 2006). The findings from these studies implied that adding past behavior as a predictor significantly increased the considerable amount of predictive ability of the theory of planned behavior model in intentions and/or actual behaviors. Ajzen (1991) claimed that past behavior might be the best predictor of future behavior and a measure of past behavior could be used to test the sufficiency of any model designed to predict future behavior. Ouellette and Wood (1998) conducted meta-analysis by examining 64 studies. Their findings provided robust evidence for the influence of past behavior structure on behavioral intentions and future behavior. Lam and Hsu (2004) found the positive influence of past behavior on travel intention in the theory of planned behavior model. Ryu and Jang (2006) revealed that past behavior was a significant determinant of tourists' behavioral intention to experience local cuisine. Lam and Hsu (2006) found significant effect of past behavior on behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination in the theory of planned behavior model. Ryu and Han (2010) found the significant impact of past behavior on behavioral intentions in a modified

theory of reasoned action model. The findings furthermore revealed that travelers' behavioral intentions to experience local cuisine became stronger as they had prior experience. Based on the findings from the previous studies, the following hypothesis was proposed.

Hypothesis 4: Past behavior is a significant predictor of behavioral intention.

### **Propensity for Risk-taking Behavior**

Experiencing novel, taboo, or scary food is related to risk involvement (Backstrom, Pirttila-Backman, & Tuorila, 2003), specifically functional risk of the taste or financial risk of quality and price. Gluckman (1986) argued that consumers might be fearful and anxious whenever they did not know enough to make decisions. This can indeed happen when trying to experience dog meat. Although customers inherently fancy for experiencing a novel or scary food, they can be highly concerned about the unpleasant consequences. Adventurous customers with higher risk-taking propensities might be likely to experience dog meat. Propensity for risk-taking behavior refers to the tendency to enjoy or otherwise seek new and potentially risky activities and experiences (Keaveney & Parthasarathy, 2001; Raju, 1980). Thus, it would be logical to assume that propensity for risk-taking behavior would have a direct effect on behavioral intention in this study.

Hypothesis 5: Propensity for risk-taking behavior is a significant predictor of behavioral intention.

## **METHOD**

### **Measurement**

Based on previous research (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Canniere, Pelsmacker, & Geuens, 2009; Keaveney & Parthasarathy, 2001; Raju, 1980; Ryu & Jang, 2006), a questionnaire was developed to assess the variables used in this study. Multiple items were used to measure all latent variables (i.e., attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, past behavior, propensity for risk-taking behavior, and behavioral intentions). First, attitude toward the behavior was measured using semantic differential scales (e.g., -3 = very bad, 3 = very good) in response to the four statements (e.g., "Taste of dog meat will be ...") (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ryu & Jang, 2006). Second, subjective norms were assessed by three 7-point "very unlikely –very likely" scale items: for example, "Most of people who are important to me think it is bad for me to eat dog meat" (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ryu & Jang, 2006). Third, perceived behavioral control was measured using a 7-point scale (e.g., 1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) with four items (Ajzen, 1991). For instance, "I know a restaurant to eat dog meat." Fourth, past behavior was operationalized with four items. For instance, "I have experienced dog meat." A 7-point "strongly disagree (1) – strongly agree (7)" scale was used for each item. Fifth, propensity for risk-taking behavior was measured with three items: "I am the kind of person who would like to try unusual menu when I eat out" (Keaveney & Parthasarathy, 2001; Raju, 1980). Sixth, behavioral intentions were assessed by asking respondents to comment on three statements (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ryu & Jang, 2006). For example, "I intend to experience dog meat within one year while I am in South Korea." Participants responded to these items on a 7-point scale (e.g., 1 = very unlikely, 7 = very likely). Finally, socio-demographic information (e.g., gender, age, education, ethnic background, the length of stay in Korea) was further measured.

### **Data Collection**

Using a convenient sampling approach, the survey data was collected from western people (i.e., American, Canadian, European) living in Korea at the moment when the data were collected via a self-administered questionnaire. 340 samples were collected between December in 2009 and April in 2010. After deleting incomplete responses, 299 responses were finally utilized for data analysis.

### **Data Analysis**

The data were analyzed using the two-step procedure suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). First, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to identify whether the measurement variables reliably reflected the hypothesized latent variables using covariance matrix. All latent variables were allowed to inter-correlate freely without attribution of a causal order. Secondly, a structural equation modeling (SEM) with latent variables via AMOS 5 was tested to determine the adequacy of the theory of planned behavior for the constructs of the model and testing the hypotheses. The main advantage of using SEM over using factor analysis and regression analysis is that it can simultaneously estimate all path coefficients and test the significance of each causal path (Bentler, 1980). Attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, past behavior, and propensity for risk-taking behavior were predictor variables (exogenous variables) and behavioral intention was a criterion variable (endogenous variables) in the analysis.

## **RESULTS**

### **Profile of the Respondents**

Table 1 presents sample characteristics of respondents. Among 299 responses, the sample was divided fairly equally between males (49.8%) and females (50.2%). Approximately 57.5% were younger than 30 years of age, 28% were between 30 and 39 years, and 14.5% were older than 39. Approximately 54.5% of the customers were

American, 18.7% were Canadian, and 26.8% were European. 67.2% of respondents had bachelor degree and 13.8% had graduate degree. That is, approximately 81% of respondents were highly educated people. They also varied in the length of stay in Korea (less than 6 months = 22.4%; 6-11 months = 18.1%; 12-23 months = 32.1%; 24-59 months = 16.7%;  $\geq 5$  years = 10.7%)

Table 1  
Sample Characteristics of Respondents

Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	149	49.8
Female	150	50.2
<b>Age</b>		
$\leq 29$	172	57.5
30-39	84	28.0
40-49	25	8.4
50-59	16	5.4
$\geq 60$	2	0.7
<b>Education</b>		
Less than high school degree	15	5.0
High school degree	42	14.0
College graduate	201	67.2
Graduate degree	41	13.8
<b>Ethnic background</b>		
American	163	54.5
Canadian	56	18.7
European	80	26.8
<b>Length of stay in Korea</b>		
< 6 months	67	22.4
6-11 months	54	18.1
12-23 months	96	32.1
24-59 months	50	16.7
$\geq 5$ years	32	10.7

### Measurement Model

Following the procedure suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a measurement model was tested before the structural model. To assess the adequacy of the measurement model, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using the maximum likelihood estimation method was performed in the first step of data analysis. All factor loadings were significant at an alpha level of 0.05. Thus, the measurement showed convergent validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In addition, internal consistencies of each construct were assessed through Cronbach's alpha. They ranged from 0.831 to 0.953, indicating acceptable reliability levels of all constructs.

### Structural Model

A structural analysis was performed in the second step of the data analysis to validate the theory of planned behavior in predicting behavioral intention. A structural equation modeling showed that the model had predictive ability for consumer intention to experience dog meat. Table 2 shows the standardized parameter estimates and t-values. The hypotheses of structural parameters of attitude to behavioral intention ( $\beta = 0.362$ ,  $p < .05$ ), subjective norm to behavioral intention ( $\beta = 0.137$ ,  $p < .01$ ), perceived behavioral control to behavioral intention ( $\beta = -0.085$ ,  $p < .01$ ), past behavior to behavioral intention ( $\beta = 0.828$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and propensity for risk-taking behavior to behavioral intention ( $\beta = 0.411$ ,  $p < .01$ ) were supported because all causal paths were significant.

Table 2  
Structural Parameter Estimates

Path	Standardized Parameter Estimate	t-value
H1: Attitude $\rightarrow$ Behavioral intention	0.362	2.088*
H2: Subjective norm $\rightarrow$ Behavioral intention	0.137	3.954**
H3: Perceived behavioral control $\rightarrow$ Behavioral intention	0.085	2.435**
H4: Past behavior $\rightarrow$ Behavioral intention	0.828	14.742**
H5: Risk-taking behavior $\rightarrow$ Behavioral intention	0.411	7.425**

Note: \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ .

## CONCLUSION

This study assumed the possibility of changing the consideration of eating dog meat, if the western people experience the Korean food culture in Korea and are accustomed to different food culture. Using the theory of planned behavior as a theoretical framework of this study, we investigated the influence of attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, past behavior, propensity for risk-taking behavior on behavioral intention to eat dog meat. A structural equation analysis found that attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, past behavior, propensity for risk-taking behavior were significant predictors of behavioral intention to try the eating of dog meat.

The intention of eating dog meat among western people in Korea was quite negative. In addition, further data analysis found women were more negative than men in the experiencing of dog meat in Korea. The findings indicated that the frequent experience of different food culture was not strong enough to elicit western consumers' behavioral intention to eat dog meat. However, it was very meaningful to investigate behavioral intention relating taboo food in a different culture.

The findings from this study carry marketing implications for both destination marketers working with food tourism and/or adventure tourism. The findings showed a positive causal relationship from past behavior to behavioral intention, indicating that past experience of dog meat could significantly reinforce western consumers' intention to experience dog meat. This indicates that dog meat could serve to attract western consumers who already have experienced dog meat in Korea. It might carefully imply that dog meat might play a role in the way tourists experience Korea's culture, suggesting that culinary experiences, even experiencing taboo food or adventurous food can be an effective tool in marketing a destination's unique food to tourists. Marketers also need to understand the importance of tourists' positive word-of-mouth in experiencing dog meat in Korea. Thus, information-gathering and –assessment on western consumers' satisfaction with their experiences with regards to the food taboo, particularly relating to dog meat, should be improved through provision of adventurous foods in conjunction with exotic food culture and flavors.

To the best of our knowledge, this was the first study that investigated the effect of consumers' propensity for risk-taking behavior on behavioral intention within the theory of planned behavior model. This study indicated that consumers with high risk-taking propensity are likely to experience dog meat, which can be considered as adventurous food. As demand for food tourism is becoming more diversified (Mitchell & Hall, 2003), a new competitive momentum can be gained through adventurous food. The dog meat might represent a new commercial potential for extreme culinary specialties, namely in adventure tourism.

This study is not free from limitations. First, the prediction of actual behavior was not included in this study since it was difficult to measure actual behavior in a tourism destination. However, previous studies provided strong support for the use of intention to predict actual behavior (Sheppard, et al., 1988). Thus, behavioral intention in this study could be used as an indicator for actual behavior. Second, the use of convenience sampling limited the generalizability of the study findings. Therefore, it is recommended that future study should use a probability sampling. However, the findings of this study are important in understanding consumers' behavioral intentions relating to taboo food such as eating dog meat in a different culture. Some researchers argue that other factors (e.g., individual characteristics and situational factors) can affect the adequacy of the theory of planned behavior model to predict the behavior or intention. Thus, it is suggested that some other factors be included as other independent variables in the theory of planned behavior model.

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# STAKEHOLDER MANAGEMENT AND EVENT ORGANIZATION: AN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS IN THE FIELD OF ITALIAN MUSIC FESTIVALS

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## ABSTRACT

There is currently a wave of interest in how events represent an important driver for the local development. It is possible to have a genuine economic and social contribution only when the event is undertaken within a paradigm that emphasizes the importance of complex interactions between event’s proposer and its stakeholders. This paper analyzes the Italian context of music festivals and deepens the relationships between the festival organizer and public and private actors using the stakeholder management approach. Findings suggest that festivals have a reasonable level of entrepreneurship so that analysis reveals good predisposition for the use of management practices.

**Key Words:** event, festival, stakeholder, management, strategy, organization.

## AIMS AND THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

There are two main aims to this study. The first is to map the variegated world of Italian music festivals to understand the main features. The second is to analyze the relationships with the stakeholders and the relative management strategies. The study presents empirical evidence for 48 Italian music festivals, investigated through a structured questionnaire administered directly with an electronic survey.

There is a growing interest in how the organization of festivals can preserve and promote anthropic and cultural heritage, animate specific attractions or entire cities, improve the awareness or image of the destination, provide a competitive marketing advantage so much so that Richards (2007) has introduced the term “festivalization” in studying why/how festivals have globally become preferred tools in place marketing and tourism development. Festivals can represent an important driver in increasing the destination attractiveness (Arcodia and Robb, 2000) and this is confirmed in looking at the international market where events have become a worldwide tourism phenomenon (Prentice and Andersen, 2003; Allen *et al.* 2002; Getz, 2005). Nevertheless many planned events are still produced with little or no thought given to their tourism appeal or potential. The reasons can be sought in the organizers’ specific aims, in the absence of relationships established between events and tourism (Getz, 2008), and in the small size of the organization that can limit the marketing and tourism orientation.

Though festival management reproduces generic concepts and methods of event management, it has been recognized as a distinct sub-field (Andersson and Getz, 2008). Those who suggest to treat festivals as a specific sub-group, Getz *et al.* (2010) note that many festivals are focused on traditional community celebrations (largely organic, even spontaneous) or on cultural and special themed celebrations. In 1987 Falassi described the festival as “a sacred or profane time of celebration, marked by special observances” for highlighting the importance of this special event in celebrating community values, ideologies, identity and continuity. It is easy to note that inside the category of festivals there is a long list of sub-categories each of which with one or more specificities. Wilson and Udall (1982: 3) proposed seven broad categories (arts festivals; dance, jazz and music festival; harvest and food festivals; shows, fairs and festivals; and sports events), while more recently Getz (2005: 21) has defined them as “themed, public celebrations” so as not to create too stringent boundaries that could lead to the exclusion of some typology. Besides, putting a festival in a specific category can become very difficult when there is not an attribute that prevails unequivocally on the others (an example can be a festival that promotes music and eon-gastronomic products simultaneously). Most of the time the explanations essentially apply to all types of festivals and the object of celebration is often recognizable in the name (Getz, 2005), such as the Umbria Jazz Festival (the most important Italian jazz music festival), which indicates its nature. With many shapes and specificity, several potential goals to satisfy and a plethora of stakeholders to involve, festivals are somewhat unique in the events sector (Getz *et al.* 2010). Employing stakeholder theory and its use to the management process has revealed important opportunities to provide a competitive advantage to event organizers because the identification of all stakeholders and a review of their agendas will assist event managers in balancing the competing needs, tensions and expectations of all stakeholders (Getz *et al.* 2007). It can also provide an excellent opportunity for improving propensity of local businesses to networking activities that represents a crucial, effective and efficient option in terms of mobilizing resources, information, experience,

knowledge and ideas. An event stakeholder can be defined as people and organizations with a legitimate (or perceived legitimate) interest in the outcome of an event. Their expectations are not equal, their respective objectives are different, and, therefore, they should all be analysed and balanced according to the aims of the event organizer.

The Theory of Stakeholders sees to the company as an organization before which many agents (stakeholders or groups of interest) request multiple demands, which are not always coherent (Donaldson and Preston, 1995). A group or an individual is qualified as a stakeholder if it has a legitimate interest in aspects of the organization's activities and, thus, has either the power to affect the organization's performance and/or has a stake in its performance (Sautter and Leisen, 1999).

Savage *et al.* (1991) propose their perspective to understand stakeholder's potential to threaten the organization. The capacity, opportunity, and willingness to do so is postulated to be function of the player's relative power and its relevance to a particular issue dealt with. Mitchell *et al.* (1997) combine the concepts of power with legitimacy and urgency to create a typology to support the analysis of stakeholder relevance. They propose that salience (as perceived by managers) will be positively related to the number of these three attributes that managers perceive the stakeholder to possess.

Stakeholders are not all equal, so it is indispensable for the management of an organization to prioritize them and focus their efforts accordingly. This prioritization requires a basis for analysis. Reid and Arcodia (2002) proposed a conceptual model showing how events are linked to primary and secondary stakeholders. "Primary" stakeholders were defined as those on whom the event is dependent (namely, employees, volunteers, sponsors, suppliers, spectators, attendees, and participants), while "secondary" stakeholders include the host community, government, essential services, media, tourist organizations, and businesses. Another classification is provided by Getz *et al.* (2007) who group stakeholders in "facilitator" (provides resources and support), "regulator" (usually government agencies), "co-producer" (other organizations and persons who participate in the event), "allies and collaborators" (such as professional associations and tourism agencies), and those impacted (mainly the audience and the community). Once the relevant stakeholders are identified, analysis or differentiation is possible. The Savage *et al.* (1991) typology provides a balanced view of the possible influences - cooperation and threat -, and explicitly attempts to place stakeholders in a management context by suggesting appropriate strategies for each type. Those authors prescribe specific management strategies based on a typology that relates a stakeholder's potential to threaten the organization to their potential to cooperate with it. They advocate a "collaborative strategy" where the potential for both cooperation and threat are high. A "defensive strategy" is suggested when the potential for threat is high and the potential for cooperation is low. An "involvement strategy" is prescribed for situations of low potential for threat but high potential for cooperation. Still a "monitoring strategy" is called for when both the potential for threat and cooperation are low. Savage *et al.* (1991) suggest that management efforts should be focused on minimally supporting the needs of marginal stakeholders and maximally supporting the needs of those that have high potential for cooperation. They further suggest that management attempt to shift some from a less favorable category to a more favorable one. Based on this theoretical framework, the paper wants to determine whether the festival organizer is aware of the role of stakeholders and of the importance related to the implementation of specific strategies for managing relationships with them.

## RESEARCH METHOD

The first step of the research has been to individuate the population of Italian music festivals. The activities have not been quick because a national organization that represents them doesn't exist. Then a complete census of all self-titled "festivals" in Italy was undertaken through several methods such as search of commercial sites specialized on music, tourism regional websites such as those administrated by DMOs, and a Google search with a set of predetermined key-words. Because most of them are small, community-based, spread around all the Country, and it is constantly changing as new ones enter while others fail or change in fundamental, there is no possible generalizability to the whole population of festivals in Italy. Despite this, a list of 194 festivals has been created.

An email was sent to festivals present in the list inviting them to complete a questionnaire in a web-based survey solution. Allowing for an eight week survey period (October – December, 2010) which included a pre-test on three festivals through a face-to-face interview, a total of 55 questionnaires were returned. After the first month, a reminder call was made to available phone numbers. At the end, there were 48 useable questionnaires (a 25,26% response rate). In our opinion, the final sample size is quite acceptable because it covered a diverse range of Italian music festivals in terms of geographical location, music genre, number of editions, form, size, and funding.

The questionnaire is divided into three main sections. The first part asked for general information, such as ownership and control, musical genre prevailing, programme, number of editions, total audience, venues used, staff, revenues and costs. The second part is related to the strategies used in running the event in the previous three years and what degree of success was ascribed to each on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 (= completely

ineffective) and 5 (= fully effective), or 0 if did not use the specific strategy. Respondents were also asked to answer to statements concerning challenges and threats to their festival. The third part set out a list of different public and private organizations. The list was originated and adapted starting from the one provided by Getz *et al.* (2010). The interviewee was asked to indicate for each stakeholder the presence of relationships (yes/no), the frequency (daily/weekly/monthly), and the quality (1 = poor to 5 = excellent). We decided to use also weighted responses to improve the accuracy of answers (ratio can vary from 0 = low use to 4 = high use). In doing so, further information about relationships between festivals and their stakeholders was gathered asking about the tools used to communicate (e-mail numbers, fax number traded, number phone calls, mails, meeting organized).

## RESULTS

### *Profile of the festivals*

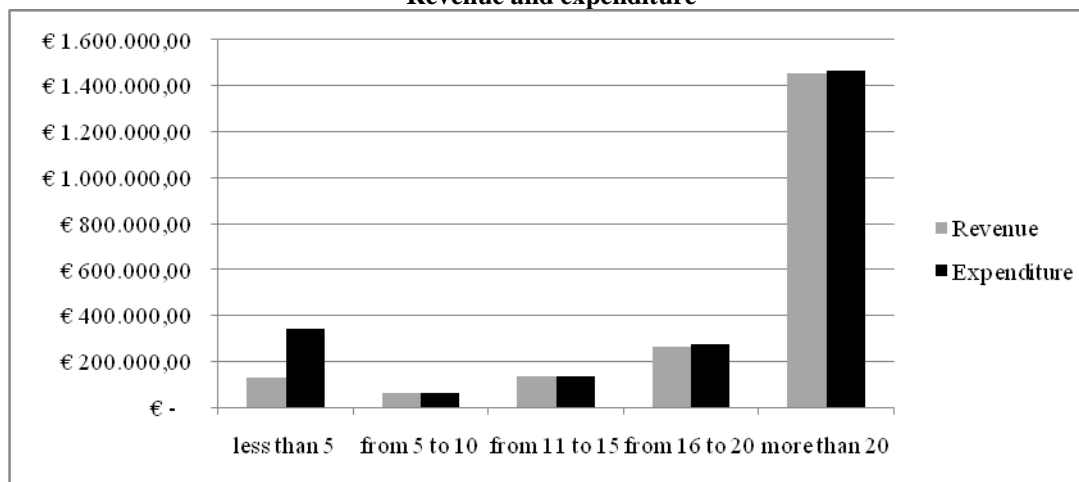
In relation to the prevailing music style, in the festivals analyzed, 20,84% are focus on Jazz while 16,67% on classic and 16,67% on folk, 14,58% on rock, 8,33% pop, 2,08% blues, and 20,83% other. The observation of the festivals' names reveals that in the 22,92% of cases there is the word "music" while 47,92% has the music genre. 66,67% are cultural associations, 6,25% foundations, 12,50% private companies, and 14,58% public bodies such as municipalities. Table 1 contains the longevity and highlights how nearly 50% is occupied by festival with a number of editions under 10. There is a mean of 46.835 spectators while the number of the people involved in the organization is on average 36.

**Table 1**  
**No. of festival's editions**

	No	%	Mean spectators	Mean people involved
Less than 5	9	18,75%	28.080	20
From 5 to 10	16	33,33%	6.447	24
From 11 to 15	7	14,58%	33.714	41
From 16 to 20	5	10,42%	4.320	29
More than 20	11	22,92%	154.739	71

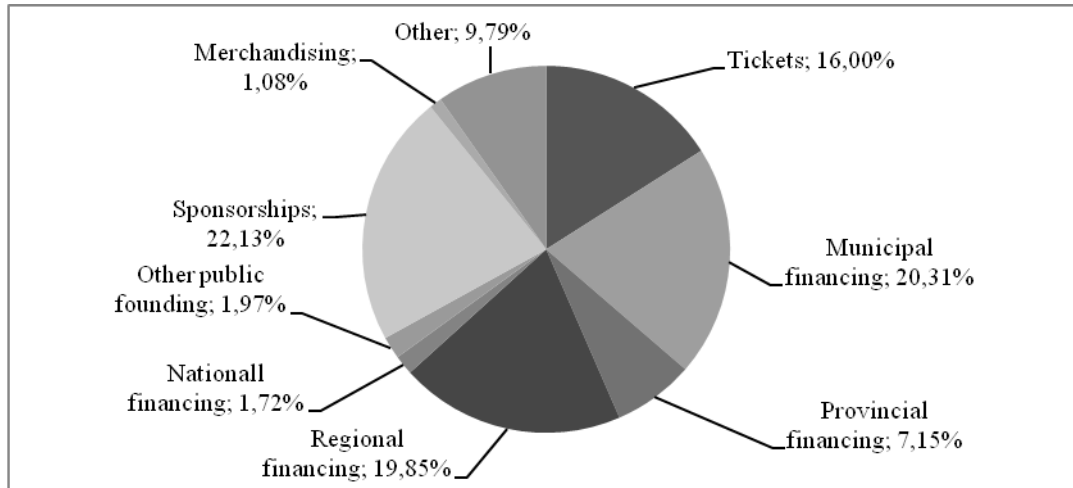
Figure 1 shows that festivals with more editions are characterized by higher values compared with festivals with less editions and it highlights how the gap between revenue and expenditure is very considerable for the youngest festivals while it is almost absent for the other categories.

**Figure 1**  
**Revenue and expenditure**



Looking at the total of the revenue (figure 2), it emerges that the first source is sponsorships followed by public grants. Tickets represent the 16% while merchandising only 1%. In addition, festivals choose sponsorships in 84,62% of cases, followed by municipal and regional grants (71,79% and 58,97%), and tickets (53,85%). Instead, the analysis of expenditure highlights that the ranking is the cachet of the artists (42,85%), organizational expenses (37,10%), marketing expenses (14,56%), and other (5,49%).

**Figure 2**  
**Sources of revenue**



*Stakeholders, relationships and strategies*

A first analysis shows that festivals perceive a greater dependence on stakeholders that provide funds (public bodies and sponsors) while assign less weight to logistics and facilities. All festivals affirm to have good relationships with stakeholders (in fact, in a range from 1 = poor to 5 = very well, the average is 4). A deeper analysis of the frequency (daily, weekly, and monthly) and the communication tools (presence of relationships - weighted) demonstrates how relations are not so intensive (table 2).

**Table 2**  
**Stakeholders and relationships**

Stakeholder	Presence of relationships (%)	Frequency (%)			Presence of relationships (weighted) 0 to 4	Quality 1 to 5
		Daily	Weekly	Monthly		
Media	94,74%	17,14%	37,14%	45,72%	1,39	3,68
Other artists (not international)	94,74%	5,71%	45,71%	48,58%	1,32	4,21
Local authority	92,11%	10,81%	40,54%	48,65%	1,54	3,83
International artists	84,21%	15,62%	37,50%	46,88%	1,11	4,32
Facilities	81,58%	3,33%	33,33%	63,34%	0,97	4,13
Artist booking agency	78,95%	9,68%	54,84%	35,48%	1,12	3,81
Our major corporate sponsors	76,32%	3,45%	17,24%	79,31%	1,00	3,79
Our small corporate sponsors	73,68%	0,00%	14,29%	85,71%	0,89	3,74
Government agencies for grants	65,79%	7,41%	14,81%	77,78%	0,93	3,56
Tourism traders	57,89%	9,52%	28,57%	61,91%	0,74	3,71
Food and beverages	55,26%	0,00%	36,84%	63,16%	0,62	4,11
Trading intermediaries	52,63%	25,00%	50,00%	25,00%	0,49	3,95
Police and other public services	52,63%	0,00%	9,52%	90,48%	0,48	3,95
Independent organizations	42,11%	6,25%	37,50%	56,25%	0,65	3,93

Stakeholder strategies were examined and results are highlighted in table 3. It was asked which strategies had been employed over the past three years, and the perceived degree of success on a scale of five – with 1 (= completely ineffective); 5 (= completely effective); 0 when strategy is not used. Looking at the column “use of the strategy”, the most frequently practiced strategies were “worked on creating an identity / image” and “worked on the promotion of brand” with a good perceived degree of success (mean = 4).



**Table 3**  
**Stakeholder strategies employed and perceived degree of success**

	Use of the strategy (%)		If yes, the degree of success	
	No	Yes	Mean	S.D.
Worked on creating an identity / image	2%	98%	4,36	0,78
Worked on the promotion of brand	12%	88%	4,03	1,01
Developed initiatives in support of the local community	20%	80%	4,00	1,14
Invested in the creativity to invent new products within the festival	20%	80%	3,03	1,36
Converted a supplier in a sponsor (to reduce costs)	30%	70%	2,86	1,33
Worked as a lobby for funding or other benefits	35%	65%	2,58	1,03
Contacted the media to become official sponsors	37%	63%	3,32	1,49
Developed and formalized marketing partnerships with other organizations	42%	58%	3,17	1,50
Tangible resources shared with other festivals	47%	53%	2,71	1,35
Taken legal action to register the brand	57%	43%	3,82	1,38
Provided fund to cover the unexpected (i.e. Insurance rain)	60%	40%	2,81	1,47
Imitated other festivals / events to keep up with market trends	60%	40%	2,50	1,03
Other organizations authorized to use the name and logo of the festival	67%	33%	2,00	1,22
Supported the collaboration between the sponsors for their mutual benefit	67%	33%	3,00	1,63
Got money to loan to cover financial losses	70%	30%	3,08	1,44
Paid a company to search for new funding sources or sponsors	77%	23%	2,44	1,51

Table 4 lists several issues and reveals that almost all are considered strength. Particularly, the highest rated strengths were “artistic proposal”, “period of performance”, “location”, and “staff”. While “ability to manage cash-flow” and “costs” were indicated as weaknesses.

**Table 4**  
**Strength and weakness of the music festival**

Issues	Strength (%)	Weakness (%)
Artistic proposal	95%	5%
Period of performance	95%	5%
Location	88%	12%
Staff	85%	15%
Ability to manage debt	76%	24%
Planning and organization	68%	32%
Reputation	66%	34%
Human Resource Management	66%	34%
Event marketing	65%	35%
Relations with the resident population	58%	42%
Resource management (i.e. Equipment, venue)	57%	43%
Involvement of local actors	53%	47%
Ability to manage cash-flow	34%	66%
Ability to manage costs	32%	68%

## CONCLUSIONS

The survey has revealed how festivals are variegated and spread around all Italian regions, therefore it was possible to find 194 festivals focused on music and it may be that others exist. It is difficult to survey them because among many reasons, the most evident are that a national association does not exist, few of them work all year round, and many are not present on the web. Considering that in addition to music festivals, there are also many others who valorise other arts, it is evident that the phenomena is even more important. Moreover, it is significant to emphasize that most of them are strongly connected with the local environment. Maybe, the main reasons of this relation are related to the specific anthropologic features of Italy. In fact, there are several examples where festival principally represents a driver to support the aggregation and the identity of the local community. To sustain this thesis, there is the fact that many festivals are organized by cultural associations while the firms are the minority. In this way, the festival becomes a tool for sustainable development of the area because it preserves and promotes the culture and society through the direct participation of local residents. Moreover, it can also contribute to the harmonious development of the local economy. In fact, the observed data

shows how widespread the approach is to the music festival to promote other activities, most notably typical food. In our opinion, in Italy the time is ripe to consider the festival as tools in place marketing and tourism development. A fundamental role for the success of the event is played by the organizer. The results show the existence of different types of organizations whose structure becomes more complex the greater the number of festival editions. It is also evident that if the number of editions increases, also the overall complexity increases, as clearly evident in the case of revenue, expenditure and number of people involved. The respondents claim to know and use management practices. This statement leads us to believe that the level of entrepreneurship is good despite the organizational structure not being too articulate.

In confirmation we report some evidences. Many festivals use a strategic approach, and brand strategies play a key-role. They recognize the importance of stakeholders in organizing the festival and in general they are also aware of their influence. In fact, they claim to have a network of relationships. Despite this statement, the results of research show that the weight and frequency of the relationships are not so obvious. The analysis of sources of funding shows that festivals are highly dependent on public and private funding. Furthermore, among the few weaknesses that they say to have, there are the low capability to manage cash flow and to manage costs. Those factors highlight how important it is to deepen the knowledge about the organization of the event in terms of Human Resource Management, competencies and skills required, and the management tools.

Those evidences suggest further researches in this context such as the creation of a general framework useful for researchers to monitor, to evaluate and to compare strategies of the events. This frame will be also functional to the exigencies of festival's managers whom may dispose of a strategic performance management tool for keeping track of the execution of activities.

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# A RESEARCH ON SOCIAL IMPACTS OF FOÇA ROCK FESTIVAL: PERCEPTIONS OF LOCAL RESIDENTS AND LOCAL AUTHORITIES

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## ABSTRACT

The purposes of this study are, to assess the local residents' and local authorities' perceptions of the Foça Rock Festival which was held in Foça- Turkey and to determine whether the proposed instrument by Delamere et. al. (2001) is valid in the current study setting. The instrument with 47 items was empirically tested by employing a confirmatory factor analysis with LISREL. Results indicated that the local residents' perceptions have two main dimensions with five sub factors. To describe local authorities' perceptions semi-structured interview method was employed. Results suggested that perceptions about social benefits dimension are perceived positively by both local authorities and residents. On the other hand there are differences between their perceptions about social costs dimension.

**Keywords:** festivals, perceptions of the social impacts, local authorities, local residents

## INTRODUCTION

Festivals and events are organized for a variety of reasons, including enhancing or preserving local culture and history, providing local recreation and leisure opportunities and enhancing the local recreation and leisure opportunities and the local tourism industry (Thomason and Perdue, 1987). Most literature attaches importance to the impacts of festivals and it is indicated that their social impacts and economic impacts have critical role in local tourism development. How these impacts are understood by the local residents may increase support for the festival (Delamere and Hinch,1994). Generally, local authorities and festival organizers have focused on the economic benefits of festivals (Delamere, [http://lin.ca/Uploads/cclr9/CCLR9\\_11.pdf](http://lin.ca/Uploads/cclr9/CCLR9_11.pdf), 14.02.2010). However, most of the studies that examined festivals and special events have focused on the economic impact of festivals and special events (Gartner and Holecek, 1983; Kim et al., 1998; Walo et al., 1996; Uysal and Gitelson, 1994). Of course the economic impacts of festivals are important, but the social impacts may have an even more profound effect upon the community (Fredline et. al., 2002: 765). In the context of social impacts the festivals have social benefits and social costs effecting local residents. Understanding the need for a balance between social benefits and social costs is of great importance to the local authorities. If they are able to assess the impacts of the festivals and events they can better understand the residents and visitors' needs and wants and can plan the festivals more efficiently.

The focus of this article is on the social impacts of community festivals on the host community. This article specifically evaluates the Foça Rock Festival which was firstly held on July 2009 and secondly on July 2010 in Foça (a seaside town of city of Izmir in Turkey) as a case study. It is a kind of music festival which is the one of the four festivals held in Foça during the summer months. While there is a reasonable amount of literature on the social impacts of tourism, particularly through the sustainable tourism literature, less research has concentrated on the social impacts of events and festivals (Fredline et. al., 2006). However, Delamere (2001) noted that while the FSIAS (Festival Social Impact Attitude Scale) represented an initial step toward standardized measurement of festival-related impacts, there was a need to validate it by testing it in different community environments and in relation to different festival types. The study, from this dimension, aims to determine whether the proposed instrument is valid in the current study setting, describe local residents' and local authorities' perceptions of the social impacts of Rock Festival in Foça and to identify the differences between these perceptions. For this purpose the instrument with 47 items was empirically tested using the data collected from local residents by employing a confirmatory factor analysis. Finally, to describe local authorities' perceptions semi-structured interview method was employed in data gathering.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

As event tourism gains momentum, perceived impacts will become more widespread and will generate more refined examination and criticism. Residents' perceptions of, and attitudes towards events has already emerged as a major research and theoretical theme (Soutar and McLeod, 1993; Delamere, 1998, 2001; Delamere et al., 2001; Fredline and Faulkner, 1998, 2000; Mihalik, 2001; Fredline et al., 2003; Ohmann et al., 2006; Lim and Lee, 2006). According to differences in their purpose and program planned events are categorized diversely. Some are for public celebration (this category includes so-called "community festivals" which typically contain a large variety in their programming and aim to foster civic pride and cohesion), while others are planned for purposes of competition, fun, entertainment, business or socializing (Getz, 2008:404). Getz (2005: 21) defines the festival as 'a public, themed celebration', while Smith (1990: 128) provides a more detailed definition, identifying festival as, "a celebration of a theme or special event for a limited period of time, held annually or less frequently (including one-time only events), to which the public is invited." The festivals represent socially and culturally complex events that are sometimes repeated and sometimes changed just like the complexity of everyday life (Gerrard, 2000: 300). Impacts of festivals include: social and cultural (Fredline and Faulkner, 2000; McDonnell et al., 1999; Getz 1997, 1991; Mayfield and Crompton 1995; Hall, 1992); physical and environmental (McDonnell et al., 1999) and economic (Crompton and McKay 1994). Kyungmi and Uysal (2003: 160) suggest festivals and special events have the capability of providing both tangible, such as additional income, tax revenues for locals, and intangible benefits such as renewal of community pride, enhanced image of the place. Longson (1989:5) summarizes the social impacts of a festival as the positive and negative effect the festival has on the people and individuals as groups. According to Longson, it considers such aspects as personal well-being, interpersonal relationships, traditions, lifestyles, community services and community identity. Goldblatt (2002), Getz (1997) and Hall (1992), argues that the festival organisers and local government only take into account the economic impacts and ignores the implications of social impacts of the festivals. Getz (2005) points out that it is not enough just to consider the economic impacts. He identifies that the social, cultural and environmental effects that can add to the development of society should also be considered. In the light of the literature understanding the need for a balance between economic and social goals is important. This balance is essential in promoting a sustainable approach to the development of the festival within the community (Hinch, 1994; Murphy, 1985). Festivals and special events reinforce social and cultural identity by building strong ties within a community. Thus, festivals and special events are likely to serve to build social cohesion and trust by reinforcing ties within a community (Gursoy et al., 2004: 173). In addition to the social positives, holding festivals also improves the environment of the host community (Li et al., 2009: 588). However, it is important to note that the social impacts of festivals on local communities may also be negative in nature (Jeong and Faulkner, 1996; Gursoy et al., 2004; Delamere, 1998, 2001; Delamere et al., 2001). These negative impacts could take the form of: amenity loss due to noise, litter and crowds; changes in community social and leisure habits; vandalism and hooliganism; and intergroup divisiveness arising from the inequitable distribution of benefits and disbenefits (Getz, 1991; Soutar and McLeod, 1993; McCool and Martin, 1994). On the other hand local residents perceptions of these impacts will likely play a part in community-wide acceptance or rejection of the festival (Delamere, 1998; Delamere and Hinch, 1994). For this reason if the festival and event organizers\local authorities perceive the impacts of the festival and event tourism the same as of the community residents and visitors' perception of impacts, they can better understand the residents and visitors' needs and wants and can plan their festivals and events more efficiently (Kyungmi and Uysal, 2003: 161).

## METHODOLOGY

This study is comprised of four-step procedure. First, the scale includes 47 items that were adopted from the Delamere et al. (2001) was tested on 377 local residents in Foça on January 2010. To detect scale dimensionality, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with a principal component method with varimax rotation was conducted and the scale was refined. Second, the final questionnaire was applied on December 2010. Third, the scale measuring the local residents' perceptions of the festival impacts was verified by using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Finally, to describe local authorities' perceptions of the social impacts of the festival semi-structured interview was employed. Data were collected from the local residents in Foça via a stratified random sample with self-administered questionnaires being delivered to all houses and stores in streets chosen according to randomly selected street map coordinates, in strategically chosen locations. In order to describe local residents' perceptions of the social impacts of Rock Festival the 47 items that the scale includes were adopted from Delamere et al.'s (2001) study in which they developed the FSIAS (Festival Social Impact Attitude Scale). Using the refined scale a face-to-face survey was conducted with 487 local residents in Foça on December 2010. Respondents were asked to evaluate each statement on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). After a thorough inspection, 16 questionnaires were eliminated from the analysis because important questions were left blank or checked twice. 469 questionnaires were therefore coded and analyzed. At the same time the study employed semi-structured interview as the principle method in order to measure local authorities' perceptions about social impacts of the festival. Based on the dimensions of social impacts of the festival (Delamere, 2001), a unique semi structured interview form had been designed. The questionnaire consists of 15 open-ended questions. The Mayor, the District Governor and the Chief of Police of

Foca were interviewed face to face in person. Sound recorders were used and the interviews lasted approximately from 45 to 60 minutes. Data in this study was analyzed via descriptive analysis used in qualitative researches. In the initial stages of data analysis, the qualitative data obtained from the interviews was transcribed from sound recorders to a written sheet. In the second phase, we analyzed the respondents' statements interpretatively considering their perceptions and thus, to what extent these perceptions show convergence or divergence to the local residents' perceptions.

Table 1.  
Results of the EFA (N=469)

Factors	Factor Loading	Mean	Eigenvalue	Explained Variance (%)	Cronbach's Alpha
<b>Dimension of Social Benefits</b>					
<b>Subfactor 1—Cultural/Educational Benefits</b>		<b>3,590</b>	<b>8,645</b>	<b>57,635</b>	<b>,912</b>
CEB1 The festival provides opportunities for community residents to experience new activities.	,754	3,680			
CEB2 Local residents who participate in the festival have the opportunity to learn new things.	,741	3,684			
CEB3 The festival acts as a showcase for new ideas.	,769	3,812			
CEB4 The festival provides my community with an opportunity to discover and develop cultural skills and talents.	,672	3,535			
CEB5 I am exposed to a variety of cultural experiences through the community festival.	,612	3,241			
CEB7 Friendships are strengthened through participation in the festival.	,753	3,648			
CEB8 The festival leaves an ongoing positive cultural impact in my community.	,670	3,422			
CEB9 Community groups work together to achieve common goals through the festival.	,744	3,697			
<b>Subfactor 2—Community Benefits</b>		<b>3,535</b>	<b>1,199</b>	<b>7,995</b>	<b>,922</b>
CB1 The festival is a celebration of my community.	,779	3,499			
CB2 Community Identity is enhanced through the festival.	,840	3,514			
CB3 The festival enhances the image of the community.	,809	3,573			
CB4 The festival helps me to show others why my community is unique and special.	,690	3,631			
CB5 The festival contributes to a sense of togetherness within my community.	,682	3,584			
CB6 Having the festival helps to improve the quality of life in my community.	,697	3,438			
CB7 The festival contributes to my personal well-being.	,710	3,510			
<b>Total variance explained</b>				<b>65,631</b>	
<b>Dimension of Social Costs</b>					
<b>Subfactor 1—Community Resource Concerns</b>		<b>3,210</b>	<b>8,634</b>	<b>43,171</b>	<b>,818</b>
CRC1 In general, there is a decreased sense of community involvement in the festival.	,694	3,062			
CRC2 The festival leads to increased disagreement between and among community groups.	,640	3,393			
CRC5 The festival highlights negative cultural stereotypes within my community.	,595	3,235			
CRC6 The festival is a source of negative competition between my community and neighboring communities.	,611	3,578			
CRC8 The festival weakens the identity of my community.	,697	3,546			
CRC10 When the festival does not live up to its expectations we feel a sense of failure in my community.	,423	2,655			
CRC11 Some people and/or groups in the community experience more of the problems associated with the festival than do others.	,717	3,002			
<b>Subfactor 2 Environmental Concerns</b>		<b>2,812</b>	<b>2,095</b>	<b>10,475</b>	<b>,879</b>
QLC4 Car/bus/truck/RV traffic increases to unacceptable levels during the festival.	,808	2,682			
QLC5 Pedestrian traffic increases to unacceptable levels during the festival.	,879	2,420			
QLC6 My community is overcrowded during the festival.	,837	2,333			
QLC7 Ecological damage is increased to unacceptable levels during the festival.	,666	2,733			
QLC8 Litter is increased to unacceptable levels during the festival.	,702	2,481			
QLC10 The festival leads to a disruption in the normal routines of community residents.	,599	3,288			
QLC12 Noise levels are increased to an unacceptable point during the festival.	,626	3,313			
QLC13 Community recreational facilities are overused during the festival.	,674	3,245			
<b>Subfactor 3— Negative Behavior Concerns</b>		<b>3,531</b>	<b>1,413</b>	<b>7,063</b>	<b>,882</b>
QLC1 Delinquent activity in my community increases during the festival.	,770	3,395			
QLC2 Crime in my community increases during the festival.	,855	3,593			
QLC3 Vandalism in my community increases during the festival.	,837	3,657			
QLC9 The influx of festival visitors reduces the amount of privacy we have in our community.	,463	3,434			
QLC11 The festival is an intrusion into the lives of community residents.	,442	3,578			
<b>Total variance explained</b>				<b>60,710</b>	

Note: Items with a factor loading of higher than .40 are shown. Extraction method: principal component analysis. Rotation method: varimax with Kaiser normalization. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling = .952 , p=.000.

## RESULTS

### Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

To detect scale dimensionality, an EFA with a principal component method and varimax rotation was conducted for local residents' perceptions of the social impacts of Rock Festival in Foça using the data which was collected on January 2010. The result of the principal component factor analysis applied to the 21 items related to "Social Benefits" dimension indicated that there were two underlying dimensions (subfactors) explaining **55,14%** of variance. Items that had factor loadings of lower than 0.40 and items loading on more than one factor with a loading score of equal to or greater than 0.40 on each factor were eliminated from the analysis. The cleanest rotated solution was obtained by omitting 6 items. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling was .927 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ( $p=.000$ ). Factor analysis applied to the 26 items related to "Social Costs" dimension indicated that there were three underlying dimensions (subfactors) explaining **52,51%** of variance. The cleanest rotated solution was obtained by omitting 6 items. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling was .890 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ( $p=.000$ ). After identifying the dimensions, a Cronbach's Alpha reliability test was conducted to evaluate the reliability of each measurement scale using the data collected on January 2010. The reliability coefficients range from 0.75 to 0.88, thus adequately meeting the standards for such research (Nunnally, 1967). Based on the results of the EFA conducted with the data of January 2010 survey, the scale was refined and the final questionnaire was applied on December 2010. The results of the EFA were consistent with the previous research results and are shown in Table 1.

### Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

In order to verify the scale measuring the local residents' perceptions of the festival impacts, a confirmatory measurement model was tested by using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Items identified through the EFA procedure were utilized in the CFA. In this study, fit indices used to determine goodness of fit included the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) statistics and associated p-values, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), the comparative fit index (CFI), the incremental fit index (IFI), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI) and parsimony normed fit index (PNFI) and the Bentler-Bonett normed fit index (NFI), and nonnormed fit index (NNFI). The overall fit of this final CFA model was  $\chi^2(495) = 656.40$  ( $p = 0.00$ ); RMSEA = 0.026; GFI = 0.93; AGFI = 0.91; NFI = 0.98; NNFI = 0.99; CFI = 1.00; IFI = 1.00; and PGFI = 0.73; PNFI = 0.82; with critical  $N = 400.13$ . An RMSEA value of .05 or smaller is indicative of good fit, and RMSEA values up to about .08 indicate reasonable fit of a model (Steiger & Lind, 1980). Values of GFI, AGFI, NNFI, CFI, and IFI range from 0 to 1.00 with a value close to 1.00 indicating good fit (Byrne, 1989; Mulaik et al., 1989). Values of PGFI and PNFI range from 0 to 1.00 with a value above 0.70 indicating a good fit (Jöreskog and Sorbom, 1993). All of the fit indices indicate that the proposed measurement is acceptable. All of the estimated pattern coefficients on their posited underlying construct factors were significant at the 0.05 significance level (i.e., each had a t-value  $> \pm 1.96$ ). Therefore convergent validity was achieved for all the variables in the study.

## DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

One of the purposes of this study was to determine the validity of FSIAS (Festival Social Impact Attitude Scale) in a seaside town of city of Izmir in Turkey. The proposed measurement instrument was tested by a CFA using the data gathered from the local residents. Results confirmed the two dimensional nature of the local residents' perceptions of the impacts of the festival. However, results suggested that these two dimensions (**social benefits and social costs**) can be measured by 35 items instead of using all 47 items. While the social benefits dimension consists of two subfactors labeled as **community benefits** and **cultural and educational benefits**, unlike the study of Delamere et. al. (2001) the social costs dimension has three subfactors. These subfactors are labeled as **negative behavior concerns, environmental concerns and community resource concerns**. All of the reliability and validity scores were acceptable. The other purpose of this study was to assess the local residents' and local authorities' perceptions of the Foça Rock Festival. In order to assess perceived social impacts by local residents data was analyzed with SPSS16.0. When the participants' average and frequencies of expressions about social benefits dimension are examined it is seen that all impacts are perceived positively. The most agreeing statements are the followings: it helps them to show others why their community is unique and special (%66), festival provides opportunities for community residents to experience new activities (%71), it enhances the image of the community (%65), it makes community groups work together to achieve common goals (%69), it strengthens friendships (%69) and it contributes to a sense of togetherness within the community (%65). These findings are consistent with the suggestions of Weaver and Robinson (1989: 7-8). They indicate that festival is held in a community in order to increase community spirit and pride, to show others why the community is unique and special, to improve on the community's image, to provide an opportunity for the community, to discover and develop their cultural skills and talents, to provide opportunities for residents and to experience

new activities. When the participants' average and frequencies of expressions about social costs dimension are examined there is an agreement that festival doesn't increase delinquent activities (%56), crimes (%62) and vandalism (%64) during the festival. Also it is indicated that the festival isn't a source of negative competition between their community and neighboring communities (%67) and doesn't weaken the identity of their community (%66). However, Getz (1991) and Hall (1992) state that crowding can exacerbate rowdy behavior, drinking, drug use and violence. On the other hand there is an agreement that festival increases traffic congestion (%60), pedestrian traffic (%70), ecological damage (%54) and litter (%65), leads to overcrowding (%73) during the festival. Likewise, several studies report that residents perceive that increases in traffic congestion and in pressure on local services are two of the major problems created by tourism activities (Gursoy et al., 2002; Murphy, 1981; Jurowski et al., 1997; Keogh, 1990; Long et al., 1990; Milman and Pizam, 1988; Prentice, 1993; Sheldon and Var, 1984; Tosun, 2002; Andereck et al., 2005). When the local authorities' expressions are examined they think that the festival makes a positive contribution to the community's quality of life by eliminating prejudice, increasing tolerance and creating a sense of unity among the society. According to the local authority, the local community embraces the organization. In addition, they state that negative effects like environmental and noise pollution, limitation of daily activity or vandalism do not emerge. It is thought that the festival is perceived as an entertainment facility, does not cause a conflict in benefit distribution, does not bring any financial burden on the neighbourhood and increases the touristic competitive advantage of the area.

The findings suggest that there isn't a significant difference between the perceptions of the local residents and the local authorities on the social effects of the festival. In addition, there is also consensus on the fact that there is no increase in negative activities like crime or vandalism during the festival. When the security records regarding this situation are checked, only two self injury cases are detected. Also, no conflict between the local society and the participants has been experienced. About this, the society's tolerance has stood to be more effective than police precautions. However, local residents have stated that they have experienced some negative effects of the festival about areas influencing daily life like traffic, pollution and crowd. Local authority claims that they took all the necessary precautions during every festival period and the precautions will have more effective results as organization experience evolves. Nevertheless, it shouldn't be forgotten that some of the precautions taken by the local authority can be perceived as limitations by the local society. When the social benefit and cost approach is considered, the research results support the fact that the local authority should take the prioritized precautions towards the society's quality of life. The effectiveness of the relationship that will be established with the organization firm will provide extra contribution to this.

The future trials and applications of the developed scale in this research for other festivals and destinations have importance for scholars so as to enrich the accumulation about the social effects of festivals which has not been studied sufficiently in literature. Also the inadequacy of the research on the local authority's perceptions about the festivals is seen as a barrier to the development of research results. Quantitative scale development in order to measure the perceptions of local authorities will provide important contribution to research in this area.

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## **DEVELOPING THE “TIME” MODEL: A CASE STUDY OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP™ NELSPRUIT HOST CITY**

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### **ABSTRACT**

The purpose of the study is to develop a model that can assist local governments/cities in preparing the tourism industry to host mega events like the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. A case study approach was employed to study the complexity of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in Nelspruit Host City and how the City Council assisted the tourism industry in preparing for it. Data was collected from 700 accommodation establishments, transport operators, restaurants and shop owners for a comprehensive understanding of the supply side of the tourism industry. Based on this study, the Tourism Industry Managing Events (TIME) Model has been developed to assist Local Government/Cities in preparing the tourism industry for the hosting of a mega event. The TIME model is believed to be unique and comprehensive and can assist event planners to maximise the benefits of mega events.

**Key Words:** mega events, tourism industry, Federation International Football Association (FIFA) World Cup™, Nelspruit Host City, TIME Model.

### **INTRODUCTION**

Research conducted on mega-events has been quite extensive with studies focussing on the socio, economic and environmental benefits of these events on the host community, how events can be used as a new tourism product offering, how to maximize on the benefits of these events and how the cities or organisations can plan for these events. Numerous research studies have been conducted on various aspects of events but none of them seems to have focused on assisting the Local Government/Cities in preparing the tourism industry for such an event. In other words, no model could be found to assist Local Government/Cities in preparing the tourism industry for the hosting of a mega event. The question therefore remains: “How does Local Government/Cities therefore prepare the tourism industry for an event?”

An understanding of the aspects/concept within the tourism industry assisted the researchers to develop the TIME model that can be utilised by Local Government/Cities to prepare the tourism industry for an event. The purpose of the study is, therefore, to develop a model that can assist local governments/cities in preparing the tourism industry to host mega events like the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The paper consists out of four parts. First, it reviews the extent literature relevant to mega events and the FIFA World Cup. Secondly, the research methodology is presented. Next, the research findings are presented. Finally, the paper concludes with a discussion on the value and implications of the TIME Model in the tourism industry.

### **MEGA EVENTS AND THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP™**

Tassiopoulos (2005) define mega-events as events that can attract very large numbers of event visitors, or these events can have large cost, economic and socio-cultural effects. Allen, O’Toole, McDonnell and Harris (2005) state that mega events effect whole economies and reverberate in the global media. Hall (1992) echoes the statement and further notes that mega-events often target international tourism. In short, mega events are characterized by their size, the amount of people attending, target market, the public finances involved, the political effect, the media coverage, the facilities that are created and their socio, economic and environmental impacts on the host community.

Research in the field of mega-events has been quite extensive with studies focussing on events being used as a new product offering (Quinn, 2006; Prentice & Andersen, 2003) the benefits of events (Allen, McDonnell & Harris, 2000; Crompton, Lee & Shuster, 2002; Daniels & Norman, 2003; Delamere, 2001; Hall, 2008; Goldblatt, 2002; McHone & Rungeling, 2000; O’Sullivan, D. & Jackson, M. 2002; Rogerson, 2007), preparing

to host these events (Allen et al, 2005; Tassiopoulos, 2005, Weed, 2008), planning models for the events (Allan et al, 2005, Tassiopoulos, 2005, Weed, 2008) however almost no research or model could be found to assist local government in preparing the tourism industry for the hosting of mega events such as the FIFA World Cup. Several questions remained to be answered: How do you prepare the tourism industry for a mega event? Do you make use of the tourism system or framework for tourism education as identified by various authors or follow a more strategic management approach? An evaluation of these approaches felt short and this study therefore develops the Tourism Industry Management Event (TIME) model based on the concepts/aspects underlying the tourism industry.

The FIFA World Cup, which is hosted every four years, can be classified as such a mega event. The history of FIFA can be traced back to as far as the hosting of the early Olympic Games. According to FIFA (2011) the success that football received during the Olympic Tournament in the early years intensified the Federations wish to host its own tournament and on the 28<sup>th</sup> May 1928 a decision was taken to stage a world championship organised by FIFA. The first FIFA World Cup was hosted in Uruguay and began on the 18<sup>th</sup> July 1930. In the events 19<sup>th</sup> year of existence South African became the first African Nation to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (Anon, 2011). The tournament took place from the 11<sup>th</sup> June – 11<sup>th</sup> July 2010 in ten venues across nine of South African cities (SA-venues, 2011). The cities where the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa were hosted were Johannesburg, Cape Town, Durban, Port Elizabeth, Polokwane, Bloemfontein, Rustenburg, Pretoria and Nelspruit.

Nelspruit Host City, which is situated in the north eastern part of South Africa is the capital of the Mpumalanga Province (Province of the rising sun). Host to four of the first round matches and with tourism icons like the world famous Kruger National Park and the Blyde River Canyon (third largest canyon in the world) on its doorstep it promised to draw a large number of international tourist to the area during the event. The White Paper on Tourism and Marketing (South Africa, 1996) stated that tourism in South African is Government led, private sector driven and the communities plays a vital role. As Local Government the Host City of Nelspruit therefore signed an agreement with FIFA to deliver on 24 guarantees as stipulated in the Host City agreement. When evaluating the Host City agreement from a tourism point of view, it becomes however clear that very little emphasis was placed on the tourism industry and its preparation for the event. Aspects of accommodation was covered as part of the 17 guarantees but focussed more on the accommodation for the teams, FIFA family and officials than the tourist themselves. Hosting a mega event for the first time as a City and to ensure that maximum benefits could be obtained during and after the event proper planning had to be done. When looking at the Host City Agreement it was realised that none of these guarantees focus on the preparation of the tourism industry to manage and provide for the influx of tourist during the event.

## **METHODOLOGY**

A case study approach was employed to study the complexity of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in Nelspruit Host City and how the City Council assisted the tourism industry in preparing for it. The mixed method approach was utilised during the research study. The quantitative part of the research was a descriptive study which was conducted from a positivism paradigm, where the world is guided by scientific rules that explain the behaviour of phenomena through casual relationships (Jennings, 2001). A deductive approach was followed from an ontological view that sees the world as consisting of casual relationships. The epistemological basis of the study placed the researcher in an objective and value-free position, where the researcher did not impact or have an influence on the results or findings of the research. The target population of the study included all accommodation establishments, restaurants, shops, malls, recreation facilities and transport operators in the Mbombela Local Municipality. All tourism product owners (accommodation, transportation, tour operators, travel agents and restaurants owners) were involved in the research study. Self-completing questionnaires were conducted, over a six months period, by more than 700 accommodation establishments, transport operators, restaurants and shop owners for a comprehensive understanding of the supply side of the tourism industry. The qualitative part of the study was conducted from social sciences paradigm (constructive paradigm) assumes as relatives ontology (multiple realities), a subjectivist epistemology (knower and subject create understanding) and a naturalistic set of methodological procedures (Jennings, 2001). An inductive approach was followed that allowed the researcher to pursue data collection with theory, an approach that is dominant in social sciences. The emic perspective ensured that the insider's view provided the best lens to understand the phenomenon being studied. Workshops were conducted with all accommodation establishments, restaurants, shops, malls, recreation facilities, different institutions and stakeholders within Mbombela Local Municipality to gain insight into important aspects.

## **RESULTS**

The study findings suggest that time, timing and timelines play a major role when preparing the tourism industry for a mega event. Lessons learnt from literature (De Witt, 2006; Getz, 1997, Getz, 1991, George, 2007; Grant

and Paliwoda, 1998; McIntosh, Goeldner and Ricthie, 1995; Nel, Werner, Haasbroek, Poisat, Sono and Schultz, 2010; Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhardt, Wright, 2008; Page and Connell, 2009) from hosting the event as well as workshops with the different tourism product owners assisted in identifying aspects that are important to concentrate on during the preparation for such prestige event. Therefore, based on the study result, the TIME model is developed to assist local governments/cities in preparing the tourism industry in the built up to the mega event. The TIME model consists out of 12 aspects/concepts that are discussed in detail and emphasis the different aspects that should be focused on. These 12 aspects are shown in Figure 1 and briefly explained in Table 1.

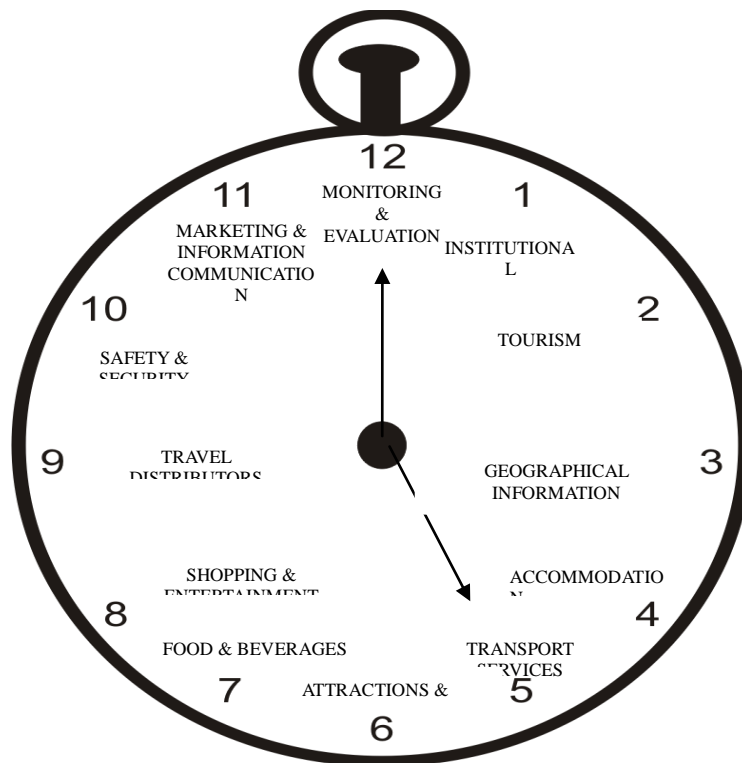


Figure: 1 Tourism Industry Managing Events (TIME) Model

Table 1  
TIME Model

<b>INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS</b>		
The institutional arrangement clarifies the structures through which Local Government/Cities will engage the tourism industry		
<b>Aspect should focus on:</b>	<b>Case Study: Nelspruit Host City</b>	<b>Value of aspect to Visitors/City/Industry</b>
Current structures in place Formalisation of new structures to make decisions, manage the planning of the event and disseminate information	Local Business Chambers were in place. Nelspruit Guesthouse association in place Different work stream were established with a work stream leader and relevant stakeholders. Name of the work stream: Events, Communication, Marketing and Tourism The role and the responsibility of the work stream was to organise all built up events, do all the communication before, during and after the event, responsible for all marketing and the beautification of the city. To prepare the tourism industry for the event. Integrated events calendar was developed between all organisations to regulate all built up events.	Communication flows efficiently to all stakeholders. Planning is a team effort. Roles and responsibilities are clarified from the beginning. Needs and wants are identified. Buy in of all stakeholders from the beginning of the process. Decisions are not taken in isolation. The process of monitoring and evaluation are made easy as information is channelled through the work stream.
<b>TOURISM DEMAND SIDE INFORMATION</b>		
The aspects gives Local Government and the tourism industry an understanding of the tourist that is going to travel to the area		
Age Sex	The City used the profile of a typical World Cup soccer enthusiast to prepare the tourism industry.	Demand side information is necessary for the tourism

Education Occupational status Annual income Family composition Party composition Trip period, duration Trip distance Purpose of trip Mode of transport Expenditure Type of accommodation	Males between the ages of 25 – 45, travelling typically with friends and not with their families, staying for approximately 10 days, making use of affordable transportation (public transport or renting of a private vehicle) and staying in affordable accommodation (caravan parks, tents, bed and breakfasts, guest houses, low budget hotels). Like to maximise on their visit to the country and will visit as many attractions as possible while they travel between the cities to see their teams play. Tourist expected from the following eight countries as they were playing in the Host City: Australia, Chile, Honduras, Italy, Ivory Coast, North Korea, New Zealand and Serbia	industry and the city to prepare for the event. The profile of the visitors expected will influence the planning of the tourism industry/city towards the event.
<b>GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION</b>		
This aspect is important for both Local Government/City and the tourism industry in understanding the importance of the location of the City and how the location can be capitalised on		
Location in relation to the world, country, province and city. Climate and weather Vegetation Rural or urban Air quality Scenery Flora and fauna Location in relation to accommodation, transport, attractions The unique selling point of the city in relation to its location.	Nelspruit which is situated in the eastern part of South Africa is the capital of the province of Mpumalanga. Mpumalanga which means: “Province of the rising sun” is rich in what it has to offer the visitor. From the white beaches of Mozambique which borders the province in the east to the culturally rich Kingdom of Swaziland in the south-east. Home to the world famous Kruger National Park it draws thousands of tourists to this unspoiled natural wonder. The city can be seen as the gateway to some of the best eco - and adventure activities in South Africa and with its tropical climate it becomes the preferred tourist destination all year round. Our subtropical fruit like (mangos, avocados, oranges, lemons, litchis and bananas) is a drawing card for visitors and during spring time the blossoms of the orange trees can be smelled for kilometres. For the shopping enthusiast the city offers world class shopping malls and casinos with air conditioning and this creates an excellent opportunity for prospective investors and business people to establish their businesses in the area.	This will assist potential visitors to plan their trips, flight schedules etc. The City’s location demonstrates that visitors can visit two more countries (Mozambique and Swaziland). They can also visit the World Famous Kruger National Park. Most international flights arrive at OR Tambo Gauteng which borders the province.
<b>ACCOMMODATION</b>		
The aspect gives Local Government/City an understanding of the quality, quantity and services provided by accommodation establishments and identify the need for alternative forms if the current supply is insufficient		
Amount of rooms Amount of beds Quality of accommodation Regulatory requirements Grading of accommodation Marketing Health requirements Location Legal requirements Environmental aspects Carrying capacity	Nelspruit offers a wide variety and some of the best accommodation facilities in South Africa which will suit the need of any of our distinctive travelers. Accommodation ranges from five star game lodges, guest houses, bed and breakfast facilities to back packers, camping and caravanning for the more adventurous traveler. Expect high quality and friendly service. 5379 rooms with 11 054 beds available in Nelspruit and 22 750 beds were available in a 150 km radius from Nelspruit FIFA Hotels – Emnotweni, Players Hotels – Mecure and Protea Team based accommodation – Ngwenyama Lodge hosting Chile team . Of the 437 accommodation establishments 31 % were graded by the SA Grading Council: 5 star – 17, 4 star – 62, 3 star – 46, 2 star – 7, 1 star – 2. Bylaws were implemented from the local council to regulate quality and health requirements of the accommodation establishments. Only 30% price increase were affected as accommodation establishments understood the demand. Solar geyser project was implemented to assist accommodation establishments in conserving electricity.	Data provided will identify if there are adequate rooms and beds or should alternative arrangements be made. The quality and standard of the accommodation must meet the demand of the expected tourist Accommodation will be marketed and sold at the right price. Quality standards can be determined. Safe environment for tourist as health requirements are in place. Sustainability of resources as accommodation establishments engaged in environmental projects.
<b>TRANSPORT SERVICES</b>		
The aspect gives Local Government/City an understanding of the quality, quantity and services provided by transport services and identify the need for alternative forms if the current supply is insufficient		
Schedules Distances from airport, attractions and tourist destinations Status and comfort Methods of transport Price of services offered Geographical position Services offered, speed Legal requirements	Integrated transport plan was developed during the event. Transport was available to tourist free of charge from the airport (30km outside the city) to the city as well as between designated parking areas and the stadium. Busses and selected taxis were paid by the City to transport all tourists around during the event. Transport during the event incorporated the airport, stadium, attractions, shopping and entertainment areas and accommodation. All transport personnel were trained and certified for the event. Specific lanes were allocated to the High Occupancy Vehicles	Decrease traffic congestion in the City. Reliable transport services. Accessible transport services. Some cases the owner/driver concept was used which brought benefits to the local community. Tourist on time for events.

Awareness and peace, shared infrastructure Carrying capacity	(HOV) for quicker and easier access.	
<b>ATTRACTIONS &amp; EVENTS</b>		
The aspect gives Local Government/City an understanding of the quality and quantity of current attractions and identify the need for alternative forms if the current supply is insufficient		
Attractions Built or natural Free/paid for Man made Socio – cultural Lifestyle, music, art, dance, local pride that can be experience by the tourist socio-cultural support Dress, language, foods, Carrying capacity	An inventory and photo library was created by the City of all available tourist attractions in the area. Built, natural, socio-cultural, free and paid. The City determined what it had to offer the tourist. Focus was specifically on the socio-cultural aspects. All attractions were published on the website of the City as well as in the visitor guide and maps of the area. Contact detail, location, entrance fees and hours of operation were published for easy reference to tourist. Kruger National Park implemented the quota system to regulate carrying capacity in the park for day visitors and to ensure high customer satisfaction levels. Built up events were developed to create awareness under the local communities.	Better understanding of the supply side therefore what the city has to offer the tourist. Identify product development if needed. Assist in marketing the tourism product. Assist in determining the carrying capacity. Creating awareness for the World Cup
<b>FOOD AND BEVERAGES</b>		
The aspect gives Local Government/City an understanding of the quality, quantity and services provided by food and beverage establishments and identify the need for alternative forms if the current supply is insufficient		
Location Type of food Type of services Menus Legal requirements	An inventory and photo library was created by the City of all available food and beverage establishments in the area. All food and beverage establishments were published on the website of the City as well as in the visitor guide and maps of the area. Contact detail, location, hours of operation was published for easy reference to tourist. Menus that catered for the tourist from different countries were incorporated into the menus of the restaurants, this assisted the local community to get a taste of some foreign cuisine. Certificate of Acceptability – Health certificates were issued to all food and beverage outlets to ensure they comply with all health regulations.	Better understanding of the supply side therefore what the city has to offer the tourist. Identify product development if needed. Assist in marketing the tourism product. Assist in determining the carrying capacity.
<b>SHOPPING AND ENTERTAINMENT</b>		
The aspect gives Local Government/City an understanding of the quality, quantity and services provided by shopping and entertainment centres and identify the need for alternative forms if the current supply is insufficient		
Location Type of shops available Type of entertainment available Shopping hours Parking availability Legal requirements	An inventory and photo library was created by the City of all available shopping and entertainment products in the area. All shopping and entertainment products were published on the website of the City as well as in the visitor guide and maps of the area. Contact detail, location, entrance fees and hours of operation were published for easy reference to tourist.	Better understanding of what the City has to offer the tourist. Identify product development if needed. Assist in marketing the tourism product. And determining the carrying capacity.
<b>TRAVEL DISTRIBUTORS</b>		
The aspect gives Local Government/City an understanding of the quality, quantity and services provided by travel distributors and identify the need for alternatives if the current supply is insufficient		
Tour operators/Travel agents in the area Products and services offered by the tour operators	An inventory was established of all tour operators and travel agents in the area. Inventory of available tours and products were examined. Possible new products (routes) were discussed and packages constructed. Workshops were held with all tour operators in the area. Permits were issued by the city to all tour operators to use the HOV lanes for easy access to the attractions, stadium and airport.	Tour operators and travel agents can supply local government/city with very relevant and useful tourist information. This can include their travel patterns, length of stay, cities visited etc. The city can provide relevant information to the tour operators/travel agents that can be distributed to the tourist before arrival.
<b>SAFETY &amp; SECURITY</b>		
This aspect assists the Local Government/Council to prepare for any crisis that might arise before, during and after the event.		
Before the crisis Management plans Communication plan Security systems	Safety and security plans was put in place for the following: Stadium, Fan Parks, Public Viewing areas, Street festivals, all built-up events, Integrated transportation plan, Accommodation establishments	This will determine if the city is ready for any crisis that might happen. Precaution measures are fully

During the crisis After the crisis Health accommodation Health restaurants Trace tourist	Tourism routes were monitored. Workshops were held with accommodation establishments, tour operators and travel agents to discuss the safety of tourists during the event. Tourist tracking systems were implemented by accommodation establishments. Communication networks and lines were implemented in case of a crisis. Only certain people were allowed to speak to the media on certain issues. Reporting system was put in place to report any tourist related incident (car accidents etc): Host City/Provincial/National. Feedback was given on a daily basis on any incident.	implemented and the risk of incidents taking place is reduced. Information is shared that increase awareness of the safety precautions being taken. Tourists are safe guarded and protected. Minimise the impact in case of an incident. Communication channel is in place and the information is therefore trust worthy.
<b>MARKETING &amp; INFORMATION COMMUNICATION</b>		
The aspect concentrates on the unique selling points of the area and the way it should be communicated to potential tourists.		
Advertising Public Relations Sponsorships Internet marketing Sales promotion Exhibitions and trade shows Signage Educational Strategic Partners Workshops Trade shows Exhibitions Brand positioning	Integrated communication plan needs to be implemented. Nelspruit Host City produced the following marketing materials for the tourists before and during the event which was distributed to the tourism industry and tourist: Maps of the integrated transport plan; Visitor guides: Including accommodation, shops, wellness, restaurants, attractions, stadium information and general overview of the City. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Website including all soccer and tourist information.</li> <li>• DVD of the City; Electronic version of the visitor guide</li> </ul> The concept of the Seven wonders of Nelspruit was established which defined the branding of the area. Right protection plan was developed to protect the sponsors of the event. Trade shows, workshops and exhibitions were done to inform all role players.	Tourism industry is informed of all the plans of the host city and has the necessary contact detail of the people responsible. Tourism industry can report problems as open communication lines are in place. Tourists are informed and know what to expect during their stay. Marketing are done before the event. Tourist stays longer as they know what the destination has installed for them. Sponsors are protected.
<b>MONITORING &amp; EVALUATION</b>		
This aspects focus on the way and means in which Local Government/Host City and the tourism industry will be able to track progress in the preparations for the event.		
Structure and develop a monitoring and evaluation system.	Different functions were divided into different work streams with a work stream leader. The monitoring and evaluation system incorporated all spheres of government and all stakeholders. Weekly meetings were implemented a year before the event took place where reporting was done. If a project felt behind schedule, interventions and assistance were given.	Monitoring and evaluation ensures that the preparations for the event do not fall behind schedule. Interventions can be put in place if a project falls behind schedule. Problems can be identified and can be corrected.

## CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study sought to develop a model that can assist local governments/cities in preparing the tourism industry to host mega events like the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. A case study approach was employed to study the complexity of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in Nelspruit Host City and how the City Council assisted the tourism industry in preparing for it. Based on the study findings, the Tourism Industry Managing Events (TIME) Model has been developed, which has 12 aspects. The paper explains and discusses these 12 aspects in detail and how it was utilised in Nelspruit Host City during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. We believe that the TIME model can assist local government/cities in preparing the tourism industry for the hosting of a mega event. The research findings confirm the importance of local governments in planning events. In addition, time, timing and timelines are important when organising mega events. We believe that the TIME model is unique and comprehensive and can assist event planners to maximise the benefits of mega events. However, future research studies can further enhance the model.

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Please contact authors for references.

## CONVENTION CENTERS: IS THERE EQUILIBRIUM OR DISEQUILIBRIUM?

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### ABSTRACT

There has been much controversy over the past few years regarding the state of the convention center industry. The issue at hand is one of supply and demand: has the supply of convention and exhibit space outstripped the demand by conventions and attendees? In the research at hand, various statistical methods are employed to address this question. It was found that, regardless of statistical procedure applied, supply does not outstrip demand and that both are growing at similar rates, albeit with different patterns.

**Key Words:** conventions, meetings, convention centers, attendees, expenditures.

### INTRODUCTION

There has been much controversy over the past few years regarding the state of the convention center industry. The issue at hand is one of supply and demand: has the supply of convention and exhibit space outstripped the demand by conventions and attendees. Fueling the fire on this issue was a study by the Brookings Institution that stated the convention center market was not only overbuilt, but that cities were foolhardy to continue development of centers (Sanders, 2005). However, this study only looked at the largest conventions (Tradeshows 200) which may not be representative of the entire industry and did not analyze the number of events or attendees. Krist (2006) along with Detlefsen and Vetter (2008) also found that there was too much convention space in a mature market. On the other hand, Farmer (2007) and Kovaleski (2006) found just the opposite, that the industry was not overbuilt. Which is correct? Policy makers around the globe are struggling with the same issue.

The extant research addresses the hypothesis that the convention center industry in the U.S. is overbuilt. The period from 1998 to 2007 is examined and was selected, in part, to exclude effects of the worldwide recession that began in 2009. Data on the number of meetings/events along with attendance and spending is garnered from biennial reports (Meetings Market Report) while data on the number and size of convention centers is from multiple issues of "A Comprehensive Guide to Meeting Facilities." These are supplemented by data from industry publications along with CVB data from over 100,000 meetings and conventions.

The 'convention center size variable' (TOTAL SIZE) is the aggregated total of square feet of exhibit space in publicly owned convention centers in the U.S. It does not include privately owned facilities such as the Sands in Las Vegas or the Gaylord properties. Also excluded is exhibit or meeting space in hotels. The 'number of meetings' variable (NO. MEETINGS) represent the aggregate of corporate meetings, association meetings and conventions held in the U.S. per year. The 'ATTENDANCE' variable represents the total number of individuals who went to the aforementioned events and "EXPENDITURES" represents their direct spending.

### METHODS

Multiple statistical methods are employed in this research. These include descriptive statistics and analysis of same, correlation analysis, multiple regression, and curvilinear regression analysis. These methods are used to investigate the relationships between a variables time, number of meetings, total meetings attendance, and expenditures.

### DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Table 1 shows the change in the four variables: (1) convention center size, (2) number of meetings, (3) number of attendees, and (4) expenditures over time (1997 – 2007).

Table 1  
Time, Supply, Demand

YEAR	TOTAL SIZE	NO. MEETINGS	ATTENDANCE	EXPENDITURES
<u>1997</u>	33,134,338	984,700	79,500,000	\$41,800,000,000
<u>1999</u>	34,362,037	1,021,500	78,900,000	\$40,200,000,000
<u>2001</u>	38,948,043	1,033,600	79,900,000	\$40,800,000,000
<u>2003</u>	61,181,484	1,058,800	84,600,000	\$44,700,000,000
<u>2005</u>	63,858,974	1,243,600	136,500,000	\$107,200,000,000
<u>2007</u>	64,682,853	1,321,700	141,200,000	\$102,900,000,000

As can be seen in Table 1, all indices increased during the period under study. Total exhibit space increased from just over 33 million square feet in 1997 to almost 65 million in 2007 or a 95% growth rate. Most of the growth took place between 1997 and 2003 when 'size' increased by 85% and then leveled off only growing about 10% from 2003 to 2007. The total number of meetings/events increase from under 1 million in 1997 to over 1.3 million in 2007 for a 34% growth rate with most of that growth taking place between 2003 and 2007 (26% of the 34% total). The total number of attendees increased from just under 80 million during the first three periods under study then to about 140 million during the latter two periods. Overall the growth rate was 78%. Lastly, total expenditures (U.S. dollars) went from about \$40 billion for years 1997 – 2003 and then more than doubled to over \$100 billion in 2005 and 2007. Overall, expenditures grew by almost 150%.

### Discussion of Descriptives

While all indices grew over the decade under study, that growth was not even. The slowest growth was in the number of meetings which itself was half the rate for attendance. Thus, attendance per meeting/event is actually increasing. The primary variable, meeting space, grew faster than either the number of meetings or attendance but at a slower rate than expenditures (95% vs. 150%).

The patterns of growth are also interesting. The amount of space (SIZE) had its highest growth rate between 2001 and 2003 at 67% followed by 8% and 2% in the latter two periods. This rapid jump, then leveling in convention center size is critically important when addressing the question of findings from previous research. If a given piece of research was truncated at 2003 the growth curve for 'size' would be astronomical. Further, the pattern in growth for the number of meetings was very slow between 1997 and 2003 increasing by an average of just over 1% per year. Again, if a research study only used data through 2003 they would find very rapid growth in convention center size and almost no growth in the number of meetings / events. The slow rate followed by very rapid rates of increase are also seen in both attendance and expenditures, with the critical turning point between 2003 and 2005.

These findings suggest that supply has kept up with demand and that the industry is in reasonable equilibrium. It is notable that all three metrics showed an overall and significant upward trend for the period.

### CORRELATION ANALYSIS

A second statistical method was applied to the data: correlation analysis. The rationale for using this method is that, if the hypotheses that supply of convention space is not in equilibrium with demand, then there would be little, or even negative correlations between the convention/meeting space variable and the three others. The statistical program SPSS V. 17 was used.

When 'TOTAL SIZE' was run against the number of meetings the correlation was quite high at .826 and a significance level of .05 (1-tailed). Total size and attendance had a correlation of .793 at the .05 significance level while 'total size' and expenditures had a correlation of .777, also at the .05 level. Thus, the hypothesis that convention / exhibit space has outstripped supply (number of meetings, attendees, expenditures) is not supported. Rather, space and the other three variables have been growing at similar rates over the entire period under study.



## REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Still another statistical method, regression analysis, was undertaken to attempt to address the question. Once again, SPSS V. 17 was used, with a stepwise method of entry and probability of F to enter at .050 and remove at .100. Size was the dependent variable with number of meetings, attendance and expenditures as the independent variables. The only variable meeting the criteria was 'number of meetings'. The model summary had an "R" of .826, and R Square of .682. Thus the number of meetings explained almost 83% of the change in meeting space. This model has high explanatory value and suggests that the number of meetings and space in convention centers have variation that are similar to one another.

In an effort to have more variables included in the model, the probability to enter and to remove were increased, first to .25 and .50 and then to .40 and .70. After running both these models it was found that neither attendance or expenditures met the thresholds for entry. This suggests that it is the number of meetings / events that drives convention center exhibit space.

## CURVE FIT

Another approach to regression analysis was also implemented: curve estimation. This approach was replicated for each of the pairs of variables of interest: (1) total size and number of meetings; (2) total size and attendance; (3) total size and expenditures. For pair # 1 the R square was good at .682 with F of 8.570 and significance at .043. For pair # 2 the R Square was .630 with an F of 6.798 and significance of .060. For pair # 3 the R Square was .604, F of 6.109 and significance of .069. Thus, all three curve fit models had reasonable explanatory power above .6 suggesting that all three variables of 'number of meetings,' 'attendance', and 'expenditures' explain about 60 percent of the change in exhibit space (SIZE).

## DISCUSSION

The question at hand, or hypotheses, was whether convention center exhibit space had grown at a rate that was much higher than demand for that space by conventions, attendance or economic activity (expenditures). The extant research used data from a ten year period, longer than the time span used in previously published studies by other researchers. Various statistical methods were applied to the data to gain insight into the question from varying mathematical perspectives.

It was found that the hypothesis was not supported. The output did not show patterns between space and 'number of conventions,' 'attendance,' and 'expenditures' to move in opposite directions as would be expected if, in fact, growth of space outstripped demand for this space. Further, if change in space did outstrip demand then the output of correlation analysis would be expected to have very low or even negative values. Rather, the opposite of these suppositions was found to be the case. Regardless of whether descriptive statistics, correlation, linear multiple regression, or curve fit regression was used as a statistical method, the results were similar. The change in convention exhibit space was mirrored by changes in the number of meetings, attendance and expenditures.

The aforementioned findings of the extant research begs the question as to why these findings are different than those of Sanders (2005). Part of the answer is that Sanders only used the largest trade shows garnered from *Tradeshow 200* and those convention centers that might host these large shows. The extant research uses all convention centers in the U.S. and data from a more broad sampling of meetings /events (Meetings Market Report). Thus, the sources of data for the two studies are different and differing results are not unexpected.

The primary answer lies in the time frames studied. Sanders study was published in 2005. Using data the authors have at hand, it is seen that convention exhibit space had a spike in growth through 2005 then a significant leveling off. On the other hand, the number of meetings, attendance and expenditures grew relatively more slowly through 2005 and then much more rapidly through 2007. If the extant study was truncated at 2005, or earlier, the results would probably look much more like those of Sanders. However, by extending the time line through 2007 a much different picture emerges – a much more accurate picture.

Findings were similar when broken out by type of event: corporate, association and convention. All increased at similar rates. The results of the multivariate statistical analysis were even more revealing. Regardless whether extrapolation (linear, logarithmic, quadratic) or regression was used, the results suggest not just growth similar to above but even more rapid or accelerated growth.

The findings are notable since they (1) cover a broader range than Sanders and (2) are different. Rather, they support Farmer and show that the U.S. Convention industry is not overbuilt.

This research should be of interest to researchers, government officials and policy makers worldwide. The extant research offers insights and a method of inquiry that is applicable in international markets.

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# SYSTEMATIC ANALYSIS FOR ESTABLISHMENT OF MOUNTAIN CLIMBING CAMPS BY GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION SYSTEM: CASE OF MAZANDARAN, IRAN

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## ABSTRACT

Today, management has an important role in tourism. Spatial models, decision making systems and GIS<sup>6</sup> could be helpful in this field. Objective of this research is identification of susceptible areas for establishing of mountain climbing camps. GIS-based and Systemic study methods were used at North of Iran. The Susceptible areas were done by GIS software and the effecting factors were analyzed. Results of the research that are provided in the framework of maps and statistics demonstrate capability of the area for establishment of those camps, which will have positive role in area management process.

**Key words:** systematic analysis, GIS, tourism management

## INTRODUCTION

Tourism industry has long been considered for humans and expanded with adding vehicles has a important role in the global economy (Davenport, 2006), so that as an indicator of economic status, social and cultural countries, has a very good capability in many feature upgrades and to make dynamic to economies of country, reduce unemployment, create national income, health promotion and promoting the level of welfare population etc (Lanza & Myriam 2003; Liu, 2006).Iran is a four-season land and has a civilization of thousand years old. However, despite these capabilities has not a good position compared to other countries in order to attract tourists. According to geographical location of Mazandaran province in the section of eco tourism, it is located on top grade of the provinces of Iran. In this context, in order to manage natural and humanoid of the region existing the suitable places for residence of tourists is necessary. Ecotourism is a trip based on nature, to meet the host culture and help to increase income and employment opportunities, without the least damaging effects on the natural environment (Boo, 1992; Goodwin, 1998).Good camp in the heart of nature with indigenous cultures has been significant management action. Mountain climbing camps always have a special place among tourists. According to the site plan as a peak of tourism planning (Kazemi, 2008), it is certain that in this plan several micro and macro indicators should be considered. Either criteria of supplier community or criteria of request community and all of the environmental criteria are impressive for the site selection and design. Hence, a management system will be successful who can use the method with all the importance criteria and have a power of modulation and composition. In this study, geographic information system with the help of systematic analysis method was used to site selection of mountain climbing camps.

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<sup>1</sup>Geographic information system

## METHODOLOGY

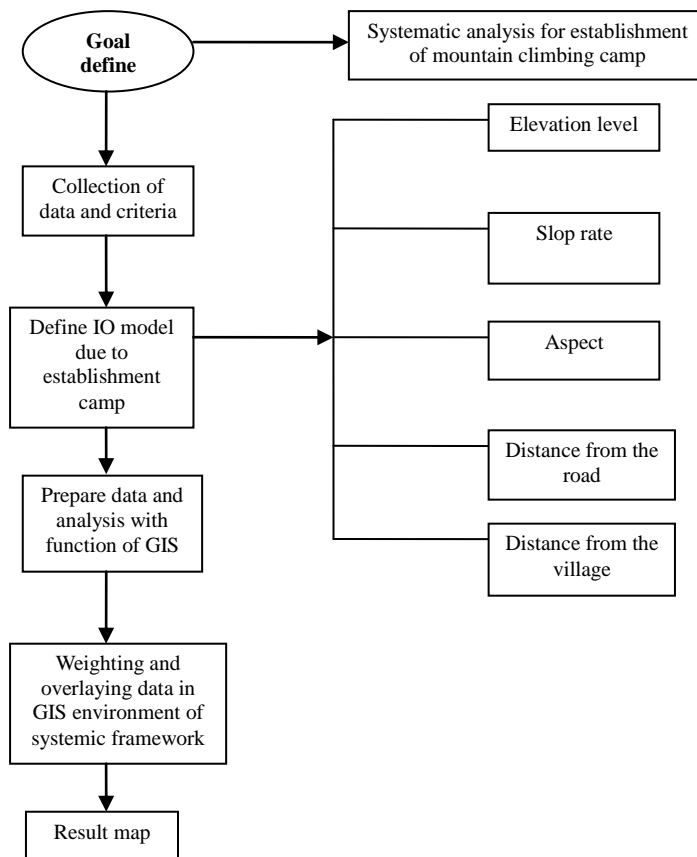


Figure 1: Conceptual model of study

Various methods have been used to identify suitable locations to create mountain climbing camps using GIS. In this study, we used index overlay (IO) and spatial based systematic analysis. This occurs according to a framework based on geographic information systems with regard to various factors. All information was prepared in digital format from the Map1:25000 of survey organization. Then necessary processing was applied in ARC GIS 9.3 software. The useful factors and sub factors in this study achieved from library studies, field research, interviews, Internet research and using Google earth satellite images.



Figure 2 Mazandaran province, extracted from Google Earth

According to the nature of research and regions, elevation surfaces were classified to the four-classes, slope depending to 7 grades, the aspect to the nine-classes, and access to roads and villages each to the four-classes. That result is given in Table 1.

Table 1.  
Results relating to classification of different parameters

Data Layer	Level - feature	Reasons for choosing
Elevation levels	1000 - 3000 m	1 - Climatic data 2- altitude sickness prevent 3- to prevent corrosion of cold 4 -Avalanche 5-Meteorological Organization reports 6 – mountain climbing nature
slop rate	(5-20°)	1– Avalanche 2 - the possibility of soil formation (the slope is dormant) 3 - Creation of Residential place 4- possible move to spend more with less rest than the higher elevations and slopes law faster nominal Smith
Distance from the road	0-1500 m	1-convenient access to the camp 2-possible services in accident cases
Distance from the village	0-1500 m	1- use of rural facilities 2- creating rural jobs 3- promoting rural economy 4 - to identify and promote indigenous culture of regional
Aspect	North slopes	1 - despite more vegetation (due to less evaporation) 2-Winter recreation 3- landscape of forests, valleys and sea landscape

Layers with reasons for selection criteria and indicators involved in the selection potential area for mountain climbing camp.

## RESULTS

### *classification of mountaning camp potantioanal of mazandaran*

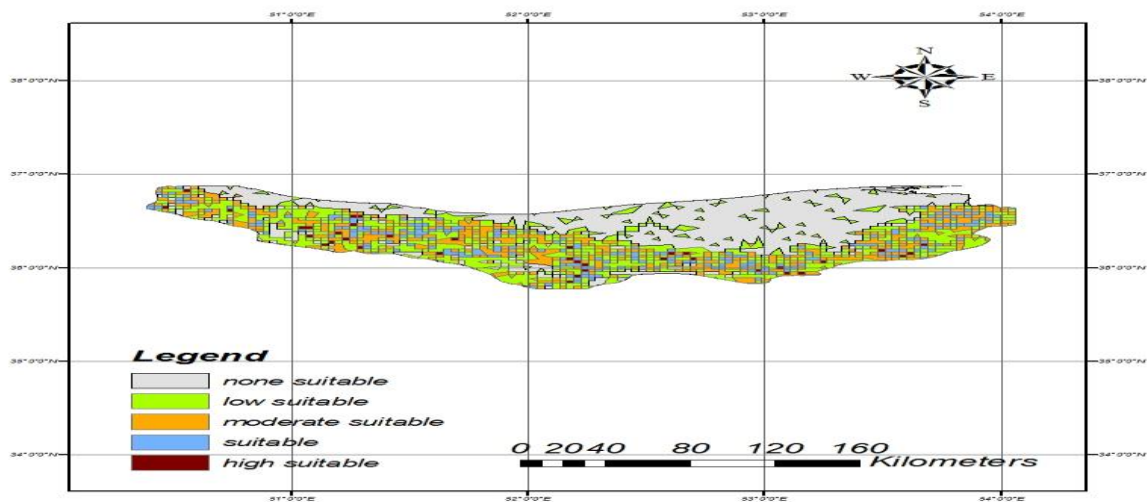


Figure3: Final map for mountain climbing camp site selection

In the case study area, the pointed criteria were combined in within systematic analysis, using index overlay (IO ) and the final map was obtained as follows.

Finally, the desired area was divided into five parts. This statistics show that the elevation and aspect, respectively, due to access to mountain environment and enjoyment of the landscape, distance from the village and road because of the way of access and enjoyment of the facilities and culture as a positive factor and slop rate due to inability to establish facility act as a negative factor.

## DISCUSSION

We used GIS processing on various criteria that were extracted for creation of mountain climbing camp in systematic analysis. In the present study, the method of index overlay (IO) was used and composition of flexibility of maps was obtained that covered the range of numbers (Habibi, 2005). After this stage, via bivariate analysis, the layers sum together, and then the areas where they had a more score, was known as priority areas for camp creation. For choosing suitable sites to establish camps based on location, these criteria were considered as an important priority:

- Elevation levels
- Slope rate
- Aspect
- Distance from the road
- Distance from the village
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Then each of these criteria according to instruction for establishing of camps was classified in the framework of systematic analysis, and each class was rated. Then the layers overlaying via functions in the GIS environment and final map were obtained, finally, the area divided to five regions respectively:

- Non suitable with an area of about 9531 km
- Low suitable with an area of about 7711 km
- Moderate suitable with an area of about 5089 km
- A suitable with an area of about 1223 km
- High suitable with an area of about 93 km

Considering the location area that the most of it is located in a plain area, we see something close to 70% of the study area is inappropriate and 30% of the regions are relatively with good conditions. In fact, 3% of the area is with excellent conditions. With having excellent nature and high place near the sea, it is very important to have very rich culture of their habitant in this place, because tourists can benefit the environment and nature by having mountains and plains and coast. Managers can be successful with decision support systems and use it in right way, because according to studies done and the results it seems that the region has the potential for establishment of camps.

Sustainable tourism could not be feasible in the macro level, but local planning actions help them to achieve the goal. Planning at this level considers the tourist's important needs. Mobilize and organize the small features and improve them can provide and develop tourism infrastructure in national and international scale. (Tavalai, 2007)

### Suggested solutions:

- Attitude and systematic analysis to recreational mountain climbing camps
- Development of tourism infrastructure, especially roads of Province
- Use of GIS as decision support systems to enhance management performance
- Development of recreational mountain climbing of Province
- Use the villages to create residential camps as places to tours tourism and recommendations for the use of these

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